



وصف وتقييم نظام تدريب معلمي اللغة الإنجليزية في ليبيا

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المستخلص : برامج تدريب المعلمين في تعليم اللغات عمومًا تهدف إلى مساعدة الطلاب الذين يدرسون ليصبحوا معلمين للغات أو حتى المعلمين غير المتمرسين على تطوير أسلوب تدريس أفضل. عادةً ما تنطوي مثل هذه البرامج على مراقبة المشاركين أثناء تدريسهم من قبل خبراء. سيقيم الخبراء في وقت لاحق بتوجيه المتدربين لتحقيق الهدف المذكور أعلاه من خلال تسجيل الملاحظات والتعليق فيما بعد على مزايا وعيوب الدرس أو على أداء المتدرب الذي يتم مراقبته بشكل عام. في الواقع، يجب على معلمي اللغات التخرج من مراكز تدريب المعلمين المكرسة فقط لتدريب المعلمين. ومع ذلك، في بعض البلدان، مثل البلد المشار إليه هنا - ليبيا، يتخرج معلمو اللغات من أقسام اللغة في كليات العلوم الإنسانية أو كليات التربية في الجامعات، وأحيانًا حتى من كليات الآداب والعلوم. نظرًا لعدم تخصص هذه الكليات في تدريب المعلمين، يكون النتيجة مشكوك فيها.

الكلمات المفتاحية: تدريب معلمي اللغة، أسلوب التدريس، المراقبة، مراكز تدريب المعلمين.

Describing and Evaluating the English Language Teacher Education System in Libya

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Abstract: Language Teacher Training (LTT) programmes are generally designed to help students studying to be language teachers or even inexperienced teachers to develop a better style of teaching. Usually, such programmes involve the participants being observed by experts whilst teaching. The experts will later guide the trainees to achieve the above-mentioned objective by taking record and later commenting on the pros and cons of the lesson or on the performance of the trainee being observed in general. Ideally, language teachers should graduate from LTT centers that are dedicated only to teacher training. However, In some countries, such as the one in question here - Libya, language teachers graduate from language departments in humanities or education faculties at Universities; and sometimes even from faculties of Arts and Science. Given that such faculties are not specialised in teacher training, the result is questionable.

Keywords: Language Teacher Training, Style of Teaching, Observation, Teacher Training Centers.

COUNTRY CASE STUDY:

Describing and Evaluating the English Language Teacher Education System in Libya

Language Teacher Training (LTT) programmes are generally designed to help students studying to be language teachers or even inexperienced teachers to develop a better style of teaching. Usually, such programmes involve the participants being observed by experts whilst teaching. The experts will later guide the trainees to achieve the above mentioned objective by taking record and later commenting on the pros and cons of the lesson or on the performance of the trainee being observed in general. Ideally, language teachers should graduate from LTT centers that are dedicated only to teacher training. However, In some countries, such as the one in question here - Libya, language teachers graduate from language departments in humanities or education faculties at Universities; and sometimes even from faculties of Arts and Science. Given that such faculties are not specialised in teacher training, the result is questionable.

Thesis, Methodology & Research Questions:

This article is a country case study that investigates the Language Teacher Education (LTE) system in Libya, in particular the English language Teacher Education (ELTE). The aim is to reveal the philosophical theory or the approach being implemented, plus briefly discussing the logic of the assessment programme that trainee teachers in Libya go through. Thus, the following research questions were designed as a guideline for this project:

- What are the main methods/models of TE?
- What is the approach of ELTE in Libya, and how are trainee teachers assessed there?

Therefore, and to ensure breadth coverage of the main themes involved in this study, this paper is organized into four main sections. It will commence by introducing the main theories underpinning Teacher Education (TE) to facilitate the discussion presented in the following section. The second section is a historical overview of the country outlining the Libyan education system in general. The following section is a description of the current ELTE system in this particular country based on the analysis made to few documents published by the Secretariat of General People's Committee for Education (SGPCE) in Libya. Finally, an evaluation to the Libyan ELTE system is presented in the light of the theories of TE. In this way, it is believed that the context and setting of the case study will be portrayed for the reader.

