EFFECTS OF REFLECTIVE AND MICRO-TEACHING PRACTICES ON TEACHING SKILLS AND ATTITUDE TO TEACHING PRACTICE AMONG PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS OF ENGLISH IN NIGERIA

BY

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CERTIFICATION

I certify that the research work that culminated into the writing of this Doctoral Thesis was carried out by **Esther Morayo DADA**, under my supervision.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to the memory of the late Dr A.A. Akinlua, the man God used to direct my feet to the world of academics. May his gentle soul rest in peace.

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Dada, Esther Morayo

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ABSTRACT

A large number of pre-service English as Second Language (ESL) teachers trained in Nigeria have deficiencies in developing and demonstrating appropriate teaching skills and attitude during Teaching Practice (TP). This is probably as a result of their inadequate exposure to participatory practices like Reflective Teaching Practice (RTP) and Micro-Teaching Practice (MTP) during the exercise. Previous studies on RTP and MTP have focused on different areas of teacher behaviour but have not sufficiently covered the area of using them to improve the teaching skills and attitude of pre-service teachers. This study, therefore, determined the effects of RTP and MTP on teaching skills and attitude to teaching practice among pre-service teachers of English as second language in South-West and North-Central states of Nigeria. The moderating effects of the pre-service teachers' academic ability and gender on the dependent variables were also determined.

Pretest-posttest, control group, quasi experimental research design was adopted. The participants were 120 pre-service ESL teachers selected through multistage sampling technique from six colleges of education in South-West (4) and North-Central (2) states. Participants were randomly assigned to RTP (40), MTP (40) and Control (40) groups respectively. Pre-service ESL Teachers' Attitude to Teaching Practice Questionnaire (r= 0.88), Classroom Observation Scale Manual (r= 0.79), Academic Ability Rating Sheet and two Instructional Guides, Micro Teaching Instructional Guide and Reflective Teaching Instructional Guide (r = 0.81 and r = 0.88) were the instruments used. Seven hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance. The treatment lasted 12 weeks. Data were analysed using Analysis of Covariance, and Scheffe's post-hoc test.

There was a significant main effect of treatment on ESL pre-service teachers' teaching skills ($F_{(2, 103)} = 22.78$; $\eta^2 = .31$). Pre-service ESL teachers exposed to MTP had highest teaching skill mean score ($\bar{x}= 96.37$), those exposed to RTP had ($\bar{x}= 91.82$) and control ($\bar{x}= 76.84$). There was also a significant main effect of treatment on the attitude of pre-service ESL teachers to teaching practice ($F_{(2, 103)} = 5.82$; $\eta^{2 =} .10$). Pre-service ESL teachers exposed to RTP had highest post attitude mean score ($\bar{x}= 61.78$), than those exposed to MTP ($\bar{x}=59.75$) and those exposed to conventional teaching practice ($\bar{x}= 52.83$). There were no significant main effects of academic ability and gender on pre-service ESL teachers' teaching skills and attitude towards teaching practice. Also, there were no significant interaction effects of treatments and each of teachers' academic ability and gender.

Micro-teaching practice and reflective teaching practices enhanced the pre-service ESL teachers' teaching skills and attitude towards teaching practice, though the latter was more effective in Nigeria. These strategies should be adopted in improving the teaching skills of pre-service teachers of English as second language.

Key words: Reflective teaching practice, Micro-teaching, Pre-service ESL teachers, Teaching skills, Attitude to teaching practice.

Word count: 440

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Quality and quantity are seen as critical factors in teacher preparation all over the world. This is because it is a reality that the success of the entire education system depends, to a large extent, on the quality and quantity of the teachers that man the educational programme. Feiman–Nemser (2001) comments that the quality of the products of a nation's schools, depends on the quality of the nation's teachers. Kolawole, (2007) draws an analogy of the factors of production in teaching and sees the teacher as the entrepreneur who organises and uses the other factors in the school system to achieve maximum result. Invariably, the quality of the teacher will affect other factors. Section $8^{B,}$ sub-section 70(a) of the National Policy on Education in Nigeria (FME, 2004) lends credence to this when it states that:

> Since no education system may rise above the quality of its teachers, teacher education shall continue to be given major emphasis in all educational planning and development. (pg. 39)

Teacher education can therefore be said to be crucial to the overall educational goals of a nation since it goes a long way to affect the quality of the teachers who are the products of such teacher education programmes. This underscores the need to train teachers, who are knowledgeable and competent in good teaching skills. The need to properly train teachers to acquire and be able to demonstrate appropriate teaching skills is so crucial that it should be a concern of teacher education and should not be trivialised in this age of competency based education. According to Ezeoba, Obi and Olibie (2013), Competency-Based Education (CBE) is in contrast with the traditional teacher education programme which was experience-based (as long as a trainee teacher is able to complete a required number of credit units, it is assumed that he/she has acquired the requisite knowledge and experience sufficient for him/her to be regarded as an efficient teacher).

On the basis of the above, it is expedient for all teacher-education programmes to make student teachers acquire all necessary skills that would impact on their work when they qualify as teachers in future. To this end, Salawu (1999) asserts that teacher trainers should not leave the acquisition of these basic skills till the time the student teachers might have left their institutions of training. They should use the best practice to help student teachers learn and acquire essential skills and attitudes. He goes further to explain that it is no longer sufficient for teachers to be warm and loving towards children, nor is it sufficient for them to employ teaching practices based solely on intuition, personal preference or conventional

wisdom but efforts should be made to see that they acquire the essential teaching skills they require.

Teacher education, according to Onojete (2007), is the provision of professional education and specialized training, within a specified period, for the preparation of individuals who intend to develop and nurture the young ones into responsible and productive citizens. Ipaye (1995) also defines teacher education as a process whereby the pre-service teacher is given the opportunity to develop cognitive perspective, affective disposition and psychomotor competencies which will equip the trainee with qualities, capacities and capabilities for the teaching job. These definitions give credence to the need for training in order to become a teacher. It therefore follows that teachers can be made to acquire essential knowledge, skills and dispositions leading to good teaching. This is why Feiman-Nemser (2001) states that what and how teachers teach depend on the knowledge, skills and commitments they bring to their teaching.

Lack of good training of teachers poses a dangerous threat to the entire education system. Kolawole (2007) observes that one major problem of education in Nigeria is the inadequate supply of highly qualified teachers at all levels of our educational system. The teacher is such an important factor that Aggarwal (2004) argues that there is no exaggeration that a spacious building, costly equipment and sound syllabus will serve some useful purposes only when there are teachers who are fully aware and alive to the nobility of the profession and its accompanying responsibilities. All of these will be determined by the way teachers are trained.

In Nigeria, teacher education programmes have been observed by researchers to be faced with a lot of problems, hence, they have been faulty (Onojete, 2007; Dada, 2008; Ajibade, 2005; Obanya, 1982). These scholars have identified various flaws in our teacher education programmes, which include poor curriculum content, qualification for admission into training institutions, the methods of training and the period of time used for training among others. These flaws call for a need to introduce reforms that can help improve the quality of teacher education in Nigeria.

A major aspect of teacher-education programme is the teaching practice that gives the student teachers opportunity to learn and acquire essential pedagogic skills and experience real school life in its entire ramification. The teaching practice period gives the would–be teacher opportunity to put into practice, the principles, theories and other forms of knowledge to which he/she has been exposed in the course of classroom studies. Teaching practice can also be called school placement or teaching internship. It is similar to what obtains in

professions like Medicine, Law and others (Adetoro, 2007). Since every profession places high premium on the practical training aspect of such profession, education cannot afford to do contrary to that and expect to have highly competent professionals.

As important as teaching practice is, its organisation and structure in Nigeria teacher training institutions is not properly regulated. Each institution seems to do what it deems fit and convenient. Kolawole (2007) while comparing professional training (teaching practice) in teacher preparation programmes in Nigeria and the United States of America (USA) comments that would-be teachers in Nigeria are sent to schools for certain period of time ranging from one to three months with supervisors coming in occasionally to observe and assess them. This practice, according to him, is quite different from what obtains in the United States of America. In the United States, student teaching is seen as the last leg and no other courses go with it and it is usually organised in three parts. This current practice in Nigeria is not significantly different from what obtained during the colonial era. The implication of this is that the conduct of teaching practice in teacher education programmes in Nigeria has not improved significantly over time. Hence, there is need for reforms.

Ogonor and Badmus (2010) observe that in Nigeria, teacher training institutions have been criticized for their inability to produce teachers who are properly grounded in pedagogic skills and content knowledge. This might be the reason that it is a common thing for schools to reject student teachers sent to them for teaching practice. It has been observed that student teachers are not often properly grounded to put into practice current pedagogic and interactive skills that have been learnt theoretically. According to some research reports, some of the deficiencies of student teachers during teaching practice include improper distribution, timing and frequency of questions, poor classroom organisation, poor lesson planning and presentation, improper use of chalk board, lack of class control, among others (Adetoro, 2007; Ogonor and Badmus, 2010; Olofintoye, 2001). The reason for these deficiencies might be connected to the way training institutions prepare pre-service teachers for and monitor them on teaching practice. This is why Harford and MacRuaire (2008) call for teacher education that encapsulates the complex, analytical and inquiring nature of teaching that pre-service teachers need to acquire to become successful teachers.

Teaching skills are central to the teaching enterprise because teaching is a complex phenomenon, comprising several teaching skills, while teaching is central to the education process. It is pertinent therefore to pay attention to the issue of teaching skills especially in the process of teacher education. According to Mangal and Mangal (2009), teaching skills are a set of interrelated component teaching behaviours for the realisation of specific

instructional objectives. Abolade (2000) describes teaching skills as the activities that generate and are applied by a teacher during the process of changing the behaviours of the learners. These definitions imply that teaching skills can be exhibited, identified and analysed in a systematic way. Teaching skills also relate to the various stages of teaching or in the continuous flow of the teacher performance.

In the words of Pollard (1997), for novice teachers to develop competence in teaching skills, they need to proceed carefully, having only a limited understanding of the issues with which they are about to engage, and having to think hard about the various features of their classroom situation and how best to act in it. Teaching as an art is a complex process. Obanya (1982) highlights teaching as a continuous, cyclic process involving three main phases which are:

i. Pre-teaching: during this stage, the teacher plans what to teach and prepares and/or collects the materials to be used for teaching.

ii. Classroom interaction: during this stage, the teacher engages in purposeful interaction among the materials, the subject-matter, the learner and the teacher.

iii. Post-teaching: during this stage, the teacher reflects on the task just completed and feeds back observations into the planning of the next lesson.

The process according to him then continues *ad infinitum*.

This is represented in the following figure:

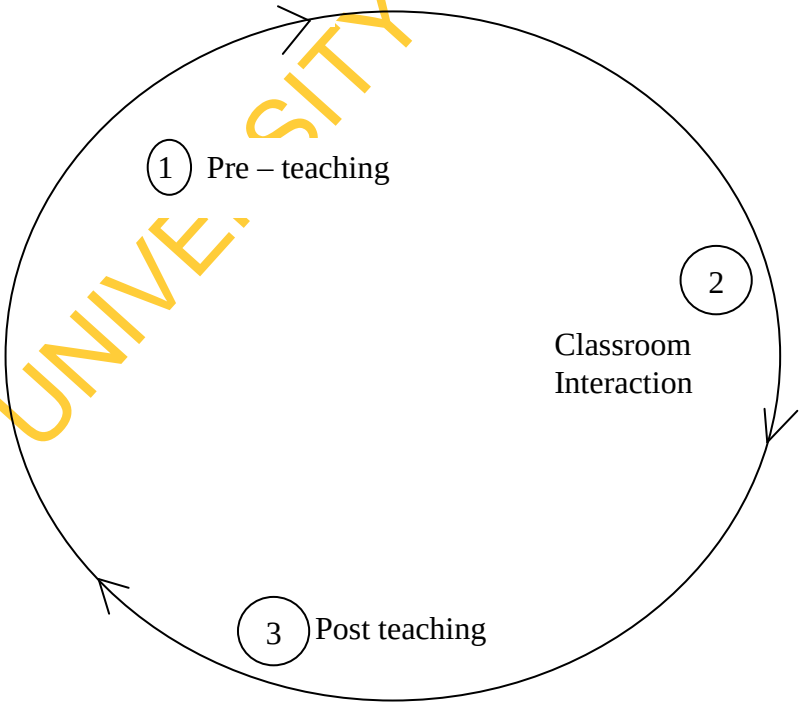


Fig. 1: The Cyclic Nature of Teaching (Obanya, 1982)

A close look at what most teachers do today in Nigeria shows that they only concern themselves with *phase two* of the circle and this is why Obanya goes further to brand them as 'cheaters'. The reason for this problem among teachers might not be far from the problem of the kind of training that teachers received from their various institutions of training.

Aggarwal (2007) identifies the component skills associated with the various stages of teaching as shown on the following table:

Table I: Stages of a Lesson and the Component Skills

Stages of a Lesson	***Component Skills***
I Planning stage *(Pre-teaching stage)*	1. selecting the content 2. organising the content 3. writing instructional objectives 4. selecting instructional resources 5.producing a lesson-plan
II Introductory stage *(Set-induction)*	6. creating set for introducing the lesson 7. introducing the lesson
III Presentation stage	***a. Questioning skills*** 8. structuring classroom questions 8. fluency in questions 9. different types of questions 10. use of higher order questions 11. divergent questions 12. distribution of questions 13. response management ***b. Presentation skills*** 14. pacing the lesson 15. lecturing / narration 16. explaining 17. demonstrating 18. discussing 19. elucidating with examples ***c. Resources using skills***

	20. using resources 21. using chalkboard/interactive board 22. stimulus variation 23. silence and non-verbal cues 24. reinforcement ***d. Managerial skills*** 25. promoting pupils' participation 26. recognising attendant behaviour 27. managing the class
IV Closing stage	28. achieving closure 29. planned repetition 30. giving assignments 31. evaluating students' progress 32. diagnosing students' learning difficulties and taking remedial measures (providing feedback)

Adapted from Aggarwal (2007).

Considering teaching in the light of the above components, one would see it as a task that is highly demanding, and calls for the correct attitude and ability. Ajibade (2005) rightly observes that the general education students (pre-service teachers) are characterised by 'non-concern'. According to her, these student teachers are yet to see what teaching entails and as such they are not bothered. They only move along within the system and develop lukewarm attitude towards teaching. Attitude, whether positive or negative, can affect performance and even efficiency since it is a matter of disposition. According to Karavas-Donkase (1996), positive attitude leads to greater interest and performance. As such, whatever the attitude of pre-service teachers to teaching practice will definitely influence their performance in the task of teaching.

Abimbade (1999) identifies certain problems in the conduct of teaching practice exercise in training institutions. To him, student teachers' attitude towards teaching generally and teaching practice in particular is one of the problems that have made the conduct of teaching practice to depreciate in recent years. This is evident in the fact that most student teachers see teaching practice as an unnecessary burden; a course they must take and pass.

This kind of attitude might make them not to put in their best in order to gain the necessary knowledge and skill during the exercise. It has also been observed that sometimes student teachers abscond from their schools of posting without any notice to either the cooperating school or the institution of training. The reason for this might not be too far from the issue of attitude. Student teachers seem to demonstrate a lot of negative attitude towards teaching practice. Some would not go to report on time, they would have wasted some weeks giving one excuse or the other. Others would report at their school of posting only the day they know their supervisor would be coming. Apart from students' attitude, lecturers' attitude towards teaching practice is also appalling because of what Olatunji and Olatunji (2006) call 'sharp practices' and this in a way have influenced students' attitude towards the exercise. This problem calls for attention and examination on the part of teacher educators.

Aggarwal (2004) emphasises that teaching is complex and many-sided, demanding a variety of human traits and abilities while, Kardia and Wright (2004) comment that teaching requires skill, insight, intelligence and diligence. These comments stress the importance of the ability of the teacher, which includes among others, his mental or academic ability. There is no gainsaying that the academic ability of a teacher can influence his/her performance. Criuckshank, Jenkins and Metcal (2003) also list factors that influence how a teacher teaches to include, personal characteristics (age, gender, experience, personality among others), experience and preparation in education (how the teacher was taught, how the teacher prefers to learn, the teacher's knowledge of subject matter) and the context in which teaching is taking place (class size, students' differences, availability of materials, availability of time). Part of what they call experience and preparation is the teacher's knowledge of subject matter which in this context could also be termed the teacher's academic ability. Bandele (2000) lists 26 criteria which he calls the *XYZ* criteria that could be used to evaluate the performance of the teacher; among which are ability and brilliance; while Jegede (2002) in his own list of desirable traits of a good teacher lists scholarship. It is therefore evident that academic ability can influence a teacher's performance. One erroneous belief in Nigeria is that education courses are meant for candidates who are not intelligent and cannot go for more prestigious courses like Law and Medicine. While categorising variables relating to the characteristics of teachers, Jibowo (2007), lists personality, attitude, motivation and ability as variables that can influence the teacher's work. However, some previous studies have failed to show any relationship between knowledge of subject matter (academic ability) and teachers teaching effectiveness. This may mean that having substantial subject or content knowledge alone

does not guarantee good teaching. It is therefore necessary to investigate the impact of teachers' academic ability on their teaching skills.

A number of studies have also been carried out on the influence of teacher's gender on the way he/she teaches. Basow (1999) finds that male instructors (teachers) were perceived by students to be more knowledgeable, while female instructors were thought to be more sensitive and respectful of students' ideas. Kimmel (2000) comments that studies consistently find that male and female instructors (teachers) are perceived differently in ways that are consistent with stereotypically gendered expectations of communication and interaction patterns. Chudgar and Sankar (2008) in their study on the relationship between teachers' gender and students' achievement report that male and female teachers differ in terms of their classroom management practices and their belief in students' learning ability. They also found that being in a female teacher's classroom is advantageous for language but a teacher's gender has no effect on mathematics learning. Thomas, Amy and Amanda (2007) report that, based on data from faculty members that participated in the faculty survey of student engagement, gender difference existed in the percentage of class time spent on various activities (a measure of teaching style) but that the gap between men and women in lecturing and active classroom practices can vary by factors including disciplinary area and class size. It is therefore possible that gendered perception of instructors might be related to differences in teaching styles. Literature seems to agree that female teachers tend to use teaching techniques that are more interactive. These conflicting reports, call for further investigation.

The English as Second Language (ESL) pre-service teachers form part of the student teachers that have been discussed so far. Teaching English as a second language (ESL) is one of the specialised body of knowledge earlier mentioned. That is an area of specialisation that will make the recipients become teachers of English language. Adegbite (2005) points out that English language teachers do not only need to properly identify the needs of their pupils and the essential components to teach, but they also need to develop and acquire appropriate methods and skills to teach them. This underscores the need for pre-service English ESL teachers to be trained to acquire the appropriate methods and skills for teaching the language effectively and efficiently. He goes further to assert that the problems that need to be tackled in this respect include making adequate provisions for well-trained English language teachers to teach English language in schools, making adequate provisions for essential equipment, materials and infrastructure among others. These call for urgent attention and intervention in the way ESL teachers are being trained presently.

Adegbite (2002) had earlier identified one of the problems faced by English as second language learners in Nigeria as faulty classroom presentation of English language lessons while Ezeokoli (1999) calls for a review of the English language teacher preparation programme in Nigeria. This, according to him, is because the present teacher education programme that we have cannot guarantee to provide the prospective English language teachers with enough knowledge and skills to play their professional roles effectively in this 21st century.

On his own part, Freeman (1996) observes that most conventional practices in language teacher education have operated like hand-me-down stories, folk wisdom shared as 'truth' of the profession with little other than habit and convention on which to base them. The new trend of knowledge requires that teacher education programmes adequately prepare pre-service English language teachers to play a central role in facilitating learning experiences for students. This is why Rowsell, Kosaik and Beck (2008) suggest that what is needed in pre-service English language teacher preparation is a new vision—a new pedagogical practice that opens possibilities for greater participation in the learning process for all students. Freeman (2002), Snow, Griffin and Burns (2005) suggest the need for further exploration of how teacher candidates learn to teach. Their position is based on the argument that an effective teacher preparation approach should view learning to teach as:

- a continuous process of learning that does not end.
- a practice that requires teacher candidates to articulate what they know about teaching, *and*
- a content-specific activity that requires pre-service teachers to make judgments based on the data they collect from their own teaching.

It seems there is a general belief among scholars that what students learn is directly related to what and how teachers teach. What and how teachers teach depends on the knowledge, skills, and commitment they bring to their teaching (Feiman–Nemser, 2001; Douglas and Tim, 2008). Students' performance can therefore be linked with teachers' competence. The current trend of students' poor performance in English language has lingered for a few decades now. This has been attested to by scholars like Adedipe (2008), Adegbite (2005), Ayodele (2004), among others. Most research into the possible causes of these problems have been focused on factors or problems that lie in the students, like, students' home background, age, gender, verbal ability and so on. Other external factors such as availability of instructional materials, class size, methods of teaching, school environment among others have also been investigated. These researchers include Babalola (2010), Ofodu

(2009), Oyinloye (2009), Fakeye (2008) among others. Many teachers and even researchers still believe that the problems causing mass failure in English language lie in the students' inability to perform. Different findings have been made and many solutions have been proffered, yet the problem of poor performance still persists. The importance of the English language in the Nigerian society is so great that the problem cannot be allowed to continue.

A crucial issue in teacher education programmes therefore is how pre-service teachers should be prepared before they begin to teach in their own classrooms (Harrison, Lawson, and Wortley 2005; Korthagen 2001) while Darling-Hammond (2001) argues that effective pre-service teacher preparation is germane to effective instruction in the classroom. Hiebert, Morris Berk and Jersen (2007) question "What knowledge, skills and dispositions would pre-service teachers need to learn from teaching- not in an informal, haphazard way but in an intentional and systematic way?" Lawal (2011), raises the issue of teacher identity here, to him, teacher identity becomes a construct, a complex composite comprising what the teacher knows, does, and how he/she feels, as well as how he/she thinks about his/her knowledge, actions and values relative to the discharge of his/her social roles and responsibilities. He stresses further the need to identify a robust set of teacher-identity indicators which fuse professional knowledge with reflective performance. The following questions according to him will serve as guide in developing these indicators:

i. What am I supposed to know? (knowledge and understanding)

ii. What am I supposed to do? (skills and practices)

iii. How am I supposed to feel? (attitude and values)

There is therefore a need for a shift in the paradigm of how English language teachers are trained. The ESL classroom in Nigeria especially seem to be bedeviled by a lot of problems which range from teachers' lack of such skills as questioning, method of good interaction in a language classroom, lack of good knowledge of the subject matter, and a host of others (Dada, 2005; Okusaga, 2004). Dada (2005) in a study observed that ESL teachers dominate their classes and tend to talk from positions of authority to a set of passive learners who could not or would never challenge the authority of the teachers. This makes classes to be highly mono-directional in terms of the pattern of interaction; teachers' questioning techniques were found to be obsolete and ineffective. This problem might not be unconnected to the type of training which these teachers received which is probably inadequate in terms of training in pedagogic skills. The training process of teachers in most educational institutions has become rife with complaints of drudgery among staff and students, and consequently frustration on the part of both of them (Ogonor & Badmus, 2010). A cursory look at Nigerian

classrooms today reveals a lot of unhealthy classroom practices that would rather impede learning than promote learning.

It has been observed that the starting point towards a positive pedagogy entails the teachers' personal choices about the way they think, feel and behave as teachers and they can become aware of the learning atmosphere they create and how the moment-by-moment choices they make can affect the learning environment of their students (Underhill, 1999). Richards and Lockhart (1996) rightly observe that:

> A new trend in second language teaching is a movement away from 'methods' and other 'external' or 'top down' views of teaching towards an approach that seeks to understand teaching in its own terms. (pg. ix)

To them, such an approach often starts with the instructors/ teachers themselves and the actual teaching processes, and seeks to gain a better understanding of these processes by exploring with teachers what things they do and why they do them. The approach is often teacher initiated and directed because it involves teachers observing themselves, collecting data about their own classrooms and their roles within them, and using the data as a basis for self-evaluation, for change and hence for professional growth.

Teaching English as a second language, as observed by Gbenedio (1996), may not be an easy task but can always be a pleasurable experience to a teacher who is well-prepared for the task especially right from the period of training. An important issue in teacher education is the nature and extent of teacher preparation before becoming classroom teachers (Snow, Griffin and Burns, 2005; Cochran-Smith, 2002; Darling-Hammond, Chung and Frelow, 2002). One reason for this is that researchers' conceptualisations of teacher learning have continuously evolved over time. The pressure on teacher education to prepare pre-service service teachers to bridge the gap between the traditional and modern day challenges will intensify in the years ahead (Rowsell, Kosnik and Beck 2008). This observation might be true of Nigeria where teachers have been observed to be using the traditional method even in this modern age.

Karen (1992) observes that recent concern over the status of teacher education in the field of second language teaching has focused on the lack of a theoretical framework to serve as a basis for second language teacher preparation programmes. This view was also shared by Richards and Nunan (1990). But for over two decades after this observation, the situation seems not to have improved significantly. Donald and Karen (1998) argue that since teacher education practices constitute our professional self-definition, the core of a new knowledge-

based language teacher education must be found on the activity of teaching itself; it should centre on the teacher who does it, the contexts in which it is done, and the pedagogy by which it is done.

Learning to teach therefore is an enormous task. Just as student learning is the desired outcome of teaching, teacher learning is the desired outcome of teacher education. A focus on teachers as learners begins with images and beliefs that must be extended or transformed (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). This, according to him, is reflected in deliberate efforts by teacher educators to model the kind of interactive, content-rich teaching they are trying to promote and to create opportunities for pre-service teachers to experience that teaching as learners. One way of achieving this kind of experience according to him is to make pre-service teachers transformative learners.

Over the years, the transmission approach to teacher education has been adopted. Transmission approach is conceived as a process where teacher educators stimulate the transfer of theories, methods and skills to pre-service teachers with the hope that they will apply the knowledge in their classrooms. This is why Hatton and Smith (1996) criticise the transmission approach to teacher education for its shortcomings on practical conceptual and theoretical grounds. They argue that the transmission approach only seeks to transfer knowledge from teacher educators to pre-service teachers rather than emphasising knowledge of teaching that is derived from the construction and reconstruction of professional experience. The transformative approach is therefore suggested.

According to Mezirow (2003), transformative learning may be understood as the epistemology of how adults learn to think for themselves rather than act upon the assimilated beliefs, values, feelings and judgments of others. Learning to decide more insightfully for oneself what is right, good and beautiful is centrally concerned with bringing into awareness and negotiating one's own purposes, values, beliefs, feelings, dispositions and judgments rather than acting on those of others. It is the process by which we call into question our taken for granted frames of reference (habits of mind or mindsets) to make them more inclusive, discriminating, open, and reflective so that they may generate beliefs, and opinions that will prove more true or justified to guide action (Williams , 2010).

