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**Attitudes of the Algerian Secondary School Teachers of English towards
the In- service Professional Development Program Provided by the
Ministry of National Education
The Case of Secondary School Teachers in Jijel**

A Thesis Submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctorat Es-sciences in Applied Linguistics

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Dedication

To my beloved parents for their endless love and support,

my dear husband,

my loving sisters and brothers,

all my teachers, friends, relatives, colleagues, and students,

I dedicate this work.

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This dissertation would not have been completed without the assistance and support of many individuals.

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Abstract

Teacher professional development has proved to be a significant milestone in teachers on-going learning as well as in their career advancement. As such, it is essential to examine the current professional development models and to determine the merits and limits of each so that informed decisions regarding the necessary improvements can be made. The present study is an attempt to shed light on current teacher professional development practices in the Algerian context. It sets out to investigate the attitudes secondary school teachers of English have towards the professional development program set by the Ministry of National Education and to find out what improvements they deem necessary to render the program more effective in developing their professional knowledge and skills. To reach the research aims, a mixed method design was adopted in which multiple qualitative and quantitative data were collected using three research tools: a questionnaire administered to 90 secondary school teachers in Jijel, selected by the use of the stratified random sampling technique, an interview with two national education inspectors of secondary schools, and an observation of five teacher training seminars run by the two inspectors. Quantitative data were analyzed by the use Statistical Package for Social Sciences, whereas qualitative data were thematically analyzed. The study revealed that teachers hold varying attitudes toward the different activities which make up the program. While the teachers' attitudes towards the mentoring program and the preparatory pedagogical training program were rather negative, their attitudes towards the training seminars, the inspection visits and the internal educational seminars were positive. Such favourable attitudes, however, were not always consistent with the low level of commitment to professional development which was demonstrated by teachers. The study also revealed that teachers involvement in decision making, focus on practice, considering teachers professional development needs, frequent professional development opportunities, addressing relevant topics, online professional development opportunities, training by specialists and experts, and appropriate professional development contexts are the ways in which the teacher professional development can be improved.

List of Abbreviations

AELTPN:	Algerian English Language Teachers Professional Network
BAC:	Baccalaureate Degree
BEPC:	Brevet d'Etudes de Premier Cycle
CBA:	Competency Based Approach
CPD:	Continuing Professional Development
EFL:	English as a Foreign Language
ICT:	Information and Communication Technology
INFPE:	Institut National de Formation du Personnel de L'Education (National Institute for the Training of Education Staff)
INSET:	In-service Education and Training
JCSEE:	Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation
LMD:	Licence-Master-Doctorat
MNE:	Ministry of National Education
NIRE:	National Institute of Research in Education
OECD:	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
ONEFD:	Office National d'Enseignement et de Formation à Distance
PD:	Professional Development
PPTP:	Preparatory Pedagogical Training Program
PSTE:	Pre-service Teacher Education
TPD:	Teacher Professional Development
TTS:	Teachers Training School

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General Introduction

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General Introduction

1. Significance of the Study

The study of teachers' attitudes towards their professional development program and how such attitudes are formed is significant for a number of reasons. Firstly, defined as "the dispositions of men to view things in certain ways and to act accordingly" (Cohen, 1966, p. 341), attitudes are assumed to be predictive of conduct, and to exert a directive influence upon an individual's behaviour. That is, an enquiry into teachers' attitudes towards the teacher professional development program is presumed to enable researchers to explain why teachers react, favourably or unfavourably, towards their PD activities.

Secondly, teacher professional development in the Algerian context is a field which has yet to be thoroughly investigated. Hence, much of the importance of this study stems from the fact that it attempts to add to the existing knowledge on this issue. While the outcomes of the study may make only a modest contribution to the wider field of teacher professional development, they may also contribute to holistic understanding of the perspectives of Algerian teachers regarding their professional development program and to uncover the weaknesses inherent in such program. Hopefully, this will help bringing improvements to the program, and, consequently, designing more effective ones in the future.

2. Background of the Study

The quality of teachers and their teaching has increasingly been perceived as the most essential and critical of many factors that combine in the teaching/learning process to create overall educational quality. This latter is basically judged on the basis of the extent to which the aspired learning outcomes are attained. In fact, there is common agreement among researchers and practitioners alike that achieving the desired learning outcomes is largely dependent upon the quality of instruction teachers provide, which is highly affected by their

professional knowledge and skills. Therefore, if the goal is to improve the quality of teachers instructional practices and, by extension, to improve student achievement, then it would do well to target teachers for support and to ensure that they are provided with quality professional development opportunities.

Defined as “uptake of formal and informal learning opportunities that deepen and extend teachers’ professional competence, including knowledge, beliefs, motivation and self-regulatory skills” (Baumert & Kunter, 2006, in Krolak-Schwerdt, Glock & Böhmer, 2014, p. 98), teacher professional development is arguably the ultimate key to educational improvement. While in-service teachers can learn and acquire new skills, values, and attitudes informally through unstructured daily activities and experiences, there is still a compelling need to formal learning opportunities which are developed according to specified curricula with specified materials, resources, goals and objectives. Such opportunities are usually mapped in a structured way and form part of coherent programs.

Designing effective in-service teacher professional development programs is increasingly seen to be an indispensable step towards promoting teachers professionalism and improving the quality of their instruction. As such, questions about what features do characterize effective teacher professional development programs, how the merits and limits of such programs can be evaluated, and how their quality can be improved have received much attention among educational researchers. The focal interest has always been to render those programs more effective in meeting the intended development goals. With the ultimate goal being to improve the knowledge, skills and commitment of teachers so that they are more effective in planning lessons, using a variety of effective approaches in their teaching, monitoring students’ learning, as well as in undertaking other school and community responsibilities, it is of paramount importance that teacher professional development

programs are designed and implemented according to established standards which are generally accepted among educational researchers and practitioners in the field.

To ensure, however, that they are properly designed and implemented, and to help determine whether they are achieving the desired outcomes, teacher professional development programs should be systematically evaluated. Systematic evaluation processes, which should form an integral part of any professional development program development process, provide valuable information upon which decisions regarding the necessary changes in the program should be made. Although there exist different types of evaluation, with each designed to fulfill some different defined purposes, they all involve gathering and analyzing information on different critical levels. Indeed, in the different suggested professional development evaluation models, those levels are arranged hierarchically from simple levels to more complex ones.

Though a truly effective teacher professional development evaluation has widely been perceived as one that probes deeply into the value and the impact of the program on teachers' professional knowledge and practice and on their students learning outcomes, these higher levels can not be addressed without answering questions related to the preceding levels. This is basically due to the interdependent nature of the different levels. On this point, Guskey (2000, p. 78) argues "each higher level builds on the ones that came before. In other words, success at one level is necessary for success at the levels that follow". As such, collecting useful information at a simple level as teachers' reactions to and attitudes towards the professional development program is as important as collecting information at a higher level as the effectiveness of the professional development program itself. Indeed, assessing teachers' reactions, as argued by Guskey (2000, p. 94), is "the most common form of professional development evaluation and the level at which we have the most experience".

3. Statement of the Problem

Though a high volume of research has been conducted and reported on teacher professional development worldwide, this issue still provides an especially fertile ground for educational researchers in the Algerian context. Only few research works have been conducted as yet to examine and evaluate the professional development programs provided to teachers. A review of the related literature reveals that most of the articles and reports on the professional development of teachers of English in Algeria have been heavily focusing on one model, namely that of training seminars. While this forms a major teacher professional development model in Algeria as it is worldwide, it is not the only model adopted to improve teachers' knowledge, skills, and competencies. It represents only one part of a whole comprehensive professional development program which brings together a set of different activities each of which is designed to serve a set of well-defined goals.

As such, there actually exists a noticeable knowledge void on the in-service professional development program of teachers of English in the Algerian context. Little is known about how teachers perceive the quality of the program, what features characterize the program, what impact it has on their teaching performance, and what limitations are inherent in the program. In effect, there is a compelling need to raise and to find answers to such important questions through conducting more studies and research works.

4. Aims of the Study

This study aims at :

- Exploring secondary school teachers' attitudes towards the different professional development activities offered by the Ministry of National Education.
- Uncovering the weaknesses inherent in the teacher professional development program, as perceived by teachers.

- Suggesting ways as how such program could be improved.
- Contributing to the literature on teacher professional development in the Algerian context.

5. Research Questions and Hypotheses

The current study is guided by three questions:

1. What attitudes do in-service secondary school teachers of English have towards the different teacher professional development activities provided by the Ministry of National Education?
2. What are the limitations inherent in the professional development program of secondary school teachers of English?
3. How can in-service teacher professional development be improved according to teachers?

On the basis of the above asked questions, it can be hypothesized that:

- While teachers hold positive attitudes towards some professional development activities, their attitudes towards other activities would likely be negative.
- The limitations of the teacher professional development program may be associated with the excessive focus on theory over practice, the disconnection between the professional development activities and the teachers professional needs, and the way those activities are conducted.

6. Methodology Preview

To achieve the research aims, a mixed method approach for data collection was used. A questionnaire survey was conducted to explore secondary school teachers' attitudes towards the different professional development activities provided by the Ministry of National Education and to uncover the shortcomings inherent in the program. The questionnaire survey was further complemented by two other data collection techniques, namely an interview survey with two national education inspectors (secondary school level) and a field research

involving observation of teacher training seminars. More details concerning the methodology employed in conducting this research will be discussed in chapter four.

7. Structure of the Study

The present study is structured in two parts: a theoretical part and a practical one. The theoretical part presents a review of the literature on the topic of the study. It consists of three chapters. The opening chapter, entitled 'teacher professional development', is an initial attempt to provide background information essential to understanding the nature of teacher professional development. It first introduces and defines the concept of 'professional development' around which the remainder of the chapter is based. The chapter then describes the teacher professional development continuum, examines the growing importance of teacher professional development and addresses the key features that render it effective in enhancing teacher professional knowledge and skills. The chapter further outlines some of the major teacher professional development models, as well as the different phases of designing and delivering teacher professional development. The chapter finally describes some of the obstacles and stumbling blocks which usually constrict teacher professional development practices.

The second chapter is concerned with issues related to teacher professional development in the Algerian context. The chapter opens with a brief historical account of the development of teacher professional development, reviewing the salient changes that have characterized it over the years. Also included in this chapter is a detailed description of the current teacher professional development practices, including the various induction practices as well as those intended for teachers continuing professional development. The chapter then concludes by examining how teacher professional development has been defined and organized in the recently issued ministerial circulars.

The third chapter is organized around the basic question of teacher professional development evaluation. It starts with definitions of the key terms evaluation, program, and program evaluation, followed by a brief discussion of the basic elements of program evaluation. The chapter then addresses the different types and purposes of evaluation, and introduces the phases of professional development evaluation. The standards for effective evaluation of professional development are then outlined. The second half of the chapter focuses on the methods and the principal models of professional development evaluation. The chapter ends with an account of the limitations of past evaluations of professional development, and the major problems associated with evaluations of professional development programs.

The second part of the dissertation, the practical part, is composed of three chapters: research methodology, findings, and discussion of the findings and conclusions. The first chapter provides a detailed account of the research methodology adapted to conduct the study. It introduces the research design and elaborates on the three different research methods used: the questionnaire survey, the interview and the observation. Included in each section are discussions around the rationale, the aim, participants, the type, the implementation procedures, and the data analysis procedures for each research method.

The second chapter reports on the results obtained through the study. It is divided into three different sections presenting the results of each research method separately. It first presents the data yielded by the questionnaire survey. Then, it reports on the findings of the interview survey, and, finally, the data from the observation process are discussed.

The last chapter presents a concluding summary of the key findings tying together all that have been found through the different employed research methods. It also provides a general conclusion recapping and highlighting the important points that have been presented

in the dissertation, and culminating with answers to the research questions. The chapter further describes the limitations of the study and how they have been guarded against.

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Chapter One: Teacher Professional Development

Introduction

Teaching is an intellectual, dynamic, and creative challenging profession which depends on ongoing learning and continuing professional development. With its value being widely recognized, the issue of teacher professional development has fueled considerable research in the field of education. Hence, the aim of the present chapter is to reflect upon teacher professional development and to summarize some of its relevant issues. It starts with an attempt to define the nature of professional development as being conceptualized in the field of education, and to clarify the meaning of related terms - mainly that of teacher training and teacher education. Furthermore, the chapter traces the teacher professional development continuum, illustrates its importance, and provides insight into some of the essential features of effective teacher professional development. The chapter then continues with an analysis of the major models of teacher professional development, followed by a description of the phases of its design. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the challenges and obstacles which constrict teacher professional development practices.

1.1. Conceptualizing Teacher Professional Development

The extensive literature on teacher professional development (TPD) offers a wide range of terms and concepts which make up a longstanding debate among researchers in the field of education. While some researchers make a clear distinction between concepts such as professional development (PD), training, and teacher education, still others equate them and use them interchangeably. This diversity and complexity in the field of TPD, as argued by Guskey, (2004, p. XIII), mirrors the complexity of the teaching profession itself.

1.1.1. Teacher Training and Teacher Education

Although the concepts of teacher training and teacher education are considerably different, they are continually being used synonymously and interchangeably in the teaching community. Hence, it is worthwhile to draw a clear distinction between these two concepts.

To start with, according to Rowntree (1981, p.327), training is:

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

Similarly, Collins and O'Brien (2011, p. 471-2) define training as: "Instruction that is planned and focused on the acquisition of skills and knowledge for a specific task or purpose. The establishment of routines and habits... providing an individual with the know-how to perform a particular task". Richards and Farrell (2005, p. 3) provide a more focused definition of the concept of teacher training defining it as:

Activities directly focused on a teacher's present responsibilities and is typically aimed at short-term and immediate goals. Often it is seen as preparation for induction into a first teaching position or as preparation to take on a new teaching assignment or responsibility. Training involves understanding basic concepts and principles as a prerequisite for applying them to teaching and the ability to demonstrate principles and practices in the classroom.

Education, on the other hand, is:

The process of successful learning (usually, but not necessarily, aided by teaching) of knowledge, skills and attitudes, where what is learned is worthwhile

to the learner (in the view of whoever is using the term) and usually (in contrast with training) where it is learned in such a way that the learner can express his own individuality through what he learns and can subsequently apply it, and adapt it flexibly, to situations and problems other than those he considered in learning it (Rowntree, 1981, p. 75).

Answering the question: what does teacher education involve and how does it differ as a concept from teacher training, Widdowson (2012, p.62) formulates the distinction between the two concepts as follows:

Training is a process of preparation towards the achievement of a range of outcomes which are specified in advance. This involves the acquisition of goal-oriented behaviour which is more or less formulaic in character and whose capacity for accommodation to novelty is, therefore, very limited. Training, in this view, is directed at providing solutions to a set of predictable problems and sets a premium on unreflecting expertise. ...education on the other hand is not predicated on predictability in this way. It provides for situations which cannot be accommodated into preconceived patterns of response but which require a reformulation of ideas and the modification of established formulae.

By the same token, Obanya (2014, p. 457) asserts that the training component is simply a subset of the more all-embracing education of the teacher. He adds “While teacher training merely focuses on pedagogical skills acquisition and updating, teacher education is a much broader concept. The focus is all-round education of the teacher”. Obnaya (2014, p. 458) further illustrates the differences between teacher education and teacher training in the following table.

Table 1.1.

Teacher Training vs. Teacher Education

Focus of teacher education	Focus of teacher training
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Operates at a variety of hierarchical levels • Concerned with the overall development of the person, like any genuine education programme. • Learning to learn skills • A broad, general education base. • In-depth specialized knowledge. • Theoretical foundations of professional practice. • Reflective, research-oriented professional skills development. • Career-long self-development potentials. • A CONTINUUM – from pre-career all the way throughout-career. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Operates at a single level • Teaching skills acquisition. • Up-dating of previously acquired skills. • Re-skilling limited to 'how-to –do-it' demonstration techniques. • Usually a once-in-a-while affair. • At best, a periodic/occasional affair.

Teacher education, hence, is wider than teacher training. Education is the global concept in that it includes both the theoretical and practical components of a teacher professional preparation program. Whereas the concept 'teacher training' is confined more to "well identified" instructional activities which require "fairly standardized performance" (O'Neill, 1986, p. 259). That is, it is limited to (1) instruction in carrying out specific functions, and (2) supervised practice to develop functional skills and knowledge as in on-the-job training (Hawes and Hawes, 1982, in O'Neil, 1986, p.260).

Hills (1982, p.273) provides a different version of the two concepts. He defines them in terms of knowledge acquisition and knowledge application: "Education deals a great deal

with the *acquisition* of knowledge. Training deals more with the *application* of knowledge.

Thus, within one learning system, we can find elements of both". Collins and O'Brien (2011, p. 472) further distinguish between the two concepts stating:

In contrast to education, training is undertaken for extrinsic purposes and practical ends (e.g., career preparation), while education is intrinsically valuable and is lifelong and continuous. Moreover, while education is about the development of the mind, training frequently involves the imparting of routine, mechanized skills.

To say the least, O'Neill (1986, p. 260) reaffirms the distinction between the two terms saying:

The term education, then, includes the total intellectual, emotional, and social development of the individual. Expanded, it comprises the philosophical, professional, and pedagogical components of a teacher preparation program. Conversely, the word training is restricted more to specific, systematic, standardized, well identified, job related, results-oriented practices. Consequently, training involves activities that relate to the mechanical, technical and vocational aspects of the teaching process; activities which might be aptly labeled rote, ritualistic, or repetitive.

Ur (2000, p. 3) argues that in the field of education the term education is preferred to that of training. Training is conceived of as implying unthinking habit formation and an over-emphasis on developing the teacher's skills and techniques to achieve the specific goal of preparing for a particular function or profession. Education, conversely, refers to the "more varied and general learning that leads to the development of all aspects of the individual as a member of society". It enables teachers to develop theories, awareness of options, and decision-making abilities.

Therefore, although the terms teacher education and teacher training are often used interchangeably to refer to the professional preparation of teachers, they do not refer to the same thing. Indeed, there is “a massive difference” between them (O’Neil, 2012, p.5). Education is a broadly inclusive concept which refers to the continuous process of learning that relates both to the theoretical and practical aspects of the teaching profession. It is an intrinsically guided process the result of which is the intellectual, moral, emotional, and social development of the teacher. Training, on the other hand, refers to the learning opportunities which relate more to the practical and vocational aspect of teaching. With pre-specified outcomes, training enables teachers to acquire and enhance the skills and knowledge necessary to adequately and effectively perform a given task.

1.1.2. Definition of Professional Development

To many in the field of education the concept of PD is elusive in the extreme and, thus, it has been viewed from a variety of angles. Indeed, the related literature casts a wide net for what can be counted as PD. While some associate it with short term courses and workshops, others may describe it as ongoing learning and reflective practice (Helleve, 2010, p. 2). Therefore, as argued by Day (1997, p. 40), a clear conception is needed for determining a path for PD.

To start with, the notion of PD is composed of the terms professional and development. On the one hand, it refers to professional competence in a professional role. By professional competence, a term coined by Weinert (2001), we refer to the specific ability to cope with work-related demands:

The theoretical construct of action competence comprehensively combines those intellectual abilities, content-specific knowledge, cognitive skills, domain-specific strategies, routines and subroutines, motivational tendencies, volitional control

systems, personal value orientations, and social behaviors into a complex system.

Together, this system specifies the prerequisites required to fulfill the demands of a particular professional position. (p. 51)

On the other hand, PD refers to development towards improving this personal performance and to enhancing progress in the career (Shulman, 2005 in Roesken, 2011, p. 7). Richards and Farrell (2005, p. 4) define teacher development as:

Development generally refers to general growth not focused on a specific job. It serves a longer-term goal and seeks to facilitate growth of teachers' understanding of teaching and of themselves as teachers. It often involves examining different dimensions of a teacher's practice as a basis for reflective review.

Joyce, Howey, and Yarger (1976, p. 2) define PD as "formal and informal provisions for the improvement of educators as people, educated persons, and professionals, as well as in terms of the competence to carry out their assigned roles." Similarly, in an attempt to provide an understanding of the term, Baumert and Kunter (2006) distinguish between formal and informal learning opportunities stating: "We define professional development as uptake of formal and informal learning opportunities that deepen and extend teachers' professional competence, including knowledge, beliefs, motivation and self-regulatory skills" (in Krolak-Schwerdt, Glock & Böhmer, 2014, p.98). In the same vein, Fullan (1991, p. 326) defines PD as the sum total of the formal and informal learning experiences teachers have throughout their careers, from pre-service training to retirement. Guskey (2004, XIII), on his part, approaches the field of TPD in the same way stating that PD is "not about particular forms of activity but rather about a range of activities-formal and informal- that meet the thinking, feeling, acting, context and change purposes of teachers over the span of their careers".

Formal learning opportunities refer to intentional structured learning opportunities which are developed according to a specified curriculum with specified materials, resources, goals and objectives. In Hager and Halliday's (2009, p.1-2) words, these are learning opportunities which take place "as intended within formally constituted educational institutions such as schools, colleges, universities, training centres and so on". They are also "structured in terms of the curriculum, time required and /or learning support provided" (Slowey, 2016, p.3). Parise and Spillane (2010, p. 324) use the term formal learning opportunities to refer to subject-specific PD sessions, out-of-school teacher networks, and coursework in their subjects. In other words, formal learning refers to the type of learning provided by an educational or training institution where teachers learn following curricula which are mapped in a structured way, and have the opportunity to update and improve their knowledge and skills through external expertise in the form of courses, workshops or formal qualification programs. Hence, the content and the materials to be learned are generally created by a specified group of instructional designers.

The literature suggests that the majority of teachers' formal learning opportunities are in the form of workshops, special courses, graduate coursework, and in service days or conferences devoted to training teachers in a specific set of ideas, techniques, or materials, retreats, and courses where experts disseminate information (Desimone, Porter, Garet et al., 2002; Garet et al., 2001; Hill, 2007; Little, 1993; NCES, 2005, in Parise & Spillane, 2010, p. 325). These opportunities represent the traditional view on PD or what Little (1993, p.129) termed the 'training model' which assumes that teachers learn outside classrooms at scheduled times and are usually led by an expert seeking to train, or communicate new information to groups of teachers (Corcoran, 1995a; Feiman- Nemser, 2001, in Parise & Spillane, 2010, p. 325).

Informal learning opportunities, on the other hand, refer to activities which are not part of the teacher training process, which are not formal in nature, and which are not restricted to a highly structured classroom environment. A generic nominal definition of informal learning is the one suggested by Livingstone (1999, p. 51) who defines it as:

any activity involving the pursuit of understanding, knowledge or skill which occurs outside the curricula of educational institutions, or the courses or workshops offered by educational or social agencies...Informal learning is undertaken on one's own, either individually or collectively, without either externally imposed criteria or the presence of an institutionally authorized instructor.

According to Lohman (2000, p.43), informal learning refers to activities initiated by people in work settings that result in the development of their professional knowledge and skills. Such learning, Schurugensky (2006, p.165-6) adds, "is not organized as a pedagogical activity by an educational institution, and it can happen both outside and within educational institutions". As Trudel and Métioui(2015, p.96) state, informal learning can be characterized as follows:

- It often takes place outside educational establishments standing out from normal life and professional practice;
- It does not necessarily follow a specified curriculum and is not often professionally organized but rather originates accidentally, sporadically, in association with certain occasions, from changing practical requirements;
- It is not necessarily planned deliberately, pedagogically, systematically according to subjects, or is qualification-oriented, but rather occur incidentally, even unconsciously, holistically or problem-related, and related to situation management and fitness for life;

- It is experienced directly in its “natural” function of everyday life.

According to Schugurensky (2000, p 2), informal learning processes can be conceptualized into three categories: self-directed, incidental, and tacit learning. Self-directed learning is a conscious process that follows a prior intention to learn. It is undertaken by individuals alone or as part of a group without the assistance of an educator (teacher, instructor, facilitator), but it can include the presence of a 'resource person' who does not regard herself or himself as an educator (Schugurensky, 2000, p. 2). Incidental learning, on the other hand, takes place unintentionally from the part of the learner but becomes visible during or straight after the learning activity (Peeters, Backer, Buffel, Kindekens, Struyven, Zhu & Lombaerts, 2014, p.182). That is, it occurs when the learner did not have any previous intention of learning something out of that experience, but after the experience she or he becomes aware that some learning has taken place. Thus, it is unintentional but conscious (Schugurensky, 2000, p. 4). Incidental learning is defined by Marsick and Watkins (1990, p.12) as a byproduct of some other activity, such as task accomplishment, interpersonal interaction, sensing the organizational culture, trial-and-error experimentation, or even formal learning. It almost always takes place although people are not always conscious of it. Tacit learning, as opposed to self-directed and incidental learning, remains mostly intangible (Peeters et al. 2014, p.182). It is also referred to as socialization and refers to the internalization of values, attitudes, behaviours, skills and knowledge occurring in everyday life. Not only individuals have no a priori intention of acquiring them, but they are not aware that they learned something (Schugurensky, 2000, p.4).

In other words, informal learning can be considered as a lifelong process whereby individuals learn and acquire new skills, values and attitudes through daily activities and experiences, being related to work, family, society, or even leisure activities. It is not structured or organized as it is not provided by a formal educational or training institution,

and is in most cases unintentional from the learner's perspective. Informal learning opportunities usually embrace activities such as talking and sharing resources with others, searching the internet, and experimenting with new techniques or tools, reading books, watching television, visiting libraries, attending public lectures, volunteering, observing and learning from family, friends and co-workers, on-the-job learning, engaging in workplace mentoring, and learning through trial and error.

Clarke (as cited in Roesken, 2011, p. 8) approaches the notion of PD in a different way. He defines it emphasizing the change it brings in teachers. According to him, it refers to "any activity or process intended to change any combination of the following: teachers' beliefs and attitudes, teachers' knowledge and teachers' classroom practice". Slightly different, Guskey (2000, p.16) defines it as "those processes and activities designed to enhance the professional knowledge, skills, and attitudes of educators so that they might in turn, improve the learning of students". Another definition and an encompassing one which best highlights and elaborates on teachers' continuous professional learning within a context of change is given by Day (1999, p.27). According to Day,

Professional development consists of all natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group or school, which constitute, through these, to the quality of education in the classroom. It is the process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purposes of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues throughout each phase of their teaching lives.

Hence, as Wilson and Berne (1990, p.173) aptly sum it up: “professional teachers require professional development”. And teachers, as human beings, as Day (1990, p.2) further claims, can not be developed passively. They develop actively. Thus, all what can be done is providing opportunities for teachers to change (Sullivan, 2007, p.152).

To say the least, PD can be defined as all the learning opportunities designed to enhance teachers' professional competence including knowledge, beliefs, motivations, attitudes, skills, expertise as well as practice and performance which can be provided in various ways ranging from the formal to the informal, and which in a way or in another result in improvement in the students' learning.

Recently, there has been a change in terminology in the field of educational research. For instance, what was once referred to as ‘teacher training’ has now come to be known as ‘teacher development’ (Crandall & Christison, 2016, p, 6). Moreover, the term PD has become “a new ‘container concept’ in the educational research discourse”(Kelchtermans, 2004, p.217), and “an umbrella term for many types of activities and settings” (Sowder ,2007, p.173).

The term PD is often used in a broad sense encompassing the procedural aspects of teacher education. As Craft (2002, p.9) argues, it refers to “all types of learning undertaken by teachers beyond the point of their initial training”. Similarly, Day and Sachs (2004, p.3) use it to describe “all activities in which teachers engage during the course of a career which are designed to enhance their work”. Hence, a useful working definition is the one offered by Bolam (as cited in Glover & Law, 1996, p.3) which assumes that CPD embodies three components:

- (1) professional training: short courses, conferences and workshops, largely focused on practice and skills;

- (2) Professional education: longer courses and/or secondments, focused on theory and research-based knowledge; and
- (3) Professional support; job-embedded arrangements/procedures.

1.2. Teacher Professional Development Continuum

“Becoming a teacher is a journey that begins during preservice education and spans the teaching career” (Brock & Grady, 2007, p.120). It’s, indeed, a complex journey of ongoing learning and CPD through which teachers are to improve their professional skills, knowledge, and teaching practice. Teachers’ learning is a lifelong process which needs to be structured according to the stages of a teacher’s career. Indeed, it is perceived as a continuum that includes three consecutive stages which are “indispensable and, although separate, interrelated” (Hartley & Whitehead, 2006, p.321). These are initial pre-service teacher education (PSTE), induction into the profession, and in-service CPD (Tannehill, Van Der Mars, & Macphail, 2015, p. 364).

Pre-service teacher education is the first step towards developing a teacher as a professional. It refers to the initial professional preparation a teacher receives before they have undertaken any teaching that generally takes place in institutions of higher education. According to Bransford, Darling-Hammond, and LePage (2005, p.3), the aim of pre-service teacher education programs is to prepare graduates or student teachers to become quality teachers equipped with pedagogical practices that will serve to meet the increasing demands associated with the teaching profession.

Pre-service teacher education takes different shapes and forms and varies dramatically around the world in such aspects as institutional context, content areas, time allocation and forms of practical experiences. Yet, as Hauge (2000, p.159) argues, learning to teach is agreed to be personal (as it depends on the students’ personal learning history, their pre-conceptions

and beliefs about learning and teaching), complex (because of the variety of skills and competences that have to be learned) and context-specific.

The nature of PSTE is shaped by different conceptual orientations to teaching and teacher education. The conceptual framework proposed by Feiman-Nemser (as cited in Calderhead & Shorrock, 1997, p. 2-3), for example, consists of five components: the, academic, practical, technical, personal, and critical orientation.

- The academic orientation focuses the prospective teachers' subject expertise and sees the quality of the teachers' own subject matter knowledge as their professional strength.
- The practical orientation emphasizes the artistry and classroom technique of the prospective teacher. This view attaches the importance to classroom experience and apprenticeship models of learning to teach.
- The technical orientation takes into account the knowledge and behavioral skills that teachers require. It is derived from the behaviorist model of teaching and learning.
- The personal orientation emphasizes the importance of interpersonal relations in the classroom and views learning to teach as personal development within a safe environment that encourages exploration and discovery of personal strengths.
- The critical orientation focuses on the extent to which the teachers were able to blend theory into practice and become more critical and reflective.

The second phase teachers go through towards becoming professionals is the induction phase. As Feiman-Nemser, Schwille, Carver and Yusko (1999, p. 5) argue, the notion of 'induction' can be construed in different ways. First, it underscores the special character of the first encounter with "real" teaching. That is, it coincides with the first year(s) of teaching which are considered an intense and formative stage in teaching and learning to teach. Second, it highlights the pivotal position of the induction phase in a broader continuum of

teacher preparation and development. In other words, the induction phase refers to the transitional period between pre-service preparation and CPD, encompassing the first few years of teaching (Huling-Austin, Odell, Ishler, Kay, & Edelfelt, 1989, p.3). It is, hence, construed as a time of transition when teachers are moving from preparation to practice (Feiman-Nemser et al., 1999, p. 4).

In an attempt to provide a precise definition of 'induction', Wong (2004, p.42) offers the following description:

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

Smith and Ingersoll (2004, p. 682-683) define 'teacher induction' comparing it to pre-service and in-service teacher training. They state that:

Teacher induction...is distinct from both pre-service and in-service teacher training. Pre-service refers to the training and preparation candidates receive before employment (including clinical training such as student teaching). In-service refers to periodic upgrading and additional training received on the job during employment. Theoretically, teacher induction programs are not additional training programs per se, but are designed for teachers who have already completed basic training. These programs are often conceived as a bridge enabling the 'student of teaching' to become a 'teacher of students'.

Hence, the goals of induction programs which are basically designed to assist beginning teachers should be different from those of pre and in-service ones. According to Odel (as cited

in Huling-Austin et al. 1989, p.20-1), the most common goals of teachers' induction programs are:

- To provide continuing assistance to reduce the problems known to be common to beginning teachers,
- to support development of the knowledge and the skills needed by beginners to be successful in their initial teaching positions,
- to integrate beginning teachers into the social system of the school, the school district, and the community,
- to provide an opportunity for beginning teachers to analyze and reflect on their teaching with coaching from veteran support teachers,
- to initiate and build a foundation with new teachers for the continued study of teaching,
- to increase the positive attitudes of beginning teachers about teaching, and
- to increase the retention of good beginning teachers in the profession.

During their first three years of teaching, induction teachers have to cope with different common challenges which are associated with the early years on the job. At the top of the list of most serious challenges is having limited experience and practical knowledge, dealing with the problem of classroom discipline along with student motivation, dealing with individual differences, assessing student work, and relating to parents (Veenman ,1984, p.160).

As Wildman, Niles, Magliaro and McLaughlin (1989, p.471) argue, new teachers have two jobs to do: they have to teach and they have to learn to teach. Feiman-Nemser and Remillard (1995, p.64) align themselves with this idea asserting that teachers can learn about teaching in various contexts, including the university, but they cannot learn to teach outside of practice. Hence, there is an inevitable need to help novices connect the "text" of pre-service preparation to the "contexts" of contemporary classrooms (Dalton & Moir, 1996, pp.126-133).

That is why it is of crucial importance to provide new teachers with effective formal induction programs which in addition to the teachers' informal learning will help improve the quality of teaching. An argument supported by Bush (1983) who argues:

...the conditions under which a person carries out the first years of teaching have a strong influence on the level of effectiveness which that teacher is able to achieve and sustain over the years; on the attitudes which govern teachers' behavior over even a forty year career; and, indeed, in the decision whether or not to continue in the teaching profession (as cited in Feiman-Nemser et al., 1999, p. 6).

The third phase of the TPD continuum is the in-service teacher-education and training (INSET). The term 'in-service education' is usually used to denote efforts to improve practicing teachers' professional competences throughout their careers. It includes all the activities a teacher may participate in to improve his professional knowledge, attitudes, and skills. According to Gall and Renschler (1985, p.6), INSET refers to "efforts to improve teachers' capacity to function as effective professionals by having them learn new knowledge, attitudes, or skills". Similarly, Bolam (as cited in Dikilitas & Irten, 2017, p.166) refers to INSET of teachers as:

the education and training activities engaged in by primary and secondary school teachers and principals, following their initial professional certification, and intended mainly or exclusively to improve their professional knowledge, skills and attitudes in order that they can educate children more effectively.

Hence, in-service teachers PD can serve a number of objectives including:

- to update individuals' knowledge of a subject in light of recent advances in the area;
- to update individuals' skills, attitudes and approaches in light of the development of new teaching technique and objectives, new circumstances and new educational research;

- to enable individuals to apply centrally-led changes in curricula or other aspects of teaching practice;
- to enable schools to develop and apply new strategies concerning the curriculum and other aspects of teaching practice;
- to exchange information and expertise among teachers and others, e.g. academics , industrialists; and
- to help weaker teachers enhance their effectiveness.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (1998, p.33-4)

There is a need, thus, to equip teachers with requisite knowledge, understanding, skills, attitudes and interests through providing them the opportunity to participate in different planned and organized INSET programs. Indeed, there are sound reasons for emphasizing this need for INSET programs for teachers. Leonard in his article 'learning is lifelong' stated the following reasons:

- Learning is a lifelong process and no formal training in an institution can fully prepare a person for professional services.
- In the area of teaching, new investigations are constantly revising our ideas of how and what to teach.
- All individuals have the tendency to repeat experiences and teachers especially have a tendency to teach as they were taught.

To put it in a nutshell, teacher PD is a continuum; a continuous process the components of which are complimentary to each other. While pre-service education relates to the theoretical education students of teaching receive prior to employment in schools, in-service training refers to the training teachers of students receive on the job, during employment. And

the bridge between these two ends is the induction phase which relates to the organized plan for support and development of new teachers in the initial one to three years of service.

1.3. Importance of Teacher Professional Development

Teacher professional development has recently received considerable attention in the field of education research. As claimed by Guskey (2000, p. 3), “Never before in the history of education has greater importance been attached to the professional development of educators”. The reasons behind this recognition of the importance of TPD are clear. They are related to the significant positive impact the PD process has on teachers’ beliefs, knowledge, skills and practices; on student’s learning and achievement; and on the implementation of any educational reform. As argued by Stern, Gerritz and Little (1989, p. 369), engaging teachers in PD activities is an investment in time, materials, and facilities. This investment, Biejaard, Meijer, Morine-Dersheimer, and Tillema, (2005, p. 214) further explain,

has targeted outcomes, such as changes in teachers’ knowledge, implementation of a particular curriculum, and improvements in student achievement. However, broader outcomes of importance to teachers might include psychological and motivational effects on teachers’ professional commitment and career prospect enhancement.

To start with, effective PD experiences have a noticeable impact on teachers’ knowledge, skills and practices. Pre-service teachers learn about teaching in different educational institutions like universities and colleges, but these institutions can’t provide them with the necessary experiences and skills to become effective in their roles as teachers. However, once they are employed, they learn through experience. And given the complexity of the teaching profession, they confront great challenges every year, particularly in the first few years. Among these challenges are the changes in the subject content, the new

instructional methods and strategies, advances in technology, changed laws and procedures and students learning needs (Mizell, 2010, p. 6). And herein lies the importance of PD; in the opportunities provided to teachers to expand their knowledge and to improve their skills and practices.

Teachers live in a climate of change; things in the education world appear to be in a state of flux. The knowledge base in nearly every subject area or academic discipline is growing rapidly, and so, too, is the knowledge base in education (Guskey, 2000, p. 3). Hence, if teachers are to implement the best and the most effective teaching practices, they have to continually expand and update their knowledge and skills. In this regard, Guskey (2000, p. 3) states:

As these knowledge bases expand, new types of expertise are required of educators at all levels. Like practitioners in other professional fields, educators must keep abreast of this emerging knowledge and must be prepared to use it to continually refine their conceptual and craft skills.

One of the main criteria for evaluating and determining the quality of any educational system is students learning and achievement. The latter is directly linked with TPD. Indeed, the findings of different studies (McCutchen & colleagues 2009, Yoon & colleagues 2008, Bell, Wilson, Higgins, & McCoach 2010, etc.) have confirmed the effect of intensive and sustained TPD experiences on students' achievement.

According to Yoon, Duncan, Lee, Scarloss, and Shapley (2007, p.4), PD affects student achievement through three steps. In the first step, PD enhances teachers' knowledge, skills, and motivation. However, for this to happen, the PD must be of high quality in its theory of action, planning, design, and implementation. Citing different authors (Ball &

Cohen, Hiebert & Grouws, Guskey, etc.) Yoon et al. identify the following characteristics of PD that best relate to changes in teachers' knowledge and skills:

- It should be based on a carefully constructed and empirically validated theory of teacher learning and change.
- It should promote and extend effective curricula and instructional models-or materials based on a well defined and valid theory of action.
- It should be intensive, sustained, content-focused, coherent, well defined, and strongly implemented.

In the second step, better knowledge, skills, and motivation improve classroom teaching. Teachers apply their enhanced knowledge, the skills they developed, and the motivation and the attitudes they adapt to classroom teaching. Thus, the result will be better teaching instruction and more effective teaching practices. In a study examining the impact of PD on teachers' classroom practice over a three-year period, Desimone et al. (as cited in Beijaard, et al. 2005, p. 215) found that collective participation of teachers from the same school, opportunities for active learning, and linkages to other professional development were all characteristics that were effective in leading to sustained changes in teachers' classroom practice. In the third step, improved teaching which is the result of effective teacher PD raises students' achievement. Hence, teacher PD has a direct effect on teachers and an indirect effect on students.

As Yoon et al. (2008, p. 4) argue, there is a direct link between these three steps. That is to say, if one of these links is weak or missing, the link between teachers PD and student achievement can not be established. Hence, better student achievement can not be expected. They further explain:

If a teacher fails to apply new ideas from professional development to classroom instruction, for example, students will not benefit from the teacher's professional development. In other words, the effect of PD on student learning is possible through two mediating outcomes: teachers' learning, and instruction in the classroom.

Answering the question of whether there are common PD elements shared by successful initiatives that have produced demonstrable evidence of improved student learning, Guskey (2000, p. 36-8) suggests four systemically interconnected principles, which he says, are clear, consistent, and appear to be integral to the process of improving results.

- Have a clear focus on learners and learning: PD should center primarily on issues related to learning and learners; emphasizing important and worthwhile student learning is the principal goal.
- Focus on both individual and organizational change: Principals, administrators and teachers should collaborate to achieve the shared purpose of continuous improvement of teachers and of the whole school.
- Make small changes guided by a grand vision: This aspect of PD also has been described as "Think big, but start small" (Guskey, 1995). The change involved is dynamic and large scale, but in practice it is implemented through a series of smaller steps (Gephart, 1995).
- Provide ongoing professional development that is procedurally embedded: because PD is an ongoing activity which is integral to all learning environments and is embedded in the practices of every teacher's professional life.

The importance of TPD lies also in the great influence it has on the implementation of any educational reform. Indeed, there exists a mutual relation between the two. As stated by Bates, Swennen and Jones (2011, p.372),

Teachers' professional development and educational reform are reciprocal. Teachers' professional development cannot succeed isolated from major educational reform, or without policy and organizational support, because changes need contexts and conditions (Villegas-Reimers, 2003). Equally truly, educational reform will not succeed without teachers' involvement and their successful professional development.

Teachers, hence, are key players in any educational reform movement. The success or failure of any educational reform depends to a large extent on the teachers' ability to execute and implement it. As a matter of fact, many reform efforts in the past have been unsuccessful because they didn't take teachers' existing knowledge, opinions, beliefs and attitudes into account. Teachers have been regarded as passive receivers "executing the innovative ideas of others (policy makers, curriculum designers, researchers and the like)" (Van Driel, 2014, p. 149) instead of active participants in the reform process. Bates et al. (2011, p.372) side with this argument claiming:

In education reforms, teachers have often been considered passive receivers and implementers instead of active agents. Teachers' opinions have been ignored in the planning of reforms and professional development programs; thus, teachers have been confused, frustrated and angry, and have perceived reform as a hindrance...Some teaching reforms have failed in some countries due to teachers' insufficient knowledge and understanding of the proposed change, and their beliefs and attitudes towards the reformed curriculum (Van Driel et al. 2001). In

contrast, those educational reforms that have been “centered around teachers’ professional development” have seen a success.

The teachers’ role in any reform process is of crucial importance. Indeed, the idea that teachers are the most influential factor in educational change is not controversial (Van Driel, Verloop, Van Werven & Dekkers, 1997, p.105). Any project or effort to reform or innovate a curriculum should place teachers and their PD centre-stage. After all, any curriculum - be it an existing one or a newly developed one - is not static. It is shaped by teachers through their actions and practices. It’s the teachers’ role to make decisions and necessary adjustments to ensure “that the ideas and skills they hope to teach are made accessible to students” (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005, p. 175).

Thus, for an educational reform to succeed, teachers should manage to implement the innovation in a way that is accordant with the intentions of those who developed it. Teachers’ knowledge, views, beliefs and attitudes exert a huge influence on how they act in response to the proposed change. That is, if they do not come to hold positive beliefs and attitudes towards the new curriculum, or if they do not have sufficient knowledge and understanding of the new content, new techniques or methods, teachers will neither be able to adapt their teaching practices nor to change their behaviors in classroom; they will, hence, fail to meet the desirable change and the reform will deem to be a failure. Indeed, it is through effective PD programs that teachers come to do so.

1.4. Features of Effective Professional Development

The failure of traditional TPD programs in producing the intended outcomes has led researchers to raise the question of what constitutes effective PD. “Effective” or “high-quality” TPD is defined as “that which results in improvements in teachers’ knowledge and instruction and improvements in student learning” because “while the impact on students

achievement is frequently viewed as the key indicator of the effectiveness of PD, the influence of PD on teacher knowledge and classroom instructional practice is also essential, as these are results that must precede increased learning for students” (Murray, 2014, p. 9-10).

The literature on TPD casts a wide range of lists describing the different characteristics that effective PD exhibits. In their efforts to identify such characteristics, different researchers such as Corcoran (1995), Hawley and Valli (1996), Loucks-Horsley, Stiles and Hewson (1996), Birman, Desimone, Porter and Garet (2000), Kent and Lingman (2000), Terzian (2000), Wenglinsky (2002) among others, have offered an assortment of lists including a variety of elements which contribute to high-quality, effective PD opportunities for teachers.

The essential ones are the following:

1.4.1. Focus on Content and Pedagogical Knowledge

Increasing teachers' content and pedagogical knowledge is by far one of the most frequently listed characteristics of effective PD (Guskey, 2003, p. 9). This characteristic, as argued by Schneider and Randel (2010, p. 263), includes: (1) increasing teachers' knowledge of the content they teach, (2) increasing teachers' knowledge of how to teach a specific content area (i. e. pedagogical content knowledge); and (3) increasing teachers' understanding of the way in which students learn the content. This assertion has extensively been agreed upon by many researchers among them Guskey (2003, p. 749) who claims that: “ Helping teachers to understand more deeply the content they teach and the ways students learn that content appears to be a vital dimension of effective professional development”, and Hiebert et al. (1996, p. 16) who argue that two forms of knowledge are required: “ knowledge of the subject to select tasks that encourage students to wrestle with key ideas and knowledge of students' thinking to select tasks that link with students' experience and for which students can see the relevance of the ideas and skills they already possess” . Based on teachers' views of effective PD, the American Federation of Teachers (2008, p. 3- 4), states that, in addition

to other characteristics, TPD should deepen and broaden knowledge of content, should provide a strong foundation in the pedagogy of particular disciplines, and should provide knowledge about the teaching and learning processes.

That is to say, for a PD program to be successful, it should provide teachers with the opportunity to enhance their knowledge and to deepen their understanding not only of the subject matter, but also of how students learn that subject matter. Addressing, hence, content-area knowledge as well as the pedagogical practices of teachers should be the cornerstone of any PD program.

1.4.2. Extending Over Time

Allowing teachers ample time is another important characteristic of effective PD programs. As argued by Guskey (2003, p. 11), teachers obviously need time to deepen their understanding, analyze students' work, and develop new approaches to instruction.

According to Schneider and Randel (2010, p. 264), time as related to PD, has two main components: contact hours and duration.

Contact hours include all the time teachers spend in the professional development activities, (workshops or lectures, self-study, meeting with colleagues, and applying the practices and techniques under study). Contact hours can range from only a few hours for a workshop to 50 or more hours for a more comprehensive program. Duration refers to the span of time over which the contact hours are spent. This may involve days, weeks, or months.

Although most researchers agree that effective PD requires time, there is still an inconsistency regarding the impact of contact hours and duration on teachers' practices and students' learning. While some research findings (Wenglinsky, 2002; Kennedy, 1998) showed that there is no significant correlation between changes in teachers' instructional practices and

the number of contact hours, others (Birman et al., 2000; Ingvarson, Meiers, & Beavis, 2005) suggested that duration has an impact on teachers' knowledge and practices, and hence, a positive effect on students' achievement. These inconsistent findings, Schneider and Randel (2010, p. 264) argue, underscore the importance of how time is used.

To put it in a nutshell, although research has not indicated an exact “tipping point” for duration needed for effective PD, it shows that intellectual and pedagogical change requires PD activities to be of sufficient duration (as recommended by Desimone (2009, p. 184), a 20-hour minimum of contact hours, over at least four to five months). Teachers need sufficient time not only to get new content and gain new knowledge, but also to reflect on the subject matter and apply in the class what they have learned (Garet et al., 2001). Teachers need time to develop, refine, and polish new practices. They need it to collaboratively reflect on and understand the PD content, to explore its applications, to integrate the new understandings into work, to practice the new skills and techniques, to receive feedback, and to see whether the desired change has been brought about. However, providing sufficient time, as Timperley (2008, p. 15) concludes, is necessary but not sufficient. Louks-Horsley, Stiles, Mundry, Love, and Hewson (2010, p. 122) add:

The issue, however, is not just making time for professional development but assessing how time is used, allocated, and distributed throughout the academic year. Simply making more time does not ensure more effective professional development opportunities for teachers. It is also essential to use time in creative and unique ways to provide diverse and productive learning opportunities for teachers.

The time devoted to teachers' PD, hence, must be well-organized, carefully structured, and purposefully directed (Guskey, 2003, p. 749).

1.4.3. Incorporating Opportunities for Active Learning

Another core feature of effective PD is providing opportunities for teachers to engage in active learning. Listening to a lecture, which is a common characteristic of passive learning, often does not yield the intended results. It doesn't help bringing about change in teachers' practices. What teachers need, indeed, are more opportunities for active learning where they share expertise, learn through practice, and engage in meaningful discussions with members of the teaching community.

Active learning can take a variety of forms. According to Caena (2011, p. 12), active learning should include opportunities for reciprocal observation, co-planning and co-teaching, as well as presenting, leading or writing activities. In this way, Caena added, teachers can have powerful understandings of the subjects they teach, of students' thinking, and of effective instructional practices. Garet and his colleagues (2001, p. 925-6) discussed the issue of active learning focusing in particular on four dimensions. These are:

- Observing and being observed: teachers need the opportunity to observe expert teachers, to be observed teaching in their own classroom, and to obtain feedback. These opportunities can take a number of forms, including providing feedback on videotaped lessons, having teachers visit each other's classrooms to observe lessons, and having activity leaders observe classroom teachers and engage in reflective discussions about the goals of a lesson, the tasks employed, teaching strategies, and students' learning.
- Planning classroom implementation: teachers should have the opportunity to link the ideas introduced during PD activities to their teaching contexts. New approaches may have different implications depending on the curriculum, the textbook adopted, the required assessments as well as the characteristics of the students enrolled in the teachers' classrooms.

- Reviewing student work: the opportunity to examine and review student work is another element of active learning through which teachers may gain an understanding of students' assumptions, reasoning and solution strategies. This, also, may help teachers develop skills in diagnosing student problems and designing lessons at an appropriate level of difficulty.
- Presenting, leading, and writing: PD activities may also offer teachers the opportunity to give presentations, lead discussions, and produce written work. This kind of active participation may result in improved outcomes by giving teachers the opportunity to delve more deeply into the substantive issues introduced.

1.4.4. Promoting Collegiality and Collaboration

The promotion of collegiality and collaborative exchange is another critical feature of effective PD. As Guskey (2003, p. 749) argues, "Educators at all levels value opportunities to work together, reflect on their practices, exchange ideas, and share strategies". Lindstrom and Specks (2004, p.15) stress the need for collaborative settings stating: "professional development must be founded on a sense of collegiality and collaboration among teachers, other staff, and the principal, which becomes the essence of the school culture".

The argument that collective approaches to PD have a positive effect on teachers has been supported by many researchers and agencies. Among them: Darling-Hammond and Richardson (2009); General Teaching Council UK (2005); Ingvarson, Meiers and Beavis (2005); Perez et al.(2007); and Teddlie and Reynolds (2000) (as cited in Caena, 2011, p. 13) who assert that collaborative PD turns out to be more effective than individual PD:

- to promote changes in teachers' practices, attitudes or beliefs;
- for changes in teachers' classroom behaviors, as well as in their attitudes to professional development ;

- for improvements in pupils' learning, and changes in their behavior and attitudes;
- collective work provides a basis for inquiry and reflection, to raise issues, take risks and address dilemmas in teachers' practice, opening avenues for 'de-privatising' teachers' practice;
- collegial learning in trusting environments helps develop communities of practice to promote school change beyond the individual classroom;
- a staff culture involving mutual learning, monitoring and commitment to collaboration is found to be a key feature of effective schools;
- fair uniformity of effective teacher behaviors, as linked with good socialization processes within schools, seems to be a recurring characteristic of effective schools.

However, not any form of collaboration is beneficial to teachers. In some cases the result may just be inhibiting teachers' progress. Hence, for collaboration to bring its intended benefits, Guskey (2003, p. 749) asserts, it, too, needs to be structured and purposeful, with efforts guided by clear goals for improving student learning.

1. 4. 5. Coherence

Another feature of effective TPD has to do with coherence. That is, it concerns "the extent to which professional development activities are perceived by teachers to be a part of a coherent program of teacher learning" (Garet et al. , 2001, p. 927). According to Garet et al., there are three important aspects of a coherent teacher PD program which relate to:

- Connections with goals and other activities: PD activities should be consistent with the teacher's goals for PD. It should be based on earlier activities i.e. on what teachers have learned in earlier PD experiences, and should be followed up with later, more advanced work.

- Alignment with state and district standards and assessments: this aspect concerns the alignment of the content and pedagogy emphasized in the activities with national, state, and local frameworks, standards and assessments.
- Communication with others: this concerns the ways in which PD activities encourage professional communication among teachers who are trying to change their teaching in similar ways. An ongoing discussion among teachers can facilitate change by encouraging the sharing of solutions to problems, sharing methods, discussing written works, and sustaining motivation.

1.4. 6. Guided by Clearly Articulated and Specific Objectives

“True professional development is a deliberate process, guided by a clear vision of purposes and planned goals”, Guskey (2000, p. 17) argues. PD is not, and should not be perceived as, a set of disconnected, randomly selected activities without clear purposes. Indeed, it is a purposeful process which has to start with some well-defined and clearly-stated purposes and goals. Indeed, the findings of the study conducted by Zaslow et al. (as cited in English and Kirshner, 2016, p. 177) showed that the effects of the PD were stronger when the goals were specific rather than open-ended and were clearly articulated and communicated to the participants of the PD program. These goals form, as Guskey, adds, “the criteria by which content and materials are selected, processes and procedures developed, and assessments and evaluations prepared” (2000, p. 17). However, for PD to be intentional, Guskey, recommends the following steps:

- Begin with a clear statement of purposes and goals: The goals of PD should be explicit especially in terms of the classroom or school practices that we hope to be implemented and the results we would like to attain in terms of students; that is, the intended outcomes.

- Ensure that the goals are worthwhile: the goals of PD should be worthwhile in the sense that they are considered important by all those involved in the professional development program.
- Determine how the goals can be assessed: what evidence or indicators would we trust in determining if the goals are attained or not should also be decided upfront.

1.4.7. Use of Multiple Activities that are Responsive to Teachers' Needs and Goals

The effectiveness of a PD program for teachers depends also on the way the instruction is planned, designed and delivered. Although the traditional forms of PD such as the workshop, institutes courses, seminars and conferences are the most common ones; they are still the most criticized in the literature. They are criticized as being “ineffective in providing teachers with sufficient time, activities, and content necessary for increasing teacher’s knowledge and fostering meaningful changes in their classroom practice” (Loucks-Horsley, Hewson, Love & Stiles, as cited in Garet et al, 2001, p. 920). Consequently, in recent years, educational settings have witnessed a growing interest in other forms of PD, such as coaching, mentoring, small learning communities and networking, which are deemed to be:

more responsive to how teachers learn (Ball, 1996), and may have more influence on changing teaching practice (Darling-Hammond, 1995, 1996; Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992; Little, 1993; Richardson, 1994; Sparsk & Loucks-Horsley, 1989; Sparrsk, Loucks-Horsley & Hewson, 1989)...and may be more responsive to teachers’ needs and goals (Darling-Hammond, 1997)

(cited in Garet et al, 2001, p. 921)

1.4.8. Inclusion of Specific Evaluation Procedures

Having ongoing and systemic evaluation procedures is another essential characteristic of effective PD activities. The aim behind including evaluation components is to collect sound

information about the effectiveness of the methods and procedures being used, to determine whether the intended goals of a PD program have been achieved, and, hence, to make decisions about needed changes. Supporting this argument, Louks-Horsley, Styles, and Hewson (1996, p. 3) assert: “professional development programs must constantly be reviewed in order to: (1) determine participant satisfaction and engagement, and to make short-term adjustments. (2) Evaluate the longer-term impact on teacher effectiveness, student learning, leadership, and the school community”. This emphasis on including such evaluation procedures, Guskey (2000, p. 12) claims, “may stem from growing awareness among educators at all levels of the need to gather regular formative information to guide their improvement efforts”. Regarding this issue, The National Research Council (1996, p.75) states that:

If program planners include evaluation in program design, they will find that it will help them to:

- Define specific, realistic, important and measurable program goals.
- Identify content and process skills that are appropriate for teachers and their students.
- Choose instructional strategies and follow-up activities that are consistent with the objectives of the program and reinforce core concepts.
- Establish mechanisms for receiving continuing participant feedback.
- Establish, before the program begins, procedures and instruments for collecting overall program-evaluation data.
- Examine a program’s cost effectiveness or efficiency.

Loucks and Melle (1982) note that: “most staff development reports are simply statements of participant satisfaction.” The issue, however, is not whether teachers are satisfied with a particular DP experience-but rather what effect PD has on teachers knowledge and practice and on students achievement (Guskey, 2000, p.9).

1.4.9. Engaging the Hearts and Heads of Teachers

If a TPD program is to be effective, it should also be supportive. That is, it should support teachers' motivation and commitment to learn. This psychological factor is perceived as a prerequisite for linking TPD and school development (Caena, 2011, p. 4). Peery (2004, as cited in Hindman, Grant, & Stronge, 2013, p. 41) argues that TPD should “engage the hearts and heads of educators in order to keep teachers engaged in active learning”. Rodrigues (2004, p. 5) adds: “teacher professional development has to be of intrinsic value to individual teachers if it is to influence teaching”. Discussing this issue, Hunzicker (2010, p. 3) claims:

- Teachers' personal and professional needs should be considered (Flores, 2005; Loucks-Horsley & Stiegelbauer, 1991),
- Their individual learning styles and preferences should be accommodated (NSCD, 2009a; Tate, 2009).
- TPD should integrate teacher input regarding what and how they will learn (Lieberman & Pointer Mace, 2008)
- TPD should also integrate teacher choice regarding learning pace and direction (Fritz, 2000; NSCD, 2009a; Porter et al., 2003).

That is to say, for teachers to benefit from TPD opportunities, they have to be motivated to attend, to participate, and to engage in these PD experiences as well as to establish a strong commitment to this learning process. To this end, teachers' needs, learning styles, preferences, pace and direction should be taken into consideration when designing and implementing PD programs.

1.4.10. Job-embedded and Practice-focused

Keeping PD for teachers job-embedded is another characteristic of effective PD. Zepeda (2015, p.2) once defines PD as “learning nestled in the daily arrangements of teaching and the work day”. In other words, PD is job-embedded learning. The term “job-embedded

professional development” is used to describe a direct connection between teachers’ work in the classroom and the PD teachers are provided (DiPaola & Hoy, 2014, p. 165). Indeed, what teachers perceive as relevant PD experiences are those which directly address their specific needs and concerns (Guskey, 1995), or those which they see are connected to their daily responsibilities (Flores, 2005; Tate, 2009, in Hunzicker, 2010, p. 4). As argued by Murray (2014, p. 16), “job-embedded professional learning supports the kind of context-specific teacher learning that is most effective in bringing about teacher, student, and school improvements”.

Successful PD for teachers is also practice-focused. That is, the focus should be on the practice; on working in classrooms and with students. This approach, as Bruce, Esmonde, Ross, Gookie, and Beatty (as cited in English and Kirshner, 2016, p. 177) claim, “stands in contrast to a more traditional knowledge-based approach to professional development, where the underlying assumption is that teachers will simply and successfully translate the context-void knowledge into their classroom practice”. An example of the features of this approach is “coaching” wherein “an experienced educator/ researcher, part of the PD research team, supports individual teachers by modeling teaching, coteaching, and providing feedback through shared reflection... This kind of coaching can happen on-site or through technology” (English & Kirshner, 2016, p. 177).

1.4.11. Rooted in and Reflecting the Best Available Research

Professional development programs for teachers should be research and evidence based. It should be rooted in effective PD practices. Deciding on the “what” and “how” of a PD program, that is selecting the content and the way of delivering it to the participants in a PD program, should be grounded in knowledge about the teaching profession, and based on sound research about PD of teachers as well as adult learning theories. “Effective professional

development, which models the kinds of strategies that research finds effective for learning, strengthens the ability of classroom teachers to implement those strategies” (American Federation of Teachers, 2008, p. 5).