1. MODELS OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Before discussing both the past and present situations of TE in Libya, it is considered wise to give a brief presentation to the main models in this particular field before moving on to the description and evaluation of the subject of study (TE in Libya). TE has been a very wide area of research and several Teacher Training (TT) models have emerged over the 20th century, either as an answer to the necessity of improving the traditional methods or to change them. This section is written as an explanation to what each model means and in which sense they are chronological. In other words, it is to describe and evaluate the four main models of TE in the order in which they came about - explicitly, the craft model (apprenticeship), the applied science model, the reflective practice model and finally, the competency based model. However, given that the time and space allocated to writing this paper is limited, the discussion will have to be brief.

1.1. *The Craft Model*

Stones and Morris (1972: 7; as cited in Wallace, 1991) offered a concise definition to this model by writing: “The *master* teacher told the students what to do, showed them how to do it and the students imitated the master.” They also argue that this apprenticeship model was the main and only way of training prospective teachers up to “...the end of the Second World War in 1945” (ibid). On this basis, one can argue that because TT was mainly “watching others and absorbing what they do, and slowly being inducted into the skills of the craft” (Grenfell 1998), it is clear that “teaching skills were mastered mainly through practical experience, without any specific training” (Korthagen, 2001).

This model was then criticized by many linguists arguing that teaching is much more complex than watching and practicing; it involves dealing with many social, linguistic and administrative aspects. Roberts (1998: 17) points out one of the weaknesses of this particular model by giving an example of a teacher who gained his teaching techniques with apprentices learning from an ‘expert teacher’, and successfully applied them in a similar context; however, when the same teacher applied them in a different context he was “utterly thrown by the fact that the techniques did not suit the context or the learners”. This example proves that the craft model heavily relies on an unchanging classroom environment and does not consider the uncertainty and diversity of teaching contexts. This is only one example of the unconstructive issues raised about this model, all of which were calls for a more thorough approach including both practice and scientific knowledge.

1.2. The Applied Science Method

Wallace (1991) describes the applied science model as the traditional model, and argues that it was then the most commonly used in most training or education institutions including medicine, architecture and teaching. This approach has evolved because “as psychological and pedagogical knowledge developed, academics wished to offer this knowledge to teachers in order to change education” Korthagen (2001: 2). From this, one can illicit that TE from an applied science perspective means providing learner teachers with scientific theories to enable them to practice their teaching, because practical knowledge needs to be related to theoretical knowledge .

Grenfell (1998) also acknowledges that this approach is helpful in teaching practice and therefore was predominant in the design of teachers’ training programmes in the 1960s to the 1980s. However, Grenfell questions this method by saying: “there is little doubt that education practice is driven by theory developed from scientific discoveries about how things happen” (ibid: 8). In addition, from the argument made by Crandall (2000: 38) that “teachers do not engage in mere implementation of routinized procedures, but are constantly engaged in thinking, problem-solving, and decision making”, one can argue that teachers learn better from problems they encounter rather than the ones they learn about.

All the above mentioned issues can be summarized in saying that the main criticism that might be made to this model is that there is no guarantee that student teachers will comprehend the given theories and put them into actual classroom practice; i.e. it moved from practice to theories with no attempt to link between the two. This is to say that TE was, at that stage, still in a need for improvement, which led to the development of the following model.

1.3. The Reflective Model

This approach is seen as an influential notion on TE from the 1980s to the 1990s (Grenfell, 1998) and means framing situations in real use and then reflecting on them in terms of what went well and what went wrong or at least did not go as planned, so that what goes according to plan can be repeated in future practice and vice versa. Since this model has evolved as an answer to the problems of the previous two, the assumption here is that in order for this model to work properly, it should include the three concepts of theory, practice and reflection to result in teacher competence. This could be seen as a praiseworthy and one of the strongest features of the model, as it stresses that teaching is a cycle learning theories practicing them, reflecting on the practice and then learning from all that.