In the words of Ukpokodu (2007), teacher education research shows that pre-service teachers view teaching as a skill involving a process of transmitting knowledge and dispensing information (Kincheloe, 2003; Parajes, 1992) and have a tendency to judge the quality of everything encountered on grounds of perceived practicality. Imperatively, research suggests that these perspectives may impede the development of teachers capable of

making substantive changes in their classrooms (Anderson and Piazza, 1996). Consequently, there is a critical need to assist pre-service teachers in a process of self-transformation as they learn the art and science of teaching. Ukpokodu (2007), explains transformation in learning as when a person sees some aspects of the world in a new way or when a person finds new meaning and values the new meaning. Mezirow (1991) argues that though all learning is designed towards change but not all change is transformation. In order for learning to be transformational, therefore, learners would have to change their frames of reference by *critically reflecting* on their assumptions and beliefs and *consciously* making and implementing plans that bring about new ways of defining their worlds and understanding (Mezirow, 1997).

Other scholars have defined transformative learning as learning that produces a significant impact, or paradigm shift, which affects the learner's subsequent experiences (Clark, 1993). In the ever-changing and dynamic world of today, pre-service teachers would have to be trained to shift from the traditional conception of teaching through what Paulo Freire (1970) calls 'banking education'. The metaphorical use of the concept of banking education implies the image of a teacher, who is the all-knowing, depositing knowledge into students, who are empty receptacles and lack the power to produce and analyse knowledge. It is therefore vital to challenge and transform their misguided beliefs and perceptions. The new paradigm of learning in the age of globalisation needs more contemplation about ways to think and to do.

One important thing about transformative learning is for the educator to help the learner reach their objectives in such a way that they will act as more autonomous and socially responsible thinkers. This is further facilitated by educators helping their learners become aware and critical of their own and others assumption. This may also involve assisting learners to participate in effective discourse. Discourse is necessary here to validate what and how one understands, or to arrive at the best judgment regarding a belief and this could be achieved through micro-teaching. According to Aggarwal (2007), micro-teaching is one of the innovations in teacher education/training programme which aims at modifying teacher's behaviour according to the specified objectives. Recent researches in classroom teaching have proved that classroom teaching may be objectively analysed and modified according to the requirements to develop desirable teaching skills and competencies in the student-teachers.

In a micro-teaching procedure, the student-teacher is engaged in a scaled down teaching situation in which each of the teaching skills is identified and learnt at a time with

other members of the class acting as learners and assessors. The teaching is scaled down in terms of class size, since the trainee is teaching small groups of four to six pupils (or as the case may be). The lesson is also scaled down in terms of length of class time as it is reduced to five or ten minutes. It is also scaled down in terms of teaching tasks. These tasks may include: (a) the practising and mastering of a specific teaching skill such as lecturing; (b) questioning or leading a discussion; (c) mastering of specific teaching strategies; (d) flexibility; (e) instructional decision making; (f) alternative uses of specific curricula; (g) alternative uses of specific curricula; (h) use of instructional materials and classroom management. On the whole, micro-teaching is a system of controlled practice that makes it possible to concentrate on specific teaching behaviours and to practise teaching encounter in a scaled down manner in terms of class size, time and task. The purpose of micro-teaching is to get student-teachers to gain the predetermined teaching skills. This technique is important as it enables predetermined critical teaching behaviours to be gained and perceived better (Deniz, 2010). Micro-teaching is considered to be a transition in preparing for the complex classroom situations (Külahçi, 1994) and it has been developed as a course in many teacher-training institutions around the world.

Mezirow (2000; 1997) Suggests that the process of transformative learning involves changing frames of reference, habits of mind, and established patterns of behaviour through critical reflection, using discourse to scrutinize beliefs, taking action based on reflective insight, and critically assessing the outcomes. This implies that critical reflection is a major tenet of transformative learning. Bartlett (1990) defines reflective teaching practice as the teacher thinking about what happened in classroom lessons, and thinking about alternative means of achieving goals or aims; a means to provide teachers with an opportunity to consider the teaching event *thoughtfully*, *analytically* and *objectively*. While Farrell (2008) describes reflective practice to occur when teachers consciously take on the role of reflective practitioner, subject their own beliefs about teaching and learning to critical analysis, take full responsibility for their actions in the classroom, and continue to improve their teaching practice.

The use of reflective teaching practice in teacher professional development is based on the belief that teachers can improve their own teaching by *consciously* and *systematically* reflecting on their teaching experiences (Farrell, 2007, 2004). As reflective practitioners, teachers can use the data obtained from these systematic reflections as Valli (1997) suggests, in looking back on events, making judgment about them, and altering their teaching

behaviours in the light of craft, research and ethical knowledge. Richards (1990) maintains that self-inquiry and critical thinking can help teachers move to a level where they may be guided by reflection and critical thinking.

The reflective process involves continuous self-observation and evaluation of the trainee to understand individual skills and the reactions of learners (Theil, 1999; Brookfield, 1995). This process was conceptualized by Coomb (1984) as an action research model whereby people learn, and create knowledge by critically reflecting upon their own actions and experiences, forming abstract concepts and testing the implications of these concepts in new situations. Even though it has been difficult to reach a consensus on a definition of reflection (just like most other concepts in education), according to Farrell (2008), two main forms of reflection have emerged: a **weak form** and a **strong form**. In its weak form, reflective practice is said to be no more than thoughtful practice, where teachers sometimes informally evaluate various aspects of their professional expertise. This informal type of reflection does not necessarily lead to improved teaching and can even lead to more unpleasant emotions without suggesting any way forward. On the other hand, the second and strong form of reflection involves teachers systematically reflecting on their own teaching and taking responsibilities for their actions in the classroom (Farrell, 2007). Richards and Lockhart (1996) emphasise this strong version when they say that teachers should collect data about their teaching, examine their attitude, beliefs, assumptions and teaching practices or skills, and use the information obtained as a basis for critical reflection about teaching. This version of reflection is opposed to the weak, ordinary, casual and unorganized kind of reflection that takes place within the individual from time to time.

Based on the above explanations on micro-teaching and reflective teaching practices, the border-line between the two can be seen in that while micro-teaching places emphasis on the identification, isolation and learning of a specific/single teaching skill at a time, reflective teaching considers a whole classroom encounter(all the skills) together at a time. Micro-teaching is carried out in a lesson of about ten minutes to practise a specific teaching skill until it is mastered, while reflective teaching is carried out on a complete forty minutes classroom lesson considering all the skills together at the same time.

This study therefore aimed at finding out the effect of reflective teaching and micro-teaching practices on pre-service English as Second Language [ESL] teachers' teaching skills and attitude towards teaching practice and also considered the moderating effects of gender and academic ability.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

An observation of the way pre-service English language teachers exhibit teaching skills during teaching practice exercise reveals some level of incompetence and certain unwholesome attitude towards the exercise. This has been attributed to insufficient or deficient training by the training institutions to prepare and make them competent enough for the exercise. The inadequate preparation of teachers is one of the factors that have contributed to the high rate of failure recorded in English language over the past two decades. However, previous studies on the possible causes of this mass failure have focused on students' factors which include their attitude, aptitude, home background; teachers' factors among which are, teachers' methods of teaching, teachers' qualification and years of experience and school factors such as class size and school location among others. There is paucity of studies in the area of how the teachers that teach these students are being trained especially in the area of teaching skills despite that it has been observed that there is faulty English language classroom lesson presentation in Nigeria. There is therefore the need to look for a better way of helping ESL pre-service teachers to acquire teaching skills in order to make them effective teachers for better English language classroom instruction presentation in schools.

Also, most of the studies on the use of reflective and micro-teaching practices in teacher education have been carried out in foreign countries. The few available ones in Nigeria have been focused on the area of science education, social studies and general education students. There seem to be none that is specifically focused on English language teachers whether at the pre-service or in-service level.

Based on this, this study investigated the effects of reflective teaching and micro-teaching practices on the teaching skills of pre-service ESL teachers and their attitude to teaching practice. The study also determined the moderating effects of the pre-service teachers' academic ability and gender on their teaching skills and attitude towards teaching practice

1.3 Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested in the study at 0.05level of significance:

HO_1: There is no significant main effect of treatment on pre-service ESL teachers':

a. teaching skills and

b. attitude towards professional practice

HO_2: There is no significant main effect of pre-service ESL teachers' academic ability on:

a. teaching skills and

b. attitude towards professional practice

HO$_3$: There is no significant main effect of pre-service ESL teachers' gender on:

a. teaching skills and

b. attitude towards professional practice

HO$_4$: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment and academic ability on:

a. teaching skills and

b. attitude towards professional practice

HO$_5$: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment and gender on:

a. teaching skills and

b. attitude towards professional practice

HO$_6$: There is no significant interaction effect of academic ability and gender on:

a. teaching skills and

b. attitude towards professional practice

HO$_7$: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment, academic ability and gender on:

a. teaching skills and

b. attitude towards professional practice

1.4 Significance of the Study

Findings from this study could provide empirical information on the extent to which reflective and micro-teaching practices improved English language pre-service teachers teaching skills, which would likely make them better English language teachers competent at exhibiting good teaching skills. This invariably may help to improve the teaching of English language in schools when these participants become qualified teachers,

Since findings from the study have revealed the efficacy of micro-teaching and reflective teaching practices, it would enable teacher educators to see and work out the appropriate modality to include and implement reflective and micro-teaching practices appropriately in the curriculum of teacher education at all levels. This will serve as basis for a paradigm shift in teacher education programmes, especially when we put the present practice in teacher education in Nigeria in world perspective to compare how we do things and how things are done in other countries of the world. Most countries like the United States of America, Canada, Australia, India among others have used reflective and micro- teaching practices to improve teachers competence.

The findings have provided empirical support in the area of variables of gender and academic ability and teachers' teaching skills; it will serve as reference point to further research in the area of reflective and micro-teaching practices. It has also contributed to the stock of literature in this area.

1.5 Scope of the Study

The study covered 120 300Level pre-service ESL teachers in six colleges of education across six states. The study was also delimited to the effects of reflective and micro teaching practices on pre-service ESL teachers' teaching skills (of set induction, questioning, stimulus variation, lesson presentation and lesson closure) and also their attitude to teaching practice.

1.6 Definitions of Terms

The following terms are defined operationally:

Teacher education: In this study, it is synonymous with teacher preparation which has to do with the process of making would-be teachers (pre-service teachers) undergo specialised training for them to become professional teachers.

Teaching skills: These refer to all the specific and observable activities that must be properly carried out during a particular lesson in order to make such a lesson a success. That is, specific teaching activities/behaviours which are observable, definable, measurable, demonstrable and can be developed through training. In this study, the teaching skills are: set induction, stimulus variation, questioning, instruction presentation and closure.

Reflective teaching practice: This is a practice that makes a teacher to deliberately and systematically look at what he/she did in the classroom after a particular lesson, think about why he/she did it and then consider whether it works or not (he could do this alone or in the company of others). This is done for the purpose of self-evaluation that can lead to changes and improvements in the teacher's subsequent teaching.

Teaching practice: The part of a teacher education programme where pre-service teachers (student teachers) spend a specified time engaging in real classroom teaching.

Pre-service teachers: NCE Undergraduate student teachers who are learning to become teachers but generally do not possess extensive experience in teaching. It is used interchangeably with student teacher or novice teacher in this study.

Pedagogic skill: This refers to the correct integration of teaching skills, strategies, approaches and methods in a way that facilitates learning. This is a kind of component skill.

Teaching observation: In this study, it is a way of gathering information about teaching rather than a way of evaluating teaching.

Academic ability: This refers to the level of performance (based on their scores and grades in 100 and 200 levels) of the participants in their English language courses. Their CGPA was used to determine this.

Micro-teaching practice: It is a scaled down teaching encounter to expose teacher trainees to learning a single and pre-determined teaching skill at a time under a controlled condition. It is scaled down in terms of class size, time and the teaching task. It is a practice aimed at mastering a teaching skill at a time.

Transformative learning: This is a term used to describe a process which leads the learner to re-evaluate past beliefs and experience which had previously been understood within assumptions derived from others. It is especially learning experiences by the learner which shape the learner and produce a significant impact, or paradigm shift, which affects the learner's subsequent experiences.

Attitude towards teaching practice: This refers to a measure of pre-service teachers' opinions, beliefs, feelings, dispositions, and interests towards teaching practice. That is, their general behaviour towards teaching practice.

English as a Second Language Teacher Education [ESLTE]: in this study, this is taken to mean how English language teachers are being prepared prior to their becoming professional English language teachers.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of related literature for this study covered the following sub-heads:

2.1 Theoretical Framework.

2.2 Transformative Learning in Teacher Education.

2.3 Reflective Teaching and Approaches.

2.4 Micro- Teaching.

2.5.1 Second Language Teacher Education.

2.5.2 Second Language Teacher Education in Nigerian Colleges of Education.

2.6 The Structure of a Language Lesson.

2.7 Teaching Skills and Competence.

2.8 Pre-service Teachers' Attitude towards Teaching Practice.

2.9 Gender and Pre-service Teachers' Teaching Skills.

2.10 Pre-service Teachers' Academic Ability and Teaching Skills.

2.11 Reflective Teaching Practice and Micro-Teaching Practice in Teacher Preparation.

2.12 Empirical Studies on Reflective Teaching Practice.

2.13 Empirical Studies on Micro-Teaching Practice.

Appraisal of Literature Reviewed.

2.1.1 Theoretical Framework

There are many contemporary theories on the nature of teaching and learning as a process of education. It is therefore essential to provide basic theory/theories upon which this study is based. Precisely for this study, Mezirow's **Transformative Learning Theory** and Vygotsky's **Social Constructivism Theory** are quite relevant. **Transformative Learning Theory** was developed by Jack Mezirow (1981, 1991, and 1997). This theory suggests ways in which adults make meaning of their lives. It looks at 'deep learning' not just content or

process learning and examines what it takes for adults to move from a limited knowledge of knowing what they know without questioning. That is, adults must learn to make their own interpretations rather than act on the purposes, beliefs, judgments and feelings of others. Transformative learning develops autonomous thinking.

Transformative learning is the process of effecting change in a **frame of reference** (Mezirow, 1991, 1995, 1996; Cranton, 1994, 1996). Adults have acquired a coherent body of experience which includes associations, concepts, values, feelings, conditional responses which are the frame of reference that define their world view. Frames of reference are the structures of assumption through which we understand our world. Frames of reference are the structure of assumptions through which we understand our experiences. They selectively shape and delimit expectations, perceptions, cognition and feelings. They set out 'line of action'. Once set, we automatically move from one specific activity (mental or behavioural) to another. We have a strong tendency to reject ideas that fail to fit our perceptions and label them as unworthy of consideration aberrations, nonsense, irrelevant, weird, or mistakes. When circumstances permit, transformative learners move towards a frame of reference that is more inclusive, discriminating, self-reflective, and integrative of experience.

Jurgen (1981) helps us to understand that problem solving and learning may be instrumental (learning to manipulate or control the environment or other people to enhance efficacy in improving performance); impressionistic (learning to enhance one's impression on others, to present oneself); normative (learning oriented to common values and a normative sense of entitlement); or communicative (learning to understand the meaning of what is being communicated). Communicative learning involves at least two persons striving to reach an understanding of the meaning of an interpretation or the justification for a belief. Communicative learning involves reaching a consensus. We engage in discourse to validate what is being communicated. Our only other recourse is to turn to an authority or tradition to make a judgment for us.

Discourse, as used here, is a dialogue devoted to assessing reasons presented in support of competing interpretations, by critically examining evidence, arguments and alternative point of view. The more interpretations of a belief is available, the greater the likelihood of finding a more dependable interpretation or synthesis. We learn together by analysing the related experiences of others to arrive at a common understanding that holds until new evidence or arguments present themselves.

According to Freire and Macedo (1995), three teaching approaches are central to fostering emancipating transformative learning. First is the centrality of critical reflection,

with the purpose of discovering power and helping learners develop an awareness of agency to transform society and their own reality. Second, a liberating approach to teaching couched in 'acts of cognition not in the transfer of information' is a 'problem-posing' and dialogical methodology. Third is a horizontal student-teacher relationship where the teacher works as a political agent and on an equal footing with students. These kinds of approaches seem to be needed in a situation like ours where teaching is still seen or done as mere transfer of information from an all knowing superior to a subordinate. This will in turn bring about a change in the way learners learn.

In the words of Edward (2008), there are new insights about critical reflection and its significance to transformative learning. In particular, they shed light on the nature of reflection, factors that influence reflection, indicators of reflection, joint reflection through peer dialogue, and factors that help explain non-reflection. Moreover, critical reflection seems to be a developmental process, rooted in experience. It begins to give credence to Meriam's position (2004) that mature cognitive development is foundational to engaging in critical reflection and rational discourse necessary for transformative learning.

The **Social Constructivism Theory** which posits that knowledge construction is both a social and cognitive process is the second theory on which this study is based. The theory implies that knowledge and meaning are actively and collaboratively constructed in a social context mediated by frequent social discourse. Under this theory, effective learning happens through interactive process of discussion, negotiation, and sharing. The process of sharing individual perspective - collaborative elaboration (Mater & Stevens, 2000) results in learners constructing understanding together that wouldn't be possible alone. Learning is enhanced when it is more like a team effort than a solo race. Good learning, like good work, is collaborative and social, not competitive and isolated. Working with others often increases involvement in learning. Sharing ones ideas and responding to others improves thinking and deepens understanding. Under social constructivism, it is argued that the responsibility of learning should reside increasingly with the learner (Glasersfeld, 1989). It thus emphasizes the importance of the learner being actively involved in the learning process, unlike the previous educational viewpoints where the learner played a passive receptive role. In this case, the instructor has to adapt to the role of facilitator and not the teacher.

The tenets of constructivism include the following:

- Teaching and learning as interactive engagement
- Teaching and learning as an active construction of meaning
- Students as active participants in teaching and learning

- Learning as continuous reconstruction of students' experiences and purpose.

Constructivist view of teaching holds that, basically, there is never any one right way of teaching. In considering what a constructivist approach offers to teachers, Von (1995) asserts that:

> Constructivism cannot tell teachers new things to do, but it may suggest why certain dispositions and procedures are counter-productive, and it may point out opportunities for teachers to use their own spontaneous imagination. (pg.177)

Marion and Robert (1997) while explaining a constructivist view of teaching say that teaching, like learning, must be concerned with teachers making sense of, or meaning from, the situations in which they find themselves. Researchers have used variety of different methods in their attempts to understand the meaning that teachers make of their work, ranging from investigating the thinking and planning that teachers do outside the classroom (Clark and Peterson, 1986), through ethnographic studies of their routines, rules and patterns of teaching, to autobiographical accounts of the understanding teachers bring into their work (Ashton-Warner, 1980; Connelly and Clandinin, 1990). A fascinating example of the latter approach is offered by Louden (1991). This study follows the progress of a newly qualified teacher in her struggle to establish professional competence. He summarises this struggle in the following way:

> From a practitioner's perspective… teaching is a struggle to discover and maintain a settled practice, a set of routines and patterns of action which resolve the problems posed by particular subjects and groups of children. These patterns, content and resolutions to familiar classroom problems are shaped by each teacher's biography and professional experience. The meaning of these patterns of action only becomes clear when they are set in the context of a teacher's personal and professional history, his/her hopes for teaching and the school in which he/she works.(pg. xi)

For Louden, the fatal flaw that pervades most attempts to improve teaching is a failure to understand the need for a settled practice. If teacher improvement projects are ever to be successful, they should always begin with the question, 'How does this change relate to these teachers' understanding of their work?' What this in turn will lead us to do is to pay close attention to the meaning that teachers make of the physical environment of their classrooms,

the syllabus or particular teaching practices, and act in accordance with their understanding of these meanings.

Louden also introduces us to the notion of teachers' **horizons** of understanding which are constantly in the process of formation but which are constructed within **traditions**, larger frames of reference which provide shared ways of making sense. When confronted by new problems and challenges, a teacher struggles to resolve them in ways that are consistent with the understanding he/she brings to the problem and this process leads in turn to new horizons of understanding about teaching. Thus, a language teacher's horizons will be shaped in part by his/her own personal experiences, but also by traditional ways in which other language teachers throughout history have made sense of what it means to be a language teacher. However, understanding is not merely the recreation of someone else's meaning, but is in principle incomplete and continues to grow with every new experience. It always involves the creation of meaning from those experiences in the light of the meaning maker's preconceptions and the tradition of interpretation within which he/she acts.

The most helpful interpretation of a constructivist approach to teaching is offered by Salmon (1988) when she describes teaching not as the passing on of a parcel of objective knowledge, but as the attempt to share what you yourself find personally meaningful. She argues as a consequence that teachers are indivisible from what they teach. The differences between teachers therefore, are not simply a question of whether they are good or bad, competent or incompetent, because every teacher is unique. Teachers do not just act as gateways to knowledge but they represent and even embody the curriculum. They convey not just what they know, but their position towards it, the personal ramifications and implications which it has for them. At the same time, teachers' experience an experiment with their learners out of which further constructions emerge. Both teachers and learners reshape their ways of understanding, their knowledge structures and the meanings that they attribute to events and ideas as a result of this interactive process.

In teaching, if the discrepancy, where it exists, between a teacher's expressed beliefs and the ways in which that teacher acts professionally is a large one, then learners are likely to receive confused and confusing messages. In an effort to improve teachers' self-awareness in this respect, some educational theorists have fostered the notion of **critical reflection** (Boud, Keough and Walker, 1985). The intention here is to enable teachers to become **reflective practitioners** (Schon, 1983), thereby they subject their everyday professional practice to ongoing critical reflection and make clear their own particular world view by means of such consideration. Thus, to become an effective teacher in his/her own terms,

teachers need to look both inwards and outwards. They need to develop their awareness of others' viewpoints, in this case different perspectives on teaching, and to look to their own beliefs, standards and values. Teachers then need to construct a particular identity of the kind of teachers that they want to be and to seek to reproduce this in their day-to-day activities, in their actions and in their interactions in the teaching-learning arena. Constructivist theory regards reflection as a central factor in the teaching and learning process (Farrell, 2008).

The constructivist theory is relevant to this study in that teachers themselves are in the best position to examine their own teaching through collection and examination of data on many dimensions of teaching and making decision(s) that would further enhance their work. Rather than drawing solely on experts' opinions, theories, or external sources of knowledge as an impetus for change or development, the teacher should pose questions about how and why things are the way they are , what alternatives might be available and what are the limitations of doing things one way as opposed to another. Teachers can make/construct their own meaning and become aware of what their own beliefs and practices are and how they are shaped from time to time in order to improve their skills. While the relevance of transformative learning theory is seen in this study as it helps adult learners to make their own interpretations rather than act on the beliefs, judgments and feelings of others. Even though it involves communicative learning which is learning together; but this comes after a consensus might have been reached and not on the basis of mere acceptance. This helps teachers to learn together by the related experiences of others to arrive at a common understanding that holds until new evidences or arguments present themselves.

2.2 Transformative Learning in Teacher Education

Transformative learning is of particular importance to programmes for pre-service teacher education (Curran and Murray, 2008). This is because transformative learning will assist pre-service teachers in a process of self transformation as they learn the art and science of teaching. Research has shown that prospective teachers' perspectives and dispositions-beliefs, attitudes, mindset, and thinking tend to mediate the process of learning to teach (Parajes, 1992; Raymond, 1993). Miller and Seller (1998) distinguish among three types of learning which are:

(a) Transmissive- this only involves facts and knowledge being transmitted from teacher to learner and merely regurgitated.

(b) Transactional- this involves mere exchange between teacher and learner.

(c) Transformational- this has to do with when learning results in a shift in perspectives after a personal consideration.

Transformational/Transformative learning focuses on the transformation of the individual, especially his/her beliefs, values, attitudes and frames of reference.

Mezirow(2000), transformative learning is when we transform our taken-for-granted frames of reference to make them more inclusive, discriminating, open(changeable),and reflective so that they may generate beliefs and opinions that will prove more true or justified to guide action. This particular kind of learning is essentially necessary in teacher education because teachers have an important role to play in determining the quality of the education system generally (Prasart & Veena, 2010). Ukpokodu(2007) lends support to this when he asserts that in teacher education, pre-service teachers view teaching as a skill involving a process of transmitting knowledge and dispensing information. Imperatively, these perspectives may hinder the development of teachers capable of making substantive changes in their classrooms. Hence, the need to engage pre-service teachers in the process of self transformation in order to enhance the quality of their teaching is paramount.

Several researchers have identified activities that facilitate transformative learning. Boling (2007) conducted a qualitative study that followed 25 pre-service elementary teachers through a literary method course which employed hypermedia video-cases and reflective journaling. Brown(2006) also investigated specific techniques to foster transformative learning in preparation programme for educators and found that cultural autobiographies, life histories, diversity workshop, reflective analysis journals, and so on were effective in impacting students dispositions towards underprivileged students, students of diverse background and students with disabilities. Eisen (2001) examined peer learning partnership as a specific vehicle for transforming learning in a professional development programme for community college teachers and recommend peer learning partnerships, joint and self reflection, peer feedback, modeling, role reversal and peer-supported experimentation as strategies for encouraging transformative learning. However, specific activities and environments that facilitate transformative learning within educational context will continue to be under investigation.

The study is conceived from the position of Freeman and Johnson (1998), Tsui (2003) and others that teacher education (especially second language teacher education) needs to focus on the activity of teaching and the context of teaching in the course of learning to teach.

Also, that developing expertise/compliance requires deliberate practice. This is opposed to the traditional view that knowledge acquired through more experience is enough to guide a teacher in his/her teaching and make him/her to be competent. If teachers base their teaching on mere experience it will only lead to routines which do not allow teachers to make necessary changes in their teaching. Experience will only be very useful if it is used to design deliberate practice activities that culminate into specific changes in their teaching.

It has been observed that it is not possible for pre-service teachers to acquire all the knowledge they need to be competent teachers during their teacher education, programmes. Huberman (1993) asserts that research has shown that teachers generally need about five years to gain a basic level of professional competence in teaching. However, many teachers do not continue to improve after reaching this point; perhaps because teachers rarely reflect on their teaching. This might be as a result of the fact hat most teacher education programmes often fail to teach and practice reflection with novice teachers and schools fail to provide support for such activity (Lee, 2005, O' land & Barrack, 2005; Korthagen, 1999). According to Bartels (2006), to gain real expertise in teaching, one must engage in what is known as "deliberate practice". Expertise in an activity is gained by deliberately designing and participating in activities which help you learn more about a particular aspect of the activity.