1.5. Major Models of Professional Development

A model as defined by Joyce and Calhoun (2010, p. 3) is “a prototype, a pattern, that in education, can be used to create an environment for learning. A model takes on aspects of the ideal: at least a good way of doing things, though not the only way”. Through history, a myriad of TPD models have been suggested and adapted in different educational contexts. Each of which differs in terms of the processes and the procedures, but all of these models share a common aim which is to generate learning opportunities to teachers to enhance their professional knowledge and skills, support them, and provide avenues for them to grow and develop professionally.

The limitations of the traditional models of TPD in addition to the new views of PD have led educators to suggest new TPD models and designs. While there is not total agreement on the major models of PD, there is, at least, some agreement on the models which were put forward by Guskey (2000, p. 22-29) after reviewing the research works of Loucks-Horsley (1989) and Drago-Severson (1994). These include: training, observation/assessment, involvement in development/improvement process, study groups, inquiry/action research, individually guided activities, and mentoring.

1.5.1. Training

Training is a very common form of TPD which is characterized as “a model focused primarily on expanding an individual repertoire of well-defined and skillful classroom practice” (Little, 1993, p. 129). Sparks and Loucks-Horsley (1989, p. 14-15) assert that there

are two main assumptions which undergird this model. The first one is that there are behaviors and techniques that are worthy of replication by teachers in the classroom. The second assumption is that teachers can change their behaviors and learn to replicate behaviors in their classroom that were not previously in their repertoire. According to Showers, Joyce and Bennett (1987, p. 79), the training model involves the following steps:

- Presentation of ideas and information by a presenter or team of presenters.
- Expert demonstration or modeling of strategies or skills.
- Simulated practice; opportunities for participants to practice what have been demonstrated and receive feedback on how they have performed the new skill or strategy.
- Follow-up of a variety of sorts by trainers, supervisors, and peers.

Being a large-scale model, the training model is regarded as the most cost-efficient way for large numbers of teachers to engage with experts and knowledgeable trainers and acquire knowledge and skills. It allows individuals to share the same knowledge base, ideas, and skills through a variety of training formats which can be employed in this model such as large group presentation and discussions, workshops, seminars, colloquia, demonstrations, role-playing, simulations, and micro-teaching (Guskey, 2000, p. 23). However, this model has also some shortcomings which render it unfit for the needs of effective TPD designs. The major shortcomings have been identified by Guskey (2000, p. 23) as follows:

The major shortcoming of training is that it offers few opportunities for choice or individualization. Hence, it may not be appropriate for the varied levels of educators' skills and expertise. Training sessions also must be extended, appropriately spaced, or supplemented with additional follow-up activities to

provide the feedback and coaching necessary for the successful implementation of new ideas.

Little (1993, p. 138-9), also criticizes the training model of PD arguing that it does not reflect the major principles for PD. In particular, Little pointed out the following shortcomings of the training model: the shallow, fragmented nature of the presented standardized content, the passive roles teachers assume, the context-independent or 'one size fits all' mode of the training model, the apparent lack of principled and well-informed dissent that strengthens group decisions and individual choices, and the detachment of these activities from classroom practice.

1.5.2. Observation / Assessment

Observing others teaching or being observed while teaching and receiving feedback on one's performance from the observer is considered an effective way to learn and develop as a teacher. In the observation/assessment model of PD, colleagues observe each other, analyze, and reflect on the performance of the observed teacher, hence, providing constructive feedback which can help pave the way to meaningful improvements in the teaching practices. Peer coaching and clinical supervision are major examples of this model.

1.5.2.1. Peer Coaching

Peer coaching is defined as "a confidential process through which two or more professional colleagues work together to reflect on current practices, expand, refine, and build new skills, share ideas; teach one another; conduct classroom research; or solve problems in the workplace" (Robbins, 1991, p.1). That is, peer coaching is a collaborating procedure in which a teacher and a colleague work together to help improve their teaching. In the peer-coaching partnership, "one (teacher) adopts the role of coach or 'critical friend' (someone in

whom one has trust and confidence and who can offer constructive feedback in a positive and supportive manner) as some aspect of teaching or of classroom life is explored. During and after the process, the coach provides feedback and suggestions to the other teacher” (Richards & Farrell, 2005, p.143).

The purpose of peer coaching, hence, is to promote TPD through opening up opportunities for teachers to learn from and teach each other, observe and explore the teacher’s teaching, reflect on the teaching practices and provide feedback, look at the problems faced and try to address them and find possible solutions. This process can take a variety of forms:

- It can be a series of informal conversations between a teacher and a colleague about teaching, focusing on what is happening in the teacher’s classrooms, what problems occur, and how these can be addressed.
- It can be collaboration between two teachers on the preparation of teaching materials
- A teacher and a coach can observe each other’s lessons.
- Two teachers can co-teach lessons and observe each other’s approach and teaching style.
- A teacher can videotape some of his or her lessons and later watch them together with the coach.

(Richards & Farrell, 2005, p.143-4)

1.5. 2. 2. Clinical Supervision

Clinical supervision is another example of the observation/assessment model which, if properly implemented, will improve teaching and promote students learning. A definition of supervision that has widely come to be accepted within different professions is the one offered by Bernard and Goodyear (2004, p.8). They define supervision as:

an intervention that is provided by a senior member of a profession to a junior member or members of that same profession. This relationship is evaluative, extends over time, and has the simultaneous purposes of enhancing the professional functioning of the junior member(s), monitoring the quality of professional services offered to the clients she, he, or they see(s), and serving as a gatekeeper of those who are to enter the particular profession.

Weller (1971, p. 11), on his part, provides a more precise definition of clinical supervision which has to do with the teaching/learning process. He refers to it as: “supervision focused upon the improvement of instruction by means of systematic cycles of planning, observation, and intensive intellectual analysis of actual teaching performances in the interest of rational modification”. Hence, clinical supervision, as related to the educational context, refers to that formal supervisory -collaborative- process among professional colleagues; supervisors and teachers which is structured around cycles of observation, discussion, reflection and individual and collaborative analysis of the teaching process; a process which would result in the improvement of instruction, and hence, improvement in learners achievement. Such process is not evaluative in essence; the role of the supervisor is not to evaluate and make judgments about the teachers’ competencies. Rather, s/he works with them cooperatively opening up safe channels of communication, engaging them in productive instructional dialogue about classroom practices, and providing feedback in a safe, congenial, trusting manner.

According to Cogan (1973, p.12), the purpose of emphasizing this collegial and cooperative relation between these two central actors in the teaching/learning process is “the development of a professionally responsible teacher who is analytical of his own performance, open to help from others, and withal self-directing”. Although based on a

collegial relationship, the process of clinical supervision implies the interaction of different professional competences from the part of supervisors and teachers. Indeed, clinical supervision “draws its strength from the heterogeneity nurtured in the association of dissimilar and unequal competencies” (Fullan & Hargreaves, 2013, p. 69). An argument further supported by Cogan (1973, p. 68) who adds:

In clinical supervision the interaction of similar competencies at equal levels is generally less productive than the interaction of unequal level of competence and dissimilar competences. Such productive heterogeneity may be observed when the clinical supervisor, highly competent in observation, the analysis of teaching, and the process connected with supervision, works with a teacher who is more competent in knowledge of the curriculum, his students, their learning characteristics and transient and persistent problems, and the school sub-societies to which they belong.

For clinical supervision to foster teachers' professional growth, it must be cyclical and ongoing. It should progress through the interrelated phases of preobservation, observation, and postobservation. Each of these phases includes specific steps which complete each other. Zepeda (2007, p.26) asserts that this process “was originally designed to continue in cycles, with each cycle (preobservation, observation, and postobservation) informing future cycles and identifying the activities needed to help teachers meet their learning objectives”.

To begin with, the pre-observation phase of the clinical cycle, sometimes referred to as the planning conference (Weller, 1971, p.11), consists of three steps which have to do with the initial preparation of the teacher to the observation phase in addition to the cooperative planning of the lesson and the observation process. First, it is important for the teacher to feel safe and comfortable about this supervisory process. The supervisor role here is to try to

establish a positive relationship with the teacher, which can be attained through clarifying the purpose and meaning of this process as well as the roles and functions of both participants (Glanz, 2004, p.46). This renders the process less stressful and more secure. Second, once such positive relationship has been established, comes the planning step. The supervisor and the teacher plan collaboratively the lesson; deciding on the focus and the objectives of the lesson, and determining the methods and strategies, as well as the evaluation procedures to be used. They also plan the observation, starting with the objectives of the visit, the method and the form of the observation process, and the arrangements.

Following these preparation and planning steps, comes the observation phase of the supervisory cycle which consists of one step. In this phase, the supervisor observes the teacher performance using varied observation instruments and tools. According to Glanz (2004, p. 47-8), effective classroom observation is guided by the following principles:

- Good supervision is about engaging teachers in reflective thinking and discussion based on insightful and useful observation, not on evaluation.
- Supervision relying on useful observation instruments can enhance teacher commitment to instructional improvement.
- Observation is a two-step process; description and interpretation.
- Describe the behavior or the event first, then interpret it.
- The observation tool or technique should be chosen collaboratively between teacher and supervisor.
- Observing a classroom is not necessarily an objective process. Personal bias should be acknowledged and discussed.
- Observing takes skill and practice.
- Be aware of the limitations of observation. No observer can see or notice all interactions.

- Disclosure is an essential element for successful observation. Items such as where to sit in the room, how to introduce the observer to the students, and so on should be discussed prior to entering the classroom.
- Don't draw conclusions based on one observation. Multiple observations with different focuses are necessary.

Finally comes the post-observation phase (the feedback conference), with its four steps, which takes center stage and which completes the clinical supervision process and prepares for a new cycle. As a first step, the supervisor and the teacher analyze the teaching/ learning process using the data gathered from the observation through engaging in constructive discussion and collaborative reflection. Then, they plan for a post conference, they implement it by engaging in intensive intellectual analyses of the teaching/learning process, and finally, they determine collaboratively the types of actions to be taken and assessed in as the cycle begins anew (DiPaola & Hoy, 2012, p.86).

To conclude, as it is the case with other models of PD, the observation / assessment model has its strengths and weaknesses. What renders this model advantageous, is the important benefits gained from the observation process by both the observer (being a teacher, or a supervisor), and the one being observed. These benefits are related to the interchange of ideas and teaching expertise in a collaborative manner. Clarifying this point, Guskey (2000, p. 24) adds: "The observer gains professional expertise by watching a colleague, preparing the feedback, and discussing common experiences. The one being observed benefits from another's point of view, gains new insights, and receive helpful feedback". On the other hand, this model takes great effort and significant commitment of time from the part of both participants to schedule and plan observations and conferences. In other words, sufficient opportunities for observing should be planned and provided. What's more, if this model is to

be effective, it should not be seen as an opportunity to evaluate the performance of the teacher being observed; it should be divorced from evaluation, or else it will fail in promoting instructional dialogue and in engaging teachers in fruitful analysis and reflection on their own performance, hence, the result would be resistance to change and improvement.

1.5. 3. Involvement in the Development/Improvement Process

Involvement in a development/ improvement process is another model of TPD which appears in a number of lists of effective models of PD proposed by different researchers (Guskey, 2001; Sparks and Louks-Horsely, 1989, etc.). In the teaching/ learning process, student achievement is always the established goal. To meet this goal, educators are often brought together to address arising issues and to make necessary changes. They may have to update and review an existing curriculum, or if necessary, develop a new one, to create new programs, to improve teaching strategies, or to solve a problem of instruction, assessment or learning in particular subject areas. Teachers, particularly, of all those taking part in the decision making process, must be involved if such development/improvement processes are to work. Involvement in these processes is “closely aligned to knowledge building” (Kimmelman, 2006, p. 102) because they “generally require participants to acquire new knowledge or skills through reading, research, discussion, and observation” (Guskey, 2000, p. 24).

Involvement in such development/ improvement processes is beneficial to teachers in two ways. First, while working on a curriculum, program or school improvement project, teachers need to read, review relevant research, or to consult and hold discussions with experts; hence, they learn new things, and enhance their knowledge. The second advantage of this model is collaboration and decision sharing. Through this process, teachers improve their ability to work collaboratively. They also take part in decision making which is important particularly

because teachers are the closest participants to the specific teaching/learning context and can suggest useful strategies and workable solutions to the problems in question.

This model, however, has also two major negative aspects. The first one is related to the restricted number of teachers participating in such development/improvement processes. In addition, in some settings, decision makers tend to make decisions based on some tradition and persuasive arguments, being true improvements or not, instead of referring to research evidence and knowledge of best practice (Guskey, 2000, p.25).

1. 5. 4. Study Groups

“Professional development needs to be conceived as a collaborative enterprise, where a space for learning through mutual exchange, dialogue, and constant challenge is created” assert Musanti and Pence (2010, p. 87). As a form of TPD, study groups is grounded in promoting such conversations and collaborations among teachers who are brought together to learn about and resolve issues related to specific teaching/ learning contexts. Hence, a study group, as defined by Roberts and Pruitt (2009, p. 114), “is simply a gathering of people who meet on a regularly scheduled basis to address issues that the group members have agreed to study”.

Within the educational context, different types of study groups exist. Each of which is formed in a different way according to the participants who form it and the purposes for which it is formed. These study group types can be summarized as follows:

- Teacher study group: According to Cramer, Hurst and Wilson (1996, p.7), a teacher study group is “a collaborative group organized and sustained by teachers to help them strengthen their professional development in areas of common interest. In these groups, teachers remain in charge of their own independent learning but seek to reach personal goals through

interaction with others”. That is, a teacher study group is a group of teachers who are collaboratively involved in finding meaningful solutions to persistent common problems that may face them while teaching and impede students learning.

- Online study groups: as a result of the advances in technology and online communications, this type of study groups is becoming more familiar among the educational community members. Educators can collaborate via the internet using different tools such as e-mails, videoconferencing, and a myriad of educational sites. They can learn, conduct research, and share information through online study groups, chat rooms, online courses and workshops (Roberts & Pruitt, 2009, p. 118)
- Whole-faculty study groups: is “a system in which all faculty members- including counselors, specialists, resource teachers, and building leaders- in a given school participate in small study groups that focus on schoolwide improvement in teaching and learning” (Roberts & Pruitt, 2009, p. 118).
- Book study groups: In this type of study groups, a group of educators initiates books studies through selecting a book which is relevant to their educational concerns, discussing, and analyzing the different issues presented as well as the relevance of the suggested ideas and solutions to their specific context.

The study group model of TPD can be advantageous in many ways. First and most importantly, study groups help teachers-joined together- to increase their capacity to meet the needs of their students (Zepeda, 2013, p. 180). That is, the learning resulting from participating in study groups will be embedded in teachers tasks in classrooms. Moreover, it provides opportunities for the sharing of ideas, findings, and recommendations with other members of the educational community. What’s more, study groups “bring focus and coherence to the improvement efforts ..., help break down the isolation that many educators experience, ... reinforce the idea of schools as learning communities for students and

educators alike, and they emphasize the continual and ongoing nature of professional development” (Guskey, 2000, p. 26).

1.5.5. Inquiry/Action Research

According to Calhoun, (1993, p.62), the term action research, as used originally, captured the notion of “disciplined Inquiry (research) in the context of focused efforts to improve the quality of an organization and its performance (action)”. Action research can be designed and conducted by individuals or by teams of practitioners who gather and analyze the data to improve their own practice.

As a TPD model, action research engages teachers as well as other members of the educational community in a form of constructive enquiry during which teachers- as researchers- formulate pertinent questions about both their own teaching practices and their students’ achievement and search for rigorous possible solutions using different reflective and systematic approaches. Hence, action research has the following characteristics:

- Its primary goal is to improve teaching and learning in schools and classrooms and it is conducted during the process of regular classroom teaching.
- It is usually small-scale and is intended to help resolve problems rather than simply be research for its own sake.
- It can be carried out by an individual teacher or in collaboration with other teachers.

(Richards & Farrell, 2005, p. 171)

Although there exists various forms of action research, the steps involved in each form are similar and recur in cycles within which the teacher is the main actor. According to Calhoun (1993, p.2), the action research model of TPD includes the following steps:

(1) select an area or problem of collective interest to research; (2) collect on-site data related to the area of interest; (3) organize the collected data; (4) analyze and interpret data; and (5) take action based on this information.

Albeit a challenging task which requires significant initiative and a considerable time commitment on the part of the teachers involved, the research/enquiry model of PD can benefit them a lot. As Hensen (as cited in Hine, 2013, p. 152), asserts, action research has the potential to (a) help teachers develop new knowledge directly related to their classrooms, (b) promote reflective teaching and thinking, (c) expand teachers' pedagogical repertoire, (d) put teachers in charge of their craft, (e) reinforce the link between practice and student achievement, (f) foster an openness toward new ideas and learning new things, and (g) give teachers ownership of effective practices. Hence, the ultimate result is professional growth and development of teachers.

1.5.6. Individually Guided Activities

Individually guided activities as a model of TPD refers to “a process through which teachers plan for and pursue activities they believe will promote their own learning” (Sparks & Loucks-Horsley, 1989, p. 3). That is, the essence of this model is that teachers are self-directed learners; they determine the goals, they select the content, and they decide upon the means and processes of working toward meeting the defined goals. There are two main assumptions underlying this model. The first is that individuals can best judge their own learning needs and that they are capable of self direction and self-initiated learning. The second is that individuals are more motivated to learn when they initiate and plan their own learning activities. (Guskey, 2000, p. 27)

The individually-guided activities model of PD consists of four phases: (a) the identification of a need or interest, (b) the development of a plan to meet the need or interest,

(c) the learning activity (ies), and (d) assessment of whether the learning meets the identified need or interest (Sparks & Loucks-Horsley, 1989, p. 4). Teachers may sometimes undertake these phases informally, or as part of a formal structured process.

This model of PD provides teachers with variable flexible opportunities that enable them to individualize their learning and to develop as independent professionals. Examples of individually- guided activities include: self-selected reading, journaling or writing for publication, audio/videotaping and analyzing one's performance, creating a teaching portfolio, taking an online course, or attending a professional conference.

1.5.7. Mentoring

Another contemporary method which is frequently used within the observation/ assessment model is mentoring. The latter is an example of induction and support models which aim at promoting the smooth entry of beginning teachers into the teaching profession. A basic definition of mentoring is the one provided by Anderson and Shannon (1988, p. 40). They stated that mentoring can best be defined as:

A nurturing process in which a more skilled or more experienced person, serving as a role model, teaches, sponsors, encourages, counsels, and befriends a less skilled or less experienced person for the purpose of promoting the latter's professional and / or personal development. Mentoring functions are carried out within the context of an ongoing, caring relationship between the mentor and protégé.

That is, the mentoring model of TPD brings together a mentor; an experienced highly skilled educator, with a mentee or a protégé; a less experienced colleague, who are engaged in a productive professional relationship the aim of which is to provide companionship to the

novices, protect them, and help them develop personally and professionally. That is, basic to mentoring is a collaborative professional relationship that provides opportunities for “discussions of professional goals, the sharing of ideas and strategies on effective practice, reflection on current methods, on the job observations, and tactics for improvements” (Guskey, 2000, p.28).

In the mentor-mentee relationship, the mentor serves as a role model initiating different mentoring activities such as demonstrating new teaching techniques to the protégé, observing the protégé teaching and providing feedback, and holding support meetings with the protégé. It is within such activities that mentors carry out their functions of:

- Teaching: this has to do with the basic behaviors associated with the teaching profession, including: modeling, informing, confirming/disconfirming, prescribing and questioning.
- Sponsoring: which involves protecting the protégés from something in the environment, or from themselves; supporting them when participating in an activity; and promoting them within both the instructional and social systems of the school program.
- Encouraging: through affirming the protégés, inspiring and challenging them.
- Counseling: through listening, probing, clarifying, and advising protégés.
- Befriending: behaving as a friend, showing particularly two critical behaviors which are accepting and relating.

(Anderson & Shannon, 1988, p.40-1)

However, for this model to be effective in supporting the continual development of teachers, the mentor should exhibit certain qualities. According to Guskey (2000, p. 28), good mentors:

- Should have great credibility among their colleagues and are recognized for their ability to initiate curriculum and school change,
- are highly competent in their subject area,
- are respected by students,
- Together with the mentee, are willing to allocate sufficient time to their work together,
- And, are skilled in the areas of working with adult learners, problem solving, and giving constructive criticism.

1.6. Designing and Delivering Teacher Professional Development

For PD to be effective, it needs to be carefully designed and implemented. As a matter of fact, it is no simple task to design and deliver PD that meets both teachers and students learning goals, brings about change in teachers' performance, and results in enhanced student achievement. As Loucks-Horsley and her associates (2003, p. 5) state: "professional development design is more art than science. It is fueled by vision and passion; requires great skill, knowledge, and creativity; and continues to evolve as the designer strives for greater mastery- better results for students, teachers, and schools". Describing its nature, Beers (2007, p.13) argues that the design and delivery of PD consists of three phases which are connected to one another in a recursive process. These are: planning, implementation, and evaluation. These phases are illustrated in the following figure.

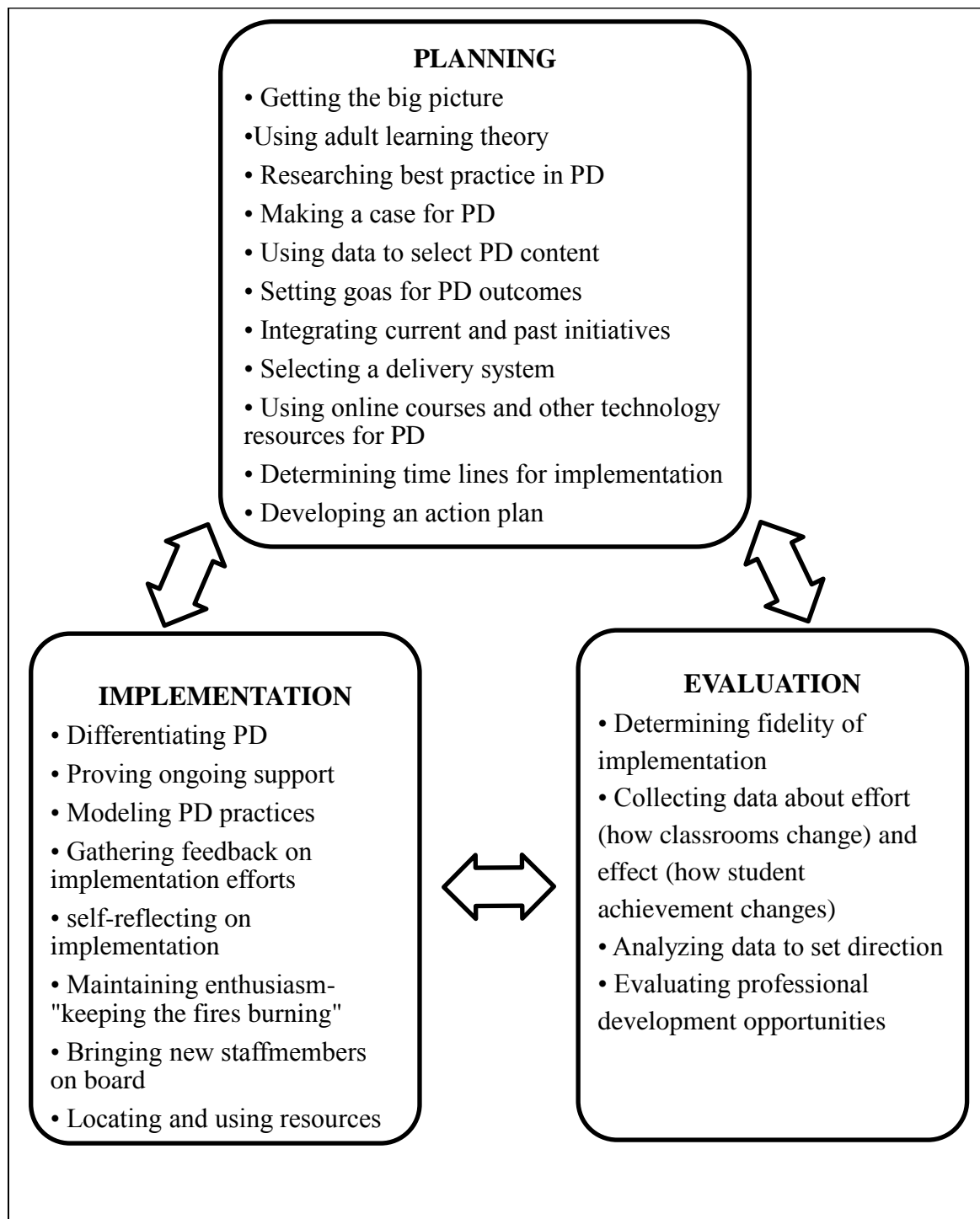


Figure 1.1. Designing and delivering professional development (Beers, 2007, p. 14).

1.6.1. Phase 1. Planning Professional Development.

The first phase in developing a PD program is planning. Given that it is according to the plan of the program that PD activities can be implemented and evaluated, this phase is

considered the most critical one. A typical PD program planning, Blixrud (2013, p. 39) argues, includes stages in which “an articulation of the program’s overall objectives is made, beneficiaries are identified, time frames and resource needs are specified, and success criteria are established”. According to Beers (2007, p. 13), those involved in planning need to be creative, knowledgeable, and understand the comprehensive nature of PD as well as the components of effective programs. Moreover, attributing enough time to the process of planning is an important factor in determining its success. Beers (2007, p. 13) further argues: “taking time at the beginning of the process to discuss the tasks you need to accomplish and how the professional development can improve student learning and achievement will pay big dividends in the quality of the resulting plan”.

1.6.2. Phase 2. Implementing Professional Development

Having carefully crafted the PD plan, designers “move from “sketching” to “painting”- the actual implementation of their plan” (Loucks-Horsley et al. 2003, p. 25). This implementation phase serves as a link between the initial planning and evaluation. Implementation, as McArdle (2015, p. 149), puts it, “carries out the goals and objectives of the program, and it provides the data for assessing program effectiveness”. This phase is about putting the plans into place; it focuses on implementing the pre-established PD processes and strategies which best fit the teachers specific contexts and help them learn the selected content.

According to Beers (2007, p. 15), during the implementation phase, PD designers need to pay attention to the following tasks:

- Differentiating PD to meet the needs of participants by helping participants process and use the learning in ways that are meaningful to them.
- Providing ongoing support during implementation.

- Presenting and modelling PD initiatives so that participants have a clear target for what the initiative should “look like” in terms of classroom practice.
- Getting feedback on learning implementation efforts so that participants can assess their own success and share what has been learned with others.
- Maintaining enthusiasm for the process and sharing the learning in collaboration with peers.
- Bringing new staff members on board to ensure that students continue to receive the benefit of effective instructional practices learned through PD.
- Locating and using resources, including time to ensure that participants have what they need to be successful in the implementation process.
- Creating a collaborative environment that promotes the sharing of ideas and includes opportunities for group problem solving.
- Reflecting on and learning from PD experiences through tools that assist participants in enhancing their understanding and planning appropriately for implementation of the new content.

1.6.3. Phase 3. Evaluating Professional Development

Once implemented, PD needs to be evaluated. Evaluation is an essential part of the PD design process though it is often overlooked. It is defined by Killion (2008, p. 215) as “a systematic, purposeful process of studying, reviewing, and analyzing data gathered from multiple sources in order to make informed decisions about a program”. In Murray’s words, evaluation is “a way to figure out what is working, what isn’t working, and how to adjust things to better accomplish goals” (2014, p. 43). According to Loucks-Horsley et al. (2003, p. 27), addressing the challenges of PD evaluation, professional developers can ask themselves the following questions:

- What are the goals or desired outcomes of the PD initiative?

- How do you assess the accomplishment of the outcomes?
- How do you acknowledge and evaluate how a professional development initiative and its participants change over time?
- How do you take advantage of evaluation as a learning experience in itself?

Answering such questions and others helps professional developers collect relevant data on the effectiveness of the PD initiative. The data obtained are later used in making thoughtful decisions about the PD initiative. Loucks-Horsley et al. (2010, p. 1) add, rigorous evaluation of PD is of critical importance both “to inform, redesign and to document the impact of professional development on student learning, teacher learning, teacher practice, and organizations”. According to Beers (2007, p. 16), while evaluating PD, designers need to consider the following tasks:

- Evaluating implementation efforts to determine how extensively and faithfully the initiative has been put in place in classrooms.
- Evaluating the effects of implementation in terms of how the initiative has affected student learning and achievement.
- Sharing information about implementation efforts and learning outcomes to build support and to help participants learn from one another.
- Reforming and reframing implementation efforts to determine the next steps in the professional development process.
- Evaluating PD experiences and programs to provide feedback to the leadership team on how to design future events for maximum effectiveness.

As a matter of fact, there is no single “formula” or best method for designing and delivering PD (Beers, 2007, p. 17). However, these phases are basic ones which professional developers need to consider if they are to enhance the chances for increasing students’ achievement.

1.7. Professional Development Blocks

Recently, there has been a consensus among educators that TPD, in all its forms, plays a critical role in expanding teachers' knowledge and improving their teaching skills and practices. Yet, critics have often taken aim at those TPD efforts which quite often failed in achieving the very most intended outcome which is improvement in students' learning. This failure is chiefly attributable to the obstacles and stumbling blocks which generally constrict those PD practices. According to Diaz-Maggioli (2004, p. 2-5), among those obstacles to TPD success, the following are the most hindering ones.

- Top-down decision making: Teachers are not involved in making decisions about their PD. Instead, these PD decisions and arrangements are traditionally made by administrators and consultants.
- The idea that teachers need to be “fixed”: teachers' should not be asked to follow a particular proposed teaching approach. In fact, no one knows how to teach a given classroom better than its teacher.
- Lack of ownership of the professional development process and its results: because teachers are not consulted when designing PD programs which aim at changing their own practices, they rightly question their investment in such programs.
- The technocratic nature of professional development content: often, TPD events are about some teaching techniques and methods teachers are to replicate in their classrooms. Most of these methods, however effective, are related to specific contexts. Hence, when applying them, teachers need to invest considerably more efforts than anticipated by PD planners.
- Universal application of classroom practices regardless of subject, student age, or level of cognitive development: although some teaching practices and learning principles might be suitable for different grade levels, the economical “one-size-fits-all” approach has been proven to be totally ineffective.

- Lack of variety in the delivery modes of professional development: when it comes to investing in TPD, the prevalent format chosen for the purpose is usually the cheapest- a lecture, workshop, or seminar.
- Inaccessibility of professional development opportunities: teachers seldom have a PD opportunity when it is really needed. Moreover, as a result of not being involved in planning PD programs, their needs may go unmet.
- Little or no support in transferring professional development ideas to the classroom: in-service teachers are not adequately supported in translating new learning into practice which “is best accomplished in collaboration rather than in isolation” (Loucks-Horsley et al. 2010, p.188).
- Standardized approaches to professional development that disregard the varied needs and experiences of teachers: teachers-at different developmental stages- have different needs and experiences; hence, the PD program should not be of a standardized nature assuming that all teachers should perform at the same level.
- Lack of systematic evaluation of professional development: most PD programs are not systematically evaluated; and when they are evaluated, the yielded results are not communicated to other communities.
- Little or no acknowledgment of the learning characteristics of teachers among professional development planners: PD planners often ignore the unique learning characteristics of teachers which, indeed, should be accounted for if the PD program is to succeed.

According to Brand and Brand (1998, p. 66), most PD programs, though considered a key to instructional improvement, have failed in effecting a significant change in teachers' practices. This failure is mainly due to the following ten reasons:

10. topics selected by someone other than the teachers,
9. mostly nonexistent follow-up support,

8. the widespread use of one-shot workshops to solve problems,
7. programs that rarely meet individual needs of participants,
6. no recognition that each school in a district may be unique,
5. not enough time allocated to plan and learn new skills and practices,
4. tendencies to try quick-fix solutions,
3. underfunding of new ideas,
2. lack of cohesion or sustained support and follow-through from the central office, and
1. the number one reason is: lack of or incomplete evaluation.

Hence, for a PD program to be effective in yielding the intended outcomes, designers need to reflect critically on those problems and difficulties. They might refer to PD designs that have worked in the past; yet, they should consider the obstacles which have been experienced with their implementation and search for improved PD practices that meet the teachers' needs and lead to improvement in students' learning.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the extensive literature on teacher professional development convincingly suggests that professional development has a significant role to play in improving teaching as well as in maintaining and raising students' achievement. To that end, the professional development initiative, whatever the model might be, should exhibit and reflect the characteristics of effective practices. It should be conceived of as a purposeful, ongoing, systematic, collaborative process where teachers have a say during all of the planning, implementation, and evaluation phases. Additionally, mistakes which have hugely constricted past professional development practices should be carefully considered if the professional development efforts are to effect the desired change in teachers' knowledge, skills, and performance which would pave the way to improvement in students' learning.

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Chapter Two: Teacher Professional Development in the Algerian Context

Introduction

Teachers, as other professionals, need to continually learn and update their knowledge base and to develop their skills and practices. Indeed, because the quality of teachers and their teaching is a key factor in determining the learning outcomes, it is of paramount importance to provide teachers with quality professional development opportunities which would help them develop their teaching qualities and achieve the desired outcomes. Hence, this chapter addresses the issue of teacher professional development in the Algerian context. It starts by tracing its history back to the French colonization period. Then, it describes the current approaches including pre-service training in universities and teachers training schools, in-service teacher professional development programs starting with novice teachers induction into the teaching profession through the preparatory pedagogical training program and the mentoring program, in addition to the supervision activities (inspection visits), training seminars and workshops, internal educational seminars, ICT-related professional development, distance learning, and other initiatives by different agencies. Finally, the chapter ends with a discussion of the status of teacher professional development in recent ministerial circulars.

2.1. History of Teacher Professional Development in Algeria

The Algerian educational system has been subject to considerable changes and major reforms since 1962. With the urgent need for more schools, new updated curricula, and better qualified teachers; this system has witnessed many structural, organizational, policy, and financial reforms. Indeed, no area has escaped those reforming initiatives, including that of TPD which is considered the cornerstone of any education reform project. As stated by the

National Institute of Research in Education (NIRE) (2011, p.11-21), the development of TPD in Algeria has gone through different phases to its present state. Following is a historical overview of the changes that have taken place in each of these phases.

2.1.1.Phase One: Under the French Conquest

Algeria was a French colony from 1830 to 1962. During this period, the great majority of Algerians were deprived of their basic rights, including that of education. As a matter of fact, the education imposed by the French colonial in Algeria “was designed primarily to meet the needs of the European population and to perpetuate the European cultural pattern” (Deeb, 1994, 112). The huge majority of the students as well as teachers were French and other European settlers. In fact, until it was about to abandon her domination of Algeria, “the French never built enough schools to educate more than a small minority of school-age Algerian children” (Heggoy, 1973, p.180). Even this small minority enrolled was taught in French and in segregate schools. Teaching Algerians was, indeed, just a way to help assimilating them into French culture. Heggoy (1973, p.180) argues: “the imposition of French educational norms and the denial to the Algerian of his legitimate cultural identity through controls of language, curriculum, and methods of instruction revealed the colonialist policy in its most destructive aspect”.

This colonialist policy was also reflected in the education and training of teachers. The beginning of teacher education in Algeria, Boudiaf (2014, p. 72-3) asserts, was marked by the establishment of the normal school of Bouzarea “L'Ecole Normale d'Instituteurs de Bouzarea” under the imperial decree issued on March, 4th, 1865. In fact, the rationale behind the establishment of this school was preparing future European and native teachers who would help spreading the French language and ideas. However, until 1883, and for several reasons, Algerians had not been able to join this school. One basic reason had been the nature

of the entry test which, in fact, had been in favour of the French and Europeans in different ways. By 1883, a special section was established in the same school to educate Algerian “native” teachers under the name “Le cours normal de l’enseignement des indigènes”. However, throughout the long period between 1883 and 1939, only 993 Algerian students graduated from the school (Colonna, 1975, p. 10). That is to say, only about 18 students a year which is a very small number compared to that of French and Europeans.

With the increasing rate of children enrolment in schools, which resulted in an increasing demand for teachers, the French authorities gradually established five new normal schools. Two were established to train male teachers in Oran and Constantine. Whereas, the other three schools, set in Miliana, Constantine, and Oran, were geared to training female teachers. For nearly one hundred years, the majority of primary school teachers in Algeria had been trained in these normal schools. They were required to complete the “Brevet élémentaire” or “Brevet d’études de premier cycle (B.E.P.C)” and to succeed in the entry examination to join the normal schools. Not all teachers, however, had teacher training. Some of them hold only B.E.P.C. or Baccalauréat Part I or Diploma from Franco-Moslem lycées. Those holding B.E.P.C. had to participate in a three month training program and were offered a “certificat de culture générale et professionnelle”. On the other hand, teachers of secondary schools were trained at the University of Algiers or at institutions in France (Sasnett & Sepmeyer, 1966, p. 27).

2.1.2. Phase Two: Bridging the Gap (1962-1971)

After Algeria gained its independence in 1962, a prolonged and difficult period of reconstruction began. With a heritage of economic, social, and financial chaos from the war, the country had to undergo major reform processes at all levels. A major issue of concern, and one which represented a serious challenge to Algerian authorities was education. With the

high rate of illiteracy among its population, very few schools, and a dire shortage of qualified teachers, urgent educational reform efforts needed to be made.

The first attempt to develop an independent system of education which best relates to the Algerian identity and the country's development ambitions was the establishment of the High Commission for the Reform of Education. At its first meeting hold on 15 December 1962, the commission defined the basic goals of future Algerian educational system, primary among which were:

- Gradual Algerianization of the teaching corps;
- Gradual Arabization of curriculum and instruction;
- The unification of the educational system, meaning putting an end to the fragmentation that had existed under the French;
- A scientific and technical orientation of education; and
- The democratization of public instruction, that is providing equal educational opportunities to all Algerian children through opening schools where there had been none before, and creating the required social conditions and supporting infrastructure.

(Brand, 2014, p. 133-4)

However, Algeria's quest to achieve the stated goals was confronted with many obstacles. At the heart was a strongly felt lack of qualified teachers who are considered to be the most critical element in any educational reform initiative. The departure of the vast majority of French and European teachers after independence left a huge gap in the educational system. With very few trained Algerian teachers, a lack of literate Algerians from which to draw prospective teachers, and an increasing number of children enrolling in schools -the number rose from 777,636 in 1962/1963 to 1,332,203 in 1965/1966 (Bennoune, 2000, p.223)- the regime had to take urgent measures to cope with the difficult inherited situation.

To face this shortage of teachers, authorities of the educational system took two temporary measures. The first was massive local recruitment of monitors from all levels of education. Having completed only the primary education, most of the recruited monitors didn't have the suitable knowledge, experience, and skills to effectively perform their role as teachers. In fact, during 1962 and 1963, the authorities hired 10,988 monitors (Benrabah, 2007, p.55) the intellectual horizons of whom, Gallagher (as cited in Benrabah, 2007, p.55) argued, "were at times only slightly less limited than their pupils". The second measure taken to handle the problem of dearth of qualified teachers was recruitment of monitors and instructors from different foreign countries, mainly from Arab countries to help applying the Arabisation policy. For example, in 1964, the authorities recruited 1000 Egyptians as Arabic-language instructors, most of whom, however, were unqualified as teachers and ignorant of the particularities of the Algerian society (Bouhadiba, Sarter and Sefta, as cited in Kaplan & Baldauf, 2007, p.88).

With the growing demand for more qualified teachers, decision makers recognized the urgent need for a TPD policy which would improve the qualities of on-the job teachers and increase the number of future teachers. To meet this need, educational authorities initiated training programs for monitors, and for educational counsellors who were taught to supervise beginners. Monitors had to attend 4-8 weeks of training sessions. Additionally, many pedagogical sessions were held every week for the monitors under the supervision of the education counsellors. For those monitors to be upgraded and tenured as instructors, they had to fulfill a two-faceted training program; professional (by means of seminars, practicing teaching, and apprenticeship) and cultural (by means of evening courses in the professional and cultural training centers "centres de formation culturelle et professionnelle", by correspondence and radio courses). Once this training had been completed, monitors were

awarded the certificate of general and professional culture “Certificat de culture generale et professionnelle”.

Though helped rising the number of certified teachers of primary schools, those initial efforts did not reap satisfactory results. The problem of dearth of teachers, and that of the under-qualification of hired teachers continued to plague education in the country. An alternative solution to those problems which, indeed, proved to be an effective long-term solution, was establishing more teachers' training schools. Accordingly, the number of those schools rose from six in 1962 to 21 in the year 1969/1970. These pre-service training institutions were of two types: l'Ecole Normale d'Instituteurs, and l'Ecole Normale d'Instituteurs. The numbers of teachers graduating from those schools between 1963 and 1970 are presented in the following table.

Table 2. 1.

The Number of Teachers Graduating from the Normal Schools from June 1963 to June 1970
(*Journal of Research and Education, 2011, p.12*)

Training		Instituteurs		Instituteurs			The total sum
Graduating year	Arabic language	French language	Total	Arabic language	French language	Total	
1963		98	98			0	98
1964		95	95			0	95
1965		105	105			0	105
1966		123	123	203	194	397	520
1967		132	132	224	295	519	651
1968	60	113	173	360	440	800	973
1969	55	119	174	495	705	1200	1374
1970	54	47	101	510	779	1289	1390
Total	169	832	1001	1792	2413	4205	5206

2.1.3. Phase Three: Establishing the Training System (1971-1980)

The measures taken by Algerian authorities, though helped rising the number of teachers, didn't help achieving the intended results. Indeed, the pressures on schools which were the result of the massive post-independence increase in demand allowed for only partial measures to reduce the gaps between the announced goals and the existing system (Brand, 2014, p. 134). Therefore, there was a clear need to take action and to adopt a more comprehensive TPD policy.

Efforts to overhaul the PD system started with the presidential decree 70/115 of 1 August 1970 which was meant to be a roadmap for establishing a more effective PD system. A principal feature of this decree was article one authorizing the establishment of institutes of educational technology "instituts de technologie de l'éducation". As stated in article two, these institutes were to play two main roles: to prepare and train future teachers of primary, middle, and secondary levels; and, in the meantime, to develop and improve the level of in-service teachers. Hence, the education and training provided in these institutes was of three types: (1) a two years pre-service education program for teachers of primary level, (2) a one year in-service training for middle school teachers, and (3) a continuing PD program for tenured teachers which lasts until retirement and takes the form of training sessions, seminars, and educational research cycles. Trying to keep pace with the rising demand, more institutes of educational technology were set up every year. As shown in the following table, the number of these institutes was almost doubled during the period from 1970 to 1980.

Table 2.2.

The Number of Institutes of Educational Technology in Algeria between 1970 and 1980
(*Journal of Research and Education*, 2011, p.15)

Year	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
N° of institutes	22	22	26	26	26	26	29	36	36	40	40

Establishing such training institutes, hence, reflected the educational authorities' new focus on TPD. Indeed, behind adapting this strategy was a set of overarching aims. The primary aims were: (1) to ensure quality education for pre-service teachers through providing them with the necessary knowledge and skills needed to practice the teaching profession, (2) to expand the cognitive, intellectual, and cultural horizons of in-service teachers, (3) to provide training for teachers which was urgently needed to meet the immediate needs of the educational system, (4) to achieve the regional balance policy in teachers education through establishing institutes in different parts of the country, and (5) to gradually dispose of foreign teachers, and, hence, to achieve one of the major goals of the educational reform which is the Algerianization of the educational system.

As a matter of fact, these institutes were a feasible means which undoubtedly helped filling the huge void in the number of trained teachers in Algeria. In addition to their contribution in training in-service teachers, they trained hundreds of new teachers each year. For example, between 1971 and 1980, 2077 middle school teachers of English graduated from these institutes (NIRE, 2011, p. 15).

2.1.4. Phase Four: Strengthening Infrastructures (1980-1990)

During the period 1980-1990, teacher education and training gained more and more interest in Algeria. Indeed, much of this renewed interest was fuelled primarily by the need to ensure quality training for the growing numbers of teachers. Those teachers were urgently needed particularly after the extension of compulsory education from the age of six to 16 following the transformation of the educational system to the "Ecole fondamentale" (basic school) model which resulted in a huge increase in the number of students enrolling in different schools in the country. According to Deeb (in Metz, 1994, p.115), in 1984, national primary and secondary enrollments totaled five million. The number of Algerian teachers has

also increased after 1980. In 1981-82, for instance, 64.6 percent of the teachers at all levels of education were Algerian. By the academic year 1990-91, the percentage had increased to 93.4 percent (Deeb, in Metz, 1994, p.116).

The presidential decree 83/353 of 21 March 1983 introduced new measures to improve the teacher education and training system. The first article of this decree states that teachers PD is divided into two complementary stages: the initial stage refers to the pre-service education of student teachers to prepare them to enter the teaching profession, while the second stage relates to the continuing training of trainee teachers to prepare them to obtain tenure.

According to article two of the same decree, teachers' initial pre-service education is defined in terms of two interrelated components: theoretical teaching and practical training. Theoretical teaching aims at enabling student teachers to (1) deepen their general and domain-specific knowledge, and (2) to acquire basic knowledge of educational sciences, while the practical training relates to the teaching profession techniques. Teachers continuing training, on the other hand, is defined as being composed of (1) complementary co-teaching to reinforce initial training, and (2) practical educational training to help trainee teachers adapt to the teaching profession (article 3). To ensure that teachers receive both theoretical and practical training, basic practical schools (or else practical classes) were to be created in relation to each institute of educational technology.

Articles 49 to 55 of the same decree outlined the guidelines for another type of TPD which is the continuing PD of tenured teachers. This PD initiative aimed primarily at improving the teachers' level and updating their training for purposes of promotion and adaptation to the teaching profession. All tenured teachers working in schools under the Ministry of Education and Basic Teaching should participate in the different organized

training events. The continuing professional development (CPD) was to take the forms of: study or pedagogical days; informational or learning conferences; and short-, medium-, or long-term trainings the period of which differs according to the predefined objectives. Upon completing a training event, participants receive a certificate which would be considered in their future promotions.

Later on, in 1987, a comprehensive evaluation process was launched aiming at revising the educational system and revealing the existing deficiencies and shortcomings. The final report was presented to the central committee which approved it in its meeting held on 21-22 June 1988. Among the recommendations the committee made were:

- Updating and continually improving teachers knowledge,
- Reviewing the organization of teachers education and training, and reorganizing it to ensure quality training of teachers and improve the teaching level,
- Expanding the capacity of the teachers training schools and strengthening its role to provide adequate numbers of teachers particularly those in scientific and technical fields.

During this period, the National Centre for Universal Education (currently: The National Office for Distance Education and Training), which was established in 1969, continued to play an important role in providing distance learning for teachers. In fact, one of its main objectives was training and preparing teachers for promotion. By 1983/1984, for instance, the centre provided training for 12720 teachers, a number which decreased to 8932 in the year 1990/1991.

2.1.5. Phase Five: Transformations (1990-2000)

The beginning of this phase was marked by the setting up of a national committee for the overhaul of the educational, training, and higher teaching system in January, 15th, 1989.

Among the recommendations made by this committee, the most important were: (1) adopting the objectives-based approach rather than the content-based one, and (2) adopting the principle of training rather than teaching, and learning instead of teaching (NIRE, p. 18). Starting from 1990, and based on those recommendations, the MNE took different measures to improve the education quality including restructuring and reorganizing the educational system, revising curricula, and reviewing administrative systems and mechanisms.

During this phase, however, TPD didn't receive much interest. Indeed this period witnessed a decrease in in-service education opportunities as well as the absence of a comprehensive and effective teachers training strategy which resulted in:

- a notable decrease in the number of Institutes of Educational Technology which had been either transformed into secondary schools or put at the disposal of the Ministry of Higher Education (the number decreased from 56 in 1990 to 22 in 1999),
- the closing of the regional centers for the training of education staff, and
- recruiting holders of the Licence degree to teach in primary and middle schools.

2.1.6. Phase Six: Deep Reforms (2000-2012)

The period between 2000 and 2012 was a time of major reforms that saw the introduction of deep pedagogical, structural, and organizational changes in the educational system. The reform measures which were formulated and implemented starting from September 2003 were, in fact, based on the report of the National Commission for the Reform of the Educational System which was published on March 15th, 2002.

As a matter of fact, the main thrust of the educational reform during this period was two-faceted: to improve the teaching quality and, as a result, to produce well-educated, skilled, and competent citizens capable of achieving the national goal of social and economic development. To this end, the reform of the educational system at different levels became a

key priority of the government agenda. Indeed, a set of reform measures were implemented the most important of which were:

- Replacing the fundamental schooling system which was considered a failure by the Minister of Education by the old structure comprising three stages: primary school which lasts five years instead of six, middle school with four years instead of three, and secondary school with three years with two common cores sciences and letters.
- Adopting a new curriculum: introducing new subjects in elementary education (scientific and technical education, music, drawing), starting teaching English in the first grade of middle school for three hours a week, and French in Grade Two, and producing new school manuals.

(Benrabah, 2007, p. 94-5)

Because any educational reform has, as its cornerstone, teachers, TPD shaped one of the major issues in those reforming efforts. Indeed, among the most important measures taken by authorities were the following:

- Setting up a well-established renewable system of teachers education as well as an evaluation system of their education and training through:
 - a. Teachers pre-service education. To achieve the reform goals, teachers education was organized as follows: all Teachers had to pass the Baccalauréat examination, and to train for three years (Bac + 3) to be primary school teachers, or for four years (Bac + 4) to be middle school teachers, or for five years (Bac + 5) to be secondary school teachers.
 - b. Teachers' in-service training: allowing on-the-job teachers different opportunities to update their knowledge base and improve their teaching skills and practices. These opportunities take the form of: (1) the ability to continue studies at the level of the

university, (2) distance and continuing learning using new technologies, and (3) close and open trainings. The priority in this period was for education and training of primary and middle school teachers.

- Establishing pedagogical training structures at the level of the Institutes for Training and Improving the Teachers Level and at the level of the universities;
- Organizing and improving distance learning;
- Developing a program for training teachers on how to use the new Information and communication technologies (ICT).

To follow the implementation procedures and to evaluate the results of the reform, two national institutions were established. The National Council for Education and Training is basically a consultative body the role of which was to provide national authorities with advice, and to help them better understand and deal with the different issues related to the educational system. The National Observatory for Education and Training, on the other hand, represents a key expertise body which assumed the dual role of following and evaluating the implementation of the education reform, as well as providing different indicators to measure the outcomes of the reform.

2.2. Current Situation of Teacher Professional Development in Algeria

Despite implementing different major reforms, complaints are still heard about the quality of education in Algeria. In fact, two of the main factors which have hampered those attempts to improve the education quality are overcrowding of schools and, to a greater degree, inadequate teachers PD. The latter relates directly to the teachers knowledge, skills, and practices; that is to the teaching quality which is a determining factor in achieving the desired learning outcomes.

2.2.1. Pre-service Teacher Education

The first phase in teachers development is initial pre-service preparation which provides prospective teachers with the opportunity to acquire the knowledge, skills, dispositions, etc. needed to perform the teaching profession. In the Algerian context, initial teacher preparation takes two different forms: teachers pre-service programs in teachers' training schools, or "Licence / Master" courses in a given subject-matter field in universities.

2.2.1.1. Entry into the Teaching Profession through the University

Candidates aspiring to enter into the teaching profession through the university should have a Licence or Master level education. While students who have a Licence degree can qualify for a middle school teaching vacancy or position, graduates holding a Master degree can join the secondary school board.

To obtain a Licence degree, students enroll in a three-year course during which they are introduced to the basics of their subject matter. In a Licence course in English, the focus is on developing students writing and speaking competences, as well as on broadening their domain-specific knowledge including linguistics, literature, civilization, in addition to an introduction into the field of teaching English as a foreign language.

Upon completing a Licence course, students wishing to continue their higher studies can apply for a Master degree program in a more specific aspect of the language. For example, they may opt to specialize in language sciences (TEFL and applied linguistics), or in English literature and civilization. Such a program takes two years and is organized around four semesters. During the first three semesters, students attend lectures devoted to more specialized areas of English. The last semester, however, is dedicated to the research work where students chose a topic within the realm of their field of study and write a dissertation on it.

Attaining such initial qualifications -Licence and Master degrees- is, hence, a requirement to enter the teaching profession. However, it is not enough. Graduates of the university need also to pass the competitive entry examination organized by the MNE for the purpose of teachers' recruitment.

Such university courses, however, have often been criticized for their inadequacy in preparing students to perform the challenging task of teaching. While part of the criticism is attributed to the content of these courses, another relates to their forms. As a matter of fact, the content of the university courses is not teaching-oriented; that is, these courses help students acquire knowledge and understanding of the subject matter, yet, they do not give them the opportunity to learn how to teach this subject matter. Even in cases where part of the content relates to teaching, another feature which remains problematic is the form in which this content is presented. For prospective teachers to be well-prepared for teaching, they need not only to learn theoretically about how to teach but also to practice and to experience teaching in real situations; That is, they need to learn on the job. These practice opportunities, however, are not provided by the universities.

2.2.1.2. Entry into the Teaching Profession through the Teachers Training Schools

Another route to becoming a teacher in one of the Algerian schools is to follow a pre-service teacher training course which is offered exclusively in the teachers training schools (TTSs). However, not all individuals wishing to become teachers can join such schools. Indeed, they need first to have a good average in their BAC exam, and then to succeed in the entry test.

The training policy adapted by such schools is two-faceted. It places considerable importance not only on “what” to teach, but also on “how” to teach . Accordingly, the course student teachers receive intends to combine theory with practice. The theory component consists of the subject-matter and pedagogical instruction during which students are to acquire

the necessary knowledge, skills, competences and values related to the subject-matter and to the teaching/learning theories. Prospective teachers of English, for instance, will not only acquire the language skills necessary for the mastery of the language, but also will develop different competences related to teaching materials design and development, the use of teaching techniques and strategies, lessons plans, classroom management, students evaluation, psychology, pedagogy and so on. The practice component, on the other hand, takes the form of a practical training course which is considered as “a transitional stage that would enable trainees to articulate their theoretical background into practice” (Beleulmi and Hamada, 2014, p. 75). This teaching practice component introduces student teachers to the real-life teaching experiences. It provides them an opportunity to see connections between what they have learnt about teaching and the real teaching practice, and, hence, to expand their repertoire of real-life classroom practices.

The duration of pre-service teachers' training courses varies according to the school level prospective teachers are expected to teach. While it ranges from three years for the primary school level to four years for the middle school level, it lasts as long as five years for the secondary school level. In all of these different courses, the practical training course is integrated in the second semester of the graduation year for a total duration of sixteen weeks. During this period, students are introduced to teaching through the observation phase, then gradually become involved in the teaching activities in the alternate phase, and finally, they take over classes for sole teaching in the full time phase. To help student teachers gain the maximum benefits from the practical course, they are guided by a training teacher, and at the same time supervised by a teacher from the TTS.

2.2.2. In-service Teacher Professional Development in Algeria

Attaining the required qualification to teach, being it from a university or a TTS, however, is no guarantee that prospective teachers will be capable of sustaining effective

classroom practices. As a matter of fact, the complexities of the teaching profession pose a range of serious challenges to new entrants to the profession. The first challenge is to have adequate knowledge of the subject matter they teach and to have this body of knowledge constantly broadened and updated. Another equally serious challenge novice teachers need to meet is to develop and expand their repertoire of valuable teaching skills and practices. Meeting these challenges, however, requires ongoing learning and training on the teachers' part as well as continuing support from the educational authorities.

2.2.2.1. Induction in Algeria

Moving from the role of a student of teaching to that of a teacher of students, it is vital for newly qualified teachers to pass through an adaptation and adjustment period. This induction period, which generally lasts from one to three years, represents one of the biggest learning curves of one's teaching career (Leakey, in Fenn & Richardson, 2009. p.93). Indeed, a good beginning experience, as Bartell (2005, p. 15) argues, "not only makes a difference in the retention of new teachers but also shapes their practice in many positive ways and puts them on the path to high-quality teaching".

Hence, the benefits of early induction years which introduce teachers to their roles as professionals and shape their future norms and practices cannot be overlooked. These benefits, as Bartell (2005, p. 16) concludes, include:

- Higher retention of beginning teachers.
- Increased levels of professional efficacy and satisfaction.
- Improved teacher performance.
- Earlier identification of weak teachers for assistance or termination.
- More consistent use of instructional practices that lead to higher levels of student achievement.
- More varied and more complex instructional practices being used by teachers.

- Improved ability of new teachers to engage in reflective practice and critical examination of their work.
- Establishment of professional norms of collegiality and expectations for continued learning.

Induction programs can take a variety of forms. In the Algerian context, novice teachers are inducted into the world of teaching in two significantly different ways: a preparatory pedagogic training program (PPTP), and a mentoring program.

2.2.2.1.1. Preparatory Pedagogical Training Program

Throughout the course of their probationary teaching period, novice teachers have to successfully undergo the preparatory pedagogical training before gaining the status of a fully qualified teacher. The ultimate goal of this PD period is to provide professional educational accompaniment to novice teachers to help develop their professional competences in three main domains: professional knowledge, professional practice, and professional participation. Toward this end, the training has been designed with the aims of:

- Providing pedagogical support for beginning teachers.
- Providing beginning teachers with the basic mechanisms necessary to face the challenges of the teaching profession.
- Developing beginning teachers' professional skills.
- Developing the professional values which promote teachers behaviours.
- Enabling teachers to achieve effective student education.
- Providing teachers with effective working tools which will enable them to teach away from the classical content-based and presentation-based methods.
- Relying on active pedagogical methods in which the teacher is the focus of the pedagogic process.

- Helping new teachers fulfill their roles efficiently and inspiring confidence in them.
- Improving and updating new teachers' specialized knowledge and providing them with modern teaching methods and techniques.
- Enlightening teachers as to the state's plans and trends and the society's problems, and raising their awareness of their professional duty and moral commitment.
- Assisting teachers in career advancement and progression, as well as job security.
- Changing teachers' negative attitudes towards the teaching profession.
- Encouraging teachers to pursue self-study and to move toward lifelong learning.
- Providing teachers with the opportunity to experience and apply educational theories in the classroom; that is, linking theory to practice.
- Developing teachers' readiness to assume their new roles and responsibilities.
- Helping teachers solve the educational problems they face.
- Encouraging teachers to collaborate with and benefit from their colleagues.
- Encouraging teachers to be creative and innovative in their work.

(The new guide for the trainee teacher in the PPTP, 2017, p.1)

Accordingly, as final outcomes of the preparatory training, new teachers are expected to be able to:

- Read the curriculum and translate it to:
 - ✓ Lesson plans responding to the different learners needs and stating precise, relevant, measurable and specific teaching / learning objectives.
 - ✓ The practice of diagnostic, formative and cognitive evaluation, as well as effective pedagogical treatment and support.

- Adopt the principles of the constructivism / social constructivism theory by adopting the competency based approach (CBA), as well as the project pedagogy and the problem-solving pedagogy.
- Place the learner at the center of the teaching learning process through:
 - ✓ Responding to the learners individual differences, adopting an active approach and integrating the 21st century skills (communication and collaboration, critical thinking, problem solving, learning and creating, and so on).
 - ✓ Focusing on innovation, critical and analytical thinking, communication and collaboration to prepare students to the future.
 - ✓ Ensuring learning strategies that will develop the learner independence.

(The new guide for the trainee teacher in the PPTP, 2017, p. 1)

According to the ministerial decision of August 24, 2015, the preparatory pedagogical training is organized as follows:

- The training is carried out alternately during pedagogic days/half-days and school holidays, and encompasses both theoretical lessons and practical works.
- The training lasts 190 hours spread over a seven week period, and takes place in the National Education Staff Training Institutes or in the national educational establishments chosen by the directorates of education in the different wilayas.
- The training is provided by inspectors, teacher trainers, computer sciences teachers, teachers of the national education staff training institutes, and teachers of public training institutions who are competent and experts in their subject-matters.
- The general content of the training program, the coefficients of and the time devoted to each unit are defined in the following table:

Table.2.3.