However, others might see it as a complex or very difficult procedure to be applied by all teachers. For instance, Korthagen (2001) lists a few reasons that led to the introduction of following model: trainee teachers can not imitate the experiences of their master practitioners effectively, they also “do not carry much of the knowledge

base into practice”, and they do not always engage in meaningful reflection. To sum up, all the above proves that the reflection model did not completely solve the problem of linking between theory and practice, which can be seen as a call for an additional model.

1.4. The Competency Based Model

Korthagen states that “The idea underlying CBTE [Competency Based Teaching Education] was the formulation of concrete and observable criteria of good teaching, which could serve as a basis for the training of teachers” (ibid : 2). This means that TE should involve both identifying the trainable skills that are needed for real classroom teaching and then making them a basis for teacher education programmes. One argument, however, criticizing this model is the fact that in this sense it is similar to the craft model and might even be considered as a new version of it. Additionally, Grenfell *et al* (2003) clarify that some critics’ argue that this approach performs the behavioural misleading notion of only recognizing what can be observed, which might lead to undesirable conclusions. This is because in a teaching context even small competencies “can lead to extremely complicated descriptions” (ibid).

2. HISTORICAL REVIEW

In this section, an effort is made to present a reasonable historical overview of Libya as an outline to the historical background of the educational system in this particular country, although there is somewhat lack of English resources on this topic. In this respective, Lulat (2005) acknowledges that there is a severe shortage and a sense of unrealism in much of the available literature on the history of education in Africa in general.

2.1. History of Libya

Libya is one of the largest countries in Africa, located on the North coast of the continent. Libya used to be part of the Ottoman provinces up to 1911, when the Italian empire attacked Tripoli claiming that the aim was to liberate Libya from the Ottoman rule (Wright, 1982). The Kingdom of Italy managed to take full control over the country in 1933, and then relinquished all claims to Libya in 1947 under the terms of the ‘1947 Peace Preaty’ with the Allies (Metz, 1987). According to the world factbook published by the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA, 2009), the United Nations (UN) managed to help Libya to be the first country to gain its independence through UN in 1951. From that date Libya was a monarchy under the rule of King Idris until the 1996 revolution, when a group of military army led by Kernel Muammar Qaddafi, the late president of Libya who was a sergeant at that time, managed to take over.

2.2. History of Libyan Education

There seems to be no record of the education system before and during the early stages of the colonial regime (Wright,1982); this is probably because teaching at that time was mainly informal education based in small rooms in mosques known as '*Khalwa*' or '*Kuttab*'. Children at that time were mainly taught basic reading and writing skills of the Holy Quran by old religious people called '*Shaikh*' or 'Imam'; who will later choose the bright students to take over teaching duties or help them if the classes grow larger. for example the chosen students will help in handling beginners. Moreover, from the literal translation of the word *Kuttab*, which means writers writing what is narrated to them, one can argue that there was a tendency then to learn by rote/heart rather than by reasoning/understanding.

On the other hand, the fact that primary and secondary schools all over the country were established after the country gained its independence in 1951 (Coutsoukis,1994)¹ gave the Libyans the opportunity to gain some formal education. Probably not for everyone at the beginning, but "The policy was to reach out even to the nomadic hard-to-reach areas, and mobile classrooms were introduced to cover all Libya" (Hamdy, 2007), which is the case nowadays from the authors' perspective. According to Metz (1987), most primary and secondary education teachers after the independence up to the 1990s came from other Arab countries, mainly from Egypt.

The first university in Libya was established in 1955 consisting of two branches; the main branch was in Benghazi city and the second was in Tripoli the capital. In 1973, the two campuses separated and became the universities of Benghazi and Tripoli. Later on, in 1976, they were renamed by Gaddafi to be Garyounis University and Al-Fateh University, respectively (ibid). Universities started to appear all over the country after that, which is unquestionably why mainly all teaching staff in all basic and secondary education levels are now Libyan nationals who have graduated from Libyan universities and institutes.

3. LIBYAN ELTE CURRENT SITUATION

Generally speaking, since 1999, TE courses in Libya are now organized to be completed over a period of four years. It is also worth mentioning, that the TE system in Libya (like in any other country) went through several periods and has changed as the years has gone by; i.e. this was not always the case. This section, however, only concerns ELTE programmes in Libya from the year 1999 onwards, and all the following information has been retrieved from an ELTE course outline document published by SGPCE (see appendix 1).

