TEACHING PRACTICE ANXIETY AND PERFORMANCE OF STUDENT-TEACHERS IN FEDERAL COLLEGES OF EDUCATION IN SOUTH-WEST NIGERIA

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CERTIFICATION

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to:

1. The Almighty God, the author of life, giver of wisdom and sustainer of my life.

2. My amiable Family: My Husband, Children and Grand Children

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ABSTRACT

Studies have shown that student-teachers are performing below expectation in the Teaching Practice (TP) exercise; a core aspect of the College of Education (CoE) curriculum. This TP poor performance trend in the CoE has been partly attributed to anxiety among the student-teachers. However, previous studies on TP performance have been limited to impacts of supervision issues, students' demographic factors, excess workload, duration of the exercise, planning and preparation problems and incentives-related issues without much consideration for the impact of the students' anxiety before and during the exercise. This study, therefore, examined teaching practice anxiety as a correlate of student-teachers' performance in the teaching practice in Federal Colleges of Education in South-West, Nigeria.

The study adopted the descriptive survey design. Three federal CoE were randomly selected out of the four in the South-West, namely, Federal College of Education (Special) Oyo, Federal College of Education (Technical) Akoka, Lagos and Federal College of Education, Osiele, Abeokuta. The combination of stratified, quota and simple random sampling was used to select 100 final year students each from five schools (Languages, Science, Arts and Social Sciences, Education, and Vocational and Technical Education). Instruments used were: Student Teacher Anxiety Scale (r=0.82) and Student's Teaching Practice Assessment Rating (r=0.75). Three research questions were answered and three hypotheses tested at 0.05 level of significance. Descriptive statistics, Pearson product moment correlation and multiple regression were used for data analyses.

Teaching practice anxiety had a significant correlation with student teachers' performance in teaching practice in Federal Colleges of Education ($F_{(10, 1405)}$=295.2) and accounted for 17.4% of the variance of teaching practice performance. The sources of anxiety, namely, other student-teachers (β=.603), lesson presentation (β=0.314), class management (β=.277), relating to students (β=.252), teaching confidence (β=.194), content mastery (β=.186) and lesson preparation (β=.107) had significant relative contributions to teaching practice performance, while supervision, teaching as a career choice and fear of being observed did not. Also, anxiety had significant relationship with the indices of teaching practice performance as follows: lesson plan (r = -.105); lesson presentation (r = -.685); communication skills (r = -.214); evaluation skills (r= -.202); class management (r = .153). However, student teacher's anxiety during TP has no significant relationship with teachers personality (r = -0.037).

Anxiety by student teachers during the teaching practice influenced student-teachers' performance in teaching practice in Federal Colleges of Education in South-West. Thus, there is the need for adequate preparation for the students through exposure to micro-teaching and proper orientation on rules and regulations to reduce anxiety and improve performance.

Keywords: Teaching practice anxiety, Teaching practice performance, Federal Colleges of Education in South-West Nigeria

Word count: 415

INTRODUCTION

1.1   Background to the Study

The business of teaching is the major preoccupation of teachers in the school system in Nigeria. For teachers to be effectively involved, they must have gone through adequate, relevant and appropriate training. This specialised training separates a trained teacher from a quack in the school system (Awoderu, 2007). The importance of adequate preparation is highly emphasised in the National Policy on Education (FGN 2004), the major educational policy in Nigeria which states that "teacher education shall continue to be given major emphasis in all educational planning and development because no education system can rise above the quality of its teachers".

Teaching practice is of great importance in teacher education. It is a component of training leading to the award of the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) in Nigeria. The National Commission for Colleges of Education (1996: 45) highlights the objectives of teaching practice as:

> *to help the student-teachers develop positive attitude towards the teaching profession; expose student-teachers to real life experience under the supervision of professional teachers; enable student-teachers discover their own strengths and weaknesses in teaching; provide a forum for student-teachers to translate educational theories and principles into practice; familiarize student-teachers with school routines; expose student-teachers to the total school environment; provide student-teachers with the necessary skills, competencies, personal characteristics and experiences for real time teaching after graduation; and serve as a means of assessing the professional competences of student-teachers.*

In like manner, cognizance is taken of the argument that provision of teachers of high quality should be given a top priority since teachers represent, by far, the most significant investment in public sector budget (UNESCO, 2004). Teacher quality, if considered to be

the greatest prediction of student teachers performance and success, it also follows that teacher professional development can improve classroom instruction and students' achievement.

The issue of teacher preparation seems to be the uppermost concern of the educational planners and administrators (Maduewesi, 2005). Teachers are largely responsible for the translation and interpretation of educational policies, curriculum or course, instructional materials and assessment of learning outcomes at the level of learners. Besides the teacher's instructional leadership role, the teacher exerts a lot of influence on the character formation and the process of socialisation of the children within the learning environment. If student teachers are not well prepared, the objectives will not be realised (Oduolowu, 2009). Teacher education is an educational programme that involves a deliberate upbringing of students through training in order to acquire knowledge, skills and values to transmit to others. It is suggested that teacher trainees should be adequately trained to be able to meet the requirements of teaching, as part of the requirement of teaching profession.

As part of the package, teaching practice is allocated specific period of time during which student teachers are posted to schools to teach, demonstrate in practical terms the knowledge and skills they had acquired during training. This is like housemanship in Medicine and Student Industrial Work Experience Scheme (SIWES) for engineers and some other related courses in Colleges of Education and Court Attachment for Lawyers. Teaching practice offers student teachers the opportunity to learn the basic skills of teaching and put their hitherto acquired knowledge into actual practice (Jekayinfa, 2012). The exercise allows student teachers to get familiar with educational ethics and the rules and regulations governing the practice of education as a professional career. Through the teaching practice, students get to interact with school environment, administration and academic staff, classroom management, workload and other students in the practice school.

Teaching practice is recognised as a crucial aspect of teacher education (Farrell, 2008). Teacher education institutions worldwide, including Nigeria, are under increasing pressure to prepare their student teachers better for the actual world of teaching. The teaching practice, therefore, provides an avenue by which this expectation may be addressed. During teaching practice, the student teachers are given the opportunity to experience and 'experiment' their knowledge and skills in an authentic teaching and learning environment. A good teacher education programme should seek to assist the student-teacher to grow and develop as a total person and equip him with necessary skills and professional abilities that will help him become an effective teacher.

Teaching practice is a form of work-integrated learning that is described as a period of time when students are working in the relevant industry to receive specific in-service training in order to apply theory in practice. Researchers such as Marais and Meier (2004) and Maphosa, Shumba & Shumba (2007) described teaching practice as an integral component of teacher training. In order to achieve the standards required for qualified teacher status, a student teacher is required to do teaching practice in at least two schools. According to Perry (2004), teaching practice can be conducted in a number of forms depending on the institution. Some institutions send student teachers to go for teaching practice once a day each week; others do this over a semester; while others send student teachers in a two-to six weeks' block. The new NCE minimum standards spell out that Teaching Practice should be done in the first semester of the third year for a period of three months. The reason for this is that the teaching method studied during course work needs to be implemented as subject to be done, which is less often done with expertise because skills are acquired and polished over time. In Nigeria, Colleges of Education teaching practice used to be done in two phases, each phase spanning six weeks but the system has now changed to a whole semester that is in the first semester of the 3rd year of NCE programme.

The importance attached to teaching practice in the field of teacher education and the ways it is being conducted is a concern to stakeholders in education, as they find it difficult and

disturbing to cope with its multifarious demands. The student teacher is expected to fulfil all the responsibilities of a teacher. Teaching practice, according to Perry (2004), is exciting but challenging since it is the first time a student is attempting what his/her lecturer do for them. On the other hand, student teachers could have doubts about their ability to cope with the situations, controlling and managing learners or establishing a working relationship with the mentor or supervisor. It is such mixed feelings that can contribute to the making or breaking of a student-teacher. All these working challenges in teaching practice for student-teachers lead to anxiety and this invariably affects performance.

Teaching can vary greatly from individual to individual. Also, there are differential reactions to stressors as a function of variables such as personality (Murray-Harvey, 2000) and culture or even sex (Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005). Researchers have noted that student-teachers' perception of potential sources of anxiety related to teaching practice.

The challenges student-teachers have to face during teaching practice exercise raise concerns in the mind of the student teachers. The understanding of these concerns as anxiety and other related ones are crucial to improving professional preparation within the context of teacher education programme. The significance of identifying sources of student-teacher anxiety, as it affects performance, lies in the evidence that anxiety affects student-teachers behaviour and this in turn reduces classroom performance. For student teachers to perform effectively, anxiety about performance should be looked into. However, there is dearth of studies on influence of anxiety on the students' teacher performance in teaching practice in Nigeria. Teacher educators have to identify the concerns that trigger anxiety in student-teachers during teaching practice, which affect performance adversely and assist student-teachers to effectively manage these issues so as to maximize the benefits of the teaching practice for student-teachers and in the field of education.

Performance of student teachers could be measured in relation to the ability of the student teacher in respect of lesson preparation, lesson presentation, communication skills, lesson evaluation skills and teachers personality. Performance evaluation during teaching practice provides some basis for predicting the future success of the teacher (Nakpodia 2011). During teaching practice, working with students in school provides a high degree of emotional involvement (anxiety). Student teachers feel challenged and empowered. Institutions need evaluation to guide students to achieve excellent student teachers performance. Teaching practice is not left out of it. Evaluation implies objective judgment about student's performance by identifying those who pass or fail. When students are evaluated, the use of pass or fail may be used to describe their student teachers performance. Osadebe (2000) submits that the quality of education depends on the teachers that is why student teachers should be guided in the performance of their duties in the classroom during teaching practice.

Much effort has been made to research into anxiety among student-teachers during teaching practice. Studies have shown that anxiety can have a negative effect on student-teachers' well being (physically, behaviourally or mentally and also emotionally), and thereby affect not only the teachers, but also the school (e.g. loss of teaching time) and, more importantly, the student's performance (e.g. students' perceived relation with student-teacher). Student-teacher's anxiety may be defined as "the experience by a student-teacher of unpleasant, negative emotions, resulting from some aspect of their work as a teacher." Student-teacher anxiety is therefore seen mainly as a negative effect, with diverse psychological, physiological and behavioural links (Kyriacou, 2009). Anxiety experienced by student-teachers in their teaching practice has been reported in studies to indicate that it is not an isolated phenomenon. Student-teachers regard the teaching practice as a valuable, if not the most valued part of their teacher education programme and they also view it with apprehension.

A number of studies have explored the extent to which student-teachers experience anxiety from teaching practice related factors. Some studies indicate that student teachers

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experience moderate levels of anxiety (Murray-Harvey, Slee, Lawson, Silins, Benfield & Russell, 2000; Bhargava, 2009) while others show that student teachers report high anxiety levels (Kazu, 2001; Azeem, 2011). Hart (1987) suggests that student-teachers in Great Britain experience anxiety from factors such as evaluation, pupils and professional concerns, class control and teaching practice requirements. Morton, Vesco, Williams & Awender, (1997) report that student-teacher anxiety was related to evaluation, pedagogical, classroom management and staff relations factors. Capel (1997) reports in her study that was conducted among student teacher in Canterbury that anxiety was due to evaluation, professional preparation, classroom control and school staff factors. Although much effort has been made to investigate into student teachers' anxiety in most industrialized countries and Asia but little or no consideration has been put into consideration to study student-teachers' anxiety in the Nigerian educational system, particularly in the Colleges of Education. In order to fill the gaps in the previous studies and add more to the existing literatures, the researcher investigated the extent to which anxiety influences the performance of the student teachers during teaching practice exercise in Federal Colleges of Education in South West Nigeria.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Teaching Practice (TP) is one of the most important aspects of teacher preparation programme in that it is the only exercise in which the student teachers are able to put into practice all that have been learnt about pedagogical skills. Better performance in teaching practice suggests good practising teacher. Studies have shown that student-teachers are performing below expectation in the Teaching Practice (TP) exercise, a core aspect of the College of Education (CoE) curriculum. This poor performance trend in teaching practice has been partly attributed to anxiety among student-teachers. Previous studies on teaching practice performance have been limited to impacts of supervision issues, students' demographic factors, excess workload, duration of the exercise, planning and preparation problems and incentives-related issues without much consideration for the impact of the

students' anxiety before and during the exercise. This study, therefore, investigated teaching practice anxiety as a correlate of student-teachers' performance in teaching practice in Federal Colleges of Education in South-West, Nigeria.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

This study investigated teaching practice anxiety as correlate of student-teachers' teaching performance in Federal Colleges of Education in South-West Nigeria. Its specific objectives are to:

(i)   determine the relationship among each of the sources of anxiety and student-teachers' performance generally.

(ii)   evaluate the extent to which anxiety relates to indices of teaching practice performance.

(iii)   ascertain if there are significant differences on the level of teaching practice anxiety among student-teachers based on age, subject are, a gender and level/class taught.

(iv)   assess the general level of teaching practice anxiety among the student-teachers based on the sources of each anxiety.

(v)   determine the general performance level in teaching practice among student-teachers using the teaching-practice performance indices.

(vi)   establish the extent to which student teachers experience anxiety during teaching practice exercise.

1.4   Research Questions

The following research questions served as anchor for the study:

RQ$_1$ – Does teaching practice anxiety correlate with student-teachers' teaching performance in Federal College of Education?

RQ$_2$ – What is the general level of teaching practice anxiety (Teaching confidence, Supervision Anxiety, Content Mastery, Teaching as a Career Choice, Observation,

Relating with other Student Teachers, Relating with Students, Classroom Control, Lesson preparation and Lesson Presentation) among the student teachers based on the sources of such anxiety.

RQ_3 – What is the general performance level in teaching practice among the student teachers using the teaching practice performance indices (preparation of lesson plan, presentation of lesson, classroom management, communication skills, evaluation skills and teachers' personality)?

1.5   Hypotheses

Ho_1: There is no significant relationship between each of the sources of anxiety and student-teachers' performance.

Ho_2: There is no significant relationship between anxiety and indices of teaching practice performance.

Ho_3: There is no significant difference in the level of teaching practice anxiety among student – teachers based on age, subject-area, gender and level/class taught.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The challenges student-teachers have to face during teaching practice exercise raise concerns in their minds. The understanding of these concerns is crucial to improving professional preparation within the context of teacher education programme. One can say, therefore, that the significance of identifying sources of student-teacher anxiety lies in the evidence that anxiety affects student-teacher behaviour and this in turn reduces classroom effectiveness.

This study is out to provide information about the relationship that exists between anxiety and student teachers' performance in teaching practice. An understanding of the student teachers' experience will raise the teacher-training institutions' awareness of the challenges faced by student teachers, challenges that could militate against a positive teaching practice

experience. Consequently, teacher-training programmes could be reconsidered and reviewed so as to enable student teachers to achieve the desired outcomes from their teaching practice.

This study is also significant to the management of Colleges of Education, Faculties of Education in the Universities because it would provide information on how to manage anxiety among student-teachers during teaching practice. The student-teacher is like an inexperienced apprentice in the teaching field and should not be left without adequate guidance during teaching practice. Thus, this study can be used by faculties as a guideline to generating appropriate actions to help student-teachers during their teaching practice.

The study would provide information to institutions that need it, school management boards, parents and others on some of the challenges faced by student-teachers during teaching practice. With this background information, they could play some mediating roles from time to time. Finally, the study would serve as reference materials for scholars and researchers in the same or related field.

1.7   Scope of the Study

This study investigated the influence of anxiety on the performance of the student-teachers in all four Federal Colleges of Education in the South-West of Nigeria. The study however examine the influence of teaching practice anxiety, general level of teaching practice anxiety and the general performance level in teaching practice among the student teachers using the teaching practice performance indices. The Colleges of Education used were Federal College of Education (Special) Oyo, Oyo State; Federal College of Education Osiele, Abeokuta, Ogun State; Federal College of Education Technical Akoka, Lagos State and Adeyemi College of Education Ondo,Ondo State. It specifically covered 300 Level NCE students who registered for a compulsory teaching practice course and participated in the micro teaching course in 200 Level NCE.
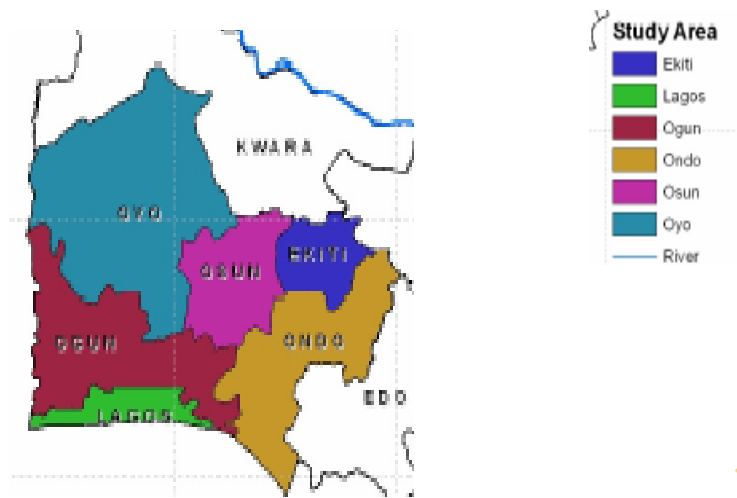
Fig 1.1: Map of South west showing the study area

1.8   Operational Definition of Terms

The operational definition of terms as used in this study are as follows:

Anxiety: Anxiety is defined in this study from the perspective of a student-teacher on teaching practice, as an emotional condition expressed as fear and uncertainty that result in worry or concerns which are troubled feelings, uneasiness of the mind in anticipation of future event arising from the present task of teaching practice assessment. This is true of teaching practice and student teachers who have little time to finish all the task of teaching because they want to run away from poor evaluation from supervisors.

Performance: It is the art of carrying out, implementing or accomplishing a task on teaching practice by a student as well as in what he or she has studied as basis of predicting the future success of his career. It is a guide to student teacher-achievement, which leads to pass or fail and describes the student teacher performance in the classroom during teaching practice.

Teachers: Teachers refers to individuals that are saddled with the responsibility of imparting instructional contents to the learners. Teachers do this professionally as a result of their exposure to pedagogical skills and training.

Teaching Practice: It is a period of exposure of a student-teacher, which affords the student-teacher the opportunity to be in real teaching and learning environment to be able to put into practice what has been learnt in theory. It prepares the student teacher to communicate effectively to show evidence of personal organization and classroom management for efficient utilization of learning materials. This is where all learned concepts have to be applied successfully in real life situation in the classroom in front of a supervisor.

Student-Teacher: A student teacher in this study is a student in a Federal College of Education studying to be a teacher and earning a certificate in education i.e. Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE). He is trained to acquire basic skills, attitudes and discipline to effectively guide him to teach subjects assigned to him, manage students within the classroom environment in front of the supervisor for assessment of performance.

Student-Teacher Performance: The student-teacher performance in this study exposes a student-teacher in a Federal College of Education to Teaching Practice, to the practical aspect of teaching practice in real classroom situations. This is where the student-teacher plans his lessons appropriately with learning objectives, as well as pay attention to his/her organization of content and technical language instruction; appropriate language and expression, instructional materials and their proper utilization; classroom management for effective learning environment and classroom discipline for effective teaching. The student-teacher's personality that demonstrates confidence in the student-teacher helps to project and help the student teacher assert self in front of a supervisor. If the student teacher observes all the above, he will be able to perform effectively.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of literature was conducted under the following sub themes:

1. Theoretical Framework

2. Meaning of Anxiety and Its Types

3. Studies on Teaching Practice Exercise for Student-Teachers

4. Studies on Teaching Practices in Relation to Student Teachers' Anxiety

5. Studies on Student Teacher Anxieties and Teaching Practice Related Factors

6. Student-Teachers and Teaching Performance

7. Appraisal of Literature

2.1   Theoretical Framework

This study is anchored on two theoretical perspectives namely (i) the Social Learning Theory and (ii) Anxiety

2.1.1   Social Learning Theory (SLT)

Theory deals with the proposition that has been confirmed by the experiment. It give the directive to the explanation of certain phenomenon. Social Learning theory posits that people learn from one another via observation, imitation and modelling. The theory has often been called a bridge between behaviourist and cognitive learning theories because it encompasses attention, memory and motivation. Bandura (1978) opined that a significant part of what a person learns occurs through imitation or modelling. Bandura asserted that the socialization of the individual, his exposure to learning situations, observations and

constant rehearsals of learning behaviour of others is paramount in the teaching and learning activity of the individual. This theory was supported by Akinboye (1989) who asserted that without the individual's exposure to learning stimulus, and for the individual to observe and learn from others who are more experienced than him/her in a setting by using reinforcers, motivators and other stimuli such as instructional aids, other concrete learning materials such as pictograph slides and films, it will be very difficult for such an amateur learning to gain maximally.

The theory also assumed that human behaviour cannot be explained by stimulus response operation alone; that cognitive and social motivation play important roles in the manifestation of human behaviour, work performance and achievement. The Social Learning Theory (SLT) focuses on observation learning in social situations as basis for acquiring new behaviour. Bandura, however, asserted that consequences, reinforcement, motivators and other cues are automatic reinforcers, except the human organism involved is able to perceive the consequences, reinforcement and other incentives as useful within a social learning setting.

Social Learning Theory considered modeling and imitation as important to social development. Learning, according to this principle, is a combination of psychological principles and social conditions. Miller (1983) opined that learning occurs through observation resulting from the manipulation of internal cognitive variable. The theory, therefore, places much premium on cognition. It thereby focuses on individual's active cognitive processing to select, extract and maintain environmental information, as well as generate meaning from the information gathered. Social learning theorists believe that one can observe someone's behaviour and acquire new behaviour without actual performance. It also believes that performance is merely an overt manifestation of learned behaviour and an index of learning. This implies that a student's performance in a given test is an indication of how much he has learnt or acquired in that particular subject.

According to Social Learning Theorists, reinforcement is not needed for learning; rather it is an enriched environment where learning could be observed. They, therefore, believe that observation teaches the possible consequences of behaviour that children learn from vicarious reinforcement or concrete models and/or symbolic models. The theorists also believe that student acquire social skills and new knowledge from their participation, observation and imitation of competent or knowledgeable model's behaviour. They are of the belief that observation and imitation are critical to socialization process. The importance of cognition and perceptual ability is emphasized as a strong psychological variable in an individual. Thus, observation, information processing and learning processes are of great value. This, therefore, implies that any form of damage done on the sensory organs will impair the brain from carrying out mental processing; for example, eyes for vision and ears for hearing and so on. From the above theory, it becomes imperative that for a student-teacher to excel during his/her teaching practice, he/she must have had a prior exposure through micro-teaching programme in his college so as to be exposed to the following:

i. Socialization process with multifarious students of different attitudes and behaviours, different temperaments or with either hyper-activity or hypo-activity.

ii. To be exposed to the use of modeling and the application of teaching aids to reinforce his/her teaching or written plans.

iii. To be able to apply the principles of class management through different strategies in behaviour modification. If the above are missing in the student practice, coupled with the student's nursing of anxiety when a supervisor comes into his class or when some brilliant students bombard him with a series of questions, he would be found anxiety-stricken.

From the above, he/she should be able to switch from the use of one teaching method to another and complimenting such with appropriate teaching aids or instructional materials.

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Hence, micro-teaching process is vital in exposing student to proper demonstration of skill and knowledge acquired in his/her area of teaching specialization.

From this social learning theory, it was observed that the anxiety come from both internal and external factor and this influence the extent to which individual react to external stimuli. As such, the anxiety of teaching practice students could easily be traced to internal factors such as preparation of lesson plan, presentation of lesson, classroom management, communication skills, evaluation skills and teachers' personality. Also, anxiety of teaching practice students could easily be traced to external factors such as teaching confidence, supervision anxiety, ccontent mmastery, tteaching as a career choice, observation, relating with other student teachers, relating with students, cclassroom control, lesson preparation and lesson presentation. As such, it could be inferred from this study that the students teacher performance and anxiety are influenced by the social environment which is being posed by social learning theory.

2.1.2 Anxiety

Researchers (Okoli, 2000; Jekayinfa, 2012; and Busari & Osiki, 2002) in the field of Psychology of Education have given various definitions, notions, meanings and views of the concepts of anxiety as a state of uneasiness and worry about real or perceived future events. They further stated that anxiety is the fear of evaluation or judgment in social or performance situations, which may be elicited by a number of triggers, including formal interactions, such as public speaking, informal interactions, such as meeting a stranger, situations requiring assertive behaviour; or everyday actions, such as eating in front of others and also teaching practice.

Okoli (2000) referred to it as a multisystem response to a perceived threat or danger. It reflects a combination of biochemical changes in the body, the patient's personal history and memory, and the social situation. As far as we know, anxiety is a uniquely human experience. Other animals clearly know fear, but human anxiety involves an ability to use memory and imagination to move backward and forward in time, which animals do not

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appear to have. The anxiety that occurs in post-traumatic syndromes indicates that human memory is a much more complicated mental function than animal memory. Moreover, a large portion of human anxiety is produced by anticipation of future events. Without a sense of personal continuity over time, people would not have the "raw materials" of anxiety. It is important to distinguish between anxiety as a feeling or experience, and an anxiety disorder as a psychiatric diagnosis. A person may feel anxious without having an anxiety disorder. In addition, a person facing a clear and present danger or a realistic fear is not usually considered to be in a state of anxiety. In addition, anxiety frequently occurs as a symptom in other categories of psychiatric disturbance.