Experts believe that deliberate practice differs from other domain-related activities because it provides optimal opportunities for learning and skill acquisition. Also, if regular activities in a domain did not offer accurate and preferably immediate feedback or opportunities for corrected repetitions, improvements in performance with further experience would not be expected (Erikson & Cherness, 1994). In the words of Larsen –Freeman (1983) and Widdowson (1990), deliberate practice should not be confused with the training model of teacher education. In teacher training as opposed to teacher education, teachers learn procedures to use during instruction and teachers were supposed to use these procedures in the way they were taught and not much attention was put on having teachers understand the reasons behind the procedure. Deliberate practice can be used to increase skills and knowledge, so that learners gain the facility to do more than they have been taught.

Certain processes are quite essential in the process of the practice of teaching. They are, experience with teaching and schooling, deliberate practice and explicit knowledge. It is believed that student teachers have encountered a lot of teaching events as students before becoming student teachers. This supposedly has helped them to gain certain level of experience with teaching. They have watched their teachers teach them and are familiar with other school life experiences, and these tend to shape their understanding about teaching. In

fact, it is believed that some of us teach the way we were taught by our teachers. One reason that knowledge gained from being a student makes up the bulk of knowledge for teaching is that, it produces knowledge that is very similar to what is needed for teaching. Similarity makes near transfer possible.

Deliberate practice as earlier discussed are activities designed for learners (either by themselves or others) to help them learn more in order to improve their teaching. Learners develop deliberate practice by first noticing aspects of performance which could be better (although they may be adequate already) and then designing practice activities which allow them to work on those aspects of the activity (Barte's, 2006). Deliberate practice has been found to be useful for the development and maintenance of expertise in fields such as sports and music.

In the same vein, explicit knowledge is seen to be important to guide teachers' practice for improvement. Experts believe that the most important role of explicit knowledge is in contributing to deliberate practice, that explicit knowledge can provide ideas for deliberate practice, materials and information to be modified, and can help monitor the process. While explicit knowledge may not be used directly to create implicit knowledge for direct teachers' practice, it plays a key role in developing teachers' implicit knowledge base if used in deliberate practice. Another use of explicit knowledge is to monitor and evaluate feedback from teaching activities. There are certain practices that can be used to monitor teaching activities among such activities are reflective and micro-teaching practices.

2.3 Reflective Teaching Practice and Approaches

Bartlett (1990) defines reflective teaching practice as the teacher thinking about what happens in classroom lessons, and thinking about alternative means of achieving goals or aims; a means to provide teachers with an opportunity to consider the teaching event thoughtfully, analytically and objectively. Zwozdick-Myers (2010) sees it as a disposition to enquiry incorporating the process through which teachers structure or restructure actions, beliefs, knowledge and theories that inform teaching for the purpose of professional development. Reflective teaching practice occurs when teachers consciously take on the role of reflective practitioners, subject their own beliefs about teaching and learning to critical analysis, take full responsibility for their actions in the classroom, and continue to improve their teaching (Farrell, 2007; Jay and Johnson, 2002). Reflective practice has at its roots in the early work of Dewey (1933).

The reflective process involves continuous self-observation and evaluation of the teacher to understand individual actions and the reactions of learners (Brookfield, 1995; Theil, 1999). This process was conceptualised by Coomb (1984) as an action research model whereby people learn and create knowledge by critically reflecting upon their own action and experiences, forming abstract concepts and testing the implications of these concepts in new situations. Even though it has been difficult to reach a consensus on a definition of reflection (just like most other concepts in education), according to Farrell (2008), two forms of reflection have emerged, i.e. a weak form and a strong form. In its weak form, reflective practice is said to be on more than thoughtful practice, where a teacher sometimes informally evaluate various aspects of their practice. This informal type of reflective teaching does not necessarily lead to improved teaching and can even lead to more unpleasant emotions without suggesting any way forward. On the other hand, the second and stronger form of reflection involves teachers systematically reflecting on their own teaching and taking responsibilities for their actions in the classroom (Farrell, 2007). Richards and Lockhart (1996) emphasise this stronger version when they say that teachers should collect data about their teaching, examine their dispositions, beliefs, assumptions and teaching practices, and use the information obtained as a basis for critical reflection about teaching. Teachers critically reflecting on their own practice then, is one way to bring to the level of awareness what it is that teachers do, and why they do it. Awareness is the first step towards being able to change our teaching practice (Freeman, 1983).

The use of reflective teaching practice in teacher professional development is based on the belief that teachers can improve their own teaching by consciously and systematically reflecting on their teaching experiences (Farrell, 2004; 2007). As reflective practitioners, teachers can use the data gathered from these systematic reflections. As Valli (1997) suggests, they can look back on events, make judgments about them, and alter their teaching behaviours in the light of craft, research and ethical knowledge. Famogbiyele (2013) asserts that the value of reflective teaching in developing teachers' knowledge, skills and dispositions should not be underscored. Pollard (2005) suggests that critical reflection and systematic investigation of ones practices should become an integral part of ones daily classroom life. This also underscores the need to train teachers at all levels on how to engage in reflective practice.

Pennington (1992) states that the term reflective teaching has come to signify a movement in teacher education, in which student teachers or working teachers analyse their own practice and its underlying basis, and then consider alternative means for achieving their

ends. She explains further that the use of the term reflection in the context of instruction can be interpreted in the sense of thoughtful consideration and mirroring. Because reflection involves a critical component, reflective teaching can serve as a means of contributing to the process of a teacher's development. Richards and Lockhart (1996) go on to articulate five assumptions about teacher development:

1. *An informed teacher has an extensive knowledge base about teaching*. The teacher who has a more extensive knowledge and deeper awareness about the different components and dimensions of teaching is better prepared to make appropriate decisions in teaching.
2. *Much can be learned about teaching through self-inquiry.* While comments of a supervisor or other outside visitor can be a useful source of information about one's teaching, teachers themselves are in the best position to examine their own teaching. This involves teachers collecting information about their teaching either individually or through collaborating with a colleague , making decisions about their teaching, deciding if initiatives need to be taken and selecting strategies to carry them out.
3. *Much of what happens in teaching is unknown to the teacher.* Many things happen simultaneously during a lesson and it is sometimes difficult for teachers to be aware of all that happen in the classroom. It is therefore necessary to design activities that can help make teaching more visible through collection and examination of data on many dimensions of teaching.
4. *Experience is insufficient as basis for development.* Experience is a key component of teacher development but may be insufficient as a basis for professional growth. In order for experience to play a productive role, it is necessary to examine such experience systematically using specific procedures.
5. *Critical reflection can trigger a deeper understanding of teaching*. This involves examining teaching experiences as a basis for evaluation and decision making and as a source of change (Bartlett, 1990; Wallace, 1991). It involves posing questions about how and why things are the way they are, what value systems they represent, what alternatives might be available, and what the limitations are of doing things one way as opposed to another (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). They further put it that it is believed among experts that teachers who are better informed as to the nature of their teaching are able to evaluate their stage of professional growth and what aspects of their teaching they need to change. In addition, when critical reflection is seen as an

ongoing process and a routine part of teaching, it enables teachers to feel more confident in trying different options and assessing their effects on teaching.

These assumptions reflect the fact that if teachers are actively involved in reflecting on what is happening in their own classrooms, they are in a position to discover whether there is a gap between what they teach and what their learners learn. This process of reflection is seen as a particular kind of research which involves the study by classroom teachers of the impact of their teaching on the students in their classrooms. The basic premise of classroom research is that teachers should use their classrooms as laboratories to study the learning process as it applies to their particular disciplines. Teachers should become skillful, systematic observers of how the students in their classrooms learn.

On the relevance of reflective teaching practice in second language teacher education (SLTE), Bartels (2006) argues that since many applied linguists have noticed that second language teachers do not seem to use academic knowledge about language in their practice, even in cases where it would seem to be important, to him it amounts to what Whitehead in Bartels (2006) defines as inert knowledge—that is, knowledge that can be recalled when explicitly asked to do so, but is not used spontaneously in problem-solving even though it is relevant (Johnson, 1996). Bartels explains further that second language teaching is much too complex and demanding for teachers to seamlessly apply academic knowledge while teaching. This is why Wallace (1991) opined that the number and complexity of professional decisions made every working day by teachers is such that they cannot be explained only in terms of the conscious application of specific, taught 'skill'. Nor can professional action be entirely random or ad hoc: if it were, it would be obviously incompetent.

Wallace (1991) therefore proposed that in order to avoid making knowledge inert, teachers need to think about or reflect on academic knowledge and how it can be used to understand and develop teaching knowledge. According to Bartels (2006), this view of teacher learning also assumes that general academic knowledge can and does directly guide practice, but that teachers will be able to use such general knowledge much better if they first think about it and compare it to their own experiential knowledge. According to him, central to the reflective approach therefore is the hypothesis that experiences, either with second language teaching or academic knowledge, should be explicitly examined rather than simply stored in memory. It is possible to leave these experiences either unexplored or unconsciously stored, or it is possible to reflect on them, leading to the conscious development of insights

into knowing-in-action (Wallace, 1991). The aim of which is to integrate reflection into regular practice of teaching, even at a very basic level.

This is shown in the following model:

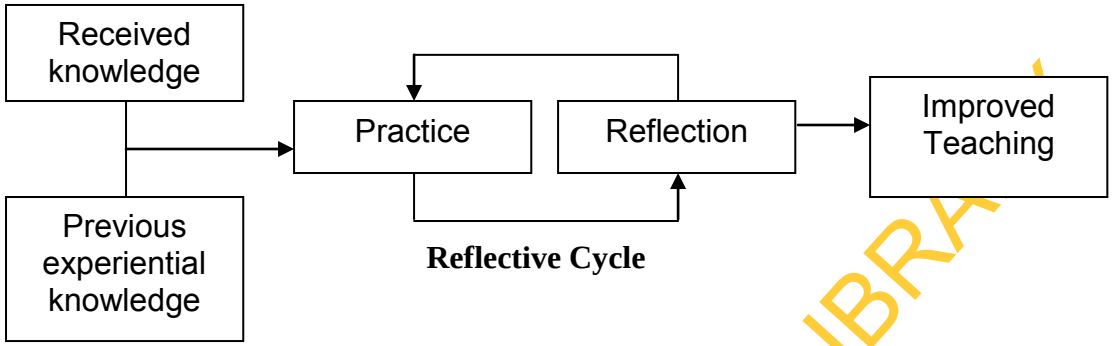


Figure 2.1: Adapted from Wallace's (1991) Model of Reflection in Teacher Learning

This model explains that there are two types of knowledge for a teacher education course which are:

Received knowledge

and

Experiential knowledge

Received knowledge, according to Wallace (1998) has to do with the trainee becoming acquainted with the vocabulary of the subject and the matching concepts, research findings, theories and skills which are widely accepted as being part of the necessary intellectual content of the profession. While experiential knowledge on the other hand has to do with the trainee being able to develop what Wallace (1998) calls knowledge-in-action by his/ her practice of the profession, and will have had, moreover, the opportunity to reflect on that knowledge-in-action. In this case, experiential knowledge is not limited to practicing the received knowledge but also includes reflecting on what is done. Most often, when pre-service teachers go for teaching practice and their supervisors come around to supervise them, they are sometimes (not in every case) given feedback forms by their supervisors. These sometimes help them to make some improvements when next they go for teaching. However, these pre-service teachers are not trained to reflect on their own why they are making such changes/improvements but simply doing what they have been told to do.

Reflective teaching is not just doing what you are told to do but trying on your own to dig deep and investigate why the change has to be made. To engage effectively in this process requires the development of specific skills such as keen observation, logical reasoning, analysis, synthesis and evaluation (Zwozdiak-Myers, 2011). This understanding will interconnect received knowledge and experiential knowledge making the link mandatory for improved teaching.

The relationship between practice and reflection as shown on the model is cyclical and so, it is a continuous process. Moreover, this cycle allows for reflection both before and after practice. If the reflective cycle is continuous, in the long run, it will lead to improved competence. Pacheco (2005) comments that it is important to make pre-service teachers aware of this model so that they can improve their performance and become respected, knowledgeable professionals of education who can account for their actions.

In every lesson and in every classroom, events occur in such unique and peculiar ways that no two lessons or classrooms are actually the same. Teachers can use these events to develop a deeper understanding of teaching. Richards and Lockhart (1996) have observed that teachers sometimes fail to exploit these events, letting momentum of all the other events of the day take precedence. To them, if teachers can find ways to capture the thoughts of a reaction to these events, as well as ways to gather fuller information about the events themselves, teachers can develop strategies for intervention or change depending on their needs.

Calderhead (1992) opines that learning to teach is different from other forms of learning in academic life because the process involves being able to interpret and respond to complex classroom events with enormous rapidity. Doyle (1986) asserts that classroom environments are multidimensional in the sense that many events occur in the classroom at any one time. To him, each classroom is a crowded place in which many people with different preferences and abilities must use a restricted supply of resources to accomplish a broad range of social and personal objectives. Classrooms are also characterised by simultaneity where these events often occur at the same and with multiple consequences. Furthermore, classroom is unpredictable, as it is not possible to state in advance whether or how a particular classroom activity will develop. Finally, classrooms have a history in the sense that classroom participants will have an understanding of the current reality of that classroom based on all the experiences which have occurred previously to this.

The notion that classroom environments are complex and that professional learning within these environments is often problematic underlines the need to use different

approaches to carry out reflective teaching practice. In literature, the following are identified among others:

- Journal writing
- Group discussion
- Peer observation
- Audio and video recordings
- Critical friends
- Action research
- Clinical supervision
- Clinical incident analysis
- Surveys and questionnaires

All the above among others are the different procedures that can be followed in carrying out reflective practice.

2.4 Micro-Teaching

Micro-teaching was originally defined as a teaching encounter which provides a setting for instruction in which the complexions of a normal classroom are scaled down and in which the teacher receives extensive feedback on his/her performance (Allen & Ryan, 1969). The idea of micro-teaching was established at Stanford University in 1963. There, pre-service teachers were trained in the technical skills approach, that is, the practice of focusing on one teaching skill at a time. The technical skills approach evolved from the work of Aubertine (1964), who found the practice of focusing on one teaching skill at a time to be quite effective.

Micro-teaching is a technique that can be used for various types of different professional development. Especially, it has become a successful and an increasing method for a pre-service teacher education programmes. The purpose of micro-teaching application is to develop skills in teaching (Tasdelen & Sanli, 2009). For them, micro-teaching has four main objectives:

i. assess the student teacher's overall teaching skills;
ii. identify skills that require improvement;
iii. provide a system for practicing the skills, *and*
iv. monitor the skills development process.

Micro-teaching as a scaled-down laboratory procedure for teacher training involves lesson planning, set induction, lesson presentation and feedback on specific teaching skills

which may or may not be accompanied by video recording and playback (Ajayi, 1998; Ajayi, 2001).

In the words of Okunloye & Okeowo (2008), as a scaled-down laboratory-based teacher training procedure, trainees are better predisposed to learn specific teaching skills because they are learning under a familiar and controlled setting that is devoid of nervousness or fear of the unknown often associated with the normal classroom setting they go to during teaching practice. Teaching practices are conducted in real classroom settings and in the beginning, it is not usually a very easy experience for most pre-service teachers (Deniz, 2010). For these pre-service teachers, who have just started their teaching practices; classroom management is a very complex issue. Therefore, micro-teaching is considered to be a transition in preparing for such a classroom situation (Külahçi, 1994).

The purpose of micro-teaching is to get student-teachers to gain the predetermined teaching skills. This technique is important as it enables predetermined critical teaching behaviours to be gained and perceived better (Deniz, 2010). Though micro-teaching is an artificial form of real classroom teaching rendered in a more limited scope, it is essentially an opportunity for pre-service teachers and experienced professionals to develop and/or improve specific teaching skills with a small group of students by means of brief single-concept lessons. Micro-teaching is a technique that allows the teacher to place small aspects of teaching under the microscope (Urlich et al, 1985). According to Demirel (2002), micro-teaching applications in which student-teachers make presentations of the lesson such as videotaping it, re-watching the videotaped lesson(s) repeatedly and discussing what is absent and reconsidering what to do and being exposed to intensive feedback will help to develop teaching skills more effectively. Cakir (2000); Külahçi (1994) support the effectiveness of micro-teaching application in helping student-teachers acquire professional skills (knowledge, skills, attitudes, habits, behaviours, etc) before starting their teaching careers.

According to Education Encyclopedia, micro-teaching has been developed as a course in many teacher-training institutions around the world. It readily combines theory with practice. When one considers that teacher trainees in many training programmes do their teaching practice under inadequate supervision with no student feedback, the relative merits and economy of micro-teaching become more and more apparent.

2.5.1 Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE)

Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE) is an aspect of teacher education that deals with how second language teachers are being trained before they start teaching (pre-service

teachers) and when they have started teaching (in-service teachers) in order to make them professional language teachers. Over time, there has been the debate on what actually should constitute the content or focus of SLTE among experts. Varying propositions have been put forward. These, to a large extent according to Bartels (2006) have been influenced by the professional interests of those running SLTE programmes. Nevertheless, some of the propositions include the following:

Second language teacher education should focus mainly on linguistics as source of teaching knowledge. This might be because linguists have succeeded in establishing themselves as the primary source of legitimate knowledge concerning language teaching (Spolsky, 1970). To Spolsky, what linguists and applied linguists did was to recommend activities, materials and methods for teachers to use which fit in with current theories of language and language learning. The linguists write books which explain how various aspects of language should be taught. The audio-lingua method of language teaching was directly developed from insights in linguistics and psychology (Lado, 1964; Rivers, 1968). Wallace (1991) refers to this as a 'craft model' of teacher education.

There are also some approaches that fall under what Schon (1983) calls 'the technical rationality model'. These include: applied linguistics as the knowledge base for second language (L_2) teachers, including other academic fields into the knowledge base for L_2 teachers and 'mediation'. The basis of these approaches is that teachers need and will use the kind of explicit, research-based knowledge that academics (like applied linguists) produce to guide their teaching. Also, continued acquisition of disciplinary knowledge is seen as central to teacher development even after initial, pre-service SLTE programme. In general, the processes whereby teachers acquire and use knowledge are portrayed as simple and non-problematic.

However, many linguists noticed that teachers did not seem to use academic knowledge about language (KAL) in their practice, even in cases where it would seem to be important (Whitehead, 1993; Johnson, 1996). They opined that what is learned in our teacher education programmes becomes inert knowledge. That is, knowledge that can be recalled when explicitly asked to do so, but is not used spontaneously in problem-solving even though it is relevant. It was also argued that second language (L_2) teaching is much too complex and demanding for teachers to seamlessly apply academic knowledge while teaching.

It was therefore proposed by Wallace (1991) that in order to avoid making knowledge inert, teachers need to think about 'reflect on' academic knowledge and how it can be used to understand and develop teaching knowledge. This proposition has bearing on the works of

Schon (1983; 1987). To them, though academic knowledge can and does guide practice, teachers will be able to use such general knowledge much better if they first think about it and compare it to their own experiential knowledge. The aim therefore is to integrate reflection into the regular practice of teaching.

Another school of thought on what the focus of SLTE should be is that 'the activity of teaching itself' should be the focus of SLTE programmes (Freeman and Johnson, 1998). It has been suggested that new conceptions of language teaching require new forms of activities for language teacher education. According to Corder (1986):

> Task-based approaches will require a total rethink of teacher training. What the teacher using a task-based approach is not going to need is any linguistic 'knowledge' of a conscious, deliberate sort. But teachers will need to train in task development and task selection, and to recognise when a particular task is appropriate for a particular group. What they will not need is grammatical theory. (pg. 198)

Edge (1988) points out that those novice teachers need to develop skills in three different roles: that of a language user, language analyst and language teacher. That is, teachers need to know more than how to use the larger language and analyse it; they also need to know how to use this information for teaching. Wright and Bolitho (1993) argue that SLTE must go beyond helping L_2 teachers develop their analytical skills and include tasks which develop skills in language teaching such as evaluating and creating L_2 learning activities.

Van Lier (1992; 1994) argues for task-based teacher education. Instead of a range of activities beginning with awareness revising focusing on a specific aspect of language, he proposes starting with issues in teaching and only focusing on aspects of academic information which enable novice teachers to be knowledgeable about these issues. This, a central part of this approach is that the focus of SLTE should be the activity of teaching rather than on academic disciplines, which are seen more as resources for expanding understanding of teacher problems rather than in areas to be mastered.

Central to this concept of SLTE is Freeman and Johnson's (1996) position that language teacher education is primarily concerned with teachers as learners of language teaching rather than with students as learners of language. This was driven by a growing realisation that the cumulative effect of studying what language is and how it is learned does not necessarily translate cogently into knowing how to teach. Therefore they suggest that professional learning needs to rely less on the transmission of codified knowledge about

language, language learning and language teaching and more on the experiences that teachers engage in as learners of second language and as learners of language teaching (Freeman and Johnson, 2004). Three main areas that SLTE needs to take into account when providing novice teachers with educational experiences are:

- the teacher as a learner of teaching
- the activity of teaching, *and*
- the context of teaching

What teachers learn and how it is learned must resemble the knowledge that is held by those who already participate in that domain, in other words, teachers. Therefore, cognitive apprenticeship methods situate what is learned and how it is learned within authentic contexts, and engage novice teachers in activities which require them to think and act like real teachers in real classrooms (Johnson, 1996). Johnson argues that, law students must learn to reason like lawyers, medical interns must learn to diagnose like doctors, and novice teachers must learn to solve classroom problems like experienced teachers.

2.5.2 Second Language Teacher Education in Nigeria Colleges of Education

This sub-section is discussed with reference to the study of English language in Nigerian Colleges of Education. One of the objectives of the programme according to the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) is to equip successful students to teach English language effectively at the primary and junior secondary school levels of education. This then presupposes that these second language teachers are being prepared for these specified levels of education. According to the NCCE regulation, the course can be undertaken as a double major (with no other combination) or can be combined with another subject as a single major. The courses to be offered include courses in both English language and Literature in English in addition to other general education courses, general studies and teaching practice. This programme has been criticised for many reasons.

Babatunde, (2002) identifies poor English language teacher preparation as part of the English language problems in Nigeria, Jibowo, (2005) calls for an increased interest in the analysis of learner's needs at the level of the language teacher preparation programmes. Jibowo carried out a training needs analysis of English language teachers and found their needs to include how to improve the English Language education programme, especially in the area of modern teaching methods.

2.6 The Structure of a Language Lesson

A lesson is an event that takes place in a particular setting (i.e. a school or classroom), it normally involves two kinds of participants known as the teacher and students and normally consists of recognisable kinds of activities. It is an event that is fairly easy to recognise. Hence, it is distinguishable from other kinds of speech events like—meetings, debates, arguments or trials.

Richards and Lockhart (1996) explain that, like other speech events, lessons have a recognisable structure. They begin in a particular way, they proceed through a series of teaching and learning activities, and they reach a conclusion. This pattern of structure or organisation is a result of the teacher's attempts to manage the instructional process in a way which will optimise the amount of learning that can take place in the time available. Wong-Fillmore (1985) similarly observes that how classes (lessons) are organised and how instructional events are structured determine to a large extent the nature of the language that students hear and use in the classroom. To him, two sets of characteristics appear to distinguish classes that work for language learning from those that do not. The first set relates to the way the classes are structured or are organised for instruction while the second has to do with the way language is used in lessons. These are what Richard and Lockhart (1996) call structuring which has to do with how lessons are organised into sequences and the momentum of a lesson is achieved.

Roseshine and Stevens (1986) found out in their research on teaching in mainstream classes that when teachers structure their lessons effectively, they:

- Begin a lesson with a short review of previous, prerequisites learning
- Begin a lesson with a short statement of goals
- Present new materials in small steps, with student practice after each step
- Give clear and detailed instructions and explanations
- Provide high level of active practice for all students
- Ask a large number of questions, check for student understanding and obtain responses from all students
- Guide students during initial practice
- Provide systematic feedback and corrections
- Provide explicit instruction and practice for seat work exercises and, where necessary, monitor students during seatwork.

The focus of structuring in a lesson is put in four dimensions by Richards and Lockhart (1996), which are:

Opening—how a lesson begins.

Sequencing—how a lesson is divided into segments and how the segments relate to each other.

Pacing—how a sense of movement is achieved within a lesson.

Closure—how a lesson is brought to an end.

It is therefore important to investigate this process in order to assist would-be teachers to understand and carry it out successfully in the course of discharging their duties. Teaching has its own peculiarities as against other discourses that take place in other places.

2.7 Teaching Skills and Competence

The art of teaching according to Ambili (2013) does not merely involve a simple transfer of knowledge from one person to the other. Instead, it is a complex process that facilitates and influences the process of learning. This process therefore requires specific teaching skills. Teaching is also described by Aggarwal (2004) as an interactive process that involves four aspects which are teacher, student, learning situation and learning process. These call for a lot of skills on the part of the teacher because the teacher is the independent variable among all the elements. If it is the teacher who does the planning, organisation, leading and controlling of teaching; he/she therefore needs the skills to be able to perform various activities and harmonise all the elements in order to achieve the desired objectives. Teaching involves all the activities that are instrumental to the progress of the learner (Olofintoye, 2001). The strategies which must be demonstrated at the various stages of teaching are called teaching skills or instructional skills.

Abolade (2000) describes teaching skills as the activities that are generated and are applied by a teacher during the process of changing the behaviours of the learners entrusted to him/her. Allen and Ryan (1969) in their taxonomy of the component skills of teaching point out the following: stimulus variation, set induction, closure, silence, non-verbal cues, reinforcement of students' participation, fluency in asking questions, probing questions, high order questions, divergent questions, recognizing students' attendant behaviours, illumination and use of examples, lecturing, planned repetition and completeness of communication.

Aggarwal (2004) is of the opinion that teaching is not a simple task to analyse and if we are to obtain a complete description of the teaching activities, we must consider what the

teacher does before and after the classroom also. This is because, to him, the teaching acts are in three stages, namely:

- Pre-active stage,
- Inter-active stage, *and*
- Post-active stage

The problem presently is that, much of the concentration to improve teaching is given to the inter-active stage (i.e. actual classroom activities) and little or nothing is done about the pre-active (i.e. the deliberative stage where the teacher decides on what to do) and the post-active stage (i.e. where teacher thinks in retrospect about what has happened in the classroom). Micro-teaching could be one way to take care of the pre-active stage of teaching wherein the teacher trains on a particular skill and then goes to the classroom to try it out for the purpose of integrating it into his/her teaching later.

The analytical concept of teaching considers teaching as a complex skill comprising various specific teaching skills (Mangal and Mangal, 2009). According to them, teaching skills are a set of interrelated component teaching behaviours for the realisation of specific instructional objectives. These skills may be modified through the practice of micro-teaching and thus a student teacher may be able to acquire necessary teaching skills for becoming an effective teacher.