¹ "Note: The information regarding Libya on this page is republished from The Library of Congress Country Studies and the CIA World Factbook. No claims are made regarding the accuracy of Libya EDUCATION information contained here." (Cousoukis,1994).

The analyses made to the above mentioned document indicate that over the four year programme, potential teachers are introduced to subjects that could be divided into the three main areas of *subject knowledge*, *pedagogical knowledge*, *general/cultural knowledge*. A quick look to the time table provided shows that the subject knowledge includes units in relation to the four main language skills of listening, reading, writing, and speaking; in addition to grammar, phonology, and an introduction to linguistics. The pedagogical section, alternatively, includes units in relation to teaching methodology (general and specific), research methods, teaching aids, curricula foundation, assessment and educational guidance. Finally, the general knowledge includes units on psychology (general, educational and developmental; each is introduced in a separate year, chronologically), Religious studies, Arabic language and political culture studies. Interestingly, all subject knowledge units plus the practicum (discussed below) are taught in English; whereas general, cultural and pedagogical subjects are delivered in Arabic, which is normally both the students' and tutors' mother-tongue.

The programme also includes a practical section in the fourth year, where the trainees are required to observe a Language teacher for three months practice for the same period with the same class, and then report on that experience as an assignment for this unit. This practicum could take place in a primary or secondary school, depending on the availability and the trainees' choice. It is important to point out here that an interview with a retired teacher educator (my father) disclosed that the structure of the practicum could differ from one institution to another in terms of length of observation and the reflection; yet, three main elements are always available: observation, practice, and reflection. In other words, the observation in some institutions only lasts for two or three weeks (Mohamed, 2009), or the reflection can be done orally through an interview after each observation or practice instead of in written form.

Finally, the students are assessed at the end of the course from two perspectives. The first assessor is an academic from the same institution the trainees are studying in, while the other is from the Local Education Authority (LEA) in the Libyan high ministry of education. To ease the referencing in the discussion related to this matter, the assessment sheets used by both the TE and the LEA examiners are attached as appendices (see appendix 2 & 3).

4. DISCUSSION & EVALUATION

After discussing the four main TE model and looking at both the past and present situations of TE in Libya, one can argue, as an overall impression, that there is a clear shift in the Libyan TE from the Craft Model to the Applied Science Model. This is due to the fact that, as shown in the historical overview, teaching in the past was based on potential teachers being trained by one master and just repeating what they have been taught in the same way they have been taught. Whereas, now it is clear

from the documents analysed that TE programmes provide learner teachers with scientific theories to help them practice their teaching, and also include a practical section to help them make sense of these theories in practice. Having said this, it can be concluded that the approach adopted is a top-down one, since theories are introduced first and the practicum is only introduced in the fourth year.

On the other hand, it will be unfair to judge the current situation by saying it only includes features of the applied science model, since it is difficult to have clear-cut divisions between the four philosophies (Grenfell *et al*, 2003) and the analysis also reveals some features that could be related to other models. For instance, one can argue that because part of the programme is to observe a teacher teaching then take over the duty of teaching the class, the system still has some features similar to the craft model. Another example that could be related to another model is in the report on the practicum part produced by the student teachers; specifically, it could be seen as a shift towards the reflective model. This is because the trainees are likely to spot some features in the methodology of the observed teacher that do not fit with what they have been taught and either reflect on those in their assignment or by doing it differently, and in both ways the outcome is argued to be a positive learning.

Additionally, by comparing the two assessment sheets, one can argue that the focus of the two assessors is different. The former (found in appendix 1) is mainly based on what has been taught in the course (language abilities, pedagogical competence, classroom management, etc.); whereas, the latter (found in appendix 2) has different concerns and looks at specifications (such as appearance & cultural and political beliefs) that fit with the Libyan ministry of education. Given that it is obvious from the assessment sheet used by the LEA examiners that there are certain specifications for a Libyan teacher, proves that there is a sense of the Competency Based Model.