Jekayinfa (2001) conceptualizes it as a commonplace experience that everyone has from time to time. It is difficult to describe concretely because it has so many different potential causes and degrees of intensity. According to him, scholars sometimes categorize anxiety as an emotion or an affect depending on whether it is being described by the person having it (emotion) or by an outside observer (affect). The word emotion is generally used for the biochemical changes and feeling state that underlie a person's internal sense of anxiety. Affect is used to describe the person's emotional state from an observer's perspective. If a doctor says that a patient has an anxious affect, he or she means that the patient appears nervous or anxious, or responds to others in an anxious way (for example, the individual is shaky, tremulous, etc.).

Anxiety is seen as apprehension, tension or uneasiness which stems from anticipation of danger, the source of which is largely unknown or unrecognized. It is regarded as a danger signal and with its sources in the external world. The intensity of such anxiety would vary in proportion to the size of the external danger.

In a study conducted by Afolayan, Bitrus, Olayinka, Adeyanju, Agama (2013), it was noted that anxiety is a common cause of poor student teachers performance among students. The study, which was carried out among students of the Faculty of Nursing,

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Niger Delta State University, was used to determine the relationship between anxiety and student teachers performance. The result showed that, generally, students express anxiety during examination and this is seen as physiological, psychological and behavioural changes and as an abnormality. Also, there was no difference between gender and student teachers performance. Anxiety is a psychological and physiological state characterised by physical, emotional, cognitive and behavioural components. Anxiety means trouble. It can create a feeling of fear, worry, uneasiness, tension, apprehension, concern, fretfulness, nervous anticipation of future events, which shows that all is not well and indicates mental or emotional fear.

Anxiety is regarded as a normal response to stress. It may help an individual to cope with the demands of life but, in excess, it may be considered as anxiety disorder (National Institution of Mental Health. Anxiety Disorders, Department of Health and Human Services U.S.A 2008). An optimal level of arousal and mindset is necessary to best complete a task as examination, perform an act or compete in an event. However, when the anxiety exceeds the optimal level, the result is decline in performance. Hence, the individual fails to fulfil the required obligation. It is when anxiety is in its severe form that some students experience genuine problem in academics. Some of the experiences are minds going blank, shaking, hands going numb, speaking incoherently among others. Student teachers performance is the outcome of education. It refers to the extent to which a student teacher has achieved his educational goals. This goal is known to be influenced by anxiety.

According to Putman (2010), anxiety is defined as a complex psychological and behavioural state. It is expressed in different moods, words, feelings and emotions. Anxiety is the most important factor of mental disorders based on the theory of psychological analysis. Anxiety surrounding examination affects approximately 25% to 40% of individuals, as opined by Carter et al (2008).

From a clinical point of view, Mayer (1999) described it as a normal adaptive responses, which carry unpleasant emotional overtone involving a strong expectation of danger, threat or distress for which an extra effort will be needed but about which nothing can be done at the time physically. There is increased activity, a rise in the output of adrenalin, a rise in blood pressure and heart rate. The skin becomes sweaty and pale, the mouth goes dry. Respiration is deep and frequent and the muscles lose tone. There is also increase in the rate of defecation and urination. If this state continues for some time, the fidgety movement begins to appear; digestion and sleep are also affected.

Anxiety has long been regarded as fundamental in human emotions right from ages. Spielberger (1962), discussing the historical perspective of anxiety, recalled Cohen's reference to the reflection of anxiety in ancient Egyptian hieroghiliphics. Similarly, James Kitr (1998) noted a central concern with anxiety in the work of medieval philosopher, Allan (1997) who asserted unequivocally that University of Anxiety should be a basic condition for human existence.

There are evidences that anxiety has been used by many workers to denote with human emotions like fear or anger. However, some have differentiated anxiety from fear or other emotion (Dollar and Miller; Goldstein, 1992). They noted that fear is a reaction to definite external stimulus with sudden and unusual short duration, entirely different from anxiety but however fear and anxiety in uncertainty in the stimulus and very prolonged duration.

Breggin (1994), in his differentiation of anger from anxiety, associates anxiety with increased secretion by the adrenal medullar of epinephrine (adrenaline) while anger, he stated, produces increase production of non-epinephrine (more adrenaline). Thus, anxiety has been described as something felt as unpleasant, emotional (affective state). Freud (1962) conceptualized anxiety as a fundamental problem in all neurotic symptom formation and therefore should be avoided. He postulated that there is no need for a description of anxiety since everyone has personally experienced the sensation or the affective state at some time or the other.

Darwin (1926), also in the 19th century believes that fear was inherent in men and evolved as an adaptive mechanism over countless generations. He made a description of the typical manifestation of fear – rapid palpitation of the heart, trembling; increase perspiration, erection of the hairs and dilation of the pupils. Camus referred to the Twentieth Century as the century of fear while Auden, in his poetic work, named it "Age of Anxiety".

Goldstein (1962) emphasised that human beings are in a continual dialogue with the environment and that anxiety can arise primarily in the context of an organism-environment relationship, and that through interaction human beings have to understand and cope with their environment. He employed a holistic approach that emotions are not comprehensive as separate phenomena but belong to the totality of the organism.

Martin (1991) described anxiety as a complex response pattern which should be carefully distinguished from its eliciting internal or external stimuli. This formulation carries the implication that it is important to differentiate anxiety from the cognitions and behaviour which one learnt, to reduce it. From the learning theorist point of view of Mowrer (1976), anxiety is a learned behaviour serving functionally to motivate trial and error behaviour by the organism to reduce the level of performance. Reduction of anxiety reinforces learning of new habit, which is referred to as "The learned drive conception of anxiety".

Salami (1998) suggested that anxiety is a cynical distress experienced by the newly born infant as fundamental distress, the crucial aspect of which is the perception of variable and intense autonomic visceral activity. The distress is not necessarily stopped by escape or avoidance and, at times, it reverberates signaling more distress. There is no event antecedent to such distress. Salami suggested that anxiety is sometimes controlled by specific inhibitions which lead to the possibility that any organized activity will ward off the distress involved in anxiety results. There is also the concept of interruption which state that any situation that interrupts or threaten as an interruption of organized sequences of responses and which does not offer any alternative response will produce anxiety.

Busari (2000) defined anxiety as mediating experiential phenomenon related to perception of impending threat or over-stimulation accomplished by a discharge in the sympathetic nervous system. She further said that it is an emotional condition in which there is fear and uncertainty about the future. Busari and Osiki (2002) defined anxiety as often a diffuse unpleasant and uncomfortable feeling of apprehension accompanied by one or more bodily sensations that characteristically recur in the same manner in the person. Anxiety can also be defined as emotional condition in which there is fear and uncertainty about the future (Busari and Uwakwe 2001). Walker (1996) proposed an interesting trait state conceptualization of anxiety. He suggested that the arousal of anxiety state involves a process or sequence of temporarily ordered events initiated by external or internal stimuli that are perceived by the individual to be dangerous or threatening. Example of such external stressors that evoke anxiety reaction are imminent dangers, threat to self-esteem, an internal stimulus which causes an individual to think about or anticipate a danger or frightening situation i.e. lack of preparation during teaching practice.

A trait anxiety person perceives situation in a way in which personal adequacy is more threatening than individual with anxiety trait. The appraisal of the situation or the stimulus threatening is influenced by the persons' abilities, aptitudes, experiences as well as by his levels of anxiety trait as well as the objective danger inherent in the situation. The duration of the anxiety state reaction will depend upon the persistence of evoking stimuli and the individual previous experience in dealing with similar circumstances.

2.1.2 Types of Anxiety

Researchers (Freud, 1962; Akinboye, 1989; Allan, 1997; Mayer, 1999; Okoli, 2000; Jekayinfa, 20001; and Busari & Osiki, 2002) in the field of Psychology of Education have given various definitions, notions, meanings and concepts of anxiety as a state of uneasiness and worry about real or perceived future events.

Mayer (1999) defined anxiety as the fear of evaluation or judgment in social or performance situations, which may be elicited by a number of triggers including formal

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interactions, such as public speaking, informal interactions, such as meeting a stranger, situations requiring assertive behaviour; or everyday actions, such as eating in front of others. Okoli (2000) referred to it as a multisystem response to a perceived threat or danger. It reflects a combination of biochemical changes in the body, the patient's personal history and memory, and the social situation. As far as we know, anxiety is a uniquely human experience. Other animals clearly know fear, but human anxiety involves an ability to use memory and imagination to move backward and forward in time, which animals do not appear to have. The anxiety that occurs in post-traumatic syndromes indicates that human memory is a much more complicated mental function than animal memory. Moreover, a large portion of human anxiety is produced by anticipation of future events. Without a sense of personal continuity over time, people would not have the "raw materials" of anxiety. It is important to distinguish between anxiety as a feeling or experience and an anxiety disorder as a psychiatric diagnosis. A person may feel anxious without having an anxiety disorder. In addition, a person facing a clear and present danger or a realistic fear is not usually considered to be in a state of anxiety. In addition, anxiety frequently occurs as a symptom in other categories of psychiatric disturbance.

Jekayinfa (2001) conceptualize it as a commonplace experience that everyone has from time to time. It is difficult to describe concretely because it has so many different potential causes and degrees of intensity. According to him, scholars sometimes categorize anxiety as an emotion or an affect depending on whether it is being described by the person having it (emotion) or by an outside observer (affect). The word emotion is generally used for the biochemical changes and feeling state that underlie a person's internal sense of anxiety. 'Affect' is used to describe the person's emotional state from an observer's perspective. If a doctor says that a patient has an anxious affect, he or she means that the patient appears nervous or anxious, or responds to others in an anxious way (for example, the individual is shaky, tremulous, etc.).

According to Busari & Osiki (2002), although anxiety is related to fear, it is not the same thing. Fear is a direct, focused response to a specific event or object, and the person is

consciously aware of it. Most people will feel fear if someone points a loaded gun at them or if they see a tornado forming on the horizon. They also will recognize that they are afraid. Anxiety, on the other hand, is often unfocused, vague, and hard to pin down to a specific cause. In this form it is called free-floating anxiety. Sometimes, anxiety being experienced in the present may stem from an event or person that produced pain and fear in the past, but the anxious individual is not consciously aware of the original source of the feeling. It is anxiety's aspect of remoteness that makes it hard for people to compare their experiences of it. Whereas most people will be fearful in physically dangerous situations, and can agree that fear is an appropriate response in the presence of danger, anxiety is often triggered by objects or events that are unique and specific to an individual. An individual might be anxious because of a unique meaning or memory being stimulated by present circumstances, not because of some immediate danger. Another individual looking at the anxious person from the outside may be truly puzzled as to the reason for the person's anxiety.

Freud (1962) regards anxiety as a danger signal and differentiated between objective anxiety with its sources in the external world and neurotic anxiety with internal causes. In more detail, Freud viewed objective anxiety as dependent on external danger and then the anxiety. The intensity of such anxiety would vary in proportion to the size of the external danger. From a clinical point of view, Mayer (1999) described it as normal adaptive responses which carry unpleasant emotional overtone involving a strong expectation of danger, threat or distress for which an extra effort will be needed but about which nothing can be done at the time physically. There is increased CNS activity, a rise in the output of adrenalin, a rise in blood pressure and heart rate. The skin becomes sweaty and pale, the mouth goes dry. Respiration is deep and frequent and the muscles lose tone. There is also increase in the rate of defecation and urination. If this state continues for some time, the fidgety movement begins to appear; digestion and sleep are also affected.

Psychiatric and psychotherapeutic literature on anxiety seems to suggest that there are – grossly speaking – two main types of anxiety. There is, on the one hand, the medical

literature in which anxiety is described as a dysfunctional alarm response which is elicited by biological, cognitive and learning mechanisms. Although multifactorial in its origin, this alarm response itself is a primarily *biological* reaction, which is built-in in the hardware of the brain. There is on the other hand a large, older body of literature, which describes anxiety as an *existential* phenomenon, expressing the meaning of universal facts of life such as, for instance, the threat of absurdity, isolation, and/or imminent non-being. So, there are two discourses of anxiety, one emphasizing that anxiety is part of one's natural endowment (but elicited by the wrong cues), the other highlighting that all forms of anxiety, even pathological ones, in some way reflect omnipresent human conflicts and challenges (Allsopp, 1991).

From a broad historical perspective, it seems, there are at least three traditions in the study of anxiety (Glas, 1994). First and foremost, there is the medical tradition which, from Antiquity till now, dominates the theoretical literature on anxiety and which, at least in the last 150 years, favours a biological approach of anxiety. According to this approach, anxiety is rooted in a dysbalance in a physiological or endocrine equilibrium. Subjective feelings of fear and/or anxiety are the epiphenomena of this dysbalance (Glas, 1994).

Secondly, the concept of anxiety as inner threat must be distinguished. Well-known as it is in our days, one can hardly imagine the revolutionary significance of this concept, when it emerged in the late 19th and early 20th century psychoanalytic literature. Contemporary defenders of this view can be found in psychotherapeutic circles and in some branches of cognitive psychology. They do not deny that fear and anxiety can be related to events in the outside world, but they maintain that, in addition to that, there is an inner drama that contributes to the rise of anxiety. People, for instance, fear to be out of control and/or vulnerable (Glas, 1994).

Finally, the existential concept of anxiety should be examined. It is a concept which dates back to philosophers like Pascal and Kierkegaard (1980) and which, via existential phenomenology, inspires the work of anthropological psychiatrists and existential

psychotherapists in our time (Goldstein & Yalom 1980). According to this concept, the feeling of anxiety must be seen as the expression of a frustrated urge for self-realization or as the expression of the imminent annihilation of personal identity and psychic integrity. In our definition, we have taken the subjective (inner threat) and existential concepts of anxiety together. From what has been said here, one may grasp that there are also important differences between the subjective/psychoanalytic and the existential /anthropological approach. The latter concentrates itself primarily on existence, which is broader and – depending on one's point of view – also more fundamental than the restriction to inner experience.

From a cognitive-relational stress theory, Jerusalem and Mittag (1999) argue that for better psychological adaptation to new circumstances, both personal and environmental resources are needed for effective coping strategies, higher self-efficacy beliefs and well-being. This is consistent with a model of teachers' efficacy beliefs introduced by Tschannen-Moran *et al.* (1998). In a context where teachers' efficacy beliefs are established, high efficacious teachers trust their own capabilities to handle different teaching demands (Jerusalem *et al.* 1999). Teachers are more likely to view these demands and teaching problems as challenges rather than threats; attribute success to effort and failure to external conditions; and face stressful teaching conditions with high confidence and motivation. In such situations, teachers' high efficacy beliefs function as buffer against arousing anxiety experiences and foster positive attitudes towards teaching and students. Previous research on in-service teachers shows that teachers' levels of efficacy beliefs influenced their teaching performance and instructional strategies (Hechter, 2011). Well- established efficacy beliefs play a major role in keeping those teachers as effective classroom teachers (Woullard, 2003).

In a context where these efficacy beliefs are not yet well established, teachers are apt to develop negative attitudes towards teaching, anxiety arousal, threat assessments of events, self-doubts and perceptions of coping deficiencies whenever they deal with difficult

students or demanding teaching situations. Bandura (1997) contends that teachers' efficacy beliefs are more malleable in the first early years of teaching. This is true particularly for pre-service and beginning teachers. Those novice teachers may lack the required mastery experiences that promote high sense of efficacy beliefs; they may not get the needed support from other teachers and they may not be provided with the essential teaching resources.

Very significant to the current study are the affective processes that teachers go through during their teacher education programmes. The importance of these processes appears in the teachers' coping abilities to control sources of stress and anxiety. If teachers lack such processes, they are more likely to develop anxiety when faced with threats (Bandura, 1997). Previous research found that positive feedback from supervisors, friends and colleagues increased novice teachers' feeling of efficacy (Tait, 2008).

The researcher is of the view that student- teachers' efficacy beliefs can be affected by taking into account the levels of teaching anxiety that these teachers go through during their teaching practice and their attitudes toward teaching. Theoretical considerations and empirical findings suggest that these constructs would be significantly connected. Teaching anxiety can be defined as "a teacher's psychological and physiological state about teaching characterized by cognitive, somatic, emotional and behavioral components (Marso & Pigge, 1998). Previous research shows that anxiety relates to teachers' personal, social and physical characteristics (e.g., burnout, feeling of teaching inadequacy, teaching experiences) (Ameen, Guffey & Jackson, 2002) as well as students' anxiety experiences (Sinclair & Ryan, 1987). Teaching anxiety was found to relate negatively to in-service teachers' sense of efficacy beliefs (Marso *et al* 1998). The same findings are supported by research outside the area of teaching. Self-efficacy beliefs were found to relate to anxiety with college students [Haycock, McCarthy & Skay, 1998).

Attitudes toward teaching represent teachers' feeling about teaching processes. Marso *et al.,* (1998) defined teaching attitude as, "a function of the individual's belief value matrix

and as evolving from perceptions that attitude objects might block or facilitate need satisfaction." Attitudes influence teachers' beliefs to teach effectively (Gresham, 2008). Previous research shows that teachers' efficacy beliefs are influenced by mediating variables such as teaching attitudes and attributions (Schunk, 2004; Linnenbrink, & Pintrich, 2003; Margolis & McCabe, 2003; cited in Lancaster & Bain, 2007).

Years in teacher preparation programmes that provide experiential components of teaching are found to foster positive attitudes toward teaching (Lancaster et al 2007). Indeed, students start to form their attitudes towards teaching even before finishing their high schools. Previous research documents the influence of preparation programmes in pre-service and novice teachers' efficacy beliefs (Fry, 2009). Yost (2006) found that pre-service successful field and teaching experiences increased teachers' sense of efficacy beliefs during their first year of teaching. Similarly, Bruce *et al* (2010) found teachers' efficacy beliefs to be enhanced through vicarious learning experiences. The researchers showed the effects of observing peers teaching, having opportunities to share concerns and discussing classroom practices with colleagues (Bruce *et al*., 2010). In addition, interventions were found to influence teachers' attitudes (Woullard, 2003).

It is evident from previous research that teachers' efficacy belief is positively related to teaching attitudes and negatively to teaching anxiety [Gresham, G., 2008; Haycock, McCarthy & Skay, 1998; Medvin, Reed & Behr, 2002). Positive teaching attitude is negatively related to teaching anxiety [Gresham, 2008). However, it is not yet clear from available research whether attitudes can precede anxiety or vise versa when it comes to their influence on teachers' efficacy beliefs.

2.1.3 Studies on Teaching Practices in Relation to Student Teacher Anxiety

Studies have been conducted that have suggested that teaching can be perceived as a stressful profession by its members (Dibbon, 2004; Schaefer, 2001; Younghusband, 2000). Various reasons have been presented to explain the potential stressful nature of teaching. Examples include too many perceived demands along with a lack of perceived resources

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(e.g., heavy paperwork, student tracking, administrative tasks), work related charges associated with extra or different responsibilities (e.g., inclusion, higher class sizes), new programming implementations with little in-servicing or training, curriculum changes/restructuring with little in-servicing, insufficient preparation time to prepare for changes, perceived pressures to become involved in school activities outside of regular teacher duties (especially among new teachers), and long work hours (i.e., due to too many demands to complete during regular working hours) (Dibbon; Drago *et al.* 1999; Montalvo, Bair, & Boor, 1995).

Student-teachers can also experience role ambiguity (i.e., uncertainty of role), especially when they are beginning their careers and also when major role changes arise. In addition, student-teachers can sometimes experience role conflict (e.g., competing expectations regarding the role of the teacher from various stakeholders such as principals, colleagues, parents, society, and the individual teacher). Student behaviour has also been reported as a factor explaining teacher stress and teacher exhaustion (Jacobsson, Pousette, & Thylfors, 2001; Wisniewski and Gargiulo, 1997). In addition, student teachers perceive a lack of parental involvement/support along with the presence of parents who are confrontational and abusive (especially when there is a lack of administrative support in dealing with such parents), translating into teacher stress.

Research has highlighted a number of potential strains associated with student teacher anxiety. Student-teachers who become overwhelmed, hopeless, and unsupported may actually leave the profession. Turnover costs can be significant for the profession, society, and individual student-teachers. Stress can also cause student teachers' absenteeism, burnout, and various physical and psychological illnesses. Anxiety can also detract from student teacher effectiveness in the classroom. Student-teachers may not have the energy to develop novel/creative classroom approaches to learning/management. Student-teacher anxiety may serve to put up emotional barriers between teachers and their students, negatively impacting student-teacher relationship (Wisniewski and Gargiulo, 1997; Younghusband, 2000). Research has also highlighted the potential spillover of

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occupational stress into personal home life for teachers (Dinham & Scott, 2000; Younghusband, 2000). The end result is that occupational teacher stress can result in multiple strains on teachers.

Teaching practice is an integral component of teacher training. It grants student teachers experience in the actual teaching and learning environment. Teaching practice is an important component of becoming a teacher (Hgidi & Sibaya, 2003; Marais & Meier, 2004; Perry, 2004). During teaching practice, a student teacher is given the opportunity to try the art of teaching before actually getting into the real world of the teaching profession (Kasanda, 1995). Marais and Meier (2004) assert the term teaching practice represent the range of experiences to which student teachers are exposed when they work in classrooms and schools. They further argue that teaching practice is a challenging but important part of teacher training especially in developing countries where the effectiveness of the teaching practice can be diminished or eroded by a range of challenges such as geographical distance, low and uneven level of teacher expertise, a wide-ranging lack of resources as well as a lack of discipline among a wide cross-section of learners and educators. Sieborga (2005) states that these challenges, if not addressed, may affect student teachers performance during teaching practice and may in the long run affect their perceptions of the teaching profession.

Killen and Steyn (2001) state that teaching practice is meant to provide for the authentic context within which student teachers are exposed to experience the complexities and richness of the reality of being a teacher. This process allows a student to establish whether the right career choice has been made or not. However, despite its importance, Killen and Steyn (2001) note that teaching practice sometimes becomes a demonetarizing and sometimes very frightening experience. Aijaz (2009) notes that teaching practice occupies a key position in the programme of teacher education and that this is accumulating experience in teacher preparation. It provides opportunity to beginning teachers to become socialized into the profession. Aijaz (2009) further states that performance during teaching practice provides some basis for predicting the future success of the teacher.

Taneja (2000) states that a number of terms such as the practice teaching, student teaching, field studies, in field experience, school-based experience or internship are used to refer to teaching practice. Teaching practice embraces all the learning experiences of student teachers in schools. Teaching practice, according to Ashraf (1995), has three major connotations: the practicing of teaching skills and acquisition of the role of a teacher; the whole range of experiences that student go through in schools; and the practical aspects of the course as distinct from theoretical studies. Ashraf (1995) states that teaching practice is the name of the preparation of student teachers for teaching by practical training. It is the practical use of teaching methods, teaching strategies, teaching principles, teaching techniques and practical training and practice exercise of different activities of daily school life.

A majority of studies examining teaching practices do not look at a certain teaching practice but, rather, analyze the relationship between a teacher's evaluation score on a standard-based teacher evaluation system and student achievement. Most of these studies find that evaluation scores are correlated with student achievement. A similar result is found by Jacob and Lefgren (2008). The authors analyze the relationship between the school principal's evaluation of a teacher and the part of actual achievement gain students have because they are taught by this teacher. The different evaluation schemes measure a part of teacher quality. Nevertheless, when analysing the relationship between an evaluation score and student achievement, it is unclear which part of the evaluated practices is (most) important for the student outcome.

This problem also arises in some other studies that look at the impact of different categories of practices on student achievement. Smith *et al.* (2001) analyze if didactic or interactive teaching methods are more effective in teaching elementary school children. They find that interactive teaching is associated with higher gains in test scores. McGaffrey *et al.* (2001) and Cohen and Hill (2000) analyze if students have higher test scores in Maths if their teacher uses methods in accordance with a teaching reform promoted by the National Science Foundation. Again, didactic and interactive methods or reform-based and

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traditional practices are measured at an aggregated level encompassing different teaching practices. The authors estimate an effect of a teaching style but not of a single teaching practice.

Only a few studies have analyzed the impact of single teaching practices. Matsumura *et al.* (2002) look at the effect the quality of assignments has on student achievement. Using hierarchical linear modelling, they find that a small part of student test score variance can be predicted by assignment quality. The relationship among teaching practices and student teacher performance is also analyzed by Newmann *et al.* (2001). The authors found that more intellectually challenging practices are related to higher gains in student teacher performance. Wenglinsky (2000, 2002) uses multilevel structural equation modelling to analyze the impact of different teaching practices on student teacher performance. He found that the use of hands-on learning activities like solving real world problems and working with objects, an emphasis on thinking skills and frequent traditional testing of students, as well as individualized assessment through projects and portfolios are positively related to students' test scores, taking into account student background and prior performance. Some evidence for the effectiveness of frequent student assessment is also found by Kannapel *et al.* (2005): High-performing high-poverty schools in Kentucky paid more attention to student assessment than other high-poverty schools.