Studies in Nigeria have shown that pre-service teachers in Nigeria have deficiencies at demonstrating competence in the use of most of the teaching skills. These studies include, Adetoro (2007), Ogonor and Badmus (2010) and Olofintoye (2001). They found in their studies such deficiencies as poor classroom organization, improper distribution, timing and frequency of questions, poor lesson planning and presentation, improper use of chalkboard and lack of class control among others. One probable reason this may be so is that these students seem to lack appropriate and sufficient training in the area of generic teaching skills. There seem not to be proper and enough training in these skills by teacher training institutions. For the purpose of this study, five among these skills that have been identified to constitute problem for these pre-service teachers have been considered. They are:

(A)Skill of Set Induction

(B)Skill of Stimulus Variation

(C)Skill of Questioning

(D)Skill of Instruction Presentation

(E)Skill of Lesson Closure

They are all discussed in details as follows.

A. Skill of Set Induction

This is a skill that is used at the beginning of an instructional segment and generally it is intended to do one or more of the following:

i. capture students' attention or provide them with a framework for the lesson.

ii. Help students relate new material or information to what they have previously learned.

iii. Determine students' entry-level knowledge prior to introducing new content.

- When the purpose is to engage students' attention in a new instructional activity, we are establishing **orientation set**.
- When the intention is to help students understand how the new information relates to what they learned previously, we are using **transition set.**
- When the intention is to establish what students already know about a topic, we are using **evaluative set**.

It is believed that establishing set seems to help students learn more by focusing their attention, improving their ability to self monitor their understanding and increasing the likelihood that new information is linked to existing knowledge of schema (Eby, 2001). To be effective therefore, information or activities used to establish set must be:

i. at a higher level of abstraction or broader in scope than the content to be learned.

ii. related directly to students' prior knowledge.

Thus, the early minutes of a lesson may be used to promote several goals and are critical to establishing a tone and instructional pattern that allows students to learn.

In establishing set therefore, a teacher can do the following:

i. review previous material.

ii. ask curiosity-provoking question(s) or pique students' interest by using a unique problem or scenario.

iii. provide an overview of the major points or topics of the lesson.

iv. demonstrate the concept or idea of the lesson.

v. provide a visual schema that depicts the relationship of various aspects or concepts of the lesson.

vi. provide a problem (orally, visually or by some other means) to engage students in processing the concept to be learned.

vii. Convey interest, enthusiasm, and curiosity about the topic.

viii. inform students of the objectives or goals of the lesson, and point out its relevance to their lives.

B. Skill of Stimulus Variation

This is the ability of the teacher to use variety in virtually every aspect of the lesson. Some of the teachers' behaviour that indicates variety includes:

i. Teacher movement (non-verbal behaviour)
ii. Teacher gestures
iii. Changes in speech pattern
iv. Changes in sensory focus
v. Changes in postures
vi. Changes in types of assessment
vii. Changes in classroom organisation, etc.

We all might have experienced teachers who taught every lesson for the entire year in the same way, with the same activities arranged in the same order, using the same, monotonous voice patterns and few gestures. This lack of variety in instructional patterns can negatively affect learning especially in a language class.

Rosenshine & Furst in Cruickshank et al (2003) identify variety as the second strongest predictor of teachers' effectiveness. Even though, variety does not directly improve learning. Teachers who use variety do not only prevent students from becoming bored, but also keep them interested and actively involved in the lesson.

Imagine a teacher who responds to every students answer or contribution with 'Exactly!' The first few times, this response seems enthusiastic and encouraging. However, eventually, even if every student's answer is correct, the word 'Exactly!' is no longer effective and may become annoying. It has been found in literature that variation can be grouped into two:

i. Variation in instructional activities and materials: This has to do with the use of variety of instructional alternatives (teaching methods) like cooperative learning, discussion, seat work, direct instruction, debate, quiz, and the like. Ideally, every lesson should allow students to experience the content through several senses.
ii. Interacting with students: This deals with the way teachers interact with students which include how teachers praise students, smile at students, maintain eye contact, laugh with students, move closer to students and his/her gestures can be reinforcing and convey support and interest.

C. Skill of Questioning

An integral component of a classroom characterized by good interaction pattern is questioning. Questioning is the instructional process that is central to verbal interaction in the classroom and the questions teachers ask serve as the interface between teacher expectations and students responses (Bellon, Bellon and Blank, 1992). Effective questions require students to actively process information and compose an answer. Good questions increase students' engagement, raise the level of thought, help students organize their thoughts, guide students more successfully through an academic task and allow the teacher to monitor understanding and provide feedback. Educational research has shown that effective questioning directly and indirectly influences the amount, level and type of learning (Cruickshank *et al*, 2003). Good and Brophy (2000) reviewed research on questioning and concluded that students learn more when teachers ask frequent questions and include a variety of questions in their lessons.

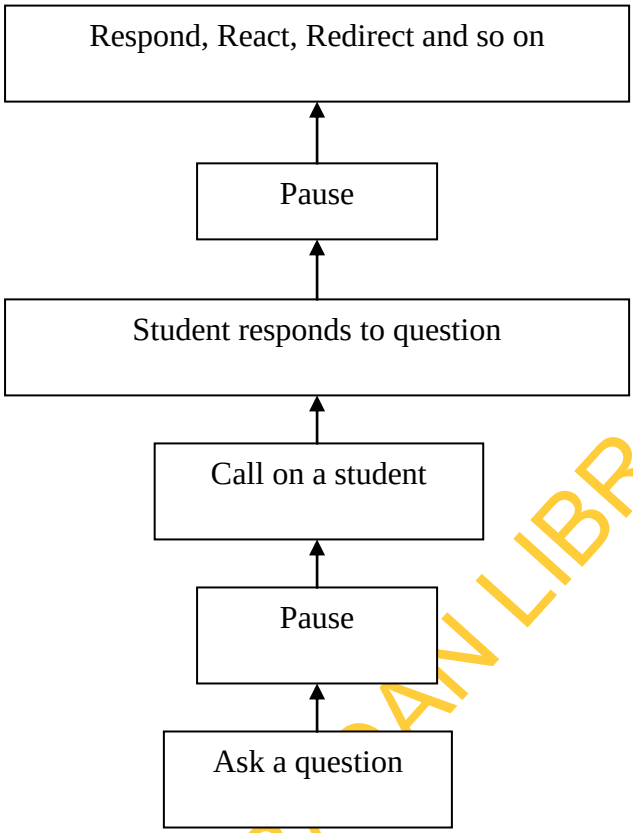
How to ask questions

In asking questions, teachers must be clear and concise. Too often, teachers ask questions that are almost impossible for students to answer accurately. They fail to make clear how they want students to answer. Clear questions use natural and unambiguous language appropriate to the level of the students. They are also concise to include only the words, terms, and information students need in order to answer the questions.

Teachers should avoid rhetorical questions or questions that have only one answer. Teachers should ask questions that require students to *process* or think about what they are learning and to *compose* an answer. Rhetorical questions are questions asked for effect rather than to generate responses. Such questions can, over time, inhibit students' responses because students become unsure whether they are just rhetorical or are meant to be answered. Teachers should ask only one question at a time and avoid including the answer within the question.

One more issue that teachers should give attention to is the *sequence* of their questions. When teachers ask questions, they expect students to respond to such questions; certain things are therefore important to make the questions asked and the responses sequential. Such things include: wait time (pause), asking question before calling on students to answer, etc. Sequence of teachers' question can be represented diagrammatically as follows:

Fig. 2.2: Sequence of Teachers Questions



Adopted from Cruickshank* et al *(2003)

From the figure above, it is seen that the right sequence is to ask question(s) generally during a lesson, pause (wait for between 3 and 5 seconds), and call on a particular student to answer and after the answer the teacher pauses again before responding or reacting to the student's response. Teachers are fond of calling on particular students before asking their questions. The danger in this is that, the moment a teacher calls on a particular student before he/she asks questions, all the other students will relax, and they will not process the question to give an answer/response. This in the long run affects their level of participation in the lesson. The importance of pause (wait time) are found to be in the following:

- Students' responses are longer and more thorough.
- The cognitive level of students' responses is higher.
- Students volunteer more (especially the introverts).
- Students' confidence in their responses is greater.

Mastering the effective use of wait time will increase students' participation in a teacher's questioning. Effective questioning requires that a teacher calls on all students, especially non volunteers.

After a student might have responded to a teacher's question, the teacher must respond or react to the reply. The teacher's response behaviour will either encourage or discourage thoughtful and successful participation in his/her lesson. A teacher should avoid routinized and meaningless responses. Rosenshine and Stevens (1994) suggest the following responses and reactions:

- When students respond correctly and confidently, the teacher should accept and acknowledge the response and move on. The teacher should not over praise.
- When a student responds correctly but hesitantly, the teacher should provide feedback (response) to the student or use additional questions that encourage the student to determine why the response is correct. Before moving on, the teacher should make sure the student understands why the answer was correct.
- When a student responds confidently but incorrectly, the teacher should reinforce the initial effort, and then use additional questions to help the student arrive at the correct answer. The teacher should avoid giving the student the answer or calling on another to respond.
- When a student responds incorrectly and carelessly, the teacher should provide the correct response and move on. A teacher should never avoid correcting an incorrect answer.

Types of Question

There are many different ways writers and researchers classify questions. For the purpose of this review, the following categories are considered.

Procedural questions: These have to do with classroom procedures and routines, and classroom management, as opposed to the content of learning, e.g.

"Do you all bring your homework?"

"Is what you are to do clear to everybody?"

"Can you all see what is written on the chalkboard?"

These kinds of questions have a different function from questions designed to help students master the content of a lesson.

Convergent questions: These are questions that encourage similar student responses, which are focused on a central theme. These responses are often short answer such as 'yes' or 'no' or short statement. Such questions don't require students to engage in higher-level thinking. Language teachers often use these kinds of questions to develop aural skill and vocabulary and to encourage whole class participation. The following questions were used by a language

teacher to introduce a reading lesson that is focused on the effects of computers on everyday life:

"Do you all have personal computer at home?"

"Do you use it everyday?"

"What do you mainly use it for?"

"What other machines do you have at home?"

Divergent questions: These questions are the opposite of convergent questions. Such questions encourage diverse student responses which are not short answers but encourage students to engage in higher-level thinking. Students are required to provide their own information rather than to recall previously presented information. The following are examples of divergent questions:

"What are the economic impacts of computer on the society?"

"What are the negative impacts of computer on the society?"

"What are the best ways of providing the use of computer in Schools?"

Levels of Classroom Questions

Questions are broadly divided into three levels as:

1. lower order questions
2. middle order questions and
3. higher order questions

Higher order questions are such that require students to merely recognize/identify objects, words, etc. and recall facts, definitions, lairs, etc. Such questions do not require much of deep thought from the students and that is why answers to such questions are mostly spontaneous. Middle order questions require students to translate an idea into another form, compare or identify similarities and dissimilarities between two things, explain relationships and do some level of application. Such questions require students to think before giving responses. Higher order questions require students to analyze, synthesize etc. These kinds of questions require the cognitive skills of analysis, synthesis or evaluation and thus, require more complex and original thinking.

On a general note, questioning can help the teacher monitor understanding, keep students' engaged and serve as a measure of the success of instruction, but it is important that teachers ask all students to respond to questions (Cruickshank et al, 2003). This might be difficult but, it is important in a class of students with diverse ability.

D. Skill of Instruction Presentation

This is often taken to be a complex teaching skill that may contribute more to teacher effectiveness than any other teaching skill. This skill has been the focus of much research since Rosenshine and Furst (1971) identify it as the "most promising teacher variable related to student achievement". Instruction presentation (Clarity of instruction) refers to the teacher's ability to provide instruction that helps students come to a clear understanding of the learning materials. Thus, clarity is something students achieve and not something the teacher does. However, research has identified specific teacher behaviours that students say help them achieve this clarity of understanding (Hines, 1981; Kennedy and Cruickshank, 1985).

According to students, clear teachers emphasise important points by repeating them, writing them on the board, pausing after stating them and reviewing them. They also monitor students' clarity of understanding by asking questions and providing students with activities and experiences that allow them to apply their knowledge. When students do not understand, clear teachers repeat, review or rephrase important points. These specific behaviours involve:

1. preparing and entering the lesson;
2. introducing and emphasizing content;
3. elaborating on important ideas or concepts; and
4. monitoring students' understanding and remediating when students fail to understand.

Preparing and Entering the Lesson- Clear instruction is logically organized and is conduced in a very that helps students see the relationships between major concepts or ideas. Accordingly, clear teachers organize their lesson content and activities logically, inform students of the objectives of the lesson and introduce the content or activities step by step. During planning, the teacher determines the most logical way to introduce content based upon his/her students' abilities, previous learning and the natural structure of the content.

Introducing and Emphasizing Important Points- Clear instruction focuses students' attention on important aspects of the instruction. A common way to do this is to write the major points on the board and/or have students record them. This is why it is expected that at the end of the lesson, the major points of the lesson should be on the chalkboard. Another way to reinforce/emphasize important aspects of the lesson is to point them out through verbal structuring or cuing. For example, "the first point we will discourse is …"; "second …" and "finally…" The teacher can also alert students to pay close attention to important

points, e.g. “it is important for you to note this”. “Listen carefully because this is an important point”. To do this effectively, a teacher might note an important point, state it, write it on the board and then repeat it.

Elaborating on Important Ideas or Concepts- In addition to a teacher introducing and emphasizing major points for students, he/she can deepen their understanding of the content by providing examples, explanations, and elaborations. Clear instructions help students see how things are similar or different. A teacher can describe, demonstrate, explain or show students how two ideas, concepts, examples or ways of doing things are alike and how they differ. When the lesson involves learning a task or a skill, it is important that you demonstrate the task and while doing so, explain what you are doing and why, clear teachers also explain unfamiliar words. It is good to always explain or define terms before using them in the lesson. Finally, students’ understanding is enhanced when you briefly pause after introducing something important to allow students think about it. Just as wait time (pause), allow students to think about a question during questioning, all those combine will make a good presentation of a lesson.

Ensuring Students’ Understanding- This deals with how the teacher monitors and corrects students’ understanding by providing students with opportunity to understand the concept or ideas. Critical to this, is the teacher’s ability to use frequent questions at a variety of levels. In addition to asking questions that assess students’ understanding, the teacher should build time for student generated questions during the lesson. A teacher could do this by giving a pause to allow students initiate questions or call for students’ questions directly. This has to be guided so as not to allow irrelevant questions waste time during the lesson. In addition to allowing time for questions, teacher should also include activities that make/ask students to demonstrate examples, and then the teacher closely monitors their performance and provides corrective feedback when necessary. This is referred to as providing guided practice.

In summary, instructional clarity refers to a broad and important set of teacher behaviours and the major focus of clarity is on helping students understand what the teacher is teaching. Remember, clarity is something the student and not the teacher achieve. However, learning to use behaviours that make instruction clearer to students can greatly improve the effectiveness of your teaching.

E. Skill of Lesson Closure

Closure of a lesson refers to those concluding parts of a lesson which serve to:

(i) reinforce what has been learned in a lesson;

(ii) integrate and review the content of a lesson; and

(iii) Prepare the students for further learning.

All lessons need a good finish and good finish takes the form of a review that gets students to summarize what they have learned and connect it to prior or future learning. Several strategies are available to create an effective lesson closure. Those strategies not only help facilitate learning but also after the lesson to be seen as an integrated whole. Certain strategies which teachers can use to achieve closure include the following:

- Summarizing what has been covered in the lesson.
- Reviewing key points of the lesson.
- Relating the lesson to the course or lesson goals.
- Pointing out links between the lesson and previous lessons.
- Showing how the lesson relates to students' real-world needs.
- Making links to a forthcoming lesson.
- Praising students for what they have accomplished during the lesson.

The kind of strategy to use will depend largely on the type of lesson as well as the level of the class. Typically, the closure of a lesson serves to reinforce what has been presented with a review of key points covered in the teaching. This may include questioning by the teacher to determine how much the students have understood. Often, the closure will include a transition to the next lesson in which the students will be assigned a problem to think about or a task that will help provide an entry to the next lesson.

Competences in teaching represent certain states of teaching capacity and capability to be attained in the skills, knowledge and understanding required for effective classroom management, pupils' assessment, subject teaching and professional development. In the words of Pollard (1997), these, competences represent a constructive clarification of the particular skills, knowledge and understandings of the profession. In recent years, there is a growing concern about the need to ensure teachers' competence especially in the advanced countries. Successive levels of competence in teaching have been set which student teachers may attain at the beginning, middle and end of their courses, those of new teachers after their induction to full-time school life, and those of the experienced, expert teachers. Competency

criteria have been set by government in many countries to provide a framework for teacher training (Pollard, 1997).

Such competency criteria are very helpful in defining goals for students, tutors, and teachers who are engaged in initial teacher education. Aggarwal (2004) opines that competence-based teacher education is that type of professional education of classroom teachers that take the pre-determined competence of teaching behaviours as the base of teacher education programmes. While Karl (2002) lends credence to this saying that competence-based teacher education has the potential to revolutionalise the entire field of educational personnel development through its emphasis on clearly stated role derived objectives, the individualisation and personalisation of instruction, a field centered approach, pre-specified performance, mastery level and modes of assessment.

Ryan (1969) describes two types of teacher competences saying that teaching is complex and many-sided, demanding a variety of human traits and abilities and so group these competences into two—first are those involving the teacher's mental abilities and skills, his understandings of psychological and educational principles and his knowledge of general and specific subject-matter to be taught. Second are those qualities stemming from the teacher's personality, his interests, dispositions and beliefs, his behaviours in working relationships with pupils and other individuals. However, Claderhead and Shorrock (1997) conclude that learning to teach involves more than the mastery of a limited set of competences; it is a complex and lengthy process, extending for most teachers well after their initial training. It is therefore believed that if pre-service teachers are exposed to reflective teaching and micro teaching practices well enough during the training years, it could help them to improve on their teaching during and long after their initial training period.

2.8 Pre-service Teachers' Attitude towards Teaching Practice

Attitude connotes a tendency to behave in a particular way towards something or somebody. This has to do with an individual. In current literature, the word 'disposition' is also used in lieu of attitude. According to Villegas (2007), the term 'disposition' gained currency in teacher education discourse during the 1990s. In the words of Freeman (2003), the movement towards standard-based teacher preparation changed the old formulation of 'knowledge, skills, and attitude' as goals of teacher education to 'knowledge, skills, and dispositions'. As increasing number of states incorporated the principles of disposition into their licensing programmes for beginning teachers during the 1990s, dispositions gained attention in the preparation of prospective teachers. Richardson (2003), also comments that attention to

attitudes has started to be a growing concern in teacher education. While Daniel (2006), opines that success in the teaching profession is derived from three main sources: knowledge in the subject matter, teaching competencies and positive attitude towards teaching.

Villegas (2007) goes further to offer a working definition of atittudes as tendencies for individuals to act in a particular manner under particular circumstances, based on their beliefs. A tendency implies a pattern of behaviour that is predictive of future actions. To him, this predictive feature of the proposed definition gives teacher educators some assurance that once programme completers who have developed the disposition (or tendencies) promoted by the programme assume the formal role of teachers, their practices will be in keeping with these dispositions.

Another important feature of this definition is its focus on candidates' actions rather than on their attributes. Since actions can be examined directly, unlike attributes the complexity of measuring a disposition is somewhat lessened, as long as the types of actions thought to represent that disposition can be specified with reasonable confidence.

According to Richardson (2003), developments in learning theory over the past three decades have focused a spotlight on the beliefs teacher-candidates bring to their teacher preparation programmes. As she explains, current thinking in cognitive science depicts learning as an active process by which learners infuse new ideas with meaning. In this interpretive activity, learners are said to draw on their prior knowledge and beliefs as they strive to make sense of new ideas (Rosenick, 1989; National Research Council, 2000). Applying this in the context of learning to teach, it suggests that the beliefs pre-service teachers bring to programmes of teacher education (derived from their previous schooling and life experiences) shape what and how candidates learn from their formal preparation, and eventually influence what and how they teach in classrooms. Unexamined beliefs, especially those based on the fact that teacher-candidates' beliefs are powerful filters that not only make new phenomena understandable but also organise new ideas, teacher educators cannot ignore their students' entering and developing beliefs (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Unexamined beliefs, especially those that are contradicted by new ideas about teaching introduced in teacher education courses, tend to remain latent throughout a candidate's formal preparation, only to resurface once they are placed in a classroom to teach. Thus, beliefs can act as stumbling blocks or barriers to learning on the part of teacher-candidates.

Cochran-Smith and Zeichner (2005) astutely point out that a focus on candidate's beliefs requires a shift in teacher education from a training model that stresses the transmission of propositional knowledge and the development of technical skills to a learning

model that emphasises how prospective teachers construct their understandings of learning to teach, how those understandings are affected by what they bring to their formal preparation, and how their thinking changes over time. It is therefore important that pre-service teachers be helped to understand the connections between and among teachers' beliefs about students, teachers' actions in the classrooms and student outcomes because teacher-candidates' beliefs and pedagogical skills are antecedents to dispositions. Sharbian and Tan (2013) comment that people's attitude towards their professions has an effect on their performance (teaching inclusive). From the these various submissions of scholars then, one can see that attitude constitute a major factor that can influence how an individual performs his/her job. This has to be examined in the teaching profession especially because teachers are molders of life and whatever error is committed can affect the students for life.

2.9 Gender and Pre-service Teachers' Teaching Skills

Sex is the condition of being born a male or a female and it is biological while gender is the socio-psychological and cultural roles expectations from the male and female. According to Nnenna (2007), gender has gone beyond the mere classification of human beings according to their sex; it encompasses the societal characterisation and expectation of each group. Gender distinguishes between males and females in terms of roles, behaviuors, skills, and mental and emotional characteristic. These have culminated into what is termed sex-role stereotypes and it is believed to influence every aspect of human life and endeavours. Education is one area believed to have been influenced by this concept. Kimmel (2000) comments that studies consistently find that male and female instructors (teachers) are perceived differently in ways that are consistent with stereotypically gendered expectations of communication and interactive patterns. While Basow (1999) finds that male instructors were perceived by students to be more knowledgeable, and female instructors were thought to be more sensitive and respectful of students' ideas. It is therefore possible that gendered perceptions of instructors might be related to differences in teaching styles. Literatures seem to agree that female teachers tend to use teaching techniques that are more interactive. Chudgar and Sankar (2008), found out in their study on the relationship between teachers' gender and students achievement that male and female teachers differ in terms of their classroom management practices and their belief in students' learning ability. They report that being in a female teacher's classroom is advantageous for language learning but a teacher's gender has no effect on Mathematics learning. Most studies find that females report higher efficacy than males (Anderson, Greene, and Lowen, 1988; Evans and Tribble, 1986); while some found no

gender differences (Lee, Dedrick and Smith, 1991). Anderson, (2011) reports that Danish female teachers have both higher efficacy and higher job satisfaction than their male counterparts in his on teachers' self efficacy and job satisfaction based on gender. Kareem (2014) and Adedayo (2014) in their different studies also found no significant effect of gender on teachers' classroom practices/teaching behaviours after they\ teachers were treated to reflective teaching practice in biology and physics classes. This implies that when teachers are exposed to proper training, irrespective of their gender, their teaching effectiveness will be enhanced.

2.10 Pre-service Teachers' Academic Ability and Teaching Skills

Studies looking at correlations between teachers' coursework and the quality of their teaching provide evidence that teaching knowledge is distinct from disciplinary knowledge. Precisely, only academic coursework which focused on those areas of subject matter central to what is taught in schools had a significant impact on teaching and subsequent student achievement. Teachers' coursework in 'more advanced' courses had no such impact on instruction and learning. For example, Veenman (1984) reviewed 83 studies and found that teachers who attended teacher education programmes which stressed subject matter knowledge were less effective as teachers than those who attended programmes which stressed professional knowledge. In another example, Ferguson and Womack (1993) looked at 226 student teachers, measuring their teaching effectiveness with a variety of instruments such as questionnaires and evaluations by cooperating teachers, university supervisors, and the student teachers themselves. Ferguson and Womack then found out that grades in education courses were much better predictors of teaching effectiveness than grades in subject matter courses.

Furthermore, Monk (1994) looked at the Mathematics and Science learning of 60 10th grade students (as measured by achievement tests) and the university preparation of their teachers. Like others, he found that the number of undergraduate education courses taken correlated with students learning to a greater extent than the number of subject courses taken. These studies support the contention of Everston, Hawley & Zlotnik (1985) who concluded from their review of research that subject matter knowledge coursework which does not focus on the areas taught in schools is not central to what teachers will do and thus is not effective in increasing teaching effectiveness.

Other researchers have also argued that the academic knowledge which teachers get in second language teacher education programmes does not seem to answer the questions on

problems novice teacher have when they enter teaching and, thus, is rarely used by them (Johnson, 1994, 1996; Johnston, Pawan & Mahan-Taylor, 2005; Gabel, 1997; Lamb, 1995; Pennington & Richards, 1997). Johnson (1996) says that novice teachers beginning teaching after academic study still have a 'critical lack of knowledge' about L_2 students and language teaching. It is therefore necessary to investigate whether academic ability can influence teaching competence.

2.11 Reflective Teaching Practice and Micro-Teaching in Teacher Preparation

A review of literature reveals that engaging in deliberate reflection (reflective teaching practice) is a necessary part of gaining competence especially for a teacher in training. It is not possible for pre-service teachers to acquire all the knowledge they need to be competent through the knowledge they receive through knowledge transmission alone. There is the need to teach and practice reflection with student teachers. And it is evident that our teacher education programme has failed to provide such opportunity. This constitutes a major gap in our teacher education programme especially considering the way things are done from a global perspective. Deliberate practice does not just occur, rather, high-level skills result from practice of a very special fort which reflective teaching can provide.

It is also revealed that there is need for a change of conceptions in second language teacher education (SLTE). Over time, there has been a debate on what actually should constitute the content or focus of SLTE among experts. There is therefore this movement towards standard-based teacher preparation programme. This study is therefore an attempt to see whether reflective teaching practice can be used to attain a standard based second language teacher education in Nigeria.

On the importance of micro-teaching in teacher preparation, it is used purely for helping the teacher to improve his/her teaching skills and not as a tool for making a value judgment of his /her teaching capacity by his/her superiors. The following are some of the advantages of micro-teaching in teacher education among others:

- it focuses on sharpening and developing specific teaching skills and eliminating errors.
- it enables understanding of behaviours important in classroom teaching.
- it increases the confidence of the teacher learner.
- it provides experts' supervision and constructive feedback.
- it provides projection of model instructional skills.
- it provides repeated practice without adverse consequence on the teacher or his/her learners.

2.12 Empirical Studies on Reflective Practice

Researches on effective teaching over the past two decades have shown that effective practice is linked to inquiry, reflection and continuous professional growth (Harris, 1998). Reflective practice can be a beneficial form of professional development at both the pre-service and in-service levels of teaching. By gaining a better understanding of their own individual styles through reflective practice, teachers can improve their effectiveness in the classroom (Ferraro, 2000).