The Content of the Preparatory Pedagogic Training Program for Secondary School Teachers

(the Official Journal of the Algerian Republic n° 55. Dated: October, 21, 2015, p.30)

number	Units	time	coefficient
01	Education sciences and psychology	20 h	1
02	Classroom management techniques	10 h	1
03	School mediation	10 h	1
04	Subject didactics and teaching methods	40 h	2
05	Evaluation and pedagogical treatment	25 h	2
06	Algerian educational system and educational curricula	20 h	1
07	Professional ethics	10 h	1
08	Training and pedagogy	10 h	1
09	Educational legislation	20 h	1
10	Computer sciences and information and communication technologies	25 h	1
	The total duration	190 h	-

- To examine the relative merits of the preparatory pedagogical training, three complementary methods of evaluation are used:
 - ✓ By the end of the training, trainee teachers have to write a training report about a topic which has been dealt with during the training (coefficient = 1)
 - ✓ The trainee teachers' knowledge is evaluated on the basis of ongoing pedagogical evaluation, and consists of periodical assessments in both theoretical and practical aspects (coefficient = 2).
 - ✓ At the end of the training, a final exam is held including written tests related to the program's content (coefficient = 3)

- Trainee teachers who got an average equals or exceeds 10 out of 20 are considered successful in the PPT.
- At the end of the PPT, and based on the report of the committee on the end of training, trainee teachers who successfully completed the training are awarded with a success certificate.

2.2.2.1.2. Mentoring Process

Teacher professional development is a lifelong learning process which can be done individually or in collaboration with other teachers. Indeed, one way of developing teacher's professional competences is learning from and being assisted by more experienced teachers through the mentoring process. According to Pollard (2005, p.29), mentoring is a means of "providing support, challenge and extension of the learning of one person through the guidance of another, who is more skilled, knowledgeable and experienced, particularly in relation to the context in which the learning is taking place". In the educational context, the act of mentoring is conceived of as a "process whereby an experienced teacher works with a novice teacher, giving guidance and feedback" (Richards & Farrell, 2005, p. 151-2).

Hence, there clearly is a need for comprehensive mentoring programs and practices which can support beginning teachers and help improve their quality. Such programs, however, are not easy to develop. As argued by Anderson and Shannon (1988, p. 38), if a mentoring program is to be effective, it should be based on a carefully articulated approach including delineation of "a definition of the mentoring relationship, the essential functions of the mentor role, the activities through which selected mentoring functions will be expressed, and the dispositions that mentors must exhibit if they are to carry out requisite mentoring functions and activities". Moreover, no TPD program, being it for beginning or for more experienced teachers, would succeed without identifying first the teachers' needs, the program purposes, and the expected outcomes.

In the Algerian educational setup, beginning teachers receive assistance through participating in the mentoring program. The purposes of this program as stated by Benarbia and Zeghdani (2015, p. 1) are as follows:

- Making trainee teachers aware that self-development is the best way to develop one's professional competences.
- Facilitating the trainee teacher's adaptation to their new environment.
- Making the educational establishment the ideal place to train the new teacher.
- Analyzing the trainee's needs and working on meeting these needs through such mentoring process which encourages contacts and cooperation among trainees themselves and between them and other teachers especially experienced ones.
- Suggesting a training program under a working team framework (the inspector, the trainee teacher, the mentor teacher).
- Sharing and exchanging knowledge and expertise constantly with teachers and encouraging the use of ICT to meet this aim.

A major aim of teachers mentoring processes is to enhance the novice teachers' professional competences. It is through these processes that teachers develop the practical and professional knowledge they need to be effective teachers. In the Algerian context, the mentoring process aims at fostering and imparting teachers' competences in four main fields.

1. Organizing and planning the learning situations through: understanding the curriculum (the link between the content and the targeted competence), setting the objectives for each lesson, developing adequate teaching/learning situations, using the pedagogical documents, planning lessons, encouraging the students to work individually or in groups as they are the center of the teaching/learning process (the teacher is a guide and a monitor, not a source of knowledge), and employing support activities.

2. Classroom management including: accompanying students from the school yard to the classroom; organizing and managing grouping in the classroom, educational activities, and students participation; and effectively using the board and the different instructional materials.
3. Evaluating students work through recognizing the different types of evaluation (diagnostic, formative, or summative) and their various elements (questions, instructions, directions, the marking criteria, etc.), organizing evaluation processes, and analyzing and using evaluation results.
4. Managing CPD through being aware of the importance of self- development as the best way to develop the educator's professional competences, analyzing teachers needs and trying to meet them with collaboration of teachers and inspectors, continually sharing and exchanging knowledge and expertise with other teachers (using the ICTs), and working and continually collaborating with the establishment community.

(Benarbia & Zeghdani, 2015, p. 1-2)

The mentoring process starts with a meeting where the inspector invites mentee teachers and a number of mentor and experienced teachers and together they set a road map to the process. During this meeting, four initial procedures are to be followed. The “mentoring guide” is first explained focusing on the competences to be developed by the mentee teacher. Then, a mentor teacher is assigned to each mentee teacher the role of whom is to offer guidance and support to mentee teachers. A meetings schedule (mentee/mentor) is then set using the accompanying sample – the meetings are to take place outside the mentee teacher working hours in the first trimester of the academic year. A “mentoring card” stating the objectives of each mentoring session is given to each mentee teacher to be used during their meetings with mentor teachers. The Mentor teachers’ role is then to guide the mentee towards

achieving these objectives and to evaluate the competences to be developed by the mentee teacher.

The mentoring process takes place in the school where the mentor teacher works. The headmaster of this school has also a role to play in the process. He has to follow the mentoring process and to make sure it proceeds according to the pre-set schedule. Once all the mentoring sessions (15 sessions) have been accomplished, the mentor teacher evaluates the mentee competences using the accompanying “mentee evaluation card”. While a copy of this card is given to the mentee, another one is delivered to the inspector after being signed by both the mentor teacher and the host school headmaster. This evaluation card and the mentoring one are then to be exploited by the inspector to improve this sort of PD processes. The content of the 15 mentoring sessions is described in the following table.

Table.2.4.

Content of the Mentoring Sessions (The General Inspectorate of Pedagogy, the Mentor Teacher Guide, 2015-2016, pp. 1-5).

Session	Content
1	Recognizing the teacher's documents : the curriculum, the textbook, the teacher's guide, the yearly planning, etc.
2	Using educational documents to prepare a “learning situation” or a lesson particularly the accompanying document, the textbook, and the teacher's guide.
3	Preparing a lesson plan according to the CBA. (the mentee teacher is to be asked to prepare one)
4	Reflecting on the lesson plan prepared by the mentee teacher focusing on the lesson stages, the presentation techniques, the evaluation procedures, etc.
5	Observing the mentor teacher presenting a lesson and reflecting on all its aspects (stages, timing, the use of the board and other materials, etc.)

**the mentee teacher is asked to prepare a plan for the next lesson.*

- 6** Observing the mentor teacher presenting the same lesson as the one prepared by the mentee teacher and then comparing the two plans and reflecting on them.

**the mentee teacher is asked to prepare a lesson to be presented in front of the mentor teacher.*

- 7** Preparing and presenting a lesson while being observed by the mentor teacher then comparing what was prepared by the mentee with that of the mentor teacher and reflecting on all the lessons aspects (stages, timing, the use of the board and other materials, etc.)

**the mentee teacher is asked to prepare another lesson to be presented in front of the mentor teacher.*

- 8** Presenting the prepared lesson while being observed by the mentor teacher and then reflecting on the lesson's aspects focusing on the link between the intended competences and the content, the selected activities and whether they help achieving the intended objectives, the importance of planning lessons, etc.

**the mentee teacher is asked to prepare another lesson to be presented in front of the mentor teacher.*

- 9** Presenting the prepared lesson while being observed by the mentor teacher and then reflecting on the lesson's aspects focusing on the groups organization, evaluating students' work, using pedagogical materials, considering students personal differences, etc.

**the mentee teacher is asked to write a short research paper on the importance of evaluation, its types, and methods.*

- 10** Holding a discussion on the issue of evaluation including evaluation as part of the curriculum and of the teaching/learning process, its types, continuing evaluation, and the school report.

**the mentee teacher is asked to prepare a test.*

- 11** Discussing the content of the test with the mentor teacher answering a set of questions about the competences to be evaluated, the content, its relation to the

syllabus, the timing, appropriateness, etc.

**the mentee teacher is given a set of students' copies and asked to correct them.*

- 12** Examining some students copies together with the mentor teacher who explains to the mentee how to deduce the areas of weakness for each student and what treatment methods work best.

**the mentee teacher is asked to prepare a short research work on the concept of "pedagogical treatment"*

- 13** Attending a pedagogical treatment session with the mentor teacher then reflecting on its pedagogical and educational aspects(preparation, presentation, individual differences among students, assessment, etc.)

**the mentee teacher is asked to prepare a pedagogical treatment session.*

- 14** Presenting a pedagogical treatment session while being observed by the mentor teacher.

**the mentee teacher is asked to prepare a research work on the importance of using ICTs in teaching his subject matter.*

- 15** Presenting the research work discussing with the mentor teacher the importance of using ICTs in teaching.

2.2.2.2. Continuing Professional Development

2.2.2.2.1. Teacher Supervision through Classroom Visits

Language teacher supervision as described by Gebhard (1990, p.1) is "an ongoing process of teacher education in which the supervisor observes what goes on in the teacher's classroom with an eye toward the goal of improved instruction". That is, a supervisor is "anyone who has, as a substantial element in her or his professional remit, the duty of monitoring and improving the quality of teaching done by other colleagues in a given educational situation" (Wallace, 1991, p. 107). According to Acheson and Gall (1997, p. 242),

a supervisor can have one of six different supervisory roles; he can be a counselor, coach, consultant, mentor, cooperative teacher, or an inspector.

School supervision is too often characterized by the “inspection” model. This model which is widely applied in schools is usually practiced through inspection visits where inspectors critically examine the teaching/learning process with the stated goal of the improvement of instructional practices.

According to Article 140(28) paragraph 1 of the executive decree N°12-240 of May 29, 2012, on the fundamental law of education employees, inspectors of national education perform their inspection activities in the affiliated secondary schools. The article further defines the roles of inspectors as follows:

- Ensuring that educational institutions are well-functioning; that the regulations, schedules, and official times are respected; and that the ICTs are being used.
- Training education employees (teachers), inspecting them, monitoring their performance and evaluating it.
- Participating in research projects related to their subject matter, and can be assigned to assume an investigative function.

A common act of inspectors is that of classroom visitation. Indeed, as stated by Burke and Krey (2005, p. 400), classroom visitation “traditionally and presently, is seen as the major symbol of the supervisory act”. It refers to the activity of making in-classroom visits to observe and evaluate the teacher’s performance, the students learning, and the teaching/learning process. As described in the National Education Inspector’s Guide (2012, p.18), classroom visitation is a cooperative, instructional, and evaluative process which serves the following purposes:

- Observing the teaching / learning activities taking place

- Observing the teacher effectiveness in the classroom and getting insight into students' expectations of their teachers
- Ensuring that the teaching syllabi and annual plans are applied with an eye toward potential difficulties
- Finding out how teachers respond to and perform as directed in previous visits
- Identifying the students and the teachers needs and planning to meet them
- Co-learning through sharing new methods, innovative experiences, and effective teaching methods.

For a classroom visitation to be successful, a number of topics should be considered.

According to Burke and Krey (2005, p. 404), these include the following:

- How many visits should there be per year?
- Should these visits be scheduled or unscheduled?
- Should the teacher be involved in planning the visit?
- Should notes be taken during these visits?
- Should a rating scale or other data-reporting device be used?
- Should a written report be kept?
- Should there be conferences related to the visits?
- What items should be included in oral and written reports?

In the Algerian educational context, classroom visitation is a common supervisory practice. However, the frequency of the inspector's visits is somehow restricted. Generally, a teacher may be visited once, twice or in best cases three times during the school year. The visit takes the whole teaching session and is followed by a post-visit conference where both the teacher and the inspector study, analyze, and reflect on the teaching/learning process. The type of classroom visit that the inspector might make relates to the objective of the visit.

Hence, a classroom visit can be classified as an orientation visit, monitoring visit, promotion visit, or a placement visit.

Teachers differ in terms of training, experiences, abilities, and personalities. However, all of them need to be visited and supervised. While a beginning teacher may need some guidance, encouragement, and assistance with the different classroom problems he may encounter; an experienced teacher may only need an update on new instructional materials and teaching methods.

Accordingly, an orientation visit is specifically made to new teachers by way of orienting them to the school and providing the needed information and instructions which would help them improve their teaching practices. The monitoring visit, on the other hand, is a follow-up visit carried out to find out whether and how well the instructions, suggestions, and recommendations made in previous visits by the inspector are applied by teachers. Another type of visits is the promotion visit. The purpose of such visit is to promote teachers who are qualified for upper grades through observing the teacher and attributing him an “inspectional score”. The last type of visits is the placement visit which are made to evaluate the trainee teacher’s professional and cultural level and to find out whether this teacher - after completing the training period- is adequately prepared to practice the teaching profession or not; that is, whether he is to be qualified as a tenure teacher or not. Such visit, however, should be preceded by other orientation visits and is subject to special administrative and educational procedures which are defined in the ministerial texts and decisions.

2.2.2.2.2. Training Seminars and Workshops

Teacher training plays an essential role in the success of any educational process. Hence, it is essential to provide teachers with quality training opportunities that meet their needs and help improve their teaching effectiveness. These opportunities can take different forms as they can also be provided by different institutions or individuals.

As defined in the National Education Inspector's Guide (2012, p. 24), training is an essential and a vital process for developing education, improving performance and updating materials. Therefore, training providers need to know how to plan, implement, follow, and evaluate the training procedures. In the Algerian educational setup, the inspector plays an important part in the overall teachers training program. Indeed, it is a key responsibility of the inspector to provide training to all teachers being beginning, mid-career, or late-career ones. As set in the National Education Inspector's Guide (2012, p. 24), the inspector's role in teachers training is organized as follows:

- The inspector should consider the teachers deficiencies in knowledge and instructional methodology observed through classroom visits; that is, he should identify the teachers' needs and schedule the training activities (educational seminars, study days, forums) accordingly.
- Training activities can be scheduled according to the topics to be covered or according to the teachers to participate in the training activity (all teachers, teachers in charge of a subject, teachers of a certain grade, tenured teachers, novice teachers)
- The inspector follows up, monitors and evaluates the outcomes of the training activities in the field, through examining the teachers implementation of what they have learnt in those training activities.
- The practical procedures for the implementation of training processes are subject to regulatory texts and decisions.

A very common method of teachers PD in Algeria is the lecture method through the seminars and workshops which are often organized with the aim of improving teachers' content knowledge and /or pedagogical skills. A Seminar as defined by Bly (2001, p. 8-9) is "a presentation on a topic covering some facet of knowledge or skill...the presentation is usually organized into modules. The speaker's goal is to impart knowledge of the topic, and

he or she typically uses a combination of lecture, visual aids, interaction with participants, and exercises to get the job done". A workshop is another form of training which is similar to the seminar, but organized to develop more practical aspects. As stated by Bly (ibid), a workshop is "similar to a seminar but with a greater degree of attendee participation, interaction, and hands-on exercises". The difference between the two training forms is further explained by Bly through the following example: "A seminar may convey the fundamentals of web site design, but at a workshop on the subject, trainees may actually design web pages during the class, and even walk away with their finished web site on disk as part of the program".

Different factors can determine the success or failure of a training seminar or workshop. A major one is the qualities of the speaker – also referred to as the trainer or the seminar leader. A speaker should have valuable experience in his/her field; he should be well-informed and has something that participants can learn from. He should have fresh ideas through reading and keeping abreast of the new things in his specialty. He should also have the desire and the ability to share his knowledge and experience with others in a clear and motivating way.

Teachers training seminars and workshops in the Algerian educational setup are generally presented by the inspector of the subject. Having been a teacher for a long period, and receiving a whole year specialized training, the inspector is expected to have the necessary content and pedagogical knowledge and skills, as well as the needed experience to train teachers. Indeed, organizing and presenting teachers training seminars and workshops form part of the inspector's major roles. However, the inspector does not always play the role of the speaker. In many occasions, he just assumes the role of the organizer. As part of this role, the inspector plans and prepares the seminar or workshop's program deciding the date, time, place, and the theme and assigns the different aspects of the selected theme to the participant teachers who would be the speakers. In such situations, the inspector usually

directs the seminar, takes part in the discussion, encourages participation in the discussion, as he may also summarize the discussion at the end.

As part of their CPD, all teachers are required to attend training seminars and workshops. These seminars and workshops are held on a half-day (usually mornings only) or on a full-day basis including a coffee and /or a lunch break. They are generally characterized by their interactive nature. However, the themes are not always that interesting to teachers. For instance, the CBA, which is a recurrent theme in the seminars for teachers of English, would not be so beneficial to teachers as it doesn't address the real challenges of everyday teaching which are more related to classroom management and students demotivation to learn English.

2.2.2.2.3. Internal Educational Seminars

In addition to participating in the educational seminars and workshops organized by the inspector of education outside the work place, teachers are also asked to held internal educational seminars as part of their CPD. As defined by the National Institute for the Training of Education Staff (Institut National de Formation des Personnels de L'Education (INFPE) (2005, p. 71), The internal educational seminar is a training process that occupies a certain time period and lasts one day or part of a day. It may be a single independent event in its own right, as it may form part of a series of works. The internal educational seminar includes a presentation that addresses the contents, the analysis of teaching or training material(s), or a practical work session intended to analyze the presented lesson(s) and to demonstrate the relationship between the lessons(the content, teaching method, etc.) and what is included in the presentation. The aim behind such analysis is to draw lessons for the future, and to find out the educational behaviors which are to be adopted in situations similar to the subject of study in the seminar.

In the Algerian context, internal seminars play an important role in TPD. Indeed, they help achieve a number of TPD objectives. As stated by the INFPE (2005, p.71-72), internal seminars aim at:

- Deepening, consolidating and updating teachers' knowledge.
- Raising educational issues and looking for possible solutions, and devising effective delivering methods compatible with local financial capabilities.
- Developing teachers' positive attitudes, promoting teamwork, and developing communication methods among educational teams.
- Disseminating sound methodologies of organization, analysis, deduction and innovation.

This educational and training activity is practiced in every educational institution and organized according to article 3 of the ministerial decision N° 174, which articulates the coordinator's roles. It states that the coordinator- after consulting teachers of the subject- should present a calendar of coordination meetings and the internal educational days to the head of the school. These meetings should be recorded in a special register for this purpose. A copy of the calendar should also be sent to the inspector of the subject for follow up and participation purposes.

An internal educational seminar is not the end in itself. Rather, it is a means to an end. It is a means - among others- towards improving the educational performance (teaching and learning). However, an internal seminar is only effective when it includes an element of discussion and analysis. Otherwise, it would be incomplete. This phase would provide participant teachers with the opportunity to share their ideas and opinions based on their theoretical and practical experiences. Henceforth, the analysis should consider mainly the degree to which the presented lesson has fulfilled the following functions:

- **Proving:** this function relates to confirming a hypothesis or a set of hypotheses included in the presentation, as it may also mean to adopt or abandon an educational behavior or the relationship between a certain educational methodology and the syllabus objectives.
- **Clarifying:** that is, giving teachers concrete practical examples of what was included in the presentation; ones which – if well-assimilated- can be imitated in their own classrooms with their students.
- **Evaluating:** the presented lesson should be evaluated including the preparation, the intended outcomes, the presentation method, the materials, and the techniques used. Such function would allow teachers to reflect on, to assess, and to adjust their day-to-day teaching practices. (INFPE, 2005, p. 74)

2.2.2.2.4. ICTs- related Professional Development for Teachers

Among the latest innovations in the field of education is the integration of Information and Communications Technology (ICT) in teaching and learning. Simply defined, ICT refers to any device or system that allows the storage, retrieval, manipulation, transmission and receipt of digital information. It covers hardware (computers, scanners, etc.), software (systems software, word-processors, etc.), and all the communications technologies people use such as internet, networks, e-mail, and videoconferencing (Doyle, 2008 p.124). However, despite its great value, the use of ICT in educational settings is still limited. In fact, in addition to the lack of availability of the necessary ICTs infrastructures in schools, curriculum constraints, assessment practices, and education policies; teachers lack of knowledge, skills and expertise in the use of technology stands as a major reason for the limited use of ICTs (Vrasidas & Glass, 2007, p. 87). Hence, if it is to be successfully integrated in schools, ICT should be an integral part of teachers PD programs.

Preparing teachers to effectively integrate ICTs in their classrooms is, in fact, no easy task. Designers of TPD programs need to consider a set of key related issues as the context,

learners, and goals; as they need also to choose the appropriate strategies that best serve teachers' needs. Indeed, the literature on ICT professional development presents a number of strategies for effective TPD. These are summarized by Vrasidas and Glass (2007, p. 93) in the following table.

Table.2.5.

Key Issues and Strategies for ICT- related Professional Development (Vrasidas & Glass, 2007, p. 93)

Key issue	Strategy
Learning designs	Design programs based on what we know about how ICT can support learning
Authentic engagement within teacher's contexts	Situate programs in teachers' context so that activities are authentic
Opportunities for reflection	Design activities that encourage participants to use ICT and reflect on their practice
Collaborative efforts	Encourage the use of ICT for collaboration among all stakeholders in the design, implementation, and evaluation of programs
Ongoing support	Use ICT and online technologies to provide ongoing support
Informal learning	Provide opportunities for informal learning and support
Systemic effort	Coordinate professional development with broader ICT and school improvement efforts
Leadership	Foster leadership that nurtures innovation, change, and the creation of schools as learning organizations

Great efforts on the part of the Algerian MNE have been made to introduce and integrate ICTs in schools. Indeed, integrating ICT in the educational system formed part of the ambitious e-Algérie plan which was launched in 2006. Accordingly, different measures have since been taken including: increasing the number of computers in schools (equipping them with computer labs), connecting schools to the national internet network, adopting ICT

as an integral part of the educational programs (middle and secondary schools), and providing computer training for both students and teachers.

To enhance the use of ICT in schools, the MNE has further undertaken a number of initiatives. In addition to the enormous volume of public funds invested in supplying schools with computers and internet access, a number of contracts and agreements with national and international organizations – for example with the Ministry of the Post, Information and Communication Technologies (2016), with UNESCO, etc.- have been signed. According to Hamdy (2007, p. 5-6), these initiatives and the related strategies, under the heading of e-learning, were set forth to:

- Promote the development of e-learning resources
- Facilitate public-private partnerships to mobilise resources in order to support e-learning initiatives
- Promote the development of integrated e-learning curriculum to support ICT in education
- Promote distance education and virtual institutions, particularly in higher education and training
- Promote the establishment of a national ICT centre of excellence
- Provide affordable infrastructure to facilitate dissemination of knowledge and skill through e-learning platforms
- Promote the development of content to address the educational needs of primary, secondary, and tertiary institutions
- Create awareness of the opportunities offered by ICT as an educational tool to the education sector
- Facilitate sharing of e-learning resources between institutions
- Integrate e-learning resources with other existing resources

Despite the efforts made, the use of ICT in Algerian educational settings is still limited. Indeed, the desired level of ICT integration in teaching and learning is yet to be achieved. A major reason behind this failure relates to the lack of PD of teachers in the use of ICT. As stated by Hamdy (2007, p.6), the program of ICT training in Algeria “has been limited to basic information, with most receiving 30-60 hours of training... this has to date very little impact on the quality or method of delivery of education in the classroom”. The major components of this training program are further described by Hamdy (2007, p.6) as follows:

- Basic ICT training: basic operations, Windows-based software, e-mail, and Internet
- Intermediate training: classroom applications, Internet for teaching, and e-mail as a medium for communication and collaboration
- Advanced training: development and creation of educational software, on-line classes, telecommunication, e-mailing, development of interactive web sites, production of multimedia presentations, producing creative work.

However, an effective integration of ICT in teaching and learning calls for more adequate PD of teachers. According to Léon (2001, p.6), “teachers need more than a few courses focused on hardware or surveys on educational software; rather they require training that incorporates technology into the curriculum – and allows time for teachers to experiment with new technologies and to participate in relevant professional development activities”. Coutinho (in Yang & Yuen, 2010, p. 387) adds “more than quantity it is the quality of teacher development programs that is the key to a successful integration of ICT into the classroom”. Hence, equipping Algerian teachers with technology resources and skills should form part of TPD programs if they are to use ICT effectively in their classrooms.

2.2.2.2.5. Professional Development of Teachers through Distance Learning

In recent years, the use of ICTs has opened new avenues of development and growth for teachers around the world. ICTs, which are now commonplace in educational settings, have

provided teachers with unlimited opportunities to collaborate, to exchange, and to share knowledge and expertise. Indeed, web-based learning has become an indispensable resource for teachers and trainers. As defined by Danenberg and Chen (in Margherita, 2005, p. 1084), Web-based learning is “one of the tools with which education is delivered at a distance electronically”. Often, the term web-based learning is used interchangeably with terms like distance education, distributed learning, remote education, online learning, or distance learning which, as Danenberg and Chen (ibid) argue, all may refer to the similar education deliverables.

In the Algerian context, teachers can participate in different online training courses, networks, and plateformes available through the web. These courses are helpful in providing teachers with teaching resources and materials, in updating their knowledge and in sharing their experiences. However, these web-based training courses are provided by foreign or private agencies. Although the MNE has been speaking about a Digital Plateforme for Training for a couple of years, this project has yet to be realized.

2.2.2.2.6. Other Professional Development Initiatives

Among the TPD initiatives in the Algerian context is the one introduced by the British council in Algeria. In recent years, the British council has significantly been involved in the training of the Algerian teachers of English. For instance, it has developed “The Algerian English Language Teachers Professional Network (AELTPN)” which is a free service dedicated to all Algerian English teachers, teacher trainers and English language teaching professionals at all levels (middle, secondary and tertiary) and in all sectors (public and private schools). As sited in the British council site, the AELTPN is designed to support teachers CPD and to encourage networking between English language teachers and educators. It provides teachers with opportunities to exchange teaching experiences and input on

innovative teaching approaches and techniques. The AELTPN contributes to teacher PD in two different ways:

- Regular workshops delivered either by British Council trainers or guest speakers. Each workshop includes a practical section for teachers to acquire new techniques and approaches, and
- Links to useful websites and other resources. (the British Council website)

Moreover, the British council offers a variety of both free and paid online teacher training courses covering different teaching areas. To provide further support for teachers, the council provides a collection of free online teaching resources and materials (lesson plans, classroom activities, TeachingEnglish articles, etc.) on its website.

However, though these initiatives are beneficial to teachers who participate in them, they are still limited. As Boudersa (2016, p.6) argues “despitethe fact that such modest attempts help Algerian teachers to get more informed and improvethe quality of their teaching, they still remain limited, not to say non-effective”. That is, Algerian educational institutions should make more efforts and introduce more initiatives to render training through e-learning more available for teachers and more effective in improving the teaching/learning process.

2.3. Teacher Professional Development in Recent Ministerial Circulars

In recent years, TPD has formed an important part of the circulars issued by the Algerian MNE. Indeed, the circulars 884 of 30th April, 2017 and 1053 dated June 24, 2018 laid out a comprehensive vision for TPD considering it as an indispensable component of the educational reform and one which is pivotal to the success of the gradual professionalization of national education. To this end, the MNE has formulated a three-year strategic plan for training including six different types: the preparatory pedagogical training, the additional pre-upgrading training, the pre-appointment training, specialized training (for educational

employees other than teachers), in-service training, and distance training (the circular frame 1053, p.9).

At the heart of this three-year strategic plan are attempts to improve the qualities of the educational staff regarding two main aspects, the pedagogical aspect and that of the governance of education. As far as the pedagogical aspect is concerned, the formulated plan aims at improving the teaching/learning practices through providing training in didactics and classroom management. The second aspect “la governance de système éducatif” relates to the pedagogical and administrative management in the educational sector. As stated in the circular, in addition to the pedagogical aspect, teachers training should also include this aspect of governance. Therefore, teachers, as part of the educational personnel, will continue receiving training on themes like project management through performance indicators, mediation, and the fight against corruption.

Circular 1053 has further introduced a set of guidelines for organizing TPD. Acts 106-116 (p.10) recommended carrying out the following operations:

- Developing the training processes plans in collaboration with the inspection board and providing these plans to the training directorate to validate and integrate them in the annual sectoral plan of training.
- Rationalizing expenditures and complying with the subsidies granted to the Directorate of Education by taking all measures to ensure that the determined training processes are carried out.
- Continuing to train the sector personnel, without exception, in the use of ICTs using the computer laboratories available in both middle and high schools.
- Strengthening the e-learning platform dedicated to new teachers, inspectors and school heads with digital educational content.

- Encouraging the schools personnel to improve their professional skills using the digital platforms, in particular, those put into service by the Training Directorate and intended for new recruits.
- Providing training on the use and maintenance of technical-pedagogical and computer equipments for teachers and laboratory technicians.
- Integrating teachers from the National Office for Distance Education and Training (l'office national d'enseignement et de formation à distance 'ONEFD') into the experiential teacher training scheme, and involving them in the weekly pedagogical days with their colleagues from schools.
- Executing the preparatory training plan for newly recruited teachers and assisting them according to the system established jointly by the Training Directorate and the General Inspectorate of Pedagogy.
- Ensuring that trainee teachers and those undergoing specialized training follow their training in the workplace, according to an annual program developed by the Training Department in collaboration with the General Inspectorate of Pedagogy.
- Scheduling training processes supervised by inspectors or teacher trainers for contractual or substitute teachers.
- Organizing a system for receiving and accompanying TTS trainees in schools during practical training courses in order to facilitate their training and prepare them, in the best professional conditions, for integration into the national education system.

Conclusion

To conclude, teacher professional development in Algeria has witnessed major changes throughout history. While it was no priority in the past, it has recently attracted great attention as being indispensable for the success of any educational reform. In efforts to improve the

teaching quality, many teacher professional development initiatives have been introduced including the different phases of a teaching career. However, many questions are still raised as for the quality of the teacher professional development program and its effectiveness in improving teaching practices and students learning outcomes.

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Chapter Three: Evaluating Teacher Professional Development

Introduction

This chapter is dedicated to the issue of professional development evaluation. More specifically, it provides an overview of some of the key issues associated with evaluating teacher professional development programs. The chapter first introduces some basic concepts related to the topic. In particular, it starts by defining the concepts of evaluation, program, and program evaluation. The chapter further discusses the nature of program evaluation reviewing its essential components and setting out its main purposes. It then describes the three phases of the evaluation process and presents some useful methods which can be used to evaluate a professional development program. The chapter also introduces the standards which should be applied to conduct an effective evaluation. Moreover, it traces the history of professional development evaluation presenting a description of eight of its principal models. The chapter then considers some of the criticisms of past and current evaluation practices by looking at their limitations, and concludes with a discussion of the major problems associated with evaluating professional development programs.

3.1. Definition of Evaluation

The increase focus on TPD over recent years has been paralleled by growing need for evaluation. Indeed, on-going and systemic evaluation of TPD has been argued to be a characteristic common to effective PD. As with PD, many definitions of “evaluation” have been formulated, most of which focus on the different stages involved in the process of evaluation. However, a definition which highlights the nature and the essence of evaluation is the one provided by Guskey (2000, p.41) who defines evaluation as “the systematic investigation of merit or worth”.

According to Guskey, evaluation is in essence a systematic process. An idea further supported by Gredler (1996, p. 3) who defines evaluation as “the systematic collection of

information to assist in decision making”. That is, evaluation is a “thoughtful, intentional, and purposeful process” (Guskey, 2000, p.42). Before engaging in an evaluation process, one should carefully think about it ; thoughtful planning is required. There should be clear reasons for conducting the evaluation process, as well as explicit purposes and goals to be attained.

Evaluation is also an investigation process. In Guskey’s words, investigation refers to “the collection and analysis of appropriate and pertinent information. ...it is based on the acquisition of specific, relevant, and valid evidence examined through appropriate methods and techniques” (2000, p.42). Hence, evaluation typically involves asking questions which are related to the predefined purposes, then seeking and gathering relevant data to answer those questions which can be done in a variety of ways.

“Evaluation is about ascertaining value and worth. It is not so much about checking that what you planned to do has happened, but about whether or not what happens is worthwhile” Craft (2000, p.82) argues. In other words, evaluation is about judgments. It is the process of “judging the worth or merit of something or the product of the process” (Scriven, 1991, p.139), and of “placing a value on things ... it involves making judgments about the worth of an activity through systematically and openly collecting and analyzing information about it and relating this to explicit objectives, criteria and values” (Aspinwall et al. as cited in Craft, 2000, p.11). It is designed and conducted “to assist some audience to assess an object’s merit or worth”(Stufflebeam, 2001, p.11). Mertens and Wilson (2012, p.6) explain “merit is the absolute or relative quality of something, either intrinsically or in regard to a particular criterion... worth is an outcome of an evaluation and refers to the evaluand’s value in a particular context”.

However, to be able to judge the quality of something and to determine its value, four procedures are involved; (a) determining standards for judging quality, (b) deciding whether those standards should be relative or absolute, (c) collecting relevant information, and (d)

applying the standards to determine value or quality (Worthen & Sanders, as cited in Guskey, 2000, p.42).

3.2. Definition of Program Evaluation

Other esteemed scholars in the field of PD have offered more specific definitions which have to do with “program evaluation”. A program as defined by Lodico, Spaulding, and Voegtler (2010, p. 379) is “a set of specific activities designed for an intended purpose with quantifiable goals and objectives”. Similarly, Killian (2008, p.11) defines it as “a set of purposeful, planned actions and the support system necessary to achieve the identified goals”. A more complete definition of program is the one provided by Yarbrough, Shulha, Hopson, and Caruthers (2011, p. XXIV) who define it as:

a set of planned systematic activities; using managed resources; to achieve specified goals related to specific needs of specific, identified, participating human individuals or groups; in specific contexts; resulting in documentable outputs, outcomes, and impacts; following assumes (explicit or implicit) systems of belief (diagnostic, causal, intervention, and implementation theories about how the program works); with specific, investigable costs and benefits.

To determine the worth of a given PD program educators need to conduct program evaluation. According to Quinn Patton (1997, p.27), program evaluation is “the systematic collection of information about activities, characteristics, and outcomes of programs to make judgment about the program, improve the program effectiveness and/or inform decisions about future programming”. Weiss (1998, p. 4) on her part, asserts that program evaluation is “the systematic assessment of the operation/or outcomes of a program or policy, compared to a set of explicit or implicit standards, as a means of contributing to the improvement of the program or policy”. Similarly, Killian (2008, p.215) defines it as “a systemic, purposeful process of studying, reviewing and analysing data gathered from multiple sources in order to

make informed decisions about a program”. These definitions have been further expanded by Yarbrough et al.(2011, p. XXV) to include

- the systematic investigation of the quality of programs, projects, subprogram, subprojects , and /or any of their components or elements, together, or singly
- for purposes of decision making, judgments, conclusions, findings, new knowledge, organizational development, and capacity building in response to the needs of identified stakeholders
- leading to improvement and/or accountability in the users’ programs and systems
- ultimately contributing to organizational or social value.

“Program evaluation is critical to assess professional development” argues Zepeda (2013, p. 18-9). It is particularly important because the results it yields can help answer questions about the worth or merit of PD programs such as:

- What programs are working?
- Which are not working well and why?
- What intended results have been realized? Which have not?
- Which parts of programs have been contributing more than others?
- Which parts are not contributing and why?
- What PD is needed?
- What changes in supervision are needed?
- What monitoring is needed?
- In what areas do programs need to be improved?
- Are there parts of programs or entire programs that should be discontinued?

Ponticell and Olivarez (as cited in Zepeda, 2013, p. 19)

Hence, evaluating a PD program is in essence a systematic, purposeful investigating process which requires thoughtful planning, collecting and analyzing relevant data using

appropriate methods and techniques, and, as a result, making informed decisions about the quality of the PD processes as well as their effects guided by a set of predetermined standards. The findings of such evaluation processes will, then, be the basis for future improvements in PD programs.

3.3. Basic Elements of Program Evaluation

Answering the question: what exactly does a program evaluation entail? Duke and Corno (1981, p. 94), turning to Weiss (1972), conclude that any program evaluation should comprise five basic elements: goals, participants, program, setting, and outcomes.

Goals: The first critical element to be considered when evaluating a PD program is what is to be accomplished. In other words, evaluators need to clarify the goals or objectives of the evaluation process, as they need also to formulate appropriate evaluation questions the answers of which will aid decisions about the future use of the evaluated program.

Participants: Another basic element in any program evaluation process is the participants; the evaluator should consider selecting a representative sample from the total range of participants available. Duke and Corno (1981, p. 95) argue “the closer a sample resembles a population of interest, the more confidence we have that evaluation results will be true for the entire population”.

Program: Before evaluating it, a program must be conceptualized, interpreted, and defined by evaluators (Weiss, 1972). Moreover, evaluators need to determine the extent to which the program has been realized (Cronbach, as cited in Duke & Corno). After all, there is no point in evaluating a program if it has not been implemented or used by participants (Duke & Corno, 1981, p.96)

Setting: The setting and the context in which the evaluation occurs are essential elements in any program evaluation. They influence “the questions evaluators ask and the

procedures they adopt as well as the outcomes they seek to assess” (Fullan & Pomfret, as cited in Duke & Corno, 1981, p.96). Hence, evaluators need to carefully analyse and assess the various settings and the context variables in which the PD program takes place.

Outcomes: Another critical element of PD program evaluation is the assessment of program outcomes. According to Duke and Corno (1981, p.97), to ensure that accurate outcomes data are collected, evaluators need to consider four elements:

- Multiple measures: the use of several measures is desirable. Indeed, “without multiple measures, it is impossible to assess the extent to which any single outcome indicator is measuring what it purports to measure”
- Unanticipated outcomes: evaluators need to collect data on both anticipated and unanticipated outcomes.
- Involvement of a wide range of participants: when collecting data about the program outcomes, evaluators should also consider involving a wide range of individuals participating in or affected by the program.
- The timing of data collection: outcome measures taken at several times during and after program implementation are more useful than those obtained at one time only.

3.4. Types and Purposes of Evaluation

Just as there is a variety of PD forms for teachers, there exists also a variety of purposes for conducting a TPD evaluation process. These purposes influence strongly the decisions about the design as well as the implementation of any evaluation process. Arguing for the importance of defining the purposes of the evaluation process, Patton (1997, p. 65) asserts: “To evaluate how well you’re doing, you must have some place you are trying to get to. For programs, this has meant having goals and evaluating goal attainment. For evaluators, this

means clarifying the intended uses of a particular evaluation". Indeed, the different types of evaluation stem from its different purposes.

According to Patton (1997, p. 65), Evaluation can serve three main purposes. It may be conducted for making overall judgments, facilitating improvements, and/or generating knowledge. The evaluation process can have one of these non-conflicting purposes as the primary purpose, as it may incorporate them all.

3.4.1. Judgment-oriented evaluation

One of the primary purposes of evaluations is to render overall judgments about a particular program. In Patton's words, the purpose of such judgment-oriented evaluations is "determining the overall merit, worth, or value of something" (1997, p. 65). Patton further explains "merit refers to the intrinsic value of a program, for example, how effective it is in meeting the needs of those it is intended to help. Worth refers to extrinsic value to those outside the program, for example, to the larger community or society" (1997, p.65). Hence, seeking overall judgments means answering questions about the degree of meeting some needs, attainment of predefined goals, and achievement of set standards. Examples of such questions are: did the program work? Did it attain its goals? Should the program be continued or ended? Was implementation in compliance with funding mandates? Were funds used appropriately for the intended purposes? Were desired client outcomes achieved?

However, for an evaluation aiming at rendering overall judgments about the value of a program to succeed, clear bases for value judgments are to be clearly identified. Supporting this idea, Patton asserts: "in judgment-oriented evaluations, specifying the criteria for judgment is central and critical" (1997, p.66). After all, one can't interpret the findings of a program evaluation and make sound judgments about its value without having clear criteria as the bases for their judgments. However, this is just one of four steps which are necessary in any judgment-oriented evaluation. These steps, according to Shadish, Cook, and Leviton

(1991, p.73, 83-94) are : (1) select criteria of merit; (2) set standards of performance; (3) measure performance; and (4) synthesize results into a judgment of value.

3.4.1.1. Summative Evaluation

One of the fundamental types which is considered as a major form of judgment-oriented evaluation is summative evaluation. According to Scriven (1991, p.340),

Summative evaluation of a program is conducted after completion of the program (for ongoing programs that means after stabilisation) and for the benefit of some external audience or decision-maker (for example, funding agency, over-sight office, historian, or future possible users)... The decisions it receives are most often decisions between these options: export (generalise), increase site support, continue site support, continue with conditions (probationary status), continue with modifications, discontinue... the aim is to report on it [the program] not to report to it.

Hence, summative evaluation is one that is conducted once a program has been completed. Its purpose is to make judgments about the merit, effectiveness, or worth of the program. It provides decision makers with data on the bases of which they can build their judgement and make crucial decisions as to continue the program as it is, to continue with necessary modifications, to expand it, or to discontinue. Guskey (as cited in Martin et al. 2014, p.451) adds: "Summative evaluation describes what was accomplished, what were the consequences (positive and negative), what were the final results (intended and unintended), and, in some cases, did benefits justify the costs".

3.4.2. Improvement-oriented Evaluation

Another primary purpose for conducting evaluations is facilitating improvement. That is, the results obtained through such evaluations are intended to be used in improving the program being evaluated. Describing the nature of improvement-oriented evaluation

approaches, Patton (1997, p. 68) asserts: "Improvement-oriented approaches tend to be more open ended, gathering varieties of data about strengths and weaknesses with the expectation that both will be found and each can be used to inform an ongoing cycle of reflection and innovation". Hence, unlike judgmental evaluations which aim at rendering judgments about a particular program on the bases of some predefined criteria, improvement-oriented evaluations involve collecting data about the program's possible areas of strengths or weaknesses. The identified strengths and weaknesses are to be used to guide necessary improvements and to render the program more effective. Doing so, different kinds of questions are asked. Examples are:

What are the program's strengths and weaknesses? To what extent are participants progressing toward the desired outcomes? Which types of participants are making good progress and which types aren't doing so well? What kinds of implementation problems have emerged and how are they being addressed? What's happening that wasn't expected? How are staff and clients interacting? What are staff and participant perceptions of the program? What do they like? dislike? want to change? What are the perceptions of the program's culture and climate? How are funds being used compared to initial expectations? How is the program's external environment affecting internal operations? Where can efficiencies be realized? What new ideas are emerging that can be tried out and tested?

Patton (1997, p.68)

3.4.2.1. Formative Evaluation

Formative evaluation is a typical example of improvement- oriented evaluations. This form of evaluation, as opposed to summative one, occurs during the program operation; when

the program is still developing and not yet finished and thus amenable to revision (Martin, 2005, p.11). That is, it looks at what is happening in the program, not what happened.

Explaining the process of formative evaluation, Patton (1996, p.69) adds: “Formative evaluation typically connotes collecting data for a specific period of time, usually during the start-up or pilot phase of a project, to improve implementation, solve unanticipated problems, and make sure that participants are progressing toward desired outcomes”. Hence, the purpose of conducting formative evaluations is “to provide those responsible for the program with ongoing information about whether things are going as planned and whether expected progress is being made” (Guskey, as cited in Martin et al. 2014, p.451).

Formative evaluation is a systematic and empirical process which consists of three major phases. These are: “identifying problems and weaknesses in instruction, making revisions based on evaluation data, and trying out the revised version to confirm the success of revisions and identify any further weaknesses” (Martin, 2005, p.24). However, if formative evaluations are to be effective, designers should plan them in advance. Before initiating a formative evaluation, designers should determine “what will be evaluated, what should be asked, who will evaluate it, and when evaluations will take place” (Martin, 2005, p.24). Moreover, they should focus on the conditions for success addressing issues such as: What conditions are necessary for success? Have they been met? Can they be unproved? (Guskey, as cited in Martin et al. 2014, p.451).

An important characteristic of formative evaluation is that it is a recurring process. It is conducted regularly over time to provide feedback on the strengths and weaknesses of a program. The data gathered at the different stages of development and implementation is used to make adjustments, modifications, or revisions (Worthen & Sanders, 1989). Formative evaluation of a program, in this way, is a preparation for final summative evaluation in the

sense that it “connects the separate and distinct evaluation purposes to separate and distinct stages in the program’s development” (Patton, 1996, pp.69-70). Further explaining the relation between formative and summative evaluation, Patton adopted Bob stake’s metaphor “when the cook tastes the soup, that’s formative; when the guests taste the soup, that’s summative” (as cited in Patton, 1996, p.69). That is, the cook tastes the soup in order to improve it so that when it is served to guests the final judgment will be positive.

3.4.3. Knowledge-oriented Evaluation

Another type of evaluation and one which constitutes a distinctive purpose in program evaluations is knowledge-oriented evaluation. Indeed, what renders this type of evaluation different from others is the intended use of the results to be obtained. While both judgment-oriented and improvement-oriented evaluations involve instrumental use of the findings (Leviton & Hughes, 1981, as cited in Patton, 1996, p.70), that is, decisions are to be made, or actions are to be taken based on the results of the evaluation; knowledge-oriented evaluation involves conceptual use of the findings, that is the main purpose of the evaluation is to generate and increase knowledge about a particular issue. This knowledge, Patton (1996, pp.70-1) explains, can be specific as “clarifying a program's model, testing theory, distinguishing types of interventions, figuring out how to measure outcomes, generating lessons learned, and/or elaborating policy options”, or more vague “seeking to understand the program better; the findings, then, may reduce uncertainty, offer illumination, enlighten funders and staff about what participants really experience, enhance communications, and facilitate sharing of perceptions”.

Synthesising the purposes of knowledge-oriented evaluations, Killion (2008, p. 12) introduces a list of four main ones; these are: (1) to add the body of knowledge about the program’s effectiveness, (2) to enlighten thinking about staff development, (3) to identify

patterns of best practices or principles of effectiveness across programs, and (4) to shape language and thinking about practices.

3.4.3.1. Synthesis Evaluation

A distinguished example of knowledge-oriented evaluation is synthesis evaluation. The latter helps evaluators generate knowledge about programs, their effectiveness, and hence successful program evaluations. Synthesis evaluation involves “synthesising findings from different studies” (Patton, 1997, p.72). That is, it opens up the opportunity for the evaluator to “look across findings about specific programs to formulate generalizations about effectiveness” (Patton, *ibid*). Hence, synthesis evaluation is a type of evaluation in which the evaluator brings together existing literature and studies on a specific issue in order to draw learned lessons and to generate theories about it. It is a systematic process based on reviewing, classifying and organising findings from different conducted evaluations, followed by studying, analysing, and assessing the findings, then drawing out implications and lessons and making recommendations for policy makers and program designers for future action.

3.5. Phases of Professional Development Evaluation

Evaluating PD is, in essence, a purposeful and a systematic process. It is, also a basic organizational process (Duke & Corno, 1981, p.93) which goes through different phases. As there is no uniquely correct method for evaluating PD programs (Zepeda, 2013, p.35), evaluators can utilize different methods. All of these methods, however, share the same basic phases which should be followed if the evaluation is to be comprehensive. These are: planning, conducting, and reporting.

3.5.1. Planning

The first phase in the evaluation of a PD program is the planning phase which takes place prior to actual implementation. A sound evaluation is, indeed, based on careful planning

(Smith & beno, 1993, p. 2). According to Duke and Corno (1981, p.93-4), planning PD evaluation is a decision-making process. They explain:

Decisions must be made concerning: (1) evaluation design, (2) data collection, (3) methods of analysis, and (4) presentation of results. Besides these technical decisions, there are a variety of political decisions to be made: (1) the purposes of the evaluation, (2) the specific outcomes to be evaluated, (3) who is to be involved in carrying out the evaluation, (4) who will have access to the results, and (5) what resources are available for conducting the evaluation.

Involving making decisions about what to evaluate, what data to collect, who will collect it and how, toward what ends, and others renders this initial planning phase critical to the success of the whole evaluation process. Indeed, unless it is well-planned, the evaluation process can't be effectively conducted.

3.5.2. Conducting

The planning phase is critical to the success of any evaluation process. Equally important, however, is the actual conducting of the evaluation process. The conducting phase is when the evaluation plan is carried out. It involves collecting and analysing the evaluation data.

Collecting data is a systematic thoughtful process which requires administration of one or more data collection instruments. The evaluator can either develop a new instrument or examine available instruments and select the most appropriate one(s), modifying them if necessary, to meet the evaluation purposes. According to Haslam (2010, p. 25), collecting data is relatively a straightforward process; Nevertheless, it “does require careful record keeping that, in turn, requires reliable procedures to collect and store the data”.

After collecting valid and reliable qualitative and/or quantitative data, the evaluator needs to analyse the data using appropriate analytic procedures. According to Wolf (as cited in Zepeda, 2013, p.39-40), there are three major steps in the analysis of data. The first step is organizing data by variables. Explaining the importance of this step, Zepeda (2013, p. 40) states: “organization of data is an important step in the process of identifying cause and effect relationships. Separation of data by variables allows the evaluators to view each variable’s individual effects on the focus of the evaluation”. The actual analysis of these variables is the second step, while the last one is the presentation of data.

3.5.3. Reporting

Reporting and disseminating the findings is an important phase in the PD program evaluation process. After analysing the data, evaluators need to write an evaluation report in which they are to communicate their evaluation results. The results should be described as clearly as possible in a well-prepared report because “how well results are communicated has a direct impact on the ability of decision makers to respond properly” (Zepeda, 2013, p.40). Moreover, “only when we can describe results in ways that are understandable to various constituencies will we be in a position to offer recommendations for change or to seek additional support” (Guskey, 2000, p.258).

In their guide to staff development evaluation, Smith and Beno (1993, p.15) advise evaluators to make their evaluation reports “clear, persuasive, and concise”. They further suggest an outline that provides a structure for the report and describes the data needed. These include:

- Program goals and priorities and how they were established
- A list of activities and relationship to goals and outcomes
- Level of participation

- Use of time, staff, or funds
- Cost effectiveness
- Level of participants satisfaction
- Impact on the participants
- Impact on specific programs
- Impact on the institution, including the students
- Recommendations for program change as a result of evaluation.

3.6. Standards for Effective Evaluation of Professional Development Programs

“If an evaluation is going to help improve a training program or be used to help decide if it should be continued, it’s going to have to be a “good” evaluation” , argue Brinkerhoff, Brethower, Hluchyj, and Nowakowski (2012, p. 210). However, no evaluation effort can be defined as “good” or not unless there is a set of standards on which the judgment is to be based. A standard as defined by The Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation (JCSEE) (1994, p.2) refers to “a principle mutually agreed to by people engaged in a professional practice, that, if met, will enhance the quality and fairness of that professional practice, for example, evaluation”.

The literature on programs evaluation provides a number of sets of criteria and standards for judging evaluations. One of these lists was outlined by the JCSEE (1994). Chaired by James R. Sanders, the committee listed thirty standards which provide a framework for designing and assessing evaluations. These standards are broken down into four categories according to four general attributes of a sound evaluation - utility, feasibility, propriety, and accuracy. The standards are summarised as follows:

Utility: Utility standards are intended to ensure that an evaluation will serve the information needs of intended users.

- *U1 Stakeholder Identification.* Persons involved in or affected by the evaluation should be identified, so that their needs can be addressed.
- *U2 Evaluator Credibility.* The persons conducting the evaluation should be both trustworthy and competent to perform the evaluation, so that the evaluation findings achieve maximum credibility and acceptance.
- *U3 Information Scope and Selection.* Information collected should be broadly selected to address pertinent questions about the program and be responsive to the needs and interests of clients and other specified stakeholders.
- *U4 Values Identification.* The perspectives, procedures, and rationale used to interpret the findings should be carefully described, so that the bases for value judgments are clear.
- *U5 Report Clarity.* Evaluation reports should clearly describe the program being evaluated, including its context, and the purposes, procedures, and findings of the evaluation, so that essential information is provided and easily understood.
- *U6 Report Timeliness and Dissemination.* Significant interim findings and evaluation reports should be disseminated to intended users, so that they can be used in a timely fashion.
- *U7 Evaluation Impact.* Evaluations should be planned, conducted, and reported in ways that encourage follow-through by stakeholders, so that the likelihood that the evaluation will be used is increased.

Feasibility: The feasibility standards are intended to ensure that an evaluation will be realistic, prudent, diplomatic, and frugal.

- *F1 Practical Procedures.* The evaluation procedures should be practical to keep disruption to a minimum while needed information is obtained.
- *F2 Political Viability.* The evaluation should be planned and conducted with anticipation of the different positions of various interest groups, so that their cooperation may be

obtained, and so that possible attempts by any of these groups to curtail evaluation operations or to bias or misapply the results can be averted or counteracted.

- *F3 Cost Effectiveness.* The evaluation should be efficient and produce information of sufficient value, so that the resources expended can be justified.

Propriety: The propriety standards are intended to ensure that an evaluation will be conducted legally, ethically, and with due regard for the welfare of those involved in the evaluation, as well as those affected by its results.

- *P1 Service Orientation.* Evaluations should be designed to assist organizations to address and effectively serve the needs of the full range of targeted participants.
- *P2 Formal obligations.* Obligations of the formal parties to an evaluation (what is to be done, how, by whom, when) should be agreed to in writing, so that these parties are obligated to adhere to all conditions of the agreement or formally to renegotiate it.
- *P3 Rights of Human Subjects.* Evaluations should be designed and conducted to respect and protect the rights and welfare of human subjects.
- *P4 Human Interactions.* Evaluators should respect human dignity and worth in their interactions with other persons associated with an evaluation, so that participants are not threatened or harmed.
- *P5 Complete and Fair Assessment.* The evaluation should be complete and fair in its examination and recording of strengths and weaknesses of the program being evaluated, so that strengths can be built upon and problem areas addressed.
- *P6 Disclosure of Findings.* The formal parties to an evaluation should ensure that the full set of evaluation findings along with pertinent limitations are made accessible to the persons affected by the evaluation and any others with expressed legal rights to receive the results.

- *P7 Conflict of Interest.* Conflict of interest should be dealt with openly and honestly, so that it does not compromise the evaluation processes and results.
- *P8 Fiscal Responsibility.* The evaluator's allocation and expenditure of resources should reflect sound accountability procedures and otherwise be prudent and ethically responsible, so that expenditures are accounted for and appropriate.

Accuracy: The accuracy standards are intended to ensure that an evaluation will reveal and convey technically adequate information about the features that determine worth or merit of the program being evaluated.

- *A1 Program Documentation.* The program being evaluated should be described and documented clearly and accurately, so that the program is clearly identified.
- *A2 Context Analysis.* The context in which the program exists should be examined in enough detail, so that its likely influences on the program can be identified.
- *A3 Described Purposes and Procedures.* The purposes and procedures of the evaluation should be monitored and described in enough detail, so that they can be identified and assessed.
- *A4 Defensible Information Sources.* The sources of information used in a program evaluation should be described in enough detail, so that the adequacy of the information can be assessed.
- *A5 Valid Information.* The information-gathering procedures should be chosen or developed and then implemented so that they will assure that the interpretation arrived at is valid for the intended use.
- *A6 Reliable Information.* The information-gathering procedures should be chosen or developed and then implemented so that they will assure that the information obtained is sufficiently reliable for the intended use.

- *A7 Systematic Information.* The information collected, processed, and reported in an evaluation should be systematically reviewed, and any errors found should be corrected.
- *A8 Analysis of Quantitative Information.* Quantitative information in an evaluation should be appropriately and systematically analyzed so that evaluation questions are effectively answered.
- *A9 Analysis of Qualitative Information.* Qualitative information in an evaluation should be appropriately and systematically analyzed so that evaluation questions are effectively answered.
- *A10 Justified Conclusions.* The conclusions reached in an evaluation should be explicitly justified, so that stakeholders can assess them.
- *A11 Impartial Reporting.* Reporting procedures should guard against distortion caused by personal feelings and biases of any party to the evaluation, so that evaluation reports fairly reflect the evaluation findings.
- *A12 Metaevaluation.* The evaluation itself should be formatively and summatively evaluated against these and other pertinent standards, so that its conduct is appropriately guided and, on completion, stakeholders can closely examine its strengths and weaknesses.

(JCSEE, as cited in Kellaghan, Stufflebeam, & Wingate, 2003, pp.284-6)

Explaining the nature of these standards, Yarbrough, Shulha, Hopson, and Caruthers (2011, p. xxii) argue that they have two key features; first, they “identify and define evaluation quality and guide evaluators and evaluation users in the pursuit of evaluation quality”. Second and more importantly, they “are not ‘laws’ but are voluntary, consensus statements developed with extensive stakeholder input and then discussed, revised, and approved by the members of the JCSEE”. Hence, although the Joint Committee advises both evaluators and clients to apply all the standards so that evaluations satisfy all four essential

attributes of a sound evaluation (Stufflebeam, 2000, p.444), it acknowledges that not all these standards are equally applicable in all evaluations. It asserted that:

Professional judgment must be used to identify those (standards) that are most applicable in each situation. Users of the standards should carefully consider the relevance of each standard in the particular context and then decide which ones should be accorded most importance.

The Joint Committee purpose behind outlining this detailed and comprehensive list of standards was to provide guidance to effective evaluation. Nevertheless, it hoped also to realise other purposes mainly:

- To encourage the use of a variety of evaluation methods and strategies,
 - To help evaluators identify and confront the many political difficulties that frequently plague evaluation efforts, and
 - To help minimize the chances that evaluators and their clients will misuse their power and influence.
- (Guskey, 2000, p.65)

3.7. Methods of Evaluating Professional Development

Conducting a PD evaluation, one should consider using the most appropriate methodology which best relates to the type of research to be undertaken. Methodology, as defined by Scott (2014, p. 469), refers to “the methods and general approach to empirical research of a particular discipline”. Indeed, there exists a wide range of quantitative and qualitative research methods which can be used when evaluating PD. Each of these methods, however, has strengths and weaknesses. Hence, when selecting a method, it’s important for the evaluator to bear in mind the following:

- what are the strengths and weaknesses of the method?
- will the method provide the information that they need?

- will the method be acceptable to those involved?
- are the time and resource implications of the method acceptable?
- have they the time and the means to carry out the analysis of the data they are planning to collect?

(Craft, 2000, p. 123)

Among those available evaluation methods and techniques, questionnaires, interviews, observation, analysis of documents, and diaries are the most commonly used ones.

3.7.1. Questionnaires

A questionnaire is by far one of the most popular research instruments which is most often employed to collect data. A questionnaire is essentially “a structured technique for collecting data” (Beiske, 2002, p.3). It refers to “any written instrument that presents respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers”(Brown,2001, p. 6). Answering the question ‘what do questionnaires measure, Dornyei and Taguchi (2010, p. 5) provide three types of data which can be yielded through questionnaires; factual, behavioural, and attitudinal. Similarly, Abbuhl (as cited in Robinson, 2013, p.542) asserts that a questionnaire “consists of a set of standardized questions in writing”. These questions, she adds, are designed to “gather factual, behavioural, and attitudinal information from respondents”. Factual data are related to the respondents’ background information (gender, race, education, etc.) that may be relevant to interpreting the findings. Behavioural data are typically about people’s behaviours, actions, lifestyles, habits, and personal history. Attitudinal data concern attitudes, opinions, beliefs, interests, and values (Dornyei & Taguchi, 2009, p. 5).