Bonesronning (2004) looks at a different aspect of student teacher assessment. He analyzed grading practices as they affected student-teacher's performance in Norway and found evidence that easy grading deteriorates student-teacher's performance. He estimated different specifications of education production functions for tenth grade students in Mathematics with data from the National Educational Longitudinal Study. They concluded that student teacher's behaviour is important in explaining their performance during teaching practice. Especially, he found that student background, prior performance and school and teacher characteristics, instruction in small groups and emphasis on problem solving led to lower student-teacher's performance.

Similarly, Brewer and Goldhaber (1997) analyze the effect of single teaching practice on student teacher's performance. But the analyzed practice is different from those of Brewer and Goldhaber (1997). As in Brewer and Goldhaber (1997), problem solving is included in the analysis but it is not taken as the mainly analyzed teaching practice. Instead, we look at the effect of spending time on lecture style presentation compared to time spent on problem solving. Since lecture style presentation and problem solving could be classified as belonging to different teaching styles, this study also explores to other literature that compares the effects of different teaching styles like Smith *et al.* (2001).

Literature describes the use of micro-teaching as a beneficial and accepted element of student teacher education. Micro-teaching experiences provide student teachers with a number of benefits: first, it exposes student teachers to the realities of teaching; second, it introduces student teachers to their roles as teachers (Amobi, 2005; Hawkey, 1995; Kpanja, 2001; Wilkinson, 1996); third, it helps them to see the importance of planning, decision making, and implementation of instruction (Gess-Newsome & Lederman, 1990); fourth, it enables them to develop and improve teaching skills (communication, public presentation, etc.) (Benton-Kupper, 2001; Wilkinson); and, finally, it helps them build their confidence for teaching (Brent & Thomson, 1996). Other than bringing about effective teaching skills, micro-teaching also inculcates the value of reflective practice to student teachers (Amobi; Benton-Kupper; Jerich, 1989; Wilkinson, 1996).

Some studies claim that student teachers who engage in micro-teaching are more receptive to feedback (Wilkinson, 1996) while others contend that microteaching encourages self-evaluation of self-perceptions and teaching behaviours (Brent & Thomson). For teacher educators, the implementation of micro-teaching into their courses enables both student teachers and themselves to engage in dialogue and discussion centred on making connections between theories of teaching and micro-teaching experiences (Brent & Thomson; Pringle, Dawson, & Adams, 2003). As an accepted element of student teacher education, micro-teaching has recently evolved from its traditional version to a number of modified versions within teacher education.

The comparison is made by examining the aim, format, evaluation strategies, feedback strategies and the outcomes that underscore the two versions. One similarity between the two versions is the process of evaluation. In both versions, evaluation of student teacher's micro-teaching performance by evaluators leads to the generation of feedback and this feedback is used by the student teacher to interpret his or her micro-teaching performance. The comparison also reveals two differences. First, there is a shift from a dependence on clinical supervisors as evaluators to a dependence on course instructors and peers as evaluators. Second, feedback from videotape playback is being replaced by feedback from oral, written, and feedback forms. These two recent trends can be attributed to financial and time constraints faced by teacher education programmes (Kpanja, 2001; Wilkinson, 1996). Regardless of the nature of evaluators, it is acknowledged that the process of evaluation and the resulting feedback are pertinent to the success of the student teacher's micro-teaching experiences (Amobi, 2005; Benton-Kupper, 2001; Wilkinson, 1996). Studies indicate that feedback serves as the "content for and quality of reflection" (Amobi: p. 116). This content enables student teachers to reflect on their micro-teaching experiences, leading to changes in self-perceptions and subsequent teaching behaviours (Amobi, 2005; Benton-Kupper, 2001; Wilkinson, 1996).

On the other hand, some studies claim that the generation of feedback for micro-teaching sessions needs evaluative criteria, especially when feedback is generated from peer evaluations. Benton-Kupper (2001) calls for feedback to be detailed, rather than general in nature. She described detailed feedback as being "supportive" and containing "constructive tips and suggestions that could be used to improve" student teachers' teaching.

2.1.4 Studies on Student Teacher Anxieties and Teaching Practice Related Factors

Morton, Vesco, Williams, and Awender (2007) investigate the nature of anxiety in student teachers as anxiety is an important consideration in teaching, with implications for classroom success. Approximately 1000 student teachers in Canada were involved in four

studies to explore teaching practice-related anxieties. Incorporating a cross-cultural focus, student teachers were tested on an anxiety measure designed for British student teachers, then examined for (1) the impact of practice teaching, (2) the value of instructional preparation, (3) demographic variables, and (4) models that predict anxiety. The results show that anxiety factors (i.e., evaluation, pedagogical, class management, and staff relations), similar to those for British participants, emerged with evaluation anxiety being highest. A practice teaching experience generated reduced anxiety for both sexes, but more so for females, with the greatest reductions for evaluation and pedagogical anxiety. In one study, participants reported anxieties prior to instruction (Pretest), following instruction (Post-Instr) and following practice teaching (Post-Teach).

Females showed higher anxiety ratings than males (Pretest and Post-Instr) but were comparable to males after practice teaching. Females in the lower grades division showed higher anxiety scores. Anxiety decreased between Pre-Test and Post-Instr for all four scales, and between Post-Instr and Post-Teach for evaluation, pedagogy and staff relations. However, class management anxiety did not decrease after practice teaching. Also, anxiety increased as placement grade level decreased. All models (demographic, experiential, and dispositional) were predictive but the best predictor was the psychological disposition to feel overwhelmed. It was concluded that student teacher's anxieties are related to demographic variables, experiential variables and dispositional variables.

Azizah, Wan Zakaria and Samat (2006) investigated the level of stress among teacher trainees in the University after they had gone for their teaching practice. This study focused on the level and causes of stress among these teacher trainees based on four factors: school's regulations, teaching workload, interpersonal relationships and problems with students. Results show that the teachers stress level is at a moderate level while the major causes of stress is the problem with students. In conclusion, although the results from this research reveal that the teacher trainees only endured a moderate level of stress, future teacher trainees should be taught on how to cope and handle stress from lecturers and Faculty before their teaching practice in order to avoid stress related problems. Generally, the

respondents seem to have moderate levels of stress during their teaching practice based on these four factors. However, there are 9.4 percent of the respondents who showed high stress level due to teaching workload factor and 3.1 percent of the respondents who endured high level of stress due to problems with students.

It seems possible that these results are due to factors that some teacher trainees still cannot handle the teaching workload. For example, the preparation for teaching and learning process, the preparation of materials while at the same time taking over the classes of absent teachers may be time consuming for them. Their time management may not be as efficient as that of experienced teachers and this may cause them to suffer from high level of stress. These situations may put pressure on them since they are still new to the teaching profession, lack experience and worry about evaluation to be done by their supervisor and cooperative teachers. Besides, problems with students can trigger stress among them as students nowadays are slightly rowdy and pay less respect to their teachers especially to new and less experienced teacher trainees.

The present findings seem to be consistent with other research by Helen, Benton-Kupper, & Jerich (2005). They found the main cause of stress among 35 teachers in one religious secondary school in Johor Bahru, in their work load, followed by school factors. Based on the result of this study, it seemed to confirm the findings by Cushing (2001). Cushing discovered that teachers experienced high level of stress when they are dealing with misbehaving students in schools. Besides, these findings also agree with Azizi and Nik Diana Hartika's (2007) findings that showed disciplinary problems among students becoming the main cause of stress among the teachers. However, the findings of this study do not support the study conducted by Nordin (2001), which located the main cause of stress experienced by student teachers in their scheme of work. The reason may be because as teacher trainees, they are not directly involved with many official works at school compared to in-service teachers. Besides, teacher trainees are only given 2 or 3 classes and

have less teaching hours compared to in-service teachers. They are not required to attend courses or other formal functions by the schools, which may reduce their stress level.

Harrow and Thomas (2004) investigate student teacher problems during practice teaching. Problem areas related to student teaching experiences were identified in their study. Weekly seminars for student teachers were held to collect data on specific problems. Fifty problems were identified and then rated according to severity by over 300 students. A correlation matrix was formed and a component analysis was performed. As a result, items were combined according to component loadings. The components were grouped to provide a factor base. Five scales were formed: administrative, discipline, student peer, motivation, and school policy. Specific problems were identified within each scale. The results emphasized that student teachers should be provided with relevant information concerning administrative functions, discipline of students, problems of student peer groups, motivation of students, and policies of the school and school system. It was recommended that these five main problem areas be included as guidelines for curriculum development in teacher preparation programmes.

Kpanj (2001) investigate the relationship between eight student teachers' participation and beliefs about their role as teachers in a reform-based Mathematics methods course and the ways they performed, believed, and imagined themselves as teachers of Mathematics in their internships and student teaching. The study was conducted in two schools in an urban setting. Data sources included lesson observations, field notes, interviews, and written reflections. Data analysis performed included domain analysis, grounded theory, and non-parametric statistical analysis. Results of a background study indicated that student teachers participated as students during Mathematics methods in ways that resisted, acknowledged, embraced and created the complexity of reformed-based teaching.

Scores on a performance observation framework and other qualitative data indicated that the student teachers in the four groups from Mathematics methods performed as teachers in internships and student teaching in ways that were significantly different from one another.

In addition, they perceived their role as teachers of Mathematics differently. The student teachers imagined themselves differently in relation to the classroom context, but no discernible patterns existed between the four groups and contextual factors. The findings suggest that student teachers make their own meanings of their participation in common experiences in Mathematics methods and teach in ways that reflect those meanings. The different meanings student teachers make can be understood as different entry points into the practice of reform-based teaching. Knowing the entry points and the paths to which they lead has practical implications for teacher educators as they make instructional decisions in methods, courses and policy implications for the structure of teacher education courses. Future research should help identify these paths and the experiences that help student teachers move along them.

Brent & Thomson; Pringle, Dawson, & Adams (2003) explore five minority student teachers' conceptions of teaching science and identifies the sources of their strategies for helping students learn science. Perspectives from the literature on conceptions of teaching science and on the role constructs used to describe and distinguish minority student teachers from their mainstream-white peers served as the framework to identify minority student teachers' instructional ideas, meanings, and actions for teaching science. Data included drawings, narratives, observations and self-review reports of micro-teaching and interviews. A thematic analysis of data revealed that the minority student teachers' conceptions of teaching science were a specific set of belief-driven instructional ideas about how science content is linked to home experiences, students' ideas, hands-on activities, about how science teaching must include group work and not be based solely on textbooks, and about how learning science involves the concept of all students can learn science, and acknowledging and respecting students' ideas about science. Implications for teacher educators include the need to establish supportive environments within methods and courses for minority student teachers to express their K-12 experiences, acknowledge and examine how these experiences shape their conceptions of teaching science, and to

recognize that minority student teachers' conceptions of teaching science reveal the multiple ways through which they see and envision science instruction.

Amobi (2005) examined individual stress management as a viable option to address stress in this profession. Specifically, Canadian teacher education programmes are examined to identify the prevalence of pre-service teacher education courses focused on individual stress management. In the light of the study's findings, the author presents a curriculum framework for the development of a course focused on individual stress management for pre-service teachers as a means to facilitate increased availability of such coursework in Canadian teacher preparation programmes. Fifty-four English (or bilingual) Canadian universities and/or colleges with teacher preparation programs were examined in the study. The majority of the universities and/or colleges housing these teacher preparation programmes were public institutions, with the minority being private entities. Many of these programmes contained multiple degree routes (e.g., elementary, intermediate/secondary). Of the programmes examined, five universities offered a course that maintained a major focus on individual stress management through their education programmes. Such coursework tended to be elective-based.

In addition, the majority of these courses maintained a heavy focus on physical fitness and exercise, some tending to be mainly directed toward physical education students. Coursework in this area also tended to have a health education focus. There were several universities that offered coursework in health and wellness areas (e.g., exercise, nutrition), most notably in physical education, health education, and counselling streams but that did not make stress management an explicit intentional focus (for 50% or more of such courses) within the course description and, thus, were not included. There were also a number of programmes that offered formal professional seminars to students with varying year-to-year topics. In addition, programmes also tended to offer students practical teaching opportunities in the form of internships, practical, student teacher days, observation days, etc.

Thus, it is possible that stress management topics could be potentially included in such seminars or practice teaching opportunities, though no evidence of this existed on programme websites offering such seminars and/or practice teaching opportunities. In addition, some programmes offered courses in areas such as effective communication, human relationships, personality and human development theories, and professional helping/counselling. However, these did not tend to emphasize stress management and, thus, such coursework was also not included. He concluded that student teacher anxiety is a significant issue facing the teaching profession. Teaching can be a stressful profession. The implications of such anxiety are significant for the individual teacher, his/her students, and the school system, as well as for society overall. Student teachers need ways to understand, prevent, identify, and address anxiety. Stress management interventions have been demonstrated as effective ways to address personal as well as occupational stress (Greenberg, 2011; Lapp & Attridge, 2000; Nassiri, 2005; Zude *et al.*, 2004). One way to ensure teachers obtain such skills is through the development of formal coursework within teacher preparation programmes that train students in stress management. As seen above, few Canadian education programmes contain courses that focus on individual stress management. Expanding coursework in this area has the potential to help equip pre-service teachers with critical skills that would assist them throughout their teaching careers.

Sadiq and Ahmed (2001) investigate the views of sixty-one female teacher trainees from the English Language Education Program in the Faculty of Education in the United Arab Emirates University (UAEU) regarding the micro-teaching component offered in two courses of English language teaching methods. A combination of quantitative and qualitative techniques was employed for the purpose of gathering the data. Mainly, a instrument and a focus group interview were used as the main tools for data collection. Overall analysis of the findings indicated that prospective teachers described a variety of benefits they gained from micro-teaching experiences. The study ended with recommendations and directions for future studies to further examine the highlighted results. They concluded that microteaching had been widely used in pre-service teacher

education programmes to enhance prospective teachers' instructional experiences. Within ELT programmes, the use of microteaching offers valuable opportunities for trainee-teachers to develop effective teaching strategies. Understanding the perceptions and concerns of student teachers is crucial for promoting teacher education programmes outcomes.

Murray-Harvey, Silins and Saebel (2009) examine a cross-cultural comparison of student concerns in the teaching practice. There is general consensus in the literature that students consider the practice to be a highly valued component of their teacher education degree. Nevertheless, there are wide ranging concerns reported by students relating to their teaching practice. This paper reports on these concerns in the form of a cross-cultural comparison of an Australian and a Singaporean sample of students. Singaporean and Australian students completing their first practice independently responded to a instrument based on the Survey of Teaching practice Stresses (D'Rozario & Wong, 1996). The psychometric properties of their 7-factor model were tested using the Australian data. This resulted in a 4-factor model, which was confirmed using structural equation procedures. Details of effective but under-employed analysis techniques are presented. This model was employed subsequently to provide cross-cultural comparisons of student concerns in the teaching practice. Significant differences between the stresses experienced by Singaporean and Australian students point to the need to understand student stress within a cultural context.

Al-Methan and Ebraheem, (2003) examine the merits of micro-teaching as perceived by student teachers at Kuwait University. A micro-teaching inventory was constructed utilizing the perceptions of 75 science student majors. Subsequently, the inventory was tested with another group of 67 student teachers. The findings of the study indicated that generally the student teachers agreed that micro-teaching has positive merits in (a) planning skills, (b) personality and (c) teaching competencies. A follow up study should be conducted on teachers in the real teaching environment in school. Stress experienced by

students in their practice has been reported in enough studies to indicate that it is not an isolated phenomenon. In order to maximize the benefits of the teaching practice for student teachers and for teacher educators, both need to address the concerns of students relating to their teaching practice experiences.

MacDonald (2003), along with other researchers into student teacher anxiety (Morton, Vesco, Williams, & Awender, 1997), confirm that while students regard the teaching practice as a valuable, if not the most valued, part of their teacher education programme, they also consider it to be the most stressful. The significance of identifying sources of student teacher stress lies in the evidence that stress affects teacher behaviour and this in turn reduces classroom effectiveness, particularly in relation to effects of lower pupil achievement and increased levels of pupil anxiety. Elkerton (1984) exhorts teacher educators to identify stresses associated with the practice and to assist students to effectively manage these stresses. Morton *et al.* (1997) points to the need to change the nature of the role of teacher and university supervisors from a more directive to a more collaborative one in order to reduce student stress connected to evaluation and assessment. Jeans and Forth (1995) also drew attention to the need to bridge the worlds of theory and practice in the design and implementation of pre-service teacher education programmes.

MacDonald (2001) identifies that sources of anxiety were mainly generated by inconsistencies in the way students were evaluated by teachers, varying expectations of student performance, conformity between teachers and marked variations in the quality of feedback given to students by their supervising teachers. Gender emerged as an issue in a research conducted by D'Rozario and Wong (1996) among student teachers in Singapore, and by Morton *et al.* (1997). It was reported in both studies that females generally find the practice experience more stressful than males. At a more general level, Bowers, Eichner, and Sacks (1982) suggest that teacher preparation had not paid enough attention to the psychological 'readiness' of student teachers by concentrating more on methodology and

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less on preparing students to cope with the inevitable anxieties and stresses associated with students' roles, relationships and responsibilities of teaching.

In the literature on the practice that reports on student teacher concerns, stresses, and anxieties, only Morton *et al.* (1997) were found to have adopted a cross-cultural focus. They noted that differential reactions to stressors are likely to be a function of variables such as personality, sex, and culture. Thus, male and female student teachers may respond differently to the specific stressors of the teaching experience. Similarly, student teachers in one country may differ in perceived stressors from student teachers in another country. These authors posited that variables including teacher status, teacher income, teacher demand, and teacher stress could account for differences between cultures in student teachers' cognitive appraisals of and anxieties about their school experience. Their cross-cultural research involved a factor analysis of data from Canadian student teachers who completed Hart's Student Teacher Anxiety Scale (STAS) to compare the anxieties of the Canadian students with the British students who provided the data for Hart's original factor analysis. Hart's analysis produced four anxiety factors which were labelled Evaluation Anxiety, Pupil and Professional Concerns, Class Control, and Teaching Practice Requirements. Morton *et al.* (1997) also reported a 4-factor solution; their factors were called Evaluation Anxiety, Pedagogical Anxiety, Classroom Management Anxiety, and Staff Relations Anxiety. Both Canadian and British students were most anxious about evaluation. Given the many features common to the two cultures (language, history, curriculum, politics), the similarities observed between the groups were hardly surprising. However, the writers were not prepared for the finding that "evaluation anxiety appears to be paramount regardless of country.

During the analysis of data in another study on student teacher anxiety during a teaching practice (Murray-Harvey, Slee, Lawson, Silins, Banfield, & Russell, 1999) that employed the Survey of Practice Stresses (D'Rozario & Wong, 1996), marked differences emerged between the teaching practice concerns of teacher education students in Singapore and

Australia. This led us to research the concerns about the teaching practice held by students in other different cultural contexts. In their study, stress was understood to involve the students' perceptions of demands on them (expressed concerns) associated with the teaching teaching practice. Compared with Australia, Singapore has a highly centralized system of education. Schools are for the teaching of a national curriculum to pupils, not for reducing or solving society's ills or achieving gender equality (Wong, Chiew, Gopinathan, & D'Rozario, 1998). Pupils in Singapore's primary schools are streamed at grades 4 and 6 into different curriculum tracks according to ability. They also sit a national examination for promotion from primary to secondary school. Most schools are co-educational and most are neighbourhood schools. Class sizes are comparatively large (35-44 pupils). Overall, this means that student teachers work in schools that are relatively homogenous. The curriculum is prescribed and timetables are fixed.

In Australia, despite efforts towards a national curriculum, individualism persists and even within the Australian States, schools vary in the ways they work with curriculum guidelines to reflect their own community's particular needs. Thus, the context in which student teachers practise is likely to be much more variable than it is for Singaporean students. Adaptability and flexibility are regarded by the cooperating teachers as positive attributes of their student teachers. Student teachers need to manage a continually changing timetable; pupil movement in and out of the classroom to attend, for example, specialized music, enrichment, specific needs, or language programmes; and within the classroom – parent involvement (especially in the early years), and visitors. Class sizes are typically around 30 pupils but are increasing. As in Singapore, primary children generally attend a local, co-educational school.

Wong *et al.* (1998) suggests that teaching in Singapore is not a high status occupation. So, attracting capable entrants is difficult. Likewise, in Australia teaching does not command high status. Entrants to Education degrees generally achieve scores comparable with those of the generalist BA and BSc degrees. Similarly, in Singapore and Australia, other

specialized qualifications enjoy higher rates of return. Another common feature of the two cultures is the relatively stable political environment. Probably the greatest contrast between the environments in which our student teachers practise their teaching is the more formal, centralized, and regulated system in Singapore. The corresponding frequencies for each of the 29 items were then submitted to a series of analyses to determine the relationship between country of origin and the degree of perceived stress. The result was a significant link between the two dimensions for 25 of the 29 items. The r's for these 25 items ranged from 6.40 ($p<.05$) to 175.80 ($p<.001$). There was no statistically significant difference $r^2 (2) = 0.04$, NS); Delivering the lesson ($r^2 (2) = 1.33$; NS); and Managing seatwork ($r^2 (2) = 5.62$, NS).

A further analysis employing a series of one-sample *t* tests for each of the 29 SPS items produced an additional significant difference between the two samples for the item Managing seatwork ($M_{Aust} = 1.49$, $M_{Sing} = 1.61$, $t(299) = -3.51$, $p<.001$). Furthermore, as expected, there were 25 items for which Singaporean students reported greater level of concern than Australian students. A notable difference between the groups was the high level of concern indicated by Australian students in striking a balance between the teaching practice and personal commitments. This was a significantly greater concern for Australian students than for Singaporean students and this was the only item in the survey on which there was significantly greater concern reported by Australian students ($M_{Aust} = 2.05$, $M_{Sing} = 1.91$, $t(303) = 2.79$, $p<.01$). It was further revealed that of most concern to Singaporean students were Workload and Lesson Planning, items that were ranked as stressful most or all of the time by over 60% of this group. Workload was regarded as a stressful activity for the Australian students also, ranked as the second highest concern. For the Australian sample, High Expectations of Teaching Performance was the concern held by the highest percentage of students most/all of the time. For both groups, Being Observed and Evaluated by their University Supervisor, Managing Time, Managing and Enforcing Discipline, and Managing Teaching practice-Related Assignments, were all reported as events of concern.

Of least concern to Singaporean students were the following items: Communicating with and relating to the Principal/Vice-Principal, Communicating with and Relating to Teachers in the School, and Establishing Rapport with Students. Over half the sample reported that these events never stressed them. Other events that generated low levels of concern were Teaching Mixed Ability Classes, Communicating with and relating to the Cooperating Teacher, and Dealing with Pupils' Learning Difficulties. Similarly, for Australian student teachers, least concern was reported for Relating to the Principal/Vice-Principal, and to Teachers in the School. Among the other events generating low levels of concern were relating to their Cooperating Teacher, Establishing Rapport with Pupils and relating to the Supervisor.

At least, half of the Singaporean students experienced stress at least some of the time for 25 of the 29 teaching practice-related experiences identified in the survey. For the Australian sample, at least of half of the students reported being stressed at least some of the time for 22 of the 29 teaching practice-related experiences. In broad terms, events involving interpersonal interactions within the school setting were of least concern to both groups of students. The events that generally caused concern were associated with preparation tasks and with being observed and evaluated. The Singaporean and Australian findings support those of Morton *et al.* (1997) who used Hart's Student Teacher Anxiety Scale (STAS). In their study, Canadian students' anxiety related to being evaluated supports both the Singaporean and the Australian student concerns and, according to Morton *et al.*, is consistent with Hart's finding of student teachers in Great Britain where evaluation anxiety received the highest ratings (Morton *et al.*, 1997).

The Survey of Teaching practice Stresses (SPS) (D'Rozario & Wong, 1996) was used originally to examine areas of anxiety experienced by first-year Singaporean teacher education students and was the instrument selected for our own research purposes. A preliminary investigation of the psychometric properties of D'Rozario & Wong's (1996) Survey of Teaching practice Stresses did not find support in the South Australian data for

their 7-factor model. Further analysis found support for a 4-factor model. We surmise that the different models reflect differences in the way Australian and Singaporean students conceptualize their role as teacher. In Singapore, the emphasis on curriculum prescription, national exams, and large classes suggests an expectation that the teacher's role is to focus student learning on academic achievement; teaching conceptualized quite clearly as instruction. In contrast, beyond developing the intellectual capacities of their students, Australian teachers find themselves accountable for the emotional, physical and mental well-being of their students. Within a very varied Australian education system, teachers also are increasingly expected to be responsive to their school community's expectations. In Australia, it would be difficult to separate out the teaching role from the helping role. This would explain why Australian students conceptualize their teaching role as both teaching and helping and why Singaporean student teachers differentiate between these two roles. This is evident in the way the Australian subscale Teaching combines the Singaporean helping items with their Teaching and Managing items to form an integrated subscale.