Hence, reflective practice has been very fashionable in teacher education and adult education circles for the past decades in the United Kingdom, Australia and the United States of America (Hatton and Smith, 1995; Johnston and Usher, 1996). The available empirical findings reveal some conflicting reports Stoiber (1991) reported significant findings for using reflective practices in developing classroom management skills. While Chandler, Robinson and Noyes (1991) found reflection not to be significantly related to teaching performance. Mohammed (2007) conducted a study with some Iranian pre-University students of English as a foreign language (EFL) to determine whether there is a statistically significant relationship between "reflective teaching practices" and the learning outcomes of the Iranian EFL students and found that reflective teaching contributed significantly to the learning effectiveness of the Iranian EFL students.

Ogonor and Badmus (2010) conducted a study in a Nigerian university on reflective practice among student teachers and found out that student teachers were elated and had opportunity for professional growth as they practice reflective teaching. They therefore recommend the introduction of reflective teaching practice to teacher education programmes in Nigeria. Adedayo (2014) investigated the effect of reflective teaching on the classroom behaviour of Physics teachers in secondary schools in Ekiti state and found that reflective teaching is very effective at improving classroom behaviour of Physics teachers. Ellison and Jazzar (2006) as reported by David, Melissa and Emily(2010) conducted a study on the journaling(a reflective teaching approach) combined with mentoring using a group of first year teachers and found that these teachers experience common themes and these first year teachers reflected more on days when they experienced more difficulties than days when they met with success and invariably these teachers were able to gain greater insight into constructing lesson plans and to enhance their skills in making connections to student and faculty. They therefore recommend that further investigation (more empirical studies) be made to affirm the effectiveness of reflective practice.

Apart from teaching, reflective practice has also been applied in other fields of endeavour like nursing, medicine, human management etc. (Scanlan, Care and Udod, 2002; Glaze, 2001; Crombs, 2001; Brookfield, 2000). Different approaches/strategies have also been used by the different researchers using different designs. Paget (2000) and Scalan et al (2002) found that when many strategies are used together they elicit reflection and help students make connection between content and practice.

2.13 Empirical Studies on Micro- teaching

The increasing use of micro-teaching has been noted going by the report of available literature on micro-teaching. There is considerable evidence regarding the effectiveness of micro- teaching , Okunloye and Okeowo (2006) reported their study on the relationship between social studies in a College of Education student teachers' performance in micro-teaching and teaching practice and reported that the performance of the student teachers in micro – teaching and teaching practice have low but significant relationship . Deniz (2010) studied the implication of training student teachers of pre- schooling through micro- teaching activities for a classroom with mentally – disabled students and found out that the application of micro-teaching brought about positive changes within the opinions of the student teachers towards teaching skills and also enabled them to develop awareness for learning teaching processes in a classroom setting and therefore recommend the use of micro-teaching in teacher education for effective acquisition of teaching skills.

Oguntade (2009) examined the adequacy of micro teaching techniques in Agricultural teacher preparation and found that microteaching helps to improve student teachers' agricultural teacher competence and their attitude to teaching. Arzu and seyda (2009) also conducted a study on the effect of micro teaching application on pre-service teachers' competency level and found out that there was a significant difference between the pre-test scores of teacher who attended the micro teaching practice among early childhood pre-service teachers' teaching competency level positively. They recommend the use of micro teaching in teacher education programmes for effective improvement of teachers' competency levels.

Fernandez (2005) investigated the professional development of prospective mathematics teacher through micro teaching lesson study in a Japanese teacher education institution. She found out that application of micro-teaching lesson study helped these prospective mathematics teachers to understand and begin implementing teaching practices that are consistent with reform-oriented teaching and also developed subject matter

knowledge. The participants also perceived the experience and its components as beneficial in their development as teachers. She recommends the use of micro- teaching lesson study in teacher preparation programmes.

Apart from teaching, micro- teaching has also been applied in other professions like medicine, nursing and even technical training and it has been found to be effective. With its acclaimed levels of effectiveness, micro-teaching has also attracted some levels of criticicism which include the belief that micro teaching produces homogenized standard robots. Also, it is believed that since micro teaching is not a real classroom setting, pre-service teachers will find it difficult to transfer what they have gained in real classroom setting. Despite these criticisms, repeated experiments on micro-teaching over a period of time have shown that micro teaching produces remarkable improvement in teaching skills.

Appraisal of Literature Reviewed

This review has focused on the use of reflective teaching and micro-teaching in teacher education programmes. Reflective teaching on its own is a teacher activity that involves looking at a teaching event /activity thoughtfully with a view to evaluating and taking corrective measures that will promote better improvement at a later lesson. Micro-teaching on the other hand is a scaled-down teaching in terms of class size, time and teaching task that is aimed at training on specific teaching skill at a time. The problem of passivity and traditional pedagogy wherein the teacher engages in routine teaching have been criticized by scholars due to the fact that this type of teaching has failed to produce the desired outcome over time. This is actually true in the Nigeria situation where most teachers have been found to maintain a particular teaching style over time. Some teachers are so predictable that their students know how they will introduce and present their lessons from the beginning to the end. They see teaching as mere transmission of knowledge and dispensation of information to a group of learners. This type of practice is what experts call transmission pedagogy. The transformative pedagogy has therefore been suggested. Transformative pedagogy involves making teachers engage in self-assessment through reflection-on-action, peer dialogue, social discourse, and other self assessment modes in order to foster transformative pedagogy.

Preparing teachers to become transformative pedagogues cannot be taken lightly because there is the need to move beyond the mere acquisition of technical skills and theoretical knowledge that do not translate into effective teaching. Effective teaching is believed to enhance effective learning among students. A critical observation of what goes on in Nigerian classrooms reveals that most teachers lack effective teaching skills that foster effective

learning. There is an urgent need to assist teachers (especially pre-service teachers) in a process of self-transformation as they learn how to teach. They need to be equipped to be able to make substantive changes in their classrooms in order to break the shackles of routine teaching.

Pre-service teachers have to be assisted to be able to engage in practices that will enhance their teaching even when they become substantive teachers. The uses of micro-teaching and reflective teaching practices have been found to be useful in this regard. These two modes of training have been used by different researchers and there have been more or less inconsistent reports. This might be due to the fact that these researchers have used different research designs, different reflective teaching approaches and different teaching skills have been selected. They have also used participants from different subject areas (disciplines) while carrying out their studies. However, these studies have revealed that reflective teaching practice has helped to improve pre-service teachers' teaching practice scores. It has also been reported that pre-service engagement in micro-teaching has brought about improvement in their teaching skills. Also, none of the previous studies considered the moderating effects of the pre-service teachers' academic ability and their gender while treating them to reflective and micro-teaching practices.

As these two practices have been recommended for effective teacher preparation, there are quite a few studies that have been carried out in Nigeria; most of the studies reviewed were foreign-based. More so, the few available studies in Nigeria are in the area of science education and general education as the researcher could not lay hand on any empirical study on reflective and micro-teaching practices in the area of language education in Nigeria. This might be due to the fact that reflective teaching is yet to be introduced into the curriculum of teacher education in Nigeria. Also, the way micro-teaching is being handled in our teacher education programmes is far from standard practice when compared to what obtains in some other countries around the world. Therefore, the level of awareness and knowledge that teacher educators have about these two practices can be said to be low. Hence, not many people are working in these areas in the field of educational practice. This study therefore aimed to investigate further the effectiveness of reflective teaching practice and micro-teaching practice modes during teaching practice among ESL pre-service teachers and find out the moderating effects of their academic ability and gender.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the method that was employed in carrying out the study. It discusses the research design, variables in the study, selection of participants in the study, research instruments and their validation, research procedure and method of data analysis.

3.1 Research Design

The study adopted a pretest- posttest, control group, quasi-experimental design. The design is as follows:

Experimental group (E_1)

Experimental group (E_2)

Control group (C)

O_1	X_1	O_2	... E_1
O_3	X_2	O_4	... E_2
O_5	X_3	O_6	... C

Where:

O_1, O_3 and O_5 represent the pre-test observations for Experimental groups 1, 2 and control respectively

O_2, O_4 and O_6 represent the post-test observations for Experimental groups 1, 2 and control respectively

X_1 represents reflective teaching

X_2 represents micro-teaching

X_3 represents the control (conventional teaching practice evaluation)

The design also employed a 3*x*3*x*2 factorial matrix which is represented on table I:

Table 3.1: **3:3:2: Factorial Representations**

(a) ***Design Groups***	**(b) Academic Ability**			**(c) *Gender***
	High	Average	*Low*	
1. Reflective Teaching				Male
				Female
2. Micro-teaching				Male
				Female
3.Control(conventional teaching practice evaluation)				Male
				Female

3.2 Variables in the Study

a. Independent variable: This refers to the modes of learning operating at 3 levels:
   i. Reflective teaching practice
   ii. Micro-teaching practice
   iii. Conventional teaching practice.

b. Moderator variables are:
   i. Pre-service English as Second Language (ESL) teachers' academic ability at 3 levels which are: (1) Low, (2) Average, (3) High
   ii. Pre-service ESL teachers' gender at 2 levels which are: (1) Male (2) Female

c. Dependent variables: These are:
   i. Teaching skills
   ii. Pre-service ESL teachers' attitude towards teaching practice

3.3 Selection of Participants

A total of 120 pre-service ESL teachers were selected using multistage sampling technique. First, purposive sampling technique was used to select six colleges of education for the study. This was to allow the researcher select colleges that were on teaching practice. The 300 level

students were also purposively selected because they were the level going for teaching practice. The 300 level were later stratified into two according to their gender to ensure that male and female were selected. It was from the two strata that 20 participants were proportionately selected.

The six colleges selected were randomly assigned into the two experimental groups and the control group. This indicates that two colleges were selected for experimental group one and two colleges selected for experimental group two and two colleges for the control group.

3.4 Research Instruments

Five self designed instruments were used for this study. These are described as follows:

3.4.1 Pre-Service ESL Teachers' Attitude towards Teaching Practice Questionnaire (PETATPQ)

This contains two sections: i.e. sections A and B. *Section A* was used to elicit responses on the bio-data of the participants. These included bio-data information like sex, age, level of study and school of teaching practice. *Section B* contained thirty (30) items of question to elicit responses on the participants' attitude towards teaching practice on a modified Likert-type rating scale of Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD). This section requested participants to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement with the items of the questionnaire which was used to determine their attitude to teaching practice (*see Appendix I*).

Items that indicated positive attitude were scored on points 4 (SA), 3 (A), 2 (D) and 1 (SD) while the scoring for items that indicated negative attitude were scored vice-versa, i.e. 1 (SA), 2 (A), 3 (D) and 4 (SD).

Validity and Reliability of PETATPQ

For the validity of this instrument, it was given to the researcher's supervisor and other research experts in the field of education for comments and suggestions that were used for corrections before the production of the final copy. This was to ensure the face and content validity of the instrument. To ensure the reliability of the instrument, 50 copies of the instrument were administered on respondents outside the selected participants. Their responses were collated and the Cronbach method was used for its analysis and the Alpha

value of .88 was obtained. This was deemed high and so the instrument was adjudged to be highly reliable.

3.4.2 Pre-Service ESL Classroom Observation Scale Manual (PETCOSM)

This instrument was used to rate the teaching skills of the participants as they taught during teaching practice. This is a self-designed instrument based on the teaching skills of:

- Set induction
- Stimulus variation
- Questioning
- Instruction presentation
- Closure

This instrument contains two sections, A and B. *Section A* is on the bio-data of the participants to reflect their matriculation number no, sex, age, level of study, mode of entry and teaching practice school. *Section B* contains the component skills that were observed. These are presented on a 5-point Likert scale of Extremely Well Skilled (EWS), Well Skilled (WS), Skilled (S), Not Well Skilled (NWS) and Totally Unskilled (TU). The scoring is indicated as follows:

Extremely Well Skilled (EWS)	--	4 points
Well Skilled (WS)	--	3 points
Skilled (S)	--	2 points
Not Well Skilled (NWS)	--	1 point
Totally Unskilled (TU)	--	0

The structure of this scale makes it that the maximum score a participant could have is 100% (*see Appendix II*).

Validity and Reliability of PETCOSM

This instrument was given to the researcher's supervisor and other experienced lecturers in faculties of education to ensure its face and content validity. Their suggestions and comments were used to improve the instrument for the production of the final copy. The inter-rater reliability was also carried out by making two observers observe a pre-service ESL teacher (selected outside the sample for the study) at the same time. A total of 10 candidates were observed and their scores were analysed using Scott's π method and the *r*-value= .79. This value indicated that the instrument is reliable.

3.4.3 Pre-Service ESL Teachers' Academic Ability Rating Sheet (PETAARS)

This instrument was used to collect and rate students' results to determine their academic ability. Information contained in this instrument includes the Students' Name, Matriculation Number, Total Number of Units Registered for (TNU), Total Number of units passed (TNUP), Total Grade Point (TGP) and their Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA). The rating was such that CGPA of 3.50—5.0=High Academic Ability; CGPA of 2.40—3.49=Average Academic Ability and CGPA of 2.39—1.0=Low Academic Ability. This instrument was given to research experts to ascertain its face and content validity.

3.4.4 Reflective Teaching Instructional Guide (RETIG)

This was a self-designed guide used to teach the participants in experimental group I. This guide contains lessons based on what could make the participants understand the concept of reflective practice and how to engage in deliberate reflective practice. It contains:

(1) Introduction which gives a broad explanation on the concept of reflective teaching.

(2) Process of reflection which gives explanation on deliberate reflection as against casual reflection and how deliberate reflection is being guided.

(3) Approaches to reflective practice which explains real activities involved in reflective practice.

(4) Characteristics of a reflective practitioner, which explain certain qualities and attributes of reflective teachers necessary for the participants to make them responsive to the process of reflective practice

(5) Benefits of Reflective teaching which have to do with making the participants see the need to engage in reflective practice as teachers. This was the specific treatment package for experimental group I that was used for treatment for eight weeks.

Validity and Reliability of Instructional Guide on Reflective Teaching Practice

This instrument was given to the researcher's supervisor and other research experts for its face and content validity. Their suggestions were used to reconstruct the guide in order to have the final draft. This was to ensure the face and content validity of the instrument. For the reliability of the instrument, it was given to experienced teacher educators (including professors), who read through the content of the guide and rated it using Reflective Teaching Instructional Guide Rating Scale. Their rating was later analysed using Scott's π method and the *r*-value obtained was .81. This was also adjudged to be reliable enough.

3.4.6 Micro-Teaching Instructional Guide (MIG)

This is another self designed guide that was used to teach participants in experimental group II. It contains lessons on micro-teaching which include:

1. Introduction, which explains the meaning of micro-teaching
2. Teaching skills components which identifies and explains individual teaching skills.
3. Phases of micro-teaching which explains the stages involved in micro-teaching process and the procedure for each stage. This was the specific treatment package for experimental group II and it was used for treatment for eight weeks.

Validity and Reliability of MIG

This instructional guide was given to the researcher's supervisor and other researchers in teacher education for a review to determine its face and content validity. Their comments were used to reconstruct the final copy. For the reliability, it was given to five experienced researchers and teacher educators who read through and rated the content of the guide in terms of relevance and appropriateness. This was done using Micro-teaching Instructional Guide rating scale. This was subjected to analysis using Scott's π method and the *r*-value of .88 was obtained. This indicated that the instrument was reliable.

3.5 Procedures for the Study

The following procedures were followed:

3.5.1 (1). Preliminary steps

(a) Visitation to the selected Colleges of Education. This involved consultation to the Head of Department (H.O.D) of relevant departments in the selected colleges in order to take permission for the participants. The students' data were also collected from their course advisers. The lecturers who served as research assistants were also consulted and trained for the research procedure.

(b) Selection

The students' data collected were used to select 20 participants in each college following the sampling procedure. The selected participants were eventually consulted and given appropriate information about the study.

The preliminary steps lasted 2 weeks.

(2) Pre-test procedure

The researcher and the research assistants carried out pre-test procedure as follows:

i. Administration of pre-service ESL Teachers' Attitude towards Teaching practice Questionnaire (PETATPQ)

ii. Using of pre-service ESL Teachers' Academic Ability Rating Sheet to rate the participants into the various academic levels of low, medium and high.

iii. Observation of the participants for at least three different times as they taught in class using pre-service ESL classroom observation scale manual (PETCOSM). The participants' scores were recorded as pre-test scores. This lasted 2 weeks.

3.5.2 Treatment Procedure

The instructional guides prepared by the researcher were used to teach the participants in the two experimental groups in the following manner:

(Experimental Group I) **Step 1:** Reflective Teaching Instructional Guide (RTIG) was used to teach all members of the group by the research assistants. This was conducted in an interactive manner as much as possible as the participants were allowed to ask questions and make contributions. They were all given copies of the guide as handouts.

Step 2: The participants were divided into four reflective practice groups.

Step 3: Each participant was made to teach and the class was video recorded and given to each participant in video disc.

Step 4: The participants were made to carry out reflective teaching practice using three approaches of

- Personal observation of recorded lessons for personal reflection.
- Keeping a teaching diary using the sample they were given in the guide.
- Peer reflection on the recorded lessons in each of the four groups they have been divided into. Comments and suggestions were raised, questions were asked and answers were given by the members of the group with the research assistants acting as facilitators. This was to allow for a group evaluation of the lessons (Each group agreed on the time and place of meeting within stipulated time).

Step 5: Each person went back to teach for the purpose of teaching practice taking into consideration all that he/she had reflected upon or what had been suggested during peer reflection.

(Experimental group II) Step 1: Micro-Teaching Instructional Guide (MTIG) was used to teach all members of the group by the research assistants. This was conducted in an interactive manner as much as possible as the participants were allowed to ask questions and make contributions. They were all given copies of the guide as handouts.

Step 2: The participant were divided into four micro-teaching groups.

Step 3: Each group identified and agreed on a skill to be observed. They also agree on the place and time of meeting. Each participant prepared a short lesson on the skill to be observed.

Step4: During the meeting, each participant taught between eight and ten minutes to demonstrate the skill to be observed.

Step 5: An evaluation of the skill follows by all members of the group acting as students and observers.

Step6: After all the selected skills have been handled, each participant went back to teach for the purpose of teaching practice and then applied what had been inculcated during the skill acquisition stage.

(**The control group) Step 1**: The supervisors were consulted and made to understand what to do for the participants; they were guided on the kind of verbal and written appraisal (on the skills to be observed) to give the participants before and after their lessons. They were instructed verbally by the research assistants on the need to develop their teaching skills during teaching practice. They were given hints on how to introduce their lessons, the need to vary stimulus, hints on asking questions, how to present lessons, and how to bring a lesson to a close. They were allowed to ask questions from the supervisors and answers were given accordingly. Each participant carried on his/her teaching and was observed and given verbal and written comments by the supervisors who served as research assistants.

Step2: Each of them went back to continue the teaching based on the comments and suggestions of the supervisors.

All the treatment procedures lasted for 8 weeks.

(4) **Post-test Procedure**

All participants were observed using pre-service ESL classroom observation scale manual (PETCOSM) and their score this time around served as post test scores. Also, Pre-service ESL Teachers' Attitude towards Teaching Practice Questionnaire (PETATPQ) was administered on the participants. This lasted two weeks.

The entire procedure lasted 14 weeks, and it is represented diagrammatically as follows:

Table 3.2: Research Procedure

S/N	NO OF WEEKS	ACTIVITIES
1	2 weeks	Consultation with the Heads of Departments (HOD) in the selected colleges. Consultation with research assistants and training them. Visitation to Teaching Practice schools.
2	2weeks	Administration of PETATTPQ and Academic Ability rating using PETAARS. Pre-test observation using PETCOSM and the scores served as pre-test scores.
3	8weeks	Treatment for experimental groups I&II using Reflective Teaching Practice Instructional Guide for group I and Using Micro-Teaching Instructional Guide for experimental group II. Engaging experimental groups I&II in actual reflective practice and micro-teaching practice respectively. Control group carried on their normal teaching and were observed and given verbal comments on their teaching.
4	2weeks	Observation of participants using pre-service ESL Classroom Observation Scale Manual (PETCOSM) and their scores served as post-test scores. Administration of Pre-Service ESL Teachers' Attitude Towards Teaching Practice Questionnaire (PETATTPQ).
Total	14weeks	

Table 3.3: **Framework for Treatment Application**

	Pre-test observa-Tion	***Reflective teaching practice***	***Micro-teaching practice***	***Conventional teaching practice***	***Post-test observation***
Experimental (E_1)	✓	✓			✓
Experimental (E_2)	✓		✓		✓
Control (C)	✓			✓	✓

3.6 Method of Data Analysis

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data that were collected for the study. Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was used to test the seven (7) hypotheses generated for the study. Estimated Marginal Means (EMM) was used to determine the mean scores of the participants in each group. In cases of interaction effect involving three groups, Scheffe post-hoc analysis was carried out to determine the source of the effect.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the analyses of data obtained for this study. The analyses are based number on the number of participants that participated in the study. It includes both the descriptive and inferential statistics used.

4.1: Results

4.1.1: Testing the Null Hypotheses

$H0_{1a}$: There is no significant main effect of treatment on pre-service ESL teachers' teaching skills.

Table 4.1: Summary of Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) of Effect of Treatment on Teaching Skills

Dependent Variable: POST TEACHING SKILLS

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	10190.928	16	636.933	8.119	.000	.558
Intercept	18635.716	1	18635.716	237.543	.000*	.698
PRESKILLS	154.965	1	154.965	1.975	.163	.019
TRETMT	3574.465	2	1787.233	22.781	.000	.307
ACADABLTY	36.662	2	18.331	.234	.792	.005
sex	42.423	1	42.423	.541	.464	.005
TRETMT * ACADABLTY	502.790	4	125.698	1.602	.179	.059
TRETMT * sex	243.499	2	121.749	1.552	.217	.029
ACADABLTY * sex	49.186	2	24.593	.313	.732	.006
TRETMT * ACADABLTY * sex	330.337	2	165.169	2.105	.127	.039
Error	8080.538	103	78.452			
Total	953192.000	120				
Corrected Total	18271.467	119				

a. R Squared = .558 (Adjusted R Squared = .489)

Table 4.1 reveals that there is a significant main effect of treatment on pre-service ESL teachers' teaching skills ($F_{(2, 103)} = 22.78$; $P<0.05$; $\eta^2 = .31$) Therefore, $H0_{1a}$ is rejected. Table 4.2 reveals the magnitude of skills acquisition levels across the groups.

Table 4.2: Estimated Marginal Means on the Treatment, Academic Ability and Sex across the Groups on Teaching Skills

Variables	N	Mean	Standard Error
Intercept			
Pre skill score	120	76.19	
Post skill score	120	88.56	1.17
Treatment			
Conventional Teaching Practice	40	76.84	1.93
Assessment	40	96.37	1.77
Micro Teaching	40	91.82	2.23
Reflective Teaching			
Academic Ability			
Low	64	88.29	1.33
Average	49	87.00	1.56
High	07	91.30	3.58
Gender			
Male	39	86.79	1.95
Female	81	89.94	1.41

Table 4.2 reveals that those exposed to micro teaching had the highest teaching skills mean score (96.37), followed by those exposed to reflective teaching (91.82) while those exposed to conventional teaching had the lowest (76.84). Table 4.3 reveals the pairwise comparison of the three groups.

Table 4.3: Scheffe's Post Hoc Pairwise Comparison of Skills Scores

Variables	Conventional Teaching	Micro Teaching	Reflective Teaching
Conventional Teaching		*	*
Micro Teaching	*		
Reflective Teaching	*		

Table 4.3 shows that the main effect exposed by table 4.1 is as a result of the significant difference between ESL pre-service teachers exposed to:

a. Conventional teaching practice assessment and micro teaching
b. Conventional teaching practice assessment and reflective teaching

But there is no significant difference between students exposed to micro teaching and reflective teaching practices. This implies that those exposed to the treatments of micro teaching and reflective teaching performed significantly better than those exposed to conventional teaching practice assessment in acquisition of teaching skills.

$H0_{1b}$: There is no significant main effect of treatment on pre-service ESL teachers' attitude towards teaching practice.

Table 4.4: Summary of Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) of Effect of Treatment on Pre-service Teachers' Attitude towards Teaching Practice

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: POSTATTITU

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	1901.910[a]	16	118.869	2.384	.005	.270
Intercept	2570.572	1	2570.572	51.555	.000	.334
PREATTITU	218.146	1	218.146	4.375	.039	.041
TRETMT	580.175	2	290.088	5.818	.004	.102
ACADABLTY	44.670	2	22.335	.448	.640	.009
sex	96.778	1	96.778	1.941	.167	.018
TRETMT * ACADABLTY	320.222	4	80.055	1.606	.179	.059
TRETMT * sex	76.187	2	38.093	.764	.468	.015
ACADABLTY * sex	278.574	2	139.287	2.794	.066	.051
TRETMT * ACADABLTY * sex	37.622	2	18.811	.377	.687	.007
Error	5135.681	103	49.861			
Total	487991.000	120				
Corrected Total	7037.592	119				

a. R Squared = .270 (Adjusted R Squared = .157)

Table 4.4 reveals that there is a significant main effect of treatment on pre-service ESL teachers' attitude towards teaching practice ($F_{(2, 103)} = 5.82$; $P<0.05$; $\eta^2 = .10$) Therefore, $H0_{1b}$ is rejected. Table 4.5 reveals the magnitude of attitude across the groups.

Table 4.5: Estimated Marginal Means across the Groups on Pre-service Teachers' Attitude towards Teaching Practice

Variables	N	Mean	Standard Error
Intercept			
Pre attitude score	120	44.34	
Post attitude score	120	52.83	.94
Treatment			
Conventional strategy	40	47.15	1.53
Micro Teaching	40	59.75	1.43
Reflective Teaching	40	61.78	1.84
Academic Ability			
Low	64	62.99	1.06
Average	49	62.55	1.24
High	07	62.99	2.81
Gender			
Male	39	63.85	1.58
Female	81	62.03	1.12

Table 4.5 reveals that those exposed to reflective teaching had the highest attitude mean score (61.78), followed by those exposed to micro teaching (59.75) while those exposed to conventional teaching had the lowest (47.15).

Table 4.6 reveals the pairwise comparison of the three groups.

Table 4.6: Scheffe's Post Hoc Pairwise Comparison on Attitude

Variables	Conventional Teaching	Micro Teaching	Reflective Teaching
Conventional Teaching		*	*
Micro Teaching	*		
Reflective Teaching	*		

Table 4.6 shows that the main effect exposed by table 4.4 is as a result of the significant difference between ESL pre-service Teachers exposed to:

a. Conventional teaching and micro teaching
b. Conventional teaching and reflective teaching

But there is no significant difference between students exposed to micro teaching and reflective teaching in their attitude towards teaching practice. This implies that those exposed to the treatments of micro teaching and reflective teaching had significantly better attitude towards teaching practice than those exposed to conventional teaching practice assessment.

