Learning to Teach English as a Foreign Language in Japan:
A Linguistic Ethnographic Study of Post-Observation Feedback Conferences

Emi Kobayashi

For the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

University of Stirling

Scotland UK

This thesis has been submitted to the University of Stirling

In partial fulfillment for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

January 2021

Declaration

I declare that I have composed this thesis myself and that it embodies the results of my own research. Where appropriate, I have acknowledged the nature and extent of work carried out in collaboration with others included in the thesis.

Emi Kobayashi

Copyright

The copyright of this thesis belongs to the author under the terms of the United Kingdom Copyright Acts as qualified by the University of Stirling Regulations for Higher Degrees by Research. Due acknowledgement must always be made of the use of any material contained in, or derived from, this thesis.

Abstract

This study focuses on pre-service trainees' learning to teach English through their participation in their post-observation feedback (POF) conferences as a means of promoting reflective practice. While POF has received increasing research attention in TESOL, only a few studies have examined the content of this speech event systematically. More importantly, perhaps, although it is widely recognized that learning takes place over time, few studies have examined trainees' learning diachronically, particularly across POF conferences and related events. To address these research gaps, the present study investigates pre-service trainees' learning across events and over time in their university-based programme. Recognizing the situated nature of teacher learning, the study employs a linguistic ethnographic approach and draws primarily on the theory of language socialization.

Participants included thirteen Japanese undergraduates enrolled in a methods course and their instructor. Four trainees concurrently taking three related courses were purposefully selected as focal trainees. Data were generated during one academic year through video-recorded observations of classes and POF conferences, fieldnotes, semi-structured interviews, and collection of student products (e.g., essays, lesson plans). Transcribed POF discourse was examined through content analysis, microethnographic discourse analysis, and tracer analysis.

The content analysis showed that the participants discussed a wide range of topics (e.g., trainees' L2 problems, student participation) by referring to a variety of texts and contexts. The microethnographic analysis illustrated the various ways in which the instructor supported trainees' reflection and knowledge construction. Finally, the tracer analysis detailed the different learning pathways that the trainees

constructed as they responded to the affordances of their POF discussions. The findings highlight the role of the instructor in promoting pedagogical link-making (Scott et al., 2011) and the importance of examining each POF talk as part of the long conversation carried out by the participants over an extended period of time in various contexts.

Acknowledgements

This thesis is a culmination of my many years of professional socialization experiences, both in receiving POF as a pre-service and in-service trainee and in delivering it as a teacher educator. Fortunately, I have met many socializing agents along the way who have been willing to help me out.

My utmost gratitude goes to my participants, without whose cooperation this thesis would have been impossible—all the participants in the study. In particular, I wish to thank Haru, Noelle, Saburo, Takumi, and Hiroki-sensei (all pseudonyms) for helping me to see the potential of POF in pre-service teacher education in Japan. I deeply appreciate their commitment and dedication to this long-term project.

More than anyone else, I want to thank my lead supervisor, Professor Fiona Copland. She was always there for me, listening to and challenging my ideas, and supporting me in every possible way. I have been fortunate to have opportunities to experience what dialogic talk was like through our supervisory meetings. It is a great honour and a source of pride to have conducted this study under her supervision. I also wish to thank my second supervisor, Dr. Vander Viana, for carefully reading multiple drafts of this thesis and responding to my questions in a timely, responsive way. His constructive feedback and delightful sense of humour kept me motivated and on track. Their warmth and kindness touched me more than they will ever know. Thank you, Fiona and Vander, for being the best supervisory team that one could wish for.

I would also like to extend my heartfelt gratitude to Professors Angela Creese and Fiona Farr for reviewing my thesis. Their extensive and constructive comments have greatly helped me improve the quality of this thesis. I deeply appreciate our conversation at the viva, which made me feel that my project was worthwhile.