The Australian model also integrates students' relationship concerns with evaluation concerns in the school context as well as in the university context. This integration is consistent with the integration that occurs for both the Australian University Evaluation and Singaporean Supervisor subscales. These subscales combine the supervisor relationship concerns with supervisor's evaluation concerns. However, the Singaporean model for the school evaluation context separates out the colleagues' relationships concerns, resulting in two subscales, namely, Cooperating Teacher and New Colleagues. These two subscales indicate that Singaporean concerns are strongly associated with school evaluation issues, as well as relationships with school staff and the principal. On the other hand, Australian students' concerns in the school context are mostly associated with the cooperating teachers' observation and evaluation of them. Teacher and principal relationships were very much lesser concerns for Australian teacher education students. We suggest that a greater relational distance in Singapore between principals and students,

teachers and principals, and students and teachers is reflected in the differences between the factors produced in the two models.

Another difference in the underlying structure of Singaporean and Australian student responses worth noting is that of the prevalent concerns of the Australian students in preparation. Compared with the prevalent concerns of the Singaporean students in overall performance and workload, identified as their current level of competence, preparing resources for lessons and writing detailed lesson plans, Australian students include time management and balance concerns. The latter refers to balancing the demands on their time of the teaching practice with the demands of their family or personal lives. For Australian students, competence and preparing resources for lessons are secondary concerns to the pressures of workload, detailed lesson plan writing, time and balance demands. Again, we believe that such differences reflect the cultural and education system differences in the two countries, particularly, the strong focus of the Singaporean education system on content, exams, and achieving results.

D'Rozario and Wong (1996), based on item analyses of the percentage of students in the two samples who reported the extent to which they were stressed by a range of teaching practice experiences, Singaporean students appear to experience significantly higher levels of stress on teaching practice than Australian students in most areas. However, in both contexts students reported that they were most concerned by much the same events – coping with the workload, high personal expectations of performance and being observed and evaluated by their supervisor. In all these cases, a significantly higher percentage of Singaporean students reported being stressed most/all of the time. Among the items of most concern for Australian students (but not for Singaporean students) was striking a balance between the teaching practice and personal commitments.

In Australia, the students who now comprise the student population bring with them varied life experiences and a range of other competing interests, including work and family responsibilities that need to be balanced with achieving their goal of becoming teachers.

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The different student profiles in the two countries are likely to account for this. The events that concerned students least were also similar for both student samples. Communicating and Relating to the Principal/Vice-Principal, the student's Cooperating Teacher, Other Teachers in the School, and Establishing Rapport with Pupilswere all items that the highest percentage of Singaporean and Australian students identified as having never stressed them.

In summary, preparation and evaluation items generated most stress while interpersonal relationship items were the least stressful in both cultural contexts. We suspect that Singaporean students' higher overall levels of concern reflect their more examination-oriented culture. It is also likely that the level of formality in Singapore that exists in relationships between teachers and pupils, and between student teachers and their supervisors, may provide less room for risk-taking and increase performance anxiety. In Australia, conceptualizing helping as part of a teacher's role may actually permit the development of more informal, closer relationships between students and their cooperating teachers (and supervisors), and so reduce the interpersonal concerns that are clearly much greater in Singapore.

Similarly, pressures to meet highly structured curriculum expectations and to work within a rigid timetable may partly explain the generally higher levels of concern of student teachers in Singapore. The different cultural contexts may also help to explain differences in the finding on the Singaporean and Australian research between male and female student teachers (D'Rozario and Wong, 1996). The factor that the student teachers most commonly linked to effective instruction was student participation. Approximately 77% of those who described an effective instructional experience included aspects connected with student participation. Their responses reflect the principle that facilitating student learning involves more than placing students in educative environments, proficient teachers must motivate students and engage them actively in learning (NBPTS, 1999).

The student teachers recounted various strategies for involving students, highlighting the use of manipulatives, visual representation, regalia, games, and hands-on activities. They described, for instance, how "almost every single student in the class participated in some way," how students were "engaged in the lesson because they were part of the lesson," and how hands-on activities were "engaging and accessible to diverse learners." Some student teachers took a different approach from their master teachers to promote student engagement. With the master teacher's support, another student teacher "threw the book out" and "brought in visual presentations and hands-on experiments" in order to teach science.

Approximately 69% of the student teachers who highlighted the importance of student engagement identified it, in and of itself, as the reason the lesson was successful and failed to make a link to student understanding. This group of student teachers talked about how students enjoyed the activities, listened attentively, showed enthusiasm, and had fun, but the teachers failed to mention student learning. Although student engagement aids both instruction and classroom management, their reasoning overlooks the notion that classroom activities can be engaging without leading to student learning. Wiggins and McTighe (2005) point out that a common problem of activity-oriented design is that engaging experiences may "lead only accidentally, if at all, to insight or achievement" (p. 16). Activities may be fun and interesting for students but have little or no intellectual value; that is, they often are "hands-on without being minds-on" (p. 16).

Wiggins and McTighe (2005) reported that approximately 30% of the student teachers who described effective instructional experiences mentioned student learning or understanding in their rationales. However, the majority made a simple reference to the fact that students learned. Only about a third offered a more detailed explanation about student understanding. These student teachers discussed factors such as building on students' prior knowledge, connecting to students' experiences, checking for understanding, and addressing needs of all learners. A student teacher in a 2nd-grade dual-immersion

classroom described checking for understanding by giving students miniature clocks and asking them to place the minute and our hands on the correct numbers as she gave them specific times. The hands-on activity involved all students and made it easy "to verify which students were having difficulties with the lesson." Another teacher described a Maths lesson and how she used a variety of visual and hands-on strategies such as bringing in objects from the environment and building geometric shapes from toothpicks and gumdrops. She pointed out that students "really enjoyed the lesson and were engaged the whole time," and she then discussed how she attempted to address the needs of multiple learners and checked for student learning within the activity itself.

In a lesson on human disturbances in nature, a teacher implemented a lab that modelled a real-life situation from Puget Sound, an inland complex of waterways from the Pacific Ocean. In describing why the lesson was effective, she mentioned the hands-on nature of the activity but primarily emphasized student learning that resulted from the lab. In these cases, the student teachers identified student engagement as important but also considered factors that demonstrated student understanding in explaining why the lesson was effective. However, in another case, the teacher acknowledged a lack of student understanding yet still viewed the lesson as effective. Teaching a unit on money, she implemented a system for students to earn money and make purchases from a classroom store. She described students' active engagement and their interest in learning about money and spending their coins. Despite the fact that many students did not perform well on the unit assessment, she concluded that "a foundation had been built" and that the experience would "entice them to learn more about the subject matter." She recognized that student understanding is the primary goal and that she lacked evidence of it. Yet given students' high level of participation and engagement, she decided that she would teach this unit in the same way again (Wiggins and McTighe, 2005).

Similarly, D'Rozario and Wong (1996) found a small percentage of the student teachers, less than 5%, described restructuring a lesson to address student confusion and increase

understanding. While this typically involved making a change after reflecting on classroom practice, a few student teachers described what Schon (1983) refers to as "reflecting-in-action." They analyzed the situation while teaching and made on-the-spot decisions to change plans. One student teacher, for example, risked deviating from her master teacher's directions in order to explore a topic stemming from a high school student's question. The master teacher had instructed the student teacher to "get through as much [material] as possible and keep the discussion on track." But when a student asked a question "that didn't exactly relate to the primary source documents," the student teacher opted to explain the origins and significance of the Black Panther movement. She would do it again "because listening to the students, validating their thoughts and questions is important, and it improved my relationship with them and helped the rest of our discussion."

According to D'Rozario and Wong (1996), teaching in schools that emphasized standards-based curriculum and instruction, the student teachers frequently expressed the need to align their teaching with the standards and to cover established curriculum during a set time frame. In class discussions, they described the emphasis on content standards and accompanying tests, and when planning lessons, they focused on developing plans to address specific objectives and standards. In some schools, they encountered pacing guides, scripted lessons, and instructional time requirements. Despite this widespread focus on standards, only a minority of the student teachers, when asked to describe an effective teaching experience, mentioned in their rationale that their instructional activity met required standards. Only one person referred to objectives and standards as the sole reason the lesson was successful. They apparently recognized the emphasis on aligning instruction with content standards, but, at the same time, appreciated that effective teaching involves more than covering the content.

Approximately 53% of the responses about ineffective experiences focused on instructional approaches that didn't work. Lack of student engagement emerged as a key issue; student teachers often proposed that their instruction had "too much direct teaching"

and not enough "hands-on activity." For instance, one person recalled teaching a science lesson "based solely on reading out of a textbook and following along by filling out a worksheet." Another taught a scripted spelling lesson in which the students would "re-write the spelling words on separate lines in a different order than they appeared in the book." Besides not enjoying these types of activities, students didn't grasp the key ideas. The teachers found that their selected instructional strategies often lacked depth or failed to provide concrete examples, and consequently hindered both engagement and their students' ability to conceptualize particular concepts. But simply including hands-on activities did not ensure either student interest or student understanding.

A student teacher in a 1st-grade class opted to use a hands-on instructional strategy that had worked effectively the day before but discovered the students "got bored very quickly." "They didn't want to measure boring school objects with their (centimetre) rulers because they had the skill from the day before (when they had measured objects with inch rulers." In a different class, the teacher had students create lines, line segments, and angles with pieces of yarn. When examining their work, she thought the students understood the concepts; "however, when they applied the concepts to paper, it didn't transfer!" Another teacher involved students in creating three dimensional figures from clay. They not only "spent too much time creating the figures" but also "didn't create the figures perfectly so they couldn't find the edges, vertices, and face," which undermined the main purpose of the lesson. A strategy that proved ineffective due to implementation issues was group work. In retrospect, the teachers noted problems with group size and composition, individual roles and participation, the product, and students' preparation to work cooperatively.

Other instructional strategies lacked effectiveness because they failed to connect with students' experiences. For example, a student teacher in a class of English Language Learners discovered that students had "miserable" scores on spelling/vocabulary tests even after she used varied instructional strategies and devoted ample time to the selected words during the week. After analyzing the situation, she suggested that the process of asking

students to listen to the target word, spell it, and define it was problematic because they needed to learn the words "in context and through association and daily personal use." Another teacher discussed students' mistakes in skills such as addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, and proposed using more real-world mathematics to help them see applications and reasons for learning these skills.

In describing instructional approaches that didn't work, the student teachers pointed out how their selected strategies had led to student confusion, had not been effective for all students, or had been too difficult for the class. In some cases, they identified the problem but did not have clear ideas about how to teach the lesson differently. For instance, a teacher described being well prepared with multiple examples to teach a lesson on abstract nouns, but students could not grasp the concept and understand how something other than a concrete object--a person, place, or thing--could be a noun. She and the students struggled through the lesson, and the students' subsequent work confirmed their misunderstanding. But in recounting the incident, the teacher offered no alternative instructional strategies.

In most cases, when the teachers recognized student misunderstanding and identified problems with their instructional approach, they also proposed ways to alter their teaching. Their suggestions reflected their assessment of what went wrong and included ideas such as giving more explicit instructions, breaking down concepts into smaller components, conducting pre-assessments, offering step-by-step explanations, or doing more modelling. For example, a student teacher taught a lesson on finding the area of a three-dimensional cube and "made the mistake of trying to explain the concept using the book." Reflecting on students' confusion, she suggested that it would have been better to use an actual cube and demonstrate how to determine the length, width, and height and then calculate the area. Teaching a geometry unit in an elementary class, another teacher encountered "a sort of mind block" with the students: "no matter how I seemed to present information regarding geometric figures, the students did not get it. I tried using several strategies including

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verbal and visual instruction. Looking back I believe it was the academic language that had created a barrier in student learning. If I were to teach the lesson again, I would spend much more time explaining new vocabulary using strategies like association. As she described, her reflection-in-action and her attempts at alternate strategies failed to help students understand the concepts. Upon further reflection, she concluded that the problem was not the particular strategies but rather the language being used.

D'Rozario and Wong (1996) reports that approximately 17% of the responses about ineffective instruction involved issues relating to knowledge of students. Most commonly, the student teachers misjudged students' abilities and prior knowledge. For example, they assumed that students could use procedures such as addition and multiplication, understood how to read timelines, had experience counting coins, or knew about the American Revolution. In some kindergarten classrooms, they discovered that students didn't know their own birthdays, didn't have the small muscle skills to work with certain items, or didn't have the self-discipline not to eat the experiment materials. In a 9th-grade Biology class, a student teacher assumed students had particular mathematical skills and implemented an activity about measuring blind spots: "I wanted students to use mathematical concepts most were not equipped to use; I didn't give them enough background knowledge or practice. I rushed through, not wanting to invest the time. Most students were lost, confused, resentful, or bored," (p.123).

After reflecting on these types of classroom experiences, the student teachers realized that their students needed more background knowledge, more explicit directions, more modelling or more individual assistance. A teacher in a 10th-grade world history class asked students to analyze Cold War primary sources during class. His objective "was to have the students analyze, evaluate, and synthesize information from the documents in order to get an idea of U.S. foreign policy." But he found that "the language of the documents was too difficult, and my students were only capable of gleaning a simplistic and biased perspective without my help." If he had to teach the lesson again, he would

define more vocabulary, allow more time with the documents, and "possibly provide a handout with simple questions to get the student to begin thinking about the documents."

In a bilingual 2nd-grade class, the student teacher knew students had limited English and Spanish vocabulary, so she reviewed some vocabulary before reading a book in Spanish. But she had misjudged the extent of their knowledge and their ability to retain meanings of the words from a quick review. She reported that "students did not have a clue what the story was about because of the vocabulary" and determined that she "would not consider reading something that was so difficult for my students again." In a contrasting situation, another teacher underestimated students' abilities: "At first, I did not really know all of the students and I opted to not use any activities with manipulatives for fear of the class not being able to handle them. This caused the majority of the students to be disengaged and not really grasping the concept."

In some cases, student teachers struggled with how to offer differentiated instruction to meet a range of student needs. They often discovered that more advanced students were bored and needed to be challenged. In one embarrassing situation, a teacher was "instructing a beginning choir class at the high school on a work in Latin." He "called on a student to read part of the translation, yet she refused to respond." Later, he learned she was a Special Education student who could not read the complex translation and suggested that he could have prevented the situation by "being more prepared for differentiated instruction." In all of these situations, student teachers' insufficient knowledge of students led to ineffective instructional approaches. In reflecting on what went wrong, they recognized that their own lack of understanding contributed to their students' misunderstanding.

Another problem, described by D'Rozario and Wong (1996) as applying to approximately 17% of those who wrote about ineffective instruction, was insufficient planning and preparation. For example, the student teachers failed to adequately plan the lesson, lacked the necessary materials, or didn't consider procedures. In a Maths lesson about weight and

differentiating between heavy and light objects, one teacher relied primarily on direct teaching. In retrospect, she acknowledged that she failed to plan obvious learning activities, such as having students weigh different objects using an actual scale, and failed to gather necessary materials in advance. Another student teacher described a sequence of problematic events that resulted from insufficient preparation: "That day, I was running around making copies of the presentation. This then made me late to the classroom. When I looked at the copies, they were not complete. I also had the projector and the overhead on at the same time. The setting of the classroom made it difficult to display both of these devices. I found that I was constantly giving my back to the students" (p. 125).

In another class, students worked with fraction circles in a lesson on mixed numbers. When checking their work, the teacher discovered that some circles had missing pieces; so, she kept students in from recess to search for them. Later, she learned that because she hadn't checked the materials in advance, she had provided incomplete sets, thus undermining the effectiveness of the activity and setting up a situation in which she erroneously blamed the students. Similarly, in a science unit on plants, a teacher planned an activity using a worksheet from a resource book and purchased seed packets. She reported that "the lesson was going great until I had 32 students coming up to me asking 'How do I find out how much water or sun my seeds need to grow?" As their confusion increased, she realized that "the seed packets I purchased did not contain all of the information that the worksheet asked for." Uncomfortable classroom situations highlighted the need for adequate preparation even with scripted lessons. One person who taught a scripted Math lesson admitted, "I wasn't prepared and had to stall during the lesson to learn what I was supposed to be teaching! It was horrible." Across classrooms, student confusion coupled with the teachers' discomfort led to a common conclusion: "I will never be that ill-prepared again!"

According to D'Rozario and Wong (1996), approximately 8% of responses about ineffective instruction focused on decisions the teachers made in response to time

pressures. For example, student teachers reported that they rushed through material, attempted "to cram all of the information into one lecture," and decided to lecture rather than use models or manipulatives. Due to limited time, they resorted to coverage, which Wiggins and McTighe (2005) describe as one of the twin sins of traditional design, but later realized that it hindered student understanding. The press for time resulted from factors including inexperience in lesson planning, school assemblies and other interruptions, and school or district pacing guides. Some teachers dropped planned activities such as review, modeling, and guided practice, but their adjustments proved counterproductive by leading to student confusion and a need to re-teach. As one teacher noted, "It was so bad [that] I re-did the lesson the next week," spending time that could have been used in other ways.

In other cases, the teachers didn't alter plans, but instead attempted to complete all planned activities. As one teacher stated, she "had all of these good ideas on how to enhance the lesson" and rushed through the activities, but later realized that "it would have been much more effective if I had split it up into two or three separate lessons." One student teacher, who finally secured a one-hour block of time to teach a science lesson in an elementary classroom, incorporated a variety of teaching strategies but later acknowledged that "even though the lesson was interesting to students, there was too much information and ... the students did not benefit much from it." As happened with others, she ended up having to re-teach some concepts. But some teachers couldn't alter their schedules to re-teach. For instance, a teacher who was required to follow the district pacing schedule described her frustration when she realized students did not understand the concept and she "could not go back and re-teach" the next day after finding an alternative strategy. Instead, she "had to move on knowing they didn't understand." Another student teacher wanted "to include more hands-on activities and try to spend more time on each lesson to ensure that students were grasping concepts and were really ready to move on to the next level," but she was required to teach one Mathematics lesson from the book each day.

Wiggins and McTighe (2005) reports that approximately 5% of the responses about ineffective instruction focused on issues relating to insufficient subject matter knowledge. In some cases, student teachers lacked knowledge about a particular topic, leading to situations such as using the wrong terminology in a Maths lesson, doing a sample problem the wrong way, or trying to teach themselves the material while simultaneously teaching the students. As one person wrote, "I was trying to do something that I wasn't comfortable or confident about doing because I was supposed to do it just like my master teacher. Much of the content of the lesson was foreign to me." One student teacher simply skipped a lesson on phonemic awareness when she realized that she didn't know how to sound out some of the words. After attempting to teach about the first American Industrial Revolution to 8th-grade students, another teacher recounted, "I had very little experience with the topic and my students knew it. They could smell 'blood in the water.' The lesson was a total disaster." Looking back over the incidents, the student teachers recognized that their own lack of knowledge hindered student understanding.

One high school teacher proposed that his students' lack of understanding extended throughout the year: "My biggest failure would be teaching my students how to find roots of a polynomial. I got confused, and my students got confused and I had to start all over, but my kids had given up and it was just a mess. I now know that I could have approached the problem differently by working backwards or showing the graphs of the functions ... my students are still not strong in that area" (p. 128). Without sufficient subject matter knowledge, student teachers discovered that their instructional decisions proved ineffective due to their own lack of understanding. Also, only 12% of the student teachers focused on classroom management when describing a teaching experience they would handle the same way again.

Approximately 54% of those responses involved an incident with a particular student, and 46% focused on procedures or strategies. They explained, for example, how management procedures worked as intended or how they implemented new procedures or routines in

response to a specific classroom situation. In some cases, the teachers sensed that students were testing them, and by following through with established procedures, the student teachers reinforced their classroom authority and prevented ongoing behaviour problems. As one student teacher explained, "I let them know that my expectations of them were just as high as or higher than their other teacher and I will enforce the rules that I had established." In describing incidents with a particular student, the student teachers highlighted how they handled the issue in an appropriate, consistent, and sensitive manner. For example, they explained how they stayed calm, took into account the particular student's needs, and talked with students in private.

Approximately 18% of responses about ineffective classroom management focused on a lack of policies or rules. The student teachers commented on the need to have "clear expectations and consequences set up before I taught" and "my set of rules so the students wouldn't try to manipulate me would have eliminated confusion and debate." A student teacher in a kindergarten class acknowledged: "During the beginning of my teaching experience, I was so overwhelmed and intimidated that the effectiveness of my lessons was shadowed by my lack of control." In approximately 35% of the responses about ineffective classroom management, student teachers had plans in place, but described problems with their own actions, such as failing to follow their established rules, losing their temper, or making empty threats. They described regret about not only aggressive actions, such as responding "with a kind of sarcastic question" or getting so frustrated that they "screamed really loud and got really upset," but also passive actions such as deciding "to talk over the noise" or ignoring "i-pod or cell phone use" or acting like "a friend instead of a teacher." They realized that, instead of eliminating problems, their actions often created more problems (Wiggins and McTighe (2005).

In 25% of the ineffective classroom management responses, student teachers described management issues with the class, such as students talking, not paying attention, or being disruptive. One person realized that when the equipment malfunctioned, she "let my students' criticism get to me," and "turned red, began stuttering and stumbling." The

student teachers pointed out ways to handle the issues differently, including being prepared with alternative teaching activities, preparing students to properly use materials, and keeping disagreements from escalating. In some situations, the student teachers suggested that they erred by disrupting instruction and involving the entire class in a management issue that centered on a few students. For example, several teachers had all of the students begin searching for items that one student reported missing. In other cases, teachers regretted not taking advantage of a "teachable moment" to address topics such as name calling or racist remarks. Approximately 17% of the teachers who described classroom management problems focused on incidents with a particular student, such as a defiant, confrontational student or one frustrated about grades. For example, one person described an incident as a substitute teacher: "I lost my temper in a 7th-grade classroom and called a student 'pathetic.' While the student did need discipline, I acted on pure emotion and adrenaline. This 'outburst' did not teach the student anything except that she could provoke me," (p. 128).

In another class, a student teacher spent a significant portion of time trying to reason with an argumentative student as other students became restless. Thinking back on the incident, she noted, "I took 20 minutes of my students' time to argue with a student" instead of "telling the student to stay after class or discuss any further questions with me later." These incidents with a single student prompted the teachers to consider issues of power and authority. One teacher contended that the student teacher role contributes to classroom management issues. A less common situation, identified in only 5% of responses about ineffective classroom management, also related to authority. Student teachers described intervention or actions by the master teacher.

For example, a master teacher reversed a student teacher's decision to place a student in "time-out" and the student teacher wished she had spoken up "about her supporting my decisions and not undermining my authority in class." In another case, a master teacher yelled, from across the room, at a student who had volunteered to lead the class but then felt reticent to talk. The student teacher, who was attempting to handle the situation differently, felt she "could not speak up" in opposition to the master teacher's actions. The

student teachers who focused on classroom management in their descriptions of effective and ineffective teaching experiences revealed a concern about classroom management but not a lack of awareness. They demonstrated an ability to recognize the problem, to analyze what went wrong, and upon reflection, to propose alternative strategies (Wiggins and McTighe, 2005).

| **Demographic Characteristics**

Level, Class Taught, Course Combination, Subject, Sex, Age, Teaching Practice Location |

| **Performance indicators**

- Lesson plan/Workload
- Presentation/Instruction
- Class Management
- Communication Skills
- Evaluation
- Teacher Personality |

| **Anxiety Sources**

- Teaching confidence
- Content Mastery
- Being Observed
- Other Student Teacher
- Relating to Students
- Classroom Management
- Lesson Effectiveness
- Lesson Presentation
- Supervision Anxiety
- Teaching as Career Choice |

2.2 Conceptual Framework Showing the Relationship Between Anxiety Sources and Performance Indicators in the Study

The conceptual framework is shown in Fig 2.2. The figure suggests that anxiety variables will provide some explanations for performance of the student teachers during teaching practice. That is, teaching confidence, fear about content mastery, reactions of the presence of other student teacher while being observed, as well as the presence and participation other teachers and students may provide some explanation for quality of lesson plan, and quality of presentation/instruction by the students. Performance could

further be explained by the student teachers' relationship with students and classroom management issues. The figure shows further that there exists a relationship between the demographic characteristics of the student teachers and their performance during teaching practice. Student teachers' age, class taught, course combination, subject, sex and age at different times and circumstance may explain lesson quality of lesson plan, presentation/instruction by the students. They also could explain class management, communication skills, and evaluation and teacher personality qualities. Figure 2.1 also suggests that demographic variables have some influence on anxiety among the respondents. Hence, whether a student teacher will be confused, master content, respond negatively while being observed, or manage class well might be factors that the students' personal background could explain.

2.1.5   Student-Teachers and Teaching Performance

According to Bolarinwa (2010), education remained the bedrock of every society. Therefore, any nation that taps with education is definitely sitting on a key of gunpowder and this is bound to explode. For the goals of education to be achieved in a nation, Bolarinwa (2010) stressed that the principal actor of learning is the teacher. This is becomes a reality through effective teaching and pleasant learning as basic means to nurture productive citizens. The multidinous professional roles and qualities of the teachers blend to make up an effective teacher. Bolarinwa (2010) believeed that when a good teacher brings his/her abilities and visions for a better society to bear on his/her teaching, he/she shall become a unique, responsive professional who would continually see himself/herself accountable for the educational progress and failure of their entrusted youths.