$H0_{2a}$: There is no significant main effect of pre-service ESL teachers' academic ability on their teaching skills.

Table 4.1 reveals that academic ability of the pre-service teachers has no significant main effect on their teaching skills ($F_{(2, 103)} = 0.23$; $P>0.05$; $\eta^2 = .01$). Therefore, $H0_{2a}$ upheld. Table 4.2 reveals that ESL pre-service teachers with high academic ability had teaching skills mean score of 91.30, those with average ability had 87.00 and those with low ability had 88.29. The differences among these groups are not statistically significant.

$H0_{2b}$: There is no significant main effect of pre-service ESL teachers' academic ability on their attitude towards teaching practice.

Table 4.4 reveals that academic ability of the pre-service teachers has no significant main effect on their attitude towards teaching practice ($F_{(2, 103)} = 0.45$; $P>0.05$; $\eta^2 = .01$). Therefore, $H0_{2b}$ is not rejected. Table 4.6 reveals that ESL pre-service teachers with high academic ability had attitude mean score of 62.99, those with average ability had 62.55 and those with low ability had 62.99. The differences among these groups are not statistically significant.

$H0_{3a}$: There is no significant main effect of pre-service ESL teachers' gender on their teaching skills.

Table 4.1 reveals that gender of the pre-service teachers has no significant main effect on their teaching skills ($F_{(1, 103)} = 1.94$; $P>0.05$; $\eta^2 = .02$). Therefore, $H0_{3a}$ is not rejected. Table 4.2 reveals that female ESL pre-service teachers had teaching skills mean score of 89.94, while their male counterparts had 86.79. The difference between these groups is not statistically significant.

$H0_{3b}$: There is no significant main effect of pre-service ESL teachers' gender on their attitude towards teaching practice.

Table 4.4 reveals that the gender of the pre-service teachers has no significant main effect on their attitude towards teaching practice ($F_{(1, 103)} = 1.94$; $P>0.05$; $\eta^2 = .02$). Therefore, $H0_{3b}$ is not rejected. Table 4.6 reveals that male ESL pre-service teachers had attitude mean score of 63.85 while their female counterparts had 62.03. The difference between these groups is not statistically significant.

$H0_{4a}$: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment and academic ability on ESL pre-service teachers' teaching skills.

Table 4.1 reveals that treatment and academic ability has no significant interaction effect on their teaching skills ($F_{(4, 103)} = 1.60$; $P>0.05$; $\eta^2 = .06$). Therefore, $H0_{4a}$ is not rejected.

$H0_{4b}$: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment and academic ability on their attitude towards teaching practice.

Table 4.4 reveals that treatment and academic ability has no significant interaction effect on their attitude towards teaching practice ($F_{(4, 103)} = 1.61$; $P>0.05$; $\eta^2 = .06$). Therefore, $H0_{4b}$ is not rejected.

$H0_{5a}$: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment and gender on ESL pre-service teachers' teaching skills.

Table 4.1 reveals that treatment and gender has no significant interaction effect on their teaching skills ($F_{(2, 103)} = 1.55$; $P>0.05$; $\eta^2 = .03$). Therefore, $H0_{5a}$ is not rejected.

$H0_{5b}$: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment and gender on their attitude towards teaching practice.

Table 4.4 reveals that treatment and gender has no significant interaction effect on their attitude towards teaching practice ($F_{(2, 103)} = 0.76$; $P>0.05$; $\eta^2 = .02$). Therefore, $H0_{5b}$ is not rejected.

$H0_{6a}$: There is no significant interaction effect of academic ability and gender on ESL pre-service teachers' teaching skills.

Table 4.1 reveals that academic ability and gender has no significant interaction effect on their teaching skills ($F_{(2, 103)} = 0.31$; $P>0.05$; $\eta^2 = .01$). Therefore, $H0_{6a}$ is not rejected.

$H0_{6b}$: There is no significant interaction effect of academic ability and gender on their attitude towards teaching practice.

Table 4.4 reveals that academic ability and gender has no significant interaction effect on their attitude towards teaching practice ($F_{(2, 103)} = 2.79$; $P>0.05$; $\eta^2 = .05$). Therefore, $H0_{6b}$ is not rejected.

$H0_{7a}$: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment, academic ability and gender on ESL pre-service teachers' teaching skills.

Table 4.1 reveals that treatment, academic ability and gender has no significant interaction effect on their teaching skills ($F_{(2, 103)} = 2.11$; $P>0.05$; $\eta^2 = .04$). Therefore, $H0_{7a}$ is not rejected.

$H0_{7b}$: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment, academic ability and gender on their attitude towards teaching practice.

Table 4.4 reveals that treatment, academic ability and gender has no significant interaction effect on pre-service ESL teachers' attitude towards teaching practice ($F_{(2, 103)} = 0.38$; $P>0.05$; $\eta^2 = .01$). Therefore, $H0_{7b}$ is not rejected.

4.1.2: Summary of Findings

The following are the summary of the findings:

1 There was a significant main effect of treatment on the pre-service ESL teachers' teaching skills. Pre-service teachers in experimental group II (micro-teaching group) had the highest mean score, followed by those in experimental group II. Those in the control group had the lowest mean score.

2 Treatment had significant main effect on the pre-service ESL teachers' attitude towards teaching practice.

3 The pre-service ESL teachers' academic ability had no significant main effect on their teaching skills.

4 The academic ability of the pre-service ESL teachers did not have any significant main effect on their attitude towards teaching practice.

5 Gender did not have any main effect on the pre-service ESL teachers' teaching skills and attitude towards teaching practice.

6 There was no significant interaction effect of treatment and academic ability on the pre-service ESL teachers' teaching skills.

7 Treatment and gender did not have any significant interaction effect on the pre-service ESL teachers' teaching skills.

8 Academic ability and gender did not have any interaction effect on the pre-service ESL teachers' teaching skills.

9 There was no significant interaction effect of treatment and academic ability on the pre-service ESL teachers' attitude towards teaching practice.

10 Treatment and gender did not have any significant interaction effect on the pre-service ESL teachers' attitude towards teaching practice.

11 There was no significant interaction effect of treatment, academic ability and gender on pre-service ESL teachers' teaching skills and attitude towards teaching practice.

12 The academic ability and gender of the pre-service teachers did not have any significant interaction effect on their attitude towards teaching practice.

4.2 Discussion of Findings

4.2.1 Main Effect of treatment on ESL Pre-service Teachers' Acquisition of Teaching Skills

This study investigated the effects of reflective teaching practice and micro-teaching practice on pre-service ESL teachers' teaching skills and attitude to teaching practice. The findings from the study based on the analyses of data collected revealed that, there was significant main effect of treatments on pre-service ESL teachers' teaching skills as shown on table 4.1 in chapter 4. It was revealed that those exposed to micro-teaching practice and reflective teaching practice performed significantly better than those exposed to conventional teaching practice assessment in acquisition of teaching skills. Those exposed to micro-teaching had the highest teaching skill mean score (96.37), followed by those exposed to reflective teaching with a mean score of (91.82) and those exposed to the conventional teaching practice assessment had the least mean score (76.84). It is therefore evident that treatment had significant main effect of the participants' acquisition of teaching skills. This finding could have been as a result of the inclusion of reflective teaching and micro-teaching in the learning process of those in the experimental groups. That is, they learnt the acquisition of teaching skills through reflective teaching and micro-teaching. They were deliberately taught these two practices and were also made to apply what they were taught in practical terms and not just at the level of cognition. Their coming together in groups to review their teachings in order to have a critique of their lesson helped them a lot. This is because this practice gave them opportunity to assess their teaching in order to identify their weaknesses and consider ways to improve on these weaknesses. This invariably helped them to effect changes in their

subsequent teachings based on effective feedback. This could have assisted them better than their counterparts in the control group who only relied on verbal comments from their supervisors and did not have opportunity to engage in any deliberate practice to improve their teaching. This finding has validated the importance of deliberate practice as contained under the theoretical framework in chapter 2. Deliberate practice by teachers is said to be essential because it provides optional opportunities for learning and skill acquisition. It is believed that without immediate feedback or opportunities for corrected repetitions, improvements in performance with further experience would not be expected. This is in line with the submission of Ukpokodu (2007) that pre-service teachers should not be made to view teaching as a skill of transmitting knowledge and dispensing information but they should be made capable of making substantive changes in their classrooms for self transformation in order to enhance the quality of their teaching.

Also, the finding revealed that those in the micro-teaching group performed better than those in the reflective teaching group. Reasons for this could be that those in the micro-teaching group concentrated on specific teaching skills at a time for its mastery. Unlike those in the reflective teaching group that considered an entire lesson at a time. This might give room for insufficient observation of skills since they were not considered in isolation per se. Identifying and working on a particular teaching skill at a time could be better than taking a whole lesson together. The process of reflection too might be another good reason those in the micro-teaching group performed better. Reflective practice is an evolving/developmental process that might be difficult to fully achieve in one-short training like this experimental study. This is why Zwozdiak-Myers, (2011) asserts that, to engage effectively in this process requires the development of specific skills such as keen observation, logical reasoning, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. This might not be fully possible within the short period of this study.

Other researchers that have also identified micro-teaching and reflective teaching as part of practices that facilitate improvement in teachers' teaching behaviour/skills include, Eiseni (2001); Brown, (2006); Okunloye and Okeowo (2006); Boling, (2007); Arzu and Seyda(2009);Oguntade(2009); Deniz, (2010); Adedayo, (2014); Kareem, (2014).This significant main effect could also be as a result of the intensive feedback that accompanied the teaching of those in the experimental groups which helped them to gain more than their counterparts in control group. This is in line with the submission of Bartels (2006) that, to gain real expertise in teaching, the teacher must engage in "deliberate practice" which involves deliberately designing and participating in activities which help you to learn more

about a particular aspect of the activity. The treatment procedures helped them to deliberately consider their teaching in order to determine their strengths and weaknesses and were able to make necessary changes in their subsequent lessons. Through the processes of reflective teaching and micro-teaching, the pre-service teachers were able to plan, observe, analyse and evaluate their lessons on their own; they were thereby moved from the level of teaching that is based on impulse or the supervisor's suggestions/instructions to a level of taking decisions based on the merit of what they have found useful and necessary by themselves.

Another advantage that possibly would have helped those in the experimental groups is that, their meeting in groups to analyse their teaching was of a great assistance. This allowed them to generate and consider divers opinions that were subjected to analyses and taking decisions based on superior arguments and not just on what they were told to do without knowing why they are doing it. This is why Freeman and Johnson (2004) suggest that professional learning needs to rely less on the transmission of codified knowledge about language, language learning and language teaching and more on the experiences that teachers engage in as learners of second language and as learners of language teaching. Their engagement in group discussion would have helped them to solve a lot of classroom problems on their own. This would have given them the facility and opportunity to discover more than what they were taught to do by their lecturers. They were able to consider the problems they encountered in the classroom like teachers themselves and not just that they were told how to do that in theory. This corroborates the position of Johnson (1996) while comparing teaching with other professions that, law students must learn to reason like lawyers, medical interns must learn to diagnose like doctors, and novice teachers must learn to solve classroom problems like experienced teachers.

4.2.2: Main Effect of Treatment on Pre-service ESL Teachers' Attitude towards Teaching Practice.

Also, there was significant main effect of treatment on pre-service ESL teachers' attitude towards teaching practice. Those exposed to reflective teaching practice had the highest post-attitude mean score of 61.78, followed by those exposed to micro teaching with the mean score of 59.75 and those in the control group had a mean score of 47.15. This shows that those in the experimental groups were better in their post attitude mean scores than those in the control group. The reason for this might be due the fact that the treatments they were

exposed to gave them a sense of doing something new as opposed to what they were doing before. As observed by Ajibade (2005) the general education students (pre-service teachers) are characterised by 'non-concern'. According to her, these student teachers are yet to see what teaching entails and as such they are not bothered. They only move along within the system and develop lukewarm attitude towards teaching. Attitude, whether positive or negative, can affect performance and even efficiency since it is a matter of disposition. That they were exposed to something different during their teaching practice would have influenced their attitude in a way. Those exposed to treatment were able to see that teaching is real business and not just standing in front of some learners just to transmit information or knowledge but something you have to deliberately learn how to do gave them a change of orientation. The fact that they could see or feel that they were getting better in their teaching skills as they were exposed to treatment also gave them some level of confidence that they can be better teachers. This finding is in line with the opinion of Cochran-Smith and Zeichner (2005) that teacher-candidates' beliefs and skills are antecedents to dispositions/attitude. It therefore means that if pre-service teachers are helped to improve their teaching skills, they are likely to demonstrate more positive attitude towards teaching practice. The need to pay attention to teachers' attitude has been stressed by experts. Daniel (2006) opines that success in the teaching profession is derived from three main sources: knowledge in the subject matter, teaching competencies and positive attitude towards teaching. It is therefore essential to assist teachers to improve their attitude towards teaching in order to achieve more success. This is why Sharbian and Tan (2013) comment that people's attitude towards their professions has an effect on their performance (teaching inclusive). It is therefore necessary to put appropriate measures that could help modify teachers' attitude in place so that this will in the long run influence their teaching performance.

4.2.3 Main Effect of Pre-service ESL Teachers' Academic Ability on their Teaching Skills

The result from this study indicated that there was no significant main effect of the participants' academic ability on their teaching skills. Table 4.2 reveals that ESL pre-service teachers with high academic ability had teaching mean score of 91.30, while those with average academic ability had 87.00 and those with low academic ability had 88.29. The differences are not statistically significant even though, those with high academic ability had the highest mean score. This result agrees with the findings of some scholars that academic ability is weak at predicting teaching effectiveness (Ferguson and Womack 1993; Monk

1994). To this end, Everston, Hamky and Zlotnik (1985) comment from their review of research that subject matter knowledge/coursework which does not focus on the areas taught in schools is not central to what teachers will do and thus is not effective in increasing teaching effectiveness. The reason for this result might be that the treatment procedure was effective enough at helping participants of various academic levels. It is therefore essential for teacher educators to put in place effective training programmes that will help candidates of various academic groups learn effectively.

Also, this study corroborates the findings of previous studies that have looked at correlations between teachers' performance in coursework and the quality of their teaching that submitted that teaching knowledge is different from discipline knowledge (Veenman, 1984). They posit that only academic coursework which focused on those areas of subject matter central to what is taught in schools had significant impact on teaching and subsequent student achievement. Ferguson and Womack (1993) even found out that grades in education courses were much better predictors of teaching effectiveness than grades in subject matter courses. This therefore suggests that teacher education programmes should be refocused towards a more robust content that will facilitate better teaching effectiveness because teaching effectiveness is believed among experts to influence students' learning than most other factors in education. The problems of teachers not being able to transfer the knowledge they have acquired in the course of their coursework to actual classroom teaching has been observed. This according to Hatton and Smith (1996) is because of the transmission approach that has been used for teacher education over the years. They posit that the transmission approach only seeks to transfer knowledge from teacher educators to pre-service teachers rather than emphasising knowledge of teaching that is derived from the construction and reconstruction of professional experience. They advocate the use of the transformative approach which the experimental treatment of this study has offered the pre-service teachers.

4.2.4 Main Effect of Gender on pre-service ESL Teachers' Teaching Skills

This study revealed that there was no significant main effect of pre-service ESL teachers' gender on their teaching skills. The female pre-service ESL teachers had teaching skill mean score of 89.94 while their male counterparts had 86.79. Even though the female score seem to be a little higher, it is not statistically significant. This finding negates previous findings that reported that male and female teachers differ in the way they teach/their teaching practices (Thomas, Amy and Amands, 2007, Anderson, Greene, and Lowen, 1988; Evans and Trible, 1986; Anderson, 2011, Chudgar and Sankar, 2008). This negation might be as a result of the

fact that most of these previous studies were based on data collected on students' perception as against this present study which collected data from real classroom observation. The study also contradicts the opinion of Cruickshank, Jenkins and Metcal, (2003) that gender is one of the factors that influence how teachers teach. Meanwhile, the study agrees with some other studies that found no gender differences in the way teachers teach or their teaching behaviour/practices (Lee, Dedrick and Smith 1991; Kareem 2014; and Adedayo, 2014). This revelation might be premised on the fact that the content of teacher preparation has a powerful influence on their teaching behaviour rather their gender.

In addition, the kind of treatment that the participants in the experimental groups were exposed to could have made their gender of no effect. It then implies that if teachers are exposed to quality professional training, they will be able to teach well irrespective of whether they are males or females.

4.2.5 The Two and Three – way Interaction Effects of Treatment, Academic Ability and Gender on the Acquisition of Teaching Skills.

The data collected were subjected to further analysis and it was discovered that there was no significant interaction effect of treatment and academic ability of the pre-service teachers on their acquisition of teaching skills. This is to say that, irrespective of the academic level of the participants, their performance was not affected. This implies that treatment was strong enough to bring about the effects. This is why some scholars have suggested that a new pedagogical practice that opens possibilities in the learning process for all students is needed in our teacher preparation programmes (Rowsell, Kosaik and Beck, 2008; Snow, Griffin and Burns, 2005).

The study also revealed further that there was no significant interaction effect of treatment, academic ability and gender on their acquisition of teaching skills. This also implies that the differences among low, average and high academic ability participants in the three groups and between male and female participants in the three groups were not statistically significant. As discussed earlier, it implies that the treatment given was able to eliminate the effects of academic ability and gender on the acquisition of teaching skills among the participants.

4.2.6 The Two and Three -way Interaction Effects of Treatment, Academic Ability and Gender on the Attitude of ESL pre-service Teachers towards Teaching Practice.

It is evident from the findings of this study that the 2-way interaction effect of treatment and academic ability on the participants' attitude to teaching practice was not significant. So also, the 3-way interaction effect of treatment, academic ability and gender was not significant. The reason for this insignificance might be due to the fact that there was the consistency in the superiority of each of the three modes of learning in all cases.

CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Summary

The study sought to discover the effects of reflective teaching practice and micro-teaching practice on pre-service ESL teachers' teaching skills and attitude to teaching practice in selected Colleges of education. The need for the study was as a result of the high level of deficiencies reported in the teaching skill competencies of pre-service teachers as reported by their supervisors and also from comments of cooperating teachers in teaching practice schools. The moderating effects of the pre-service ESL teachers' academic ability and gender were as well investigated. Relevant literatures were reviewed even though there is dearth of empirical studies on the use of reflective and micro teaching practices. The few available ones revealed that both reflective and micro teaching practices have been found to be effective at improving teachers' competencies at both the pre-service and in-service levels of teacher education.

The study adopted a pre-test, post-test, control group quasi-experimental design. Six Colleges of Education were selected and one hundred and twenty participants were involved in the study. Five self-designed and validated instruments were used to collect data for the study. Data collected were analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics.

5.2 Conclusion

On the basis of the findings from this study, it is concluded that reflective teaching and micro teaching practices are effective at improving pre-service teachers' acquisition of teaching skills and their attitude to TP than the present conventional teaching practice assessment being carried out in the Colleges of Education. This further confirms previous studies that have affirmed the effectiveness of reflective and micro-teaching practices at improving teachers teaching skills and teaching behaviours generally (Kareem, 2014 and Adedayo, 2014).The study also revealed that micro-teaching was more effective than reflective teaching at improving teachers' teaching skills possibly because micro-teaching identifies and train on each of the skills at a time. The implication of this is that training on each of the teaching skills at a time as against considering a whole lesson holistically should be encouraged among teachers. Also, it can be concluded that pre-service teachers' academic ability and gender do not affect how they teach and their attitude to teaching practice as well. The

implication of this too is that proper programmes should be put in place by teacher educators in other to eliminate any form of bias on the basis of gender or academic ability.

5.3 Recommendations

The following are recommended based on the findings of this study:

1 National commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) and other teacher training institutions should find a way of introducing reflective teaching practice as a reform to the teaching practice content of the curriculum of teacher education in Nigeria as it is the practice in other parts of the world. This is because the inquiry-base approaches to teaching is being advocated in recent years so that teachers can take responsibilities for their own teaching.

2 The way micro teaching is being taught presently is more of a transmission mode; it should be taught in a transformative manner so as to enhance its potency. That is, it should not be taught as a separate course before teaching practice alone, it should be taught and applied during teaching practice.

3 Standard micro-teaching laboratories should also be established in training institutions as none of the Colleges visited was found to have any standard micro-teaching laboratory.

4 Since the use of micro-teaching and reflective teaching practices require the use of more resources by the trainee teachers and their supervisors, it is recommended that more incentives (especially financial incentives) should be provided by the school managements for them in order to enhance their ability to carry out these practices during teaching practice, since this will demand some extra cost from them.

5 It is also recommended that time allocated to teaching practice be increased from just a semester to a session as more time on practice will enhance better learning. This is in line with what is being proposed by National University Commission (NUC). It is even believed that this will enhance the process of professionalization of teaching in Nigeria as most other professions seem to have one year of internship. This had been practised by a particular College of Education in the country in the past (Ikere Ekiti TP Model).

The organization of teaching practice in training schools should be more coherent and there should be room for more uniformity. This has to do with the timing, the posting procedure, the supervision procedure and even the assessment procedure.

5.4 Implications of the Study

Findings from the study revealed that participants in the experimental groups exposed to reflective and micro teaching practices performed better than those in the control group of conventional teaching practice assessment in their acquisition of teaching skills. Even though those exposed to micro-teaching practice had the highest post-test teaching skill mean score followed by those exposed to reflective teaching practice while those in the control group had the least. This implies that there was significant main effect of treatment on the pre-service ESL teachers' teaching skill and attitude towards teaching practice. It was also discovered that the pre-service ESL teachers' academic ability and gender had no significant effect on the acquisition of teaching skills and attitude to teaching practice. This study has been able to discover the strength of reflective teaching practice (RTP) and micro -teaching practice (MTP) at improving the teaching skills of pre-service teachers and their attitude to teaching practice. This then implies that a new way of improving teachers' skills has been discovered; and this could help ameliorate the present problem of poor teaching skills among Nigerian teachers.

If RTP and MTP are implemented during teaching practice, the academic ability of pre-service teachers will not have any effect on their teaching skills. All academic ability levels will be able to do well during teaching practice.

The implementation of RTP and MTP will also help eliminate the gender bias often experienced in teaching. Both male and female teachers will do well if they are well trained for it.

Other contributions include the fact that the benefit that the participants derived from the study on the improvement of their teaching skills would assist them when they become teachers. This work has also contributed to the stock of literature available on the study area.

5.5 Limitations of the study

A lot of challenges were faced in the course of carrying out this study. One major challenge was the disruption to the research procedure caused by industrial action by the college lecturers during the course of the study. This affected the time frame for the study. Also, the difference in the academic calendar of the Colleges of Education that made them not to go for teaching practice at the same time was a major challenge to the study.

p5.6 Suggestions for Further Studies

Findings from this study revealed that both reflective teaching practice and micro-teaching practice are effective at improving the teaching skill acquisition of pre-service teachers irrespective of their academic ability and gender. It is therefore suggested that this kind of study can be carried out in other locations in and outside the country in order to further authenticate the findings of the study through further empirical findings. The study can also be replicated using other subject areas apart from English as second language that was used in this study. Other forms of reflective teaching approaches can also be used and there can be inclusion of other moderator variables like pre-service teachers' mode of entry and their teaching beliefs among others. There can as well be inclusion of additional generic skills. The study can also be replicated at the university level in order to lend support or otherwise to the findings of this study; so that it could be recommended for inclusion in all teacher education programmes in Nigeria.

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APPENDIX I

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN, IBADAN

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION

PRE-SERVICE ESL TEACHERS' ATTITUDE TOWARDS TEACHING PRACTICE QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

This questionnaire is designed to collect information (data) for the purpose of research only. You are therefore encouraged to respond objectively and critically as much as possible. Your responses will have no personal effect on you, but will rather help to strengthen the result of this study.

You are assured that your responses remain completely confidential. Feel free to ask questions about anything that is not clear to you about it.

Your cooperation is highly appreciated.

Thanks.

SECTION A

1. Respondent's Mat. No:_____
2. Sex: Male [ ] Female [ ]
3. Age: 15-20 [ ] 21-25 [ ] 26-30 [ ] 35 and above [ ]
4. Level of Study:_____
5. Mode of Entry into the College:
   UTME [ ] Pre-NCE [ ]
6. Teaching Practice School:_____
   _____

SECTION B

Put a tick (✓) to indicate your level of agreement with the following items of questions.

Key: SA = Strongly Agree
D = Agree
SD = Strongly Disagree
D = Disagree

S/N	***Items***	***SD***	***D***	***A***	**SA**
1.	I will prefer that teaching practice is not made part of teacher education programme.				
2.	I am in favour of setting standards for basic skills to be acquired during teaching practice.				
3.	I see teaching practice as unnecessary burden on students				
4.	I see teaching practice as what I should not commit my time and energy to doing.				
5.	My interest in teaching practice is just to get a good grade to boost my CGPA.				
6.	I see the coming around of supervisors as a threat during teaching practice.				
7.	My problem with teaching practice is that I do not like standing in class and teaching.				
8.	My problem with teaching is I do not know how to teach.				
9.	I wish that the period allotted to teaching practice be reduced from six weeks.				
10.	I wish the period allotted to teaching practice be increased from six weeks.				
11.	I will like to be allowed to choose my own school so that I can choose a convenient school for myself.				

S/N	*Items*	*SD*	*D*	*A*	*SA*
12.	I will like to be posted by the College authority so that I can receive all the necessary training I need as a pre-service teacher.				
13.	It is only the day that my supervisors will come that matters to me.				
14.	My only assignment during teaching practice is to teach and go my own way.				
15.	I do not need to spend much time preparing for my lessons during teaching practice.				
16.	I feel students need incentives (e.g. teaching practice allowance) for better commitment during teaching practice.				
17.	Student teachers should be made to write a report of their teaching practice experience for consideration by the College in order to improve the quality of the exercise.				
18.	It is not an offence to abscond during teaching practice.				
19.	Looking for and adopting (preparing) teaching aids during teaching practice is my greatest headache.				
20.	Teaching practice should not be taken as a compulsory course.				
21.	Teaching practice should be taken as an elective course.				
22.	Some challenges of teaching practice like distance of school from students' hostels should not be seen as obstacles to full participation of student teachers during teaching practice.				