My warm appreciation goes to Professor Tara Fenwick for offering a series of workshops during my first year in the programme. During my visit to Stirling, she kindly took time to meet with me and put me in a network of fellow PhD students. I would also like to thank Drs. Greg Mannion and John I'Anson for their constructive feedback on my review documents and presentation and Dr. Steve Mann and Professor Claire Kramsch for taking the time to listen and understand my research. Also, I owe a special word of appreciation to Professor John Fanselow and Maureen Boyd for sending their work, which gave me valuable insights. Moreover, I wish to thank Dr. Sue Garton. Had she not suggested that I contact Fiona, I would not have had this wonderful opportunity to study at Stirling.

I would like to thank my fellow PhD students at Stirling, former and current, including those enrolled in the Research Development Workshop 2015–16 and the TESOL group. I am especially grateful to Aileen Ireland, Marcelina John, and Ming Ni for their collegiality and friendship. Aileen has unsparingly supported me since the very first day of my stay in Scotland. Special words of thanks go to Aileen and her wonderful family for their hospitality.

I would also like to express my appreciation to my former professors in Australia, Canada, and the United States: Drs. Kathleen Bailey, Alan Jones, John Hedgcock, Bernard Mohan, Jean Turner, Leo van Lier, and Nobuko Sugamoto for supporting my decision to pursue my PhD as well as for giving me a strong foundation in reflective practice, sociocultural theories, functional linguistics, discourse analysis, and classroom ethnography for undertaking my PhD research. Kathi, Alan, John, Bernie, Jean, Leo, and Sugamoto-sensei, I am greatly honoured that I was your student. Thank you for being my inner voice, Leo.

To my colleagues at Kyoai Gakuen University, I owe profound thanks for their understanding and support. I am particularly grateful to the present and immediate past Chairs of our programme, Drs. Yutaka Fujieda and Ai Takeuchi, as well as to our immediate past President, Professor Yumi Hirata. Also, I gratefully acknowledge the financial support from Kyoai, which allowed me to purchase some of my research tools.

Words of thanks go warmly to my wonderful friends and colleagues in Japan and the U.S.A. Ms. Chiho Takayama kindly arranged a space for Fiona and me to meet to discuss my project during Fiona's stay in Japan. Drs. Yasushi Sekiya, Tomoko Fujimura, Yasuko Ito, and Atsushi Iida always gave me supportive, caring encouragement. I am thankful to Drs. Gulbahar Becket and Tammy Slater for encouraging me to pursue a PhD.

Final words of appreciation go to my family, who provided unyielding support, encouragement, and patience throughout my study: to Matsuo and Hiroko Kobayashi for taking care of our children and allowing me to focus on my PhD, to Ema and Masato Kobayashi for being so patient and a great source of inspiration, and to Tatsunori and Miyuki Oe for the support they have been, generous and solid. I wish you were here to enjoy this, Otoo-san. Finally, I thank my spouse and long-time colleague Masaki Kobayashi for having accompanied this and many other journeys over the last 30 years.