Depending on the data required, the researcher may consider asking different types of questions. Indeed there are two major question-types which are available to the researcher,

namely: closed-ended and open-ended. Closed-ended questions require the respondent to choose from a range of predetermined possible responses. These include multiple-choice questions, checklists, rank order questions, and likert scales (Abbuhl, as cited in Robinson, 2013, p.542). Closed questions, as argued by Craft (2000, p.127), “provide responses that can be analysed quickly and get at key information”. Open-ended questions, on the other hand, invite the respondent to think and write longer answers. These include sentence completions, short answers, and clarification questions (Abbuhl, as cited in Robinson, 2013, p.542). Open-ended questions are useful in eliciting information and exploring the respondents’ views, beliefs, and judgements. They are “less constraining on respondents and encourage a greater variety of responses” (Craft, 2000, p.127). Nevertheless, they are “more difficult to analyse (and more troublesome to answer)”, that’s why their number and kind “has to be restricted” (Gillham, 2007, p.5).

Because of its numerous advantages, the questionnaire is considered as one of the most useful research instruments. These advantages are summarized by Gillham (2007, p.5-8) as follows:

- Low cost in time and money: using a questionnaire, huge amounts of information can be collected in short periods of time. Additionally, the financial costs are low compared with other research instruments.
- Easy to get information from a lot of people very quickly: if well-constructed, the questionnaire can help the researcher gather detailed information from large samples (Abbuhl, as cited in Robinson, 2013, p.542).
- Respondents can complete the questionnaire when it suits them: the respondent can simply complete the questionnaire when s/he has the time.

- Analysis of answers to closed questions is relatively straightforward: because the answers are predetermined, processing the data can be “fast and relatively straightforward” (Dornyei & Taguchi, 2010, p.6)
- Less pressure for an immediate response: It’s easy for the respondents to provide answers to questions in a questionnaire because “they are not under the pressure of time constraints or one-on-one discourse processing” (Abbuhl, as cited in Robinson, 2013, p.543).
- Respondent anonymity: which emboldens respondents to answer and disclose.
- Lack of interviewer bias: the researcher characteristics do not affect the quality of the respondents’ answers.
- Standardisation of questions: the respondents are asked the same questions.
- Can provide suggestive data for testing a hypothesis.

However, the questionnaire is not a perfect research instrument. In fact, as Dornyei and Taguchi (2010, p. 6) argue, questionnaires have “some serious limitations”. Among these limitations, they argued (2010, p. 6-9), the main ones are: simplicity and superficiality of answers, unreliable and unmotivated respondents, respondent literacy problems, little or no opportunity to correct the respondents’ mistakes, social desirability (or prestige) bias, self-deception, acquiescence bias (the tendency for people to agree with sentences when they are unsure or ambivalent), halo effect (the human tendency to (over) generalize), and fatigue effects (inaccurate responses as a result of tiredness or boredom). Gillham (2007, p. 8-11) ,on his part, provides a list of limitations which includes: problems of data quality (completeness and accuracy), typically low response rate unless sample ‘captive’, problems of motivating respondents, the need for brevity and relatively simple questions, misunderstandings can not be corrected, questionnaire development is often poor, seeks information just by asking questions, assumes respondents have answers available in an organized fashion, lack of control over order and context of answering questions, question wording can have a major

effect on answers, respondent literacy problems, people talk more easily than they write, impossible to check seriousness or honesty of answers, and respondent uncertainty as to what happens to data.

These limitations can have negative effects on the results yielded through the questionnaire. Hence, if the researcher is to produce a good questionnaire and to get the best out of the research, they need to consider these limitations right from the first step of developing the questionnaire. They need to “exercise the utmost care when designing, piloting, and administering questionnaires” (Abbuhl, as cited in Robinson, 2013, p. 543).

The questionnaire is considered as an essential research instrument in evaluating PD. It is particularly useful in providing information about participants' needs, attitudes, and reactions towards a professional development event. Brine (2005, p. 23) asserts “using questionnaires to ascertain the perceived training needs of staff can provide information on educational achievements, goals and gaps within skills and training”. Similarly, for Guskey (2000, p. 99) “information on participants' reactions is generally gathered through evaluation forms or questionnaires handed out at the end of a session or activity”. Craft (2000, p. 124) argues that although questionnaires do not tell us about impact on performance or school practice, “they can elicit some opinions about changes in attitude”.

3.7.2. Interviews

The interview is one of the major data collection methods used in educational research. An interview is defined as “a method of data collection, information or opinion gathering that specifically involves asking a series of questions” (Jubb, 2006, p.157). Typically, it represents a “specific form of conversation where knowledge is produced through the interaction between an interviewer and an interviewee” (Kvale, 2007, p. XVII). There are two main types of interviews. Depending on their goals, researchers can conduct a one-to-one interview (one

researcher to one participant). This type of individual interviews is mainly used “when the researcher believes privacy is essential, when the topics probed are individualized for each person, or when the interviewer wants to explore each person’s responses in depth” (Lodico, Spaulding, Voegtle, 2010, p.122). Participants can also be interviewed as a group. Group interviews, sometimes called focus group interviews, are employed when “the goal is to explore the perceptions or experiences of small groups of persons who have some common basis for responding” (Lodico et al. 2010, p.123).

Having decided to carry out an interview, the researcher needs to consider the structure of the interview. Interviews, indeed, “can be placed on a continuum ranging from unstructured through semi-structured to structured” (Nunan, 1992, p.149). A structured interview is a tightly scripted interview in which interviewers, who are not to deviate from the script, ask respondents the same set of closed questions worded in particular ways in a predetermined order (Roulston, 2010, p.14). Using a structured interview, the researcher aims mainly at standardising data gathering and facilitating analysis (Craft, 2000, p.131). A semi-structured interview is also a pre-planned one. That is, the questions and the topics to be discussed during the interview are identified in advance. However, such interview is semi-structured only because the researcher can change the order of questions, omit questions, vary the wording of the questions depending on what happens in the interview, or add other questions seeking further details (Lodico et al. 2010, p.124). In an unstructured interview, in contrast, the interviewer does not refer to a prepared interview guide. S/he may have research topics and issues in mind and an open-end question to start with. It is more like a spontaneous conversation where respondents talk freely about the topic of interest. Choosing among these types of interviews, as argued by Nunan (1992, p.149), is determined by “the nature of the research and the degree of control the interviewer wishes to exert”.

As a data collection tool, interviews, particularly unstructured and semi-structured ones, are associated with numerous advantages. These advantages as claimed by Jupp (2006, p.157), Lodico et al. (2010, p.122), and Craft (2002, p.132) can be summarised as follows:

- Interviews' flexibility enables the researcher to follow up and probe responses, motives and feelings; to ask for clarification of answers; or to ask additional questions on unexpected issues that arise. Hence, Interviews can provide much more depth and explore more complex beliefs, knowledge, or experiences.
- The recording of nonverbal communications, facial expressions and gestures, for example, can enrich the qualitative aspects of the data.
- The process of being interviewed can have a valuable psychological effect on the interviewee, making them feel valued for their involvement in an activity or project.
- Can focus on small group of major interest.

Although interviews are potentially useful, they are not usually used as the principle research method. This is mainly due to the difficulties and drawbacks associated with the use of interviews. These are:

- Studies using interviews usually involve smaller samples.
- Results may be affected by the interviewer's personality and style or status; the potential for bias on behalf of the interviewer might be increased
- Most interviewers meet face to face with their interviewees, so even when confidentiality is promised, interviewees might be reluctant to reveal sensitive information.
- Recording what is said is also a potential difficulty: Note taking can be obtrusive or difficult to keep up with sufficient speed. The use of a tape recorder can also be off-putting and can lead to a demand for time to transcribe later.
- Interviews are extremely time consuming both to carry out and to analyse.

Jupp (2006, p.157), Lodico et al. (2010, p.122), and Craft (2002, p.132)

Interviews can be used to serve many purposes when evaluating PD. They are particularly useful in “reviewing a professional development activity, where colleagues are asked to identify positive and negative features of the experience or to reflect on what they will do as a result of it” (Craft, 2002, p.134).

3.7.3. Observation

Observation is another valuable data collection method which can be used for evaluation purposes. It is defined as a research method which “involves collecting impressions of the world using all of one’s senses, especially looking and listening, in a systematic and purposeful way to learn about a phenomenon of interest” (McKechnie, as cited in Given , 2008, p.573). It is “a systematic and deliberate study, through the eye, of spontaneous occurrences at the time they occur. The purpose of observation is to perceive the nature and extent of significant interrelated elements within complex social phenomena, culture patterns, or human conduct” (Young, 1962, p.154). That is, observation is a systematic purposeful process which involves attending a particular event (teaching, meeting, etc.), recording observable phenomena or occurring behaviours of the research participants in natural settings without disturbing or attempting to influence them, then carefully interpreting and analysing the data obtained. However, for the observation process to become a tool for scientific research, it should meet certain conditions. According to Zikmund, Babin, Carr, and Griffin (2013, p. 236), these conditions are:

- The observation serves a formulated research purpose.
- The observation is planned systematically.
- The observation is recorded systematically and related to general propositions, rather than simply reflecting a set of interesting curiosities.
- The observation is subjected to checks or controls on validity and reliability.

According to Norton (2009, p.107), there are basically three types of observation that can be used: direct, naturalistic and participant observation.

- Direct observation, also called overt or visible observation, is where people know the researcher is observing them; that is, the observer's presence is known to the subjects (Zikmund et al. 2013, p.236). Although this is advantageous in the sense that it doesn't involve any sort of deception of participants, it "may compromise the natural interaction of the group" (Lodico et al. 2010, p.114). That is, participants are likely to behave in an artificial way which is different from the one when they are not being observed.
- Naturalistic observation, also called covert or hidden observation, is when the subjects are unaware that observation is taking place (Zikmund et al. 2013, p.236). When the observer is concealed, and people do not know that they are being observed, they are likely to behave naturally and much more spontaneously. The result, then, would be more valid data. However, this type of observation raises the ethical issues of subjects' right to privacy, unobtainable prior consent, and infringement of personal freedom and confidentiality.
- Participant observation (direct or naturalistic) is where the observer participates and becomes a member of the group of people s/he is observing. The prime advantage of participant observation is extended contact and personal interaction with the subjects which helps them feel comfortable in the observer's presence. Moreover, it gives an "insider's" view; hence, the observed behaviour is less likely to be misinterpreted. On the other hand, it poses the problems of subjectivity and imprecision (Craft, 2000, p. 136); participant observers may be too tied to their group to make precise objective recordings.

Observations also vary in terms of their structure. According to Craft (2000, p. 137), when observing, the researcher may opt for a structured (systematic) observation or an unstructured (open, or ethnographic) observation. Using one of these types is greatly

influenced by the focus and the purpose of the observation. Structured observation involves “the use of structured observation schedules, that can be analysed in a quantitative way”. A fundamental characteristic of structured observation is that “the purposes of the observation, the categories of behaviour to be observed and the methods by which instances of behaviour are to be allocated to categories, are worked out, and clearly defined, before the data collection begins” (Foster, as cited in Sapsford and Jupp, 2006, p. 60). Unstructured observation, on the other hand, is qualitative in nature and characterized by “flexibility and a minimum of prestructuring” (Foster, 2006, p. 62). It involves “the observer in writing field notes or a narrative account of what is observed which takes their shape from the event and are descriptive”(Craft, *ibid*).

There exists a variety of methods for recording observations; the main one is through field notes. According to Coffey (as cited in Jupp, 2006, p.215), these are “notes that are preferably taken in situ, and then expanded upon after the fieldwork encounter”. They are “written descriptions of what the researcher observes in the field and his or her reactions and feelings” (Lodico et al. 2010, p118). Usually, field notes are hand written and later they are typed up. However, they can be aided by “photographic, documentary or audio materials, or by artefacts collected in the field” (Coffey, in Jupp, 2006, p.215).

Observation as a research method has several distinct advantages over other conventional research methods. According to Foster (in Sapsford & Jupp, 2006, p. 59), the major advantages of observation are:

- More accurate data: because the data are recorded directly by the researcher when the behaviour is occurring, and without relying on the retrospective or anticipatory accounts of others which, for many reasons, may be inaccurate, the data obtained by observation “are not subject to distortions, inaccuracies, or other response biases due to memory error, social desirability, and so on” (Zikmund et al. ,2013, p.236).

- The observer may be able to 'see' what participants cannot. Particularly to describe some important features of the environment and behaviour which are taken for granted by participants and may therefore be difficult for them to describe.
- Certain data can be collected only through observation. For example, data on the environment and behaviour of those who cannot speak for themselves (young children, animals, etc.), or on the behaviour of people who are extremely busy, are deviant, or are hostile to the research process for some reason.
- Data from observation can be a useful check on, and supplement to, information obtained from other sources.

However, despite its advantages, observation as a research method is not without limitations. For Foster (in Sapsford & Jupp, 2006, p. 59-60), there are four main limitations to observation.

- Accessibility: the environment, event or behaviour of interest may be inaccessible and observation may simply be impossible or at least very difficult.
- The problem of reactivity; when people are being observed, they may, consciously or unconsciously, change the way they behave, and therefore the data may not be accurate.
- A direct representation of reality can never be provided. Observations are inevitably filtered through the interpretive lens of the observer; hence, there is a danger that the researcher's preconceptions and existing knowledge will bias his or her observation.
- Time and cost: observational research is very time-consuming, and therefore costly, when compared with other methods of data collection.

Although it has its limitations, observation is considered a valuable research method which can be used to serve a number of research purposes, particularly evaluating purposes.

Arguing for the usefulness of observation for PD evaluation, Craft (2002, p.134) claims:

In terms of the evaluation of professional development, it is possible to think of both the observation of a professional development experience itself or of the observation of a teacher before and after such an experience to investigate changes in practice. It is also possible to think of observation and feedback or post-observation analysis as an approach to the professional development.

3.7.4. Analysis of Documents

A document is “a text-based file that may include primary data (collected by the researcher) or secondary data (collected and archived or published by others) as well as photographs, charts, and other visual materials” (Given, 2008, p.232). Basically, documents are key sources of data. Once systematically analysed, they can yield huge amounts of valuable data. Analysis of documents, as defined by Wharton (in Jupp, 2006, p.79), is “the detailed examination of documents produced across a wide range of social practices, taking a variety of forms from the written word to the visual image”. It is a systematic analytical method of reviewing or evaluating documents – both printed and electronic (computer-based and internet-transmitted) material, which requires that data be examined and interpreted in order to elicit meaning, gain understanding, and develop empirical knowledge (Bowen, 2009, p. 27). As a research method, document analysis has been rarely highlighted. Indeed, until recently, it has rarely been used as a stand-alone method and has most often been considered to be of secondary importance compared with other dominating research methods. However, as Patton (2014) has noted “While observation, interviews, and fieldwork dominate qualitative methods, analysis of document and text is taking on increased importance in an information and communications age”.

Document analysis, as Bowen (2009, p.32) argues, is an iterative process that involves skimming (superficial examination), reading (thorough examination), and interpretation. It combines elements of content analysis and thematic analysis. Content analysis is defined as

“an approach to the analysis of documents and texts (which may be printed or visual) that seeks to quantify content in terms of predetermined categories and in a systematic and replicable manner” (Bryman, 2012, p.289). Essentially, content analysis “involves reading the documents to identify key themes or issues, and establishing these as research categories” (Craft, 2000, p.144). Hence, the aim is to make “replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use” (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 18). Thematic analysis, on the other hand, is a form of pattern recognition within the data, with emerging themes becoming the categories for analysis (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, in Bowen, 2009, p.32). It focuses on “identifying and describing both implicit and explicit ideas within the data, that is, themes” (Guest, MacQueen & Namey, 2012, p.10). It hence involves “a careful, more focused re-reading and review of the data” (Bowen, 2009, p.32).

As it is the case with other research methods, document analysis has both advantages and limitations. These are summarized in the following table.

Table. 3.1.

Advantages and Limitations of Document Analysis (Bowen, 2009, pp.31-2)

Advantages	Limitations
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Efficient method:</i> Document analysis is less time-consuming and therefore more efficient than other research methods. • <i>Availability:</i> Many documents are in the public domain, especially since the advent of the Internet, and are obtainable without the authors' permission. • <i>Cost-effectiveness:</i> Document analysis is less costly than other research methods 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Insufficient detail:</i> Documents are produced for some purpose other than research; so, they usually do not provide sufficient detail to answer a research question. • <i>Low retrievability:</i> Documentation is sometimes not retrievable, or retrievability is difficult. • <i>Biased selectivity:</i> An incomplete collection of documents suggests 'biased selectivity'.

- *Lack of obtrusiveness and reactivity:*
Documents are 'unobtrusive' and 'non-reactive'—that is, they are unaffected by the research process.
 - *Stability:* As a corollary to being non-reactive, documents are stable. The investigator's presence does not alter what is being studied
 - *Exactness:* The inclusion of exact names, references, and details of events makes documents advantageous.
 - *Coverage:* Documents provide broad coverage; they cover a long span of time, many events, and many settings.
-

The various documents related to a PD experience can be a valuable source for researchers. Documents such as course programmes, handouts, and planning notes can be very useful when evaluating PD. They can be an early source of ideas and points to investigate. If properly analysed, such documents can yield unexpected information and provide useful indicators of areas for further inquiry. Moreover, documents analysis can complement other data gathering methods (Craft, 2000, p. 144).

3.7.5. Diaries, Logs and Journals

The terms log, diary and journal are often used interchangeably to refer to the type of writing that is reflective in nature and that records the writer's experiences and events over a period of time. Such writing, Moon (2003, p.2) argues, "may accompany a programme of learning, work, fieldwork or placement experience or a research project". Although similar in intent, diaries, logs and journals differ slightly in terms of structure and purpose.

A diary is “a document, generally written for personal use rather than for publication, that records events and ideas related to the particular experiences of the author” (Scott, in Jupp, 2006, p.68). Diaries, in fact, represent a valuable source of relevant and usable data. They are particularly useful in tracking participants’ daily activities and experiences which, if not documented, can’t be recorded. Diaries, hence, “allow an ongoing record to be kept and can provide access to what cannot be observed” (Craft, 2000, p.145).

A log, on the other hand, is characterised by its straightforwardness; It “straightforwardly record events, calculations or readings as aide-mémoires” (Bolton, 2010, p.127). It is “highly selective like a ship’s log which would never claim to be a record of everything that occurred on board” (Campbell, McNamara & Gilroy, 2004, p. 90). Referring to the work of Holly and McLaughlin (1989), Banks and Mayes (2001, p.337) define a log as “a record of what happened that is unencumbered by interpretation. It is not purely for personal use and facts are recorded systematically to provide objective data about the event being studied”.

Reflecting upon personal or professional practices and experiences, one can also write a journal most often intended for audiences. A journal as Holly (1988, p.78) defines it is:

A record of happenings, thoughts, and feelings about a particular aspect of life, or with a particular structure. A journal can record anything relative to the issue to which it pertains. So, a reflective practice journal is like a diary of practice but in addition includes: ‘deliberative thought and analysis related to practice’.

Reflective journals can be written in different ways as they can also be used for a variety of purposes. When keeping a learning journal, the emphasis, Moon (2010, p. 2) asserts, is on “making explicit and recording the learning that occurs”. Arguing for the usefulness of journals in the research field, Bolton (2010, p. 128) adds: “Qualitative research journals can record material, be a data source, or a process of enquiry itself”.

Evaluating a PD experience, researchers may commission the participants who are involved in PD to keep a diary, a journal, or a log in which they are to reflect on and to record their feelings, thoughts, insights, or reactions during a specified period of time. To obtain more relevant data, researchers often give participants “a greater or lesser amount of guidance on what events and ideas are to be included” (Scott, in Jupp, 2006, p.69). However, it is also possible for researchers themselves to keep their own detailed diaries, journals or logs which can be used to “record and reflect their own behaviors, attitudes, feelings, and thought processes to provide a multilayered facet to their academic studies” (Smith-Sullivan, in Given, 2008, p.214).

3.8. The Principal Models of Evaluation

Evaluating TPD, with the complex processes it involves and the various activities and procedures it includes, has always been a challenging task for educators. However, being aware of its value, many evaluation experts have tried to make it an easier task by developing different models each of which “characterizes it’s author’s view of the main concepts and structure of evaluation work, while at the same time serving the exemplary function of providing guidelines for using these concepts to arrive at defensible descriptions, judgments, and recommendations” (Madaus & Kellaghan, 2002, pp.19-20). Nevertheless, none of these methods has been entirely satisfactory as each has had strengths as well as weaknesses.

Over the years, a rich literature on program evaluation has been developed. A wide array of different and overlapping evaluation models have been proposed by different scholars. However, not all these methods can be applied in one particular context. According to Guskey (2000, p.48), the evaluation models which are most applicable in evaluating PD are: “(a) Tyler’s Evaluation Model, (b) Metfessel and Michael’s Evaluation Model, (c) Hammond’s Evaluation Model, (d) Scriven’s Goal-free Evaluation Model, (e)Stufflebeam’s CIPP Evaluation Model, and (f) Kirkpatrick’s Evaluation Model”.

3.8.1. Tyler's Evaluation Model

One of the most influential classic works in the field of evaluating PD programs was presented by Ralph W. Tyler who is often referred to as the father of educational evaluation. The Eight Year Study conducted by Tyler between 1932 and 1940 introduced educators to a new evaluation method which is in essence an objectives-based evaluation method. In this method, evaluation is conceptualised as a comparison of a program objectives or goals with actual outcomes. That is, it is so important that the program's goals or objectives are clearly articulated. As Tyler (as cited in Guskey, 2000, p. 48) states:

If an educational program is to be planned and if efforts for continued improvement are to be made, it is necessary to have some conception of the goals that are being sought. These educational objectives become the criteria by which materials are selected, content is outlined, instructional procedures are developed, and tests and examinations are prepared. All aspects of the educational programs are really means to accomplish these basic educational purposes.

In his manuscript *General Statement on Evaluation* (1942), Tyler explains the steps to be followed when conducting any evaluation. These are:

- a. formulating a statement of educational objectives,
- b. classifying these objectives into major types,
- c. defining and refining each of these types of objectives in terms of behaviour,
- d. identifying situations in which students can be expected to display these types of behaviours,
- e. selecting and trying promising methods for obtaining evidence regarding each type of objective,
- f. selecting on the basis of preliminary trials the more promising appraisal methods for further development and improvement, and

g. devising means for interpreting and using the results. (as cited in Mathison, 2005, p.281)

That is, the evaluation process starts with a clear statement of the intended objectives which are to be re-examined and refined continually. Moreover, in the final step, if any discrepancy between performance and objectives is noticed, or if the attained outcomes were not at the level of the predefined objectives, modifications are to be made in order to correct the deficiency and to render the program more effective. The evaluation cycle is, then, repeated to determine the effect of the implemented modifications.

Tyler's model which has enormously influenced the field of educational evaluation has many advantages. It is "relatively simple, easy to follow, easily understood, and produced information that was directly relevant to educators" (Guskey, 2000, p. 49). Moreover, "it concentrates on learning outcomes instead of organizational and teaching inputs, thereby avoiding the subjectivity of the professional judgment or accreditation approach" (Madaus & Kellaghan, 2002, p.9).

3.8.2. Metfessel and Michael's Evaluation Model

Following Tyler's model, Metfessel and Michael (1967) developed and promoted another objectives-based evaluation model. Metfessel and Michael were heavily influenced by Tyler's works. Indeed, their evaluation paradigm was basically similar to that of Tyler in that it specifies a range of progression steps to be followed throughout the evaluation process. However, one of their major contributions was in expanding the range of alternative instruments that can be used to collect evaluation data.

According to Metfessel and Michael (as cited in Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 1988, p. 77), there are eight major steps in the evaluation process. These are:

- Involve members of the total school community as participants, or facilitators, of the evaluation.
- Construct a cohesive list of broad goals and specific objectives arranged in hierarchical order from general to specific desired outcomes.
- Translate the specific behavioural objectives into a communicable form, applicable to facilitate learning in the school environment.
- Select or construct a variety of instruments that will furnish measures from which inferences can be drawn about the effectiveness of programs to meet planned objectives.
- Carry out periodic observations through the use of the varied instruments to gauge the extent of behavioural change that is valid with respect to the selected objectives.
- Analyse the data provided by the measures of change through use of appropriate statistical methods.
- Interpret data that are relative to the specified objectives in terms of particular judgmental standards and values considered appropriate to desirable levels of performance, and draw conclusions that provide information about the direction of growth, the progress of students, and the effectiveness of the total program.
- Make recommendations for further implementation, modifications, and revisions of broad goals and specific objectives with the purpose of program improvement.

In addition to stressing the need for clearly stated goals and objectives, as well as the use of various evaluation instruments, what Metfessel and Michael further emphasized is the importance of engaging different members of the school community in the evaluation process. This claim has been further supported by many other experts, who have argued that evaluations affect the whole school community; hence, it is necessary to involve all the members, as participants or facilitators, while conducting a program evaluation.

3.8.3. Hammond's Evaluation Model

A more recent goal-attainment or objectives-based evaluation model is the one proposed by Hammond (1973) who was also heavily influenced by Tyler's views. Like Tyler, Hammond believes that evaluation should be conceived of "in terms of whether an educational program is really effective in achieving its expressed objectives" (Popham, 1992 p.25). Nevertheless, in addition to stressing the importance of determining whether or not a program's goals were attained, Hammond attaches equal importance to determining why those goals were attained or not (Guskey, 2000, p.51).

To help evaluators answer such question, and determine the factors which contribute to the success or failure of a given program, Hammond developed a three-dimensional structure for evaluation (instructional, institutional, and behavioural). Each of these dimensions is described in terms of specific variables and factors to be considered when evaluating.

- The instructional dimension: refers to the characteristics of the program or activity being evaluated. The variables described are: organization, content, method, facilities, and cost.
- The institutional dimension: refers to the characteristics of the individuals or groups involved in the program or activity. Those of students, teachers, administrators, educational specialists, family, and community.
- The behavioural dimension: refers to the characteristics of the objectives of the program or activity being evaluated; that is, the cognitive, affective, psychomotor characteristics.

(as cited in Guskey, 2000, pp.51-2)

Moreover, Hammond's evaluation model includes five carefully defined steps which are to be followed when applying it. These are the following:

- Defining what is precisely to be evaluated; that is, beginning with a single aspect of the current educational program.

- Defining the descriptive variables in the instructional and institutional dimensions.
- Stating objectives in behavioural terms through: (a) specifying the kind of behaviour which will be accepted as evidence that the learner has achieved the objective, (b) stating the conditions under which the behaviour will be expected to occur, and (c) specifying the criteria of acceptable performance by describing how well the learner must perform.
- Assessing the behaviour described in the objectives.
- Analysing the results, drawing conclusions based on actual behaviour, and providing feedback. Hence, determining the effectiveness of a given program in reaching the desired outcomes.(Hammond, 1967, p.9-11)

3.8.4. Scriven's Goal-Free Evaluation Model

A contrasting model to that of Tyler and his followers is the goal-free evaluation model which was introduced by Michael Scriven in 1973. Scriven's model was in different ways a move against the widely endorsed evaluation ideologies particularly those with objectives-based orientation (Stufflebeam & Coryn, 2014, p.341). Indeed, what made it a counterproposal is that "the evaluation is undertaken without reference to any statements of outcomes produced by the program developers" (Bennett, 2003, p.30). That is, according to the goal-free model, "the evaluator purposely remains ignorant of a program stated goals and searches for all effects of a program regardless of its developer's objectives"(Stufflebeam & Coryn, 2014, p. 347). Therefore, the focus of the evaluation process, according to Scriven, should not be on the extent to which the predetermined goals or objectives are achieved, but on the extent to which consumers' needs are met.

What is more, having defined evaluation as the process of determining the merit of things, Scriven (1991, p.1) stressed the necessity to determine the merit of the program goals themselves. In his classic article "the Methodology of Evaluation", He argues: "it is obvious

that if the goals aren't worth achieving then it is uninteresting how well they are achieved" (1966, p.17). Hence, evaluators should first evaluate and examine the quality a program's goals before trying to evaluate whether these goals have been attained.

Scriven's goal-free evaluation model was an innovative one that brought a radical change to the field of program evaluation. According to Scriven (as cited in Stufflebeam & Coryn, 2014, p. 348), this method has many advantages "it is less intrusive than goals-based evaluation; more adaptable to midstream goal shifts; better at finding side effects; less prone to social, perceptual, and cognitive biases; more professionally challenging; and more equitable in considering a wide range of values".

3.8.5. Stufflebeam's Evaluation Model

Another "comprehensive framework for conducting and reporting evaluations" (Stufflebeam, in Stufflebeam et al, 2002, p.279) is the CIPP evaluation model which was proposed by Daniel L. Stufflebeam in 1967. Unlike many objectives-based models, this model assesses not only the outcomes of a given program but also its environment, goals, plans, resources, and implementation (Stufflebeam & Zhang, 2017, p. 6). Explaining the rationale for using this evaluation method, Guskey (2000, p.54) states: "evaluations should be designed to collect information about the relative advantages and shortcomings of decision alternatives so that decision makers can make fair and unbiased judgments based on specified criteria".

Stufflebeam model has four basic evaluation concepts which are denoted by the acronym CIPP. These are context, input, process, and product evaluation. According to Stufflebeam and Zhang (2017, p. 21), these types of evaluation "address four fundamental questions: (1) what needs to be done? (2) how should it be done? (3) is it being done, and (4) did it succeed?"

Context evaluation: It is basically used “to make *planning decisions*” (Guskey, 2000, p.54); it is conducted to define a program’s goals and priorities and to judge the significance of outcomes considering both the assessed needs and the environmental dynamics. As Stufflebeam and Zhang (2017, p. 23) explained, context evaluations “assess needs, problems, assets, and opportunities, as well as relevant contextual conditions and dynamics”.

Input evaluation: It focuses on structuring decisions (Guskey, 2000, p.54). It assesses “a program’s strategy, action plan, staffing arrangements, and budget for feasibility and potential cost-effectiveness to meet targeted needs and achieve goals” (Stufflebeam & Zhang, 2017, p. 23). That is, conducting an input evaluation, one can assess alternative approaches and strategies which can be used to meet targeted needs and achieve the program goals. Moreover, useful information can be obtained to help planning a program and allocating resources. Hence, judging both a program’s plan and budget.

Process evaluation: It is related to the implementation of plans. In Stufflebeam and Zhangs’s words, process evaluations “monitor, document, assess, and report on the implementation of plans. Such evaluations provide feedback throughout a program’s implementation and later report on the extent to which the program was carried out as intended and needed” (2017, p. 23). As Guskey (2000, p. 54) argues, the findings of process evaluations are used “to help decision makers anticipate and overcome procedural difficulties”.

Product evaluation: It centers on recycling decisions (Guskey, 2000, p.54). In essence, product evaluations are attempts to “identify intended and unintended outcomes both to help keep the process on track and determine effectiveness” (Stufflebeam, in Stufflebeam et al, 2002, p.279). They address the following key questions: “did the program achieve its goals? Did it successfully address the targeted needs and problems? What were the unexpected

outcomes, both positive and negative? And were the program's outcomes worth their costs?" (Stufflebeam & Zhang, 2017, p. 24).

3.8.6. Kirkpatrick's Evaluation Model

Trying to clarify the elusive term "evaluation", Kirkpatrick (1959) developed a distinctive evaluation model which has now become one of the most widely used for evaluating training programs. Kirkpatrick's model which "focuses on evaluating training after a program has been conducted and participants have completed it" (Giber, 1997, p.9) consists of four levels at which data is to be collected to measure the effectiveness of training programs. These levels are reaction, learning, behaviour, and results.

Evaluating level 1 - Reaction: At this level, the focus is on the trainees' perceptions about a program and its effectiveness (Werner & DeSimone, 2011, p.206). It involves measuring the trainees' reactions, opinions and attitudes towards the training program including content, duration, relevance, instructors, materials and facilities provided, etc. Reaction level data can be gathered using "survey forms that have both open-ended questions and rating scales" (Giber, 1997, p.9).

Evaluating level 2 - Learning: This level measures how much the participants have learned from the program. Five components are to be evaluated at this level: knowledge, skills, attitude, confidence, and commitment. Learning evaluation may take different forms; a paper and pencil test (answering questions about the knowledge or skills acquired), a skills test (performing to demonstrate ability), case studies and exercises near the end of the program, etc. (Giber, 1997, p.10).

Evaluating level 3 - Behaviour: This level involves measuring the participants' behavioural changes. It assesses "the degree to which participants apply what they learned during training when they are back on the job" (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2015, p.3). Evaluating behaviour

is of critical importance because learning may occur as a result of training but, due to certain hampering barriers, may not transfer to the job. Hence, the training effort would have no impact on the participants' performance. At this level, data can be collected through observing the participants' on - the - job behaviour, surveying them and asking about the new behaviours which have been used on the job as a result of training, or contacting supervisors, peers, and subordinates to obtain their perceptions of change in behaviour (Giber et al., 1997, p. 11).

Evaluating level 4 - Results: This is by far the most challenging level to evaluate. It measures “the degree to which targeted outcomes occur as a result of the training and the support and accountability package” (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2015, p.2). That is, it assesses the final results of training; for example, in terms of “improved productivity, better quality, lower costs, meeting deadlines, reduced accidents, improved morale, lower turnover, and, ultimately, more profits or better service” (Guskey, 2000, p. 55). In the educational context, this level assesses the impact of TPD programs on students learning.

Although it has been one of the most influential frameworks for evaluating the effectiveness of training, and one which has been built upon by different researchers when suggesting new evaluation models (Hamblin, 1974; Kaufman & Keller, 1994), Kirkpatrick's model hasn't been free of criticism. While some (Alliger & Janak, 1989, as cited in Guskey, 2000, p.55) criticised it because of the implied relationships or linkages between the levels which have not been demonstrated by research, others (Holton, 1996; Tesoro & Tootson, 2000,) argued that it is not a model, rather, it's merely a taxonomy of training outcomes.

3.8.7. Guskey's Five-Level Evaluation Model

Trying to resolve the inadequacies of the Kirkpatrick's model, mainly its limited use in education due to its inadequate explanatory power, Guskey (2000, p.78) presented a five-level evaluation model. This model, as Guskey himself claims, represents an adaptation of the one

advanced by Kirkpatrick (1959); an attempt to contextualize it to the realm of education.

Guskey's model contains five critical levels for evaluating PD ranging from simple to more complex, with each higher level building on the previous one. These levels are: participants' reactions, participants' learning, organizational support and change, participants' use of new knowledge and skills, and students learning outcomes. Following is a brief description of these levels.

Level 1. Participants' Reactions: This level measures participants' initial satisfaction with the PD experience. Gathering information at this level is relatively easy; it is generally done through questionnaires asking questions such as: Did participants like it? Was time well spent? Did the material make sense? Will it be useful? Was the instructor knowledgeable? Did the physical conditions of the activity support learning? Although the quality and worth of a program can not be measured through this level, the information gathered is useful particularly to improve the design and delivery of programs or activities in valid ways.

Level 2. Participants' Learning: At this level, the focus is on measuring the knowledge, skills, and sometimes the attitudes gained as a result of the PD experience. Collecting Information about participants' learning involves the use of pencil-and-paper assessment, simulations and demonstrations, participants' reflections (oral and/or written), examination of portfolios, or case study analyses. Such measures should be based on the prescribed goals of the program or activity; that is, there should be predefined criteria of successful learning prior to the PD experience beginning. Information gathered at this level can help improve the content, format, and organization of the program or activity.

Level 3. Organization Support and Change: At level 3, the focus shifts from the individual participant towards larger organizational issues. It measures organizational variables such as support, advocacy, accommodation, policies, facilitation, and recognition of change efforts

which can be a key to the success of the PD effort or a success hindering factor. Examples of the questions asked at this level are: What was the impact of the PD experience on the organization? Did it affect organizational climate or procedures? Was implementation advocated, facilitated, and supported? Was the support public and overt? Were problems addressed quickly and efficiently? Were sufficient resources made available? And were successes recognized and shared? Getting answers to such questions is not easy and involves district and school records analysis, questionnaires, focus groups, and structured interviews with participants and school or district administrators. Such information can be used to document and improve organizational support, and to inform future change initiatives.

Level 4. Participants' Use of New Knowledge and Skills: This level measures the participants' use and implementation of the knowledge and skills acquired through the PD experience. It addresses one central question: did what participants learn make a difference in their professional practice? Once indicators revealing the degree and quality of implementation are clearly specified, information can be gathered using questionnaires, structured interviews with participants and their supervisors, personal reflections, participants' journals and portfolios, and, more importantly, observations. Information gathered at this level has two main uses: providing evidence on current levels of use, and helping restructure future PD efforts for better implementation.

Level 5. Student Learning Outcomes: This level focuses on the impact of PD program or activity on students learning. Three types of indicators of students learning can be used: cognitive indicators (performance and achievement: assessment results, marks, examination scores, etc.), affective (attitudes and disposition: students' self-concepts, etc.), and psychomotor (skills and behaviours: study habits, school attendance, classroom behaviours, etc.) in addition to schoolwide indicators (participation in school-related activities,

disciplinary actions, etc.). The evaluator, at this level, can rely on different sources of information such as: student and school records, results from questionnaires and interviews, parents, teachers, and/or administrators. Information gathered at this level serves many purposes: documenting a program or activity's overall impact, informing improvements in all aspects of PD, and estimating the cost-effectiveness of PD.

To help improve PD programs and activities, evaluations should be conducted at all these five levels. These levels are strongly related; they build on one another. Nevertheless, effectiveness at one level does not guarantee effectiveness at the next level. An idea further supported by Guskey who argued that “although success at an early level may be necessary for positive results at the next higher one, it is clearly not sufficient. That is why each level is important” (2000, p. 86).

3.8.8. Killion's Eight-Step Evaluation Model

According to Killion (2003, p.17), a good evaluation of a PD program can be accomplished following eight “smooth” steps. These steps, Killion (ibid) argued, are “highly interrelated. The success of one step depends on the success of the previous step”. Following is a brief description of each of these steps.

Step One. Assessing Evaluability: The first step in the evaluation process is assessing evaluability; that is, “determining the degree to which a program, as planned, is ready to be evaluated” (Killion, 2003, p.15). This can be done, first, through defining the program to be evaluated; seeking relevant information about the qualities of the program such as its completeness, feasibility, clarity, and ability to produce intended results. And second, through analysing the program's goals, standards and indicators of success, theory of change, and logic model. If the program is deemed evaluable, the evaluators proceed to the next step, if it is not, they suggest revisions in the program.

Step Two. Formulating Evaluation Questions: A significant step in the planning stage is formulating evaluation questions. “The questions an evaluation attempts to answer shape the evaluation’s design” asserts Killion. Hence, it’s important to develop relevant formative and summative questions. This, however, depends on two essential requirements: (1) defining and identifying all the intended users of the evaluation, and (2) clarifying the purposes of those potential users. Indeed, until the users and the purposes have been clarified, evaluation questions can’t be formulated. These questions, as Killion argues, “will direct the scope and methodology of the evaluation (the framework)”.

Step Three. Constructing the Evaluation Framework: An evaluation framework as defined by Killion is “the plan for the evaluation” (2003, p. 20). Once the purposes of the evaluation have been established, the framework adapted has to be identified. The evaluator, in this step, should make important decisions related to: the evidence needed to answer pre-formulated questions, data sources, appropriate data collection methods, the timeline for data collection, person(s) responsible for the data collection, and data analysis method.

Step Four. Collecting Data: In this step, the evaluator uses the predetermined data collection methods to collect necessary data and evidence to answer posed evaluation questions. When collecting data, Killion asserted, the evaluator should meet two main requirements; they should adhere to the standards of effective evaluation established by the JCSEE (1994) and the AEA (1995) particularly in relation to ethical issues, and they should ensure that “the data collected are accurate and have been collected as planned”.

Step Five. Organizing and Analysing Data: The next step in the evaluation process is organizing and analysing the data collected. The evaluator first organises the data checking whether there is any abnormalities, and whether the data are recorded appropriately. The data, then, are analysed and displayed using appropriate formats such as charts, tables, and graphs.

Step Six. Interpreting Data: Interpreting, as defined by Killion (2008, p.109), is “the meaning-making process that comes after the data have been counted, sorted, analysed, and displayed”. In this step, evaluators work collaboratively with stakeholders, studying the data, forming claims about the program’s merit, worth and/or impact, and formulating recommendations for improvement.

Step Seven. Disseminating Findings: Once the data are interpreted, evaluators report their findings using appropriate formats including reports, executive summaries, pamphlets, newsletters, news releases to local media, and oral presentations.

Step Eight. Evaluating the Evaluation: In this last step, evaluators assess the whole evaluation cycle. As Killion claims, evaluating the evaluation involves “reflecting on the evaluation process to assess the evaluator’s work, the resources expended for evaluation, and the overall effectiveness of the evaluation process” (2003, p.21). That is, evaluators need to reflect on the process and the product of the evaluation. This can help improve future evaluations and strengthen the evaluators’ knowledge and skills.

3.9. Limitations of Past Evaluations of Professional Development

Evaluation of TPD programs has recently been recognised as a basic component of educational policies. Consequently, educators have been conducting evaluations in different settings following different models. Yet these evaluations have seldom been particularly insightful or informative (Guskey, 2000, p.8). Indeed, as Clare (1976, p.1) asserts, “systematic evaluations of professional development programs are rarely undertaken”. Similarly, Craft (2000, p. 85) claims “Often in the past, the evaluation of INSET courses has been rather haphazard and not gone beyond measures of participant satisfaction”.

Day and Sachs (2004, p.298) who argue that “most current evaluation of CPD falls short in a number of ways and areas” referred to the work of Guskey (2000) and summarized the limitations of TPD evaluations as follows:

- Most 'evaluation' consists merely of summarizing the activities undertaken as part of the PD programme: what courses were attended, how many credits accrued etc. This clearly gives no indication of the effectiveness of the activities undertaken, making this form of data collection inadequate as a means of looking at the effects of CPD.
- Where some evaluation does exist, this usually takes the form of participant satisfaction questionnaires. Obviously, this allows one to gauge whether participants consider the event to have been enjoyable and successful, but does not engage with issues such as gains in knowledge or changes in practice expected from PD, and certainly does not evaluate whether there have been changes in student outcomes.
- Evaluations are also typically brief, one-off events, often undertaken post hoc. As most meaningful change will tend to be long term, and many PD activities will take place over a longer period of time, evaluation efforts need to reflect this and likewise take place over time. Evaluation will also need to be built in, to run alongside PD activities.

These limitations have rendered most TPD evaluations inadequate; most of them indeed failed in yielding valuable information on the quality as well as the impact of the evaluated programs. Hence, as Guskey (2000, p.10) argues, if evaluations of PD are to be truly effective and meaningful, evaluators must consider and avoid these limitations.

3.10. Problems Associated with Evaluation of Professional Development Programs

Although there has been a myriad of evaluation models and theories in the last decades, practitioners still voice their concerns about the ineffectiveness of the evaluation systems. This is largely due to the fact that there are many barriers to conducting effective evaluation. J. Phillips, Phillips, and Hodges (2004, p. 8-14) argue that there are 12 basic problems with evaluation which render it ineffective. These are:

- Too many theories and models: trying to find the best way to evaluate, researchers and theorists have developed dozens of evaluation models and theories, most of which are refinements of existing ones. The problem, however, lies in practitioners challenge with sorting out how to use a new model or how to make it work in their organisations.
- Models are too complex: evaluation is by nature a difficult issue, and it becomes more difficult when following some complex evaluation models with many parts, components and formulas that are often confusing. The challenge, hence, is “to develop models that are theoretically sound, yet simple and usable. The challenge for practitioners is to apply the simplified models, yet keep the credibility intact” (p.9).
- Lack of understanding of evaluation: although it is essential for evaluators as well as the entire learning and development staff to understand evaluation processes, this is not usually the case. Practitioners do not take time to learn and build expertise in evaluation, and even they do, it is not easy to do so.
- The search for statistical precision: the evaluation process aims basically at providing decision makers with necessary data about the worth or merit of a given program. Hence, as some researchers argued, statistical precision should be brought to the data analysis process. Nevertheless, “although this may be ideal, problems usually surface in practice. Often the reality of the workplace dictates that decisions be made with less-than-statistically-sound data” (p.10). Moreover, there is “growing evidence that extensive analysis and precision are unnecessary and sometimes even inhibit performance”(Sutcliffe & Weber, as cited in Philips et al. 2004, p.10).
- Evaluation is considered a post-program activity: often evaluation is conducted after the program has been implemented. Taking this approach, however, doesn't ensure that the process of collecting data is done properly and effectively. Philips et al (p.11) argue: “evaluation is not a post-program activity but is an activity that must be considered early

and often in the process to enhance its efficiency and effectiveness for collecting data and making decisions”.

- Failure to see the long-term payoff of evaluation: evaluation should not be considered as a process which is pursued for narrowly focused reasons or to achieve some short-term objectives. Instead, evaluation should be conducted for its remarkable long-term payoff; it should be considered as “a process improvement tool to make learning and development more effective and aligned with the organisation” (p. 12).
- Lack of support from key stakeholders: for the evaluation process to succeed, all participants including stakeholders should understand and perform their specific roles. Because the valuable data produced through evaluation can be used to improve processes and programs; and because it is beneficial to stakeholders and to the whole organisation, evaluation processes need to be fully supported by stakeholders.
- Evaluation hasn't delivered the data senior managers want: senior managers are the clients; those who sponsor, approve, or initiate the program. What evaluators need to seek are data beyond consumers' reaction and learning; they should provide clients with the data they need; the data “on the application of new skills on the job and the corresponding impact” (p. 13).
- Use of evaluation data: “if not used properly, evaluation data is useless” argue Philips et al (p.13). Four major problems can stem from improper use of evaluation data. These are: (1) too many organisations do not use evaluation data at all, (2) data is not provided to the appropriate groups, (3) data is not used to drive improvement, and (4) data is used for the wrong reasons-to take action against an individual or group or to withhold funds rather than improving processes.
- Inconsistency: evaluation is a systematic process which follows step-by-step procedures. Moreover, for evaluation to be effective, it should be consistent in the approach and the

methodology selected. After all, “without consistency, evaluation consumes too many resources and raises too many concerns about the quality of the process” (p.14).

- Lack of standards: evaluators need to follow a set of standards throughout the evaluation process. Standards are “rules for making evaluation consistent, stable, and equitable” which “should be based on best practices that are feasible within specific settings”. Without these standards, “there is little consistency in processes and stability in outcomes” (p.14).
- Sustainability: sustainability as Philips et al. (p.14) define it, refers to “integrating evaluation into the organisation so that it becomes routine”. Evaluation should not only be considered when there is trouble with a certain program. Instead, it should become an ongoing routine and be sustained for a long period of time; it “must be implemented, refined, improved, and maintained for the long term” (p.14).

Conclusion

In sum, evaluating teacher professional development is a critical issue which educators need to consider if their professional development efforts are to be fruitful. To be able to identify a professional development program strengths and weaknesses, and to determine whether to continue or end it, or to make some necessary modifications; educators need to conduct an effective evaluation process; one which is basically purposeful and systematic. To do so, the evaluation, whatever model it adheres to, and whatever level it occurs at, should meet a number of evaluation standards. Moreover, the limitations of past evaluation practices as well as the problems associated with evaluating professional development programs should be carefully considered.

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Chapter Four: Research Methodology

Introduction

This chapter reports on the research methodology used in this research. It starts off by providing a comprehensive introduction to research wherein the key concepts of research, research methodology, and research methods are defined. The chapter then introduces the research design offering a rationale for why it was adopted. Following is a detailed description of the research methodologies employed, namely the questionnaire survey, the interview, and the observation, along with a detailed account of the data collection tools used. Included are definitions of the research tools, types, aims and rationale for using them. Described also are the participants and the procedures followed to implement the research tools.

4.1. Conceptualizing Research Methodology

Arriving at an answer to such a straightforward question as ‘what is research methodology?’ requires first answering another more basic question; ‘what is research?’ Indeed, only when we clearly understand what constitutes ‘research’ can we reach a clear articulation of research methodology’s meanings.

Having been derived from the word ‘search’, the term ‘research’ has, in common parlance, been used to refer to the process of systematically searching for new knowledge and finding solutions to a given problem in some defined field. Yet, beyond this general definition, a number of diverse alternative conceptualizations have been introduced in the related literature. For instance, as early as 1933, Redman and Mory defined research as a “systematized effort to gain new knowledge” (p. X). Similarly, the Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of Current English (1952, p. 1069) defines the term research as “a careful

investigation or inquiry especially through search for new facts in any branch of knowledge". It is "a careful or critical inquiry or examination in seeking facts; a diligent investigation to ascertain something" (Webster's New International Dictionary).

Hence, research is not merely a search for knowledge, but a scientific, systematic, purposeful and prolonged search which comprises a set of interrelated constituents. Describing those constituents, Clifford Woody (1927, p. 172) states: "research comprises defining and redefining problems; formulating hypothesis or suggested solutions; collecting, organizing and evaluating data; making deductions and reaching conclusions; and, at last, carefully testing the conclusions to determine whether they fit the formulated hypothesis".

To serve the research purposes and obtain accurate results, it is indispensable for researchers to utilize appropriate research methods. As defined by Walter and Andersen, (2013, p. 41) a research method is "a technique for gathering and analyzing information, such as a survey or content analysis". It is understood as "all those methods, techniques that are used for conduction of research. Research methods or techniques, thus, refer to the methods the researchers use in performing research operations" (Kumar, 2008, p. 4). That is, a research method refers to the way a researcher conducts and implements his research project.

The choice of research methods, however, is basically guided by the research methodology adapted by the researcher. Defining the concept of research methodology, Walter and Andersen (2013, p. 42) position it as "the theoretical lens or worldview through which research is understood, designed, and conducted". In a similar vein, Maxim (1999, p. 2) describes it as "a study of the underlying approach or philosophy of how one goes about studying social phenomena". Kumar (2008, p. 5), on his part, defines it as "a way to systematically solve the research problem. It may be understood as a science of studying how

research is done scientifically. In it we study the various steps that are generally adopted by a researcher in studying his research problem along with the logic behind them”.

The findings of a research work are important in academic fields. Yet, more important are the methods deployed to reach those findings and the research methodology adapted. Accordingly, there is an urgent need for researchers to provide a thorough description of the methods and the procedures carried out to achieve the study objectives, as well as the underlying methodical approach. According to Ramalingam and Kumar, a strong research methodology section consists of:

1. the research design or type of study required for the problem of interest of the researcher,
2. the sample design or selection, allocation and size of the participants in the study,
3. observational design or the methods of data collection including observation, interview and measurement, and
4. statistical design or the appropriate mathematical tools to find the results of the collected data.

4.2. Research Methodology and Data Collection Methods

Collecting data for a research work is an organized process that requires the use of systematic research methods. The choice of data collection methods, however, is dependent on the type of data needed to answer the research questions and achieve its objectives. As for the current study, a mixed-method approach was taken. As defined by Tashakkori and Creswell (2007, p. 3), mixed method research refers to “research in which the investigator collects and analyzes data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single study or a program of enquiry”. What renders the mixed method approach more beneficial than the single method one is the fact that it allows for a wider, more comprehensive, and more holistic investigation of a given issue.

Moreover, combining quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study can help supplement the limitations of each single method. Thus, following this method, the data for the current study were collected by combining three research methods; by distributing questionnaires to teachers, by interviewing inspectors of national education, and by observing teacher training seminars.

4.2.1. Questionnaire Survey

As defined by Buckingham and Saunders (2004, p. 13), a questionnaire survey is “a technique for gathering statistical information about the attributes, attitudes or actions of a population by administering standardized questions to some or all of its members”.

Employing this technique involves designing and administering a questionnaire to a sample of participants and then compiling and analyzing the data.

4.2.1.1. Rationale for the Questionnaire Survey

As widely argued, the choice of a research technique is largely dependent upon the nature of the data needed to answer the research questions. While a certain technique could be appropriate for a particular type of data, it could be inappropriate for others.

Questionnaire surveys represent one of the commonly used research techniques. Indeed, the significant advantages inherent in such technique, including its usefulness and practicality, render it appropriate for a range of research designs particularly for a descriptive one. As Preston (2009, p. 46) asserts, “the ubiquity of questionnaire surveys attests to their utility and ease of use. Mainly useful for descriptive research, surveys provide broad coverage of populations enabling us to explore the extent and nature of spatial and social variations in people’s attributes, attitudes, and actions”.

The choice of the questionnaire survey as a research technique in the current study was, therefore, informed by two facts. Considered first was the nature of the study to be conducted; that is the fact that it is a descriptive study a major aim of which is to gather relevant attitudinal data from respondents. Moreover, the choice was further helped by the fact that the questionnaire survey is particularly useful in exploring and describing individuals' attitudes.

4.2.1.2. Aim of the Questionnaire

The main aim of the questionnaire was to explore the attitudes of secondary school teachers of English towards the PD program set by the MNE. In other words, it aimed to reveal a true picture of how teachers perceive and evaluate the PD program they are enrolled in.

4.2.1.3. Population, Sample Frame, and Sample

In educational research, population is defined as “all the members of a real or hypothetical set of people, events, or objects to which we wish to generalize the results of our research” (Borg & Gall, 1983, p.241). It refers to “the group of people to whom the researcher wishes to generalize” (Dumont, 2008, p.31). Population, hence, is the group of individuals from which a sample is drawn and to which the research findings will be applied or generalized. In any research work, the population should be well defined. In the current survey, the target population of interest consists of teachers of English at Algerian secondary schools.

Gathering data from the entire population of interest is not always an option particularly if the target population is relatively large, or if the researcher can not have direct access to the entire population of interest. In such case, the researcher will need to rely upon a sample frame. The sample frame is “the part of a population that you (the researcher) could

potentially access” (Knapp, 2014, p. 18). According to Currivan (2004, p.992), the sampling frame “defines a set of elements from which a researcher *can* select a sample of the target population”. Accordingly, and as the target population of the questionnaire survey (teachers of English at Algerian secondary schools) was a large inaccessible one, the sample was selected from a sampling frame composed of teachers of English at secondary schools in Jijel, Algeria.

Sampling is a key issue that should be carefully considered prior to the implementation of the research procedures. Indeed, as argued by many experts in the field of research methodology, sampling can greatly affect the reliability as well as the validity of the research findings. Sampling as put by Daniel (2012, p.1), may be defined as “the selection of a subset of a population for inclusion in the study”. It refers to “the process of selecting a *sample* from a population of interest so that the results gained by these *participants* can be fairly generalized to the population from which they were chosen” (Dumont, 2008, p. 31).

Making good sampling choices is, in fact, one of the keys to making good research and obtaining credible results. Daniel (2012, p. 1) further explains: “If done properly, it (sampling) can save money, time, and effort, while providing valid, reliable, and useful results. On the other hand, if done poorly, the findings of a study may have little scientific and practical value”. In order, however, to generalize the findings of the study to the targeted population, it is required that the selected sample is representative of the population. Importantly, the likelihood of having a representative sample is largely dependent on the size of the sample, the sampling technique, as well as the distribution of certain characteristics of the individuals in the sample.

To obtain a representative sample, the researcher in the current study chose the stratified random sampling technique. The use of this technique requires that the population is

divided into constituent parts; then sample members are chosen randomly from the constituent parts (ASTD, 2008, p. 222). To serve the research objectives, the population was divided into two groups of teachers; each group was supervised by a different inspector. Then, participants were randomly selected from both groups. Given that participants were to express their attitudes towards the training sessions and towards the inspection visits in which two different inspectors are key players, this sampling technique was found most convenient.

To ensure that the sample is truly representative of the population, it should be one of adequate size; that is, the number of the subjects included in the sample should be neither too large nor too small in comparison to the targeted population. According to Daniel (2012, p. 236), selecting a large sample size would result in wasting time and money, while a too small sample would result in failing to satisfy the objectives of one's study. Accordingly, the sample selected for this study included 90 teachers which makes a percentage of 42.25 % of the sampling frame.

Having been randomly selected, no attempt had been made to maintain an equal ratio of male or female teachers, novice or experienced, mentee or mentors etc. in the sample. Nevertheless, teachers in the sample had varied characteristics regarding teaching position, teaching experience, and pre-service training among others. Such variety in the sample did greatly serve the research purposes.

4.2.1.4. Structure of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire starts with an introductory section the aim of which was to introduce the research and to explain its underlying aims. To improve the response rate and to motivate respondents to give valid and reliable responses, the introduction guaranteed the anonymity and the confidentiality of the information collected through the questionnaire. Moreover, this introductory section did provide a brief explanation of the instructions as to how respondents

were to answer the different questions. The introductory section then ended with an expression of gratitude thanking respondents, in advance, for their collaboration.

The main body of the questionnaire consists of eight major sections including the actual questions. Each section is composed of a set of closely linked and arranged questions dealing with the same subject. When taken together, the sections do provide a comprehensive source of information on teachers' attitudes towards the whole TPD program. The sections flow in a logical manner starting with an initial background information section followed by sections about teachers PD needs, the induction program, inspection visits, training seminars and workshops, internal educational seminars, ICTs training and distance learning, and a final section devoted for further suggestions.

The aim of the initial section was to identify the sample characteristics. Thereupon, it was devoted to collecting needed background information about the respondents. Included were questions on teaching qualifications, teaching experience, and whether the respondents had undergone any teaching training before entering the profession. Considering the research questions and the research aims, these background questions were typically most convenient for the present study.

The second section was meant to find out what teachers current PD needs are. It consisted of three questions asking basically about teachers preparation for the main elements of the teaching profession, the level of their need for PD in certain teaching areas, and about any other non-mentioned area they need PD in.

The third section of the questionnaire was developed to obtain data on teachers' perceptions about the quality of the support they have been offered as induction teachers. As a matter of fact, the teacher induction program in the Algerian context is organized into two major subprograms; the preparatory pedagogical training program (PPTP), and the mentoring

program. Accordingly, this section was divided into two subsections, each dealing with one program. In the first subsection, devoted to the PPTP, an attempt was made to gauge how useful and how effective the PPTP program was, as perceived by those who had participated in it. Included were questions about how well the content was covered and disseminated, how well the program process was designed (nature of activities and timing), whether the learning objectives established for the program were actually attained, and how teachers were evaluated. In likewise manner, teachers' views and evaluations of the mentoring program were basically sought in the second subsection. The questions asked relate specifically to the teachers roles in the program (mentor or mentee), their perceptions about the functions of a mentor teacher and the qualities a good one should exhibit, the nature of the mentor/mentee relationship they had experienced, willingness to function as a mentor, accomplishment of the totality of the required mentoring sessions, the content covered in the mentoring sessions, effectiveness of the program in developing novice teachers competencies, and teachers overall evaluation of the mentoring program effectiveness. The subsection, then, ended with a question asking teachers what they recommend to improve the mentoring program.

Questions about inspection visits, which form an important part of teachers CPD, were included in the fourth section. The section aimed at uncovering teachers' attitudes towards the inspection visits, particularly towards the frequency of those visits, the impact they have on their teaching, the feelings they experience when being visited, and the inspectors' behaviours and reactions.

The fifth section was dedicated to find out what teachers think of the quality of the training seminars and workshops they regularly take part in. It contained three subsections covering the major aspects of PD activities, namely: the content, the process, and the context.

To explore teachers' attitudes towards the subjects and the topics covered during the seminars/workshops, a set of questions were included asking about the content focus (teaching skills, knowledge of the subject, pedagogy of the subject, or classroom practice), organization, appropriateness to the teachers level of expertise, inclusion of new ideas, and whether the content forms a coherent program. The last question about the content aimed at finding out whether some key topics (the same as the ones suggested in the question about TPD needs) were covered or not, and what impact they had had on teachers.

The second subsection included questions about the process, that is, the conduct and organization of the training seminars and workshops. The designed questions asked teachers about their attitudes towards five features of the training process: the objectives, the instructor, the instructional techniques and materials, the activities, and the timing.