S/N	*Items*	*SD*	*D*	*A*	*SA*
23.	Lesson preparation is a very difficult task during teaching practice.				
24.	Lesson delivery is a very difficult task during teaching practice.				
25.	The challenges of teaching practice can be overcome by better preparation of the pre-service teacher for the task ahead.				
26.	Lack of cooperation from the practicing school makes me dislike teaching practice.				
27.	Feeling nervous while standing in front of the class makes me hates teaching practice.				
28.	I do not like to be monitored by the monitoring school/cooperating teachers during teaching practice.				
29.	Lack of cooperation and support from the students during teaching makes me hate teaching practice.				
30.	There is nothing I enjoy in the whole exercise of teaching practice.				

APPENDIX II

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN, IBADAN

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION

PRE-SERVICE ESL TEACHERS' CLASSROOM OBSERVATION SCALE MANUAL

S/N	*Area of component skill to be rated*	*Extremely well skilled*	*Well skilled*	*Skilled*	*Not well Skilled*	*Totally unskilled*
A. Set Induction						
1.	Teacher captures students' attention					
2.	Teacher uses effective introduction to provide alternative work for the lesson					
3.	Teacher relates new information to what students have learnt previously					
4.	Teacher determines students' entry-level knowledge using relevant questions					
5.	Teacher piques students' interest or curiosity in a unique way					
B. Stimulus Variation						
6.	Teacher uses different instructional approaches/pattern					
7.	Teacher uses variety of non-verbal behaviour					
8.	Teacher uses different voice patterns and gestures					
9.	Teacher uses variety of reinforcement/praise for desirable performance					
10.	Teacher interacts with the students in a variety of ways					
C. Questioning						
11.	Teacher uses variety of appropriate questions					
12.	Teacher distributes questions well					
13.	Teacher gives questions clearly enough for					

	students' comprehension					
14.	Teacher uses adequate wait time after asking questions					
15.	Teacher gives appropriate feedback/follow-up on students' answers					
D. Instruction Presentation						
16.	Teacher presents instruction with clarity to ensure students' understanding					
17.	Teacher clearly explains important points					
18.	Teacher engages students in activities that help them master the various language skills					
19.	Teacher manages and achieve transitions through cueing and interactional negotiation					
20.	Teacher repeats important points for emphasis					
E. Closure						
21.	Teacher reviews what has been covered in the lesson using appropriate evaluation questions					
22.	Teacher summarises what has been covered in the lesson					
23.	Teacher relates the lesson to a forthcoming lesson					
24.	Teacher presents additional examples or explanation, and elaborates when students seem not to understand the lesson					
25.	Teacher praises students for what they have achieved in the course of the lesson					

APPENDIX III

Pre-Service ESL Teachers' Academic Ability Rating Sheet

S/N	*Students' Name*	*Matric. No.*	*Total Number of Units Registered (TNU)*	*Total Grade Point (TGP)*	*Total Number of Units Passed (TNUP)*	*Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA)*	*Rate*
1.							
2.							
3.							
4.							
5.							
6.							
7.							
8.							
9.							
10.							
11.							
12.							
13.							
14.							
15.							
16.							
17.							
18.							
19.							
20.							

Rating Key:

CGPA of 3.50—5.0 = High Academic Ability

2.40—3.49 = Medium Academic Ability

2.39—Below 1 = Low Academic Ability

APPENDIX IV

REFLECTIVE TEACHING INSTRUCTIONAL GUIDE

Introduction

Reflective teaching is essentially a teaching practice in which the teacher undertakes **deliberate** and sustained reflection and action for the purpose of improvement. It is a self-directed programme towards the improvement of one's own teaching. Reflective practitioners **rationally** and **purposefully** deliberate or reflect on their teaching. Reflective practice has been referred to as inquiry-oriented teaching (Wellington, 1991). This process of inquiry leads teachers to become 'students of teaching'. Reflection enables us to learn from experience (Wilson, Shulman & Richert, 1987). It is the ongoing process of critically examining and refining our teaching by considering the personal, educational, social and ethical aspects of teaching. Reflection enables teachers to describe and think about what they do, to anticipate and solve classroom problems and to experience continued professional and personal growth. Reflective practice in teaching connotes a tendency to revisit the sequence of one's teaching for the purpose of making thoughtful judgment and decisions about improved ways of acting in the future.

This kind of reflective practice is quite different from the ordinary everyday reflective practice that is neither intentional nor systematic. This kind of ordinary everyday reflection just happens at random, it may not go deeper than mere thinking, remembering or talking about things and it is not critical in approach. While critical reflection on the other hand, involves a willingness to engage in constant self-appraisal and development. Among other things, it implies flexibility, rigorous analysis and social awareness (Pollard, 1997).

According to Pollard (1997), the following are the characteristics of reflective practice:

1. Reflective teaching implies an active concern with aims and consequences, as well as means and technical efficiency.
2. Reflective teaching is applied in a cyclical or spiraling process, in which teachers monitor, evaluate and revise their own practice continuously.
3. Reflective teaching requires competence in methods of classroom enquiry, to support the development of teaching competence.
4. Reflective teaching requires attributes of open-mindedness, responsibility and wholeheartedness.
5. Reflective teaching is based on teacher judgment, which is informed partly by self-reflection and partly by insights from educational disciplines.

6. Reflective teaching, professional learning and personal fulfillment are enhanced through collaboration and dialogue with colleagues.

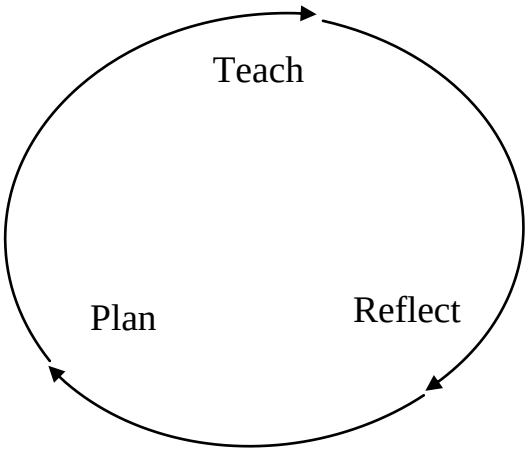
Levels of Reflection

In a sense, teachers reflect consistently as we teach, responding to ongoing situations in the classroom as they arise. This is called reflection-in-action. Reflection-in-action usually happens very fast, perhaps even intuitively. It can be transient and quickly forgotten.

It is only after a teaching event that there is time for in-depth reflection which is called reflection-on-action. When the process of reflection-on-action is rigorous, systematic and ongoing teachers are acting as reflective practitioners. Reflection-on-action constitutes the core of reflective practice. This kind of reflection is usually guided by certain questions such as the following:

- What am I doing?
- Why am I doing it?
- How effective is it?
- Was I able to achieve my goals?
- What teaching techniques did I use?
- Did I have any problem with the lesson?
- How successful were the different parts of the lesson?
- Was there any improvement on my previous performance?
- What was the main accomplishment of the lesson?
- Which part of the lesson was most successful?
- Which part of the lesson was the least successful?
- Am I improving on my teaching skills?
- Were my students able to learn appropriately during the lesson?
- If I were to teach the lesson again, what changes will I make?
- How am I developing as a language teacher?
- What is the source of my ideas as a language teacher?
- What are my strengths as a language teacher?
- What are my limitations at present?
- What satisfaction does language teaching give me?

Reflective teaching is a cyclical process, because once you start to implement changes, the reflective and evaluative circle begins again. This can be represented thus:



This cyclical process makes reflective teaching a continuous process that should not be restricted to the initial training period but continues throughout a teacher's career.

Approaches to Reflective Practice

There are many approaches that can be used to carry out reflective teaching among which are the following:

1. ***Keeping a teaching diary or journal:*** This is the easiest way to the process of reflection since it is purely personal. After each lesson, you write in a notebook about what happened during the lesson. You may also do this after watching a video recording of your lesson. There in the journal you may describe your own reactions and feelings. The reflective questions earlier discussed can be used to guide your entries. Here is an example of an English teacher's diary/journal:

> Today I gave my class a reacting activity which focused on skimming. I gave them an article to read called '*Study Paints Grim Picture*' and asked them to skim through the articles to identify the social problems mentioned. After a few minutes, I checked the answers and asked the students to number the paragraphs which contain information on each of the social problems. Then I checked the answers and explained some difficult vocabulary. Then I gave one handout which contained five paragraphs and another handout which contained five headlines. Students had to match them.
>
> ***Afterthoughts***
>
> Timing again was a problem. I originally planned to check the answers of the matching exercise, but there was no time.

Less time should have been spent on explaining expressions as it defeated the objective of my lesson—skimming.

I should have allocated a specific amount of time to practice skimming.

I should have opened the lesson with a discussion of social problems so that students could compare their answers with what they found in the article.

[*Adapted from* Richards & Lockhart, 1996]

This teacher's entry reveals how she has used her journal to—describe how she presented a teaching activity, identify some concerns she had about the lesson, and to remind her of alternative procedures to use in the future. It also reinforces the unique function of journal writing, i.e. it enables a teacher to examine teaching in a way that is unavailable through other means.

2. ***Peer observation:*** This occurs when colleagues undertake to observe each other or one another either directly in the classroom or a video-recorded lesson of each other or one another as the case might be and follow the observation with a constructive discussion about what was observed. In this case, the specific areas of the lesson or skills to be observed are usually pre-determined. It might be the opening of the lesson, the questioning technique or how the teacher achieved closure. However, care should be taken to make the discussion a constructive one and the teachers should demonstrate high level of open-mindedness.

   Usually, it is appropriate to develop a procedure for the observer to use. This will help the observer to be an observer during the lesson because an observer who is also a participant in the lesson cannot observe effectively. The following procedure could be adopted:

   a. Arrange a pre-observation orientation session before the observation and discuss some of the nature of the class to be observed.

   b. Identify the focus for the observation which in the case of this study are the teaching skills of set induction, stimulus variation, questioning, lesson presentation and closure.

   c. Develop procedures for the observer to use as this will help the observer to check appropriate category on a set of coded categories of classroom behaviour or teaching skills.

d. Carry out the observation using the already decided procedure.

e. Arrange a post-observation session as soon as possible after the lesson and discuss or evaluate the lesson together.

3. ***Audio or video recording of lessons:*** Though the earlier discussed approaches are relatively easy to carry out, a major disadvantage is that they obtain subjective impressions of teaching and they are mere recollections. The fullest account of a lesson is obtained from an actual recording of that lesson. An added advantage is that the recording can be replayed and examined many times and can capture many details of a lesson that cannot easily be observed by other means (Richard & Lockhart, 1996). Schratz (1992) comments that audio-visual recordings are powerful instruments in the development of a teacher's self-reflective competence. They confront him/her with a mirror-like 'objective' view of what goes on in the class. Even though this is a good means of evaluating classroom teaching, it cannot be done on a day-to-day basis because it requires a lot of time. Therefore, it must be used sparingly.

Characteristics of Reflective Practitioners

1. Reflective practitioners are deliberative in that they purposefully deliberate or reflect on teaching in order to make rational decisions about teaching and learning and assume responsibility for the results of those decisions in the classroom.
2. Reflective practitioners are open-minded. They are willing to question their own views and even that of others. Open-minded teachers view situations from multiple perspectives, search for alternatives explanations for classroom events and use evidence to support a decision or a position.
3. Reflective practitioners **take responsibility** for his/her teaching decisions. They consider and accept the consequence of their decisions and the changes they make in teaching style, in the classroom and even in the school culture.
4. Reflective practitioners are **sincere** as they closely investigate their teaching. They take reflection as a serious aspect of the teaching career and their reflection is focused on the goal of improving their effectiveness as teachers. Goodman (1984) points out that this sincerity enables you to work through any fears or insecurities you may have about questioning their teaching, their beliefs and the educational values they see in the school and the larger society.

5. Reflective practitioners demonstrate spirit of inquiry. They want to learn all they can about teaching from both theory and practice. They think deeply about their course work and about how it should impact their teaching. Finally, they continue to learn when they practice teaching and subsequently analyse their own teaching skills (Cruick-Shank, 1987).

Benefits of Reflective Teaching

Reflection may sound like a lot of work, but pre-service teachers like you have benefited from reflecting on teaching. The practice holds both immediate and long-term benefits for you as a teacher. Reflective practice can improve your classroom life, enable you to monitor yourself and stimulate your personal and professional growth. Among many of the benefits of reflective practice are:

1. It enhances your learning about teaching.
2. It increases your ability to analyse and understand classroom events.
3. It enhances your classroom-life as a teacher.
4. It enhances your self-monitoring ability.
5. It enhances your personal and professional transformation

APPENDIX V

MICRO-TEACHING INSTRUCTIONAL GUIDE

Introduction

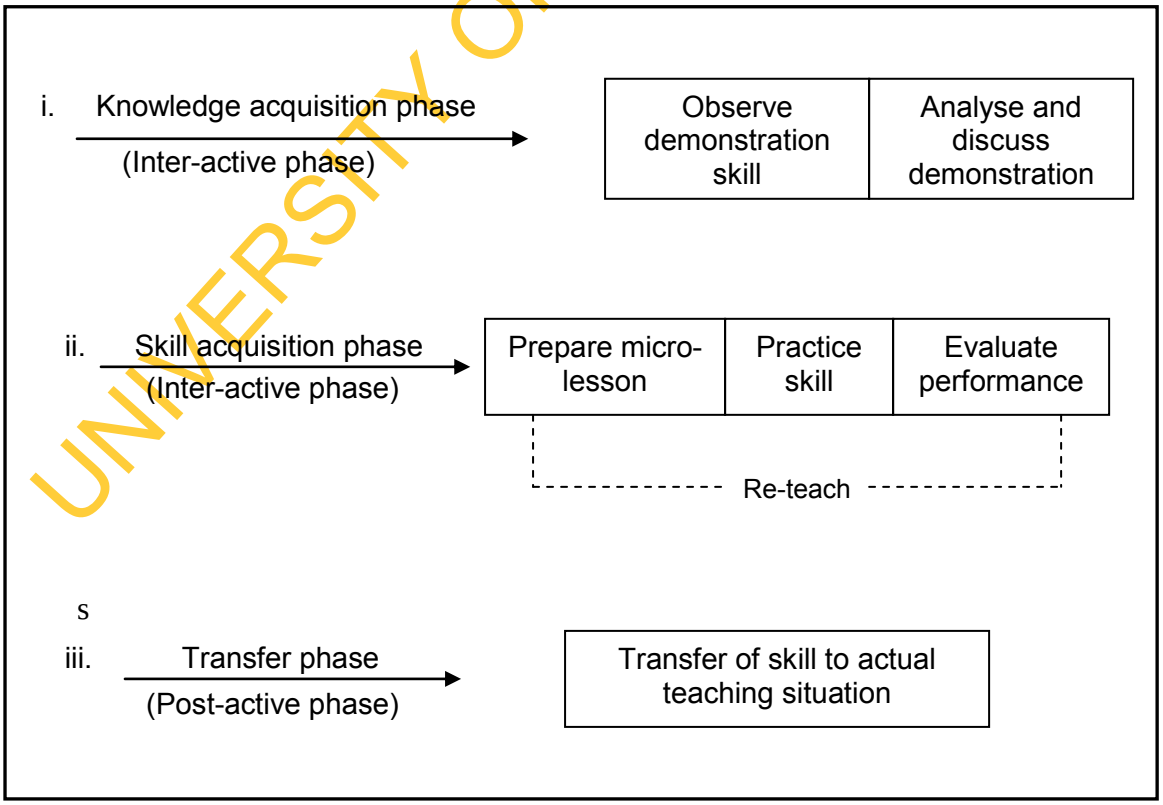
Micro-teaching is a scaled down teaching encounter to expose teacher trainees to learning a single and pre-determined teaching skill at a time under a controlled condition. It is scaled down in terms of class size, time and the teaching task. It is one of the most recent innovations in teacher education programme which aims at modifying teacher's behaviour according to the specified objectives. According to Aggarwal (2007), it is a training programme aimed at simplifying the complexities of the regular teaching process. To him, it is a process of subjecting samples of teaching behaviour to $5R^s$ of video tape-'recording', 'reviewing', 'responding', 'refining' and 'redoing'.

Phases of Micro-Teaching

There are three phases of micro-teaching according to Aggarwal (2007) which are:

i. Knowledge acquisition phase
ii. Skill acquisition phase, *and*
iii. Transfer phase

These phases are represented diagrammatically thus:



Adopted from Aggarwal(2007)

The following steps are involved in the three phases of micro-teaching:

1. Orientation of student teachers: This involves providing necessary information and theoretical knowledge about micro-teaching on the following aspects:
   i. concept of micro-teaching.
   ii. the significance of using micro-teaching.
   iii. procedures of micro-teaching.
   iv. requirements for the adoption of micro-teaching.
2. Discussion of teaching skills: This involves the discussion of the component teaching skills and the behaviour comprising the various teaching skills.
3. Selection of a particular skill: Each skill needs to be practiced at a time.
4. Presentation of a model demonstration lesson: Demonstration lesson by the teacher educator before the student teachers on a particular skill is given. This is also called modelling and it could be in any of the following ways:
   i. by exhibiting a pre-recorded teaching on a video-tape.
   ii. by providing written materials such as handbooks, guides, etc.
   iii. by making trainees listen to a pre-recorded audio tape.
   iv. by arranging a demonstration from a live-model, i.e. an expert.
5. Observation of the model lesson: This is scheduled for the observation of the specific skill.
6. Criticism of the model lesson: This is done by the student teachers under the guidance of the teacher educator.
7. Preparation of the micro-lesson plan: This is usually done based on given samples.
8. Creation of a micro-teaching setting: This includes deciding the number of each (5—10 members) group, time duration for the micro-teaching lesson (5—10 minutes) and time duration for the micro-teaching circle (36—40 minutes).
9. Practice of the skill: This is where the actual teaching/practice of the skill by the student teacher takes place. This is done under the supervision of the teacher educator and the lessons may sometimes be video-recorded.
10. Providing feedback: The peers who serve as students in the micro-teaching class and the teacher educator gives the feedback in form of critical evaluation.
11. Re-planning: here, the student teacher is allowed to re-plan the micro-lesson.
12. Re-teaching: The student teacher re-teaches his/her micro-lesson.
13. Providing re-feedback: The student teacher is provided with re-feedback to see whether there has been any improvement.

14. Integration of teaching skill: The student teacher goes to a real classroom session (teaching practice) to demonstrate the integration of all the skills mastered in a normal classroom setting.

Steps of Micro-teaching

The Micro-teaching programme involves the following steps:

Step I Particular skill to be practised is explained to the teacher trainees in terms of the purpose and components of the skill with suitable examples.

Step II The teacher trainer gives the demonstration of the skill in Micro-teaching in simulated conditions to the teacher trainees.

Step III The teacher trainee plans a short lesson plan on the basis of the demonstrated skill for his/her practice.

Step IV The teacher trainee teaches the lesson to a small group of pupils. His lesson is supervised by the supervisor and peers.

Step V On the basis of the observation of a lesson, the supervisor gives feedback to the teacher trainee. The supervisor reinforces the instances of effective use of the skill and draws attention of the teacher trainee to the points where he could not do well.

Step VI In the light of the feed-back given by the supervisor, the teacher trainee re-plans the lesson plan in order to use the skill in more effective manner in the second trial.

Step VII The revised lesson is taught to another comparable group of pupils.

Step VIII The supervisor observes the re-teach lesson and gives re-feed back to the teacher trainee with convincing arguments and reasons.

Step IX The 'teach – re-teach' cycle may be repeated several times till adequate mastery level is achieved.

The skills that have been identified to be considered in this study are discussed as follows for the purpose of clear understanding of their components.

1. Set Induction

This is a skill that is used at the beginning of an instructional segment and generally it is intended to do one or more of the following:

i. capture students' attention or provide them with a framework for the lesson.

ii. Help students relate new material or information to what they have previously learned.

iii. Determine students' entry-level knowledge prior to introducing new content.

- When the purpose is to engage students' attention in a new instructional activity, we are establishing **orientation set**.
- When the intention is to help students understand how the new information relates to what they learned previously, we are using **transition set.**
- When the intention is to establish what students already know about a topic, we are using **evaluative set**.

It is believed that establishing set seems to help students learn more by focusing their attention, improving their ability to self monitor their understanding and increasing the likelihood that new information is linked to existing knowledge of schema (Eby, 2001). To be effective therefore, information or activities used to establish set must be:

i. at a higher level of abstraction or broader in scope than the content to be learned.

ii. related directly to students' prior knowledge.

Thus, the early minutes of a lesson may be used to promote several goals and are critical to establishing a tone and instructional pattern that allows students to learn.

In establishing set therefore, a teacher can do the following:

i. review previous material.

ii. ask curiosity-provoking question(s) or pique students' interest by using a unique problem or scenario.

iii. provide an overview of the major points or topics of the lesson.

iv. demonstrate the concept or idea of the lesson.

v. provide a visual schema that depicts the relationship of various aspects or concepts of the lesson.

vi. provide a problem (orally, visually or by some other means) to engage students in processing the concept to be learned.

vii. Convey interest, enthusiasm, and curiosity about the topic.

viii. inform students of the objectives or goals of the lesson, and point out its relevance to their lives.

2. Stimulus Variation

This is the ability of the teacher to use variety in virtually every aspect of the lesson. Some of the teachers' behaviour that indicates variety includes:

i. Teacher movement (non-verbal behaviour)

ii. Teacher gestures

iii. Changes in speech pattern

iv. Changes in sensory focus

v. Changes in postures

vi. Changes in types of assessment

vii. Changes in classroom organisation, etc.

We all might have experienced teachers who taught every lesson for the entire year in the same way, with the same activities arranged in the same order, using the same, monotonous voice patterns and few gestures. This lack of variety in instructional patterns can negatively affect learning especially in a language class.

Rosenshine & Furst in Cruickshank et al (2003) identify variety as the second strongest predictor of teachers' effectiveness. Even though, variety does not directly improve learning. Teachers who use variety do not only prevent students from becoming bored, but also keep them interested and actively involved in the lesson.

Imagine a teacher who responds to every students answer or contribution with 'Exactly!'. The first few times, this response seems enthusiastic and encouraging. However, eventually, even if every student's answer is correct, the word 'Exactly!' is no longer effective and may become annoying. It has been found in literature that variation can be grouped into two:

i. Variation in instructional activities and materials: This has to do with the use of variety of instructional alternatives (teaching methods) like cooperative learning, discussion, seat work, direct instruction, debate, quiz, etc. Ideally, every lesson should allow students to experience the content through several senses.

ii. Interacting with students: This deals with the way teachers interact with students which include how teachers praise students, smile at students, maintain eye contact, laugh with students, move closer to students and his/her gestures can be reinforcing and convey support and interest.

3. Questioning Skill

An integral component of a classroom characterized by good interaction pattern is questioning. Questioning is the instructional process that is central to verbal interaction in the classroom and the questions teachers ask serve as the interface between teacher expectations and students responses (Bellon, Bellon and Blank, 1992). Effective questions require students to actively process information and compose an answer. Good questions increase students' engagement, raise the level of thought, help students organize their thoughts, guide students more successfully through an academic task and allow the teacher to monitor understanding and provide feedback. Educational research has shown that effective questioning directly and indirectly influences the amount, level and type of learning (Cruickshank *et al*, 2003). Good and Brophy (2000) reviewed research on questioning and concluded that students learn more when teachers ask frequent questions and include a variety of questions in their lessons.

How to ask questions

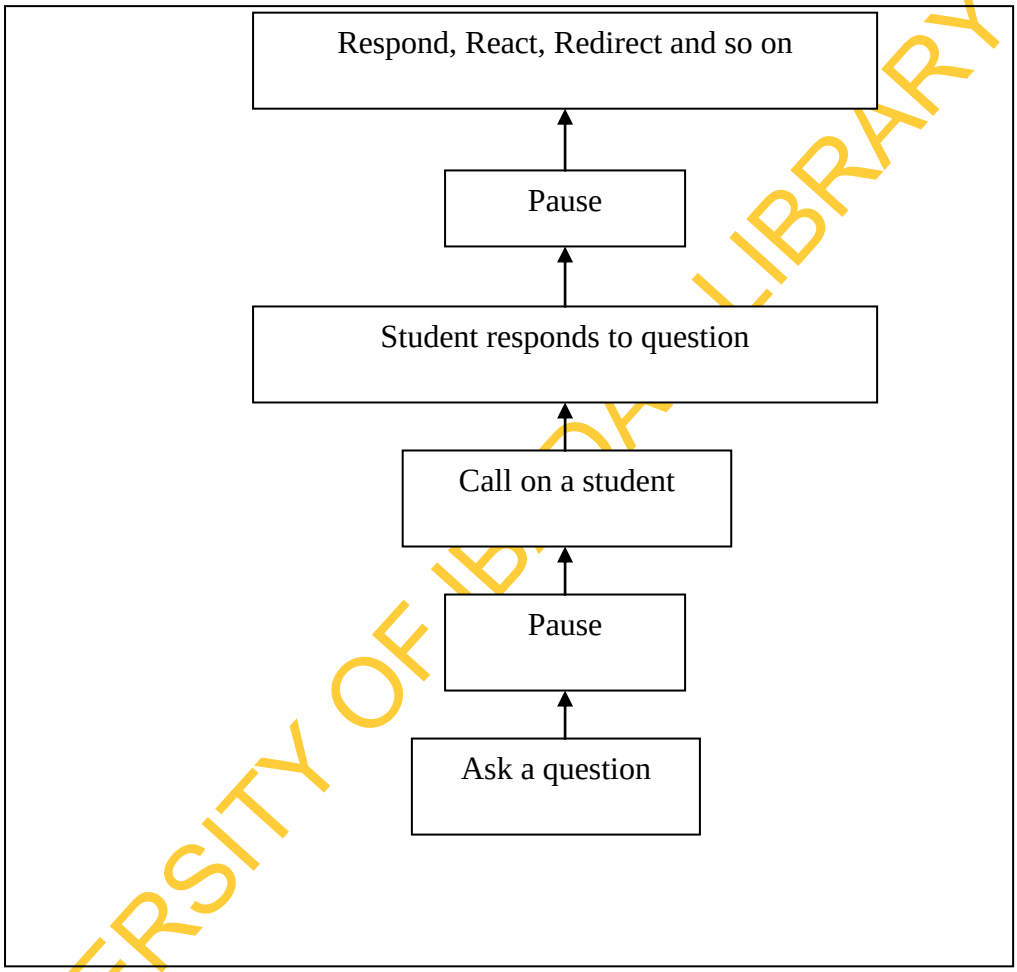
In asking questions, teachers must be clear and concise. Too often, teachers ask questions that are almost impossible for students to answer accurately. They fail to make clear how they want students to answer. Clear questions use natural and unambiguous language appropriate to the level of the students. They are also concise to include only the words, terms, and information students need in order to answer the questions.

Teachers should avoid rhetorical questions or questions that have only one answer. Teachers should ask questions that require students to *process* or think about what they are learning and to *compose* an answer. Rhetorical questions are questions asked for effect rather than to generate responses. Such questions can, over time, inhibit students' responses because students become unsure whether they are just rhetorical or are meant to be answered. Teachers should ask only one question at a time and avoid including the answer within the question.