Table of Contents

Chapter 1: Introduction.. 1

1.1 Background 1

1.2 The Problem Statement.. 7

1.3 Research Questions 10

1.4 Overview of the Thesis 13

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature 15

2.1 Historical and Cultural Context of English Language Education in Japan 15

2.1.1 ELT in Japan 16

2.1.2 Teacher Preparation in Japan 16

2.1.3 The Course of Study.. 17

2.2 Theoretical Lenses Informing the Investigation 23

2.2.1 Language Socialization 23

2.2.2 Vygotskian Sociocultural Theory 26

2.2.3 Bakhtin’s Dialogism.. 29

2.3 Learning to Teach English as a Language Socialization Process 33

2.3.1 Reflection and Talk in L2 Teacher Learning 38

2.3.2 Teachers’ Use of SLA Knowledge for Reflection 41

2.3.3 Pedagogical Link-Making Through Dialogue 42

2.4 Post-Observation Feedback (POF) Conferencing for Teachers.......................... 43

2.4.1 POF as a Speech Event 44

2.4.2 The Content of POF Talk.. 46

2.4.3 Types of Talk and Trainer Role in POF Conferences................................. 49

2.4.4 Emotions in POF 54

2.4.5 The Use of Video in POF.. 55

2.4.6 Learning Pathways Involving POF 56

2.5 Summary of the Chapter 59

Chapter 3: Research Methodology 61
  3.1 Linguistic Ethnography (LE) 61
    3.1.1 Principles and Characteristics of LE 61
    3.1.2 Tools and Techniques Employed in LE 67
    3.1.3 A Linguistic Ethnographic Approach Involving Multiple Cases 72
  3.2 The Pilot Study 73
  3.3 The Main Study 76
    3.3.1 The Focal Participants 78
    3.3.2 The Researcher and her Relationships with the Participants 81
  3.4 Data Generation 82
    3.4.1 Observations and Fieldnotes 83
    3.4.2 Interviews 89
    3.4.3 Written Products 92
    3.4.4 Background Questionnaire 93
  3.5 Data Analysis 93
    3.5.1 Content Analysis 96
    3.5.2 Within-Event Analysis of POF Discourse 98
    3.5.3 Cross-Event Analysis: Identifying Tracers 105
  3.6 Ethical Concerns and Considerations 106
  3.7 Trustworthiness of the Study 109
  3.8 Summary of the Chapter 116
Chapter 4: Pedagogical Context of POF talk 117
  4.0 Introduction 117
  4.1 Institutional Context 117
  4.2 Microteaching and its Physical Environment 118
  4.3 Post-Lesson Activities 124
    4.3.1 Written Peer Feedback and POF in Methods 1 124

4.3.2 Individual Video Reviewing and Peer Written Feedback in Methods 2.... 131

4.4 The Focal Trainees and Their POF Partners.... 134

4.4.1 Trainees' Experience With Microteaching, POF, and Individual Viewing 134

4.4.2 Interpersonal Relationships Among the Trainees 135

4.5 Summary.... 139

Chapter 5: The Content of Post-Observation Feedback Conferences.... 141

5.1 Stages of POF and Episode Boundaries 141

5.2 Topics of the POF Talk.... 145

5.3 References to Texts and Contexts.... 151

5.4 Summary and Discussion.... 159

Chapter 6: The Instructor's Role in Joint Meaning Making and Knowledge Construction through POF Interactions.... 163

6.0 Introduction.... 163

6.1 Supporting Knowledge Construction.... 164

6.1.1 Promoting Trainees' Noticing of and Attention to Language Issues.... 164

6.1.2 Explicit Modelling Pedagogical Actions 176

6.1.3 Demonstrating Professional Vision of Classroom Interaction.... 180

6.1.4 Helping Trainees' Link-Making 185

6.2 Other Types of Instructor Support.... 210

6.2.1 Listening Attentively and Quietly.... 210

6.2.2 Responding to Emotionally Charged Moments (ECMs) 213

6.3 Summary and Discussion.... 225

Chapter 7: Trainees' Learning Across POF Conferences and Related Events Haru's and Takumi's Cases.... 229

7.0 Introduction.... 229

7.1 Haru's Learning Across Events.... 230

7.1.1 Talking About a Peer's Intention 232

7.1.2 Talking About Alternative Actions 234

7.1.3 Discussing Teacher Repetition in a Written Essay and Interview 238

7.1.4 Talking About an Enactment Problem 243

7.1.5 Discussing Teacher Repetition in the Position Paper 248

7.2 Takumi's Learning Across Events 250

7.2.0 Exploring the Use of L1 and L2 to Reconsider the Medium of Instruction 251

7.2.1 Receiving Advice 255

7.2.2 Receiving More Advice 257

7.2.3 Receiving Even More Advice 261

7.3 Summary 267

Chapter 8: Trainees' Learning Across POF Conferences and Related Events Noelle's and Saburo's Cases 269