Ehidero (2004) seed teaching as one of the most influential professions in society. In their day-to-day work, teachers can and do make differences to children's lives directly, through the curriculum they teach, and indirectly, through their behavior, attitude, values, relationships with and interest in pupils. According to Kappoun (2006) good teachers are

always optimistic about what their pupils can achieve, whatever their background or circumstances. They know from experience how pupils respond to success by succeeding further. Kappan (2006) pointed out, however, that teaching involves more than care, mutual respect, and well-placed optimism. It demands knowledge and practical skills, the ability to make informed judgments, and to balance pressure and challenges, practice and creativity, interest and effort, as well as an understanding of how children learn and develop.

Oyekan (2000) asserted that teaching in a noble profession that calls for the highest degree of responsibility. It is a creative, intellectually demanding, and rewarding job, so the standard for joining the profession must be high too. Skilled practitioners can make teaching look easy, but they have learned their skill and improved them through training practice, evaluation and learning from their colleagues. According to Awoniyi (1991), a professional teacher with creative imagination for nurturing health and responsible citizenry could also become a respectable scholar, administrator and a good human being. Hence teaching should be professionalized with necessary infrastructure and laws to give it the honour and dignity it deserves. Awoniyi (1991) stateed that this is informed by the fact that functional education is a potent tool to inject competent man power resources into the economy its improve the general well-being of the populace.

Many psychologists and educators have identified different variables responsible for performing a task among student-teachers. Some of the variables are resident within the individual, some in the society and others are present in both the schools and the place where the task is performed. Other recognized that teaching practice is a function of intelligence and we know that intelligence is an inherited character which can be harnessed under suitable environment.

Teaching practice is an exercise designed to expose the student teachers to the practical aspect of teaching profession and to enable them put into practice the theoretical knowledge acquired during classroom interactions with their lecturers. Before this time,

teaching practice is done in two phases, each phase spanning six weeks during the 2nd year and 3rd year during which students are expected to take part in every aspect of school life including teaching, testing, examining, academic societies and co-curricular activities. However, in this study, attention is given to teaching based on lesson preparation, lesson presentation, classroom management, teacher personality, evaluation, communication skills and age of students. Expectedly student teacher performance may be rated weak, fair, very fair, good or very good depending on student teacher's commitment to the exercise.

Researchers such as Marais and Meier (2004), Perry (2004) and Maphosa, Shumba & Shumba (2007) described teaching practice as an integral component of teacher training. In order to achieve the standards required for qualified teacher status, a student teacher is required to do teaching practice in at least two schools. According to Perry (2004), teaching practice can be conducted in a number of forms depending on the institution. Some institutions send student teachers to go for teaching practice once a day each week; others do this over a semester; while others send student teachers on a two-to six-weeks' block. Participants in Quick & Sieborger's (2005) study suggested that the traditional PGCE can accommodate a third of the time (11 or 12 weeks) for teaching practice, and that this practice period should be divided into at least two, possibly three, school experience sessions. It should be pointed out that, in whatever form it is done, teaching practice is aimed at inducting student teachers more fully into the professional work of teachers (Perry 2004:2). To this effect, the student teacher is expected to fulfil all the responsibilities of a teacher which, according to Perry (2004), is exciting but challenging.

Jekayinfa (2001) defined teaching practice as a teacher education programme or activity which involves the student teacher putting into practice his/her acquired theory of teaching under the genuine experience of the normal classroom situation. Practical teaching experience is an indispensable component of a teacher education programme. Since one only truly learns to teach by teaching, teaching practice is the equivalent of housemanship in medicine. Its purpose in education is both developmental and evaluative.

Teaching practice is important to prospective teachers for many reasons. First, it is a vital avenue for developing the skills, attitudes and understanding of the teaching profession (Adeniran 2001). According to him, teaching practice offers an opportunity to test the theoretical ideas which the student teachers have learnt and to determine what procedures are appropriate for what categories of students and under what classroom conditions. Hence, teaching practice is conceived by some teacher educators as a necessary laboratory experience (Grim & Michealis, 2003), an apprenticeship or internship (Martins & Westcott, 2006), which gives the student teacher an opportunity to gain insight into teaching. This helps him/her to increase his/her professional competence and to test the applicability of his/her theoretical experience in classroom situation.

In a study conducted by Oluwatayo *et al (2012)*, the teaching performace of 222 student teachers from the Faculty of Education, Ekiti State University were assessed. The student teachers were posted to various secondary schools in Ekiti State for a six-week teaching practice during 2011/2012 academic session. Results showed satisfactory teaching performance of the student teachers. Student teacher's personality is likely to promote positive learning or destroy a well planned lesson. It is likely that a teacher who presents himself or herself admirably in the class, demonstrates confidence to project and assert self, show enthusiasm at lessons, maintains emotional stability at all situations, displays amiable mannerism when communicating with the learners and exhibit eagerness to learn, may create stable impression in the hearts of the learners and consequently motivate them to learn and achieve satisfactorily. Conversely, a teacher who appears in the classroom ruffled, uncoordinated and hard of understanding may scare the learners and destroy the gamut of teaching and learning process.

According to Adesina, Daramola & Talabi (1999), teaching practice is a form of work-integrated learning that is described as a period of time when students are working in the relevant industry to receive specific in-service training that would enhance the teaching practice in order to allow students become 'fully integrated' student teachers because student teachers would get involved in all aspects of the school work. The last implies that

student teachers would be afforded the opportunity to participate in all school activities. Besides the fact that students were teachers-in-training, they had to be given the opportunity to integrate in a practical way and had to apply the theoretical knowledge and newly acquired teaching skills. Students had to be exposed to, for example, completing class registers, marking learners' books, attending staff meetings, helping with extramural activities, to mention but a few duties.

Student teachers were subject to a minimum of two formal class visitations and assessments done by College of Education lecturers. During the school visits, lecturers had to give the student teachers written and oral feedback. Improvements were commended, shortcomings highlighted and suggestions made on how to, for example, overcome anxiety, use non- verbal language to enhance their teaching and learning activities, and how to apply a variety of strategies to improve their teaching. The educators, or school-based mentors, also had to observe the students' progress, behaviour and attitude at school, and assess the student teachers' practical teaching and learning activities according to specific guidelines given to them by the College of Education mentors.

Shaplin (1962) gives a number of reasons to justify the inclusion of teaching practice in the teacher education programme. These reasons include: teaching and learning being complete processes, student teachers need some basic skills and understanding to analyze and appreciate the difficulties of teaching.

Teaching practice is important as it provides up-timing condition under which prospective teachers can learn to analyse, evaluate and modify their behaviours in order to accomplish pre-determined educational objectives (Adeniran, 2001). Olaitan and Agusiobo (2001) enumerate some of the importance of teaching practice as follows: it allows student teachers to have ample chance and the real life situations to apply theories and principles of education they have been taught in their institutions. It helps student teachers to identify objectives of teaching and see the relationship of a day's lesson to the long-range load for a week or term.

Similarly, Adelaide (1999) and Adekunle (2006) also give the significance of teaching practice by saying that it enables student teachers to organise syllabus contents around major concepts and generalizations in the development of sequential learning in a unit or a course of study. It enables student teachers to become more familiar with a variety of instructional materials and resources, evaluate, and select those appropriate for the objectives in a teaching unit or lesson.

While teaching practice provides the trainee an opportunity to acquire practical skills through direct experience, it also provides the trainer the opportunity of both assessing and guiding the trainee for both formative and summative evaluation purpose (Afolabi, 2006). Teaching practice enables the teacher educators to develop a degree of experience in understanding the student teachers, their techniques and procedure of teaching, which they put into practice under professional guidance and supervision of the teacher-educator. It is, therefore, very necessary that a conducive educational environment be established for student teachers to enable them gain confidence in themselves and to work effectively with fellow students and the school personnel. In such an environment, student teachers will have the opportunity to engage in profitable experiences in observing, sharing and in teaching, with the guidance and supervision of the students' supervisors or tutors. Teaching practice is a cooperative venture involving the student teachers and their supervisors on one hand, and the staff and pupils on the other hand. The programme includes teaching, demonstration, participation in co-curricular activities and evaluation, which is the final assessment of the student teachers. Being as important as it is in the curriculum of the teacher training institutions, there are certain things, which the student teachers should take cognizance of when preparing for teaching practice. Below are some of the hints on teaching practice.

Observations and Visit to School: According to Orebanjo (2002), it is imperative to provide student teachers the opportunity to observe various categories of teachers in schools. When in school on visitation, a student teacher should establish friendly relationship with the permanent teachers, especially the subject teachers in his/her

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discipline. He/she should study the scheme of work, pupils' exercise books and other school materials that will help in planning his/her work. He/she should watch a few lessons to enable him/her identify some of the difficulties of the pupils. He/she should also find out which school materials are available on the compound e.g. latrine, tap water, etc.

Readiness for Teaching: According to Ojoawo (2006), the student teacher should prepare his/her scheme of work and get it approved by the subject master or his/her supervisor before he/she starts using it to draw lesson notes. The students should follow the approved scheme strictly. He/she should not pick only the interesting aspects of the scheme and jump over the rest. He/she should get his/her lesson note approved before use. The student teacher does not need to memorise all the details in his/her lesson note.   He/she should not copy approved lesson notes of other students on getting to school for teaching. Make effective use of the class monitors and captains for the distribution of writing materials and for seeing to the tidiness of the classrooms. However, He/she should not sell the control of the class to the captains.

 Teaching: It is important that student teachers should master whatever lesson they plan. If they need to, they can consult their notes of lesson occasionally. To maintain effective class control, student teachers should give their pupils enough activities to do. The student teacher should always have excess items in case some students finish assigned work before time. It should be remembered that if students finish their work before time, and they are left free, they may make a hell of noise. The teacher should be humorous, use gestures, be firm, understanding and sympathetic. He/she should not be easily irritated by the pupils' behaviours. It must be remember that pupils come from different homes and the teacher must try to understand their behaviours. The teacher should also to use positive and negative reinforcements during teaching as occasion demands. For a work well done or for questions well answered, the teacher should reinforce the pupils positively by comments like "that's good of you" "well done" "a

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good attempt", "fair trial" etc. For work not well done or for incorrect answers, negative reinforcement can be given by comments such *as* "I don't expect that from you", "try again for I know that you can do better". Taking cognizance of individual differences is vital since learners are not the same in the way they learn, behave, perform skills or develop physically and mentally (Adesina, Daramola & Talabi,1999). The student teacher must be ready to give individual help where need be, ensure that pupils write neatly while any work that is rough should be rejected for correction. The student teacher should try to be a source of inspiration in this regard. He/she should let his/her work on the black board be neat and not disorganizing the black-board by leaving summaries of two different subjects on it.

Likewise, Iyewarun (2004) observes that student teacher should not let marking obstruct their lesson if they are not teaching a Mathematics group where they can go round the class and mark. It is after the lesson or at leisure that a teacher can mark pupils' notes or assignments. They should encourage pupils and allow them to correct other pupils' wrong answers in a polite manner Pupils should not be allowed to shout on their mates when wrong answers are given. Teachers should also let their questions be clear, simple relevant, and be grammatically correct. They should note how to ask questions in the class and not call a student before asking questions. Doing that will amount to not addressing the questions to all the students. Questions should be distributed evenly in the class. Relevant aids should be used when teaching and the teaching aids be purposeful, appropriate and relevant to the topic being taught (Iyewarun, 2004).

The teaching aids should be attractive and meaningful. Lettering on them should be bold, uniform in height and size and should be legible. Pupils at the back seat should be able to read and see the aids properly. Teaching aids should be used only when necessary. If possible, real objects should be used to make teaching meaningful and true to life. Pupils should not be sent out to buy writing materials; rather, teacher should lend them the one they have brought to the school or allow pupils to share with or

borrow from their mates. Some parents are so impoverished that their children may not ever eat before leaving for school. Their problems should not be compounded by sending them out of the class. They should be tolerated. They should not be flogged because of lack of writing materials; they should be encouraged.

Teachers must remember that they were not taught how to flog students. When supervisors enter a teacher's class, the teacher should comport himself and not become panicked. He/she should Bear in mind that a supervisor is a partner in educational progress and the major function of the teaching practice supervisor according to Adesina *et al.,* (1999), is to observe students' lesson and advise them appropriately on the field. According to them, the supervisors are to give objective assessment of the student teacher's work so that improvement can be made. The permanent teachers or cooperating teachers, as Adesina *et al.* (1999) call them, are possibly the most important companions of the student teachers with respect to professional preparation and growth because they know the schools and the pupils very well. Also, student teachers rely heavily on the permanent/cooperating teachers for updating on relevant information concerning their teaching. The permanent/cooperating teachers can instruct, guide, mark lesson notes, observe, advise, supervise and assess student teachers at all times. They should therefore play this role of guidance and counselling without any bias.

Student teachers should maintain cordial relationship with the permanent teachers. They should not prove to know too much. They should listen to the advice and constructive criticisms of the permanent teachers, take corrections from them and if there is any cause for argument, they should let their argument be logical and supported with facts. It is wrong of teacher you to be repeating 'Yes Sir' 'No Sir' where they are expected to express themselves in a simple language. Student teachers should not be rude to their supervisors and the permanent teachers in their school when asking questions. They should be involved in all school activities like the permanent teachers e.g. morning/opening assembly, afternoon or closing assembly,

cleaning of the school compound, sporting and games activities, literary and debating societies and other club activities. They should not go to the school only when they have lessons; and they should let the cooperating/permanent teachers and their supervisor meet them in the school all the time throughout the teaching practice period.

Class management, according to Onwuegbu (2006), may be described as the integration and effective use of the teacher's basic qualities. These qualities are:

> *knowing the subject matter, knowing how to deliver the lesson and knowing the learner. Good class management is the key to classroom success. When there is good class management, there is a positive approach to classroom. It must be emphasized that there is no classroom without its little problem, no matter how well it is managed. However, where good class management is lacking, there is chaos, and teaching and learning are distorted and the teacher confronted with any of the following problems: absenteeism, disobedience (non-compliance), fighting (verbal and physical), inability to learn, inattentiveness (lack of concentration), leaving seats for no good reason, noise, refusal to do or complete assignment, shuffling of feet, tapping pen or pencil, sleeping, talking aloud when one is expected to be quiet and a host of others (Onwuegbu, 2006).*

There are two other areas to take seriously in class management. These are keeping of records and class discipline. A student teacher should keep record of the work covered. He/she should keep the record of pupils' marks in the grade book to reflect the pupils' weekly or quarterly progress. He/she should keep the class inventory book, mark the attendance register and all other records necessary. Discipline is another important aspect in classroom management. A disciplined class is not one where every

student sits with his legs and hands crossed. It is a classroom where both the learner and the teacher know what is right and do it, but without disrupting the class. According to Onwuegbu (2006), a disciplined class is more evident when the teacher leaves the class. However, since classroom contains children that are growing and experiencing, and who are not angels, there are bound to be certain disciplinary problems in the classroom. When these problems arise, the teacher should use one of the following suggested measures to solve them. The teacher should have adequate materials for every class period. The materials should be prepared to suit every learner in the class. The teacher himself/herself should be a disciplined individual. His/her language, ways of dressing and attitude towards both the students and other members of staff must show a high degree of discipline. He/she should be tidy in correcting students' papers. The pupils should perceive him/her as being fair to all.

Adesina, Daramola and Talabi (1999) also suggest some viable ways of bringing about a healthy classroom climate. Amongst their suggestions are that: when disorders are created in the class, teachers should deal with them instantly. The teacher should have a thorough knowledge of the subject matter. As much as possible, the teacher should make his lesson very interesting. The teacher should allow students to express themselves freely in matters affecting class work.

In the same vein, Yourn (2000) reveals that the anxiety experienced by beginning teachers can range from classroom discipline, motivating students, organisation of class work to insufficient teaching material. She cautions that the concerns faced by beginning teachers are real and these concerns have the ability to limit and frustrate their already complex teaching situation. A similar study carried out by Ong, Ros, Azlian, Sharntiand Ho (2004) in Malaysia revealed the pressures felt during student teachers' teaching practice, which prevented the student teachers from positively engaging in theory and practice. They identified supervision, workload other than teaching, pedagogical and content knowledge as challenges many student teachers face during their teaching practice. Student teachers may also be overwhelmed by the numerous realities of the classroom students' expectation

of spoon-feeding, which can be defined as emphasising teaching as telling and learning as mere listening and the challenges of mixed-ability classes (Kabilan & Raja, 2008).

Anxiety is usually considered to be the effect or the response to a stimulus. Therefore, some researchers define anxiety in terms of the level of pressure and demands made on an individual. Other researchers have defined the term by means of the degree of mismatch between the demands made upon an individual and the individual's ability to cope with these demands (Kyriacou, 2001). What is usually implied by anxiety (as it is in this study) is the negative experience of emotional feelings of student teachers expressed as uneasiness in anticipation of performance. Among the individual effective factors, 'anxiety' has been cited as one of the most important variables which affects student teachers during teaching practice (Jepson & Forrest, 2006). It is then suggested that the types of concerns student teachers encountered should be given more attention to enable better preparation of new teachers and that the study of problems faced by student teachers was warranted. There are concerns about writing the lesson formally and properly and also routines in the classroom which bother much to student teachers. Things that are put down on paper do not always match up with realities in classroom. Pupils of the class either know more or less than what has been prepared by the student teacher. This is enough to make student teacher nervous. Introductory questions or lesson development questions are not answered as anticipated by student.

Heavy workload and content mastery are considered to be the most significant causes of anxiety during teaching practice. Stephens (1996) states that the student teacher can sometimes be inundated by heavy tasks everyday. No doubt, student teacher have to prepare lesson plans, arrange teaching aids and the previous work given by them as home work in the class. All these activities exhaust them. In a study by Bhargara (2009), students teachers report that they had spent several sleepless nights during teaching practice, as they had to prepare lesson plans and teaching aids for two or three subjects everyday.

Some of the student teachers who are not able to withstand mental stress often think of giving up training. Mental and emotional stresses are also felt when unfavourable comments are written in their record books by supervisors (Bhargara, 2009). Student teachers have a lot of concern about their evaluation. According to Morton *et al.,* (1997), it is a major factor causing discomfort to student teachers. This refers to anxiety influenced by being observed by one's teacher or supervisor. In the study by Bhargava 2009, 76% of student teachers were of the view that evaluation by supervisor or teacher keeps them stressed during their classroom teaching. This was corroborated by Bhargara (2009) study on student teachers in England. The study reported that many causes of stress for student-teachers was being observed, evaluated and assessed. Student teachers often complained that they forget the content matter and feel nervous when supervisor sits at the end of classroom and observes. It is usually seen that the confidence level of student-teacher gets shaken, comfort level becomes low and they find themselves in artificial situation where their main consideration remains to get good remarks. Pressure of doing things correctly and managing classroom activities properly make them tense and apprehensive while teaching. Some of the student teachers overcome this within few days but, for others, it acts as a barrier to gain full confidence.

Another area of concern for student teachers is their feelings of inadequacy in managing classroom, which usually causes them anxiety. In the study of Malik *et. al*., (2010), it was maintaining discipline in the classroom and dealing tactfully with the pupils who misbehaved that posed a challenge to student teacher. Mischievous behaviours of pupils cause disturbance in the class and impede effective classroom management. Acceptance by the taught also plays a crucial role in classroom management and this leads to a high level of anxiety. A usual practice is that student teachers are supposed to prepare at least two lesson plans every day that have to be signed by the head or cooperating teacher at least one day in advance. Comments to improve lesson plans are also provided by the supervisors wherever needed before its execution in the classroom. In the study by Bhargara (2009), majority of the student teachers (57%) were found writing detailed lesson

plans along with appropriate teaching aids and then following it in the classroom accordingly. This became the most stressful factor for them. It is a fact that paper planning sometimes fails to match actual classroom situation. Such situations make student teachers nervous as they have to execute a lesson as expertise which they do not feel comfortable with, then becoming a source of tension and anxiety, which multiplies when unanticipated questions are asked by the students.

Marais & Meier (2004) assert that the term teaching practice represents a range of experiences to which student teachers are exposed when they work in classroom and schools. They (2004) further argue that teaching practice is a challenging but important part of teacher training, especially in developing countries such as South Africa, where the effectiveness of teaching practice can be diminished or eroded by a range of challenges, such as geographical distance, low and uneven levels of teacher expertise, a wide-ranging lack of resources as well as a lack of discipline among a wide cross-section of learners and educators. To this list, Kiggundu (2007) added wide-ranging lack of resources, lack of discipline among a wide cross section of learners and attitudes as some of the challenges that may affect the effectiveness of the teaching practice. The challenges observed, if not addressed, may affect the student teachers' performance during teaching practice and may, in the long run, affect their perception of the teaching profession (Quick & Sieborger 2005). Menter (2009) notes that there has been a shift in literature from the concept of teaching practice (associated with an apprenticeship model) to the concept of field/school.

Egbegbulum (1992) describes teaching practice as the pre-service teacher's initiation into the real-life world of the school and which must be accomplished in a course of training. He asserts that the performance of a student teacher in the course of teaching practice determines how much the student teacher has learnt/received from his college and this depends on his/her level of intelligence. David (2003), in student teacher anxiety related to as it affects teaching practice" said that in practice, in estimating what we can expect of student teacher we have to take cognizance of the following: school morale, lecturer's expectation, personal qualities of the student-teacher, his emotional adjustment, his

physical development, health effect of sensory motors and neurological defects and other school factors. When these are lacking, poor performance results are obtained in educational setting. He traces most student teacher performance in teaching practice to various kinds of social disadvantage. He mentions that some student teachers are endowed with high intellectual potentialities and some with low potentialities and they are reinforced by the environment. But, if the environment is not stimulating, it affects the performance of the student teachers.

To become successful during teaching practice and to be able to perform optimally, student teachers must have some form of personality characteristics. In addition to being knowledgeable about the subjects they teach, student teachers must have the ability to communicate, inspire trust and confidence, and motivate students, as well as understand the students' educational and emotional needs. Student teachers must be able to recognize and respond to individual and cultural differences in students and employ different teaching methods that will result in higher student achievement. They should be organized, dependable, patient and creative. Student teachers also must be able to work cooperatively and communicate effectively with other teachers, support staff, parents and members of the community, all of which will enhance their best performance (Goe, 2002).

Few people understand the meaning of personality and its importance in the classroom performance of student teachers. Some feel that personality is the kind of person one just happens to be, others have said that "it is being like others". Most important, many student teachers do not realize the nature of their own short comings simply because they do not fully grasp the significance of the role of personality. Personality is the extent to which one is able to interest or influence other people. This means that personality is the sum total of the qualities of character, mind and body that makes one different from other people (Mayer, 2003). Mayer (2005) states that for a student teacher to be successful in the classroom, he/she must come to grips with the basic question: "how well do I get along with my pupils?" The answer to this question depends largely upon one's personality.

Student teachers' personality trail can lead to a better performance as it can increase the ability to communicate effectively. Mayer (2005) found that a student teacher who is fluent

when communicating with pupils, supervisors and other teachers always encounter little problem during the exercise. The enduring qualities of student teachers are sine to effective performance.

Ozumba (1998) offered evidence that most student teacher anxieties research studies in Africa were not based on any sound theoretical framework. This has tended to create a fragmented, rather than a comprehensive perspective of the problem of teaching and teacher anxieties in relation to the entire teaching practice. It has made it difficult for research to accumulate in such a structured manner that can lead to generation of results and theory building. The problem, according to Obioha (1991), is that "accurate knowledge of what is involved in teaching practice as well as a means of identifying them in a reliable way is no where formulated. "This is because teaching is a complex activity for which there is hardly unanimity of meaning. In fact, teaching is so polymorphous in nature that it has literally taken many different forms.

Consequently, various meanings, ranging from "direction of learning" to "deployment of resources in definite strategies to achieve set objectives" have been ascribed to it. McClelland (1993) believes that to give meaning to teaching it must be characterized as a more or less conscious set of means directed either towards external to the teaching situation or towards ends in view with the act itself; hence, he sees the end of any teaching as drawing out and pointing to that which is already present, though not known. Salami (1998) views teaching as activities that are designed and performed to produce change in students (pupils) behaviour. Dalan (1959) in Okorie (1999) notes that teaching is "the guidance of pupils through planned activities so that they may acquire the richest learning possible from their experiences". Also, All (1992) believes that the teaching act is a process of integration of cognitive, affective and technical components into a sequence of activities aimed at the attainment of a selected learning goals or outcomes.

One thing that is however common to the diversity of activities described above, which can pass for teaching, is that for any activity to be labeled "teaching" its intention must be to

bring about learning. An individual is said to have learned when he exhibits identifiable change in behaviour. The change in behaviour could be easily achieved and recognized if the teacher can specify what he is going to teach and what his students will be able to do as a result of his teaching. In addition, teaching task requires careful planning and appropriate strategy, Taba (1994) refers to this strategy as consciously formulated plans for bringing about particular behavioural changes in students. Such plans are translated into conditions and activities of learning arranged into sequences according to logical requirements of the learners. While some aspects of the strategy are predetermined, others evolve in response to diagnosed learning problems as the interaction between students and teachers evolved.