- Objectives: the corresponding questions were about the clear statement of the objectives at the beginning of the seminars/workshops, their quality (smart or not), and their connection to teachers PD needs.
- The instructor : Questions about the instructor were intended to reveal whether the training provider exhibited essential characteristics such as being credible and well prepared, having a good rapport with the trainees, being a good discussion leader, instructing with a patient and supportive style, providing immediate constructive feedback, communicating information effectively, linking concepts to actual interpersonal situations, and having the technical know-how to use educational technology.
- The instructional techniques and materials: the questions asked related to the accessibility of the material and resources, the variability of the techniques, and the role these techniques play in facilitating teachers learning and helping them apply the new skills.
- Activities: a series of questions were also posed regarding the nature and the quality of the activities used during the training seminars/ workshops. The questions related to the

organization of the activities, appropriateness and alignment with the defined objectives, variety and relevance to the topic, inclusion of occasions for collegial sharing, providing opportunities for personal planning and reflection as well as for practicing the new skills and receiving feedback, active engagement of teachers, and modeling of the new practices.

- Time: two questions were asked regarding the timing of the training. The first was the question whether the time scheduled for the training was exactly what was needed to meet the objectives, while the second was whether sufficient time was provided for the completion of tasks.

The subsection about the context of the training comprised questions about the characteristics of the setting where the seminars/workshops take place. The corresponding questions were asked to find out teachers' attitudes towards the appropriateness of the facilities and the equipments, the effectiveness of the audio-visual aids, the appropriateness of the room for the training session, and accessibility to the training location.

The section about the training seminars/workshop ended with two important questions. One question was about teachers' transfer of the learned material to their everyday teaching practice, while the second related to teachers' attitudes as whether their participation in decision making about the content, process, and context of the training seminars/workshops would render them more effective.

The sixth section of the questionnaire was devoted to another important form of TPD in the Algerian context, that of internal educational seminars. It sought to collect relevant data on key related issues, namely, the frequency of holding internal educational seminars, teachers' motives for participating in the seminars, teachers' feelings about being observed during the seminars, the seminars implemented phases, and the usefulness of those seminars in improving the teaching practices of the respondents.

ICTs training and distance learning was the focus of the eighth section. This aspect of TPD was approached through a set of questions asking particularly about whether teachers had received any ICTs training as part of their PD, the content of such training, the impact of the training on teachers effective integration of ICTs in their classrooms, teachers participation in online training courses and platforms, and teachers evaluations of such web-based learning opportunities.

The final section of the questionnaire was a suggestions one wherein teachers were given a wrapup question asking them to provide suggestions as to how the teachers PD program could be improved. This section, then, was followed by an expression of the researcher appreciation and immense gratitude to teachers for their participation in the study.

4.2.1.5. Questions Formats

Though the term 'questionnaire' suggests inclusion of a set of questions, it is not uncommon to find questionnaires made up of statements rather than questions, particularly when the researcher seeks to explore respondents' attitudes or beliefs about a given issue. Nevertheless, the use of both forms (questions and statements) in one questionnaire is claimed to render the questionnaire more profitable and more useful. On this point, Babbie (2008, p. 272) argues "using both in a given questionnaire gives you more flexibility in the design of items and can make the questionnaire more interesting as well". Accordingly, to solicit relevant varied information from the respondents, the items included in the questionnaire were presented in both formats: questions and statements.

The questionnaire employed a mixture of open ended and closed ended items. While closed ended items; those requiring participants "to choose from a limited number of responses that are predetermined by the researcher" (Johnson & Christensen, 2012, p. 169) produce quantitative data that are particularly suited for statistical analysis, open ended items;

those that allow the participants to respond in their own words, provide rich and interesting primarily qualitative data. Including both open ended and closed ended items in the questionnaire was basically an attempt to achieve a balance of precision and respondents freedom in crafting answers.

Different types of closed-ended items were included in the designed questionnaire. Nevertheless, all of these types share the fact that they provided a set of predetermined responses for the respondents to choose from either by ticking one response or by putting an 'X' in the appropriate box. The types of the closed-ended items used are described below.

Rating scales items: A rating scale requires respondents to “make an evaluative judgment of the target by marking one of a series of categories organized into a scale” (Dornyei & Taguchi, 2010, p. 26). Depending on the nature of the study, the given categories can be of attributes (good-bad, frequent-rare), intensity (very much-not at all) or opinions (strongly agree-strongly disagree) among others. As a matter of fact, there exists a wide range of scaling techniques for researchers to use. Yet, the one mostly used in the designed questionnaire was the Likert scale. Named after its founder Rensis Likert, the Likert scale is an ordinal scale which consists basically of a set of statements about a particular target with which respondents are asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree by choosing one of the response options ranging from strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, and strongly agree. The Likert scale used was mainly a multi-item scale employed to uncover teachers' attitudes towards the training seminars/workshops they participate in.

Yes/no Items: Items where respondents are asked to indicate their answers by marking a 'yes' or 'no' option are so common in survey questionnaires. Though the accuracy of the information these items yield is sometimes questioned, there might be cases when only such a polarized, yes-no decision can be considered reliable or appropriate (Dornyei & Taguchi,

2010, p. 32). Correspondingly, yes/ no items were applied in the constructed questionnaire whenever appropriate and necessary to yield the information needed.

Multiple choice items: These are relatively straightforward items asking respondents to mark one or more response options from a given list. Employing multiple choice items, the researcher ensured that an exhaustive list of options is provided followed by an 'other' option and an open-ended question requesting respondents to specify.

Checklists: A checklist consists of "a list of descriptive terms, attributes, or even objects, and respondents are instructed to mark the items on the list that apply to the particular question" (Dornyei & Taguchi, 2010, p. 36). A number of checklist items were used in the designed questionnaire mostly to examine the content of some PD activities such as the PPTP, the mentoring program, the training seminars and workshops, and the internal educational seminars.

Numeric items: These are items which require respondents to provide a specific numeric value. Such items were mostly used to collect information related to duration and frequencies.

Open-ended items included in the questionnaire were vastly outnumbered by closed-ended ones. Indeed, a good number of the open-ended items were in essence clarification items attached to important closed-ended items. For instance, when the 'other' option is provided in a multiple-choice item and respondents are asked to explain or to justify their answers. Other open-ended items were basically short-answer questions dealing with only one concept or idea. Such questions require short answers; "usually more than a phrase and less than a paragraph (and certainly no more than two paragraphs)" (Dornyei & Taguchi, 2010, p. 39). These questions allowed respondents to freely write about different subjects such as their PD needs, mentor/mentee relationship, reactions to inspection visits, etc., as they also allowed

them to share their evaluations and recommendations about the different components of their PD program.

4.2.1.6. Pilot Administration

Among the most invaluable components of successful survey questionnaires is pilot testing. Pilot testing refers to “dress rehearsals of full survey operations that are implemented to determine whether problems exist that need to be addressed prior to putting the production survey in the field” (Rothgeb, 2008, in Lavrakas, p. 583). That is, pilot testing involves trying out a questionnaire or any research instrument on a small group of try-out individuals for the purposes of identifying potential problems in the instrument, modifying and/or refining it, improving the instrument and, as a result, obtaining good research data.

Given such importance of pilot testing, it was vital that the questionnaire used in this study was piloted. Accordingly, once the preliminary questionnaire had been developed, it was tested on a small pilot test sample including five respondents. The respondents had the same characteristics as those in the targeted sample; that is, they were secondary school teachers of English with different teaching qualifications, positions (mentors/mentees) and experiences.

The pilot test was carried out by the use of interviews. The choice of this method was guided by the need to observe respondents' non-verbal reactions to the questionnaire and to find about the problems encountered during its completion. Prior to handing the pilot questionnaire to respondents, they were first explained its nature and the purpose behind conducting it. Correspondingly, respondents were requested to fill in the questionnaire, to reflect on and to comment on its different aspects including clarity, length, layout, legibility, and relevance among others. The aim was to improve the quality of the questionnaire design and to promote the reliability and validity of the obtained data through revealing existing

flaws in the form and the content of the questionnaire and addressing them prior to the administration of the final version. While the pilot test was implemented, an estimate of average time for questionnaire completion was obtained by the researcher. As a matter of fact, the pilot test did provide valuable information about the difficulties and the problems related to the questionnaire design and administration. Examples of such problems are: excessive length of the questionnaire, lack of clarity in some questions wording, and exclusion of some alternative answers to closed questions. The information obtained through the pilot test allowed for necessary modifications and refinements to be made before the questionnaire was administered to the chosen sample.

4.2.1.7. Questionnaire Administration

The questionnaire used in the study was administered using two different methods, namely one-to-one administration and group administration. The use of both methods was basically an attempt to reach the desired number of participants and, more importantly, to increase the response rate.

One-to-one administration refers to “a situation when someone delivers the questionnaire by hand to the designated person and arranges the completed form to be picked up later”. Following this method, a number of the questionnaires were individually handed to 30 teachers working at different secondary schools in Jijel. To ensure that teachers are available and willing to participate in the study, the researcher arranged in advance for meetings with individual teachers at the level of the secondary schools where they work, explaining the reasons and the aims of the meeting. Encountering the participants, the researcher first thanked them for their collaboration then explained the nature and the aim of the questionnaire, and gave them the instructions as how to fill in the questionnaire. The researcher was present during the completion of most -though not all of- the questionnaires to

provide further explanations and clarifications whenever needed. This personal face-to-face administration, though difficult to implement, was greatly effective in the sense that it encouraged teachers to cooperate and resulted in a high return rate and a high response rate as well.

The second questionnaire administration method employed in this study was group administration which refers to handing out questionnaires to a group of assembled respondents. In addition to its efficacy, one main advantage of this method is the fact that it can easily be implemented. That is, one researcher can distribute and collect a large number of questionnaires in a short period of time.

To successfully implement this method, the administration situation was carefully prepared in advance. The researcher met the inspector of national education who is in charge of teachers training seminars and collaboratively arranged to administer the questionnaire to participant teachers while they are assembled together in educational seminars. Accordingly, the questionnaire was administered to two different groups of teachers (the first group included 44 teachers, the second was made up of 46 ones) in two different training seminars. The seminars took place on November, 20th and November 27th, 2018 at Kaoula Tounes Secondary School, Jijel. After being introduced by the inspector, the researcher greeted teachers, briefly introduced the topic, and explained to them the nature and the aim of the questionnaire. To encourage them to cooperate and to provide sincere and relevant information, the researcher did guarantee to teachers the confidentiality of their responses prior to the questionnaire administration. While the teachers were completing the questionnaires, the researcher was available to provide needed help. Once the questionnaires had been completed (the questionnaire completion took from 45 to 60 minutes), the researcher collected them thanking teachers for their participation. It's worth mentioning that teachers

were particularly interested in the research topic, a fact which helped raise the return as well as the response rate of the questionnaire.

4.2.1.8. Analysis Procedure

The data elicited through the questionnaires were processed and analyzed depending on the nature of the related questions. To analyze the data obtained through open-ended questions, a process of content analysis was conducted. On the other hand, the data collected through close-ended questions were analyzed statistically.

Content analysis of open-ended questions: As related to survey research, content analysis refers to “a research method that is applied to the verbatim responses given to open-ended questions in order to code those answers into a meaningful set of categories that lend themselves to further quantitative statistical analysis” (Lavrakas, 2008, p. 140). To be able to analyze the data elicited through open-ended questions, the given responses were reduced to a relatively small set of meaningful categories. Doing so, the researcher implemented the two main phases recommended by Dornyei and Taguchi (2010, p. 99) namely, (1) taking each person’s response in turn and marking in them any distinct content elements, substantive statements, or key points, and (2) based on the ideas and concepts highlighted in the texts, forming broader categories to describe the content of the response in a way that allows for comparisons with other responses. Each category was then assigned a numerical value and was analyzed as quantitative data via statistical procedures. Moreover, for purposes of illustration and exemplification, some of the verbatim quotes were also presented.

Statistical analysis of closed-ended questions: As opposed to open-ended ones, closed-ended questions are relatively easy to standardize. Hence, the data generated easily lend themselves to statistical analysis. To collate the data obtained through closed-ended questions, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used. This is basically a

computer software that allows users to perform statistical analysis of the data they have obtained and to draw relevant conclusions. Using this software, the data obtained were coded, entered into the software, and then processed. The findings were reported in the form of tables including responses frequencies, percentages, valid percentages, and cumulative percentages distributions, followed by a description and an interpretation of the findings.

4.2.2. Interview

A survey interview is “typically a formal, standardized conversation between a person asking questions (the interviewer) and a person giving answers to those questions (the respondent). The respondents are selected because they belong to a population of interest” (O’Rourke, in Lavrakas, 2008, p.385).

4.2.2.1. Rationale and Aim of the Interview

Inspectors of national education are key players in TPD in the Algerian context. Indeed, among their major roles as inspectors is that of training teachers, inspecting them and monitoring and evaluating their performance. Accordingly, they are believed to be well aware of the peculiarities of TPD in our context, and, therefore, could provide expert feedback and ideas about the TPD program and could also provide valuable insights into its strength and weaknesses.

Hence, the aim behind conducting interviews with inspectors of national education was basically to explore inspectors’ attitudes towards the different TPD activities they take part in either as providers (seminars, workshops, induction program, etc.) or as participants (on-the-job internal educational seminars, classroom visits, etc.). Moreover, the interview aimed at offering insights into how these TPD activities are currently being conducted, stressing both their advantages and limitations. That is, rather than collecting data from teachers only, we attempted to offer a broader view of the TPD program by including inspectors too.

4.2.2.2. Type of the Interview

The interviews conducted were information gathering structured ones the main interest of which was to collect data regarding inspectors' attitudes towards TPD in Algeria. The choice of such type of standardized interview was informed by a choice of consistency over flexibility. As argued by Postmus (2013, p. 244), flexibility in pursuing new topics is lost when conducting structured interviews; yet, the results include consistent answers that can then be compared. That is, while allowing for comparability between participants' answers, standardizing the questions would certainly minimize the errors caused by both the interviewer effects and characteristics, as it would also reduce bias.

The interviews included both closed-ended and open-ended questions. The closed-ended questions which took the form of yes/no questions and Likert scale questions were asked sparingly. Indeed, these were included mainly for the purpose of gathering demographic and factual information. On the other hand, the bulk of the interview was made up of open-ended questions asking about participants' attitudes and experiences. While some open-ended questions required short answers (for example in the form of numerical data), others required rather long answers in the form of narratives.

4.2.2.3. Structure of the Interview

The main focus in the interviews was on major themes related to TPD in the Algerian context. Of significant interest were issues concerning teachers induction which takes the form of a PPTP and a mentoring program, classroom inspection/ supervision visits, training seminars and workshops, internal educational seminars, ICTs training and distance learning. Of interest was also the issue of inspectors training and their readiness to assume their roles as teacher trainers. The interview was structured around those particular themes and was, accordingly, organized under eight sections.

Questions in the first section were designed to collect information about the participants' background. Included were questions about their experience as inspectors, their current roles and responsibilities, their teaching experience and its impact on their role as teacher trainers, and their background knowledge. The questions asked, thereafter, related to the key issue of inspectors training and PD. Participants were asked about the content, the quality, and the effectiveness of the training received, about their on-going personal and PD, and about their current PD needs.

Following were questions about the issues surrounding teacher induction. A range of questions around both the PPTP and the mentoring program were devised. The questions about the PPTP were asked to find out about the content, the process, and the context of the training provided, its effectiveness, and its limitations. On the other hand, the questions about the mentoring program investigated participants' perceptions of the qualities and functions of mentor teachers, their roles in assigning and training mentors, and the effectiveness of the mentoring program.

Included in the following section were questions about classroom visits which represent a major supervisory role of inspectors. Particularly, the questions were posed about the frequency of the visits and its determining factors, the objectives set, the emphasis of the observation, teachers reactions to classroom visits, decision makers in planning the visits, post-visit conferences, participants observation skills, and the impact of such visits on improving teachers performance.

The subsequent section shed light on an important form of TPD in the Algerian context, that of teacher training seminars and workshops. Of interest were questions about the frequency, the content, and the objectives of the training seminars; the role assumed by participants; the conduct, organization and timing of seminars, the context of the seminars; teachers transfer of learnt material to their everyday teaching; decision makers in the design of

training seminars; teacher PD needs analysis; training evaluation and the limitations of teacher training seminars in our context.

Questions in the following section focused on internal educational seminars wherein participants were asked about their participation in those seminars and their attitudes towards this form of teacher CPD. Succeeding was a section about ICTs training and distance learning. The questions posed were about participants use of ICTs in training teachers, teachers integration of ICTs in their classrooms, the online training opportunities participants provide to teachers, and their attitudes towards online teacher training courses, networks, and platforms. The last section was devoted to a wrapup of the interview. It included one final question where participants were asked to suggest ways in which TPD in Algeria can be improved.

4.2.2.4. Participants

Consisting of only inspectors of national education, the population of interest for the survey interview was rather a narrow one. Indeed, the interview was conducted with only two inspectors who are, in fact, the only ones functioning at the level of Jijel. The two inspectors are the ones responsible for delivering training seminars and workshops to secondary school teachers of English, as well as for supervising and evaluating their teaching performance.

4.2.2.5. Confidentiality and Obtaining Permission

Prior to the interview, potential respondents (the two inspectors) had first been contacted to request their agreement to take part in the interview survey. To obtain and maintain respondents' cooperation, they were given backup information about the survey study including why the study is being conducted, why they had been selected as respondents, and how long the interview would approximately take. Most important, however, was to grant confidential treatment of the respondents answers, and to maintain neutral behaviours during the interviewing process.

4.2.2.6. Preparing for the Interview

With the researcher's participation request had been granted, an agreement was then reached on the appropriate time and place, as well as on the method the interview was to be conducted. In order to give them time to reflect over the posed questions, the two participants were given the interview guide prior to the start of the interview.

4.2.2.7. Conducting the Interview

One interview was conducted face-to-face where the researcher herself played the role of the interviewer. It took place on March 16th, 2021 at the university of Mohammed Seddik ben Yahia, Jijel. The participant's responses were recorded using an audio recorder. The second interview took place on March 9th, 2021. This interview, however, was conducted through e-mail conversations as it was not possible to conduct it face-to-face. Doing so, the participant first answered the questions, then he was engaged with further questions to elaborate on his responses or to clarify certain issues.

4.2.2.8. Data Analysis

The data generated from the two interviews were analyzed using the content analysis method. Doing so, participants common and diverse responses to each question were examined, then those responses were reduced to a set of meaningful categories. Moreover, some of the participants' verbatim quotes were reported by way of exemplification and illustration.

4.2.3. Observation

Among the extensive array of data collection methods applied by researchers, a most practical one for studying behaviours in natural settings is observation. Making observations of individuals' behaviours in a given context can yield a wide range of valuable information which could be otherwise difficult to be obtained. For observation to be qualified as a

scientific method of data collection, however, certain criteria need to be met. According to Mouly (1978, pp. 216-217), scientific observation should be systematic; objective and free from bias; quantitative whenever possible; and strong in usability, reliability, and validity. Observation can take different forms. It can be naturalistic (field) or laboratory (systematic), structured or unstructured, participant or non-participant, etc.

4.2.3.1. Rationale for Observation

In the current study, observation was used, not as a stand-alone method, but rather as a complementary one; providing supplementary data to the other employed research methods, namely, the questionnaire survey and the interview survey. This research method was opted for for a number of sound reasons. Basically, observations of teachers training seminars allow a detailed context, content and process oriented analysis. Whilst providing a comprehensive picture of the physical setting where the training takes place, observation does also produce worthwhile information about the issues or topics dealt with during the training seminars as well as about the way the training is being conducted and organized. Additionally, observing the different aspects of the training seminars and examining them against certain criteria of high quality PD training would undoubtedly reflect the overall quality of the training seminars which can greatly influence teachers held attitudes. Though such attitudes were explored using the designed questionnaire, what affected those attitudes were yet uncovered. Accordingly, to help gain a clear understanding of the factors informing teachers' attitudes towards the training seminars (as revealed through the questionnaire), it was imperative to include observation as a research method.

Moreover, it has been argued that participant observation lends itself favourably to attitude surveys. This is mainly due to the relationship that exists between individuals behaviours and their held attitudes. That is, how individuals react in a given situation is in

essence a reflection of what they think and how they feel about it. Hence, observing teachers behaviors, actions and reactions during training seminars can tell a lot about the attitudes they hold towards those seminars.

4.2.3.2. Aim of the Observation

Observing teacher training seminars meant studying the settings, situations, events and practices as they naturally occur, and gleaning diverse aspects of the teacher training experiences. It was basically conducted to gather evidence on the content, the process, and the context of the training seminars in an attempt to find out what informed participants' expressed attitudes.

4.2.3.3. Confidentiality and Obtaining Permission

To be able to attend the training seminars and conduct the observation process, there was a clear need for the researcher to obtain official permission from individuals who are in charge of the teacher training process. Accordingly, the researcher had first requested permission from the two inspectors of national education who are the training providers. The inspectors were very welcoming and helpful and didn't hesitate to grant the researcher permission to attend and observe the training seminars. Additionally, official written permission from the directorate of education was applied for by the researcher. Having explained the aim of the observation process and assured the confidentiality of the observation data, the researcher managed to receive needed permission.

4.2.3.4. Observation Procedure

Prior to conducting the observation, the researcher had to make a number of informed choices. These relate basically to who the observer is, what and how to observe, what tools to

use, and how long the observation would last. In fact, the choices made were largely dictated by the objectives as well as the questions raised in the study.

Observer: As for the question of who observes, the observation conducted was a self-observation one. That is, it was the researcher herself who undertook the observation of the training seminars. As a matter of fact, this choice was made for two main reasons. First, having obtained an official permission to attend the seminars from the directorate of education as well as from the training providers, it was possible for the researcher to conduct the observation herself. Secondly, having gained broader knowledge on the research topic as well as on observation as a research method, it was strongly believed that the researcher would be more alert to the peculiarities of the observed situations, and, hence, in better position to collect more relevant data.

Focus of the observation: The observation process was basically about the TPD experience itself. It was meant to collect data on the three different aspects of the training seminars, namely the context, the content, and the process, alongside teachers ongoing behaviours and reactions. As for the context, the observation was guided by questions about the training location, and the appropriateness and the conduciveness of the training facilities and equipment to learning including the size, the temperature, and lightening of the room, the seating arrangements, and the quality of the audio-visual aids. On the other hand, while observing the training content meant finding out *what* topics were being raised, what teaching aspect (content knowledge of the subject, pedagogy, or practice) was being focused, how well organized the content was, and whether it formed part of a coherent program; Observing the training process meant finding out *how* the training was conducted. That is, what instructional techniques and material were being used, what type of activities were being employed, what objectives were stated and how, what instructional qualities the training provider did exhibit,

and how the training time was organized. Observing these three aspects was, in fact, associated with a careful observation of how teachers behave during the seminars, how they interact with each other and with the training provider, and how they react to the different activities and instructions.

Type of the observation: The type of the observation is basically a matter of the observer's role or the stance they take during the observation. Indeed, while observing, the researcher can participate as a member of the observed group, or can simply observe without the slightest amount of interaction with the observed group. As for the current study, the observation conducted was a direct (overt) participant observation. That is, the researcher took an observer as participant stance. In other words, the researcher's presence was known to the inspectors and teachers who were aware that observation is taking place. On the other hand, the researcher participated in the different training activities during the seminars; yet, the main role assumed was that of observing and collecting data. It is worth mentioning that though direct observation runs the risk of compromising the natural interaction of the observed individuals, this was not the case. The fact that the researcher had been a secondary school teacher herself and known by the inspectors and most teachers helped them feel comfortable in her presence. That is, the researcher presence hardly influenced the observed group.

Structure of the observation: Investigating various aspects of the training seminars, the observation conducted was semi-structured in nature. As described by Gillham (2008, p. 19), in the semi structured variety of observation, researchers go in with quite specific questions but they are 'open' so that researchers can not predict what they are going to find. Accordingly, though the observation process was guided by specific questions about the

different aspects of the training seminars, the observations made were not limited to the preposed questions.

Observation tools: While observing the teacher training seminars, the researcher used a checklist containing a set of criteria against which the quality of the observed training seminars could be determined. The checklist adopted, namely the 'observation checklist for high-quality professional development training' was designed by Langham and Erickson (2013) to "be completed by an observer to determine the level of quality of professional development training" (p.1). As stated by the designers, this tool represents "a compilation of research-identified indicators that should be present in high quality training" (p.1).

The checklist starts with a short section devoted to context information, namely, the date, location, topic, presenter, observer and role. This section is followed by a set of 22 statements about the training quality which are organized under six main domains: preparation, introduction, demonstration, engagement, evaluation, and mastery (see appendix C). These domains, however, relate mainly to the training process; that is, the way the training is organized and conducted. The checklist was supplemented by the use of brief narrative statements and reflective notes to record information about the content and the context of the training seminars, as well as the teachers behaviours and reactions.

Observation sample and duration: To obtain relevant and valid data about the training seminars, it was necessary that different seminars- in different settings, and with different teachers and inspectors- be observed over an extended period of time. Therefore, the idea was to attend and observe all the training seminars conducted through a whole academic year. Accordingly, the observation process consisted of five teacher training seminars conducted over the academic year 2018-2019. The training seminars observed were provided by two different inspectors, and attended by all the secondary school teachers of English in Jijel.

4.2.3.5. Data Analysis

The observation process yielded large quantities of data about the different aspects of teacher training seminars. To draw well-supported conclusions from the obtained data, however, these data should have been carefully analyzed. Indeed, data analysis has widely been argued to be a process of reviewing, summarizing, cross-checking, looking for patterns, and drawing conclusions (LeCompte & Schensul, Wolcott, as cited in Dewalt & Dewalt, 2002, p.163). Thus, the data gathered through participant observation were subject to reduction through careful reviewing, categorization, organization and summarization. As a result, patterns of activities, behaviors, etc. were identified, and conclusions and arguments were built.

4.3. Quality of Research Instruments

4.3.1. Validity

In research, the question of validity refers to “the extent to which an instrument measures what it is intended to measure” (DeFour-Howards, 2015, p. 123). Such question, Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2009, p. 133) argue, is “an important key to effective research. It is a requirement for both quantitative and qualitative research”. Indeed, if a study is to be meaningful and worthwhile, the validity of the research instruments employed should be established. Aiming at establishing content validity of the research instruments, logical links were established between the questions (included in both the questionnaire and the interview) and the research objectives during the instruments early development. That is, there was a certain kind of justification for including each of those questions. Moreover, the issues addressed in the research instruments drew upon the theoretical framework. Validity was also established through selecting only participants who had participated in the PD activity in question.

4.3.2. Reliability

The concept of reliability, as related to a research instrument, refers to “the degree of consistency with which it measures whatever it sets out to measure” (DeFour-Howards, 2015, p. 125). Due to the heterogeneous nature of the questionnaire items in this study, coefficient Alpha was not applicable. However, to reduce possible threats to reliability of the research instruments, certain strategies were incorporated when constructing those instruments. The issue of the clarity of questions and statements was highly considered when constructing the questions. Vague and ambiguous words which might create problems of interpretation were avoided. Moreover, the use of various types of items (open-ended and closed-ended items), with their relative merits, added more reliability to the instruments.

4.3.3. Generalizability

In research, generalisability refers to the extent to which the results of one study with a particular sample can be applied to other studies or samples. As far as the current small-scale study is concerned, generalizability was neither a stated goal nor an explicit intention of the researcher. Nevertheless, the researcher believes that the study has some relevance to other teachers in the population, and, hence, has the potential for generalizability.

4.4. Ethical Considerations

The conduct of both qualitative and quantitative research methods should be guided by a set of some ethical principles. Ethical principles are defined as “the standard practices for privacy and confidentiality protection for human subject participants” (Valerio & Mainieri, in Lavrakas, 2008, p. 243). Such principles are needed, Valerio and Mainieri add, to protect individual participant(s) “beginning at the start of study recruitment, through participation and data collection, to dissemination of research findings in a manner that is confidential, private, and respectful”.

Conducting this research work, the researcher adhered to a set of ethical principles. First, participants' rights to voluntary participation were protected through informed consent. That is, participants had the right to decide whether they wish to participate in the study or not.

Second, the information shared in the interview and the questionnaire was treated confidentially, and was used for research purposes only. Maintaining confidentiality and respecting the anonymity of participants granted their right to control the disclosure of the shared information, increased the trust between the researcher and the participants, and encouraged them to openly and safely share their attitudes. Another important principle the researcher adhered to was gaining permission to access the different research sites. Indeed, before attending the training seminars to conduct the observation process, the researcher did ask for, and was granted, permission from the Directorate of Education.

Conclusion

This chapter presented a detailed description of the adapted research methodology. It first provided definitions of some basic relevant concepts, namely that of research, research methodology and research methods. Then it provided details related to the research design and the data collection methods employed during the research starting with the questionnaire survey, the interview then the observation process. The chapter then reported on the quality of the research instruments and the ethical principles adhered to by the researcher throughout the research process.

Chapter Five : The Findings

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Chapter Five: The Findings

Introduction

This chapter reports on the findings obtained through the three data collection instruments employed in the study. It is organized in three main parts. Included in the first part are the findings of the questionnaire survey. The second part is devoted to the data obtained through the interview with the inspectors of national education, while the third part includes the results obtained through the observation of the teacher training seminars.

5.1. Analysis and Interpretation of the Questionnaire Results

The questionnaire represents a valuable, if not indispensable, research tool when seeking data about individuals' attitudes towards specific issues. Accordingly, and as our research aims at finding out teachers' attitudes towards the PD program set by the MNE, the questionnaire was the major research tool employed. The findings are reported in the form of statistical summaries which are cast in a set of tables including the frequencies of responses to each question and the percentages those frequencies represent out of the total number of participants. Additionally, as the questionnaire includes a number of open questions which elicit varying response patterns, some of the findings are reported as individual verbatim responses.

Section one: Background Information

The first section in the questionnaire provides background information on the individuals in the sample. It includes three questions in reference to the participants' qualifications, teaching experience, and pre-service training.

1. Which of the following qualifications do you hold?

- a. Secondary school teacher diploma from the TTS
- b. Licence degree

c. Master's degree

d. A higher degree (Magister, PhD...)

Table. 5.1.

Teachers Qualifications

	N	%
a. Secondary school teacher diploma from the TTS	28	31.1
b. Licence degree	37	41.1
c. Master's degree	25	27.8
d. A higher degree (Magister, PhD...)	00	00
Total	90	100.0

Before being able to enter the teaching profession, individuals need to meet certain criteria. An important one, among others, is to gain the required teaching qualification. Hence, the first section of the questionnaire was initiated with a question about the participants' formal qualifications. Accordingly, participants were asked to indicate their entry qualifications by category; they were requested to select one of four proposed qualifications which form the degree classification system in Algeria: a secondary school teacher diploma from the TTS, a licence degree, a master's degree, or a higher degree (Magister, PhD...). The very fact that a teacher's qualification is pertinently linked to their initial pre-service education, and hence can inform their ideas, attitudes, and even practices as teachers makes this specific question definitely worthy of consideration.

Hence, regarding their qualifications, the findings represented in table 5.1. show that the

participants hold different degrees. While 28 participants (31.1 %) graduated from the TTS with a diploma of a secondary school teacher, the remaining 62 teachers were graduates of the university. 25 among them (27.8%) hold a Master degree and 37 ones (41.1%) hold a Licence degree representing those who belong to the classical (Licence-Magister-Doctorate) system as those having the LMD Licence degree are not allowed to teach at the secondary schools. Expectedly, no one of the participants possesses a higher Magister or Doctorate degree as those usually prefer to teach at the university.

2. How long have you been teaching?

a. This is my first year b. 1-2 years c. 3-5 years d. 6-10 years e. More than 10 years

Table. 5.2.

Teaching Experience

	N	%
a. This is my first year	02	02.2
b. 1-2 years	07	07.8
c. 3-5 years	21	23.3
d. 6-10 years	35	38.9
e. More than 10 years	25	27.8
Total	90	100.0

To elicit more information about their professional background, participants were asked to indicate the number of years they have been teaching by selecting one of the given options. Such question would enable us to identify the participants teaching experience which affects them on a variety of levels including their attitudes towards the professional development activities they participate in.

The results show a noticeable variation across the sample. Out of 90 participants, there

were nine novice teachers; two in their first year and seven in their second year. 21 participants reported that they had been teachers for the relatively short period of three to five years, while the larger proportion of participants (35 ones) were those with six to ten years of experience. The remaining 25 participants were the most experienced ones with a teaching career lasting for over 10 years. That is, the participant sample was composed of teachers who had a wide range of teaching experience with careers ranging from one to more than ten years.

3. Had you undergone any teaching training before entering the profession?

- a. Yes b. No

Table.5.3.

Teachers Pre-service Training

	N	%
a. Yes	55	61.1
b. No	35	38.9
Total	90	100

Pre-service training is a critical phase of teacher preparation which can inform their perceptions as well as the quality of their teaching practices. Lewis et al. (1999, p.57) argued that “the preparation of high-quality teachers begins prior to entering their own classrooms and continues once they are on the job”. For this reason, there was a need to consider whether participants received any pre-service training or not.

An analysis of the participants' responses to this question reveals that an average of 61.1% of teachers had undergone pre-service training before entering the profession, while 38.9 % of them had not. This can directly be attributed to the participants pre-service education because, as indicated earlier, a good number of them (28) graduated from the teachers training schools where they had undergone some form of theoretical and practical pre-service teacher training program, while another proportion (25 participants) are holders of

a master's degree who, according to the amended regulations issued recently, are required to undergo basic pre-service training defined as participating in the PPTP.

Section two. Teachers' Professional Development Needs

To further their professional knowledge and skills, language teachers engage in a variety of formal PD activities. However, none of these activities can be effective if it is not targeted to meet the teachers own perceived learning needs. Indeed, the extent to which such activities match the teachers' needs shapes significantly their attitudes towards those activities. Hence, the purpose of this section is to find out and analyze teachers PD needs and to examine the extent to which the offered PD activities correlate with those needs.

1. In your teaching, to what extent do you feel prepared for the elements bellow?

a. Content of the subject b. Pedagogy of the subject c. Classroom practice in the subject

Table. 5.4.

Teachers Feelings of Preparedness

Elements		Not at all	Somewhat	Well	Very well	Mean	Std. Deviation
a. Content of the subject	N	00	5	58	27	3.24	,547
	%	00	5.6	64.4	30		
b. Pedagogy of the subject	N	00	28	55	7	2.77	,582
	%	00	31.1	61.1	7.8		
c. Classroom practice in the subject	N	00	17	58	15	2.98	,599
	%	00	18.9	64.4	16.7		
Weighted mean						2.99	

Information about teachers' qualifications and training can tell a lot about their preparation to meet the challenges of the teaching profession. However, such information, as Lewis et al. (1999, p.47) argue, does not completely address whether teachers pre-service training and on-the-job learning *adequately* prepare them to meet the complex and changing

demands they often face in their classroom. One indicator of the extent to which their training prepares them to meet these challenges is their feeling of preparedness.

To address this concern, participants in the survey were asked to indicate how well prepared they felt for three essential requirements of the teaching profession: the content (know-what), the pedagogy (know-how), and the translation of these constructs into practice. Results presented in table.5.4. indicate that none of the participants felt “not at all prepared” for these requirements. In contrast, participants reported feeling prepared to meet the classroom demands but to different extents. As for their preparedness for the content, teachers generally felt either “well” or “very well” prepared (64.4% and 30 % respectively); relatively, few teachers (5.6 %) felt only somewhat prepared. With reference to their level of preparedness for the pedagogy of the subject they teach, a sizable percentage of the participants reported adequate preparedness with 61.1% feeling well prepared, and 7.8 % very well prepared. However, almost one-third of the participants (31.1%) reported being moderately prepared. The same pattern held for the last element which is classroom practice. While a majority (64.4 %) of teachers felt well prepared, and 16.7% felt very well prepared, a considerable percentage (18.9%) admitted to have a moderate level of preparedness. Accordingly, while suggesting that most teachers feel prepared for the content they teach, the data obtained signal a concern about their preparedness for both the pedagogy and classroom practice which was echoed by a considerable number of teachers.

2. For each of the areas listed below, please indicate the degree to which you currently need professional development

Table.5.5.

Areas of Teachers' Professional Development Needs

Areas		No need at all	Low level of need	Moderate level of need	High level of need
a. Knowledge and understanding of the subject	N	36	27	11	16
	%	40	30	12.2	17.8
b. Pedagogical competencies in teaching my subject field	N	10	34	35	11
	%	11.1	37.8	38.9	12.2
c. Knowledge of the curriculum	N	30	23	22	15
	%	33.3	25.6	24.4	16.7
d. Student evaluation and assessment practice	N	13	24	35	18
	%	14.4	26.7	38.9	20
e. ICT (information and communication technology) skills for teaching	N	30	18	30	12
	%	33.3	20	33.3	13.3
f. Student behaviour and classroom management	N	25	23	27	15
	%	27.8	25.6	30	16.7
g. Approaches to individualised learning	N	7	23	36	24
	%	7.8	25.6	40	26.7
h. Teaching cross-curricular skills	N	11	19	44	16
	%	12.2	21.1	48.9	17.8

To further explore their PD needs, teachers were asked to rate - based on a scale ranging from “no need at all” to “high level of need”- the degree to which they currently need PD for a set of teaching areas representing some of the key aspects of the teaching profession. As shown in table. 5.5., participant teachers, who had different qualifications and experiences, generally had different PD needs. A thorough analysis of the results indicates the following:

- Knowledge and understanding of the subject and of the curriculum posed no problems for most teachers who had been used to teaching the same content and following the same national curriculum. As demonstrated in the table, while 40% of the teachers said there is no need at all for PD on the content knowledge, one third of them described this need as

low. Similarly, one third of the participants had no need for PD on the curriculum, and 25.6% had a low level of need.

- The results obtained regarding the pedagogical competencies are remarkably consistent with those obtained from the question about teachers' feelings of preparedness for the pedagogy of the subject. The results underscore the need for PD on this aspect albeit to different degrees. Out of the 90 participants, only 10 said they did not need PD on the pedagogical competencies and 34 said there was a low level of need. However, for the remaining participants who opted for moderate level (35 ones) and high level (11 ones) of need, the aspect of pedagogical competencies is a source of concern. With respect to assessment and evaluation practices, about the same pattern was observed. Apart from the 13 participants who said there was no need for PD, 24 ones described their level of need as low, and 53 ones believed there was a moderate (35 ones) or even a high (18 ones) level of need for further PD on this aspect. In fact, among a multitude of factors, a major one leading to this special concern about these two aspects could be the recently introduced *Learning progressions* and the changes it had brought about regarding the syllabus, the instructional strategies, and the assessment practices.
- As for the ICT skills for teaching, significant differences exist among the teachers' described levels of need for PD. Slightly more than half of the participants seem to be well equipped with ICT knowledge and skills stating that there is no need at all (One-third) or a low level of need (one-fifth). In contrast, another third of the participants reported their level of current need for ICT training as "moderate", while the remaining ones (13.3%) said it is a high-level need.
- Students behavior and classroom management represent some of the most perplexing problems for teachers. To deal with such problems and to prevent future potential ones,

however, teachers need to be well-prepared and well-equipped with the necessary tools and strategies. This can particularly be done through PD activities. However, the need for these PD activities varies significantly among teachers. The data obtained suggest that though a good number of participants (25 ones) believe they do not need further PD regarding this aspect, the remaining ones do. 23 teachers described their level of need as low, 27 as moderate, and 17 a high. This can relate to the teachers different levels of expertise which can inform their management behaviors and, hence, determine their need for further PD.

- “Instruction which has all students doing the same tasks at the same time, at the same rate, and with the same end goals is neither efficient nor effective” argued Champagne and Goldman (1978, p. 3). Students have different abilities, interests, and learning rates. Therefore, if instruction is to be effective, the content, the instructional strategies, and the pace of learning should respond to the learning needs of each student; there should be a form of individualized instruction or individualized learning.

Though this method, if appropriately applied, can result in more effective learning, it is still not adopted in the Algerian educational context. Instructional practices have always been based on the one-size-fits-all principle even though the groups are mixed-ability ones. Accordingly, teachers have not been receiving PD on this aspect. A fact which can explain the results obtained through our study. The great majority of teachers reported their need for PD regarding approaches to individualized learning; while 25.6 % of them said they have a low level of need, 40 % said they have a moderate level of need, and 26.7% said it's a high-need.

- Cross-curricular learning occurs when “the skills, knowledge and attitudes of a number of different disciplines are applied to a single experience, theme or idea” (Barnes, 2007, p.8). That is, teaching cross-curricular skills focuses on “the development of transferable skills

that can be used across multiple subject areas” (Byrne & Brodie, 2012, section 1).

Examples of such skills are: problem-solving skills, study skills, personal and social skills, communication skills and information technology skills.

Regarding this aspect, the results suggest that further PD may need to be designed to meet the needs of teachers as most of them reported their need for it. While 19 teachers said they have a low level of need, two thirds of them stated their need for more PD on teaching cross-curricular skills is moderate (44 teachers) or high (16).

3. Please, if you need professional development in any other area indicate it.

Teachers have different PD needs, and if any PD initiative is to reach the desired outcomes, the activities included should be diversified and relevant to those needs. Indeed, a significant indicator of the effectiveness of TPD programs is the extent to which they have successfully met teachers' PD needs. Hence, in an attempt to find out whether teachers have PD needs other than the previously suggested ones, we gave them an open-ended question requesting them to indicate any other area in which they needed PD. Surprisingly, out of the 90 participants, only few teachers identified further needs. While one teacher expressed his need for PD on “psychopedagogy”, another teacher revealed the need for PD on another area namely “teaching in a multicultural setting”. The third one reported “I seek help to cope with the new pedagogy” referring to the newly adopted pedagogy of progressions. Other three teachers answered the question stressing the need for PD on two mentioned areas; pedagogical competencies in teaching my subject field and student evaluation and assessment practice. Two teachers reported needing PD on specific pedagogical competencies in “teaching writing”; whereas one teacher stressed the need for PD on the assessment field writing “I really need professional development on the assessment field”.

Section Three. The Preparatory Pedagogical Training Program

1. In your probationary teaching period, did you take part in the preparatory pedagogical training program?

- a. Yes b. No

Table.5.6.

Teachers Participation in the Preparatory Pedagogical Training Program

	N	Percent	Valid percent
a. Yes	21	23.3	70,0
b. No	9	10	30,0
Total	30	33.3	100
Missing	60	66.7	
Total	90	100	

The PPTP is a major component of the teachers induction process in Algeria. This program, which was introduced few years ago, aims basically at developing novice teachers professional knowledge, practice and participation. The way this program is structured and organized - including the content, the duration, the procedures, and the evaluation methods- was established by the ministerial decision of August 24, 2015.

By way of exploring teachers' attitudes towards the PPTP, there was a need to find out those who had actually taken part in it, meaning to exclude those who participated in the program before 2015. That is, only the 30 teachers (representing two-thirds of the sample) who had been teaching for less than 5 years were requested to answer the questions about the PPTP. Among those teachers, 21 ones (70 %) said they had participated in the PPTP during their probationary teaching period. The remaining 9 participants (30%) who hadn't taken part

in the program were graduates of the TTS who, as opposed to graduates of the university, were not requested to undergo such induction program.

To obtain the needed information on the PPTP, teachers who responded “yes” were asked to answer a set of supplemental questions. The aim was to find out how the program was organized and, hence, to determine whether the organization regarding the duration, the content, the procedures, and the evaluation methods correlates with the stated organizational scheme.

2. How long did the preparatory pedagogical training program last?

Table. 5. 7.

The Duration of the Preparatory Pedagogical Training Program

			Days		Total	hours	Total hours	
			1	5		6	1	5
Weeks	4	N	2	5	7	7	24	120
		%	9.5%	23.8%	33.3%	33.3%		
	5	N	1	2	3	3	30	150
		%	4.8%	9.5%	14.3%	14.3%		
	6	N	4	0	4	4	36	00
		%	19.0%	0.0%	19.0%	19.0%		
	8	N	7	0	7	7	48	00
		%	33.3%	0.0%	33.3%	33.3%		
Total		Total	14	7	21	21		
		%	66.7%	33.3%	100.0%	100%		

The first question related to the duration of the program. This was an open ended question where teachers were requested to identify how many weeks, days per week, and hours per day the program lasted. According to the organizing decree, the program lasts 190 hours spread over a seven week period, and is carried out alternately during pedagogic days/half-days and school holidays. According to the results obtained, the actual duration

ranged from four to eight weeks. While one third of the participants opted for the minimum four week period, another one third opted for the maximum period of eight week period. Three participants said five weeks, and four ones said six weeks. Additionally, the number of days spent in the training program varied between one day a week referring to a one weekend day, and five days a week referring to school holidays. While the first number was stated by all the teachers who said the program lasted six or eight weeks, the latter was given by the majority of those who said it lasted four or five weeks. Yet, as reported by all teachers, the average number of hours they spent per day on the program was six hours. That is, the total number of hours the PPTP actually lasted ranged from as little as 24 hours to as long as 150 hours which, in all cases, far less than the required number.

3. Did the preparatory pedagogical training program you participated in cover the following topics:

Table.5.8.

The Content Covered During the Preparatory Pedagogical Training Program

Elements	Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%
a. education sciences and psychology	19	90.5	2	9.5
b. classroom management techniques	18	85.7	3	14.3
c. school mediation	13	61.9	8	38.1
d. subject didactics and teaching methods	20	95.2	1	4.8
e. evaluation and pedagogical treatment	21	100	00	00
f. Algerian educational system and educational curricula	14	66.7	7	33.3
g. professional ethics	14	66.7	7	33.3
h. training and pedagogy	17	81	4	19
i. educational legislation	19	90.5	2	9.5
j. information and communication technologies	18	85.7	3	14.3

The content of the PPTP for secondary school teachers is stated to incorporate nine essential aspects of teaching including- among others- educational psychology, classroom management, didactics, and pedagogy which conventionally capture the most important things about the domain. Aiming at examining the content of the PPTP they participated in, we gave teachers a list of the nine stated aspects and asked them to indicate which one was part of their PPTP.

As revealed in table.5.8.among the nine suggested aspects, six were largely covered in the program with percentages ranging from 81% to 100 %. These aspects are education sciences and psychology, classroom management techniques, subject didactics and teaching methods, evaluation and pedagogical treatment, training and pedagogy, and ICTs. Besides, the remaining three aspects - namely Algerian educational system and educational curricula, professional ethics, and school mediation, were also covered albeit to a lower level. One third of the participants said the first two aspects were not part of the program they took part in, while more than 38% of them reported not having received training on the aspect of school mediation in their PPT program.

4. Did the PPTP include:

- a. Theoretical lessons b. practical works c. both of them

Table.5.9.

Training Trends in the PPTP

		N	%	Valid Percent
Valid	Theoretical lessons	7	7.8	33.3
	Practical works	0	00	00
	Both of them	14	15.6	66.7
	Total	21	23.3	100.0
Missing	System	69	76.7	
Total		90	100.0	

If a teachers training program is to succeed in achieving the desired outcomes, it needs not only to equip trainee teachers with pure theories about teaching, but also to provide them with practical experiences that will help them translate those theories into practice. That is, the training program should achieve a balance between theoretical and practical training. As for the PPTP, it was originally intended to achieve such balance through encompassing both theoretical lessons and practical works. Therefore, in order to find out whether such balance actually existed, participants in the survey were asked whether the PPTP they participated in included theoretical lessons, practical works, or both of them.

The findings show that although two thirds of the participants affirmed the inclusion of both theoretical and practical aspects, the remaining one third participants stressed the lack of practical work during the training.

5. Do you agree with the following statements about the PPTP?

Table. 5.10.

Objectives of the PPTP

Statements	Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%
a. It provided me with the necessary pedagogical support.	17	81	4	19
b. It provided me with the basic mechanisms necessary to face the challenges of the teaching profession.	9	42.9	12	57.1
c. It developed my professional skills.	15	71.4	6	28.6
d. It developed my professional values which promote my behaviours as a teacher.	12	57.1	9	42.9
e. It enabled me to achieve effective student education.	8	38.1	13	61.9
f. It provided me with effective working tools which will enable me to teach away from the classical content-based and presentation-based methods.	11	52.4	10	47.6
g. It helped me fulfill my roles efficiently and inspired confidence in myself.	16	76.2	5	23.8

h. It helped improving and updating my specialized knowledge and provided me with modern teaching methods and techniques.	11	52.4	10	47.6
i. It enlightened me as to the state's plans and trends and the society's problems, and raised my awareness of my professional duty and moral commitment.	7	33.3	14	66.7
j. It assisted me in career advancement and progression, as well as job security.	12	57.1	9	42.9
k. It changed my negative attitudes towards the teaching profession.	10	47.6	11	52.4
l. It encouraged me to pursue self-study and to move toward lifelong learning.	14	66.7	7	33.3
m. It provided me with the opportunity to experience and apply educational theories in the classroom.	12	57.1	9	42.9
n. It developed my readiness to assume my new roles and responsibilities.	17	81	4	19
o. It helped me solve the educational problems I face.	11	52.4	10	47.6
p. It encouraged me to collaborate with and benefit from my colleagues.	17	81	4	19
q. It encouraged me to be creative and innovative in my work.	11	52.4	10	47.6

The statements listed above represent the aims the PPTP was originally designed to achieve. Some of these aims are far-reaching ones, that is why not all of them can adequately be attained. This is mainly due to the design and organization shortcomings that characterize the program compounded by the implementation problems.

To find out the aims the program succeeded in achieving from those which it didn't, we gave participants a list of the defined PPTP objectives in the form of personal statements and asked them to indicate whether they agree with them or not. The results obtained can be summarized as follows:

- Three defined objectives were largely attained by the PPTP (with a percentage of 81% for each). These relate to: providing trainees with the necessary pedagogical support, developing their readiness to assume their roles and responsibilities, and encouraging them to collaborate with and benefit from their colleagues.

- Additionally, two other objectives were also said to have been attained, albeit on a smaller scale. These have to do with helping teachers fulfill their roles efficiently and inspiring confidence in themselves (76.2%), and developing their professional skills (71.4 %).
- According to two thirds of the participants, the training program encouraged them to pursue self-study and to move toward lifelong learning, while for the remaining one third, it didn't.
- A considerable number of the defined objectives (eight ones) were only partially accomplished with percentages of positive answers ranging from 52.4% to 57.1%. These involve: providing teachers with effective working tools to enable them to teach away from the classical content-based and presentation-based methods, helping improving and updating their specialized knowledge and providing them with modern teaching methods and techniques, helping them solve the educational problems they face, encouraging them to be creative and innovative in their work, developing their professional values which promote their behaviours as teachers, assisting them in career advancement and job security, providing them with the opportunity to experience and apply educational theories in the classroom, and changing their negative attitudes towards the teaching profession.
- The remaining objectives namely: enlightening teachers as to the state's plans and trends and the society's problems, and raising their awareness of their professional duty and moral commitment; enabling them to achieve effective student education; and providing them with the basic mechanisms necessary to face the challenges of the teaching profession, proved difficult to attain. Though more important than others, these objectives were the minimally attained ones with percentages ranging from 33.3 % to 42.9%.

Therefore, reflecting on the PPTP objectives and the responses provided by teachers as to whether these objectives were attained or not, it may be concluded that some objectives were easier to attain, whereas others proved difficult. While none of the defined objectives was completely attained, the objectives which can be considered fairly well-attained (6 ones) were

remarkably fewer than those which can be regarded as partly or minimally attained (11 objectives).

6. How were you evaluated in this training?

Table. 5. 11.

Evaluation Methods used in the PPTP

Methods	N	%
a. On the basis of ongoing pedagogical evaluation (periodical assessments in both theoretical and practical aspects)	00	00%
b. A final exam was held including written tests related to the program's content	1	4.7%
c. Writing a training report about a topic which has been dealt with during the training	00	00%
a + c (ongoing pedagogical evaluation + Writing a training report)	2	9.5%
b + c (A final exam + Writing a training report)	9	42.9%
All of them	9	42.9%
Total	21	100.0%

According to the decree organizing the PPTP, three complementary methods are to be used to evaluate trainee teachers. That is, the evaluation approach adapted is a three-faceted one; including all the three different methods cited above albeit with different coefficients. To find out how they were eventually evaluated during their PPTP, teachers were given a list of the three cited evaluation methods and requested to indicate the one(s) used.

The results obtained were largely unexpected. There are two general trends as to how trainee teachers were actually evaluated. The first consists of all the required three evaluation methods namely ongoing pedagogical evaluation, a final exam, and a training report with a percentage of 42.9 % of participants answers. The second trend, with an equal percentage of (42.9%), however, includes only the last two methods (a final exam, and a training report). That is, albeit having a coefficient equals two, the ongoing pedagogical evaluation method

which is normally used to evaluate trainee teachers' knowledge, and consists of periodical assessments in both theoretical and practical aspects, was not used in almost half cases. Given that for a trainee teacher to succeed in their PPTP, they have to get an average equals or exceeds 10 out of 20 in all the three described evaluations, a host of related questions should be raised as to how those trainee teachers averages were calculated, and why the ongoing pedagogical evaluation method was not used.

7. According to you, how could the PPTP be improved?

As a final wrap-up question, we asked teachers who participated in the PPTP to provide suggestions for improving the program. Although only few teachers (five) shared their ideas, the suggestions they came up with were relevant ones. To start with, four of these teachers stressed the priority of the practical side of the training over the theoretical one. They wrote:

- We are in need for more practice. Theories are not clear at all without practical steps to enlighten the areas of darkness.
- Practice should prevail theory. Feedback above all is vital.
- To be more practical than theoretical.
- To make the program efficient and fruitful, more importance should be given to the practical rather than the theoretical side of this program.

The last teacher brought attention to another critical point which concerns the content of the PPTP. He claimed that some subject matters dealt with during the training were irrelevant to real teaching situations. S/he asserted; "the PPTP should include only the subject matters the teacher needs in real teaching situations".

Section Four. The mentoring program

1. Have you participated in the formal mentoring program established by the Ministry of National Education?

- a. Yes, I have been a mentee. I have had an assigned mentor to support me.
- b. Yes, I have served as an assigned mentor for one or more teachers
- c. No

Table. 5.12.

Teachers Participation in the Mentoring Program

	N	%
a. Yes, I have been a mentee. I have had an assigned mentor to support me	33	36.7%
b. Yes, I have served as an assigned mentor for one or more teachers	17	18.9%
c. No	40	44.4
Total	90	100%

With the increasing focus on teachers CPD, the process of mentoring - defined as the process “whereby an experienced teacher works with a novice teacher, giving guidance and feedback” (Richards and Farrell, 2005, p. 151-2), has been given considerable attention recently. Indeed, it has been used across many educational contexts as a major form of inducting novice teachers to the teaching profession. In the Algerian context, however, it is only few years since a formal mentoring program has been established.

In order to explore teachers' attitudes towards this program, it was necessary to find out those who took part in it either as a mentor or as a mentee from those who didn't. Hence, the first question asked was about their participation in the program. The results show that a good number of teachers (50 ones) did take part in the program; 33 as mentee teachers, and 17 as assigned mentors.

2. According to you which function(s) should a mentor teacher perform:

- a. Teaching (modeling, informing, confirming/disconfirming, prescribing and questioning)
- b. Sponsoring (protecting and supporting novice teachers when attempting new practices)

- c. Encouraging (affirming, inspiring and challenging novice teachers)
- d. Counseling (through listening, probing, clarifying, and advising)
- e. Befriending (behaving as a critical friend; accepting and relating)
- f. Evaluating
- g. Others: please specify

Table.5.13.

Teachers' Perceptions of the Mentor Teacher Functions

Functions	Mentee Teachers			Mentor Teachers			Total		
	N	%	Percent of Cases	N	%	Percent of Cases	N	%	Percent of Cases
Teaching	24	18.6%	72.7%	11	18.0%	64.7%	35	18.4%	70%
Sponsoring	20	15.5%	60.6%	9	14.8%	52.9%	29	15.3%	58%
Encouraging	27	20.9%	81.8%	13	21.3%	76.5%	40	21.1%	80%
Counseling	25	19.4%	75.8%	11	18.0%	64.7%	36	18.9%	72%
Befriending	16	12.4%	48.5%	7	11.5%	41.2%	23	12.1%	46%
Evaluating	17	13.2%	51.5%	10	16.4%	58.8%	27	14.2%	54%
Total	129	100.0%	390.9%	61	100.0%	358.8%	190	100%	380%

In the second question about the mentoring program, we gave teachers a list of functions and asked them to determine the one(s) they think a mentor should perform. Aiming at finding out whether mentors and mentees perceptions are similar or different, the results were split in two and processed accordingly.

The findings demonstrate that mentors and mentees perceptions of the mentor teacher functions are largely similar. The most frequently selected function (chosen by 81,8% of mentees and 76.5% of mentors) was encouraging. That is, most teachers acknowledged the importance of the mentors' psychological function in affirming, inspiring and challenging

novice teachers. Contrarily, though needed, befriending, meaning behaving as a critical friend; accepting and relating, was given the least importance among the suggested functions (with 48.5% of mentees and 41.2 % of mentors selecting it). On the other hand, the remaining functions, albeit less often selected, were also considered essential functions. While counseling and teaching were repeatedly chosen by mentees and mentors and arranged in the same order (75.8% vs. 64.7% and 72.7% vs. 64.7% respectively), the last two functions- sponsoring and evaluating- which were less frequently selected, were conversely arranged. While 60.6 % of mentee teachers chose sponsoring, 51.5% of them chose evaluating. In contrast, 58.8 % of mentor teachers selected evaluating whereas only 52.9% selected sponsoring.

3. According to you, what qualities should a good mentor teacher exhibit:

- a. Having great credibility among his colleagues
- b. Is highly competent in their subject area
- c. Is willing to spend time and energy to work with the mentee
- d. Is skilled in the areas of working with adult learners, problem solving, and giving constructive criticism.

Others:

Table.5.14.

Teachers' Perceptions of the Qualities of a Good Mentor Teacher

Qualities	Mentee Teachers			Mentor Teachers			Total		
	N	%	Percent of cases	N	%	Percent of cases	N	%	Percent of cases
a. Having great credibility among his colleagues	16	18.6%	48.5%	8	17.8%	47.1%	24	17.1%	48%
b. Is highly competent in their subject area	25	26.3%	75.8%	13	28.9%	76.5%	38	27.1%	76%
c. Is willing to spend time and energy to work with the mentee	28	29.5%	84.8%	10	22.2%	58.8%	38	27.1%	76%
d. Is skilled in the areas of working with adult learners, problem solving, and giving constructive criticism	26	27.4%	78.8%	14	31.1%	82.4%	40	28.6%	80%
Total	95	100 %	287.9%	45	100%	264.7%	140	100%	280%

To explore teachers' perceptions of the qualities of a good mentor teacher, and to find out which ones(s) they consider more important, we gave teachers a list of these qualities and asked them to indicate the ones they think a mentor should exhibit, then we comparatively analyzed the results of both groups; mentor and mentee teachers.

The analysis yielded partially inconsistent results between the two groups. Though they acknowledged the need for all those qualities, some were considered more important than others. To start with, albeit having been chosen by a good number of teachers, 'having great

credibility among colleagues' was the least important attribute for both mentors and mentees (with 47.1% and 48.5% respectively). The remaining qualities, however, were dissimilarly arranged. For mentor teachers, the most frequently selected quality was 'being skilled in the areas of working with adult learners, problem solving, and giving constructive criticism'(82.4%) followed by 'being highly competent in their subject area'(76.5%) and 'willingness to spend time and energy to work with the mentee' (58.8%). Contrarily, for mentee teachers, a mentor teacher should first be willing to spend time and energy (84.8%), before being skilled in working with adults (78.8%), or competent in his subject area (75.8%).