8.0 Introduction 269

8.1 Noelle's Learning Across Events 270

8.1.1. Talking About the Previous Class 272

8.1.2 Receiving Feedback Informally From Peers 275

8.1.3 Talking About Microteacher Intention Behind Introducing a Classroom Phrase 276

8.1.4 Talking About Her Intention Behind Introducing a CE Expression 279

8.1.5 Discussing Her Desire to Use More English in Class 281

8.1.6 Writing About the Importance of L2 Production 282

8.1.7 Receiving Advice About Learner Training in Classroom Communication 283

8.1.8 Talking About Her Intention Behind Using a New Expression 285

8.2 Saburo's Learning across Events 290

8.2.1 Monitoring Students' Participation 291

8.3 Summary and Discussion 310

Chapter 9: Conclusion and Implications ... 313
  9.0 Introduction ... 313
  9.1. Summary of Findings and Discussions ... 313
    9.1.1 The Topics Discussed and References Made ... 314
    9.1.2 Co-Construction of Knowledge, Joint Meaning Making, and the Instructor as a Socializing Agent ... 315
    9.1.3 Learning Pathways Across Events ... 320
  9.2 The Implications of the Study ... 323
    9.2.1 Theoretical and Methodological Implications ... 323
    9.2.2 Pedagogical Implications ... 326
  9.3 Limitations of the Study and Directions for Future Research ... 331
  9.4 Personal Reflection as a Linguistic Ethnographer ... 334
References ... 339
Appendix A: Project Timeline ... 373
Appendix B: Trainee Interview Guide ... 375
Appendix C: Instructor Interview Guide ... 376
Appendix D: Interviews Guide for the Staff Members Involved in PTE ... 377
Appendix E: Background Questionnaire (with English translation) ... 378
Appendix F: Transcription Conventions ... 379
Appendix G: Consent Form (English translation) ... 380
Appendix H: Assessment for ELT Methodology 1 ... 383
Appendix I: Microteaching Assessment Form Used by the Instructor ... 384
Appendix J: POF Participants and Their Contributions ... 385
Appendix K: Topics and References ... 391

List of Figures and Tables

Table 2.1: Four Classes of Communicative Approach 32

Table 3.1: Summary of the Database 82

Table 4.1: Descriptions of the Major Tasks for Methods 1 & 2 in Chronological Order 120

Table 4.2: The Focal Trainees and Their POF Partners 135

Table 4.3: Address Terms of the Older Trainees 137

Table 4.4: Address Terms of the Instructors 137

Figure 3.1: Methods 1 Classroom Layout for Whole-Class Situations 84

Figure 3.2: POF Conferencing Layout 85

Figure 3.3: Triangulation 112

Figure 4.1: Methods 1 Classroom Layout for Concurrent Micro-Lessons 119

Figure 6.1: Chronology of the two POF Events 198

Figure 6.2: Triadic Nature of Video-Mediated POF Interactions 227

Figure 7.1: Haru’s Learning Pathways 231

Figure 7.2: Takumi’s Learning Pathways 250

Figure 8.1: Noelle’s Learning Pathways 271

Figure 8.2: Saburo’s Learning Pathways 293

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

CA	conversation analysis
CE	classroom English
ELT	English language teaching
LE	linguistic ethnography
LS	language socialization
L1	first language
L2	second language
MEXT	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology
POF	post-observation feedback
PTE	pre-service teacher education
SCT	sociocultural theory
SLA	second language acquisition
SLTE	second language teacher education
TESOL	teaching English to speakers of other languages
TEYL	teaching English to young learners

Chapter 1: Introduction

> Each teacher's thinking needs to be confirmed, modified, or stimulated to new levels of understanding by reflecting aloud in groups or shared journals. If left unsocialized, individual reflection can close in on itself, producing detached, idiosyncratic teachers. Because reflection is not an end product itself but for the purpose of action, communal dialogue is essential. Many different voices are necessary.
>
> (Valli, 1997, p. 86)