In the context, teaching strategy involves not only the manner of presentation that the teacher employs but everything that he does in the way of expected conditions, grouping students, guiding activities; marking assignments and providing information to aid learning. The teaching strategy therefore is central to the teacher's goal and it strives to enrich the learning environment in which the learner finds himself. The learning environment in this context is the total physical and mental world to which the learner is exposed to at a particular time while enrichment of the environment implies making the learning experiences of this physical and mental world most conducive to the learner (Obioha, 1991).

An appropriate teaching strategy gives rise to an enriched learning environment and learning outcome. In this sense, teaching can be the organization of the learning environment through the use of appropriate teaching strategy to maximize learning in consonance with set educational goals. Teaching is thus not mythical. It is planning, trying different strategies and evaluating. It is a creative and challenging work directed towards the learner environment. Learning is the result of that hard work. Thus, the onus for inculcating learning in the individual must be placed on the environment, rather than on the teacher per se, as is the case when one learns from experiences drawn from the environment. A particular "teaching" would therefore be effective if the environment is

made to maximize learning for the learner. Similarly, the strategy of the teacher in bringing about this maximization would be seen to have been effective.

Teachers' behaviour must be such that can enhance students' learning outcomes. If not, what then is the purpose of the teaching practice or the basis for its evaluation? Pre-service teachers need to be told what desirable teacher behaviour makes good teachers and be encouraged to develop them. This is, in part, what teacher education is all about. In the context of this paper, teacher behaviour is everything the teacher does in the classroom while he is teaching. The rationale for such teacher behaviour derives mainly from learning theories experienced or even common sense. For example, learning theories suggest that verbal presentation of ideas, concepts, general facts, otherwise known as teacher directed teaching behaviour does not promote meaningful learning as it appeals only to the sense of hearing. More effectiveness takes place when many senses are involved. Thus, learning is the result of many sensations interacting and merging with one another. If one or more sensation is omitted during the learning process, the final impression is weakened, not only by the absence of the missing sensations, but also by the absence of their effect on each other.

On the other hand, problem-solving, experimentation or pupil directed teaching behaviour enhances the quality of learning in that it makes the learning process the learners' own. Thus, the knowledge gained and the skills and attitudes acquired become his own and remain with him permanently, Thomas (1993), while referring to this teaching approach, says: "How can we teach someone to ride a bicycle or learn to swim other than getting them to make an attempt and learn from experience and through the muscle of the body".

Again, organizational ability and clarity of expression are important in any teaching-learning situation. They are therefore considered measures of a teacher's performance. They need no defence to say that the teacher who merely rambles without some sense of design probably confuses himself as well as his students. The use of appropriate and variety of illustrative examples is another teacher behaviour that merits investigation. In a

teaching-learning situation, examples relevant to the subject matter could probably enrich the learner's cognitive structure and provide advanced organizers that enhance meaningful learning.

However, Ebel (1973) advises that this behaviour must be used with caution as examples and illustrations could lead teachers and students into endless digressions. Positive motivation, as evidenced by interest and involvement on the part of the students, is also an important teacher behaviour. It provides the learner with sustained interest and the achievement of independent learning. To achieve this objective, the teacher must aim at instruction on the readiness level of the learner and relate the subject matter to his needs and aspiration.

In addition, the teacher must involve the learner actively in the teaching-learning process, according to Dallas(1998) when students are presented with a room that rules out their actual way of doing things, e.g. motivating techniques like suspense, praise, which provide success opportunity; and letting students know their achievement as the learning is on, which help to sustain students' interest in the subject matter.

To conclude, the researcher is of the belief that there are many other ways of fostering discipline in the classroom. Some of them include the idea that instead of punishing or blaming the students at all times, teacher should try to understand their problems. A conducive learning atmosphere should be created in the class to make students to want to learn. The teacher should neither be too harsh or too friendly with the students. If he/she is too friendly, the students may always play upon his/her intelligence. The teacher should not force his/her opinion on the students as this can create fear and anxiety on the students. The teacher should be punctual at his/her work and be confident of himself/herself. He/she should always listen to students' complaints and give useful suggestions to solve the problems.

2.3 Appraisal of Literature

In this chapter, relevant theoretical and empirical literatures are reviewed to give solid background to the study. From the review of literatures, it is discovered that teaching practice as observed, forms an integral part of teacher training. It exposes the student teachers to a teaching environment in which they will contextualise their theoretical knowledge gained during their training. It also grants student teachers experience in the actual teaching and learning environment. Given the importance of teaching practice, several researchers establish that despite the enriching experiences during teaching practice, student teachers experience many challenges, which significantly affect their ability to fully achieve the desired outcomes from the exercise, including teaching practice induced anxiety.

Most importantly, it is observed that despite the fact that colleges of education lecturers value teaching practice as the bridge between theory and practice, student teachers sometimes find it difficult to relate course content to everyday classroom practice. Students, as noted, tend to place theory in one compartment and practice in another. Further, there is tendency by student teachers to get overwhelmed by theoretical modules and, in the process, fail to cope with the arduous task of integrating different elements of knowledge that they have been exposed to and, at the same time, to plan their lessons and present them in the classroom. From the literature, it is suggested that other than lessening the theoretical component of teacher education course, student teachers should be helped to make stronger links between theory and practice, culminating in a reduction of teaching practice related anxiety.

Research has shown that a mentor and/or supervisor have considerable influence on the performance of the student teacher during teaching practice. To emphasize the importance of a mentor, it is pointed out that in as much as student teachers express their experience of practical training through a range of interactions and relationships, such as with staff,

learners, fellow students, and lecturers, a major prerequisite for learning is the student teachers' relationship with the supervisor.

In addition, student teachers experience difficulties with the conduct of teaching practice by Colleges of Education. This, in turn, leads to a negative change in student teachers' attitudes and what, in the researcher's opinion, are a reluctance to explore the successful implementation of change. Such negative attitudes of student teachers may, indirectly, rub off on student teachers being anxious during teaching practice. Therefore, researchers have found a correlation between student teacher anxiety and class control problems. Also, a positive correlation between student teacher anxiety and classroom disruptions are reported. Therefore, anxiety appears to be a relevant characteristic of student teachers. Again, several measures are suggested on how to improve teaching Practice in order to enable the student teachers to accrue maximum benefits/ outcomes from the experience.

Literature has it that student teachers undergoing teaching practice are plagued with varying forms of anxiety. Such anxiety springs from concern about evaluation by the supervisor, instructional methods to be adopted, and workload and class management. Also, gender and the personality of the student teacher are found to equally contribute to the level of anxiety exhibited by student teachers during teaching practice. Anxiety has been described as a common human experience. It's intensity depends on the size of the external cause. Very significant to the current study are the affective processes that teachers go through during their teacher education programmes.

The importance of these processes appears in the teachers' coping abilities to control sources of stress and anxiety. If teachers lack such processes, they are more likely to develop anxiety when faced with threats. The researcher is of the view that student-teachers' efficacy beliefs can be affected by taking into account the levels of teaching anxiety that these teachers go through during their teaching teaching practice and their attitudes toward teaching. Theoretical considerations and empirical findings suggest that these constructs would be significantly connected.

<div align="center">**CHAPTER THREE**</div>

3.0   **METHODOLOGY**

This chapter present the methodology employed in this study under the following sub-headings: research design, population of the study, sample and sampling technique, instrumentation, procedure and data collection, validity of instruments, reliability of instruments and method of data analysis.

3.1   Research Design

This study adopted a descriptive survey design. Such an approach does not involve the manipulation of variables in the study. It is therefore, after the fact study. It's neither adds to nor subtracts from the existing fact. However, it is carefully observe and record information as it naturally occurred at the time the study was conducted. As such, the researcher collected data from members of a population in order to determine the correct status of the population. Survey fits the study because the study was based on data collected from a few of a relatively large population whose members are potential respondents. The study is also explanatory since the core object of the study is to explain how anxiety explains performance during teaching practice.

3.2   Population of the Study

The target population was 2348, comprising all the final year student teachers in NCE 111 in various Schools in the three selected Federal Colleges of Education during 2011/2012 session who were on teaching practice in South-West, Nigeria, namely: Federal College of Education (Technical) Akoka, Lagos State, Federal College of Education, (Special) Oyo, Oyo State; and Federal College of Education, Osiele, Abeokuta, Ogun State.

Table 3.1: Showing study population

College	Population
Federal College of Education (Special), Oyo	556
Federal College of Education (Technical) Akoka	541
Federal College of Education, Osiele, Abeokuta	662
Total	1759

Source: Author Field Work

3.3   Sample and Sampling Technique

The multistage sampling procedure was adopted for the study, which is a form of cluster sampling. Cluster sampling is a type of sampling which involves dividing the population into groups (or clusters). Then, one or more clusters are chosen at random. Two Federal Colleges of Education namely: Federal College of Education (Technical) Akoka Lagos, Lagos State and Federal College of Education (Special), Oyo, Oyo State, were sampled because the two colleges offer special courses, in addition to the courses offered in the regular colleges. The simple random techniques were used to select Federal College of Education, Osiele, Abeokuta, Ogun State instead of Adeyemi College of Education Ondo, Ondo State.

The researcher approached the authorities of the three colleges to select respondents to participate in the study. The total participants used for the study was 1500 student teachers. This number covered the five schools in the colleges: School of Education, School of Languages, School of Science, School of Arts and Social Sciences, School of Vocational and Technical Education. In each of the schools, 100 NCE III student teachers who were on teaching practice were purposively selected based on the criteria that the students would have gone through micro teaching, teaching practice orientation, and qualified for the teaching practice exercise. This made up the number of NCE III students selected from the schools to be 500. Although at the end of the study, it was discovered that only 1416 student teachers actually participated in the study.

Table 3.2: List of Schools in the Colleges

College	School	No of students
Federal College of Education (Special) Oyo, Oyo State, Nigeria.	School of Education	100
	School of languages	100
	School of Science	100
	School of Arts and Social Sciences	100
	School of vocational and technical education	100
	Total	500

College	School	No of students
Federal College of Education, Osiele Abeokuta, Ogun State, Nigeria.	School of Education	100
	School of languages	100
	School of Science	100
	School of Arts and Social Sciences	100
	School of Vocational and Technical Education	100
	Total	500
College	School	No of students
Federal College of Education (Technical), Akoka, Lagos, Lagos State, Nigeria.	School of Education	100
	School of languages	100
	School of Science	100
	School of Arts and Social Sciences	100
	School of Vocational and Technical Education	100
	Total	500

Source: Author Field Work

3.4 Research Instruments

Two instruments for data collection were developed. Student Teacher Anxiety Scale (STAS) developed by the researcher to elicit information about student teacher anxiety and the second was Student Teaching Practice Assessment Rating (STPAR), which is usually used to evaluate the student teacher performance during teaching practice in the Federal Colleges of Education in Nigeria. The instruments adopted the likert scale response type of 5 point scale.

Student Teacher Anxiety Scale (STAS)

The instrument used in this study is a self-developed by researcher. The 55 item instrument is made up of part I and II: Part I borders on personal data of the students like age, status, teaching subject, gender, name of college, academic level while part II sought to elicit information on the degree of agreement with the item on student teacher anxiety in the scale.

(i) Teaching confidence and questions were asked about being anxious or lack of confidence during teaching practice exercise;

(ii) Anxiety about supervision: What they will get out of the whole exercise when accessed

(iii) Anxiety about content mastery: This focuses on the teachers' understanding of subject matter content and their confidence in being able to answer student questions.

(iv)Anxiety about teaching as a career choice: This focuses particularly on feelings about being a qualified teaching and deriving pleasure in teaching.

(v)Anxiety about being observed while teaching: This focuses particularly on feelings about being observed by inspectors, supervisors, principals and parents.

(vi) Relating to other student teachers: This is associated with getting on with other student teachers and being accepted by them as a capable teacher.

(vii) Relating to students: this involves items about being accepted and liked by students.

(viii) Anxiety about classroom management: this focuses on concern about ability to present lessons effectively and maintain discipline within the classroom environment.

(ix) Anxiety about lesson preparation: This is concerned with worries about whether students will understand lessons and about adequacy generally.

(x) Anxiety about lesson presentation: This is concerned with worries about whether students will prepare lessons correctly and adequately.

The five point scale was used and the weightings were always = 5, often =4, sometimes 3, rarely = 2, never = 1.

Student Teaching Practice Assessment Rating Format (STPARF)

This is a 21-item instrument which consists of parameters on different teaching practice performance ratings (0-5) used by Federal Colleges of Education to assess all student teachers during teaching practice. It consists of two sections. Section A consists of demographic characteristics items on student teachers' name, level, class taught, topic, today's date, course combination, matriculation number, subject, sex and teaching practice school. Section B is on items for assessment of student teachers, which is sub-divided into six sections, namely: preparation on lesson plan, which consists of 3 items; presentation, which consists of 9 items; class management, which consists of 3 items, communication skills, which consists of 2 items; evaluation and teacher personality, which consists of 2 items respectively. The five point likert scale was used and the weightings were very good = 5, good = 4, very fair = 3, fair =2, weak = 1.

3.5   Validity of Research Instruments

The validity of each of the two instruments used in this study was described as follows: Student Teacher Anxiety Scale (STAS): The instrument was designed by the researcher.

The instrument was given to research experts in the Faculty of Education, University of Ibadan and the Federal College of Education, Special, Oyo, for their input. The experts made contributions in terms of relevance to the topic, clarity of language and adequacy of items. Also, the instrument was given to the researcher's supervisor for final amendment and corrections. Their suggestions and corrections were used in producing the final draft of the instrument. Student Teaching Practice Assessment Rating (STPAR): The construct validity of the instrument was further ascertained by experts' judgments.

3.6   Reliability of the Research Instruments

The researcher used test-retest reliability method to assess the reliability of the instrument. The test-retest was carried out six weeks after the first test. The instruments were administered to 50 student teachers who were not part of the sample in the study but randomly selected from Adeyemi College of Education, Ondo, Ondo State. Adeyemi College of Education, Ondo was selected as a pilot study simply because; the College has the same characteristics with other Colleges that were used for this study. The reliability indices of 0.82 for Student Teaching Practice Assessment Rating (STPAR) and 0.75 Student Teacher Anxiety Scale (STAS) were obtained using Cronbach Alpha technique. These values were deemed appropriate for the instruments to be used for the study.

3.7   Procedure for Data Collection

The Provosts of the chosen colleges were informed about the purpose of the study, and permission and cooperation of the College officers were obtained to allow the researcher carry out the research. The instruments were administered to the respondents on the day approved by the school authorities for the exercise. Two (2) weeks ware used for the visitation, observation and training of the research assistants in different colleges of education used for the study respectively. However, two (2) weeks were also used for the administration and collection of research instruments across selected federal colleges of education respectively. On the whole, total number of weeks used were twelve weeks

which is equivalent to one semester (three months) allocated for the teaching practice exercise of the student teachers.

By and large, the researcher administered the instruments on the respondents using the services of three research assistants. The researcher and the research assistants later went back to retrieve the completed instruments. The exercise lasted three Months. Out of 1500 instruments administered to the student teachers sampled, 1416 instruments were correctly filled and returned while eighty four (84) were the causality recorded on the field. As such, a high return rate of 94.4% was obtained at the end of the field work.

3.8   Method of Data Analysis

Data collected were analyzed, using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive statistics were frequency counts, percentages, mean and standard deviation for demographic characteristics of the respondents. The average mean square on a 5 point likert scale is 3; so, the values that are greater than 3 represent formidable opinions while those less than 3 represent less formidable opinions. The inferential statistics used were analysis of variance (ANOVA), multiple regression and Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) to answer the research questions and hypotheses raised in the study. All the hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1: Demographic Data Analysis

The section presents the demographic data of respondents.

Table 4.1: Age and Marital Status of Participants

Variable	Freq.	Std.D
Age (In Years)		
18-20	148	10.5
21-23	434	30.6
24-26	566	40.0
27 and above	268	18.9
Total	**1416**	**100.0**
Marital Status		
Single	875	61.8
Married	541	38.2
Total	**1416**	**100.0**

The figures in Table 4.1 reveal that only 11% of the participants were less than 21 years and 19% above 26 years. The remaining 70% were between 21 and 26 years of age. Also, it is showed in the table that 62% of the participants were single and 38% were married. The information shows that a large number of the pre-service teachers were matured while on the programme. Statistically, 59% of them were above 23 years of age.

Table 4.2: Area of Specialization of Participants

Area of Specialization	Freq.	Std.D
Arts	551	38.9
Sciences	544	38.4
Social Sciences/humanities	321	22.7
Total	**1416**	**100.0**

Table 4.2 shows that 39% of the participants were into Arts courses, 38% were into sciences and 23% were into social sciences courses.

4.2   Answers to Research Questions

Research Question 1: Does teaching practice anxiety correlate with student teachers' teaching performance in Federal College of Education?

Joint and relative contribution of the independent variables (Teaching confidence, Supervision Anxiety, Content Mastery, Teaching as a Career Choice, Observation, Relating with other Student Teachers, Relating with Students, Classroom Control, Lesson preparation and Lesson Presentation) on Performance?

Table 4.3a: The joint contribution of independent variables (Teaching confidence, Supervision Anxiety, Content Mastery, Teaching as a Career Choice, Observation, Relating with other Students Teachers, Relating with Students, Classroom Control, Lesson preparation and Lesson Presentation) on Performance

R	R Square		Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate		
.417	.174		.168	9.6335		
A N O V A						
Model	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Remark
Regression	27409.572	10	2740.957	29.535	.000	Sig.
Residual	130388.78	1405	92.803			
Total	157798.35	1415				

Table 4.3b: Relative contribution of independent variables (Teaching confidence, Supervision Anxiety, Content Mastery, Teaching as a Career Choice, Observation, Relating with other Students Teachers, Relating with Students, Classroom Control, Lesson preparation and Lesson Presentation) on Performance

Model	Unstandardized Coefficient		Stand. Coefficient	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta Contribution		
(Constant)	48.035	2.396		20.045	.000
Teaching Confidence	.219	.040	.194	5.462	.000
Supervision Anxiety	8.263E-03	.118	.003	.070	.944
Content Mastery	.393	.078	.186	5.064	.000
Teaching as a Career Choice	.226	.124	.062	1.818	.069
Observation	9.421E-02	.106	.033	.889	.374
Relating with other Teachers	-1.669	.130	-.603	-12.855	.000
Relating with Students	-.797	.110	-.252	-7.249	.000
Classroom Management	-.477	.079	-.277	-5.998	.000
Lesson Preparation	.225	.086	.107	2.621	.009
Lesson Presentation	.725	.092	.344	7.845	.000

Table 4.3a shows the joint contribution of ten independent variables to the prediction of the dependent variable i.e. Performance. The table also shows a coefficient of multiple correlation (R = .417 and a multiple R^2 of .174. This means that 17.4% of the variance in accounted for by ten predictor variables when taken together. The significance of the composite contribution was tested at $P < .05$. The table also shows that the analysis of variance for the regression yielded a F-ratio of 29.535 (significant at 0.05 level). This implies that the joint contribution of the independent variables to the dependent variable

was significant and that other variables not included in this model may have accounted for the remaining variance.

Table 4.3b reveals the relative contribution of the ten independent variables to the dependent variable, expressed as beta weights, viz: Teaching confidence (β = .194, P <.05), Supervision Anxiety (β = .003, P >.05), Content Mastery(β = .186, P <.05), Teaching as a Career Choice(β = .062, P >.05), Observation(β = .033, P >.05), Relating with other Students Teachers(β = -.603, P <.05), Relating with Students(β = -.252, P <.05), Classroom Control(β = -.277, P <.05), Lesson preparation (β = .107, P <.05)and Lesson Presentation (β = .344, P<.05). The results show that while Teaching confidence, Content Mastery, Relating with other Students Teachers, Relating with Students, Classroom Control, Lesson preparation and Lesson Presentation were significant, Supervision Anxiety, Teaching as a Career Choice and Observation were not.

Research Question 2: What is the general level of teaching practice anxiety (Teaching confidence, Supervision Anxiety, Content Mastery, Teaching as a Career Choice, Observation, Relating with other Student Teachers, Relating with Students, Classroom Control, Lesson preparation and Lesson Presentation) among the student teachers based on the sources of anxiety?

Table 4.4: Extent to which Student Teachers Experience Anxiety during Teaching Practice

	N	Mean	Weighted Average	Ranking
Teaching confidence	1416	63.9138		1
Supervision Anxiety	1416	12.9986	2.67	9
Anxiety about content mastery	1416	26.3107	2.97	3
Anxiety about teaching as a career choice	1416	15.4795	3.62	7
Anxiety about being observed while teaching	1416	17.9258	2.97	5
Anxiety about relating with other student teacher	1416	14.0855	2.63	8
Anxiety about relating with students	1416	11.0897	2.90	10
Anxiety about classroom control	1416	26.9174	3.11	2
Anxiety about lesson preparation	1416	18.2097	3.32	4
Anxiety about lesson presentation	1416	16.2316	2.96	6

Table 4.4 reveals that the student teachers sometimes get anxious with respect to Supervision during the teaching practice (weighted average =2.67), Teaching confidence (weighted average=). They also sometimes have the following: Anxiety about content mastery (weighted average=2.97), Anxiety about teaching as a career choice (weighted average=3.62), Anxiety about being observed while teaching (weighted average=2.97), Anxiety about relating with other student teacher (weighted average=2.63), Anxiety about

relating with students (weighted average=2.90), Anxiety about classroom control (weighted average=3.11), Anxiety about lesson preparation (weighted average=3.32), Anxiety about lesson presentation (weighted average=2.96).

Research Question 3: What is the general performance level in teaching practice among the student teachers using the teaching practice performance indices (preparation of lesson plan, presentation of lesson, classroom management, communication skills, evaluation skills and teachers' personality)?

Table 4.5:   Performance of Student Teachers in Teaching Practice

Areas observed	No of Items	Weighted Average	Interpretation	Ranking
Preparation of lesson plan	03	2.75	Fair	1
Presentation of lesson	09	2.56	Fair	2
Classroom management	03	2.05	Weak	4
Communication skills	02	1.96	Weak	5
Evaluation skills	02	2.41	Weak	3
Teachers personality	02	1.63	Weak	6

Table 4.5 reveals that the student teachers had a fair score in preparation of lesson (weighted average = 2.75), and in lesson presentation (weighted average = 2.56), class management with a weighted average of 2.05. Communication skills 1.96, evaluation skills (weighted average =2.41, teachers personality weighted average = 1.63).

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4.3 Testing of Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant relationship between each of the sources of anxiety and student teachers' teaching performance.

Table 4.6: Correlation Matrix Showing the Relationships Between Independent Variables (Teaching confidence, Supervision Anxiety, Content Mastery, Teaching as a Career Choice, Observation, Relating with other Students Teachers, Relating with Students, Classroom Control, Lesson preparation and Lesson Presentation) on teaching practice Performance

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Mean	S.D
1	1											48.73	10.56
2	.091**	1										63.91	9.33
3	-.111**	.350**	1									12.99	3.39
4	-.055*	.485**	.526**	1								26.31	4.99
5	.035	.454**	.526**	.347**	1							15.47	2.89
6	-.096**	.539**	.369**	.495**	.464**	1						17.93	3.70
7	-.244**	.457**	.662**	.671**	.457**	.662**	1					14.09	3.81
8	-.114**	.186**	.367**	.453**	.392**	.366**	.387**	1				11.09	3.34
9	.044	.356**	-.128**	.103**	-.031	.065*	.033	-.101**	1			26.92	6.14
10	.070**	.514**	-.065*	.271**	.183**	.312**	.184**	.029	.699**	1		18.21	5.01
11	-.009	.367**	.404**	.420**	.437**	.351**	.525**	.531**	.446**	.302**	1	16.23	5.01

** Sig. at .01 level, * Sig. at .05 level

The results in table 4.6 shows that there was positive significant relationships between student teachers' teaching practice performance and Teaching confidence (r=.091**, P(.001)< .01), With respect to anxiety about Lesson preparation (r=.070**, P(.008)< .01), there were negative significant relationships between Student teachers performance and Supervision Anxiety (r= -.111**, P(.001)< .01), Content Mastery (r=-.555*, P(.039)<.05), Observation (r=-.096**,P(.001) <.01), Relating with other Student Teachers (r=-.244**, P(.001)<.01); Relating with Students (r=-.114**,P(.000)<.01) but there was no significant relationship between Student teachers' teaching practice

performance and Teaching as a Career Choice (r=.035, P(.188) >.05), Classroom Control (r=.044, P(.096)>.05) and Lesson Presentation (r=-.009, P(.735) >.05) respectively.

Key:

1= Student teachers performance

2= Teaching confidence

3= Supervision Anxiety

4= Content Mastery

5= Teaching as a Career Choice

6= Observation

7= Relating with other Students Teachers

8= Relating with Students

9= Classroom Management

10 Lesson Preparation

11= Lesson Presentation

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant relationship between anxiety and indices of teaching practice performance.

Table 4.7: Summary of Correlation between Student-Teacher Anxiety and Performance in Lesson Plan

Variable	N	Mean	Std.D	r	Sig.	Remark
Student-Teacher Anxiety	1416	148.58	19.87	-.105[*]	.000	Significant.
Lesson Preparation Scores	1416	8.25	1.72			

Table 4.7 shows that there is a significant negative relationship between student-teacher anxiety and the performance in lesson preparation (r = -.105; p<0.05). Therefore H_{01} is rejected. The negative relationship implies that the more the anxiety level, the lower the student-teachers scores in lesson preparation becomes.