One more issue that teachers should give attention to is the *sequence* of their questions. When teachers ask questions, they expect students to respond to such questions; certain things are therefore important to make the questions asked and the responses

sequential. Such things include: wait time (pause), asking question before calling on students to answer, etc. Sequence of teachers' question can be represented diagrammatically as follows:

Fig. 1: Sequence of Teachers Questions



From the figure above, it is seen that the right sequence is to ask question(s) generally during a lesson, pause (wait for between 3 and 5 seconds), and call on a particular student to answer and after the answer you pause again before responding or reacting to the student's response. Teachers are fond of calling on particular students before asking their questions. The danger in this is that, the moment you call on a particular student before you ask your question, all the other students will relax, and they will not process the question to give an answer/response. This in the long run affects their level of participation in the lesson. The importance of pause (wait time) are found to be in the following:

- Students' responses are longer and more thorough.
- The cognitive level of students' responses is higher.

- Students volunteer more (especially the introverts).
- Students' confidence in their responses is greater.

Mastering the effective use of wait time will increase students' participation in your questioning. Effective questioning requires that you call on all students, especially non volunteers.

After a student might have responded to your question, you must respond or react to the reply. Your response behaviour will either encourage or discourage thoughtful and successful participation in your lesson. You should avoid routine and meaningless responses. Rosenshine and Stevens (1994) suggest the following responses and reactions:

- When students respond correctly and confidently, accept and acknowledge the response and move on. Do not over praise.
- When a student responds correctly but hesitantly, provide feedback (response) to the student or use additional questions that encourage the student to determine why the response is correct. Before moving on, make sure the student understands why the answer was correct.
- When a student responds confidently but incorrectly, the teacher should reinforce the initial effort, and then use additional questions to help the student arrive at the correct answer. Avoid giving the student the answer or calling on another to respond.
- When a student responds incorrectly and carelessly, provides the correct response and move on. You should never avoid correcting an incorrect answer.

Type of Questions

There are many different ways writers and researchers classify questions. For the purpose of this guide the following categories are considered.

Procedural questions: These have to do with classroom procedures and routines, and classroom management, as opposed to the content of learning, e.g.

"Do you all bring your homework?"

"Is what you are to do clear to everybody?"

"Can you all see what is written on the chalkboard?"

These kinds of questions have a different function from questions designed to help students master the content of a lesson.

Convergent questions: These are questions that encourage similar student responses, which are focused on a central theme. These responses are often short answer such as 'yes' or 'no' or short statement. Such questions don't require students to engage in higher-level thinking.

Language teachers often use these kinds of questions to develop aural skill and vocabulary and to encourage whole class participation. The following questions were used by a language teacher to introduce a reading lesson that is focused on the effects of computers on everyday life:

"Do you all have personal computer at home?"

"Do you use it everyday?"

"What do you mainly use it for?"

"What other machines do you have at home?"

Divergent questions: Those questions are the opposite of convergent questions. Such questions encourage diverse student responses which are not short answers but encourage students to engage in higher-level thinking. Students are required to provide their own information rather than to recall previously presented information. The following are examples of divergent questions:

"What are the economic impacts of computer on the society?"

"What are the negative impacts of computer on the society?"

"What are the best ways of providing the use of computer in schools?"

Levels of Classroom Questions

Questions are broadly divided into three levels as:

4. lower order questions
5. middle order questions and
6. higher order questions

Higher order questions are such that require students to merely recognize/identify objects, words, etc. and recall facts, definitions, lairs, etc. Such questions do not require much of deep thought from the students and that is why answers to such questions are mostly spontaneous. Middle order questions require students to translate an idea into another form, compare or identify similarities and dissimilarities between two things, explain relationships and do some level of application. Such questions require students to think before giving responses. Higher order questions require students to analyze, synthesize etc. These kinds of questions require the cognitive skills of analysis, synthesis or evaluation and thus, require more complex and original thinking.

On a general note, questioning can help the teacher monitor understanding, keep students' engaged and serve as a measure of the success of instruction, but it is important that

teachers ask all students to respond to questions (Cruickshank et al, 2003). This might be difficult but, it is important in a class of students with diverse ability.

4. Instruction Presentation

This is often taken to be a complex teaching skill that may contribute more to teacher effectiveness than any other teaching skill. This skill has been the focus of much research since Rosenshine and Furst (1971) identify it as the "most promising teacher variable related to student achievement". Instruction presentation (Clarity of instruction) refers to the teacher's ability to provide instruction that helps students come to a clear understanding of the learning materials. Thus, clarity is something students achieve and not something the teacher does. However, research has identified specific teacher behaviours that students say help them achieve this clarity of understanding (Hines, 1981; Kennedy and Cruickshank, 1985).

According to students, clear teachers emphasise important points by repeating them, writing them on the board, pausing after stating them and reviewing them. They also monitor students' clarity of understanding by asking questions and providing students with activities and experiences that allow them to apply their knowledge. When students do not understand, clear teachers repeat, review or rephrase important points. These specific behaviours involve:

5. preparing and entering the lesson;
6. introducing and emphasizing content;
7. elaborating on important ideas or concepts; and
8. monitoring students' understanding and remediating when students fail to understand.

*Preparing and Entering the Lesson*_ Clear instruction is logically organized and is conduced in a very that helps students see the relationships between major concepts or ideas. Accordingly, clear teachers organize their lesson content and activities logically, inform students of the objectives of the lesson and introduce the content or activities step by step. During planning, the teacher determines the most logical way to introduce content based upon his/her students' abilities, previous learning and the natural structure of the content.

*Introducing and Emphasizing Important Points*_ Clear instruction focuses students' attention on important aspects of the instruction. A common way to do this is to write the major points on the board and/or have students record them. This is why it is expected that at the end of the lesson, the major points of the lesson should be on the chalkboard. Another way to

reinforce/emphasize important aspects of the lesson is to point them out through verbal structuring or cuing. For example, "the first point we will discourse is …"; "second …" and "finally …" The teacher can also alert students to pay close attention to important points, e.g. "it is important for you to note this". "Listen carefully because this is an important point". To do this effectively, a teacher might note an important point, state it, write it on the board and then repeat it.

*Elaborating on Important Ideas or Concepts*_ In addition to a teacher introducing and emphasizing major points for students, he/she can deepen their understanding of the content by providing examples, explanations, and elaborations. Clear instructions help students see how things are similar or different. A teacher can describe, demonstrate, explain or show students how two ideas, concepts, examples or ways of doing things are alike and how they differ. When the lesson involves learning a task or a skill, it is important that you demonstrate the task and while doing so, explain what you are doing and why, clear teachers also explain unfamiliar words. It is good to always explain or define terms before using them in the lesson. Finally, students' understanding is enhanced when you briefly pause after introducing something important to allow students think about it. Just as wait time (pause), allow students to think about a question during questioning, all those combine will make a good presentation of a lesson.

Ensuring Students' Understanding _ This deals with how the teacher monitors and corrects students' understanding by providing students with opportunity to early the concept or ideas. Critical to this, is the teacher's ability to use frequent questions at a variety of levels. In addition to asking questions that assess students' understanding, the teacher should build time for student generated questions during the lesson. A teacher could do this by giving a pause to allow students initiate questions or call for students' questions directly. This has to be guided so as not to allow irrelevant questions waste time during the lesson. In addition to allowing time for questions, teacher should also include activities that make/ask students to demonstrate examples, and then the teacher closely monitors their performance and provides corrective feedback when necessary. This is referred to as providing guided practice.

In summary, instructional clarity refers to a broad and important set of teacher behaviours and the major focus of clarity is on helping students understand what the teacher is teaching. Remember, clarity is something the student and not the teacher achieve.

However, learning to use behaviours that make instruction clearer to students can greatly improve the effectiveness of your teaching.

5. Closure

Closure of a lesson refers to those concluding parts of a lesson which serve to:

(iv) reinforce what has been learned in a lesson;

(v) integrate and review the content of a lesson; and

(vi) Prepare the students for further learning.

All lessons need a good finish and good finish takes the form of a review that gets students to summarize what they have learned and connect it to prior or future learning. Several strategies are available to create an effective lesson closure. Those strategies not only help facilitate learning but also after the lesson to be seen as an integrated whole. Certain strategies which teachers can use to achieve closure include the following:

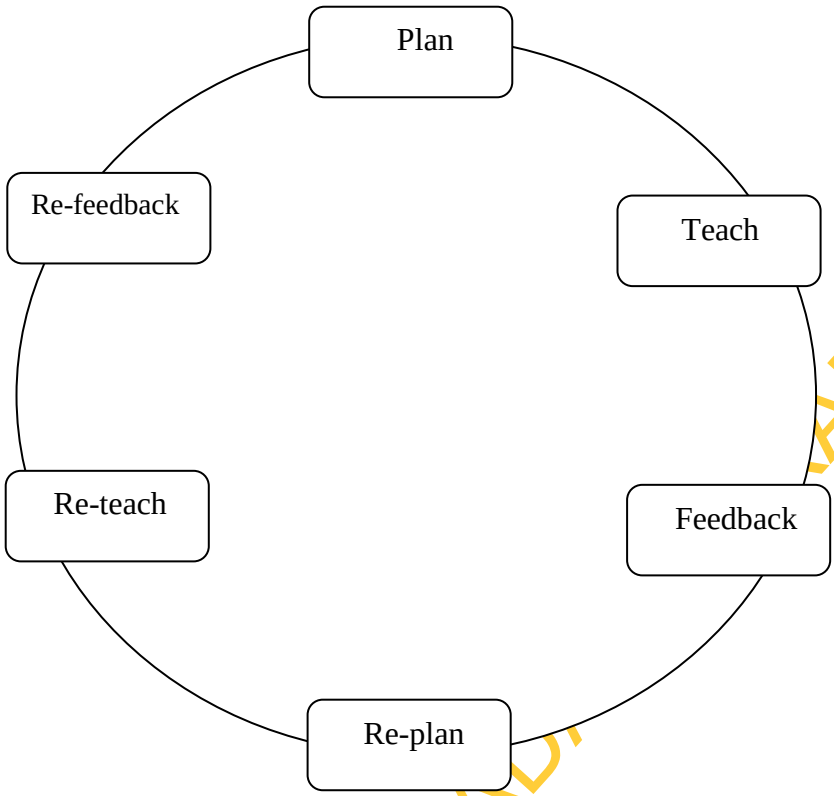
- Summarizing what has been covered in the lesson.
- Reviewing key points of the lesson.
- Relating the lesson to the course or lesson goals.
- Pointing out links between the lesson and previous lessons.
- Showing how the lesson relates to students' real-world needs.
- Making links to a forthcoming lesson.
- Praising students for what they have accomplished during the lesson.

The kind of strategy to use will depend largely on the type of lesson as well as the level of the class. Typically, the closure of a lesson serves to reinforce what has been presented with a review of key points covered in the teaching. This may include questioning by the teacher to determine how much the students have understood. Often, the closure will include a transition to the next lesson in which the students will be assigned a problem to think about or a task that will help provide an entry to the next lesson.

Micro-teaching Cycle

The six steps generally involved in micro-teaching cycle are:

Plan → Teach → Feedback → Re-plan → Re-teach → Re-feedback. There can be variations as per requirement of the objective of practice session. These steps are diagrammatically represented in the following figure:



Diagrammatic representation of a Micro-teaching Cycle

The components of the above circle can be explained thus:

Plan: This involves the selection of the topic and related content of such a nature in which the use of components of the skill under practice may be made easily and conveniently. The topic is analysed into different activities of the teacher and the pupils. The activities are planned in such a logical sequence where maximum application of the components of a skill is possible.

Teach: This involves the attempts of the teacher trainee to use the components of the skill in suitable situations coming up in the process of teaching-learning as per his planning of activities. If the situation is different and not as visualised in the planning of the activities, the teacher should modify his behaviour as per the demand of the situation in the class. He should have the courage and confidence to handle the situation arising in the class effectively.

Feedback: This term refers to giving information to the teacher trainee about his performance. The information includes the points of strength as well as

weakness relating to his/her performance. This helps the teacher trainee to improve upon his/her performance in the desired direction.

Re-plan: The teacher trainee re-plans his lesson incorporating the points of strength and removing the points not skillfully handled during teaching in the previous attempt either on the same topic or on another topic suiting to the teacher trainee for improvement.

Re-teach: This involves teaching to the same group of pupils if the topic is changed or to a different group of pupils if the topic is the same. This is done to remove boredom or monotony of the pupil. The teacher trainee teaches the class with renewed courage and confidence to perform better than the previous attempt.

Re-feedback: This is the most important component of Micro-teaching for behaviour modification of teacher trainee in the desired direction in each and every skill practice.

Rationale of Micro-teaching Procedure

The steps of the Micro-teaching procedure are based on the sequence involved in behaviour modification formulated by McDonald. The steps are:

Step I: This involves stating the behaviour in operational terms.

Step II: This refers to fixing of the criteria for measuring behaviours.

Step III: In this step the entry behaviour of the individual is measured to know the point of initial start.

Step IV: This involves the actual treatment of behaviour modification.

Step V: The post-treatment measures of changed behaviour are obtained. The difference between the measures of pre and post treatments indicates the extent of behaviour modification. The cycle is repeated till desired level of behaviour is obtained.

APPENDIX VI

Procedure for Training Research Assistants/Facilitators

The lecturers to be selected as research assistants/facilitators were not less than the rank of Lecturer II who have be going to assess students on teaching practice and at least two lecturers were selected in each college.

Stage I: Consultation with the H.O.D of relevant department for permission to engage the research assistants/facilitators for the study. The objective of the study were discussed with the H.O.D and he/she was required to suggest the names of lecturers that could be used (Request was particularly made to engage lecturers in language education but when there were not enough, others in curriculum were used).

Stage II: Consultation with the lecturers themselves to give them information about the exercise and their level of involvement. This led to seeking their consent and willingness to participate in the exercise. A meeting date, time and venue were fixed for the training proper.

Stage III: At the meeting (after the presence of every invited lecturer), the objective of the study was explained and their level of involvement were highlighted. The instruments were handed over to the facilitators accordingly. Five instruments were made available at the centres for the two experimental groups while four were made available at the control group centres. For experimental group one, PETATTPQ, PETCOSM, PETAARS, PETIG and SRUPETCOSM were made available for training. While PETATPQ, PETCOSM, PETAARS, MIG and SRUPETCOSM were made available for experimental group two training. PETATPQ, PETCOSM, PETAARS, and SRUPETCOSM were made available at the centres for control group.

Stage IV: Each of these instruments was discussed in detail in an interactive manner so that the trainees could make contributions and ask questions. After the whole discussion, they were allowed to take the instrument home for further study

APPENDIX VII

Scoring Rubric for Pre-service ESL Teachers' Classroom Observation Scale Manual (SRUPETCOSM)

A. **Set Induction**

(1.) Teacher captures students' attention.

- Teacher greets students in an appropriate manner with alertness to get students' attention. 4
- Teacher greets students in an appropriate manner without being alert or getting students' attention. 3
- Teacher greets students casually. 2
- Teacher does not respond to students' greetings. 1
- No form of greetings is entertained at all. 0

(2) Teacher uses effective introduction to provide alternative work for the lesson.

- Teacher mentions the specific topic and explains its general purpose. 4
- Teacher mentions the specific topic only. 2
- Teacher only explains topic without mentioning its specific purpose. 3
- Teacher cannot explain topic well. 1
- Teacher does not mention or explain topic at all. 0

(3) Teacher relates new information to what students have learnt previously.

- Teacher reviews students' previous knowledge and relates it to the new topic. 4
- Teacher reviews students' previous knowledge without relating it to the new topic. 3
- Teacher could not review students' previous knowledge well. 2
- Teacher could neither review students' previous knowledge well nor relate it well to the new topic. 1
- Teacher did not refer to students' previous knowledge at all. 0

(4) Teacher determines students' entry level knowledge using relevant questions.

- Teacher asks relevant and enough questions to determine students' entry level. 4
- Teacher asks relevant but not enough questions to determine students' entry level. 3
- Teacher asks not too relevant but enough questions to determine students' entry level. 2
- Teacher asks not too relevant and not enough questions to determine students' entry level. 1
- Teacher does not ask questions to determine students' entry level at all. 0

(5) Teacher piques students' interest or curiosity in a unique way.

- Teacher is highly enthusiastic, humorous, dynamic and audible enough to arouse students' interest and curiosity. 4
- Teacher is a little enthusiastic, humorous, dynamic and audible to arouse students' interest and curiosity. 3
- Teacher only bothers a little about arousing students' interest and curiosity 2
- Teacher struggles to arouse students' interest and curiosity. 1
- Teacher does not bother about arousing students' interest and curiosity at all. 0

B **Stimulus Variation**

(6) Teacher uses different instructional approaches/patterns.

- Teacher uses a variety of relevant activities (quite enough) to enhance his/her teaching. 4
- Teacher uses few relevant activities (not quite enough) to enhance his/her teaching. 3
- Teacher uses relevant but monotonous activity to enhance his/her teaching. 2
- Teacher uses not quite relevant activities to enhance his/her teaching. 1
- Teacher is just too monotonous in his/her approaches. 0

(7) Teacher uses variety of non-verbal behaviour.

- Teacher maintains very good eye contact with the students in order to notice each of them and get them to be at alert. 4
- Teacher maintains good eye contact with the students to notice each of them. 3
- Teacher maintains partial eye contact with the students. 2
- Teacher maintains very little eye contact with the students. 1
- Teacher does not make any eye contact with the students. 0

(8) Teacher uses different voice patterns and gestures.

- Teacher uses appropriate voice patterns and different gestures to enhance students' understanding. 4
- Teacher uses appropriate voice patterns only or gestures only to enhance students' understanding. 3
- Teacher uses a bit of appropriate voice patterns only or a bit of gestures only to enhance students understanding. 2
- Teacher uses only one voice pattern or only one form of gesture. 1
- Teacher neither uses any form of voice pattern nor gesture. 0

(9) Teacher uses variety of reinforcement or praise for desirable performance.

- Teacher uses different forms (more than two) of reinforcement or praise appropriate for students' desirable performance. 4
- Teacher uses one or two appropriate forms of reinforcement for students' desirable performance. 3
- Teacher uses only one or two that are not too appropriate form of reinforcement for students' desirable performance. 2
- Teacher uses only one and not too appropriate form of reinforcement for students' desirable performance. 1
- Teacher does not use any form of reinforcement at all for students' desirable performance. 0

(10) Teacher interacts with students in a variety of ways.

- Teacher moves round the class to maintain intimate contact with the students taking different positions / postures. 4
- Teacher moves round the class to maintain contact with the students taking different positions. 3
- Teacher moves around specified position within the classroom to maintain contact with students. 2
- Teacher stays in a particular position to maintain interaction with students 1
- Teacher does not maintain any interaction with students. 0

(C) **Questioning**

(11) Teacher uses variety of appropriate questions.

- Teacher asks variety of lower order, middle order and higher older questions. 4
- Teacher asks few lower order, middle order and higher order questions 3
- Teacher asks one lower order, middle order and higher order question. 2
- Teacher asks just one form of question alone. 1
- Teacher does not ask question at all. 0

(12) Teacher distributes questions well

- Teacher distributes questions well among volunteers and non-volunteers. 4
- Teacher distributes question well among volunteers alone. 3
- Teacher distributes questions among non-volunteers only. 2
- Teacher asks questions from only one student. 1
- Teacher answers question by himself or herself. 0

(13) Teacher gives questions clearly enough for students' comprehension.

- Teacher's questions are clearly worded and void of ambiguity for clear understanding on the part of the students. 4
- Teacher's questions are not too clearly worded and void of ambiguity for clear understanding on the part of the students. 3
- Teacher's questions are not too clearly worded and portend a little ambiguity that makes it not too clear for understanding on the part of the students. 2
- Teacher's questions are clearly worded but ambiguous to the students. 1
- Teacher's questions are not clearly worded and are also ambiguous. 0

(14) Teacher uses adequate wait time after asking questions

- Teacher uses enough wait time after asking question and before responding to students' answers. 4
- Teacher uses enough wait time after asking question only. 3
- Teacher uses enough wait time before responding to students' answers only. 2.
- Teacher does not use enough wait time after asking questions and before responding to students' answers. 1
- Teacher does not use wait time at all. 0

(15) Teacher gives appropriate feedback/follow up on students' answers.

- Teacher acknowledges students' responses/answers (both correct and incorrect answers) appropriately and in very dynamic ways. 4
- Teacher acknowledges students' responses/answer (both correct and incorrect answer) appropriately but not in very dynamic ways. 3
- Teacher only acknowledges students' correct responses or wrong responses appropriately. 2
- Teacher acknowledges students' responses but not in appropriate ways. 1
- Teacher does not acknowledge students' responses at all. 0

(D) **Instruction Presentation**

(16) Teacher presents instruction with clarity to ensure students' understanding.

- Teacher explains important points by repeating them, writing them on the board, pausing after stating them and receiving them to monitor students' clarity of understanding in a systematic way. 4
- Teacher explains important points by repeating them, writing them on the board, pausing after stating them and reviewing them but not in a systematic way. 3

- Teacher only explains important points by repeating them without writing them on the chalkboard. 2
- Teacher cannot explain important points clearly. 1
- Teacher cannot explain important points at all. 0

(17) Teacher explains important points

- Teacher clearly explains important points systematically very often. 4
- Teacher clearly explains important points systematically quite often. 3
- Teacher clearly explains important points systematically often. 2
- Teacher clearly explains important points systematically rarely. 1
- Teacher cannot clearly explain important points systematically at all. 0

(18) Teacher engages students in activities that help them master the various language skills.

- Teacher gives students enough activities that help them learn the language skills in an integrative manner. 4
- Teacher gives students few activities that help them learn the language skills in an integrative manner. 3
- Teacher gives students activities that help students learn 2 or 3 language skills. 2
- Teacher gives students activities that help them learn only one language skill 1
- Teacher does not give any activity that help students learn any language skill. 0

(19) Teacher manages and achieve transitions through cueing and interactional negotiation.

- Teacher achieves transition by using appropriate signal words to mark the beginning of a new segment and maintaining a link between one activity and the next and also maintaining the momentum of the lesson without wasting time. 4
- Teacher achieves transition by using appropriate signal words to mark the beginning of a new segment and maintaining the momentum of the lesson without wasting too much time. 3
- Teacher achieves transition by using appropriate words to mark the beginning of a new segment and maintaining the momentum of the lesson but wastes some time. 2
- Teacher achieves transition by using appropriate words to mark the beginning of a new segment only. 1
- Teacher fails to establish transition. 0

(20) Teacher repeats important points for emphasis.

- Teacher repeats main points and when students do not understand, he/she presents additional examples or explanation and elaborates until students achieve clear understanding. 4
- Teacher repeats main points and present additional examples or explanations 3
- Teacher repeats main points with emphasis. 2
- Teacher repeats main points only. 1
- Teacher does not repeat main point. 0

(E) **Closure**

(21) Teacher reviews what has been covered in the lesson using appropriate evaluation questions.

- Teacher uses quite adequate and relevant questions (that are based on the objectives of the lesson) to evaluate the lesson. 4
- Teacher uses not quite adequate but relevant questions to evaluate the lesson. 3
- Teacher uses adequate but not quite relevant questions to evaluate the lesson 2
- Teacher uses not quite adequate and not quite relevant question to evaluate the lesson. 1
- Teacher does not use questions to evaluate the lesson at all 0

(22) Teacher summarizes what has been covered in the lesson

- Teacher summarizes what has been covered in the lesson by reviewing key point of the lesson and taking care of areas of students inability to answer evaluation questions 4
- Teacher summarizes what has been covered in the lesson by reviewing key points for emphasis only 3
- Teacher summarizes what has been covered in the lesson for emphasis only. 2
- Teacher summarizes what has been covered in the lesson without emphasis. 1
- Teacher does not summarizes what has been covered in the lesson 0

(23) Teacher relates the lesson to a forthcoming lesson.

- Teacher relates the lesson to a forthcoming lesson assigning a relevant problem to think about or a relevant task to be carried out that will help provide an entry into the next lesson. 4
- Teacher relate the lesson to a forthcoming lesson by assigning a problem to think about or a task to be carried out that will help provide an entry into the next lesson. 3
- Teacher relates the lesson to a forthcoming lesson without assigning any task or problem. 2

- Teacher relates the lesson to just any task or problem. 1
- Teacher does not relate the lesson to anything whatsoever. 0

(24) Teacher presents additional examples or explanation, and elaborates when students seem not to understand the lesson.

- Teacher repeats main points and when students do not understand, he/she presents additional examples or explanation and elaborates until students achieves clear understanding. 4
- Teacher repeats main points and present additional examples and explanation. 3
- Teacher repeats main points with emphasis 2
- Teacher repeats main points only 1
- Teacher does not repeats when students don't seem to understand. 0

(25) Teacher praises students for what they have achieved in the course of the lesson.

- Teacher uses the most appropriate praise to acknowledge what students have achieved in the course of the lesson, 4
- Teacher uses fairly appropriate praise to acknowledge what students have achieved in the course of the lesson. 3
- Teacher uses not quite appropriate praise to acknowledge what students have achieved in the course of the lesson. 2
- Teacher uses inappropriate praise to acknowledge what students have achieved in the course of the lesson. 1
- Teacher does not acknowledge what students have achieved in the course of the lesson 0

APPENDIX VIII

Reflective Teaching Instructional Guide Rating Scale

Rater----------

Rater's designation----------

Years of experience----------

Instruction: Kindly go through the content of this guide and use the scale below to evaluate the appropriateness and relevance of each section as indicated.

Key: 5 = Excellent

4 = Very Good

3 = Good

2 = Very Fair

1 = Fair

0 = Poor

	Content	**Ratings**					
		5	4	3	2	1	0
1	Introduction/Definition						
2	Levels of Reflection						
3	Approaches to Reflective practice						
4	Characteristics of Reflective practitioner						
5	Benefits of Reflective						

Give any suggestion (s) that you think can help improve this guide.

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APPENDIX IX

Micro- Teaching Instruction Guide Rating Scale

Rater----------

Rater's designation----------

Years of experience----------

Instruction:

Kindly go through the content of this guide and use the scale below to evaluate the appropriateness and relevance of the content of each section as indicated below.

Key: 5 = Excellent

4 = Very Good

3 = Good

2 = Very Fair

1 = Fair

0 = Poor

CONTENT		RATINGS					
		5	4	3	2	1	0
1	Introduction/Definition						
2	Phases of micro-teaching						
3	Teaching skills component						
4	Steps of micro-teaching						
5	Micro-teaching cycle						

Give any suggestion (s) that you think can help improve this guide.

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