Other mentor's qualities

According to four teachers, mentors should exhibit other qualities in addition to the ones suggested in the question above. One teacher stressed the role of emotional and interpersonal characteristics needed for the mentor to be a good one claiming "a good mentor should motivate others by setting a good example, provide guidance and constructive feedback, and exhibit enthusiasm in the field". For two other teachers, it is essential that the mentor shows the qualities of a learning facilitator who can guide mentees and create a positive climate that supports their learning. One of those teachers asserted "a good mentor should be broad-minded and helpful", whereas the other wrote "the mentor teacher should be a source of guidance and support". To understand the needs of mentees and to be able to offer the required guidance, however, a mentor teacher should have adequate teaching experience. This "experience" quality was emphasized by the fourth and the last teacher.

4. How would you describe your (mentor/mentee) relationship?

The nature of the mentor/mentee relationship is a determining factor in the success of the mentoring process. Indeed, if such relationship is to be productive, it should be one of trust and mutual respect, as it should also be supportive yet challenging. Hence, aiming at

examining the existing mentoring relationships, we asked participants in an open-ended question to describe the nature of their mentor/mentee relationship. Reported responses show that the overwhelming majority of teachers highly appreciated and were satisfied with the kind of mentoring relationship they had experienced. Describing their relationship with their mentors, some mentee teachers wrote:

- It was a good relationship, very helpful and respectful. I will always be grateful.
- It was great in the sense that we used to discuss everything about the curriculum, program, and lessons. My mentor was always willing to listen and help.
- It was a great relationship. My mentor was very understanding and patient. He gave me advice and knowledge that helped me be a better teacher.
- It was a very good relationship. My mentor gave me a lot of ideas that have helped me in my teaching career.
- My mentor was a very helpful and professional person. He was a guide for me.
- My mentor was encouraging and provided me with valuable feedback.
- My mentor was very welcoming and generous to help and share thoughts.
- My mentor spent time and energy to work with me. He gave me constructive criticism.
- My mentor guided me, helped me and gave me invaluable advice.
- My mentor was a critical friend to me.
- It was a good relationship because I've learnt a lot.
- My mentor was serious in his work, willing to help and competent.
- My mentor was a good guide; he advised honestly.

A similar positive attitude towards the mentoring relationship was reflected through mentors' descriptions of their relations with their mentees. Though not stressing a close or intensive relationship with mentees, mentors affirmed that the relationship they had developed

and maintained with their mentees was a positive one. They described this relationship as follows:

- My relationship with my mentee was good, interactive and benefiting.
- It was based on mutual respect and information exchange.
- It was a good relationship, kind of serious.
- My mentee showed genuine interest and a willingness to do what it takes to become successful as an intern into the field.
- It was good and friendly.
- It was a good relation.
- It was an informal relationship.

On the contrary, two mentee teachers revealed that they did not greatly value their relationship with their mentors. Though one mentee affirmed that he had a good relation with his mentor, he complained about his unwillingness to perform his tasks as a mentor saying: “The relationship was quite good with my mentor but there was no willingness to spend energy and time with me”. The second teacher, however, experienced a more negative relation with his mentor. He wrote: “It was so cold. My mentor was irresponsible”.

5. Were you willing to be a mentor when you were assigned?

a. Yes b. No

Table. 5. 15.

Teachers Willingness to be Mentors

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	8	8.9	47.1
	No	9	10.0	52.9
	Total	17	18.9	100.0
Missing	System	73	81.1	
Total		90	100.0	

Willingness to be a mentor implies willingness to get involved in a mentoring relationship, to serve as a role model, and to give the needed time and energy, among others. Indeed, the mentoring process would not be effective if mentors were not willing to perform such a role. Thereupon, we asked mentor teachers in the sample to indicate whether they were willing to function as a mentor or not. Again, the results were unexpected. Among the 17 mentor teachers, only eight (47.1%) provided positive answers. The remaining nine teachers –representing 52.9 % of the sample- were not willing to be mentors.

6. If no, is it because:

- a. You haven't been trained to be a mentor.
- b. You don't receive any rewards or incentives as a mentor teacher
- c. Heavy teaching loads
- d. Limited resources and support
- e. Others

Table. 5.16.

Reasons for Teachers Unwillingness to be Mentors

Reasons	N	Percent	Percent of Cases
a. You haven't been trained to be a mentor	5	33.3%	55.6%
b. You don't receive any rewards or incentives as a mentor teacher	1	6.7%	11.1%
c. Heavy teaching loads	8	53.3%	88.9%
d. Limited resources and support	1	6.7%	11.1%
Total	15	100.0%	166.7%

To further uncover the reasons behind their unwillingness to function as a mentor, we gave teachers a list of four potential reasons and asked them to choose the one(s), or to add others, leading to such unwilling attitude. Out of a total of nine teachers, eight ones (representing 88.9%) identified having heavy teaching loads as a major factor which

discourages them from serving as a mentor. Indeed, the fact that secondary school teachers work 18 hours per week, and that part of their leave is devoted to work-related activities such as lesson plans, correction of homework assignments and examinations, and others, render mentoring activities an additional burden on them. An equally important factor causing teachers unwillingness to be mentors was the fact that they had not been trained to be mentors (selected by 55.6 % of the sample). In fact, though having the necessary knowledge and skills, mentors have additional PD needs which should be considered if they are to perform their roles effectively. To meet those needs, teachers should be provided with training opportunities that can equip them with the knowledge and skills necessary to successfully assume their role as mentors. The remaining two suggested reasons, namely: 'not receiving any rewards or incentives as a mentor teacher' and 'having limited resources and support' were not determining factors in shaping teachers' attitudes towards being mentors. In addition to the four suggested reasons, one mentor added "ingratitude" as a main reason leading to his unwillingness to function as a mentor.

7. Have you accomplished all the 15 mentoring sessions required by the Ministry of National Education?

a. Yes b. No

Table.5.17.

Teachers Accomplishment of the Mentoring Sessions

		N	%	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	36	40.0	72.0
	No	14	15.6	28.0
	Total	50	55.6	100.0
Missing	System	40	44.4	
Total		90	100.0	

The formal pedagogical mentoring program in the Algerian educational setting calls for, among other requirements, the accomplishment of 15 mentoring sessions. These sessions are to be scheduled collaboratively between the mentor teacher and the mentee, and to take place early in the first trimester of the academic year. To find out whether it proceeded the way it had been planned, teachers were first asked whether they have completed the required 15 mentoring sessions or not. The results obtained reveal that though a great proportion of teachers (72%) did accomplish the required sessions, still a considerable number of them (14 ones representing 28% of the sample) did not. To shed light on the reasons why they did not, those teachers who answered 'no' were further asked to justify their answers.

8. If no, why not,

Participants were very reluctant to reveal the reasons why they had not accomplished all the required mentoring sessions. Indeed, out of the 14 participants who said 'no', only three shared their justifications; two mentee teachers and one mentor. Mentee teachers who disclosed provided two different reasons. The first mentee displayed a negative attitude towards the benefits of the mentoring sessions stating "Because I thought I will learn nothing". The second mentee, however, brought attention to an important factor affecting the success of the mentoring process, namely the context where the mentoring process takes place. As set by the designers of the mentoring program, the mentoring process takes place in the school where the mentor teacher works. In fact, mentors could be working in the same schools as their mentees; yet, they could also be working in different geographic locations, and sometimes mentees find themselves obliged to travel long distances to meet their mentors. Such separation by large distances represents a significant factor which hinders the implementation of the mentoring program and, hence, negatively impacts mentoring goals achievement. This long-distance barrier was highlighted by the second mentee teacher who wrote "I haven't accomplished the mentoring sessions because it took a long time and the

mentor was far away from my home and work". As for the mentor teacher, the reason s/he provided relates to the mentee teacher's absenteeism. S/he stated: "The trainee teacher was always absent".

9. Which of the following activities have you participated in as part of the mentoring program?

Table.5.18.

Content of the Accomplished Mentoring Sessions

	N	%	Percent of Cases
a. Recognizing and using educational documents	42	12.7%	84.0%
b. Preparing lesson plans according to the CBA	41	12.4%	82.0%
c. Observing the mentor teacher presenting lessons and reflecting on all its aspects	32	9.7%	64.0%
d. Examining and Comparing the lesson plans of the mentor and the mentee	28	8.5%	56.0%
e. Preparing and presenting lessons while being observed by the mentor teacher	38	11.5%	76.0%
f. Holding a discussion on the issue of assessment and evaluation	36	10.9%	72.0%
g. Preparing a test and discussing its content with the mentor teacher	31	9.4%	62.0%
h. Examining some students copies together with the mentor teacher	26	7.9%	52.0%
i. Attending a pedagogical treatment session with the mentor teacher then reflecting on its pedagogical and educational aspects	19	5.7%	38.0%
j. Presenting a pedagogical treatment session while being observed by the mentor teacher...	24	7.3%	48.0%
k. Preparing and presenting a research work on the importance of using ICTs in teaching English	14	4.2%	28.0%
Total	331	100.0%	662.0%

To figure out which activities did form part of the mentoring sessions, teachers were asked to select among a list of the established activities the one(s) they participated in as part of the mentoring program. The findings can be summarized as follows:

- The activities which the majority of respondents reported to have participated in include 'Recognizing and using educational documents' (84%), followed by 'Preparing lesson plans according to the CBA' (82%), 'preparing and presenting lessons while being observed by the mentor teacher' (76%), and 'holding a discussion on the issue of assessment and evaluation (72%).'.
- While almost one-half to two thirds of the participants reported having participated in a set of mentoring activities, the remaining revealed that these activities were not, in actual fact, part of their mentoring sessions. These activities include: observing the mentor teacher presenting lessons and reflecting on all its aspects (64%), preparing a test and discussing its content with the mentor teacher (62%), examining and comparing the lesson plans of the mentor and the mentee (56%), examining some students copies together with the mentor teacher (52%).
- The least frequently selected activities were: presenting a pedagogical treatment session while being observed by the mentor teacher (48%) and preparing and presenting a research work on the importance of using ICTs in teaching English (28%).

9. To what extent was the mentoring program effective in developing the novice teacher competencies in:

Table. 5.19.

Teachers' Attitudes towards the Effectiveness of the Mentoring Program in Developing the Mentee Teacher Competences

Elements			Very ineffective	somewhat ineffective	effective	Very effective	Total
a. Organizing and planning the learning situations	Mentees	N	1	10	14	8	33
		%	3.0	30.3	42.4	24.2	100
	Mentors	N	2	4	7	4	17
		%	11.8	23.5	41.2	23.5	100
b. Classroom management	Mentees	N	3	13	15	2	33
		%	9.1	39.4	45.5	6.1	100
	Mentors	N	1	6	6	4	17
		%	5.9	35.3	35.3	23.5	100
c. Assessing students work	Mentees	N	7	12	11	3	33
		%	21.2	36.4	33.3	9.1	100
	Mentors	N	0	7	6	4	17
		%	0.0	41.2	35.3	23.5	100
d. Managing continuing professional development	Mentees	N	2	17	11	3	33
		%	6.1	51.5	33.3	9.1	100
	Mentors	N	0	6	7	4	17
		%	0.0	35.3	41.2	23.5	100

Aiming at assessing whether the program has met its aims and has had the desired effect on the participants, teachers were asked to rate the extent (1= very ineffective, 4= very effective) to which they consider the program was effective in developing their own (as mentees)/ their mentees (as mentors) competencies in the defined areas. The results were as follows:

- As far as the first area is concerned, mentees' attitudes were somehow similar to those of their mentors. That is to say, to the largest number of teachers in both groups (14 mentees and 7 mentors), the mentoring program was effective in fostering mentees competencies in organizing

and planning the learning situations. Furthermore, for eight mentees and four mentors it was very effective. In contrast, evaluations of a considerable proportion of teachers were negative. A one third of mentees and a slightly higher percentage of mentors (35.3%) stated that the program was rather or very ineffective in developing such competency.

- Regarding the area of classroom management, the mentees were almost equally divided between negative and positive evaluations. Out of the 33 respondents, 17 said the program was either effective (15 respondents) or very effective (two respondents), and 16 said it was somewhat ineffective (13 ones) or farther very ineffective (three mentees). On the other hand, while an equal percentage of mentors (35.3%) evaluated it as either effective or somewhat ineffective, four of them said it was very effective and one described it as very ineffective.
- According to mentees, the effectiveness of the program in equipping them with the knowledge and skills necessary to successfully assess and evaluate students work is unproven. The greatest proportion of them (19 teachers) considered the program to be somehow ineffective (12 mentees), or else very ineffective (seven mentees). Contrarily, while a good number of mentors (10 out of 17) believed the program developed their mentees competency in assessing student work, still seven of them (representing 41.2%) believed it did not.
- As for the last field, namely managing CPD, the response patterns were varied. Out of 33 mentees, 19 reported the program to have been ineffective (17 ones) or very ineffective (two mentees) in helping them manage their personal CPD, whereas the others claimed the opposite. Yet, while almost two-thirds of mentors believed the program was effective, the remaining six ones described it as ineffective.

11. How would you evaluate the effectiveness of the mentoring program?

- a. very ineffective b. moderately effective c. effective d. very effective

Table. 5. 20.

Teachers Evaluation of the Overall Effectiveness of the Mentoring Program

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Very ineffective	1	1.1	2.0
	Moderately effective	27	30.0	54.0
	Effective	19	21.1	38.0
	Very effective	3	3.3	6.0
	Total	50	55.6	100.0
Missing	System	40	44.4	
Total		90	100.0	

Aiming at assessing the overall effectiveness of the formal mentoring program as perceived by teachers, we asked mentors and mentees to rate (on a four-point scale from very effective to very ineffective) how effective the program was. The results obtained were rather inconsistent. Though the question yielded varied responses among participants, the majority of them were divided between the two evaluations of 'moderately effective' and 'effective'. For more than one-half of the participants (54%) the program was only moderately effective, whereas 38% of them believed it was effective. Furthermore, only three teachers said it was very effective and one said it was very ineffective.

12. What do you recommend to improve the mentoring program?

The last question in the section about the mentoring program was an open question requesting mentor and mentee teachers to suggest possible ways in which the mentoring program could be improved. Interestingly, a variety of ways were recommended, the most important of which relate to the program period and mentors training. To begin with, a good number of teachers (eight) insisted on the need to extend the mentoring program period, claiming that it is a paramount requirement that sufficient time is allocated for the mentoring activities. Raising this issue, teachers wrote:

- The training period should be longer. Trainees had better attend sessions with the mentor when presenting the whole unit.
- Enough time should be allocated because 15 sessions are not sufficient.
- More time should be given to this training.
- Set more time
- I think 15 mentoring sessions are not enough.
- Enough time should be provided to both the mentor and the mentee.
- Devoting extra time.

Two other teachers emphasized the importance of training for mentors. Indeed, it has been widely argued that mentors also need further training; they need to acquire the abilities and to develop the skills necessary to effectively perform their mentoring roles. Arguing upon this point, one teacher said: “mentor teachers should be trained”, whereas the second added: “I suggest holding training workshops for mentors to help them understand how to play the role of a mentor”.

According to some teachers, the success of the mentoring program is highly dependent on the qualities of the mentor himself, and the way s/he understands and performs his/her mentoring role. Accordingly, whilst one teacher called for a careful selection of mentors saying: “mentors should be selected on the basis of experience and competence”, three others stressed the role of mentors in facilitating mentees learning stating:

- “Mentors should present lessons and reflection on all its aspects to help mentees”.
- “Mentors should give more support and guidance to novice teachers especially about some activities and situations”.
- “Mentors should expose mentees to different teaching situations so as to prepare them to future “real” experiences”.

Recognizing the importance of the mentor's role, two teachers suggested involving mentees with several mentors referring to the multiple mentoring model. The first teacher said: "The mentee needs to work with more than one mentor", whereas the second affirmed: "the mentoring process will be more effective if we assign more than one mentor to each trainee". Indeed, obtaining mentoring from several mentors provides great opportunities for mentees to gain knowledge and expertise from a number of mentors, each with a different set of skills and abilities.

Another important point raised by a teacher was the role of the mentoring process in increasing teacher retention. In fact, the importance of a quality mentoring program that motivates novice teachers to stay on the job can not be overlooked. The teacher highlighted the need to facilitate the process for mentees. S/he suggested: "We should make it easy for new teachers to encourage them to continue in the profession". On the other hand, mentors do equivalently need some support and motivation. Referring to this point, a mentor teacher wrote: "Nothing can be well done for free", acknowledging that s/he expects something in return for functioning as a mentor.

A last but not least significant point raised by teachers relates to a highly needed process, that of evaluation. As a matter of fact, any PD program being it for mentees or for mentors, needs to be evaluated in order to find out whether the program's goals have been achieved and to bring about the necessary improvements. On this point, a teacher argued: "there must be a survey evaluation of the mentoring program effectiveness".

Section Five. Inspection Visits

1. How many times a year do you receive visits from the inspector?times

Table. 5. 21.

Frequency of Receiving Inspection Visits

		How many times a year do you receive classroom visits from the inspector?							Total
Teaching experience		0/1 time a year	once a year	twice a year	3 times a year	Once every 2 years	once every 3 years	once every 4 years	
1-5 years	N	6	10	10	1	1	2	0	30
	%	20%	33.3%	33.3%	3.3%	3.3%	6.6%	0.0%	100%
6-10 years	N	10	17	4	0	1	2	3	35
	%	28.6%	48.6%	11.4%	0.0%	2.9%	5.7%	8.6%	100%
More than 10 years	N	1	13	2	0	1	4	1	25
	%	4.0%	52.0%	8.0%	0.0%	4.0%	16.0%	4.0%	100%
Total	N	18	40	16	1	3	8	4	90
	%	20%	44.4%	17.8%	1.1%	3.3%	8.9%	4.4%	100%

The first question in the inspection visits section of our questionnaire aimed at finding out how many times a year participants receive visits from the inspector.

The results show that the number of visits teachers receive from the inspector ranges from once every four years to three times a year. Comparatively analyzed, the numbers provided were found to relatively differ according to teachers' experience. On the whole, 'once a year' is the most frequently occurring pattern (cited by 44.4 % of the participants), whereas '3 times a year' is the least usual one (1.1 %). Teachers with less than five years of experience tend to receive inspection visits more frequently than others. While one third of them reported to be visited once a year, another one third said twice a year, and six of them said once a year and sometimes none. On the other hand, almost a one half of teachers with relatively more experience (six to ten years) affirmed receiving one (48.6%) visit per year, whereas ten of them (representing 28.6%) said they either do once or no time a year. Only

four said twice a year. As for experienced teachers, more than half of them (52%) receive inspection visits once a year, and almost one fourth (24%) are visited only once every two years (4%), every three years (16%) or else every four years (4%).

2. Do you wish to have more frequent and regular visits?

- a. Yes b. No

Table. 5.22.

Teachers Willingness to have more Frequent and Regular Inspection Visits

Answers	N	%
a. yes	66	73.3
b. no	24	26.7
Total	90	100.0

Aiming at investigating teachers' attitudes towards the inspection visits we asked them first about their willingness to have more frequent and regular visits by the inspector. The findings show that teachers' feelings about these visits are generally positive. Only slightly more than a one fourth of the sample (26.7%) said they do not want to be frequently visited, whereas the greatest proportion of participants (73.3%) was reported to feel willing to have more visits. To further cast light on the factors influencing their attitudes, we asked teachers to explain the reasons why they wish or they do not wish to have more frequent and regular visits.

3. Please explain why:

As teachers responses demonstrated, the reasons for their positive attitudes towards having frequent inspection visits were quite varied. To start with, teachers who revealed their willingness to receive more visits attributed their attitude to the benefits they gain from such visits. Among these benefits, frequently cited ones are the following:

The support and guidance teachers receive from the inspector: Emphasizing such tangible benefit, teachers wrote:

- Because I want my inspector to monitor and guide my teaching, giving precious advice and help.
- Because I need the inspector to guide me and check my way of teaching and advise me.
- I need guidance and a competent person who will evaluate my work on specific criteria.
- Because we all the time need guidance how to deal with new situations especially with third year students.
- Just to guide us showing us how things should be conducted the right way.
- The visits of the inspector help us in many ways: providing advice, guidance, and discussing complex issues.
- To guide and help me achieve the needed objectives.
- To provide more guidance and to give me advices and recommendations.
- For more guidance of the inspector (6).
- To be helped with the pedagogical method.
- To be put on the right path.

Improving teaching practices: Teachers do recognize the need for continuous improvement of their own teaching practices. However, they recognize as well the important role the inspector plays in helping them achieve the desired improvement. This formed a main reason for a number of them to wish to receive more inspection visits. They stated:

- Because these visits help me to discover my weaknesses and hence I can improve my teaching.
- To help me learn a lot of things so as to improve my teaching quality.

- To benefit from the inspector's expertise. To be coached, to know my weaknesses and strengths for betterment.
- They help me a lot to improve my teaching.
- It is better to be checked by the inspector from time to time so that we keep always innovating our teaching practices and do not stick to our old lesson plans.
- Teachers receive feedback from their inspectors. It is an opportunity for them to reflect on their teaching and be ready to make a better change.
- Inspectors are teachers too. Their visits encourage teachers to prepare more and develop their competences.
- To acquire efficient methods to deal with the teaching/learning process.
- To make the process of teaching more effective. Bring new techniques, theories and experiences.
- To get more benefits and be more beneficial to the students.
- To improve our way of teaching.
- To help us to improve the quality of our teaching.
- Yes, because they are so useful for the PD of teachers.

Receiving constructive feedback: Valuable improvements in teaching practices can be brought about only when teachers become aware of their strengths and weaknesses. Indeed, it is through the feedback teachers receive from the inspector that they develop such awareness. Thereupon, a number of teachers who were willing to receive more inspection visits explained that they are eager to receive feedback from the inspector. They wrote:

- I need to know whether I am doing well with teaching. I need to progress. I need critics (positive).

- I would like to have more visits to have much more feedback (to correct what needs to be corrected).
- To get more feedback. To receive more teaching recommendations. To get more support.
- I need to be observed and judged.
- To reflect on my teaching and to have constructive feedback.

Learning from the Inspector: Teaching is argued to be a life-long learning experience.

Teachers need to continuously learn and update their knowledge and skills. Doing so, they can rely on a variety of resources. A major one, among which, is the inspector. Accordingly, two teachers demonstrated that they learn from the inspector, and that's why they want to have more frequent visits. One argued: "Teaching is learning, you always have something to get from the inspector", whereas the second admitted: "I learn more from him". In like manner, two teachers stressed the role of the inspector in providing them with opportunities to update their teaching practices and to stay informed about the latest developments. Whilst a teacher explained: "To get acquainted with the updates that frequently occur in our profession. Guidance is useful to avoid misunderstanding", another one affirmed: "Visits allow us to update our knowledge; to know what is new in the foreign language teaching/learning domain".

Teachers who were not so keen to receive more frequent inspection visits gave also a variety of reasons. However, a great proportion of them ascribed such unfavorable attitude to psychological reasons. Indeed, it is not uncommon that teachers experience negative feelings and emotions when being observed, particularly if the one observing is a supervisor. Mostly, inspection visits are conceived of as stressful events which trigger feelings of anxiety and discomfort. Teachers who experience such feelings admitted that they do not wish to be frequently visited stating:

- No, although the inspector's visits are beneficial to novice teachers, they can be quite stressful.
- No, though visits are of big and significant benefits, they are somehow stressful.
- No, feeling uncomfortable.
- No, as a teacher I am always afraid of presenting the lesson in front of him even though I know that I am a good one but he stays my fear.
- No, just to feel at ease with my students
- No, because it affects my health because of stress.

On the other hand, though some teachers do not experience such negative feelings when visited by the inspector, still they did not wish to have more frequent inspection visits. They, however, attributed their attitude to the uselessness of such visits. Indeed, they argued that inspection visits are beneficial only to novice teachers, and that they feel that they are needless because they do not add to their knowledge. They wrote:

- No, these visits could be useful only for novice teachers.
- No, visits are important for new teachers as to improve their skills.
- The visits add nothing to my knowledge or the way to teach besides sometimes the learners feel nervous and don't work as they used to do.
- No, no benefit, they don't meet my needs.
- No, students refuse to work when the inspector is present.
- No need for visits
- No because we have seminars also.
- One is more than enough.

A last reason provided by two teachers relates to the discrepancy between teachers behavior when being observed by the inspector, and their usual one. They disclosed that they

adopt different behaviors when being observed, hence, giving the inspector an unreal impression of their teaching performance. The first teacher said that s/he does not want to receive more visits “to develop a sense of responsibility”, whereas the second added “not to act in a fake way”.

4. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements:

Table. 5.23.

Teachers' Attitudes towards the Inspection Visits

Elements		Strongly agree	agree	Neutral	disagree	Strongly disagree
a.	A classroom visit by the inspector is an opportunity for me to reflect on my own teaching.	N 32 % 36.4	37 42.0	13 14.8	5 5.7	1 1.1
b.	It is a positive experience which helps me improve the quality of my teaching	N 29 % 33.0	49 55.7	6 6.8	3 3.4	1 1.1
c.	I feel nervous, uneasy, on edge, and uncomfortable about classroom visits	N 5 % 5.7	16 18.2	34 38.6	27 30.7	6 6.8
d.	The inspector is usually courteous and respectful during the visits	N 22 % 25.0	35 39.8	22 25.0	6 6.8	3 3.4
e.	I usually receive appraisal and constructive feedback from the inspector	N 18 % 20.5	42 47.7	23 26.1	3 3.4	2 2.3
f.	The visit is always followed by a post-visit conference	N 21 % 23.9	35 39.8	17 19.3	12 13.6	3 3.4

To further elucidate the variety of attitudes they take towards the inspection visits, teachers in the sample were given a set of statements about the visits, and asked to indicate their level of agreement with each of the statements on a scale from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). The results obtained were as follows:

- The first two statements provided relate to the role inspection visits play in TPD. The first one states that a classroom visit by the inspector is an opportunity for the teacher to reflect on their own teaching, whereas the second claims that an inspection visit is a positive experience which helps the teacher improve the quality of their teaching. The participants' rating of these two statements followed the same pattern of distribution. That is, both statements were agreed upon by the majority of participants, with 32% strongly and 37% agreeing with the first statement, and 29% strongly and 49% agreeing with the second. Only few teachers disagreed with the two statements (six and four respectively). The remaining teachers, however, neither agree nor disagree. These results suggest that teachers recognize the important role inspection visits play in helping them grow and develop professionally through the opportunities such visits provide them with to reflect on their practices and, hence, to improve the quality of their teaching.
- The third item reflects the feelings generated by classroom visits. It says that the teacher feels nervous, uneasy, on edge, and uncomfortable about classroom visits. The results obtained show a significant difference in teachers' feelings about the visits. Although slightly more than a one third of the participants expressed their disagreement (30.7% disagree, and 6.8% strongly disagree) with the statement, a considerable proportion of them (23.8%) agreed, revealing that an inspection visit is a stressful event that arouses feelings of tension and anxiety.
- To uncover the nature of the teachers' relation with the inspector and whether the latter helps improve their performance through providing positive feedback, we gave participants in the sample these two statements. The first one states that the inspector is usually courteous and respectful during the visits, and the second says the teacher usually receives appraisal and constructive feedback from the inspector. As for the first statement, almost two thirds of the sample either strongly agreed or agreed (25% and 39.8%), and only nine ones disagreed. The

same pattern was observed concerning the second statement. While a proportion of 68.2% of the participants expressed their agreement with the statement, only five ones reported the opposite. A good number of the participants were neutral about both statements (22 about the first, and 23 about the second).

- The last statement is about an important phase of the classroom visitation process which is the post visit conference, or the feedback conference. As a matter of fact, a classroom visit would be of little value without such conference. Hence, the last statement was provided in order to know whether this phase is carried out or not. It says that the visit is always followed by a post-visit conference. 56 participants declared that they strongly agree or agree with the statement; yet 15 ones strongly disagreed or disagreed with it, and 17 were neutral. That is to say, the post visit conference is usually, but not always, held by the inspector.

Section Six. Training Seminars and Workshops

Content of the Training Seminars and Workshops

1. Do you agree or disagree with the following statements: (*Please mark one choice in each row*)

Table. 5.24.

Teachers' Attitudes towards the Content of the Training Seminars and Workshops

Elements		Strongly agree	agree	Neutral	disagree	Strongly disagree
a. The content of seminars/ workshops has a clear focus on teaching skills which are linked to my daily teaching practice	N	27	48	7	8	0
	%	30.0	53.3	7.8	8.9	00
b. The content is interesting and makes sense to me	N	23	45	18	2	2
	%	25.6	50.0	20.0	2.2	2.2
c. The content has a clear focus on the content knowledge of the subject I teach	N	15	55	13	6	1
	%	16.7	61.1	14.4	6.7	1.1

d.The content has a clear focus on the pedagogy of the subject I teach	N	16	50	17	6	1
	%	17.8	55.6	18.9	6.7	1.1
e.The content includes classroom practice (practicum, internship or student teaching) in the subject I teach	N	5	16	18	45	6
	%	5.6	17.8	20.0	50.0	6.7
f.The material used is well organized and easy to follow and understand	N	24	45	15	4	2
	%	26.7	50.0	16.7	4.4	2.2
g.The content takes into account my prior knowledge, experience, and professional level	N	21	34	24	11	00
	%	23.2	37.8	26.7	12.2	00
h.The content includes new ideas and innovative approaches to language teaching	N	19	40	24	7	00
	%	21.1	44.4	26.7	7.8	00
e.The content presented builds on and relates to the content of previous professional development days (they form part of a coherent program)	N	14	35	25	14	2
	%	15.6	38.9	27.8	15.6	2.2

To investigate teachers' attitudes towards the content of the training seminars and workshops they had participated in, we provided them with a set of nine related statements with which they were requested to indicate on a five point scale their degree of agreement or disagreement. The findings show that except for one statement, participants' attitudes were for the greatest part positive. These are summarized as follows:

- The content delivered in seminars/workshops provides teachers with learning opportunities embedded in their day-to-day teaching practice. This was made clear through teachers' positive ratings (30% strongly agreed, and 53.3% agreed) of the statement 'The content of seminars/ workshops has a clear focus on teaching skills which are linked to my daily teaching practice'.

- Overall, the topics dealt with in the seminars/workshops seem to resonate with teachers; as the majority of them strongly agreed (25.6%) or agreed (50%) with the statement 'The content is interesting and makes sense to me', whereas only four teacher disagreed.
- As reported by teachers, the training seminars/workshops they had attended include both content and pedagogical knowledge of the subject they teach; however, they do not grant them ample opportunities to apply and practice the newly learned material. While the majority of teachers expressed their agreement with the statement that the content has a clear focus on the content knowledge (77.8%) and on the pedagogy of the subject taught (73.4%), only 7.8% disagreed with them. To the contrary, while the greatest part of teachers (56.7%) disagreed with the statement about inclusion of classroom practice, only less than one fourth (23.4%) of them agreed and the remaining 20% took a neutral stand.
- The majority of teachers (76.7%) approved the organization of the material used in the seminars/workshops through their agreement with the statement 'The material used is well organized and easy to follow and understand'.
- Teachers' level of agreement decreased, however, for the statement on consideration of prior knowledge and the one on inclusion of new ideas and approaches. As evidenced by the levels of agreement indicated, teachers expertise seems to be somehow considered when designing and delivering training. Though agreement with the statement 'the content takes into account my prior knowledge, experience, and professional level' was the dominant response (23.2 strongly agree, and 37.8% agree), still 12.2 % of teachers disagreed and a proportion of 26.7% neither agreed nor disagreed.

- Similarly, almost two thirds of the participants either agreed (44.4%) or strongly agreed (21.1%) with the statement that 'The content includes new ideas and innovative approaches to language teaching'. Seven said they disagreed and 24 participants were neutral.
- Teachers' ratings of the last statement on whether the contents presented in the training seminars/workshops form part of a coherent program or not were varied. While slightly more than half of the sample showed their agreement with the statement that 'The content presented builds on and relates to the content of previous PD days', 16 of them either disagreed (14) or strongly disagreed (two), and 25 took a neutral stand.

2. Did the seminars/workshops you participated in cover the following topics? If yes, what positive impact did they have on your teaching? (*For each specified alternative please indicate 'Yes' or 'No' in part (A). If 'Yes' in part (A), please estimate the impact in part (B)*)

Table. 5.25.

The Impact of the Topics Covered in the Training Seminars/Workshops on Teachers Performance

Topics		A/ Participation		B/ Positive Impact		
		Yes	No	small	moderate	large
a. Knowledge and understanding of my subject	N	78	12	8	55	15
	%	86.7	13.3	10.3	70.5	19.2
b. Pedagogical competencies in teaching my subject field	N	79	11	15	42	22
	%	87.8	12.2	19.0	53.2	27.8
c. Knowledge of the curriculum	N	81	9	13	45	23
	%	90.0	10.0	16.0	55.6	28.4
d. Student evaluation and assessment practice	N	74	16	3	44	27
	%	82.2	17.8	4.1	59.5	36.5
e. ICT (information and communication technology) skills for teaching	N	40	50	14	16	10
	%	44.4	55.6	35.0	40.0	25.0
f. Student behaviour and classroom	N	47	43	18	20	9

management	%	52.2	47.8	38.3	42.6	19.1
g. Approaches to individualised learning	N	41	49	19	15	7
	%	45.6	54.4	46.3	36.6	17.1
h. Teaching cross-curricular skills (e.g. problem solving)	N	50	40	21	22	7
	%	57.8	42.2	42.0	44.0	14.0

In order to examine the extent to which the topics covered in the seminars/workshops teachers participated in correlate with their stated PD needs, we provided them with a list including the same topics as in the question about their PD needs and asked them to indicate first whether those topics had been covered in the seminars/workshops, and, if yes, to estimate the impact such topics had had on their teaching. The main findings are reported bellow.

Four main topics were reported to be part of the seminars/workshops the great majority of teachers participated in. These are 'Knowledge and understanding of the subject' (86.7%), 'Pedagogical competencies in teaching the subject field' (87.8%), 'Knowledge of the curriculum' (90%), and 'Student evaluation and assessment practice' (82.2%). The coverage percentages, however, decreased considerably for the remaining five topics indicating that they were not as much covered as the preceding ones. These include 'ICT (information and communication technology) skills for teaching' (44.4%), 'Student behaviour and classroom management' (52.2%), 'Approaches to individualised learning' (45.6%), 'Teaching cross-curricular skills (e.g. problem solving)' (57.8%), and 'Mentoring/coaching peers' (33.3%).

3. The topics covered were reported to have had a positive impact on the teaching practices of the participants, albeit to different levels. Surprisingly, apart from the topic of 'approaches to individualised learning', the level of positive impact most frequently reported by teachers was moderate. That is to say, though dealt with in the seminars, these topics hadn't had the desired impact on teachers. This can be attributed to different factors. For instance, if teachers already possess an advanced level of content and pedagogical knowledge, or they are familiar with the curriculum, a seminar on such topics will add little to their professional skills. Likewise, when

the material presented is best learned through practice (for example, ICT, individualised learning, etc.), and such practical aspect was absent, then it will not create the desired impact.

3. The process (*conduct and organisation of the seminars and workshops*)

Do you agree or disagree with the following statements ... (*Please mark one choice in each row*).

Table. 5. 26.

Teachers' Attitudes towards the Objectives of the Training Seminars/Workshops

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
a. The objectives are clearly defined in the beginning	N	33	48	8	1	0
	%	36.7	53.3	8.9	1.1	00
b. They are specific, measurable, achievable, realistic, and time-bound	N	23	51	12	4	0
	%	25.6	56.7	13.3	4.4	00
c. The objectives connect to my professional development needs	N	19	57	11	2	1
	%	21.1	63.3	12.2	2.2	1.1

Among the factors which may greatly inform the effectiveness of any TPD activity are the objectives sought to be accomplished. As is conventionally argued, effective TPD activities are built around clear, smart, objectives that relate to teachers PD needs. Hence, to examine teachers' attitudes towards the objectives of the training seminars/workshops they participated in, we provided them with three statements and asked them to indicate on a five point scale their level of agreement with each.

As teachers responses demonstrate, teachers' attitudes are mainly positive. To begin with, the objectives of the training seminars/workshops are claimed to be clearly defined in the beginning. This was made clear through the great majority of teachers agreeing (53.3%) or strongly agreeing (36.7%) with the first statement. Furthermore, a high percentage of teachers (82.3%) reported agreeing or strongly agreeing with the second statement affirming

that the objectives are specific, measurable, achievable, realistic, and time-bound, whereas only four of them disagreed. Likewise, the objectives are reported to connect to the professional development needs of the majority (84.4%) of participant teachers, and to disconnect to the needs of only three of them. A percentage of (8.9%, 13.3%, and 12.2%) were neutral with the three statements respectively.

Table. 5.27.

Teachers' Attitudes towards The instructor

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
a. The instructor is credible; knowledgeable and well prepared	N	38	46	6	0	0
	%	42.2	51.5	6.7	00	00
b. The instructor shows respect for you and appreciates your potential	N	30	41	19	0	0
	%	33.3	45.6	21.1	00	00
c. The instructor is a good discussion leader	N	33	44	11	1	1
	%	36.7	48.9	12.2	1.1	1.1
d. The instructor instructs with a patient, supportive and encouraging style.	N	24	46	15	3	2
	%	26.7	51.1	16.7	3.3	2.2
e. The instructor provides immediate feedback, praise, and positive reinforcement	N	27	35	25	3	0
	%	30.0	38.9	27.8	3.3	00
f. The instructor is able to communicate information effectively	N	28	48	14	0	0
	%	31.1	53.3	15.6	00	00
g. The instructor assists in linking concepts to actual interpersonal situations	N	18	41	26	4	1
	%	20.0	45.6	28.9	4.4	1.1
h. The instructor has the technical know- how to use new educational technology	N	18	43	19	8	2
	%	20.0	47.8	21.1	8.9	2.2

The instructor plays an essential role in the teachers training seminars/workshops.

However, to effectively perform his/her assumed role, the instructor should necessarily

exhibit certain personal characteristics, as he/she should also have the skills and competencies required to facilitate teachers learning. To find out whether the instructor in the training seminars/workshops attended by the participants demonstrated such characteristics and skills, we gave them a list of corresponding statements and asked them to rate their degree of agreement or disagreement with each based on a five-point scale ranging from (1) strongly agree to (5) strongly disagree.

The findings show that teachers' attitudes towards the instructor and the way he performs his role were largely positive. Indeed, an overwhelming majority of them judged the instructor's character and behaviour in very favourable terms. To begin with, no participant disagreed with three of the proposed eight statements. Apart from few teachers who took a neutral stand, the great majority of them acknowledged the instructor's credibility (93.7%), his courteous behaviour (78.9%), and his ability to communicate information effectively (84.4%). Equally acknowledged was the instructor's skill in leading discussion with a great majority of teachers (85.6%) agreeing with the corresponding statement and only 2.2% disagreeing. In a like manner, most teachers (77.8%) expressed contentment with the instructor's patient, supportive, and encouraging instructing style; yet, 5.5% of them revealed their dissatisfaction, and 16.7% were neutral. As for the statement about feedback and the one about linking concepts to interpersonal situations, the percentage of positive rating decreased remarkably, whereas that of neutral stand increased. While 68.9% and 65.6% of the participant teachers either agreed or strongly agreed with the statements 'The instructor provides immediate feedback, praise, and positive reinforcement' and 'The instructor assists in linking concepts to actual interpersonal situations' respectively, a percentage of 27.8% and of 28.9% of them neither agreed nor disagreed, and only 3.3% and 5.5% disagreed. Furthermore, though the instructor's skill in using new educational technology was approved

by more than two thirds of the sample (67.8%), the statement about this skill received most disagreement with eight teachers disagreeing, and two strongly disagreeing.

Table. 5.28.

Teachers' Attitudes towards the Instructional Techniques and Materials

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
i. I have access to all necessary materials and resources	N	13	39	22	16	0
	%	14.4	43.3	24.4	17.8	00
j. The instructional techniques used facilitate my learning, and help me in adapting and applying the new skills	N	28	44	13	5	0
	%	31.1	48.9	14.4	5.6	00
k. The instructor uses a variety of instructional techniques rather than the traditional lecture format	N	23	42	15	9	1
	%	25.6	46.7	16.7	10.0	1.1

Teachers training process comprises a wide range of techniques and materials, employed to transmit knowledge and help teachers acquire and further develop the desired skills and competencies. In point of fact, the availability, quality and variability of these techniques and materials may have quite a considerable effect on the overall quality of the training. Hence, to shed light on the techniques and materials used during the training seminars/workshops teachers in the sample took part in, three statements were provided with the question of the extent to which they agree or disagree with the statement based on the same five-point scale.

As demonstrated by the results in the table above, not all teachers confirmed having had access to the necessary materials and resources. Indeed, only slightly more than half of the participants either agreed (43.3%) or strongly agreed (14.4%) with the corresponding statement, whereas 17.8% of them disagreed, and 22 were neutral. On the other hand, teachers' responses regarding the effectiveness and variability of the employed techniques

were mostly positive. The great majority of teachers (80%) affirmed that the instructional techniques used facilitate their learning, and help them adapt and apply the new skills, five disaffirmed, and 13 took a neutral stand. Furthermore, while most teachers agreed (46.7%) or strongly agreed (25.6%) with the last statement, maintaining that the instructor uses a variety of instructional techniques rather than the traditional lecture format, ten ones disagreed and 15 neither agreed nor disagreed.

Table.5.29.

Teachers' Attitudes towards the Activities used in the Training Seminars/Workshops

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
l. The activities are carefully planned and well organized	N	33	43	11	3	0
	%	36.7	47.8	12.2	3.3	00
m. The activities are appropriate and aligned with the defined objectives	N	25	52	11	2	0
	%	27.8	57.8	12.2	2.2	00
n. The activities are varied and relevant to the topic	N	31	46	10	3	0
	%	34.4	51.1	11.1	3.3	00
o. The activities include occasions for collegial sharing	N	26	43	17	4	0
	%	28.9	47.8	18.9	4.4	00
p. The activities provide ample opportunities for personal planning and reflection	N	20	40	25	5	0
	%	22.2	44.4	27.8	5.6	00
q. The session provide me with opportunities to practice the new skills presented and to receive feedback	N	19	36	28	7	0
	%	21.1	40.0	31.1	7.8	00
r. I am actively engaged in the activities	N	18	52	17	2	1
	%	20.0	57.8	18.9	2.2	1.1
s. The new practices are modelled and thoroughly explained	N	16	37	32	5	0
	%	17.8	41.1	35.6	5.6	00

Teachers' training requires the use of a range of varied activities that are responsive to teachers' abilities and interests. Moreover, the used activities should not only be carefully aligned with the intended learning objectives, but should also be carefully planned and organized to help attain those objectives. To gain insight into the attitudes of teachers towards the activities used in the training seminars/workshops, we gave them a set of statements and told them to mark how strongly they agree or disagree with each statement using a five-point scale.

The findings show that teachers attitudes towards the activities used in seminars and workshops were largely positive. Indeed, a quick reading through the results in the table might lead one to conclude that teachers were satisfied with the training activities; this is clearly reflected in the high level of agreement teachers had with the all the statements. In fact, the reported percentages of disagreement with the statements ranged from as low as 2.2% to only as high as 7.8%. The number of teachers who were neutral, however, was significantly different. To start with, an overwhelming majority of teachers emphasized the variation among and relevance of the activities, as well as their appropriateness and alignment with the defined objectives, giving the corresponding statements ('n' and 'm' respectively) the highest percentage of agreement (85.5%). Likewise, the planning and organization of activities were affirmed by 84.5% of the participants. These qualities must have increased teachers motivation to the extent that 77.8% of them agreed with the statement 'I am actively engaged in the activities'. Moreover, most teachers (76.7%) agreed that the activities allowed them to share and exchange knowledge and expertise with their colleagues. It is worth noting here that out of 90 participants, 17 took a neutral stand on these two statements. This number, however, increased considerably regarding the statements about opportunities for personal planning and reflection (25), opportunities to practice the presented skills and receive

feedback (28), and the modelling of new practices (32). Accordingly, the level of teachers' agreement with these statements decreased to 66.6%, 61.1%, and 58.9% respectively.

Table. 5.30.

Teachers' Attitudes towards the Training Seminars/Workshops Timing

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
t. The amount of time scheduled for the training course is exactly what is needed to meet the objectives	N	10	23	18	35	4
	%	11.1	25.6	20.0	38.9	4.4
u. Sufficient time is provided for the completion of tasks	N	11	30	8	39	2
	%	12.2	33.3	8.9	43.3	2.2

A major factor influencing teachers attainment of the defined training objectives is the amount of time scheduled for the entire training course and for the tasks set to be performed during the training. As a matter of fact, teachers undoubtedly need time to acquire the knowledge presented let alone to practice the new skills and receive feedback. Hence, to shed light on the question of the timing of the training seminars/workshops, two statements were presented to participants with which they were requested to display whether they agree or not (based on a five-point scale).

The results reveal that there exists a difference in the teachers' attitudes towards the timing of the training seminars/workshops. Firstly, the amount of time scheduled for the training course was not always what was needed to meet the objectives. This is clearly made evident through the large percentage of participants (43.3%) disagreeing and the relatively low percentage (36.7%) of those agreeing with the first statement, in addition to the 20% who were neutral. Similarly, the time provided for the completion of tasks during the seminars/workshops was sufficient according to 45.5% of teachers and insufficient for an equal percentage, while it was sometimes sufficient sometimes not for a proportion of 8.9 %.

Therefore, the timing of the training seminars/workshops, albeit viewed positively by some teachers, seems to be a real matter of concern which needs to be addressed if the training is to reach its predetermined objectives.

4.The context (*the setting*)

Do you agree or disagree with the following statements ... (Please mark one choice in each row).

Table. 5.31.

Teachers' Attitudes towards the Context of the Training Seminars/Workshops

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
a. The facilities and equipment are	N	14	53	12	11	0
appropriate and conducive to learning	%	15.6	58.9	13.3	12.2	00
b. The audio-visual aids are effective	N	22	43	14	10	01
	%	24.4	47.8	15.6	11.1	1.1
c. The room is appropriate for the	N	13	31	17	26	3
training session	%	14.4	34.4	18.9	28.9	3.3
d. The training location is easily accessed	N	13	27	17	30	3
	%	14.4	30.0	18.9	33.3	3.3

In order to elucidate teachers' attitudes towards the context of the training seminars/workshops they take part in, we asked them to indicate their degree of agreement with four corresponding statements based on a five-point scale.

The results show that the context of the training seminars/workshops seems to evoke particularly varying responses from the teachers. While some aspects were largely agreed upon, others were points of clear disagreement. To start with, the facilities and equipment are reported to have been appropriate and conducive to learning by the majority of teachers (74.5%). Similarly, audio-visual aids were claimed to have been effective in facilitating the

learning of the largest part of teachers (72.2%). It is worth noting, however, that for 11 teachers (12.2%), neither the facilities were appropriate nor the audio-visual aids were effective, whereas the remaining teachers were neutral. Contrarily, the appropriateness of the room for the training session was somehow questionable. While only less than half (48.8 %) of the participants agreed that it is appropriate, a considerable proportion of them (32.2%) disagreed, and 18.9 % took a neutral position. The least positive aspect of the training context, however, was the location. For 34.4% of the participants the training location is easily accessed. Yet, for one third of them it is not, whereas 18.9 % were neutral to the corresponding statement.

5. How often do you apply what you learn in the training seminars/workshops to your job?

a. Always b. Often c. Sometimes d. Rarely ☐ e. Never

Table. 5.32.

Teachers Transfer of Learned Material to their Job

	N	%
Always	17	18.9
Often	44	48.9
Sometimes	29	32.2
Rarely	00	00
Never	00	00

The question above was provided in an attempt to find out how often teachers in the sample transfer the material learned in training to their job context. The results were largely affirmative in the sense that no teacher was reported to have never or rarely applied the

learned material to their job. Indeed, the great part of them (48.9%) said they often apply what they learn to their teaching, 32.2% said sometimes, and only 18.9% of them said always.

6. If “rarely or never”, can you explain why?

This question was asked to further uncover teachers' reasons for not or for rarely applying learned material in case they said so. However, because no teacher opted for these two options, no reason was provided.

7. Do you think these training seminars/workshops would have been more effective if you had participated in making decisions on their content (what), process (how), and context (when and where).

- a. Yes b. No

Table. 5.33.

Teachers Opinions about the Positive Impact of their Participation in Decision Making on the Effectiveness of the Training Seminars/Workshops

	N	%
a. Yes	82	91.1
b. No	8	8.9
Total	90	100

The last question in the section about training seminars/workshops is meant to find out whether teachers believe their participation in making decisions on the content (what), process (how), and context (when and where) of the training would have rendered it more effective or not. The results were greatly favourable. That is, the overwhelming majority of teachers (91.1%) stressed the positive impact of their participation in decision making on the quality and effectiveness of the training, as opposed to the 8.9% of them who believed it is unnecessary to take part in decision-making on such matters.

Section Seven. Internal Educational Seminars

1. How many times a year do you hold internal educational seminars in the workplace?

..... times

Table. 5.34.

Frequency of Holding Internal Educational Seminars a Year

Teachers Responses	N	%
1 time	6	6.7
2 times	23	25.6
3 times	21	23.3
4 times	11	12.2
5 times	10	11.1
6 times	5	5.6
2 to 3 times	7	7.8
1 time and sometimes never	7	7.8
Total	90	100.0

Internal educational seminars from an indispensable part of teachers PD program in the Algerian educational context. By way of exploring teachers' attitudes towards internal educational seminars, we asked them a set of corresponding questions, the first of which relates to the number of times they hold internal educational seminars a year.

The results show that the number of times teachers hold internal educational seminars ranges from as little as “one time and sometimes never” to as high as “six times” a year. Given that the number of such seminars is closely related to the number of teachers per school, this variance in responses can be understood. However, what opens paths to questions is the considerable number of teachers who reported holding only one (6.7%), two (25.6%), or else two or three (7.8%) seminars a year. More questionable, however, is the fact that some teachers (7.8 %) admitted they don't even hold these seminars and in best cases they hold one

Table.5.36.

Teachers' Feelings when Being Observed

	N	%
a. Relaxed and at ease	66	73.3
b. Nervous and uncomfortable	24	26.7
Total	90	100.0

Teachers' feelings about being observed by others when teaching can greatly affect their willingness and participation in those activities. The aim behind asking the question above was to find out how teachers in the sample feel about being observed, and to examine the correlation of their feelings and their willingness to participate in internal educational seminars.

As demonstrated by their responses, teachers experience different feelings when being observed. While a great proportion of teachers (73.3%) reported feeling relaxed and at ease, a considerable number of them (26.7 %) admitted that being observed arouses bad feelings of nervousness and discomfort among them. These results were to a large extent inconsistent with the results obtained through the previous question. While the majority of teachers (73.3%) hold positive attitudes towards being observed by others, only 40% of them are willing to participate in internal seminars.

4. Which of the following items do these seminars include:

- a. Planning and preparing for the seminar
- b. Observing a teacher performance (while presenting a lesson)
- c. Discussing, reflecting on and analysing the teaching process in the feedback conference
- d. Determining collaboratively the types of actions to be taken

Table. 5.37.

Phases of Internal Educational Seminars

Phases	N	%	% of Observations
a. Planning and preparing for the seminar	42	18.3%	46.7%
b. Observing a teacher performance (while presenting a lesson)	71	31.0%	78.9%
c. Discussing, reflecting on and analysing the teaching process in the feedback conference	72	31.4%	80.0%
d. Determining collaboratively the types of actions to be taken	44	19.2%	48.9%
Total	229	100.0%	254.4%

The question above was mainly asked to find whether the four necessary observation procedures, namely planning, observation, analysis and reflection, and collaborative determination of future actions are followed or not when conducting internal educational seminars. The findings show that among the four proposed procedures, the most frequently reported to be followed was, surprisingly, the feedback conference where teachers discuss, reflect on and analyse the teaching process (selected by 80% of the participants), followed by the observation phase where teachers observe a colleague performance (selected by 78.9% of the teachers). On the other hand, while the procedure of determining collaboratively the types of actions to be taken was chosen only by less than half of the participants (48.9%), planning and preparing for the seminar was the least frequently selected one with only 46.7% of the participants selecting it. These results are largely in line with the researcher observations as a teacher; generally the internal educational seminar is associated with observation and the feedback conference. As for the planning, teachers are requested to schedule these seminars deciding on the time as early as the beginning of the academic year. However, these schedules are not always respected. Indeed, teachers may change the time, but it is rarely when they sit

together and prepare for the seminar. Moreover, even if teachers analyse the performance of the observed teacher, and provide feedback, they don't often decide collaboratively on the types of actions to be taken in the future based on the observation and the feedback provided.

5. Do you find these seminars useful in improving your teaching practices?

- a. Yes b. No

Table.5.38.

Teachers' Attitudes towards the Usefulness of Internal Educational Seminars in Improving their Teaching Practices

	N	%
a. Yes	88	97.8
b. No	2	2.2
Total	90	100.0

Aiming at examining the impact internal educational seminars have on their PD, we gave teachers a close question asking them to indicate whether they find these seminars useful in improving their teaching practices or not. As expected, apart from two teachers whose answers were negative, almost all the participants (97.8%) confirmed the usefulness of those seminars in improving their performance as teachers.

Please justify your answer:

To obtain closer understanding of how internal educational seminars help teachers improve their teaching performance, we asked them to further justify their answers. The justifications provided revolve around four main points.

Improving teachers' performance: Of utmost importance, however, is the role internal educational seminars play in improving teachers' performance. Out of the ninety participants,

ten reported that these seminars help them enhance their teaching skills and improve the overall quality of their instructional performance. They wrote:

- Internal educational seminars help us to improve our teaching strategies.
- The feedback of the observers (teachers) helps me to develop my teaching skills because we work in the same atmosphere.
- They help to improve the quality of our teaching (3)
- They enhance our teaching skills and communication. They help to create an effective leaning environment, to keep us informed about new instructional devices, and to inspire us to become more effective.
- To ameliorate our teaching methods.
- Because other teachers will give you their comments and feedback so that you can improve your teaching.
- The teacher always needs guidance and assistance to ensure a good quality teaching.
- They helped me achieve the needed teaching objectives.

Reflection: A second reason internal educational seminars are considered useful is that they offer a valuable opportunity for teachers to reflect on their own teaching. Indeed, observing others tells teachers a lot not only about those they are observing but also about themselves. It allows them to reflect on the relative merits of the instructional strategies they use. Highlighting this benefit, some teachers wrote:

- When observing you can notice better, spot the mistakes, and even reflect on your teaching.
- Attending internal seminars is beneficial for the teacher and so the attendees. It is an opportunity for teachers to reflect on their teaching and share ideas because diverse

perspectives lead to new insights and thus new possibilities to cope with the challenges that come across when teaching.

- They help us reflect on our own teaching.
- They help us discover and remedy our teaching weaknesses.
- They help you see yourself from another perspective.
- It's a way to know about our negative side in presenting a lesson.

Learning from others: Aside from helping teachers reflect on and improve their teaching practices, internal educational seminars offer teachers a valuable learning opportunity; an opportunity to share insights; knowledge and teaching experiences. Such an opportunity is especially important for novice teachers who experience an intense need for guidance and support by more experienced teachers. On this point, four teachers stated:

- They're always useful. Experienced teachers can help novice ones with their experience, and pieces of advice on different things (e.g. classroom and time management)
- Yes for sure! Mainly for novice teachers who have not received any training before hand, seminars are of great importance to put them on the track to hold the appropriate method.
- As a novice teacher, help is needed from experienced teachers. These internal seminars are an opportunity that provides a vivid example about teaching.
- To get the help I need as a novice teacher.

Other teachers believed that internal seminars are beneficial not only to novice teachers, but also to more experienced ones because they help them collaborate and learn from each other. They said:

- Yes, because they give us the opportunity to share our ideas and collaborate with other teachers.
- Exchanging experiences and unifying the teaching strategies.

- So useful so as to exchange ideas in terms of the various steps of the lesson presentation, and the right way of conducting CBA in large classes (over crowded ones).
- I learn from my colleagues (2)
- I benefit a lot from the discussions and activities we deal with in planning my lessons and assessment.
- To benefit from others' way of teaching and experience. Besides sometimes they get your attention to things you don't use or know.
- Take benefits from the experience of the others and correct yourself taking into consideration their remarks.
- Sure. My peers remarks are helpful especially that I feel spontaneous presenting in front of them.
- To benefit from the colleagues advice.
- To share thoughts and learn from peer teachers.
- They answer a lot of ambiguous questions.
- Very useful because we always take into consideration all the data presented.

Practical learning: Another clear advantage of internal educational seminars is that they are primarily practice oriented. Mostly, they address teaching issues practically; giving teachers opportunities to collaboratively examine real classroom situations, explore the potential problems, and engage in problem-solving to find practical ways to handle those problems.

While other PD activities, seminars for instance, equip teachers with the requisite professional knowledge, internal educational seminars equip them with practical classroom skills which are indispensable for effective teaching. Accordingly, a number of teachers explained that internal seminars are useful because:

- Inspectors generally provide teachers with theoretical information. Internal seminars can better help teachers because they tackle the practical side.
- They tackle the teaching/learning gaps practically.
- They informative, practical and making things clear for us.
- They always give solutions to the difficult real situations faced in the classroom.
- They elaborate important practical issues in pedagogy and teaching.
- They give us the chance to apply what we have learnt.
- Because we deal with things practically.
- Some teaching points need more clarification and assisting an internal seminar will be a chance to that.

On the other hand, the two teachers who said that internal seminars are not useful in improving their teaching practices provided their reasons too. The first one claimed that there is no need to attend internal seminars saying: “No, because we often discuss things we need with friends and colleagues”. The second, however, referred to an important point; that of the differences among teachers even within the same school which can lead to different opinions and hence to disagreements about certain teaching issues. The teacher claimed: “No, teachers don’t always agree on the same points. What may serve and help one teacher may not be for another one”.

Section Eight. ICTs Training and Distance Learning

This part of the questionnaire was devoted to find out whether teachers receive any training geared towards developing their ICTs skills, their integration of ICTs in their classrooms, and their attitudes towards distance training.

1. Have you received any training on the use of ICTs in teaching as part of your teacher training?

- a. Yes b. No

Table. 5.39.

Teachers Training on the use of ICTs

	N	%
a. Yes	23	25.6
b. No	67	74.4
Total	90	100.0

An initial question deemed necessary to start with was whether teachers had received any training on the use of ICTs in teaching as part of their training or not. The results obtained revealed that out of the 90 participants, only 23 ones (representing 25.6% of the sample) had been trained on the use of ICTs. The majority (74.4%), however, had not received such training. Given that the Ministry of National Education once offered a training course specifically designed to enhance teachers' competences in the use of ICTs, these results were largely surprising. What may have led to these results, then, could be the characteristics of the training course itself. Initially, the training course was not an obligatory one; that is, it was up to teachers to undergo the course or not. Moreover, though provided by specialised teachers, the training took place at weekends and holidays in particularly assigned schools, obliging some teachers to travel long distances, a factor which could have demotivated teachers and hindered their participation in the course. What's more, the course was implemented only one year; so not all participant teachers had had the chance to take advantage of such training.

2. If yes, did it include:

- a. Basic ICT training: basic operations, Windows-based software, e-mail, and Internet
- b. Intermediate training: classroom applications, Internet for teaching, and e-mail as a medium for communication and collaboration
- c. Advanced training: creation of educational software, on-line classes, telecommunication, e-mailing, development of interactive Web sites, production of multimedia presentations

Table.5.40.

Components of Teachers Training on the use of ICTs

	N	Pourcentage
a. Basic ICT training	15	65.2% %
b. Intermediate training	4	17.4 %
c. Advanced training	0	00 %
d. A + B	4	17.4%
Total	23	100.0 %

To further explore the nature of the training course teachers had received on the use of ICTs, we asked them what type of training the course included: basic, intermediate, or advanced ICT training. As a matter of fact, teachers ICT training should get beyond basic ICT skills, it should instead focus on ICT pedagogical skills; how to effectively apply and integrate ICT into the teaching/learning process.