SUMMARY/CONCLUSION

The above arguments might sound as an advantage that the Libyan TE is up-to-date and implementing all four models, yet the author has a different opinion about this matter. First, it could be argued that there is no guarantee trainee teachers will engage in meaningful or useful reflection, since the curricula are out-of-date (Mohamed, 2009) and do not include recent theories of TE. In addition, there seems to be no cooperation between the two institutions involved in assessing the teacher trainees. In fact, it is considered illogical to assess the students at the end of the course according to specifications that have not been introduced to them in the curricula. Another disturbing aspect lies in the fact that Libyan TE institutions are considered as faculties part of larger institutions (universities), which could be why the structure is different from one centre to another.

On the bright side, given the fact that Libya spent a long time being a colony to a fascist system (Italy) and the Ottoman rule before that, where no opposition was allowed, one can argue that the education system has improved to a great deal in very few years. Furthermore, as an insider to the Libyan context and from the above discussion, I can state that there are many distinguished outcomes of the Libyan TE system. For instance, the provision of national teachers mentioned above which could also be seen nowadays in the higher education system, or at least this should be the case in the near future by looking at the number of postgraduate students being sent abroad. There is also a noticeable increase in the level of primary and secondary educational curricula in the last few years. Consequently, this has improved the level of education amongst Libyan citizens, in particular the language learners who join the LTE programmes .

In conclusion, based on the above discussion, a few suggestions could be made here in relation to the Libyan TE system. The first suggestion is to have a Libyan high ministry of TE that combines all TE institutions in the country. Arguably, this will ensure they run in the same way, and will build some cooperation between the two institutions involved in the assessment programme. Moreover, since there is an increase in the level of students joining TE programmes and a reasonable number of teacher educators are returning from abroad now with more recent theories, the second suggestion is to include a TE research centre to Keep the curricula up-to-date or at least within a level that fits with such content.

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APPENDIX (1)

Secretariat of General People's Committee For Education Language Teacher Education Course Description

First Year Courses

<i>No.</i>	<i>Subject No.</i>	<i>Subject Name</i>	<i>Time</i>	<i>Units No.</i>
1	EL 110	Reading Comprehension I	2	4
2	EL 111	Writing I	2	4
3	EL 112	Grammar I	2	4
4	EL 113	Language Laboratory	2	4
5	EL 114	Conversation Practice	2	4
6	م ع 101	Arabic اللغة العربية	2	4
7	م ع 102	Religious Studies الدراسات القرآنية	2	4
8	م ع 103	Political Culture الثقافة السياسية	2	4
9	م ع 104	General Psychology علم النفس العام	2	4
10	م ع 106	Introduction to Education مدخل إلى التربية	2	4
المجموع			20	40

Second Year Courses

<i>No.</i>	<i>Subject No.</i>	<i>Subject Name</i>	<i>Time</i>	<i>Units No.</i>
1	EL 220	Reading Comprehension II	2	4
2	EL 221	Writing II	2	4
3	EL 222	Grammar II	2	4
4	EL 223	Spoken English	2	4
5	EL 224	Phonetics	2	4
6	م ع 211	Curricula أسس المناهج	2	4
7	م ع 212	General Methodology طرق تدريس العامة	1	2
8	م ع 214	Research Methods مناهج البحث العلمي	2	4
9	م ع 214	Educational psychology علم النفس التربوي	1	2
المجموع			16	32

Third Year Courses

No.	Subject No.	Subject Name	Time	Units No.
1	EL 330	Reading Comprehension III	2	4
2	EL 331	Writing III	2	4
3	EL 332	Grammar III	2	4
4	EL 333	Spoken English I	2	4
5	EL 334	Literary Readings I	2	4
6	EL 335	Teaching Methodology	2	4
7	م ع 320	Educational Guidance الإرشاد والتوجيه التربوي	1	2
8	م ع 321	Specific Methodology طرق تدريس الخاصة	2	4
9	م ع 322	Developmental Psychology علم النفس النمو	1	2
10	م ع 323	Teaching aids الوسائل التعليمية	2	4
المجموع			18	36