Table 4.8: Summary of Correlation between Student-Teacher Anxiety and Performance in Lesson Presentation

Variable	N	Mean	Std.D	r	Sig.	Remark
Student-Teacher Anxiety	1416	148.58	19.87	$-.085^*$	.000	Significant.
Lesson Presentation Scores	1416	23.05	6.42			

Table 4.8 shows that there is a significant negative relationship between student-teacher anxiety and the performance in lesson presentation (r = -.085; p<0.05). Therefore H_{02} is rejected. The negative relationship implies that the more the anxiety level, the lower the student-teachers scores in lesson presentation becomes.

Table 4.9: Summary of Correlation between Student-Teacher Anxiety and Performance in Class Management

Variable	N	Mean	Std.D	r	Sig.	Remark
Student-Teacher Anxiety	1416	148.58	19.87	$.153^*$	.000	Significant.
Class Management Scores	1416	6.14	1.80			

Table 4.9 shows that there is a significant positive relationship between student-teacher anxiety and the performance in class management (r = .153; p<0.05). Therefore H_{03} is rejected. The positive relationship implies that the more the anxiety level, the better the student-teachers scores in class management.

Table 4.10: Summary of Correlation between Student-Teacher Anxiety and Performance in Communication skills

Variable	N	Mean	Std.D	r	Sig.	Remark
Student-Teacher Anxiety	1416	148.58	19.87	$-.214^*$	.000	Significant.
Communication skills Scores	1416	3.92	1.44			

Table 4.10 shows that there is a significant negative relationship between student-teacher anxiety and the performance in communication skills (r = -.214; p<0.05). Therefore

H_{04} is rejected. The negative relationship implies that the more the anxiety level, the lower the student-teachers scores in communication skills becomes.

Table 4.11: Summary of Correlation between Student-Teacher Anxiety and Performance in evaluation skills

Variable	N	Mean	Std.D	r	Sig.	Remark
Student-Teacher Anxiety	1416	148.58	19.87			
Evaluation skills Scores	1416	4.83	1.77	-.202[*]	.000	Significant.

Table 4.11 shows that there is a significant negative relationship between student-teacher anxiety and the performance in evaluation skills ($r = -.202$; $p<0.05$). Therefore H_{05} is rejected. The negative relationship implies that the more the anxiety level, the lower the student-teachers scores in evaluation skills becomes.

Table 4.12: Summary of Correlation between Student-Teacher Anxiety and Performance in personality skills

Variable	N	Mean	Std.D	R	Sig.	Remark
Student-Teacher Anxiety	1416	148.58	19.87			Not
Personality skills Scores	1416	3.26	1.21	-.037[*]	.165	Significant.

Table 4.12 shows that there is no significant relationship between student-teacher anxiety and the performance in personality skills ($r = -.037$; $p>0.05$). Therefore H_{06} is not rejected.

Table 4.13: Significant Correlation Scores Between Anxiety Variables and Variables in Performance

	Lesson Plan	Presentation/ Instruction	Class Management	Communication Skills	Evaluation	Teachers Personality
Teaching confidence	.353** P=.000	.448** P=.000	.554** P=.000	.364** P=.000	.369** P=.000	.368** P=.000
Supervision Anxiety	.016 P=.535	-.203** P=.000	.188** P=.000	.338** P=.000	.470** P=.000	-.160** P=.000
Anxiety about Content Mastery	.095** P=.000	.208** P=.000	.418** P=.000	.264** P=.000	.489** P=.000	.104** P=.000
Anxiety about Teaching as a career choice	-.003 P=.916	.108** P=.000	.343** P=.000	.404** P=.000	.441** P=.000	-.025 P=.348
Anxiety about being Observed while Teaching	.057* P=.033	.294** P=.000	.341** P=.000	.397** P=.000	.360** P=.000	.121** P=.000
Anxiety about Relating with other Student Teachers	.067* P=.012	.094** P=.000	.354** P=.000	.488** P=.000	.511** P=.000	-.074** P=.005
Anxiety about Relating with Students	-.102** P=.000	-.048 P=.073	.240** P=.000	.316** P=.000	.480** P=.000	-.162** P=.000
Anxiety about Classroom Control	.899** P=.000	.810** P=.000	.605** P=.000	.471** P=.000	.263** P=.000	.799** P=.000
Anxiety about Lesson Preparation	.606** P=.000	.814** P=.000	.882** P=.000	.300** P=.000	.185** P=.000	.737** P=.000
Anxiety about Lesson Presentation	.348** P=.000	.323** P=.000	.495** P=.000	.791** P=.000	.864** P=.000	.149** P=.000

Table 4.13 above shows that:

There is a significant negative relationship between student-teacher anxiety and the performance in lesson preparation (r = -.105; p<0.05), there is a significant negative relationship between student-teacher anxiety and the performance in lesson presentation (r = -.085; p<0.05), there is a significant positive relationship between student-teacher

anxiety and the performance in class management (r = .153; p<0.05), there is a significant negative relationship between student-teacher anxiety and the performance in communication skills (r = -.214; p<0.05), there is a significant negative relationship between student-teacher anxiety and the performance in evaluation skills (r = -.202; p<0.05) and there is no significant relationship between student-teacher anxiety and the performance in personality skills (r = -.037; p>0.05).

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the level of teaching practice anxiety among student-teachers based on age, subject-area, gender and level/class taught.

Table 4.14: Level of Teaching Practice Anxiety of Male and Female Respondents

Anxiety	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Crit-t	Cal-t.	DF	P
Male	496	222.9355	31.1974	1.96	.201	1414	.841
Female	920	223.2848	31.2003				

The above table 4.14 shows that there is no significant difference between the level of teaching practice anxiety of male and female respondents (Crit-t = 1.96, Cal.t = .201, DF = 1414, P > .05 level of significance). The null hypothesis is therefore accepted.

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Table 4.15: Level of Teaching Practice Anxiety of Respondents Who Taught Primary Classes and JSS Classes

Anxiety	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Crit-t	Cal-t.	DF	P
Primary	944	223.2108	31.2201	1.96	.083	1414	.934
JSS	472	223.0657	31.1587				

The above table 4.15 shows that there is no significant difference between the level of teaching practice anxiety of respondents who taught primary classes and JSS classes (Crit-t = 1.96, Cal.t = .083, DF = 1414, P > .05 level of significance).

The null hypothesis is therefore accepted.

Table 4.16: Level of Teaching Practice Anxiety Among the Student Teachers Based on Age

Source of variation	Sum of square	DF	Mean square	F	Sig.	Effect size
Age	49084.800	3	16361.600	17.405	.000	.036
Error	1327333.841	1412	940.038			
Total	1376418.641	1415				

The above table 4.16 shows that there is a significant difference in the level of teaching practice anxiety among the student-teachers based on Age (F(3,1412)=17.405, P<.05, η^2=.036). This denotes that there is a significant difference in the level of teaching practice anxiety among student teachers based on Age. Hence, the null hypothesis was rejected; the table also shows the contributing effect size of 3.6%.

Table 4.17: **Descriptive Statistics of the Level of Teaching Practice Anxiety Among the Student-Teachers Based on Age**

Age	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
18-20 years	212.6667	16.9772	144
21-23 years	219.0700	38.3253	400
24-26 years	227.7791	29.0328	824
Above 27 years	209.5000	11.6217	48
Total	223.1624	31.1887	1416

It is shown in the table 4.17 that respondent within the age range of 18-20 years, 21-23 years, 24-26 years and Above 27 years had a mean score of 212.6667, 219.0700, 227.7791 and 209.5000 respectively.

Table 4.18: Post Hoc Analysis Showing Multiple Comparisons of the Level of Teaching Practice Anxiety Among the Student-Teachers Based on Age

(I) Age	(J) Age	Sig.
18-20 years	21-23 years	.202
	24-26 years	.000
	Above 27 years	.944
21-23 years	18-20 years	.202
	24-26 years	.000
	Above 27 years	.244
24-26 years	18-20 years	.000
	21-23 years	.000
	Above 27 years	.001
Above 27 years	18-20 years	.944
	21-23 years	.244
	24-26 years	.001

It is noted in table 4.18 that there is a significant difference in the Level of Teaching Practice Anxiety of respondents who are within age 18-20 years and those of 24-

26 years, respondents of age 21-23 years and those of 24-26 years and respondents of 24-26 years and those above 27 years respectively.

Table 4.19: Level of Teaching Practice Anxiety Among Student Teachers Based on Subject Area

Source of variation	Sum of square	DF	Mean square	F	Sig.	Effect size
Subject Area	20253.712	3	6751.237	7.029	.000	.015
Error	1356164.930	1412	960.457			
Total	1376418.641	1415				

The above table 4.19 shows that there is a significant difference in the level of teaching practice anxiety among the student-teachers based on Subject area $(F(3,1412)=7.029, P<.05, \eta^2=.015)$. This denotes that there is a significant difference in the level of teaching practice anxiety among student teachers based on Subject area. Hence, the null hypothesis was rejected; the table also shows the contributing effect size of 1.5%.

Table 4.20: Descriptive Statistics of the Level of Teaching Practice Anxiety Among Student Teachers Based On Subject Area

Subject Area	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Arts	218.8831	39.7394	496
Social Science	229.9663	28.2373	208
Science	223.7975	24.4767	642
Education	227.4429	19.1763	70
Total	223.1624	31.1887	1416

It is shown that respondents who had their subject area in Arts, Social Science, Science and Education had means of 218.8831, 229.9663, 223.7975 and 227.4429 respectively.

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Table 4.21: **Post Hoc Analysis Showing Multiple Comparisons of the Level of Teaching Practice Anxiety Among the Student-Teachers Based on Subject Area**

(I) Subject Area	(J) Subject Area	Sig.
Arts	Social Science	.000
	Science	.071
	Education	.197
Social Science	Arts	.000
	Science	.102
	Education	.951
Science	Arts	.071
	Social Science	.102
	Education	.832
Education	Arts	.197
	Social Science	.951
	Science	.832

It is shown in Table 4.21 above that there is a significant difference between students in Arts and those in Social sciences.

4.4 Discussion of Findings

Research Question One

The result of research question one showed that teaching practice anxiety (Teaching confidence, Supervision Anxiety, Content Mastery, Teaching as a Career Choice, Observation, Relating with other Student Teachers, Relating with Students, Classroom Control, Lesson preparation and Lesson Presentation) correlate with student teacher performance in federal college of education. To start with, this study showed the

extent to which student teachers experience anxiety during Teaching Practice (TP) exercise. It was found out that the student teachers averagely experience anxiety during teaching practice. The fact that student teachers experience anxiety could be as a result of the fact that the students were made to realise that teaching practice is an examination too, to which scores will be awarded. The fear of not wanting to fail is enough to cause anxiety in the student teachers. This is in support of the submissions of scholars such as Mayer (1999), Okoli (2000) and Jekayinfa (2001) that anxiety is the fear of evaluation or judgment in social or performance situations, which may be elicited by a number of triggers, including formal interactions such as public speaking; informal interactions, such as meeting a stranger, situations requiring assertive behaviour; or everyday actions, such as eating in front of others. This is also supported by Morton, Vesco, Williams, and Awender (2007). It also should be noted that a large number of these students have not been facing class of students as teachers. There is always the fear of what to say, how to say it and what the reaction of the students will be. This could have been the reason why Mayer (1999) identifies 'public speaking' as one of the factors that can trigger anxiety. Again, the fact that the anxiety of the student teachers is average and not too high could be the result of the training that the student teachers have undergone before the exercise. During this training, students were made to teach their peers during micro-teaching. From this, a large number of them must have gained some teaching confidence, which alleviates their anxiety to some extent. Besides the training, teaching practice, at times, is a time of happiness to student teachers because they will be free of lecturers and lectures' pressure and they will also play the role of teachers to some students too. This could have lessened the anxiety in the student teachers too. The average level of student teachers' anxiety is in line with the finding of Azizah, Wan Zakaria and Samat (2006) that student teachers have moderate anxiety.

Teaching practice is an avenue for teachers preparation. The importance of effective teachers to the overall achievement of the entire education system cannot be stressed too much. Darling-Hammond (2006) indicates that effective teacher preparation through the teaching practice exercise is a leading factor in teacher effectiveness. Teitel (2004) states

that some critics have questioned the role of teaching practice as a key to teacher effectiveness. However, Darling-Hammond (2006) indicates that teaching practice helps candidates develop the knowledge skills they need in the classroom; helps in the production of well-prepared teachers who are more likely to remain in teaching and produce higher student achievement.

Chirestre and Chirestre (2010) view teaching practice as a centre piece for the process of training teachers whether for primary school or secondary school. It is an integral part of teacher training and preparation programme. Ngidi and Sibaya (2003) state that teaching practice is a period during which a student teacher is given an opportunity to do teaching trials in a school situation. The student teacher is given the opportunity to apply theoretical knowledge acquired in lecture rooms to classroom teaching before actually getting into the real world of teaching. Kiggundu and Nayimuli (2009) view teaching practice as a period of guided or supervised teaching during which the student teachers takes teaching responsibility for a given group of learners over a period of time under a mentor (a qualified and experienced classroom teacher).

McNay (2003) submit that teaching practice is often described by student teachers as "the most worthwhile part of my programme", and "where I really learned to teach". McKinnon (1999) also described teaching practice as the most important and experience in the professional preparation of teachers. Capel (1997) states that although teaching practice has been described generally as beneficial, a consistent minority of student teachers on teaching practice have persistently been stressed by the exercise. Kazu, 2001; Morton, Vesco, Williams and Awendex (1997) stressed that student teachers in many parts of the world have reported moderate to high levels of anxiety with respect to teaching to teaching practice. Chambers and Rogers (2000) state that managing stress in the classroom and workload is reported to be recurring themes explaining the anxiety student experience during teaching practice.

Research Question Two

The result of research question two showed that student teachers sometimes get anxious with respect to Supervision during the teaching practice, Teaching confidence. They also sometimes have the following: Anxiety about content mastery, Anxiety about teaching as a career choice, Anxiety about being observed while teaching, Anxiety about relating with other student teacher, Anxiety about relating with student, Anxiety about classroom control, Anxiety about lesson preparation and Anxiety about lesson presentation. This is an expected result because it conforms with the submission of Bhargava (2009). It was noted that student teachers with low confidence level find it difficult to manage 50-60 students in a class. This is also in line with the 2nd ranked sources of anxiety, which is classroom control. Anxiety about content mastery is ranked third while Anxiety about lesson preparation is ranked fourth. The magnitude of the contribution implies that the more the anxiety level, the lower the student teachers lesson presentation, which subsequently affects the performance. The fifth level in the ranking is the anxiety about being observed while teaching while anxiety about lesson presentation comes before anxiety about teaching as a career choice in the seventh ranking.

Cochran-Smith and Zeichner (2005) acknowledged that student teachers experienced anxiety and maintained that this occurred at levels at least equivalent of those experienced by teachers-in-the-field. They noted that anxiety is connected with teaching practice. Chochran-Smith and Zeichner (2003) also noted that anxiety associated with day-to-day teaching are widely recognized and in the case of the student teacher, often reach traumatic proportions. Schneps and Sadler (2000) suggested that most student teachers experienced excessive anxiety and that preparation and subsequent implementation of lessons are potential causes. Allen (2003) listed mastery of the subject matter for lessons; making of lesson plans as workload-induced causes of anxiety for student-teachers.

Shen (2003) stated that personality how student teachers see themselves and how they relate to others during teaching practice-influence how well they perform. Decker, Moyer

and Glazzerman (2004) found that student teachers with low self-esteem coped less well than their higher self-esteemed counterparts. The low group experienced a higher degree of anxiety as a result of poor social interaction, lower teaching competence and less success in the academic component. Shen (2003) stated that other factors influenced by personality include high personal expectations and the nature of interpersonal relationships with others in the teaching practice process. Schneps and Sadler (2000) found that relationship with schoob was a significant potential cause of anxiety, and that some students act unrealistic expectations for themselves and are then continually frustrated as they are unable to meet the standards of performance that they have established.

Fetler (1999) noted that in the course of teaching practice, student teachers are required to form a host of new professional relationship. The quality of such relationships are very important because the interaction with school personnel is a major influence on whether teaching practice turns out to be satisfying or disappointing. Fetler (1999) have also observed that differences between two people's views on teacher role may result in anxiety, if one is subordinate to the other. He maintained that anxiety results from the differences between the attitudes held by the student teachers and those of the common practices among the experienced teachers at the school. Goe (2002) noted that student teachers experienced anxiety in trying to relate personally to other teachers, to the school system and parents. Goldhaber and Brewer (2000) added that relationships with college supervisors were a major source of anxiety. They acknowledge the influence of the college supervisor and indicated that the unclear status of students is a potential source of anxiety, they are nor pupils, but they are not teachers. This idea was supported by the findings of Goe (2002) which indicated that role ambiguity is a major cause of anxiety for many student teachers.

Goe (2002) however, stated that what appears to be the major source of anxiety in inter-personal interactions is the student teachers' relationships with their supervising teachers. This is because the supervising teacher is the most important factor in the student teaching experience and therefore, the relationship between the two is critical. Mitchel;, Allan and

Ehrenberg (2003) noted students' anxiety relative to the standards set by supervising teachers. They maintained that as student teachers become more competent, the clash between their ideas and styles and that of their supervising teachers become more intense and the resulting frustration increase their anxiety levels. Mitchell, Allan and Ehrenberg (2006), besides noting personality differences between student teachers and supervising teachers, found in the study that a large number of respondents at least part of the time, disagreed with their supervising teachers about what and how to teach. They suggested how such disagreements may become source of anxiety for students and affect their performance. The anxiety follows students having to change their approach, so that it will be acceptable and lead to a favourable evaluation. This does not present problems for those who change willingly, but it does for those who change unwillingly – they are uncomfortable at having so compromised themselves.

Interaction with their pupils is a further potential area of anxiety for student teachers. Mitchell (2005) found that all student teachers irrespective of their degree of experience with the teacher education programmes, were significantly more anxiously their concern for their relationships with pupil than by being evaluated by supervisors or having to facilitate pupil learning, but stressed that this was a factor which produced low levels of anxiety. Wilson and Suzanne (2001) noted that student teachers were most anxious about pupil reaction and they were also concerned with regard to pupils' liking of them.

Research Question Three

The third research question sought the general performance level in teaching practice among student teachers, using the teaching practice performance indices. This study found out that the performance of student teachers generally in teaching practice is below average. Many factors could have accounted for the low performance of the students in teaching practice. Preparation of lesson plan was ranked first. This might be as a result of the fact that when a student teacher experience too much of anxiety, he/she might be confused over how to prepare the lesson. The next is presentation while class management

comes after. The performance of student teachers could have been affected by the level of anxiety experienced. Any of the students that have high anxiety would have made many mistakes. This corroborate the submissions of Wisniewski and Gargiulo (1997) and Younghusband (2000) that student teacher anxiety may put up emotional barriers between teachers and their students, negatively impacting student-teacher relations. Dinham and Scott (2000) and Younghusband (2000) found out that occupational teacher anxiety can result in multiple strains on teachers' teaching practices. The period given to teaching practice most of the time is too short for meaningful changes to take place. Again, some supervisors visit their student teachers just once and award marks. Teaching job is too challenging for someone to score high at one attempt. This is in support of Perry (2004) who submitted that teaching practice is exciting but challenging.

This study found out that student teachers experience most difficulties in teacher personalities, communication skills, class management and evaluation skills. The finding that student teachers have difficulty in the area of personality expected of teachers could be as a result of the fact that the characteristics of a good teacher are things that restrict people in their personal life style. Mode of dressing, what to say before the students, subject matter knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge make a teacher a model for the students. This might be what made Perry (2004) Younghusband (2000), Schaefer (2001) and Dibbon (2004) admit that teaching practice is challenging. Again, the communication skills of teachers, which has its base in the English language, was found as one of the most difficult areas for the student teachers. The ability of a teacher to reach the students is one of the most important skills expected of a teacher. Unfortunately, acquisition of the English language by the calibre of people in the college as student teachers is not an easy task (Perry, 2004). Class management was also found to be one of the difficult areas for student teachers because this has to do with controlling the behaviour of students. Sometimes, the feeling that 'I am not their permanent teacher' on the part of the student teachers and 'he/she is not our permanent teacher' on the part of the students do make class management difficult for student teachers. These feelings, at times, do affect the way

student teachers evaluate the lesson. This could have been the reason for Wisniewski and Gargiulo, (1997) and Jacobsson, Pousette, &Thylfors(2001) to have submitted that student behaviour is a factor that can explain teacher stress and teacher exhaustion, which can negatively influence their class management and evaluation of the lesson.

Research Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis tested in the study examined whether there exists significant relationship between each of the sources of anxiety and student teachers' performance. There is a significant relationship between content mastery as a source of anxiety and student teachers' performance. The result showed that the contribution of content mastery to the prediction of performance is significant. This positive contribution implies that the greater the content mastery, the better the performance of the student teachers. This aligns with a descriptive research that was carried out to investigate the levels of pedagogical skills and contents mastery among science teacher trainees who had completed their training session at the Faculty of Education Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, by Zanariah *et al* (2007) where it was revealed that science teacher trainees of Faculty of Education in UTM display a significant mastery in teaching content as the overall mean value is high, which is 3.92. However, there are two items which showed moderate mean values and showed incompetency of the respondents in the two items. The findings showed that the trainees' pedagogical skills and contents mastery were at high level (mean values of 4.11 and 3.92). In a study by Ogonor and Badmus (2006) at the University of Benin, the most frequent comments of faculty in respect of the least challenges student teachers had were lack of adequate knowledge of subject matter, thereby making teachers of partnering school to commend the student teachers on the mastery of subject matter.

The result showed that the contribution of Teaching as a Career Choice to the prediction of performance is not significant. This might be as a result of not using teaching practice as a determinant in accepting teaching as a career choice by the student teachers. This is contrary to scholars' view that micro-teaching experiences provide student teachers with a

number of benefits: first, it exposes student teachers to the realities of teaching; second, it introduces student teachers to their roles as teachers (Hawkey, 1995; Wilkinson, 1996; Kpanja, 2001; Amobi, 2005).Teachers who accept teaching as their profession keep direct relationship with other teachers, students, parents, communities and the society at large. They do not hesitate to share their experiences with their colleagues. They seek guidance and provide support to others in the field of education. Teachers' attitude also affects their own abilities. Positive approach in teaching enables the teachers to create a learning community where every student has access to meaningful learning opportunities. (Ahmad, Zeb, Sihatullah & Rehman, 2013). Student teachers' attitude also affects their own abilities. Positive approach in teaching enables the teachers to teach with confidence and create a learning community where every student has access to meaningful learning opportunities (Campbell, Marilyn &Uusimaki, Lisa, 2006). Malik, & Ajmal (2010) pointed out that stress of teaching needs to be addressed at the pre-service stage of teacher's career as many of the teacher-trainees leave the profession for less stressful careers, even after the completion of their degrees.

The result showed that the contribution of 'Being Observed' as a source of anxiety has significant relationship with student teachers' performance. Student teachers have a lot of concern about their evaluation, which is a major cause of anxiety to student teachers. This refers to being observed by one's teacher or supervisor. In a study conducted by Malik & Ajmal (2010) 76% of student teachers were of the view that observation and evaluation by supervisor/teacher keep them stressed during their teaching. Many factors could have accounted for the low performance of the students in teaching practice. The first could be that the student teachers were still under training, making them liable to make many mistakes which can affect their performance. Also, the performance of student teachers could have been affected by the level of anxiety they experienced. Any of the students that have high anxiety would have made many mistakes. This corroborate the submissions of Wisniewski and Gargiulo, (1997) and Younghusband (2000) that student teacher's anxiety may put up emotional barriers between teachers and their students, negatively impacting

student-teacher relations. Dinham and Scott (2000) and Younghusband (2000) found out that occupational teacher stress can result in multiple strains on teachers' teaching practices. Some supervisors visit their student teachers just once and award marks. Teaching job is too challenging for someone to score high at one attempt. Kiggundu *et al*. (2009), in a study that explored the experiences of student teachers in the Vaal University of Technology Post graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE), observed that some mentors overloaded student teachers. Because they had no confidence in the student teachers they would not leave their classes in the student teachers' care. Consequently, their presence have effect on the student teacher performance. It also resulted in the student teachers getting discouraged and experiencing feelings of inadequacy and loss of confidence in their ability to teach. This is in support of Perry (2004) who submitted that teaching practice is exciting but challenging. This might be what made Perry (2004), Younghusband (2000), Schaefer (2001) and Dibbon (2004) admit that teaching practice is challenging. The ability of a teacher to reach the students is one of the most important skills expected of a teacher.

The result also shows that the contribution of Relating with other Student Teachers' to the prediction of performance is significant. This negative contribution implies that the greater the relation with other student teachers, the lower the performance of the student teachers. The quality of teaching is closely influenced by the professional growth of teachers and the relationship with their colleagues. (Faculty of education, University of Benin. 2002, p.3).Research by Montalvo*et al*. (2007) has shown that students will put forth greater effort and demonstrate a higher degree of persistence if they like their teachers. In addition, findings indicate that students attain better grades in classes taught by teachers they like (Montalvo*et al*., 2007).