The findings show that the ICT training teachers had received was mainly a basic one. Out of the 23 teachers who said they had participated in ICT training, 15 (65.2%) affirmed that the training had focused on basic ICT skills such as windows-based software, e-mail, and internet; whereas four of them (17.4%) said it was an intermediate one which had introduced them to ICT classroom applications, internet for teaching, and e-mail as a medium for communication and collaboration. The remaining four participants reported that the training was both basic and intermediate in nature. Yet, no participant opted for advanced training demonstrating that the training had not included such advanced ICT skills as creating educational software, on-line classes, telecommunication, e-mailing, developing interactive web sites, and producing multimedia presentations.

3. To what extent was this training effective in preparing you to effectively integrate ICTs in your classroom?

- a. Very effective b. somehow effective c. not effective

Table. 5.41.

The Training Effectiveness in Preparing Teachers to Integrate ICTs in Classrooms

	N	%	Valid percentage
a. Very effective	10	11.1	43.5
b. Somehow effective	11	12.2	47.8
c. Not effective	2	2.2	8.7
Total	23	25.6	100.0
Missing	67	74.4	
Total	90	100.0	

The question above was asked in an attempt to measure the extent to which the training had been effective in preparing teachers to effectively integrate ICTs in their classrooms. Accordingly, teachers were requested to evaluate the training based on a three-point scale of effectiveness (very effective, somehow effective, and not effective). The results obtained show that the training had had a positive effect on teachers' readiness to use ICTs in their classrooms, albeit to different levels. While 10 teachers (43.5%) asserted that the training was very effective in helping them apply and use ICTs as part of their teaching, 11 ones (47.8%) said it had been somehow effective. On the other hand, only two teachers reported that it had not been effective.

4. Have you participated in any online teacher training courses, networks, or platforms?

- a. Yes b. No

Table. 5.42.

Teachers Participation in Online Training Courses, Networks, or Platforms

	N	%
a. Yes	13	14.4
b. No	77	85.6
Total	90	100.0

Aiming at finding out whether teachers in the sample had took advantage of any formal or informal e-learning opportunities, we asked them whether they had participated or not in any online teacher training courses, networks, or platforms. The results obtained were somehow unexpected. Though in an era of technology where unlimited teacher training opportunities are provided, only very few teachers (14.4% of the sample) reported having participated in such e-learning frameworks, whereas the great majority (85.6%) had not. Amongst those who had participated, one teacher wrote: “Ps: I had had no particular training in ICTs but I enrolled in some training courses as a personal PD activity”

5. What would you say about such on-line learning opportunities?

A useful way to uncover teachers' reasons for participating or not in online teacher training courses, networks, or platforms is to find out what they think of such web-based learning opportunities. The reported positive opinions of teachers were greatly inconsistent with the low level of their participation in online training courses. That is, though only few teachers affirmed having taken advantage of web-based learning opportunities, the majority of them revealed that they recognize the positive aspects and the benefits of such opportunities.

Improving teachers performance: Some teachers argued that these opportunities help teachers learn and improve their teaching performance providing the following statements:

- I think it's an effective way of learning since it allows the teachers to access content in any place and at any time. Also it is up to date and faster than other ways such as books.
- They represent a rich and varied window to learn and keep up-to-date.
- I think they can help novice teachers, in particular, to prepare their lessons more effectively because they provide them with many options.
- They are of great importance, especially those lessons given on-line by native speakers.

- Web-based learning is a valuable resource for educators who want to know how to innovate their craft. On the web, there are many professional learning communities that equip teachers with tools to become innovation leaders for their classrooms (like worksheets, lesson plans, and so on)
- Effective because they help us improve our teaching abilities.
- Very effective platforms for better learning.
- They are very interesting and we can take advantage of different experiences to improve our teaching practices.
- They are very fruitful and help us boost our self-confidence.
- Good and effective (3).
- These opportunities are useful and should be provided to teachers so that they improve the quality of their teaching.
- They are interesting, fruitful and helpful.

Exchanging teaching experiences: Other teachers referred to a main advantage of web-based learning opportunities which is the ability to share knowledge and exchange teaching experiences with teachers worldwide. They wrote:

- Useful and helpful in exchanging ideas and some documents and also experiences.
- They are useful to share your experiences with other teachers so as you can benefit more from their own experience.
- Helpful and provide good opportunities for teachers to exchange knowledge and experiences.
- They are good to acquire and share knowledge and information.

Five teachers, nonetheless, questioned the usefulness and the effectiveness of web-based learning opportunities. Amongst them, three claimed that these opportunities do not offer

effective learning environments. One teacher said “I don’t think they are efficient. I prefer to be able to interact, ask questions, and be assessed by others directly”, whereas the other asserted: “ They are not effective. They only provide lesson plans and exam papers. They don’t discuss other important matters like: classroom management and teaching approaches”. The third teacher summed up: “they are not really effective”. Similarly, in their argument against the usefulness of such opportunities, one teacher claimed that they represent “a two edged sword”, and added “they are not always useful or beneficial”. Agreeing with this idea, another teacher asserted: “they are not useful or fruitful”.

Suggestions for improving teacher professional development

Please, suggest ways which you think could make teachers professional development more interesting and more effective.

A final wrap-up question was asked to solicit teachers’ suggestions as to how TPD can be made more interesting and more effective. Such suggestions would undoubtedly address PD issues that are of greatest concern to teachers and hence would ultimately uncover major flaws in the existing TPD program.

Interestingly, teachers provided a set of varied, relevant and constructive suggestions for improving TPD. These suggestions were ordered and categorized according to the type of issue they tackle.

Involving teachers in decision making: To start with, teachers shared their concern about not being involved in decision-making about the content and the process of their PD. Indeed, it is of serious concern that teachers do not have the opportunity to participate in choosing the content and the process of their PD activities, as no one knows better than teachers themselves what their developmental needs are, and how they best learn. Accordingly, teachers asserted:

- PD can help new and experienced teachers develop skills they need to feel confident in the classroom. So, teachers should be given the chance to suggest or choose what or how they learn because they know what their classes need. Teachers need to be interested and engaged. In addition, it is very important to provide various activities that require teacher collaboration. Teachers should be equipped with skills that are necessary to teach students in ways that align with today's modern learning methods such as innovation, confidence, strong student engagement, using today's best educational technology.
- PD providers should take into account teachers' suggestions for what to be discussed in seminars, and how to be discussed.
- To make TPD more effective, we should involve teachers in decision-making about the content and the type of activities used.

Practical rather than theoretical training: An equally important issue teachers brought up relates to the nature of the PD activities teachers participate in. In fact, it is widely argued that for TPD activities to be effective, they should not only equip teachers with the necessary theoretical knowledge, but they should also provide them with opportunities to practice and receive feedback. Unfortunately, because of their focus on theoretical aspects, TPD activities were reported to offer teachers little time or opportunity for practical works. Recognizing the importance of practice in helping them learn and apply the presented content, teachers expressed their need for more practical PD activities stating:

- Seminars should be practical and deal with what teachers see during their teaching process, not with theoretical things that have nothing to do with reality.
- In order to make teacher PD more interesting we should do more practical rather than theoretical sessions.
- We need more practical training on the new techniques and strategies to teach English as a foreign language.

- We need more practical guidance than theoretical one.
- Teachers should intervene (participate) actively in seminars. Seminars should be more practical than theoretical. The new practices should be modeled and well-explained during seminars.
- Inspectors should provide teachers with both theoretical and practical training.
- Putting much emphasis on practice rather than theory.
- Variation in the training practices (theoretical and practical).
- PD activities should provide opportunities for experimentation, reflection, feedback, and evaluation.
- Modeling and presenting lessons by inspectors and providing teachers with all necessary material.
- PD is crucial to a better and reflective teaching. If we want to make our students problem solvers of tomorrow we have to equip teachers to be creative and adaptable. As an example, more focus should be put on the practical side rather than the theoretical one during seminars.
- Helping teachers apply what has been learnt through more practical training.
- Practical seminars and workshops.

More seminars: In addition to the quality, the frequency of TPD activities represents another area of concern to teachers. In fact, it is well recognized that teachers need to have frequent PD opportunities if they are to enhance their knowledge and to improve their teaching skills. Unfortunately, this does not appear to be the case in our context, as teachers clearly highlighted the pressing need for more PD activities, demonstrating that the activities they currently engage in are not sufficient. Accordingly, they stated:

- I believe we may develop the efficiency of TPD by exposing them more often to these seminars, and by giving them the chance to practice the theories and provide more freedom to the choice of the materials.
- To prepare more seminars by the inspector. Those seminars must be practical more than theoretical ones.
- PD activities should be frequent not once or twice a year.
- More visits from the part of the inspectors, more seminars and workshops (3)
- Collaboration and seminars: there should be more seminars and more collaboration among teachers.
- We need more internal educational seminars.
- Conduct more seminars and pedagogical visits (3)
- There is a need for ongoing training.
- I believe more seminars will be helpful.
- Intensive training sessions and more effective inspector visits.

Training on advanced use of ICTs: Nowadays, and in a digital world where ICTs have become more of a basic than of a marginal part of life, it is no longer an option for teachers to be incompetent in the use of ICTs. Given that the use of ICTs not only facilitate the teacher's job, but also renders the learning process more interesting to students, it is deemed necessary for teachers to know how to use and integrate them effectively in their teaching practices. To do so, however, teachers are in need for adequate ICT training opportunities that keep them informed of developments in educational technology and help them adapt their teaching practices to the expectations of the current digital generation. Recognizing this, teachers called for providing them with such ICT oriented training opportunities as well as for equipping schools with the necessary technological tools to allow them to integrate those ICTs into their teaching. They wrote:

- Training on the use of ICTs because I strongly believe that teachers must focus more on the use of technological tools.
- We need to train teachers to use (ICTs) as it becomes vital in the digital world today to make teaching and learning encouraging and easier as well. So, teachers need to be fully supported to innovate and be creative.
- I think training on advanced use of ICTs will be more than useful.
- I suggest supplying schools with sufficient tools which facilitate teachers use of ICTS and help them improve their teaching performance.
- We need labs and ICT's in our schools.
- I believe training on the use of ICTs is necessary.

Online training: Another suggestion put forward by teachers relates to online training opportunities. Such opportunities, though highly valuable for teachers, do not seem to form part of the PD program they are offered. Therefore, teachers asked for spaces for such online learning experiences stating:

- Designing web-based learning opportunities for teachers especially in this modern era of technology, and providing more technological equipment to help teachers innovate their teaching practices.
- It's good to have opportunities to participate in online training courses.
- We need to participate in online teacher training courses.
- The Ministry of National Education should design some online training courses for teachers which can help them learn and develop their skills easily.

Interesting issues: Some teachers' suggestions focused on issues which they believe need to be tackled during PD activities. One teacher suggested dealing with the problem of students demotivation to learn English saying: "We need training on raising learners' motivation to learn English because we face the problem of learners who refuse to learn or let's say they

have no willing to learn and a low level too". Likewise, another teacher stressed the need to be kept informed on the latest pedagogical developments in the field of teaching English as a foreign language. S/he asserted: "We need to be informed and remain updated with the latest /newly put forward methods and approaches of teaching English as a foreign language".

Collaboration: Along with training seminars, workshops, pedagogical visits, and online courses, teachers can learn and improve their teaching skills through collaboration with their peers. Indeed, collaboration is assumed to provide teachers with a safe and effective learning context. It allows them to exchange ideas and experiences, and creates a trustworthy learning environment where they can seek advice and try out new teaching practices with assurance and confidence. Though teachers in our context experience such collaboration opportunities through internal educational seminars, they expressed their need for more collaboration activities. They stated:

- We need more opportunities for collaboration with colleagues and exchanging teaching methods.
- Coordination between teachers in the same school in addition to other schools is very important.
- More peer observation and collaboration (4).
- More collaboration and coordination is very important.

Expert supervision: Of paramount importance is the issue raised by two teachers which concerns establishing a partnership with the university to help develop and implement more effective PD programs. Such partnerships would give teachers valuable opportunities to be trained by specialists and experts in different educational fields, and hence, would ultimately help enhance their professional knowledge and skills. On this point, one teacher admitted: "I believe collaboration with the university will be very beneficial", whereas the second stated:

“I suggest teachers training under the supervision of experts in pedagogy (from the universities)”.

Teachers dispositions: Other teachers pointed out to a different, yet a very important issue, that of teachers personal professional development. It is a common fact that teachers worldwide are required to participate in the different formal PD activities offered by educational authorities. However, it is also well argued that teachers are required to assume the responsibility of their own PD. That is, teachers need not only to participate in those formal PD activities they are required to, but also to seek out possible opportunities to upgrade their professional knowledge, skills, and experience. Emphasizing this need, teachers wrote the following:

- Teachers should be responsible for their personal PD. They need to make self-study to improve their competences (internet, join groups of discussion about teaching on facebook, etc.). They should also try to elaborate their knowledge about teaching techniques, methods, and strategies through reading books and articles, or asking other experienced teachers. Moreover, they need to try to attend presentations given by other teachers and to discuss the ambiguous points with the teacher presenting or with other teachers.
- Teacher should find ways to improve not only rely on what is provided by the Ministry of National Education (e.g. British council websites, seminars, etc.)
- Teachers should be serious and willing to have a better career. They need to rely on themselves to improve their knowledge and skills.
- It's quite normal for novice teachers to have some minor difficulties in the beginning. So they need opportunities to learn from more experienced ones. However, they should assume their responsibility of personal development; they should not hesitate to ask their

mentors and colleagues who in turn should not be egoist and share their knowledge with others.

- Teachers should do their best for self-improvement.

Different levels necessitates different PD activities: Effective TPD activities are based on the premise that different levels of teachers' expertise require several different types of PD activities. Teachers progress in their professional career and their needs vary accordingly. Hence, an experienced teacher's needs are different from those of a novice one. Therefore, the PD activities they are offered should not be the same. In this context, one teacher argued: "We can say that each teacher has a different level of experience, therefore, and to make TPD more interesting and more effective, teachers levels of experience should be considered when designing PD activities".

Training contexts: Affecting the quality of TPD is the context in which the planned activities are implemented. Contextual factors including the facilities and available equipment, among others, can have a direct impact on the way the intended activities are realized. Though teachers had showed a rather positive attitude towards the PD context in their answers to a previous question, some of them asked for further improvements saying: "the quality of facilities and equipment should be improved".

Improving teaching conditions: Moreover, teachers claimed that before talking about effective PD programs, we need first to consider teachers working conditions. They argued that a teacher who does not work in an appropriate atmosphere and who does not feel comfortable would not be interested in any form of PD, being it a formal or an informal one. A teacher wrote: "we should first facilitate the job of the teacher i.e. working in good conditions and having an acceptable working schedule".

Abroad training: A last suggestion provided by two teachers relates to training abroad opportunities. In fact, if they receive the necessary assistance and support, teachers can take advantage of a variety of training courses abroad which are especially offered for EFL teachers. However, this is clearly not the case. One teacher stated: “We need training opportunities abroad”, whereas the second wrote: “I believe abroad trainings will be so beneficial for us as EFL teachers”.

5.2. Analysis and Interpretation of the Interview Results

Another research method employed during this study is the interview. Following is a detailed description of the findings of the two interviews which were conducted with two inspectors of national education.

5.2.1. Background Information

This section describes the background of the interview participants. It includes four demographic items which have been designed to obtain information related to the participants experience as inspectors of national education, their current roles and responsibilities, their teaching experience and how it has informed their practice as teacher trainers, and their perceptions of their background knowledge. Such information is conceived of as an essential factor in interpreting the interview results as they help report those results in a context.

Q1. How long have you been an inspector?

The interview was conducted with the two inspectors of national education who are in charge of S.S. teacher training in Jijel. As revealed by their responses, both participants have a good level of professional experience as inspectors. While participant1 has been an inspector for 10 years, participant2 has had more than 12 years' experience in teacher inspection. With

such level of experience, the participants are assumed to be well informed and in a good position to reflect on teacher PD practices in the Algerian context.

Q2. Can you briefly describe your current role and responsibilities as an inspector of national education?

Answering this question, each participant provided an extensive range of roles and responsibilities, reflecting the ways in which he perceives and performs his role as an inspector. To start with, both participants were found to be supervising an unequal, yet a considerable number of teachers. While participant1 was supervising 97 teacher, participant2 was in charge of 116 teacher. In addition to indicating the number of teachers they were supervising, participants also highlighted their roles in the following quotes:

My current role and responsibilities consist mainly:

- Observing teachers' classroom practices (to what extent the different teaching and syllabi recommendations are applied)
- Observing the students progress, learning acquisition and their achievements...
- Evaluating teachers' and the learners' strengths and weaknesses and plan for their professional growth.
- Plan, adapt, improve, and deliver training...
- Collaborate with colleagues to develop standard professional practices...
- Reflect on syllabus, manuals, approaches etc....

Participant1

I am in charge of 25 high schools, and my role consists in paying periodic visits to the teachers in order to guide them in their teaching, and rectify and remedy whatever needs to be redressed. I also hold seminars about pedagogical issues and mainly those which stem from teachers needs. My work has also to obey to the ministry of education and

the different goals that have been planned like official exams such as the baccalaureate in which we participate by elaborating the exams in question and then in their correction.

Participant2

Q3. Can you tell us about your teaching experience and how has it informed your practice as a teacher trainer?

Before being assigned to the position, an inspector of national education should have been a teacher for at least 20 years. Such rich teaching experience would undoubtedly contribute to a richer inspection experience, as it would greatly inform inspectors practices as teacher trainers.

Raising this issue, both participants highlighted the value of and the benefits attributed to their teaching experience. For participant 1, being a teacher for 23 years in secondary school and for 12 years at university was an essential and absolutely fundamental step towards forming and developing his personality as a teacher trainer. He said: “these experiences helped me a lot in shaping my ideas and becoming a teacher trainer. That is, they allowed me to learn the tricks of the trade in the arena of teaching”. According to him, what he learnt as a teacher (preparing lessons, setting clear objectives, managing classrooms, holding good rapport with students, managing time, and classroom practices) was greatly beneficial to him as a teacher trainer.

Participant 2 view on the impact of the teaching experience on his practices as a teacher trainer was greatly similar to that of participant 1. He affirmed: “Having been a secondary school teacher for about 18 years and a university Associate teacher for 14 years constituted a fertile experience background for my current job”. He explained that his current practices as a teacher trainer are basically informed by the experience he obtained as a teacher.

Q4. To what extent do you agree with the following statements about your background knowledge?

- I have a sound background of theoretical and practical knowledge about the key aspects of language teaching – linguistic, methodological, intercultural
- I have a sound background of theoretical and practical knowledge about adult learning and motivation.
- I am familiar with a range of different approaches and methods for professional training and development.

This question was asked to find out how participants evaluate their background knowledge. It included three statements about participants theoretical and practical knowledge about key aspects of language teaching, about adult learning and about the different approaches and methods for professional training and development, with which participants were asked to indicate the degree to which they agree or disagree. Participants answers were identical. Both of them asserted that they are knowledgeable about those basic principles of the inspection process. While participant1 strongly agreed, participant 2 entirely agreed with the three statements.

5.2.2. Inspectors Training

Inspectors professional training was the theme of the second section. The questions included were directed towards collecting information on the content and the organization of the training, if any ; its quality and the effectiveness ; their commitment to on-going personal and professional improvement ; and their current PD needs.

An initial question to start with was whether participants have received any formal training geared towards developing their knowledge and skills as inspectors. Asking such question was, indeed, foundational as the following two questions were to be answered

accordingly. Answering this question, participant 1 said that he hasn't received any formal training as an inspector. However, he added that those inspectors who came after did. This can explain participant 2 positive answer, as he was assigned as an inspector years after participant 1.

Talking about the training offered, participant 2 stated that he received a one year Inspection Training as a an Inspector of National Education at the INFPE – Algiers. The content included in the training, he added, was interesting and relevant. Giving examples of the topics emphasized, he cited: communicative practices in the classroom, course books and materials design, developing speaking skills, and developing writing skills among others. The participant asserted that, in addition to what he gained from this training, he learnt a lot about many other topics and teaching /learning areas in the seminars organized by the British Council in which they were required to participate. The training, according him, was very effective in developing his competences as an inspector and as a teacher trainer.

Though such formal training opportunities make valuable contribution to the inspectors' professional development, they are yet to form comprehensive training programs that meet the requirements of the inspection profession. That's why inspectors should seek other informal learning opportunities that wouldfor the shortcomings of formal ones. Participants' answers to the question about this issue reveal that they are committed to on-going personal and professional development. Indeed, both of them affirmed that they try to advance their knowledge and to develop their professional skills and abilities in different informal ways. Participant 1 for example said that he always read articles, magazines and any other document about new tendencies in teaching. He added that he also participates in different seminars, either with British and American experts or with colleagues. Similarly, participant 2 stated that in order to improve his theoretical and practical knowledge he takes part in different

workshops organised by The Ministry of National Education, collaborates with colleagues, reflects on his own practices, and he reads and exploits Internet pedagogical resources.

The last question in the section was about the participants current PD needs. Answering the posed question, both participants acknowledged the need for further PD on the use of technology in the teaching/learning contexts as well as for teacher training purposes. While participant 1 stressed this need saying “ I really need further PD in the use of technology”, participant 2 admitted: “ Personally, I need further PD on the use of technology to promote on-line training”.

5.2.3. The Preparatory Pedagogical Training Program

The questions in this section aimed at investigating inspectors attitudes towards the PPTP offered to novice teachers. To ensure that participants have enough experience to draw on, it was necessary to start with a question about their participation in such program. Participants answers were indeed positive. That is, both of them have participated in the PPTP as instructors and are, therefore, in a good position to reflect on the quality and the effectiveness of such program.

As for the content covered, participants indicated that the training program consisted of a list of specific teaching/learning topics which are mostly relevant to novice teachers. Examples of such topics, as cited by the participants, are: Psychopedagogy, Classroom management, assessment, planning, teaching the four skills (listening, reading, speaking and writing), teaching some aspects of the language like grammar, motivation and the like. Listing some of these topics, one participant commented: “it is important to teach those things to novice teachers”. The participants informed that the training took place in middle and secondary schools during holidays and weekends. Describing the conduct and organization of the training, one participant stated: “this is generally done through presentations, a sort of seminars, whereby the

inspector is going to speak, the others listening, and then it ends up with some workshops to give voice, to give an opportunity to the teachers to present things which have been covered”.

There was much disagreement among the two participants on the question of the effectiveness of the PPTP. While one participant maintained that it was very effective in preparing novice teachers to meet the challenges of the teaching profession, the second one argued that it was effective only to a certain extent. He explained raising three key issues; that the PPTP was not developed based on a scientific study, that the content was not clearly defined, and that there is no practice phase. He summed up his argument saying: “It seems to me that it (the PPTP) is still in its embryonic stage; I mean it is not really well-developed or well-planned”.

Though they evaluated the effectiveness of the PPTP differently, participants agreed on what should be done to improve its quality. Indeed, both suggested allowing novice teachers more opportunities to practice. One participant suggested: “they need to include practice which is primordial for a novice teacher”. He added: “For me, learning has to be done through doing. ...teaching is practice. All those theoretical things about learning and teaching won’t be beneficial if they don’t go through practice”. Similarly, the second participant said: “We need to provide opportunities for more practice”, but he further suggested an interesting idea, that of engaging or inviting university teachers to take part in such programs.

5.2.4. The Mentoring Program

This section aimed at investigating participants’ attitudes towards the mentoring program. Accordingly, a set of questions was included asking about the qualities they expect mentors to exhibit, mentors’ functions, their role and the factors they consider when assigning mentors, mentors reactions, their role in training mentors, and the program effectiveness.

As for the qualities they expect mentor teachers to exhibit, both participants stressed the need for a mentor teacher to be highly knowledgeable about language teaching and learning. They particularly stressed the need to demonstrate an in-depth theoretical and practical

knowledge of the different teaching theories, methods and techniques. Commonly cited also were qualities related to mentors mentoring functions. While one participant highlighted the mentors ability to be a counsellor and to maintain a good rapport with the inspector and colleagues, the second participant emphasized the value of coaching and mentoring competences.

When asked about the functions they expect mentor teachers to perform, both participants argue that mentoring means teaching, sponsoring, encouraging, counselling, befriending, and evaluating. One participant commented: “all these functions are important because a mentor will need all of them”.

It was found that participants are key players in the mentoring program. Indeed, they are the ones who assume the role of selecting mentors who are to be in charge of mentee teachers. Doing so, participants were found to consider a number of factors, mainly the teacher's experience and knowledge. Moreover, while the ability to find solutions to problems that might crop up and that might happen to mentee teachers was cited by one participant; the second participant added that he considers also the teacher's competence and commitment.

According to participants, mentor teachers react differently when being assigned the task of mentoring novice teachers. While some mentors react positively, feeling proud and happy about it, others feel reluctant and may not accept it mainly because they consider it a heavy burden and an additional responsibility that they do not want to assume. One participant argued: “it is very important for a mentor to have that willingness, that motivation to become a mentor otherwise they won't succeed in performing their roles as mentors”.

Answering a question about mentors training, participants confirmed that they do not play any role. What's more, they revealed that mentor teachers do not receive any special training geared towards developing their knowledge and skills as mentors. One participant

stated: “there is not a special training for mentor teachers”. He further argued that “the role of mentors is not clearly stated. It is still done in a very informal way”.

The mentoring program, according to participants, is not that effective in fostering and imparting novice teachers' professional competencies. Indeed, as one of them stated: “this program is effective only to some extent. It needs to be improved on many levels”. He added that the program should be re-organized, expanding its period, planning more mentoring sessions, and focusing more on its practical side.

5.2.5. Classroom Visits

This section includes questions about a common teacher training practice in the Algerian context, that of classroom visitation. It aims at shedding light on the frequency, the objectives, the conduct, the planning, teachers reactions, and the effectiveness of this form of teacher training from inspectors perspectives.

The findings show that classroom visitation is characterized by its limited frequency and duration. As revealed by participants, a teacher usually receives only one classroom visit a year, and in best cases two visits. This is, in part, attributed to the large number of teachers inspectors are in charge of. Highlighting this fact, participants asserted that they would pay more classroom visits if they had fewer teachers. This, however, is not the only reason. According to participants, many other factors affect the number of visits they pay for a teacher. A critical one is that of teachers' needs. While one participant affirmed that novice teachers need more visits than experienced ones, the second one asserted that some teachers, mainly those whose performance is ineffective, who have disciplinary problems, and whose learners are achieving little progress, need to improve their practices, and hence, they need to be visited more frequently than others. Another important factor highlighted by participants was their busy schedule. With a number of seminars to be held with teachers, seminars to

participate in with experts, administrative work, and meetings with the tutelage, it's difficult for inspectors to schedule classroom visits.

Classroom visits can help achieve a number of training objectives. For one participant, the major aim of classroom visits is to improve learners' achievement through improving teachers classroom practices and performance. Likewise, the second participant indicated that these visits help checking the quality of the teachers and the lessons they present, confirming teachers, giving advice and adjusting teaching, and encouraging positive practices. To achieve the set objectives, inspectors observe different aspects of the teaching/learning situation. One participant said that he focuses on the teacher and the way he presents the lesson. He stated : "we observe the teacher's attitude and behaviour and the way he teaches, he corrects, he monitors and even how he copes with unexpected situations". The second participant said that he observes the teacher and the learners; that is, the teachers' performance: lesson's framework (procedure, staging, organisation, interaction, evaluation ...), and the learners' reaction, motivation, achievement and learning.

It is not uncommon to hear teachers expressing their negative attitudes towards classroom visits by inspectors, and the stress they feel when being observed. Algerian teachers are no exception. Participants maintained that most of the time teachers do not like classroom visits, and that rarely are those who are happy about such visits. One further explained that their reaction depends on the circumstances and how ready they are. Nevertheless, most of the time, he added, teachers show a welcoming reaction. Holding such negative attitudes, teachers can't reasonably be expected to ask for classroom visits. Indeed, participants indicated that mainly novice teachers who seek improvement and those who need a mark to get a promotion do ask for classroom visits. Teachers are not involved in planning classroom visits. Arguing for this unexpected nature of the visits, one participant said that those visits are confidential, while the other claimed that unexpected visits "keep the teachers on their toes". The visits are always followed by a post-visit

conference or a post observation phase. One participant said that during this phase he directs teachers, consolidates the positive points and tries to remedy the negative ones, while the second one stated that he focuses on the learning objectives, learning outcomes, procedure, learners' achievements and reaction, ...etc.

To effectively observe a teaching/learning situation, one needs to have considerable background knowledge and to develop some basic observation skills. To find out whether the participants have the needed knowledge and skills, they were given three statements with which they were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree. Both participants strongly agreed with the three statements. That is, they believe that they are familiar with a range of techniques for observing classes, they can handle feedback sessions with trainee and experienced teachers in a constructive and sympathetic way, and that they have clear criteria for lesson observation and can assess observed lessons, fairly and accurately.

The last question included in this section aimed at finding out how participants perceive the value classroom visits. Answering this question, participants agreed that though this is an important form of teachers training, it is yet to bring about the desired improvements in the teachers performance. This is mainly attributed to the current limited frequency and duration of those visits which is a direct consequence of many factors.

5.2.6. Training Seminars/Workshops

This section includes questions about another common form of TPD in the Algerian context, namely teacher training seminars/workshops. It aims at shedding light on the different aspects of the training seminars/workshops including, among others, the frequency of the seminars, the content, the objectives, the conduct and organisation, and the context.

To start with, the number of training seminars participants hold is somehow different. While one participant said he holds two to three seminars per year, the second one was found to hold not

less than four seminars per year. As stated by participants, such frequency is dictated by a number of factors including: administrative rules, financial support, teachers' needs, inspector availability(participant 1), particular teachers' needs, the importance of target topics, and field reality after a set of classroom visits (participant 2).

Answering a question about what aspects they focus on when selecting the training content, one participant affirmed that both the content knowledge of the subject and the pedagogy of the subject are important, "they are complementary". The second participant, however, revealed that he focuses on the pedagogy saying: "It's rather the pedagogy of the subject. The teachers are mostly concerned with "the know how" i.e developing their teaching skills (the effectiveness in transmitting knowledge)". Both participants, however, confirmed that they take into account teachers prior knowledge and experience when selecting the training content. One of them said that teachers' needs have to be taken into account. He added, if there are, for instance, new pedagogical issues that may need to be explained, he includes them in the training seminars. Moreover, both asserted that the content selected build on and relate to that of previous training seminars though "it happens that the seminar might have a totally different objective" (participant 1).

Training seminars, as stated by participants, do include classroom practice though not always. One participant stated that he sometimes include classroom practice explaining: "I sometimes include it; learning through observing and doing on the spot and it's likely to be convincing". The second participant also stressed the importance of classroom practice saying: "teachers won't be able to apply what they learn unless they go through the practice phase". Speaking about the roles they assume during the seminars, participants provided a range of roles including that of a speaker, leader, monitor, partner, adviser (task-based training), and guide.

The objectives of the training seminars are set by the inspectors who are in charge of planning and conducting the seminars. Determining those objectives, they take into account a

number of factors. Commonly cited ones are the teachers' needs and the prior classroom visits. One participant added that he determines the objectives based on "identifying the requirements, specific reasons/purposes and benefits of accomplishing the targeted objectives, identifying the target teacher category to be involved, and taking into account prior visits and the specific teachers' concerns".

It is widely argued that a teacher trainer should exhibit certain qualities to succeed in performing his training roles. According to one participant, those qualities include leadership skill, guidance, accuracy, consistency, integrity, efficiency, and trustworthiness. The second participant mentioned the value of qualities such as large pedagogical knowledge, fluency, excellent contact with teachers, leadership, knowledge about teaching, ability to maintain debates and discussions, ability to think on his feet to cope quickly with situations that require quick solutions.

A teacher trainer may use a variety of instructional techniques when presenting a training seminar. The choice of the technique is dependent upon the training content and the objectives to be attained. Discussing this issue, participants argued that the use of different techniques render the training more interesting and more fruitful. Indeed, both of them stress the importance of involving teachers and giving them the chance to practice the learned material and receive feedback. One participant said: "I may start with lecturing in order to introduce the new knowledge to teachers. Then I move to workshops where teachers will implement the new things". He added: "everything will be practised by teachers. That is learning by doing. Feedback is part and parcel of the training". The second participant, on his part, listed a set of techniques that he prefers using. This included: interaction, involvement through tasks, showing models of successful practices (evidence), and practising on the spot. In addition to providing opportunities to practice the new skills, participants said that they also model the new practices in the seminars though not always. One of them stated: "I model those new practices most of the time. It

demonstrates the effectiveness of the new practices”, while the other argued: “I do. This is how teachers can learn”.

Talking about the timing of the training seminars, one participant acknowledged that he doesn't always manage to cover all the designed items due to unexpected circumstances. Contrarily, the second participant affirmed that the time scheduled for the seminars is usually sufficient to complete the tasks and meet the training objectives. He said: “I have always covered the items which have been planned. I plan only activities that can be covered .i.e. the number of tasks I plan should be in accordance with time allotted”.

For a training activity to be an effective one, it should be conducted in an appropriate context where all the necessary requirements are afforded. According to participants, the training facilities and the equipments are most of the time appropriate and conducive to learning.

The quality and the effectiveness of a training activity can only be evaluated based on the extent to which trainees transfer what they learn into their everyday practice. As such, it is of paramount importance to examine whether they implement the learnt material or not. A fact both participants are well aware of. In fact, both of them indicated that they follow up, monitor and evaluate the outcomes of the training seminars in the field, mainly through classroom visits. Through their observations during those visits, it was noticed that teachers do not always apply what they learn in the seminars to their job. Both participants agreed that only some teachers do. One of them argued that these are mainly novice teachers. He said: “It works well with novice teachers. Older ones are somehow reluctant towards change”, while the second one related it to the quality of teachers.

The findings show that the decision makers in the design of teachers training seminars differ according to the teacher trainer in charge. While one participant said that he is the one who made decisions, the second one revealed that he involves teachers in making decisions particularly

about the training content. He stated: “the two. Sometimes, it’s me and sometimes it’s the teachers. After each seminar, I ask them about the content of the next seminar”.

A training event can only be relevant to teachers if it meets their professional development needs. Such needs can be assessed through a needs analysis process. Participants showed that they recognize the role of analysing these needs mainly to select relevant content and to set objectives that connect to those needs. In fact, both of them affirmed that they do run needs analysis to find out teachers PD needs. When asked how, one said “I ask them at the end of the seminar to propose content. I get their needs analysis through classroom visits, too”. The second participant agreed saying: “From a set of prior visits and the evidence gathered from the field”. Those needs analysis processes led participants to conclude that teachers do need further PD in three main areas, namely: teaching techniques, psychopedagogy (participant 1), and using ICTs in teaching (participant1). Unexpectedly, participants confirmed that the training provided in the seminars do meet those needs.

Including an evaluation element in a training activity is a critical step towards training effectiveness. Such evaluation can be conducted in different ways. Participants showed that they are fully aware of the importance of evaluating the training seminars they organize and of reflecting on their own performance. One of them stated: “I conduct evaluations after each seminar by asking teachers to provide me with answers on some questions related to the seminar I generally hold”. Moreover, participants revealed that teachers’ reactions to the training seminars are most often positive.

In the literature on TPD, an extensive range of features of successful training seminars can be found. According to participants, a successful training seminar is one that is characterised by: achievement of the outcomes, participants involvement and positive reaction, adoption of new practices, readiness for change (participant 1), and inclusion of a practice stage (participant 2). On the other hand, they revealed that there are some negative features characterizing training

seminars in our context. While one of them blamed teachers arguing that they quickly get bored and they sometimes don't apply what has been presented, the second one raised the issue of the inspectors' heavy load and that of the training conditions. He said : "there are two negative features, the number of teachers inspectors are in charge of, and inappropriate training conditions (lack of sophisticated materials, unequipped /uncomfortable amphitheatres, no internet access..)".

5.2.7. Internal Educational Seminars

Internal educational seminars play an important role in teachers training in the Algerian context. This section aims at finding out what participants think of those seminars.

When asked whether they participate in the internal seminars with teachers, both participants said they do, though not always. Such seminars, according to participants are advantageous and fruitful; they help teachers learn from each other. However, as one participant argued, the problem is that "it's hard to convince teachers of peer observation".

5.2.8. ICTs Training and Distance Learning

With the spread of ICTs and their extensive use in educational contexts, it has become a necessity to train teachers on their use and on their integration in their classes. Raising this issue, participants affirmed that they do use ICTs in training teachers, but they do not train them on their use. Given that participants acknowledged that they need further PD on the use of ICTs, they are in no position to train others on their use. When asked about the teachers' use of ICTs in their classes, participants agreed that they rarely do. According to participants, this is mainly due to lack of materials and skill in using ICTs appropriately, and to some teachers negative attitudes towards using them. One participant said: "teachers, mainly experienced ones, are not keen on using technology. Some are afraid of change".

In recent years, online training has widely been adopted as a form of teacher training. This form of training, which has proved to be advantageous in many ways, can be provided in

different ways; online courses, networks, platforms, etc. As participants expressed, such online teacher training opportunities are very beneficial, interesting and useful, and that's why they encourage teachers to participate in. However, only one of them affirmed that he tries to provide teachers with an online training opportunity. He explained that he created a facebook page for teachers to give them the chance to learn from each other and exchange teaching experiences.

5.2.9. Suggestions for Improving Teacher Professional Development

In the last question in the interview participants were asked to suggest ways for improving teacher professional development in the Algerian context. Indeed, participants shared a set of interesting suggestions. One participant said: "there are many ingredients which need to be fulfilled. Peer observation, communication between teachers of the same school, the creation of web-pages and online courses, and participation in webinars and seminars". The second participant suggested taking the following measures: varying forms of training, supporting teacher training by creating specialised net forums and magazines, involving university teachers in the process of teacher training, and equipping teachers and schools with necessary materials.

5.3. Analysis and Interpretation of the Observation Results

One of the best ways to find out what attitudes teachers hold toward the training sessions (including seminars and workshops) is to observe them in action; to observe what happens in these sessions and what reactions and behaviours teachers do exhibit as these are greatly informed by their own attitudes towards those sessions. Accordingly, among the research methods adapted to generate answers to the questions raised in this study was observation, more precisely participant observation. To get the most out of the observation process, a checklist for high quality PD training was adopted and employed during both the

observation and the analysis phase. Hence, this section is devoted to the analysis and interpretation of the data gathered through the observation process.

An essential first step in analyzing observational data involves organizing the collected data into a manageable form. That is, reducing and bringing the reams of collected data into manageable chunks. This, however, can only be done after reading through and becoming familiar with the data (Wilson, *Essentials of Business Research: A Guide to Doing Your Research Project*, SAGE, 2010, p.257-8). As for this study, the observational data collected through the observation checklist were read and rearranged into three major categories namely: the context, the content and the process. The context includes observations of the various settings of the PD experience, describing the location, the facilities, the equipments, in addition to the timing. The content involves the issues and topics explored through the PD activity, whereas the process relates to its conduct and organization.

5.3.1. The Context

Prior to the analysis of the observational data, it is of paramount importance to give a description or summary of what has been observed in the field. Indeed, a systematic description of the varying aspects of an observed situation provides a context for the analysis to follow. Hence, the aim of this section is to document and describe the actions and interactions happening during the observed training seminars.

The field observation consisted of five teacher training seminars observed over the academic year 2018-2019. The five seminars were held at two different secondary schools in Jijel, namely, Kaoula Tounes Secondary School in the city center, and Ahmed Francis Secondary School in Sidi Abd ElAziz. One of these seminars was intended to induction non-

tenured teachers, while the other four ones were structured to provide PD for all in-service teachers. Details about the context of the five seminars are summarized in the following table.

Table.5. 43.

Observation Context Information

Seminar	Date	Location	Participants	Duration
Seminar N° 1	October, 16 th , 2018	Kaoula Tounes Secondary School, Jijel	18 induction non- tenured teachers	9 a.m. to 13 p.m.
Seminar N° 2	November, 20 th , 2018	Kaoula Tounes Secondary School, Jijel	44 novice and experienced teachers	9. 00 a.m. to 15 p.m.
Seminar N° 3	November, 27 th , 2018	Kaoula Tounes Secondary School, Jijel	46 novice and experienced teachers	9. 00 a.m. to 15 p.m.
Seminar N° 4	December, 11 th , 2018	Ahmed Francis Secondary School, Sidi Abd Elaziz	43 novice and experienced teachers	9 a.m. to 14 :30p.m.
Seminar N° 5	December, 12 th , 2018	Ahmed Francis Secondary School, Sidi Abd Elaziz	46 novice and experienced teachers	9 a.m. to 13p.m.

The training seminars were held in different rooms with different features. As for the induction teachers seminar, it took place in a rather small meeting room with separate tables arranged in a rectangular pattern. The two other seminars at Kaoula S.S. were conducted in the school amphitheater, whereas those held in Francis S. S. were conducted in an amphitheater-style classroom. The rooms were large enough to accommodate the intended participants. They had sufficient lighting, but were not well-ventilated as there was a need to close the doors and the windows to avoid pupils disturbance. Consequently, the temperature inside those amphitheatres was not comfortable. Moreover, the chairs were hard wooden ones which usually results in teachers experiencing hard times sitting on them for prolonged periods during seminars.

5.3.2. The Content

The observed training seminars tackled three different topics which directly relate to the teaching pedagogy. To start with, the induction teachers seminar covered the issue of “planning and textbook adaptation” which is a particularly important issue for novice teachers who closely stick to the content of the textbook when planning their lessons. Sticking to the textbook can make teachers feel safer and more confident; however, this has not proved to be an effective or a practical way of using the textbook. The textbook, as McTighe (Foreword, in Lent, 2012, IX) proclaims, is “*not* the syllabus”, it is “a resource” that should be used thoughtfully and judiciously by teachers who should know when to stick to the textbook, and when and how to depart from it.

Another topic discussed during two seminars was Bloom’s taxonomy of educational objectives. Indeed, the content presented was the same in both seminars as the training provider was the same but with two different groups of teachers. Blooms taxonomy is basically a classification system for cognition which is represented by a hierarchy of cognitive skills ranging from the simplest (knowledge) to the most complex one (evaluation). The fact that this taxonomy serves as a guide for teachers to develop lesson plans that move students from simple easy learning tasks to more difficult ones renders it necessary for teachers to develop a clear understanding of its concepts and the ways in which it can be best used.

The content of the last two observed seminars revolved around the issue of “the project pedagogy”. One major characteristic of this pedagogy is the integration of the project work to promote learners autonomy and enhance their learning. Indeed, it is through the project work that the principles of the CBA -adapted in the Algerian educational system since 2002- can be put into operation. Rich et al.(2005, p. 17) argue “it is only through carrying out project work that we and our learners can live up to the basic principles of the Competency-Based

Approach". Accordingly, if teachers are to effectively apply the CBA, they need to know what project works their students should conduct, how and when to conduct them, and how to make the most of them in measuring their learners performance. As a matter of fact, a training seminar on such topic would equip teachers with the knowledge and skills necessary to efficiently implement the project work.

5.3.3. The Process

The training seminar process, referring to the conduct and organization of the training seminar, was observed using the Observation Checklist for High-Quality PD Training. According to this checklist, observing the training process entails observing six main domains namely: preparation, introduction, demonstration, engagement, evaluation and mastery.

Preparation

Preparation refers to the way the training provider prepares teachers and readies them for the training at the beginning of the session. This initial phase is an important one that can affect the entire training session. Indeed, it is in this crucial time that the provider can set a positive learning atmosphere welcoming and orientating teachers to what they will be doing during the training seminar and why it is important. As revealed by the observations conducted, the preparation domain of the attended seminars could be considered high quality as all the four indicators were present at the beginning of the seminars.

As for the induction teachers seminar, the training started with a warm welcoming of the participants where the provider established a positive rapport with the participant teachers welcoming them all, introducing himself to new ones, and thanking them for coming. Following was a description of the topic to be dealt with and the intended learning objectives. those objectives were stated as follows : By the end of the in-service training, the participants

will be better enabled to : (1) Plan lessons effectively, (2) improve classroom practices, (3) manage time appropriately and (4) adapt textbooks to course and learning objectives.

Afterward, the provider gave teachers a set of questions about the intended topic to think about prior to the training. Examples of those questions are: “what is planning?”, “How are the lessons generally planned?”, and “how do you use the textbook?”

The preparation phase of the two seminars about the project pedagogy went on in almost the same manner. After welcoming teachers, the training provider raised the issue of students failure to write in English asking teachers some probing questions such as : “why do students fail to write in English ? » and “How much time do you devote to production /writing ?”. Discussion of the posed questions led up to the issue of the project work which was the training topic. The provider then explained to teachers that the project pedagogy would be the topic of the training which was expected to achieve tow main objectives: (1) teachers will display their knowledge about the project pedagogy and better conduct project works to enhance learning, and (2) teachers will put in practice the project pedagogy to promote learners autonomy, self-reliance and engagement with learning. The description of the training objectives was followed with an outline of the seminar contents.

The seminars about Blooms taxonomy were similarly well begun. A warm welcome was extended to the participants before engaging them in an opening activity giving them handouts including a set of instructions and asking them to reorder them from the most difficult to the least difficult ones. Teachers discussions and justifications of their answers led them to talk about Bloom’s taxonomy of educational objectives. At that point, the training provider introduced the issue to be tackled during the seminar and the intended objectives.

Introduction

Once the participants are set ready for the training, it’s time for the trainer to put the participants in a most receptive mood through effectively bringing in and introducing the

topic to be dealt with during the training. Without a doubt, a good introduction of the topic can greatly influence teachers' attitudes towards the whole training session. Indeed, it is in this phase that the trainer captures the participants' attention and creates initial interest in the training topic; connecting it to participants context, grounding it in empirical research and emphasizing its impact on their teaching.

As for the induction teachers' seminar, the training provider did work out an interesting introduction. To spark participants' interest in the training topic "planning and textbook adaptation", the trainer made a provocative statement saying that teachers, especially novice ones, face real problems when planning lessons and that they do not use textbooks appropriately when doing so. The teachers' comments and the discussion generated through this question helped relate the topic to the participants' context, as most teachers shared their real-life teaching experiences reflecting on how they plan lessons, how they use the textbook, and what problems they face. To further deepen and enrich the discussion, the trainer provided some relevant citations. Examples are : "Reflect on your lessons, what worked and what didn't (Hannah Dayton)", "don't just be a teacher that day, be a human and good listener (Tenpa Rhichoe)", and "1/ don't talk too much, 2/ after every lesson, stop and ask yourself what you could have done differently, 3/ never teach the same lesson twice, try out new things all the time, 4/ work on keeping your English up to date, 5/ remember, you are also learning (Penny Roux)". As found out during the observation, the training topic built on the PD events which had previously been held and which tackled the topic of lesson plan and unit plan. Knowing how to plan effective lessons and how to get the most out of the textbook when planning is undoubtedly among the most goals valued by the teachers. Aligning with such goal was the content introduced during the training seminar. A key point, however, which needs to be considered during the introduction phase is the expected impact of the training content on beneficiaries' outcomes. Such impact was indeed greatly emphasized by the trainer

in the seminar who stressed the impact of lesson plans on students outcomes explaining that having well-prepared and well-organized lessons would help students achieve better learning outcomes.

The introduction phase of the training seminar about the project pedagogy opened with a question about the project works. The trainer asserted first that teachers had not been considering project works specially with third year students, then he asked a direct question about the reasons saying: “why don’t teachers consider project works with third year students?”. This question helped connect the content of the seminar to teachers’ real teaching contexts as most of them participated in the debate raised reflecting on their own classroom experiences and sharing the reasons they had not been considering project works. It was noticed that as opposed to the first seminar, the trainer did not refer to any empirical research foundation of the content. Moreover, the content did not relate to or build on the content of the PD previously received by teachers. On the other hand, the fact that the project work is a key feature of the CBA currently followed in the Algerian educational context renders the training topic of great value for teachers. As a matter of fact, it has been widely argued that the project work plays an important role in promoting learners autonomy and helping them develop a variety of competencies. Such importance was greatly emphasized by the trainer who stressed the need for teachers to consider project works not only as a teaching/learning strategy, but also as an evaluating one asserting that the project work provides teachers with great opportunities to evaluate and check whether their students have developed the desired competencies or not.

As for the seminar about Blooms Taxonomy, the introduction was somehow brief and was carried out in a different way. Once the training objectives had been defined, the trainer asked teachers about Bloom and his taxonomy of educational objectives. The observation

revealed that teachers had a sound background knowledge of the topic. Indeed, most of them were actively engaged in this opening discussion reflecting particularly on how they use Bloom's taxonomy when planning their lessons generally and when stating their lessons objectives and planning progressively more challenging activities particularly. In fact, such topic is of great value for teachers as it is well argued that using Bloom's taxonomy would help teachers improve the quality of the lessons they plan, and hence would help students achieve better learning outcomes. Though the trainer did not refer to some citations or references to research literature about the topic, he did emphasize the impact of the content on teachers planning of lessons and on their students learning consequently.

Demonstration

Demonstration refers to the way the trainer presents and explains the training content to participants. In many ways, demonstration is a critical domain that can inform the quality of the training session. Indeed, a good demonstration as Noonan, Langham and Erickson (2013, p. 2) claim, is one that builds shared vocabulary required to implement and sustain the practice, provides examples of the content/practice in use, and illustrates the applicability of the material, knowledge, or practice to the participants' context.

The content of the induction teachers seminar was presented in a highly interactive way. The trainer helped teachers build a clear understanding of the training content through a clear step by step presentation using the data projector and the PowerPoint slides. What was noticed during this session, however, is that the trainer had to tickle a number of different points which were not part of the designed training content in order to answer teachers different questions. As novices, teachers were noticeably keen to discover and find answers to many questions. Throughout the demonstration, the trainer provided teachers with a set of examples which would allow them to relate the content of the training to their everyday teaching practices. For

instance, when discussing the issue of “writing learning objectives”, the trainer gave teachers some examples of learning objectives written by teachers and analyzed them collaboratively with participants showing them the errors they usually commit when stating lesson objectives and how to avoid them. The applicability of the training content to the teachers’ context was greatly illustrated by the trainer who continuously explained to teachers how to apply the learned material on the job. For example, after explaining to teachers what they need to consider when writing a lesson plan, he showed them practically how to write a lesson plan step by step.

As for the seminars about the project pedagogy, the trainer did adapt a task based presentation strategy instead of the classic lecturing one. That is, for each element of the training content, the trainer first set a task for teachers to do either individually, in pairs, or in groups, followed by a group discussion. A good example is the one about defining the project work. Instead of giving teachers the definition directly, the trainer assigned teachers a task asking them first to individually write their own definition of the concept thinking of learners task, teachers role, and the end product, then –in pairs- to compare their own definition with that of their partners, and finally –in groups of five- to agree on a definition. This presentation strategy/ technique was, indeed, highly engaging and helped teachers gain understanding not only of the training content but also of how to apply the content to their teaching contexts. What is more, the presentation was not without examples of the content in use. For instance, to show teachers how to evaluate project works, the trainer provided them with some real examples of project works conducted by learners and discussed with them the evaluation method for each one.

Bloom’s taxonomy of educational objectives and the related issues were thoroughly explained during the two last seminars. In fact, the trainer used a presentation method

characterized by the utilization of tasks, questions, and examples from teachers contexts.

Using the data projector, PowerPoint slides, the white board, and handouts, the trainer did widely succeed in covering the training topic and facilitating teachers learning. The presentation started with a short biography of Bloom followed by a rich discussion of his taxonomy, the six levels, stating smart objectives, the verbs aligned with each level, and the difference between the original taxonomy and the revised one. A very positive aspect of this seminar was the exemplifying strategy adapted by the trainer. Indeed, each time the trainer explained a point (for example the six levels of Bloom's taxonomy), he gave teachers related examples from the textbooks they use. This enormously helped teachers see the usefulness of the training material for their classroom teaching. Moreover, the different tasks (individual, in pairs, or in groups) set by the trainer, the discussions raised, and the explanation provided could but to have given teachers a clear understanding of how to make use of the learned material when teaching. A good example is the application of Bloom's taxonomy not only when stating lesson objectives, but also when planning the whole lessons moving from easy points to more challenging ones.

Engagement

For a PD event to succeed in achieving the desired learning outcomes, it should engage both the hearts and the minds of participants. Indeed, engaging participants in the learning process is a key feature of successful PD practices. Such feature can practically be attained through including opportunities for participants to practice the new skills, to express personal perspectives, and to interact with others, as well as through adhering to agenda and time constraints.

The induction teachers seminar was highly engaging. In actual fact, the seminar included ample opportunities for teachers to practice the learned material. Indeed, there was a

practice part where teachers were asked to practice the new learned skill “how to write a lesson plan” and another about unit plans where they were asked to prepare a sequence of learning considering the learning outcomes and the procedures to follow to achieve them. The collaborative nature of the set tasks allowed teachers to interact with each other and to exchange knowledge and experiences. Moreover, the trainer not only gave teachers opportunities to express their personal perspectives, but he indeed encouraged them to do so. Consequently, teachers did openly share their thoughts and personal experiences in constructive fruitful group discussions led by the trainer. Though the trainer somehow adhered to time constraints, he could not adhere to the training agenda as novice teachers asked various questions, some of which were not related to the training content. What was noticed, however, is that though the training topic was stated to be planning and textbook adaptation, most of the training was only about planning. That is, textbook adaptation was not attributed as much importance or as much time as lesson planning.

The task based strategy used by the trainer during the training seminars about the project pedagogy did work well in engaging teachers in learning. As the tasks were mostly done in pairs or in groups, teachers had great opportunities to interact with each other and to discuss different points related to the training topic. However, most of the tasks were mainly for presentation, not for practice. That is, teachers had only fair chances of practicing or rehearsing the learned material. The good relation between the trainer and the teachers (as observed and as expressed by many participants) encouraged teachers to participate in the tasks and made them feel at ease and willing to express their personal thoughts and experiences. As opposed to the first seminar, the trainer managed to adhere to the training agenda as well as to time constraints.

The seminars were equally engaging. The demonstration method adapted by the trainer opened up plenty of opportunity for teachers to acquire and practice the new skills. As a matter of fact, it is the numerous tasks set for teachers during the seminars that helped them rehearse and practice those skills. A good example of rehearsing opportunities is the task given by the end of the seminar where the trainer gave teachers handouts, each including an instruction or a question, requesting them to ask each other the question and then to exchange the papers with other colleagues and to do the same as a means of revising the learned material. Examples of such questions are: what is the level of Bloom's taxonomy? Recalling is a verb which represents the understanding level, true or false? Give two verbs which are to align with the highest level? and which domain of Bloom's taxonomy are educators interested in and why? As for practice, teachers were given a number of tasks. An example is the task where teachers were asked to reorder some given instructions according to the six levels of Bloom's taxonomy, and the one requesting them to fill in the gaps to complete a passage about how Bloom's taxonomy can help with course design. Most of those tasks were in the form of pair or group works which facilitates teachers interaction with each other and allowed them to exchange thoughts and share their fieldwork experiences. A negative point about these seminars, however, is that teachers were somehow noisy and sometimes inattentive which obliged the trainer to ask them to be quite and to follow each time. The trainer managed to cover the training contents and did successfully adhere to the training set schedule.

Evaluation

Evaluation represents a critical aspect of successful TPD activities. Indeed, it is through evaluation that TPD providers can obtain needed information to judge the success of the TPD activity or program, and accordingly to bring about the necessary improvements. Such information can be collected through teachers own assessment of their acquisition of

knowledge and skills, through their reactions, reflections, or else through specific indicators of successful transfer of the learned material or skills to practice.

The induction teachers training seminar was not without the principal element of evaluation. Indeed, to ensure the effectiveness of the training, the trainer did make use of two different evaluation methods. First of all, by the end of the training session, the trainer gave teachers the opportunity to reflect on their learning asking them whether the pre-defined training objectives had been attained or not. This was followed by a another question for teachers requesting them to evaluate the training and to freely express their thoughts as what might have improved the training session.

The same evaluation methods were used during the seminars about the project pedagogy. In addition to giving teachers the opportunity to reflect on their learning posing a couple of evaluation questions: “what did you learn today ?” and “was the training beneficial to you ?”, the trainer did also ask teachers about the training objectives attainment saying “have the objectives of the seminar been achieved ?”. Moreover, Knowing that we were conducting a research about teachers PD, the trainer asked the researcher to share her evaluation of the training session with all the training participants.

The evaluation aspect was equally present in the seminars about Bloom’s taxonomy. By the end of the seminars, the trainer engaged teachers in the evaluation process by asking them to take a piece of paper and write their evaluation of the training session. It worths mentioning that the trainer asked teachers not to write their names in an attempt to encourage teachers to be honest and hence to get more reliable evaluations. Moreover, the trainer helped teachers figure out what training aspects to evaluate asking them some related questions such as : what did/ didn’t you like about the training? What do you think about the trainer, the

presentation form, and the training topic? What topics would you like to deal with in the future training sessions? Etc.

What was noticed during the seminars attended is that teachers did not hesitate to take part in the evaluation process. Whether orally or in a written form, teachers did openly share their evaluations of the different aspects of the training sessions. This was due mainly to the open-minded character of the trainers who encouraged teachers to reflect on the training seminars and welcomed all their positive as well as negative evaluations.

Mastery

Mastery refers to the knowledge participants gain, the thorough understanding they build and the skills they develop as a result of completing a PD or a training activity. In education, such mastery is reflected through the level of teachers transfer of the abstract learned material to concrete teaching practice. Towards this end, teachers training providers should consider three key points ; that the training details follow-up activities that require participants to apply their learning in a new setting or context, that it offers opportunities for continued learning through technical assistance and resources, and that it describes opportunities for coaching to improve fidelity of implementation (Nonan et al., 2013, p. 3).

As revealed through the observation process, mastery, as opposed to other domains, was either not present at all in the seminars, or only received marginal attention. As for the induction teachers seminar, though the trainer insisted on teachers to apply what they had learned about planning and textbook adaptation, he did not give them follow up activities that require them to do so. However, the trainer did offer teachers an opportunity for continued learning giving them a book about the topic in the form of a PDF entitled “Action plan for Teachers” and asked them to read it. Likewise, in the seminars about the project pedagogy the mastery items were almost completely missing. Indeed, they were limited to stressing the

need for teachers to transfer what they learned about dealing with the project works to their contexts, and asking teachers to collaborate inviting each other to attend project presentations and to share experiences. The same was observed regarding the seminars about Bloom's taxonomy. Except the handouts provided by the trainer about Bloom's taxonomy and the verbs to be used when writing lesson objectives, which can be used by teachers when applying the learned material, and the trainer's insistence on teachers to do so, nothing else about mastery was recorded.

Conclusion

This chapter presented the results obtained from the various research instruments used by the researcher. It started with a detailed account of the findings of the questionnaire survey, then it reported on the findings of the interview. The chapter then presented the results of the observation process. A summary and a thorough discussion of those findings in addition to some recommendations and the conclusions drawn will comprise the concluding chapter of this thesis.

Chapter Six: Discussion of Findings and Conclusions

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Chapter Six: Discussion of Findings and Conclusions

Introduction

This concluding chapter comprises four main parts. It opens with a discussion of the major findings which are examined, interpreted and evaluated against previous research and in the light of the research questions. The conclusions drawn and the implications of the findings are then presented followed by a discussion of the methodological problems and the limitations of the study. The chapter closes with some recommendations and provides some suggestions for future research.

Summary and Discussion of the Findings

Teaching is a profession that requires ongoing learning and professional development. Indeed, as there is constant changes and developments in the teaching/learning field, teachers learning does not and should not end once the period of their formal training is over. The value of teacher professional development has recently been emphasized by researchers and practitioners alike. Many TPD models and practices have been adopted worldwide, some have proved successful, while others have not been able to support teachers and sustain their PD.