1.1 Background

Over the last four decades, there has been a great upsurge of interest in the interplay between theory and practice in second language teacher education (SLTE). For instance, Larsen-Freeman (1983) argued that teacher education be viewed as a process of preparing teachers to make *informed decisions* about teaching, suggesting that teachers need *awareness* and *knowledge* of what options are available as well as *skills* to put them into practice. Wallace's (1991) reflective model stressed the importance of reflection in linking *received knowledge* (i.e., knowledge that teachers gain from academic studies) and *experiential knowledge* (i.e., knowledge that they gain from their classroom experiences). Later, van Lier (1994) questioned the traditional notion of theory as something constructed and then applied by arguing that teachers develop their theory of practice to articulate their reasons for pedagogical choices of actions made in particular situations. Thus, teaching a second language (L2) can be seen as what Mohan (2011) refers to as a *social practice* that entails both theoretical understanding and practical action. Making theory-practice connections through hands-on action and reflection talk is considered to be an important part of learning a social practice (Mohan, 2011). In the case of pre-service teacher education (PTE), action refers to teaching practice such as microteaching and teaching practicum whereas reflection talk include post-observation feedback (POF) discussions and what Zoshak (2016) calls "tiny talks" (i.e., brief conversations that teachers have about their lessons between classes).

This study explores the role of POF talk in PTE trainees' learning of the social practice of English language teaching (ELT). My personal interest in POF stems from my experiences as a university tutor and teacher trainee. As a tutor teaching an undergraduate methods course, I had been dissatisfied with the ways in which I conducted feedback sessions in class. As described in Chapters 3 and 4, the methods course meets once a week for 90 minutes over the academic year. This course is expected not only to cover a wide range of topics such as national teaching guidelines called the *Courses of Study*, and second language acquisition (SLA) theories, basic teaching techniques, lesson planning, and language assessment, but also to provide opportunities for each student to do microteaching. Although the class size can vary from year to year, I have had an average of approximately 15 students. Since this was the only methods course that those students wishing to teach at the senior high school level were required to take before their school placements, the highest priority had to be given to helping these students learn basic knowledge and skills to get ready for and "survive" their practicum. Thus, special attention was paid to such minimum skills as effective blackboard writing and the production of written lesson plans based on textbooks approved by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and

Technology (MEXT) (JACET SIG on English Language Education, 2017). Because of the focus on the practical, microteaching has always been and will, perhaps, always be a major component of the course; however, securing sufficient time for each student to give two or three microlessons and receive meaningful feedback is not an easy task. My experience has been that we often had only a little time for the whole-class feedback session and that the participants–including myself–tended to give positive feedback and advice/suggestions as to how to improve lessons in a one-way direction with the microteacher nodding and taking notes. Thus, there was a clear division of labour: the instructor and peers talk while the microteacher listens and takes notes. Because I consider two-way interaction as an important driving force for learning (van Lier, 1996), I have tried asking questions to encourage the microteacher's articulation of their thoughts and feelings, but often have ended up running out of time. Consequently, I gradually became dissatisfied and started to wonder what is reasonable to achieve in promoting reflection in a pre-service methods course.

In search for alternative ways of conducting feedback sessions, I looked back on my own experiences receiving feedback as a trainee on my teaching in three different contexts: (1) my undergraduate methods course, (2) my one-month initial teacher training, and (3) my MATESOL Practicum. In the first context, I was a PTE trainee enrolled in my ELT methods course at a university in Japan just like the focal trainees in this study. One major task of this course was to give a microlesson of less than ten minutes that used an assigned paragraph from a MEXT-approved senior high school textbook. This microteaching involved the entire class of approximately 40 trainees acting as high school students. We were required specifically to translate the English paragraph into Japanese word by word and explain grammar and vocabulary.