Fourth Year Courses

No.	Subject No.	Subject Name	Time	Units No.
1	EL 440	Reading Comprehension IV	2	4
2	EL 441	Writing IV	2	4
3	EL 442	Spoken English IV	2	4
4	EL 443	Literary Readings II	2	4
5	EL 444	Introduction to Linguistics	2	4
6	EL 445	Instructional Strategies	2	4
7	EL 446	Teaching Practice	2	4
8	EL 499	Research Paper	2	4
9	أ ع 431	Assessment التقويم والقياس	2	4
10	م ع 432	Practicum التربية العلمية	2	4
المجموع			20	40

APPENDIX (2)

Secretariat of General People's Committee For Education

Administration of Education Inspectorate

Certificate for evaluating the performance of teachers of English Language

Area / Community of Educational Inspection Office
 School..... People's Congress Name of the
 teacher.....Nationality.....Qualification.....
Date of graduation..... Specialization.....
 Date of appointment Classes he/she is in charge of
 Number of classes per week.....

Date of visit	Classes being visited	Lesson / Unit	Attendees	Absentees

Details on the visit	1 st visit	2 nd Visit	3 rd visit	4 th Visit	Average	remarks
Intellectual performance and written lesson plan. (15 marks)						
Follow up of written activities. (7 marks)						
Use of audio –visual / materials. (8 marks)						
Methods and procedures . (12 marks)						
Application of syllabus and its effect on students progress : a. Amount of syllabus being taught . (7 marks) b. Student's competence . (12 marks)						
Teacher's language ability: a. Pronunciation. (5 marks) b. Structure. (5 marks) c. Fluency. (5 marks)						
Teacher's character and conduct: a. Appearance. (5 marks) b. His / Her relation with students. (5 marks)						
General activities related to the subject. (5 marks)						
Teacher's cooperation with the inspector. (9 marks)						
Total Marks . 100 marks						
Average						

APPENDIX (3)

Secretariat of General People's Committee For Education

Administration of Education Inspectorate

الصفحة السنوية لتقييم معلم لغة إنجليزية

المدرسة : المرحلة : المحلة : اسم
المعلم : المؤهل وتاريخه : تاريخ التعيين : / / 20

ملاحظات	عدد الطلبة		موضوع الدرس	المادة	الفصول التي تمت زيارتها	تاريخ الزيارة
	الحاضرين	الغائبين				

المادة : الفصول التي يدرسها : عدد الحصص الأسبوعية :

ر.م	أسس التقويم	الدرجة المقدره	الزيارة الأولى	الزيارة الثانية	الزيارة الثالثة	الزيارة الرابعة	متوسط الدرجات	ملاحظات
1	تقسيم المنهج ومقدار ما تمت دراسته	4						
2	إعداد الدرس ذهنيا	9						
3	إعداد الدرس كتابيا	9						
4	الوسيلة التعليمية التي استعملت أثناء الدرس	10						
5	استعمال السبورة والكتاب المدرسي	5						
6	القدرة على إعداد الوسيلة التعليمية والمشاركة في النشاط العام	6						
7	متابعة الواجبات المدرسية وتصحيحها	5						
8	متابعة التطبيقات الأسبوعية	4						
9	القدرة على تقويم الطلاب ورصد الدرجات الأسبوعية	4						
10	القدرة على تحقيق الأهداف من الدرس	9						
11	الاهتمام بالمناقشة والحوار أثناء الدرس	7						
12	مستوى الطلاب التحصيلي	18						
13	التعاون مع المفتش والالتزام بتنفيذ التوجيهات	6						
14	مظهر المعلم وأثره في نظام الفصل	4						
	مجموع الدرجات	100						

ملاحظات عامة :

الدرجة بالحروف : بالأرقام :

الرأي الفني في المعلم (ضعيف - متوسط - جيد - جيد جداً - ممتاز) (.....)

دليل التقدير

الدرجة	أقل من 50	50 - 63	64 - 70	78 - 89	90 - 100
التقدير	ضعيف	متوسط	جيد	جيد جداً	ممتاز

اسم المفتش التوقيع التاريخ / / 20

يعتمد رئيس الوحدة

الإسم :

التوقيع :