The study aimed at investigating teachers attitudes towards the teacher professional development program set by the Ministry of National Education. To achieve this aim, three research instruments were used. The first one is a questionnaire issued to teachers to investigate their attitudes towards the different forms their TPD program consists of. This major instrument was supplemented by an interview with inspectors of national education who are in charge of teachers training, and observation of the teacher training seminars. The findings emerging from the research instruments revealed important facts about the way in which TPD activities are administered and delivered in the Algerian context and what

teachers think of these activities and their effectiveness in developing their professional knowledge and skills. Following is a discussion of those findings.

Teachers' Professional Development Needs

An important feature of effective TPD initiatives is that they should be based on teachers PD needs. Indeed, the literature on TPD suggests that an important initial step towards designing effective PD activities is to analyze teachers PD needs. This would help set well-defined objectives that connect to teachers' personal objectives as well as professional needs. The research findings indicate that while teachers feel well prepared for the content of the subject they teach, they are less prepared for the pedagogy and the classroom practice. This suggests that there is an urgent need to focus on these two elements when planning PD activities. The data suggests that what teachers do really need further PD on is approaches to individualized learning, pedagogical competencies, teaching cross-curricular skills, and to a less degree students evaluation and assessment practice. Drawing on their experiences during classroom visits, inspectors of national education highlighted different teachers PD needs. According to them, teachers need further PD on teaching techniques, psycho pedagogy and using ICTs in teaching.

A comparative analysis of the results of the question about teachers' current PD needs and the one about the topics covered during the training seminars and the impact they have had on their teaching yields the following conclusions:

- Though 'Knowledge and understanding of the subject', and 'Knowledge of the curriculum' represent some of the least needed PD areas, they were highly covered during training seminars/workshops. A fact which may lead to questions as to the relative usefulness or importance of training on such topics.

- The arguably needed areas of 'Pedagogical competencies in teaching the subject field' and 'Student evaluation and assessment practice' were justifiably dealt with in the training seminars/workshops.
- While the need for PD on 'ICT (information and communication technology) skills for teaching' and 'Student behaviour and classroom management' was noticed to differ among teachers, only almost half of them received training on these topics.
- Reported to be needed by two-thirds of the teachers in the sample, PD on 'Approaches to individualised learning' and 'Teaching cross-curricular skills' is apparently necessary.

However, these two areas are not as present in the training seminars/workshops as they should.

The Preparatory Pedagogical Training Program

The preparatory pedagogical training program is designed to cover nine basic aspects of teaching. The findings show that six among those aspects are largely covered. These are: education sciences and psychology, classroom management techniques, subject didactics and teaching methods, evaluation and pedagogical treatment, training and pedagogy, and information and communication technologies. However, Algerian educational system and educational curricula, professional ethics and school mediation are not given much importance in the program. The data from the interview correlate with those findings. Inspectors stated that the content of the PPTP they participated in as instructors consists of psycho pedagogy, classroom management, assessment, planning, teaching the four skills (listening, reading, speaking and writing), teaching some aspects of the language like grammar, motivation and the like. The findings from both the questionnaire survey and the interview suggest that there is a need to provide more opportunities for teachers to practice the learnt material during the program.

A training program cannot be said to be effective unless it achieves its predefined objectives. The PPTP with its current features is, indeed, found to be effective only to a certain extent. While it largely achieves some of its objectives such as: providing trainees with the necessary pedagogical support, developing their readiness to assume their roles and responsibilities, and encouraging them to collaborate with and benefit from their colleagues; it failed to attain others mainly: enlightening teachers as to the state's plans and trends and the society's problems, and raising their awareness of their professional duty and moral commitment; enabling them to achieve effective student education; and providing them with the basic mechanisms necessary to face the challenges of the teaching profession.

A real issue raised about the PPTP is the evaluation method. While it is established that trainees are to be evaluated using three different complementary methods namely: a final exam including written tests related to the program's content, a report written about a topic which has been dealt with during the training, and on the basis of ongoing pedagogical evaluation (periodical assessments in both theoretical and practical aspects), it was found that the latter is neglected in half cases.

The Mentoring Program

The role mentor teachers play in supporting beginning teachers and helping them meet the challenges of the teaching profession has always been acknowledged as a key factor in promoting their personal and professional development. However, to generate the desired developmental results, mentor teachers should perform a set of essential basic functions, namely: teaching, sponsoring, encouraging, counselling, befriending (Anderson & Shannon, 1988, p.40) in addition to evaluating. The study demonstrates a correlation between mentee and mentor teachers' perceptions of the functions of a mentor teacher. They see the mentor as someone whose role is mostly to encourage, to teach and to council a mentee teacher. Though

sponsoring, evaluating, and befriending are important functions too, they were only considered by both some mentor and mentee teachers. For inspectors, however, a mentor should perform all these functions.

To succeed in performing their roles, mentor teachers should exhibit certain qualities which deemed necessary components for the success of the mentoring roles and relationships. Among these are the skill, competence, willingness, and credibility. The data gathered suggests that mentors and mentees do perceive those qualities differently. While mentor teachers stress the importance of the mentor's skill in the area of working with adult learners and his competence in the subject area, mentee teachers think that willingness to spend time and energy to work with the mentees is more important, though they recognize the value of other qualities. On the other hand, credibility is the least needed quality according to both mentor and mentee teachers. Inspectors' perceptions were somehow different from those of teachers. As revealed in the interview, qualities such as: in-depth theoretical and practical knowledge of teaching, counseling skills, maintaining a good rapport with the inspector and colleagues, and coaching and mentoring competences are what characterizes a good mentor teacher. Accordingly, these are the factors, in addition to experience and commitment, that they consider most when assigning mentors to mentee teachers.

As suggested in the literature on mentoring, willingness to allocate time and to work with a mentee is an important factor that can determine the success or failure of a mentoring relationship. The data from both the questionnaire and the interview suggests that mentor teachers in Algerian secondary schools are often not willing to assume the role of mentors. This unwillingness - if reflected through their behaviours as mentors, could explain why mentee teachers classify willingness to spend time and energy to work with the mentee as the most important attribute of a good mentor teacher. Such persisting negative attitude towards

being a mentor has mainly been attributed to two factors: heavy teaching loads and lack of specialized training as mentors. Though it has widely been argued that mentor teachers should be provided with extensive mentor training including, among others, the areas of cognitive coaching, clinical supervision, communication skills, the needs and developmental stages of new teachers, and effective strategies for working with English Language Learners (2001 , p.145). This has not appeared to be the case in Algeria. The interview results indicate that mentor teachers do not actually receive any formal training geared towards developing their mentoring knowledge and skills.

The results demonstrate that teachers have not always accomplished all the 15 mentoring sessions requested by the Ministry of education. An important factor raised by a teacher and the inspectors alike is the distance between the geographic locations where mentor and mentee teachers work. While this has not always been the case, some teachers have found themselves struggling to reach the location where their mentors work. Such problematic situation can negatively affect the implementation of the mentoring program.

To achieve the desired outcomes of the mentoring program, the mentoring sessions are set to include a variety of theoretical and practical activities. Among the activities which have widely been accomplished by teachers are: recognizing and using educational documents, preparing lesson plans according to the CBA, preparing and presenting lessons while being observed by the mentor teacher', and holding a discussion on the issue of assessment and evaluation. While activities such as observing the mentor teacher presenting lessons and reflecting on all its aspects, preparing a test and discussing its content with the mentor teacher, examining and comparing the lesson plans of the mentor and the mentee, and examining some students copies together with the mentor teacher have less often been accomplished, others such as presenting a pedagogical treatment session while being observed by the mentor

teacher and preparing and presenting a research work on the importance of using ICTs in teaching English have rarely formed part of the mentoring sessions.

In the Algerian educational setting, the mentoring program teachers go through during their first year has as a major aim developing teachers' competencies in four main areas, namely: organizing and planning the learning situations, classroom management, assessing students work, and managing continuing professional development. The program, as revealed by teachers and inspectors alike, is only moderately effective in achieving these aims. However, they argued, the program can be improved by extending its time, training mentors, carefully selecting mentors, giving mentees the chance to learn from different mentors, supporting and motivating mentors, focusing on the practical side, and evaluating the program.

Inspection/Classroom Visits

The role they play in improving instructional practices renders inspection/classroom visits a key element for the success of the teaching/learning process. Indeed, this form of teacher supervision can, if properly applied, serve a set of TPD purposes. To adequately meet such purposes, however, a number of issues key to the success of the visitation procedures need to be considered, the first of which is the number of inspection visits that should be there per year. The results indicate that inspection visits are characterized by their limited frequency. A teacher is found to receive one, and in best cases two or three visits a year. In fact, the teachers experience plays a role in determining the number of visits. That is, less experienced teachers tend to receive more frequent inspection visits than experienced teachers.

Most teachers are found to be willing to receive more frequent and regular visits. Indeed, the reasons for such positive attitude are different. These are related to: the support

and guidance they receive from the inspector, the role played by the inspector in helping them achieve the desired improvement in their teaching practices, the feedback provided by the inspector, and the new things they learn from the inspector. Moreover, as revealed by teachers, classroom visits provide an opportunity for them to reflect on their own teaching and a positive experience which helps them improve the quality of their teaching.

Teachers with unfavourable attitudes ascribe their attitude to two main reasons, the stress, discomfort and anxiety they feel when being observed by the inspector; and the uselessness of those visits which they see beneficial only to novice teachers. Another reason uncovered through the interview, is the unexpected nature of the classroom visits. Though these visits are argued to be more effective if teachers are involved in their planning, this is not the case in the Algerian context. Teachers do not have a say in planning classroom visits.

Though inspectors too are willing to pay more frequent classroom visits to teachers, they are most often not able to. Indeed, different factors affect the frequency of their visits. These include: the large number of teachers they are in charge of, teachers' needs, and their busy working schedule. Inspectors revealed that contrary to their favourable attitude, teachers, apart from novice ones and those seeking promotion, do not ask for more visits. The major aim of classroom visits according to inspectors is improving learners' achievement through improving teachers classroom practices and performance. Towards this end, they observe the different aspects of the teaching/learning process including the teacher, the learners, and the teaching methods, and follow their visits with post-visit conferences where they give teachers the feedback on their performance. Inspectors revealed that they have the necessary knowledge and skills to effectively observe a teaching/learning situation, assess the observed lesson, and provide the necessary feedback.

The inspector is the key player in the supervisory process of classroom visits. Indeed, the success of this process is, to a large extent, dependent on his/her performance as a supervisor as well as the nature of the relation s/he establishes with the teachers. For such relation to be a constructive one, however, it should be built on trust and mutual respect. The findings demonstrate that teachers appreciate the way the inspectors deal with them during the visits. Indeed, most of them affirmed that they are usually courteous and respectful, they appraise them, and provide them with constructive feedback.

Training Seminars and Workshops

Training seminars/workshops is a common format of teacher training. Though it has been subject to a considerable amount of criticism, mainly regarding the standardized nature of the presented content (one size fits all mode) and its appropriateness for varied levels of participants' expertise, as well as the few opportunities provided for participants to practice and receive feedback, this training form is still widely adopted in different educational contexts. In fact, the literature suggests that there are three critical features which can, to a large extent, inform teachers' reactions, and determine the success or failure of any teacher training activity. These relate to the content of the training, the process, and the context. (Guskey, 2000, p. 95).

To start with, the findings show that the content covered during the training seminars is viewed favourably by the majority of teachers. Most teachers approve the nature of the topics and issues addressed which are stated to be interesting, well-organized, and relevant for teachers' daily practice. In addition, with the focus being on both the content knowledge and the pedagogical knowledge of the subject matter, the training content is considered helpful in building and expanding the teachers' professional knowledge base. This focus on content and pedagogical knowledge, however, is adversely associated with a lack of focus on classroom

practice. Though, as observed and as affirmed by inspectors, teachers do have opportunities to practice the learned material, these are just activities they do during the seminars that do not involve teaching real classrooms and receiving feedback. In fact, the lack of practicum and students teaching experiences does not only affect teachers' attitudes, but can greatly undermine the quality of the training session. Moreover, though inspectors affirm that they take into account teachers prior knowledge and experience when selecting training content, a good number of teachers believe that the content discounts the importance of their level of expertise. To exemplify, a topic such as planning and text book adaptation (covered during induction teachers seminar) would be an interesting one for novice teachers, but topics like Blooms taxonomy of educational objectives and the project pedagogy (covered during seminars attended by all teachers) are recurrent ones which experienced teachers are familiar with and feel needless. This, however, is directly attributed to the standardized nature of the training seminars and the lack of content individualization characterizing this format. Furthermore, agreed upon by only half participants, including new ideas and approaches, and forming a coherent PD program do not seem to be typical characteristics of the training seminars teachers attend.

The training seminars are found to be well-organized and well-conducted. The training objectives, which are often well-defined at the beginning of the training seminars, are conceived of as SMART ones which directly connect to teachers PD needs. Likewise, the training provider personal and professional characteristics as well as his performance are greatly appreciated by the overwhelming majority of teachers who approve the trainer good preparation and credibility, respectful behaviour, good discussion leading skills, supportive and encouraging style, and ability to communicate information effectively. The trainer's skilful use of educational technology, the way he helps linking concepts to actual

interpersonal situations, and the immediate feedback and positive reinforcement he provides are also valued by teachers, though to a lesser degree.

On the other hand, the varied instructional techniques and materials used during the training seminars are regarded as effective in helping teachers apply the learned material. Yet, accessibility to the necessary materials and resources is not always granted. The training activities are found to be characterized by their engaging nature, careful planning and organization, alignment with the training pre-defined objectives, variation and relevance, and the occasions they include for collegial sharing. However, these activities are not that effective in providing opportunities for personal planning and reflection and for practicing the new skills and receiving feedback. What is regarded mostly undesirable about the training activities is the fact that the new practices are not modelled by the trainer, though inspectors claimed the opposite. In fact, modelling or demonstrating how the presented skill is performed in real-life school situations can help bridge the gap between theory and practice and, hence, can improve the teachers' transfer of the learned material to their everyday teaching contexts. A particular concern about the training seminars is their timing. The amount of time scheduled for the training seminars is regarded as somehow insufficient to cover the training content and to meet the pre-defined objectives. Likewise, the time provided for the completion of tasks is sufficient only for less than half participants.

Another factor, in addition to the content and the process, which can significantly influence the quality of TPD, is the context in which it takes place. This basically relates to the when and where of the PD. The context of the training seminars is somehow questionable. While the quality of the facilities and equipments, as well as that of the audio-visual aids is somehow positively viewed by teachers, the appropriateness of the rooms for the training sessions, in addition to accessibility to the training location are real matters of concern for

both teachers and inspectors. Indeed, a key feature of effective PD initiatives is providing opportunities for teachers to learn collaboratively. Such collaborative learning can take a variety of forms, pair works, group assignments, group discussions, or project works among others. Bringing teachers together to learn collaboratively, however, entails offering adequate learning spaces that are suitable for such collaborative learning activities. As for the seminars observed, they are held in a large amphitheater or an amphitheater-style classroom which may accommodate double the number of participants, and are somehow suitable for the showing of slides and videos, yet, they are not conducive to group works. Indeed, group work can better take place in flexible learning spaces with movable tables and seats which is not the case in the spaces where the seminars are conducted. Similarly, while one training location can easily be accessed by some teachers, it can not be by others.

What renders TPD successful is the degree to which teachers transfer the knowledge and skills gained in PD activities to their jobs. Indeed, if teachers are not to take the material learned in PD activities and apply it to their teaching practices, then such activities will be needless. The results (from the questionnaire and the interview) indicate that teachers do transfer the learnt material to their everyday teaching, though not always.

Teachers' participation in decision making on the content, process, and context of PD has long been argued to considerably inform its effectiveness. Indeed, no one knows what teachers need to know and the best ways they learn better than teachers themselves. So, if TPD is to bring about the desired impact, teachers should have the opportunity to participate in deciding on both its content and process. Moreover, given the impact of contextual factors on teachers' attitudes and motivation to learn, it deems necessary to allow them to have a say in making decisions on the context of PD. While inspectors affirmed that they are often the decision makers and that they only involve teachers in selecting the content, the

overwhelming majority of teachers affirmed that the training seminars/workshops would be more effective if they participated in making decisions on their content, process, and context.

Internal Educational Seminars

As a form of peer observation, internal educational seminars provide teachers with great opportunities to collaborate, to share knowledge and experiences, and to reflect on their own teaching. Such collegial sharing will undoubtedly inform teachers' everyday practices and contribute to their professional development. As part of their PD, teachers in the Algerian context are required to plan and hold a number of internal educational seminars over the academic year. However, apart from being a requirement, the benefits of these seminars are expected to be a motivating factor for teachers to hold and participate in them. The findings show that though teachers recognize the value of internal educational seminars in developing their professional knowledge and improving their teaching practices, they do not frequently hold internal educational seminars and, most of the time, they participate in those seminars because they are required to, not because they are willing to.

Teachers' feelings about being observed by others when presenting a lesson can greatly inform their attitudes towards any of the activities that involve such observation practices. That is, while teachers who feel relaxed and at ease when being observed would have positive attitudes towards such activities, those who feel nervous and uncomfortable would experience hard times being observed and hence would take a less favourable attitude. The results about teachers' feelings about being observed are largely inconsistent with those about their reasons for participating in those seminars. That is, though most of them hold positive attitudes towards being observed, only few are willing to participate. This suggests that there are other potential reasons for teachers' unwillingness to participate in these seminars apart from their feelings about being observed.

Internal educational seminars represent a way through which the observation / assessment model of TPD is implemented in the Algerian context. In fact, these seminars are intended to help teachers learn and develop through giving them ample opportunities to observe each other teaching, to analyse and reflect on the teaching performance of the observed teacher, and to provide constructive feedback. Towards this end, these seminars should be structured in a systematic way. They should include (be built around) the four procedures of planning, observation, analysis and reflection, and collaborative determination of future actions. The findings show that among those procedures, the most frequently followed ones are analysis and reflection, and that of observation. Though the other two phases are important, they are rarely implemented.

There are many ways in which internal educational seminars can help sustain teachers PD. According to teachers, these seminars help them enhance their teaching skills and improve the overall quality of their instructional performance, they offer a valuable opportunity for teachers to reflect on their own teaching, they offer teachers an opportunity to share insights, knowledge and teaching experiences, and they give teachers opportunities to address teaching issues practically.

ICTs Training and Distance Learning

Given the importance of ICTs in facilitating the teaching/learning process, it is necessary to equip teachers with the knowledge and skills deemed essential to use and integrate these technologies into their teaching. Hence, teachers need to receive training geared towards developing these particular ICTs skills. The findings show that only few teachers have received formal training on the use of ICTs as part of their continuing PD. And even this training was mostly basic in nature. That is, it included basic operations, windows-based software, e-mail, internet, etc. In fact, the training, as revealed by teachers, was only

somehow effective in preparing them to effectively integrate ICTs in their classrooms. This is further confirmed by the inspectors who affirmed that teachers rarely integrate ICTs in their classrooms due to lack of materials and skill in using ICTs appropriately, and to some teachers negative attitudes towards using them.

Online training courses, networks, and platforms provide ample opportunities for teachers to learn and develop as professionals. Indeed, these forms of e-learning help teachers update their knowledge, share their experiences, and reflect on their teaching practices. These can include formal training courses in which teachers are required to take part, or informal ones in which they participate willingly. The results are largely unexpected. Though teachers do widely recognize the benefits of e-learning opportunities, particularly to help teachers learn and improve their teaching performance, and to share knowledge and exchange teaching experiences with teachers worldwide, and are encouraged by inspectors to take advantage of such opportunities, very few teachers have participated in them.

General Conclusion

With its value being widely recognized, the issue of teachers' professional development has fueled considerable research in the field of education. A wide range of teacher professional development models has been suggested and adapted in different educational contexts, each of which has its merits and limits. Of necessity, then, is to conduct systematic evaluation processes which have proved to be a critical feature of effective professional development practices. While an effective teacher professional development evaluation process has widely been perceived as one that probes deeply into the impact the professional development experience has had on the knowledge, skills and practices of teachers as well as on the learning outcomes of their students, determining such impact has been argued to involve answering questions about some related simpler levels as teachers attitudes and reactions to the professional development experience.

Accordingly, this study was an attempt to shed light on teacher professional development in the Algerian context. It aimed at exploring the attitudes of secondary school teachers' of English towards the formal teacher professional development program offered by the Ministry of National Education as a whole and towards the different activities making up the program. It also aimed at finding out what factors affecting teachers held attitudes. Investigating those attitudes would ultimately help uncover the limitations inherent in the program which in turn would help making informed decisions about the necessary improvements.

The first three chapters are an introduction to the thesis topic; establishing a theoretical framework, providing a comprehensive and critical review of the literature on teacher professional development, defining the key terms and reviewing the previous studies. While chapter one was devoted to a thorough review of teacher professional development theories and practices, chapter two establishes the context and background for the study addressing

teacher professional development in the Algerian context. The third chapter covered the issue of teacher professional development evaluation. The remaining last three chapters reported on the research process, the research findings, the conclusions reached, and the suggested recommendations for applying those conclusions.

To achieve the research aims, a mixed method design was adopted using three different data collection techniques: a questionnaire survey conducted with secondary school teachers to explore their attitudes towards the teacher professional development program and the factors affecting those attitudes, an interview with inspectors of national education and an observation of the teacher training seminars.

The analysis and interpretation of the research findings lent some support to the first assumption which states that secondary school teachers' attitudes towards the teacher professional development program set by the Ministry of National Education are likely to be negative. This general conclusion is basically drawn from teachers' rather negative attitudes towards a number of the different professional development activities making up the program. These attitudes can be described as follows:

- Teachers' attitudes towards the preparatory pedagogical training program are reported to be rather negative. In addition to the inconvenient way in which it was conducted and organized, the program was not that effective in achieving its predefined objectives and there was a clear lack of practice opportunities.
- Teachers have a rather neutral to negative attitudes towards the mentoring program. Particularly, and due to heavy teaching loads and lack of specialized training as mentors, mentor teachers clearly expressed a negative unwilling attitude to assume the role of a mentor. Moreover, the mentoring program was considered to be only moderately effective in developing novice teachers' competences.

- Most teachers hold positive attitudes towards the inspection visits. They attribute such positive attitude to the support, guidance, and feedback provided by the inspector and the opportunity such visits give them to reflect on and to improve their teaching performance. On the other hand, few teachers, mainly those with high level of anxiety, are found to have a negative attitude.
- Teachers' attitudes towards the teachers training seminars vary depending on the training aspect in question. The findings revealed that teachers appreciate the relevant and engaging content covered during the training seminars as well as the training conduct and organization, albeit to a lesser degree. Conversely, the majority of them expressed their discontent over the training context including accessibility to the training location and appropriateness of the training rooms, over the excessive focus on content and pedagogical knowledge and the lack of opportunities to practice the learned material and receive feedback, and over the insufficient time provided for the training session and for the completion of the given tasks.
- Though most teachers hold positive attitudes towards the role of internal educational seminars in improving their practices as well as towards being observed by others when teaching, only few ones are willing to participate in them.
- Only few teachers have received a formal training on the use of ICTs. According to teachers, this training was only somehow effective in preparing them to integrate ICTs in their classrooms. On the other hand, distance/online training doesn't form part of the teacher professional development program, and though teachers recognize the importance of such training opportunities, most of them do not participate in any informal one.

According to teachers, there are many ways in which the teacher professional development in the Algerian context can be improved. They believe that if the teacher

professional development program is to be more effective in expanding their professional knowledge and developing their professional skills, the following measures should be taken:

- Involving teachers in decision making about the content and process of their professional development activities
- providing more opportunities to teachers to practice and receive feedback,
- organizing more frequent professional development activities,
- providing teachers with training opportunities on advanced use of ICTs,
- providing formal online training opportunities for teachers,
- including interesting relevant topics,
- designing more activities that allow for more collaboration,
- providing training by specialists and experts in different educational fields (university teachers, for instance),
- providing differentiated training opportunities to meet the professional development needs of the different teachers,
- conducting professional development activities in appropriate contexts which are conducive to learning,

On the other hand, inspectors suggested improvements related to peer observation, communication between teachers of the same school, the creation of web-pages and online courses, and participation in webinars and seminars, varying forms of training, supporting teacher training by creating specialised net forums and magazines, involving university teachers in the process of teacher training, and equipping teachers and schools with necessary materials.

Limitations of the Study

Conducting this research, a number of issues rose to the surface and posed a challenge to the whole research process. These can be summarized as follows:

- The scope of the study is restricted to include only secondary school teachers in Jijel. Although all secondary school teachers in Algeria are offered the same TPD program, the findings can not be generalized to other teachers in other contexts.
- The sample size was restricted to 90 teachers and 2 inspectors. Hence, the findings can only be representative to the population of secondary schools in Jijel. The conclusions drawn need to be verified by conducting similar studies with a larger samples across different educational settings in the country.
- The research was limited to teachers' attitudes and reactions to the professional development program set by the Ministry of National Education.
- Translation posed also a challenge to the researcher. While there is a vast literature available in English on teacher professional development, this is not the case concerning the literature on teacher professional development in the Algerian context. The literature available is either in French or in Arabic. Hence, the researcher had to translate in many instances, particularly in the second chapter.

Recommendations

- Teachers' conflict with their work schedule has often been claimed to be a barrier and a hampering factor to teachers' participation in more professional development activities, being formal or informal ones. That is why it is recommended that teachers receive more sufficient scheduled time for professional development. Though teachers have half pedagogic day a week, this scheduled time seems to be insufficient especially with the substantial amount of work-related activities teachers do outside school hours.

- The professional development activities provided should be well-aligned with the types of professional development activities teachers want.
- Close cooperation with universities can render the teacher professional development activities more interesting and more effective. Such cooperation which may take different forms (organizing conferences and workshops to secondary school teachers at the level of the universities, inviting university teachers to run secondary school teacher training seminars or even to attend lessons with them, ect.) can help secondary school teachers benefit from the expertise of university teachers, learn about new teaching theories, and, consequently, reaffirm or refine their teaching practices.
- Mentoring has widely proved to be a critical phase in the professional development of novice teachers. However, for this process to be fruitful in the Algerian context, a number of measures should be taken. First, “*a mentor /protégé or mentor / mentee connection is not one which can be imposed*” (Dixon & Lahe, 1992, p. 275). Indeed, the degree of trust required for the success of such relationship, and, by extension, the success of the whole mentoring process is too high to be reached when a mentor is unwilling or is obliged to assume such role. An equally important factor is the quality of mentor teachers. To effectively perform their role as mentors, only the most able teachers who have the required mentoring knowledge and skills should be selected. Moreover, for such mentors to participate constructively in the mentoring process, they need to receive additional training, to be given more sufficient time to carry out their mentoring tasks and to be offered some significant incentives as mentors. Similarly, mentee teachers need more time to observe, meet and learn from their mentors. That’s why they should be given reduced teaching loads compared with other teachers. Moreover, while effective mentoring programs lasts over a whole year, in the Algerian context it’s only a one trimester. A period which is relatively short to achieve the desired mentoring outcomes. Lastly, there is

a clear need to attach more importance to this program, particularly, by seriously considering it when giving tenure to novice teachers.

- Teacher training seminars/workshops play an important role in teacher professional development in Algeria. However, a wide range of concerns are expressed, covering the seminars features and reflecting a set of implementation issues. Alleviating such concerns requires taking a set of measures. First, more frequent teacher training seminars need to be organized, as one or two seminars a year won't be sufficient to bring about the desired improvements in teachers knowledge, skills, and performance. Moreover, teachers have different levels of expertise, and hence different teaching experiences, abilities, and needs. As such, it would be more beneficial to divide teachers into groups according to their levels of expertise and offer them training seminars which are built around topics which relate to their professional development needs. Training seminars should also be practical whenever possible because what teachers actually need is not only to learn about a theory or a skill, but to practice and to receive feedback on their performance. In addition, the new skills and practices presented should be modeled because people learn better when they observe. The training rooms (amphitheatres usually), where the seminars are held, are not always appropriate for the training particularly for group works. Moreover, given the poor quality of the audiovisual aids used, teachers sitting in the back usually face problems seeing the PowerPoint slides or hearing the trainer. Thus, it would be much effective to have small groups of attendants in an adequate audiovisual room with flexible tables and chairs to allow for cooperative tasks. Furthermore, access to the training location should be facilitated as much as possible. This can be done by selecting schools which can be easily reached by most concerned teachers.
- As a teacher induction form, the preparatory pedagogical training program has been designed to provide novice teachers with the knowledge and skills necessary to face the

challenges of the teaching profession. However, to help achieve such prime objective, some improvements regarding the program content and implementation are deemed necessary. First, there should be more focus on the practical side of the program. More opportunities should be provided to teachers to practice and to receive feedback. The program should focus on the basic knowledge a novice teacher needs, but should also introduce them to new ideas as well as to the latest developments in the teaching field. Moreover, bringing teachers of all subjects together and training them together won't be of much benefit to teachers, especially to teachers of English as a foreign language. Hence, it would be more beneficial to reorganize the program so that teachers are divided according to the subject they teach and are offered the most adequate training.

- For classroom visits by inspectors of national education to be more effective in improving teachers' instructional practices, they need to be more frequent. One visit a year won't be of much benefit. Moreover, as a supervision form, such visits should not always be unscheduled or unexpected by teachers. Teachers should have some opportunities to be involved in planning such visits. Doing so could reduce teachers' anxiety and develop a more positive attitude towards such visits.
- To ensure that internal educational seminars, which play a crucial role in improving teachers performance, are frequently conducted, school principals should assume a controlling role. They should make sure that teachers are conducting those seminars according to the established schedule.
- Training on the use of ICTs in teaching should form part of the teachers professional development program. Such training should not only include basic ICTs knowledge and skills, but should also include training on advanced use of ICTs, such as on-line classes and the production of multimedia presentations.

- Given the benefits of distance and online training, it is recommended that policy makers design some formal online training opportunities to teachers and to make it mandatory for them to participate in such training.
- Having two inspectors in charge of the training of 213 teachers is really questionable. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that more inspectors are assigned and are adequately trained to perform their roles in the professional development of secondary school teachers in Jijel.

Suggestions for Further Research

The scope of the present study is restricted to include only secondary school teachers, teachers of English of other educational levels (middle school teachers) have not been included. Given that the same forms of teacher professional development are adapted to develop the professional knowledge and skills of teachers at both levels, including middle school teachers would widen the scope of similar future research studies and hence could produce more useful data which would help design more effective professional development initiatives.

Similarly, the study was confined to only one context, that of secondary school teachers in Jijel. Thus, further similar research works can be conducted to include teachers from other provinces. This would certainly produce more generalizable results and ensure the general validity of conclusions.

The main interest of this study was to explore teachers' attitudes towards their professional development program. While this is the most common form of professional development evaluation processes, still there is a need to conduct professional development evaluation processes on other complex levels, mainly on the impact professional development activities have on teachers performance and on their students learning outcomes. Such

evaluation processes would help produce relevant data on the basis of which the overall quality of the program is to be determined, and hence more informed decisions as to the necessary future improvements could be made.

This study dealt with the teacher professional development program as a whole, including all the professional development activities which make up the program. Further research works should be conducted to investigate the advantages and the shortcomings of each one of those professional development activities in a more detailed manner.

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(Ministry of National Education. Ministerial Decision N° 174, dated February 2, 1991 articulating the coordinator's roles).

Appendices

Appendix A : Teacher Questionnaire

Appendix B : Interview Questions

Appendix C : Observation Checklist

Appendix D : The Mentee Teacher Evaluation Grid

Teacher Questionnaire

Dear teachers,

This questionnaire is part of a study which aims at investigating secondary school teachers' attitudes towards the professional development program set up by the Ministry of Education.

All information collected in this study will be treated confidentially. No one will be able to link any of the answers to you personally. Hence, we will very much appreciate it if you answer the questions as honestly and truthfully as you can.

Remember there are no right or wrong answers! We are only interested in your opinions. When you don't think any of the answers really apply, mark the answer that comes closest to it. You can always ask the person administering the questionnaires for help.

Thank you in advance for your participation.

Mss. Nouri M.

Background Information(please mark the appropriate choice)

1. Which of the following qualifications do you hold?

- a. "Secondary School Teacher" Diploma from the TTS (ENS).. ☐ b. Licence Degree..... ☐
c. Master's Degree..... ☐ d. A higher degree (Magister, PhD)... ☐

2. How long have you been teaching English?

This is my first year	1-2 years	3-5 years	6-10 years	More than 10 years
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. Had you undergone any teaching training before entering the profession? a. Yes ☐ b. No ☐

Teachers Professional Development needs(Please mark one choice in each row)

1. In your teaching, to what extent do you feel prepared for the elements below?

	Not at all	Somewhat	Well	Very well
a. Content of the subject.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Pedagogy of the subject.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Classroom practice in the subject.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. For each of the areas listed below, please indicate the degree to which you currently need professional development.

	No need At all	Low level of need	Moderate level of need	High level of need
a. Knowledge and understanding of the subject.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Pedagogical competencies in teaching my subject field.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Knowledge of the curriculum.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. Student evaluation and assessment practice.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. ICT (information and communication technology) skills for teaching	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f. Student behaviour and classroom management.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
g. Approaches to individualised learning.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
h. Teaching cross-curricular skills (e.g. problem solving, critical thinking)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. Please, if you need professional development in any other area indicate it:

.....

The Induction Program *(the range of structured activities to support your introduction into the teaching profession)*

1. In your first regular employment as a teacher, did you take part in any induction program?

- a. Yes ☐ b. No ☐

2. If yes, what form did the induction program take?

- a. The preparatory pedagogical training program ☐ b. The mentoring program ☐ c. Both of them ☐
d. Others

The preparatory pedagogical training program

1. Did the preparatory pedagogical training program you participated in cover the following topics?

	Yes	No		Yes	No
a. Education sciences and psychology			f. Algerian educational system and educational curricula		
g. Classroom management techniques			g. Professional ethics		
h. School mediation			h. Training and pedagogy		
i. Subject didactics and teaching methods			i. Educational legislation		
j. Evaluation and pedagogical treatment			j. Computer science and information and communication technologies (ICT)		

2. Did it include: a. theoretical lessons ☐ b. practical works ☐ c. both of them ☐

3. How long did the preparatory pedagogical training program last?

weeks..... days/a week hours/a day

4. Do you agree with the following statements about the preparatory pedagogical training program?

	Yes	No
a. It provided me with the necessary pedagogical support.		
b. It provided me with the basic mechanisms necessary to face the challenges of the teaching profession.		
c. It developed my professional skills.		
d. It developed my professional values which promote my behaviours as a teacher.		
e. It enabled me to achieve effective student education.		
f. It provided me with effective working tools which will enable me to teach away from the classical content-based and presentation-based methods.		
g. It helped me fulfill my roles efficiently and inspired confidence in myself.		
h. It helped improving and updating my specialized knowledge and provided me with modern teaching methods and techniques.		
i. It enlightened me as to the state's plans and trends and the society's problems, and raised my awareness of my professional duty and moral commitment.		
j. It assisted me in career advancement and progression, as well as job security.		
k. It changed my negative attitudes towards the teaching profession.		
l. It encouraged me to pursue self-study and to move toward lifelong learning.		
m. It provided me with the opportunity to experience and apply educational theories in the classroom.		
n. It developed my readiness to assume my new roles and responsibilities.		
o. It helped me solve the educational problems I face.		
p. It encouraged me to collaborate with and benefit from my colleagues.		
q. It encouraged me to be creative and innovative in my work.		

5. How were you evaluated in this training?

- a. On the basis of ongoing pedagogical evaluation..... ☐
b. The evaluation consists of periodical assessments in both theoretical and practical aspects..... ☐

- c. A final exam was held including written tests related to the program's content..... ☐
- d. Writing a training report about a topic which has been dealt with during the training..... ☐
- e. All of them..... ☐

The Mentoring Program (mentoring is a process whereby an experienced teacher works with a novice teacher, giving guidance and feedback)

1. Have you recently been(are you currently) involved in any mentoring activities? *(Please mark one choice in each row)*

- | | Yes | No |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| a. I have had (presently have)an assigned mentor to support me. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| b. I have served(serve) as an assigned mentor for one or more teachers..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

2. According to you, which function(s) should a mentor teacher perform?

- a. Teaching (modeling, informing, confirming/disconfirming, prescribing and questioning)... ☐
- b. Sponsoring (protecting and supporting novice teachers when attempting new practices)... ☐
- c. Encouraging (affirming, inspiring and challenging novice teachers)..... ☐
- d. Counseling (through listening, probing, clarifying, and advising)..... ☐
- e. Befriending (behaving as a critical friend; accepting and relating)..... ☐
- f. Evaluating..... ☐
- g. Others: please specify

3. According to you, what qualities should a good mentor teacher exhibit?

- a. Having great credibility among his colleagues☐
- b. Is highly competent in their subject area..... ☐
- c. Is willing to spend time and energy to work with the mentee.....☐
- d. Is skilled in the areas of working with adult learners, problem solving, and giving constructive criticism...☐
- e. Others:

4. How would you describe your (mentor/mentee) relationship?

.....

5. Were you willing to be a mentor when you were assigned? a. Yes ☐ b. No☐

6. If no, is it because:

- a. You haven't been trained to be a mentor ☐
- b. You don't receive any rewards or incentives as a mentor teacher..... ☐
- c. Heavy teaching loads ☐
- d. Limited resources and support ☐
- e. Others

7. Have you accomplished all the 15 mentoring sessions required by the Ministry of Education?

- a. Yes ☐ b. No☐

8. If no, why not,

.....

9. The following is the content of the mentoring sessions, as described by *The General Inspection of Pedagogy*. Which of these contents were included in the mentoring sessions you accomplished?

- a. Recognizing and using educational documents..... ☐
- b. Preparing lesson plans according to the CBA..... ☐
- c. Observing the mentor teacher presenting lessons and reflecting on all its aspects..... ☐
- d. Examining and Comparing the lesson plans of the mentor and the mentee..... ☐
- e. Preparing and presenting lessons while being observed by the mentor teacher..... ☐
- f. Holding a discussion on the issue of assessment and evaluation..... ☐
- g. Preparing a test and discussing its content with the mentor teacher..... ☐
- h. Examining some students copies together with the mentor teacher..... ☐
- i. Attending a pedagogical treatment session with the mentor teacher then reflecting on its pedagogical and educational aspects ☐
- j. Presenting a pedagogical treatment session while being observed by the mentor teacher... ☐
- k. Preparing and presenting a research work on the importance of using ICTs in teaching English.... ☐

10. To what extent was the mentoring program effective in developing the novice teacher competencies in:

	Not at all	Somewhat	Well	Very well
a) Organizing and planning the learning situations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b) Classroom management	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c) Assessing students work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d) Managing continuing professional development	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

11. How would you evaluate the effectiveness of the mentoring program?

- a. very poor ☐ b. poor ☐ c. moderate ☐ d. good ☐ e. excellent ☐

12. What do you recommend to improve the mentoring program?

.....

Inspection visits

1. How many times a year do you receive classroom visits from the inspector?..... Times.

2. Do you wish to have more frequent and regular visits? a. Yes ☐ b. No ☐

3. Please explain why:

.....

4. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
a. A classroom visit by the inspector is an opportunity for me to reflect on my own teaching.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. It is a positive experience which helps me improve the quality of my teaching	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. I feel nervous, uneasy, on edge, and uncomfortable about classroom visits	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. The inspector is usually courteous and respectful during the visits	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. I usually receive appraisal and constructive feedback from the inspector	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f. The visit is always followed by a post-visit conference	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Training Seminars and Workshops

1. In the past two years, how many seminars/ workshops have you attended?

2. Content of the Training Seminars and Workshops

a. Do you agree or disagree with the following statements? (Please mark one choice in each row)

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
a. The content of seminars/workshops has a clear focus on teaching skills which are linked to my daily teaching practice.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. The content is interesting and makes sense to me.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. The content has a clear focus on the content knowledge of the subject I teach	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. The content has a clear focus on the pedagogy of the subject I teach.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. The content includes classroom practice (practicum, internship or student teaching) in the subject I teach.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f. The material used is well organized and easy to follow and understand	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
g. The content takes into account my prior knowledge, experience, and professional level.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
h. The content includes new ideas and innovative approaches to language teaching.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
i. The content presented builds on and relates to the content of previous professional development days (they form part of a coherent program)..	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

b. Did the seminars/workshops you participated in cover the following topics? If yes, what positive impact did they have on your teaching? (For each specified alternative please indicate 'Yes' or 'No' in part (A). If 'Yes' in part (A), please estimate the impact in part (B) .)

	(A) Participation		(B) Positive impact			
	Yes	No	No	small	moderate	large
a. Knowledge and understanding of my subject						
b. Pedagogical competencies in teaching my subject field						
c. Knowledge of the curriculum						
d. Student evaluation and assessment practice.						
e. ICT (information and communication technology) skills for teaching						
f. Student behaviour and classroom management						
g. Approaches to individualised learning						
h. Teaching cross-curricular skills (e.g. problemsolving)						
i. Mentoring/coaching peers						

3. The process (conduct and organisation of the seminars and workshops)

Do you agree or disagree with the following statements ? (Please mark one choice in each row).

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
<u>Objectives of the training seminar/workshop</u>					
a. The objectives are clearly defined in the beginning.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. They are specific, measurable, achievable, realistic, and time-bound....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. The objectives connect to my professional development needs.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

The instructor (the inspector)

a. The instructor is credible; knowledgeable and well prepared.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
a. The instructor shows respect for you and appreciates your potential...	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. The instructor is a good discussion leader.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. The instructor instructs with a patient, supportive and encouraging style.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. The instructor provides immediate feedback, praise, and positive reinforcement.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. The instructor is able to communicate information effectively.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f. The instructor assists in linking concepts to actual interpersonal situations.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
g. The instructor has the technical know-how to use new educational technology.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Instructional techniques and materials

h. The instructional techniques used facilitate my learning, and help me in adapting and applying the new skills.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
i. I have access to all necessary materials and resources.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
j. The instructor uses a variety of instructional techniques rather than the traditional lecture format.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Activities

k. The activities are carefully planned and well organized.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
l. The activities are appropriate and aligned with the defined objectives...	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
m. The activities are varied and relevant to the topic.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
n. The activities include occasions for collegial sharing.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
o. The activities provide ample opportunities for personal planning and reflection.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
p. The session provide me with opportunities to practice the new skills presented and to receive feedback.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
q. I am actively engaged in the activities.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
r. The new practices are modelled and thoroughly explained.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
s. The activities flow in a logical and coherent fashion.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Time

t. The amount of time scheduled for the training course is exactly what is needed to meet the objectives.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
u. Sufficient time is provided for the completion of tasks.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4.The context (the setting)

Do you agree or disagree with the following statements ? (Please mark one choice in each row).

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. The facilities and equipment are appropriate and conducive to learning.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. The audio-visual aids are effective.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. The room is appropriate for the training session.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. The training location is easily accessed.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

5. How often do you apply what you learn in the training seminars/workshops to your job?

- a. Always ☐ b. Often ☐ c. Sometimes ☐ d. Rarely ☐ e. Never ☐

6. If “rarely or never”, can you explain why?

.....

.....

.....

7. Do you think these training seminars/workshops would have been more effective if you had participated in making decisions on their content (what), process (how), and context (when and where)?

- a. Yes ☐ b. No ☐

Internal Educational Seminars

1. How many times a year do you hold internal educational seminars in the workplace?

..... times

2. Do you participate in these seminars because:

- a. You are required to. ☐ b. You are willing to. ☐

3. How do you feel about being observed by other teachers?

- a. Relaxed and at ease ☐ b. Nervous and uncomfortable ☐

4. Which of the following items do these seminars include?

- c. Planning and preparing for the seminar ☐
- d. Observing a teacher performance(while presenting a lesson) ☐
- e. Discussing, reflecting on and analysing the teaching process in the feedback conference ☐
- f. Determining collaboratively the types of actions to be taken ☐

b. Do you find these seminars useful in improving your teaching practices? a. Yes ☐ b. No ☐

Please justify your answer:

.....

.....

.....

ICTs Training and Distance Learning

1. Have you received any training on the use of ICTs in teaching as part of your teacher training?

- a. Yes ☐ b. No ☐

2. If yes, did it include:

- a. Basic ICT training: basic operations, Windows-based software, e-mail, and Internet ☐
- b. Intermediate training: classroom applications, Internet for teaching, and e-mail as a medium for communication and collaboration ☐
- c. Advanced training: creation of educational software, on-line classes, telecommunication, e-mailing, development of interactive Web sites, production of multimedia presentations ☐

3. To what extent was this training effective in preparing you to effectively integrate ICTs in your classroom?

- Very effective ☐ b. somehow effective ☐ c. not effective ☐

4. Have you participated in any online teacher training courses, networks, or platforms?

a. Yes ☐

b. No ☐

5. What would you say about such web-based learning opportunities?

.....

.....

.....

Suggestions for improving teacher professional development

Please, suggest ways which you think could make teacher professional development more interesting and more effective.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Thank you very much for sparing your time to participate in this study

Interview with Inspectors of National Education

Background Information

- How long have you been an inspector?
- Can you briefly describe your current role and responsibilities as an inspector of national education; how many teachers are you currently supervising, what roles do you assume..?
- Can you tell us about your teaching experience and how has it informed your practice as a teacher trainer?
- To what extent do you agree with the following statements about your background knowledge :
 - I have a sound background of theoretical and practical knowledge about the key aspects of language teaching – linguistic, methodological, and intercultural.
 - I have a sound background of theoretical and practical knowledge about adult learning and motivation.
 - I am familiar with a range of different approaches and methods for professional training and development.

Inspectors Training

- Have you received any formal training geared towards developing your knowledge and skills as an inspector?
- If yes, can you tell us about it ; How long did it take ?By whom was it provided ? What content did it include?which topics were mostly emphasized ? Did it include training on the use of ICTs? When did you receive it (before or after being assigned as an inspector) ?
- How would you evaluate the effectiveness of the training you have received in developing your competences as a teacher trainer?
- Are you committed to on-going personal and professional improvement? What do you do to develop and advance your knowledge, skills, and professional abilities? (keeping update with the most recent literature on teacher training, participating in online courses, ...)
- In which areas do you currently need further professional development?

The Preparatory Pedagogical Training Program (PPTP)

- Have you ever participated- as an instructor- in the PPTP?
- If yes, what can you tell us about its content, process, and context?
- According to you, is it effective in preparing novice teachers to meet the challenges of the teaching profession? If no, why not?

- What do you recommend to improve the quality of this program?

The Mentoring Program

- As a teacher supervisor, what qualities do you expect mentor teachers to exhibit ?
- What functions do you ask mentor teachers to perform: teaching, sponsoring, encouraging, counseling, befriending, or evaluating?
- Do you play any role in assigning mentors to mentee teachers?
- If yes, what factors do you consider most when assigning mentors to mentees?
- How do mentor teachers react when being assigned the task of mentoring novice teachers?
- Do you play a role in training mentors? if yes, what can you tell us about their training ; *content* (what aspects do you focus on : adult training, problem solving, giving constructive criticism..), *process* (seminars, workshops..) ?
- Based on the data from the mentee evaluation cards you receive, how would you evaluate the effectiveness of the mentoring sessions in fostering and imparting teachers' competencies in organizing and planning the learning situations, classroom management, evaluating students work, and managing continuing professional development.
- According to you, how can the mentoring program be improved?

Classroom Visits

- How many times a year do you make classroom visits to a teacher?
- Would you pay more frequent visits if you had fewer teachers?
- What are the factors that affect the number of visits per year?
- What objectives do you usually set for those visits?
- When you enter the classroom, what are the points of emphasis of the observation?
- How do teachers usually react to classroom visits?
- Do teachers ask for classroom visits? If yes, when?
- Do you involve teachers in planning the visits? Why, why not?
- Do you always hold a post-visit conference with the observed teacher? If yes, what aspects of the teaching process do you emphasize when giving feedback?
- To what extent do you agree with the following statements about observation :
 - I am familiar with a range of techniques for observing classes– for professional development, for quality control, for teacher support.
 - I can handle feedback sessions with trainee and experienced teachers in a constructive and sympathetic way.

- I have clear criteria for lesson observation and can assess observed lessons, fairly and accurately.
- Do you think that classroom visits – with their current (limited) frequency and duration- can bring about the desired improvements in the teachers performance?

Training Seminars/workshops

- How many teacher training seminars do you hold per year?
- What factors determine the frequency of those seminars?
- Which of these two aspects do you focus on when selecting the training content: the content knowledge of the subject, or the pedagogy of the subject? please explain why ?
- Do you include classroom practice (practicum, student teaching...) in the training seminars? Why, why not ?
- What role do you usually assume in training seminars?(speaker, leader, ..)
- How do you select the content of training seminars/workshops; Do you take into account teachers prior knowledge and experience? Should the content build on and relate to that of previous training seminars?
- How do you determine the objectives of the training seminars?
- According to you, what qualities should a training provider exhibit?
- What instructional technique do you prefer to use when training teachers? and why ?
- When designing the training activities, do you consider providing teachers with opportunities to practice the new skills and receive feedback?
- Do you usually model the new practices in the seminars? why, why not ?
- Do you usually manage to cover all the designed items? i.e, is the time sufficient to complete the tasks and to meet the training objectives ?
- How do you find the training facilities and the equipment? Are they appropriate and conducive to learning?
- Do you follow up, monitor and evaluate the outcomes of the training seminars in the field (through examining the teachers implementation of what they have learnt in the seminars)?
- Based on your observation during classroom visits, how often do teachers apply what they learn in the seminars to their job?
- Who are the decision makers in the design of teachers training seminars (content, process and context) ? You or collaboratively with teachers ?
- Have you ever run a needs analysis to find out teachers PD needs?if yes, what did you do ?

- As a teacher supervisor, in which area do teachers need further PD?
- Do you think that the training provided in the seminars can meet those needs?
- Do you reflect on your performance in those training seminars? Do you conduct any evaluations of the training seminars you organise?
- How do you find teachers reactions to the training seminars?
- According to you, what are the features of a successful training session?
- According to you, what are the weaknesses of teacher training seminars in our context?

Internal Educational Seminars

- Do you participate in internal educational seminars held by teachers in the workplace?
- What can you say about this form of teachers continuing PD?

ICTs Training and Distance Learning

- Do you use ICTs in training seminars?
- Do teachers effectively integrate ICTs in their classrooms? if no, why not ?
- Do you provide any online training opportunities for teachers? How?
- What do you think of online teacher training courses, networks, and platforms?
- Do you encourage teachers to participate in those web-based training opportunities?

Suggestions for Improving Teacher Professional Development

- How can teacher professional development in Algeria be improved?

Observation Checklist for High-Quality Professional Development Training

The *Observation Checklist for High Quality Professional Development Training*¹ was designed to be completed by an observer to determine the level of quality of professional development training. It can also be used to provide ongoing feedback and coaching to peers who provide professional development training. Furthermore, it can be used as a guidance document when designing or revising professional development. The tool represents a compilation of research-identified indicators that should be present in high quality training. Professional development training with a maximum of one item missed per domain on the checklist can be considered high quality.

Context Information	
Date: _____	Location: _____
Topic: _____	Presenter: _____
Observer: _____	Role: _____

The professional development provider:	Observed ? (Check if Yes)
Preparation	
1. Provides a description of the training with learning objectives/target prior to training	
Evidence or example:	
2. Provides readings, activities, and/or questions to think about prior to the training; materials are in accessible formats	
Evidence or example:	
3. Provides an agenda (i.e., schedule of topics to be presented and times) before or at the beginning of the training	
Evidence or example:	
4. Quickly establishes or builds on previously established rapport with participants	
Evidence or example:	

¹Noonan, P., Langham, A., & Gaumer Erickson, A. (2013). *Observation checklist for high-quality professional development in education*. Center for Research on Learning, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas.

The professional development provider:	Observed ? (Check if Yes)
Introduction	
5. Connects the topic to participants' context (e.g., community, school, role)	
Evidence or example:	
6. Includes the empirical research foundation of the content (e.g., citations, verbal references to research literature, key researchers)	
Evidence or example:	
7. Content builds on or relates to participants' previous professional development	
Evidence or example:	
8. Aligns with standards or goals valued by the participants (e.g., laws, professional organization standards, local policies)	
Evidence or example:	
9. Emphasizes impact of content on beneficiaries' outcomes (e.g., clients, patients, students, families)	
Evidence or example:	
Demonstration	
10. Builds shared vocabulary required to implement and sustain the practice	
Evidence or example:	
11. Provides examples of the content/practice in use (e.g., case study, vignette)	
Evidence or example:	
12. Illustrates the applicability of the material, knowledge, or practice to the participants' context	
Evidence or example:	
Engagement	
13. Includes opportunities for participants to practice and/or rehearse new skills	
Evidence or example:	

The professional development provider:	Observed ? (Check if Yes)
14. Includes opportunities for participants to express personal perspectives (e.g., experiences, thoughts on concept)	
Evidence or example:	
15. Facilitates opportunities for participants to interact with each other related to training content	
Evidence or example:	
16. Adheres to agenda and time constraints	
Evidence or example:	
Evaluation	
17. Includes opportunities for participants to reflect on learning	
Evidence or example:	
18. Includes specific indicators—related to the knowledge, material, or skills provided by the training—that would indicate a successful transfer to practice	
Evidence or example:	
19. Engages participants in assessment of their acquisition of knowledge and skills	
Evidence or example:	
Mastery	
20. Details follow-up activities that require participants to apply their learning in a new setting or context	
Evidence or example:	
21. Offers opportunities for continued learning through technical assistance and resources	
Evidence or example:	
22. Describes opportunities for coaching to improve fidelity of implementation	
Evidence or example:	

Democratic and Popular Republic of Algeria
Ministry of National Education

The Mentee Teacher Evaluation Grid

The Directorate of Education :

The mentee teacher name:.....

School :.....

The subject :.....

The mentor teacher name:.....

School :.....

competence	Sub-competences	Developed	Partially developed	Undeveloped
Organizing and planning learning situations	1 Reading the syllabus			
	2 Setting the learning objectives for each lesson			
	3 Developing and managing learning situations			
	4 Using the accompanying pedagogical documents			
	5 Effectively planning lessons			
	6 Utilizing support and pedagogical treatment activities			
Classroom management	7 Accompanying students from the school yard to the classroom			
	8 organizing and managing grouping in the classroom			
	9 Organizing educational activities in the classroom			
	10 Ensuring and Managing students participation			
	11 Using effectively the board and the different instructional materials			
	12 Controlling students copybooks			
Evaluating students work	13 recognizing the different types of evaluation			
	14 Recognizing the different evaluation elements			
	15 Organizing evaluation processes			
	16 Analyzing and using evaluation results.			
Managing personal continuing professional development	17 being aware that self- development is the best way to develop			
	18 Determining one's needs and trying to meet them through research			
	19 Sharing and exchanging knowledge and expertise with co-teachers			
	20 Working and collaborating with the establishment community.			

The Mentor Teacher signature

The host school headmaster signature

Résumé

Le développement professionnel des enseignants s'est avéré être une étape importante dans l'apprentissage continu des enseignants ainsi que dans leur avancement professionnel. Par conséquent, il est essentiel d'examiner les modèles actuels du développement professionnel et de déterminer les mérites et les limites de chacun d'entre eux afin de pouvoir prendre des décisions éclairées concernant les améliorations nécessaires. Cette étude est une tentative d'analyser les pratiques actuelles du développement professionnel des enseignants dans le contexte algérien. Plus précisément, elle vise à examiner les attitudes des enseignants d'anglais du secondaire à l'égard du programme du développement professionnel mis en place par le Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale et de déterminer les améliorations qu'ils jugent nécessaires pour rendre le programme plus efficace dans le développement de leurs connaissances et leurs compétences professionnelles. Pour atteindre les objectifs de la présente recherche, une méthode mixte a été adoptée dans laquelle de multiples données qualitatives et quantitatives ont été collectées à l'aide de trois outils de recherche: un questionnaire administré à 90 enseignants du secondaire à Jijel sélectionnés selon un processus d'échantillonnage aléatoire stratifié, des entretiens individuels avec deux inspecteurs de l'éducation nationale d'anglais dans le cycle secondaire, et l'observation de cinq séminaires de formation des enseignants animés par les deux inspecteurs. Les données quantitatives ont été analysées à l'aide du progiciel de statistiques pour les sciences sociales, tandis que les données qualitatives ont été analysées en recourant à la méthode d'analyse thématique. L'étude a révélé que les enseignants ont des attitudes différentes envers les activités qui composent le programme de développement professionnel. Bien que les attitudes des enseignants à l'égard du programme de mentorat et du programme de formation pédagogique préparatoire étaient négatives, celles à l'égard des séminaires de formation, des visites d'inspection et des séminaires éducatifs internes étaient positives. Toutefois, ces attitudes favorables n'étaient pas toujours compatibles avec le faible niveau d'engagement envers le développement professionnel qui a été démontré par les enseignants. Selon les enseignants, la participation des enseignants à la prise de décisions, l'accent mis sur la pratique, la prise en compte des besoins des enseignants en matières de formation continue, les occasions fréquentes de développement professionnel, de sujets pertinents, les opportunités de développement professionnel en ligne, la formation par des spécialistes et des experts, et des contextes appropriés sont les moyens d'améliorer le programme de développement professionnel des enseignants.

ملخص

أثبت التطوير المهني للأساتذة أنه يلعب دوراً هاماً في التعلم المستمر و الترقية في المسار المهني للأساتذة. و بناء على ذلك، فمن الضروري تقييم نماذج التطوير المهني الحالية وتحديد مزايا وحدود كل منها بحيث يمكن اتخاذ قرارات بشأن التحسينات اللازمة. هذه الدراسة هي محاولة لتسليط الضوء على واقع التطوير المهني للأساتذة في الجزائر. وبالخصوص، تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى استكشاف مواقف أساتذة اللغة الإنجليزية بالمدارس الثانوية من برنامج التطوير المهني الذي سطرته وزارة التربية الوطنية و معرفة النقائص المرتبطة بالبرنامج و كذا التحسينات التي يرونها ضرورية لجعله أكثر فعالية في تطوير معارفهم وكفاءتهم المهنية. ولتحقيق أهداف البحث ، اعتمد أسلوب بحث مختلط تم فيه جمع العديد من البيانات النوعية والكمية باستخدام ثلاث طرق بحث مختلفة ؛ استبيان تم إجراؤه على 90 أستاذ انجليزية للتعليم الثانوي في ولاية جيجل، تم اختيارهم باستخدام طريقة أخذ العينات العشوائية الطبقية، مقابلة مع اثنين من مفتشي التربية الوطنية للغة الانجليزية للتعليم الثانوي، وحضور و تقييم خمس ندوات تكوينية قدمها المفتشان. تم تحليل البيانات الكمية باستخدام الحزمة الإحصائية للعلوم الاجتماعية في حين تم تحليل البيانات النوعية موضوعياً. كشفت الدراسة أن للأساتذة مواقف مختلفة تجاه الأنشطة المتنوعة المشكلة لبرنامج التطوير المهني. فكانت مواقفهم من برنامج المرافقة البيداغوجية للأساتذة المتربصين وبرنامج التكوين البيداغوجي التحضيري سلبية إلى حد ما ، في حين كانت مواقفهم تجاه الندوات التكوينية والزيارات التفتيشية والندوات التربوية الداخلية نوعاً ما إيجابية. ومع ذلك، لم تكن مثل هذه المواقف الإيجابية متوافقة دائماً مع المستوى المنخفض للالتزام بالتطوير المهني الذي أظهره الأساتذة. وفقاً للأساتذة ، فإن مشاركتهم في صنع القرار ، التركيز على الممارسة ، مراعاة احتياجاتهم المتعلقة بالتطوير المهني ، توفير فرص أكثر للتطوير المهني ، معالجة الموضوعات ذات الصلة، توفير فرص التطوير المهني عبر الإنترنت ، التكوين من قبل المتخصصين والخبراء ، وتنظيم أنشطة التطوير المهني في سياقات مناسبة هي الطرق الكفيلة بتحسين برنامج التطوير المهني للأساتذة.