The result shows that the contribution of 'Relating with Students' to the prediction of performance is significant. This negative contribution implies that the greater the relation with students, the lower the performance of the student teachers. Student teachers who have an effective skill base for developmentally appropriate instructional practices may be able to decrease the probability of teacher-student conflict (Mantzicopoulos, 2005), thereby

increasing the student teachers' performance. Teachers' abilities to form positive relationships with students are impacted by their personality type, experiences, and the quality of their own personal relationships (Baker, 2006).When students have a positive teacher-student relationship, they adjust to school more easily, view school as a positive experience, exhibit fewer behavior difficulties, display better social skills, and demonstrate higher academic achievement (Buyse*et al*., 2009). They are also more active participants in class, express a greater interest in college, and maintain higher grade point averages (Hallinan, 2008).

It was discovered that there is a significant positive relationship between student-teacher anxiety and the performance in class management. The positive relationship implies that the more the anxiety level, the better the student teachers scores in class management. Class management was also found to be one of the difficult areas for student teachers because this has to do with controlling the behaviour of students. Sometimes, the feeling that 'I am not their permanent teacher' on the part of the student teachers and 'he/she is not our permanent teacher' on the part of the students do make class management difficult for student teachers. These feelings at times do affect the way student teachers evaluate the lesson. This could have been the reason for Wisniewski and Gargiulo (1997) and Jacobsson, Pousette, & Thylfors (2001) to have submitted that student behaviour is a factor that can explain teacher stress and teacher exhaustion, which can negatively influence their class management and evaluation of the lesson.

A study of student teachers at Exeter University by Preece (1979) reported that discipline problems often lead to high level of anxiety in student teachers. Bhargava (2009) noted that classroom management becomes difficult if student teachers are not able to strike a cord with children. This finding should not be seen as a contradiction to the previous findings that revealed negative relationship. In fact, the finding has just revealed the actions taken by the student teachers when they are experiencing serious anxiety. In most cases, as soon as a student teacher is aware that the supervisor is around, he would quickly go and make arrangement for the best class he/she can manage. In fact, some supervisors

will intentionally wait at the principal's office and inform the student teacher to go and get the class ready. What anxious student teacher do at this time is to go and plant brilliant students in the class and remove the dull and troublesome ones from the class because, according to Onwuegbu (2006), this is what constitute a well behaved class. Therefore, during the observed lesson, the class will look well managed.

It was found out that there is a significant relative contribution of 'Lesson preparation' to the performance of student teachers. This might be as a result of the fact that when a student teacher experience too much of anxiety, he/she might be confused on how to prepare the lesson. Such lesson plan might be full of unnecessary details the belief that the supervisor might be impressed or that students might need such for understanding. Besides, too much anxiety might make a student teacher to prepare inappropriate instructional materials or forget to prepare one. That is why Glas (1994) claimed that subjective feelings of anxiety are the epiphenomena of this dysbalance. This finding should not be discarded because it gives credence to the submissions of Wilkinson (1996), Benton-Kupper (2001) and Amobi (2005) that anxiety can bring about changes in self-perceptions and subsequent teaching behaviours. The submission of Bhargava (2009) in a study at St Xavier College Ranchi, India was that writing the lesson formally and then proceeding in the classroom accordingly bothers much to student teachers. The researcher noted that things that are put down on paper at times fails to match proceedings in the classroom and this is enough to make student teacher nervous as they have to mentally readjust their written lesson plan. As against this, D'Rozario and Wong (1996) found out that insufficient planning and preparation was the major reason behind ineffective instruction. It was discovered that student teachers failed to adequately plan the lesson, lacked the necessary materials, or didn't consider procedures, which might be as a result of inadequate knowledge or anxiety. Malik &Ajmal (2010) opined that lesson planning sometimes fail to match actual classroom situation.

It was found out in this study that there is significant relative contribution of 'Lesson Presentation' to the prediction of performance. The magnitude of the contribution implies

that the more the anxiety level, the lower the student teachers' lesson presentation which subsequently affects performance. The anxious student teachers are first identified by their utterances, which will not be stable but full of mistakes and broken sentences. Because of the fear that accumulates into anxiety, the student teacher hardly constructs correct sentences. In fact, some at times are short of words at the middle of a lesson. This must have been the reason for the low marks for the anxious student teachers. This finding should not be ignored because it could be as a result of the fact that the lesson presentation observed by the supervisor is one of the most threatened times for the student teachers caused by the presence of the supervisor. In fact, what a student teacher will do well on a usual day might be wrongly done when the supervisor is present. The fear of what the reaction of the supervisor would be, what mark would the supervisor give and how will the supervisor react before the students are those that increase the anxiety of the student teachers during presentation. This might be the reason why Busari (2000) define anxiety as mediating experiential phenomenon related to perception of impending threat or over-stimulation accomplished by discharge in the sympathetic nervous system. This was agreed upon by Busari and Osiki (2002). This finding is in line with that of Bonesronning (2004) grading practices of the supervisor, which affects student teachers' performance in Norway and finds evidence that easy grading deteriorates student teachers' performance. This finding also give credence to the finding of Mayer (1999) that identified formal interactions, such as public speaking; informal interactions, such as meeting a stranger, situations requiring assertive behaviour as some of the factors that trigger anxiety in an individual which Okoli (2000) referred to it asa multisystem response to a perceived threat or danger.

Research Hypothesis Two

The second hypothesis investigated whether there is significant relative contribution of 'Supervision Anxiety' exist to the prediction of student-teachers' performance. It was revealed that there is no significant relative contribution of supervision anxiety to the prediction. This finding must have been as a result of the fact that every student teacher is

well informed about supervision as part of their teaching practice exercise. This is in line with a research by Farauta and Amuche (2013). The researchers agreed that one of the stipulated strategies, that is, informing the student teachers when they want to visit each school for supervision, would be adopted so as to ensure positive attitude by students towards teaching practice as it affects student teachers' performance. Afolabi (2001) revealed that supervisor and lecturers differ in their grading of student teachers' performance in teaching practice. Supervisors of different ranks are significantly different in their assessment of student teachers.

Research Hypothesis Three

The third hypothesis sought the extent to which age and subject area on the part of the student teachers could influence their anxiety levels. This study found out that age does have significant influence on the anxiety level of student teachers during teaching practice in that the younger students experienced anxiety significantly less than the older students. This finding might be as a result of the fact that the older students might be afraid of shame that might result from younger students if they should fail or perform below expectation. This fear, according to Busari & Uwakwe (2001) and Busari & Osiki, (2002), is related to anxiety. Again, subject area does have significant influence on student teachers' anxiety level while in teaching practice in that the social science students experienced anxiety more than science students and the science students experienced it more than Arts students. This might be as a result of the fact that students in Arts and Sciences are more confident than those students in the social science classes because of the level of their brilliance. Confidence, on the other hand, alleviate anxiety. Therefore, the finding that social science students experience anxiety more than sciences and arts students should not be jettisoned because it corroborates Woullard's (2003) and Hechter's (2011) submissions that teachers' levels of efficacy beliefs influenced their teaching performance and instructional strategies without anxiety.

The study also examined the extent to which age and subject area influence student teachers' performance in teaching practice exercise. This study found out that age of student teachers does influence significantly their performance in teaching practice in that the mid-age students performed significantly better than the youngest as well as the oldest students. This might be as a result of the fact that there are many factors that can influence student teachers performance in teaching. One of such is age, as this study reveals that too young a student teacher as well as too old a student teacher does not teach well like the middle age teachers. In the same way, area of specialization does have significant influence on student teachers' performance in teaching practice in that the social science students performed significantly better than Arts students while Arts students performed significantly better than science students in the Teaching Practice. This is in support of the fact that little anxiety, at times, promotes performance because it checkmates carelessness and avoidable mistakes (Mayer, 1999; Okoli, 2000; Jekayinfa, 2001; Busari & Osiki, 2002).The dispositional ability of male and female student teachers to teaching itself is of great importance in the performance of such individual (Oluwatayo & Adebule, 2012).

The study examined whether there is a significant relationship between student teachers' anxiety and their overall performance in teaching practice. It was found out that there is a significant negative relationship between student teachers' anxiety and the overall performance in teaching practice. The negative relationship implies that the more the anxiety level, the lower the student teachers' overall scores in teaching practice becomes. It is a clear case then that the overall performance of student teachers will be negatively influenced too (Dinham and Scott, 2000; Younghusband, 2000; Benton-Kupper, 2001; Amobi, 2005).

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary of Findings

Based on the analysis of data and interpretation of analysis presented in this chapter, the following are the summary of the findings:

i. The teaching practice anxiety (Teaching confidence, Supervision Anxiety, Content Mastery, Teaching as a Career Choice, Observation, Relating with other Student Teachers, Relating with Students, Classroom Control, Lesson preparation and Lesson Presentation) correlate with student teacher performance in federal college of education. The ten independent variables correlates to the dependent variable was expressed as beta weights, viz: Teaching confidence (β = .194, P <.05), Supervision Anxiety (β = .003, P >.05), Content Mastery(β = .186, P <.05), Teaching as a Career Choice(β = .062, P >.05), Observation(β = .033, P >.05), Relating with other Students Teachers(β = -.603, P <.05), Relating with Students(β = -.252, P <.05), Classroom Control(β = -.277, P <.05), Lesson preparation (β = .107, P <.05)and Lesson Presentation (β = .344, P<.05).

ii. The student teachers sometimes get anxious with respect to Supervision during the teaching practice (weighted average =2.67), Teaching confidence (weighted average=). They also sometimes have the following: Anxiety about content mastery (weighted average=2.97), Anxiety about teaching as a career choice (weighted average=3.62), Anxiety about being observed while teaching (weighted average=2.97), Anxiety about relating with other student teacher (weighted average=2.63), Anxiety about relating with students (weighted average=2.90), Anxiety about classroom control (weighted average=3.11), Anxiety about lesson preparation (weighted average=3.32), Anxiety about lesson presentation (weighted average=2.96).

iii. The student teachers had a fair score in preparation of lesson (weighted average = 2.75), and in lesson presentation (weighted average = 2.56), class management with a weighted average of 2.05. Communication skills 1.96, evaluation skills (weighted average =2.41, teachers personality weighted average = 1.63).

iv. there were positive significant relationships between student teachers performance and Teaching confidence (r=.091**, P(.001)< .01), With respect to anxiety about Lesson preparation (r=.070**, P(.008)< .01), there were negative significant relationships between Student teachers performance and Supervision Anxiety (r= -.111**, P(.001)< .01), Content Mastery (r=-.555*, P(.039)<.05), Observation (r=-.096**,P(.001) <.01), Relating with other Student Teachers (r=-.244**, P(.001)<.01); Relating with Students (r=-.114**,P(.000)<.01) but there was no significant relationship between Student teachers performance and Teaching as a Career Choice (r=.035, P(.188) >.05), Classroom Control (r=.044, P(.096)>.05) and Lesson Presentation (r=-.009, P(.735) >.05) respectively.

v. There is a significant negative relationship between student-teacher anxiety and the performance in lesson preparation (r = -.105; p<0.05), there is a significant negative relationship between student-teacher anxiety and the performance in lesson presentation (r = -.085; p<0.05), there is a significant positive relationship between student-teacher anxiety and the performance in class management (r = .153; p<0.05), there is a significant negative relationship between student-teacher anxiety and the performance in communication skills (r = -.214; p<0.05), there is a significant negative relationship between student-teacher anxiety and the performance in evaluation skills (r = -.202; p<0.05) and there is no significant relationship between student-teacher anxiety and the performance in personality skills (r = -.037; p>0.05).

vi. there is no significant difference between the level of teaching practice anxiety of male and female respondents (Crit-t = 1.96, Cal.t = .201, DF = 1414, P > .05), there is no significant difference between the level of teaching practice anxiety of respondents who taught primary classes and JSS classes (Crit-t = 1.96, Cal.t = .083, DF = 1414, P > .05), there is a significant difference in the level of teaching practice anxiety among the student-teachers based on Age (F(3,1412)=17.405, P<.05,η^2=.036) and there is a significant difference in the level of teaching practice anxiety among the student-teachers based on Subject area (F(3,1412)=7.029, P<.05,η^2=.015).

5.2   Conclusion

This study adopted a descriptive survey design to examine the influence of anxiety on student teachers' performance in teaching practice. This was informed by the incessant poor performance of pre-service teachers in the core aspect of the responsibilities expected of them—teaching. Poor teaching practices, on the other hand have been pointed to by various researches as the major cause of poor student teachers performance by students. The study painstakingly investigated the variables of anxiety, which include Teaching confidence, Supervision Anxiety, Content Mastery, Teaching as a Career Choice, Observation, Relating with Other Student Teachers, Relating with Students, Classroom Control, Lesson preparation, and Lesson Presentation

Data were carefully analysed, using both descriptive and inferential statistics, the finding among others are that there is significant relative contribution of the teaching confidence, content mastery, observation, relating with other students teachers, relating with students, classroom control, lesson preparation, lesson presentation to the prediction of performance.

There is no significant relationship between 'Supervision Anxiety' and 'Teaching As a Career' choice to the prediction of performance. Based on this, the study concludes that anxiety experienced by student teachers during teaching practice is a major factor negatively affecting their teaching practices. The reduction of anxiety and fear in these set of teachers will bring about better performance in their teaching practices.

5.3   Recommendations

This study advocated that it is necessary to focus on the concerns expressed by student teachers during teaching practice as areas of importance for future development in teacher education. Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are proffered for better performance of student teachers in teaching practice henceforth and for better teaching practices by the next generation of teachers prepared at Colleges of Education in Nigeria:

1. The first recommendation goes to the Colleges of Education and other institutions that prepare teachers. There should be regular orientation programmes and workshop for lecturers who function as supervisors during teaching practice on skills for effective supervision which will be geared towards positive impact on student teachers, instead of fear and anxiety. This could be achieved by making one of the terms of reference for the teaching practice committee to be, at least, the organization of one orientation programme and one workshop for the lecturers in which experts from other institutions are invited. Similarly, a compulsory teaching practice orientation programme should be organised for all the students before the commencement of teaching practice every year.

2. Besides this, Colleges of Education and other teacher preparation institutions should have adequate preparation for their student teachers through adequate exposure to micro-teaching exercise in their institution, where they will be exposed to criticism and attack from colleagues and lecturer attached. This would probably reduce their level of anxiety when on the teaching practice proper.

3. There should be orientation programmes for both the staff and the students prior to the period of teaching practice to prepare them for the task ahead with a good frame of mind. Such a programme should make clear what the lecturers would be looking for in the student teachers' performance and how marks are awarded. These should be made clear to both student and lecturers. This will go a long way to assist the students to know when they are right and when they are being treated unjustly.

4. It is also important to let lecturers realise that whatever the student teachers are able to do is their productivity. Hence, they should see student teachers as their products and not those to be intimidated. Teaching practice supervisors should put up a friendly disposition during their interaction with student teachers. They should let them realise their strengths and weaknesses and immediately offer adequate advice on how to remedy the weaknesses.

5.4   Contribution to Knowledge

1. Teaching practice anxiety influences student teachers' performance in the teaching practice exercise.

2. Lesson preparation, lesson presentation, class management, relationship with students, teaching confidence and content mastery are serious sources of anxiety that influence, students teachers' performance during teaching practice.

3. Subject area, age, gender and class taught determine the level of teaching practice anxiety among student teachers.

4. It has provided information about the relationship that exists between teaching practice anxiety and student teachers' performance

5. It has raised awareness of the challenges/concerns faced by student teachers during teaching practice

5.4   Limitation of the Study

The study did not include state and privately owned Colleges of Education; it covered Federal Colleges of Education only. Besides this, other institutions that produce teachers are not included in the study. Based on these, the findings of the study might not be for all pre-service teachers in the South-West of the country.

5.5   Suggestion for Further Studies

In view of the limitations of this study, it is suggested that any study that might want to replicate this study should endeavour to include other institutions that produce teachers in the country, like the state and privately owned Colleges of Education, Faculties of Education in the universities, the National Teacher Institute (NTI) and others. This will give pictures of influence of the anxiety on teaching practice performance of all categories of student teachers.

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ADEYEMI COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, ONDO, NIGERIA.

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

OFFICE OF THE DEAN

Dean:
Dr. (Mrs.) I. F. Alao
B.Sc (Psych), M.A (ED), Ph.D Ife
Tel: 08034000206, 08137291165
E-mail: irafaka@yahoo.com

P.M.B. 520, Ondo,
Ondo State,
Nigeria.

Ref No:...

Date..16th July, 2013........

Mrs. E. N. Emerole
Department of Educational Management,
University of Ibadan,
Ibadan, Nigeria

**Approval for the use of Teaching Assessment
Format for your Research**

I have the honour to inform you that you have been given
the permission to use the College Teaching Assessment
Format for your Research work.

I believe that it will only be used as part of your research
instrument as requested.

I wish you a successful research.

Thank you.

DEAN

Dr. (Mrs.) I. F. Alao
Dean, School of Education and
Chairman, Teaching Practice Committee

APPENDIX II

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

The provost,

Adeyemi College of Education, Ondo,

Ondo State.

Dear Sir / Ma,

INSTRUMENT ON STUDENT TEACHERS' ANXIETY SCALE (STAS)

The researcher administering this instrument is studying anxiety as a correlate of performance of student teachers on teaching practice in Federal Colleges of Education, South West Nigeria.

The researcher intends to investigate the relationship among teaching practice anxiety as predictor of student teachers' teaching performance in Federal College of Education in South West, Nigeria.

This instrument intends to elucidate information on anxiety sources and the extent to which student teachers experience anxiety during Teaching Practice. Thus, the survey covers an assessment of how Student Teachers feel confident about teaching, supervision anxiety, content mastery, teaching as a career choice, observation, relating with other student teachers, classroom management, lesson preparation and lesson presentation during teaching practice.

As a student teacher who is undergoing Teaching Practice, we hereby request you to complete the instrument below. Please fill in or tick appropriately in the space provided. All the information collected will be kept confidential and use for research purposes only.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

Emerole, E.N

APPENDIX III

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

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STUDENT TEACHERS' ANXIETY SCALE (STAS)

PART 1: PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Age: 18-20 [ ]   21-23 [ ]   24-26 [ ]   27 years and above [ ]

2. Status: Single [ ]   Married [ ]

3. Teaching   Subject   (Please specify):……………………………………………………

4. Name   of   the College:……………………………………………………………

5. Gender: Male [ ]   Female [ ]

PART II: TEACHING PRACTICE ANXIETY

Instruction: Below is a list of statements. Please read each one carefully and tick one of the numbers 1,2,3,4,5 against the statement that best describes how you physically feel or react in each situation. Please rate each using the following scale.

During the period of the Teaching Practice exercise:	Never	Rarely	Someti mes	Often	Always
5. I feel anxious about the adequacy of my lessons.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I feel anxious about my abilities and opinions on teaching.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I feel anxious about my competence when challenged by my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I feel anxious about my ability to improvise in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I feel worried whether I am a good student teacher or not.	1	2	3	4	5
10 I feel anxious about meeting the needs of students in the class.	1	2	3	4	5
11 I feel anxious about my ability to keep a class under control.	1	2	3	4	5

12	I feel worried about my teaching methods.	1	2	3	4	5
13	I feel worried about my teaching methods.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I feel anxious about my understanding of the subject matter I am to teach.	1	2	3	4	5
15	I feel anxious about presenting correct information in the classroom.					
16	I feel troubled when I am preparing lesson plan.	1	2	3	4	5
17	I feel anxious when I think about holding parent-teacher conferences.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Dogs always laugh at human beings.	1	2	3	4	5
19	I worry about Supervisor's attitudes and opinions about me.	1	2	3	4	5
20	I feel anxious about my personality.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I feel anxious about relating with the Supervisor during assessment of my teaching.	1	2	3	4	5
22	I feel anxious about the Supervisor's judgement on my ability to control the class.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	I feel nervous when I am being observed by my Supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5
24	I feel panicky when a student asks a question I can't answer.	1	2	3	4	5
25	I feel anxious about my inability to answer student questions.	1	2	3	4	5
26	I feel worried about not preparing enough materials to cover the full time of the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
27	I worry that my understanding of the subject matter will be faulted.	1	2	3	4	5
28	I do not feel confident about my ability to improvise in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5

29	I am anxious about adequacy of my composure.	1	2	3	4	5
30	I worry that teachers may regard my teaching methods as ineffective.	1	2	3	4	5
31	I feel anxious about teaching as a satisfying profession.	1	2	3	4	5
32	Deciding how to present information in the classroom makes me feel uncertain.	1	2	3	4	5
33	I feel anxious about my Supervisor informing me of coming to my class for supervision.	1	2	3	4	5
34	I feel anxious about my cooperative teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
35	I feel nervous when I am being observed by any Supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5
36	I feel anxious about Supervisor's judgement on my teaching ability.	1	2	3	4	5
37	I feel concerned about my ability to maintain discipline in the classroom.					
38	I worry that my supervisor may rate me low.	1	2	3	4	5
39	Being accepted as a person by other teachers is a worry for me.	1	2	3	4	5
40	I feel anxious about my relationship with other students.	1	2	3	4	5
41	Lack of rapport with my students is one of my biggest worries.	1	2	3	4	5
42	I feel anxious that I am not able to relate to students.	1	2	3	4	5
43	I worry about sustaining the interest of students during instruction.	1	2	3	4	5
44	I feel anxious about students following correct instructions.	1	2	3	4	5
45	I feel anxious about supervisor's comments.	1	2	3	4	5

46	I feel anxious about my competence in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
47	I feel concerned about how college supervisors may view my teaching method in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
48	I feel anxious about students understanding my lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
49	I feel anxious about my language competence.	1	2	3	4	5
50	I feel uneasy standing in front of the class.	1	2	3	4	5
51	I feel anxious about forgetting what I am teaching.	1	2	3	4	5
52	I feel uneasy answering students' questions.	1	2	3	4	5
53	I worry that my understanding of the subject matter of lessons is not adequate.	1	2	3	4	5
54	I feel anxious about using correct instructional materials.	1	2	3	4	5
55	I feel anxious about my teaching effectiveness on my students.	1	2	3	4	5

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

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The researcher administering this instrument is studying anxiety as a correlate of performance of student teachers on teaching practice in Federal Colleges of Education, South West, Nigeria.

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As a supervisor who has served as student teacher and also assesses student teacher, we hereby request you to complete the instrument below. Please fill in or tick appropriately in the space provided. All the information collected will be kept confidential and used for research purposes only.

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APPENDIX VII

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STUDENT TEACHING PRACTICE ASSESSMENT FORMAT (STPAF)

NAME:……………………………...

MATRIC NO…………………………………   LEVEL:…………...........................

COURSE COMBINATION…………………... ....

CLASS TAUGHT:…………........   SUBJECT………………   SEX…………………

TOPIC

:…………………………………………………………...

DATE:………………   TIME…………………

TEACHING PRACTICE

SCHOOL:………………………………………………………………

S/N	ITEMS FOR ASSESSMENT	RATING						REMARKS
		Very Good	Good	Very Fair	Fair	Weak		
1	**PREPARATION OF LESSON PLAN - 10**							
	a. Statement of Objectives (5)	5		4	3	2	1	
	b. Contact: Logical and Sequence (2)					2	1	
	c. Adequacy (3)				3	2	1	
2	**PRESENTATION – 55**							
	a. Introduction (Relevance) (5)	5	4	3	2	1		
	b. Development of Lesson (5)	5	4	3	2	1		
	c. Mastery of Subject Matter (10) 10 9 8 7 6	5	4	3	2	1		
	d. Use of Chalkboard (5)	5	4	3	2	1		
	e. Time Management (5)	5	4	3	2	1		
	f. Questioning Technique (5)	5	4	3	2	1		
	g. Effective use of Instructional Materials (5)	5	4	3	2	1		
	h. Class Participation (10) 10 9 8 7 6	5	4	3	2	1		
	i. Summary, Conclusion (5)	5	4	3	2	1		
3	**CLASS MANAGEMENT – 12**							

	a. Class Control (5)	5	4	3	2	1	
	b. Classroom Environment (2)				2	1	
	c. Reaction and Reinforcement of Pupils' Responses (5)	5	4	3	2	1	
4	**COMMUNICATION SKILLS – 5** a. Clarity of Voice (2)				2	1	
	b. Appropriate use of Language (3)			3	2	1	
5	**EVALUATION – 10** a. Suitability of Assessment (5)	5	4	3	2	1	
	b. Attainment of Stated Objective (5)	5	4	3	2	1	
6	**TEACHER'S PERSONALITY – 8** a. Dressing (4)		4	3	2	1	
	b. Comportment (4)		4	3	2	1	
	TOTAL						

TOTAL SCORE %………………………………

GRADE …………………………..………………………

_____ _____

NAME OF SUPERVISOR   **SIGNATURE /DATE**

APPENDIX IV
DUMMY QUESTIONS

1. I got my Ph.D when I was in the primary school.   1   2   3   4   5

2. My mother gave birth to me when she was 8 years old.   1   2   3   4   5

3   Chickens give birth to lions.   1   2   3   4   5