After each microlesson, the professor commented primarily on the accuracy of our translation and explanation. Also, he occasionally commented that we should speak confidently. In retrospect, he was the only source of feedback in the class because the rest of us were expected to listen to him as he gave feedback. The focus of the feedback in this context was the professor telling us what he thought about our microlessons, rather than us "seeking information, responding to comments, and incorporating what is learned from them in later work" (Boud & Molly, 2012, p. 6) as learners of teaching. The professor's approach was *transmissive* (van Lier, 1996) because he did not engage in dialogue or give us any opportunities to express our opinions. However, even if I had been asked to give feedback on my peers, I would not have known what to comment on except for occasional errors made by my classmates in explaining L2 grammar.

The second context occurred immediately after I graduated with my first university degree and teaching licence. It was during the one-month initial teacher training required for all newly employed teachers at a private language school in Japan. We were divided into several small groups of five to six trainees, and a trainer was assigned to each group. As a trainee, I was instructed to give several peer microlessons only in English, which entailed presenting a target structure in a context and using flash cards to have students produce the target structure in a controlled practice. Each lesson was followed by a POF session where our trainer would first invite peers acting as students to give feedback and then give feedback herself. Each day we had a different trainer. The trainers would make jokes from time to time perhaps to mitigate the face-threatening nature of their advice. I believe that I benefitted greatly from this initial teacher training. However, I felt as though we were expected to follow whatever feedback we were given by the trainers. As such, the trainers could be characterized as “authoritative” in Bakhtin’s (1981) sense as they seemed to have aimed to focus our attention on one idea and to promote conformity.

The third context concerns my MA studies in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) undertaken in the U.S.A. in mid 1990s. As a major assignment for the Practicum Seminar that I took in my final semester, I taught a speaking-and-listening course in the Intensive English as a Second Language (ESL) Programme. This experience gave me the chance to receive feedback on my teaching from my on-site mentor on a regular basis. Also, I received valuable feedback from the Course Professor and the Practicum Coordinator after their visits to my class. Particularly noteworthy was the POF conference that I was fortunate to have with the professor. Although, admittedly, I do not recall all the details, I clearly remember that the professor was listening enthusiastically to me as I discussed how the lesson had gone; he let me speak trying to understand my actions and intentions. Also, to my surprise, and contrary to my expectation, he gave me positive comments on those aspects of the lesson that I had asked him to look for during our pre-observation conference. I was impressed by his detailed observation notes which he shared with me. Although I was extremely nervous on my way to his office, I felt truly inspired on my way home.

Reflecting on these experiences made me realize that I was biased toward the idea of having feedback sessions involving interactions in small groups or one-on-one situations and that it was the *dialogi*c nature of the POF interaction (Mann & Copland, 2010; Waite, 1995) with my practicum professor that I particularly appreciated. This reflection, as well as my dissatisfaction with the ways in which I was conducting feedback, led me to decide to conduct the present study.

This left me with a challenge: how to study feedback when there was so little time for it. I discussed this problem with a colleague, Dr. Hiroki Sekiguchi (pseudonym), who also taught on the course and shared a similar dissatisfaction regarding feedback. Fortunately, he offered to conduct POF outside class time, saying that he wanted to see if this arrangement, which was "new-in-context" (Mann & Edge, 2013, p. 5), would be valuable for pre-service teacher education (PTE) going forward. Thus, the present study explores how this innovation plays out in the context of an undergraduate methods course.

Before moving to the specifics of this study, it is necessary to define some of the key terms associated with participants' roles (e.g., *trainer* and *trainee*) as they are used in this thesis. I prefer to call my student participants "PTE students," but they also become "students" in their peers' microlessons. To distinguish these, I use the term *PTE trainee* in this thesis to refer to their institutional role. Accordingly, I use the term *trainer*, for consistency's sake, in discussing people who have institutionally assigned roles in assisting and promoting teacher learning and development.

Also, I use the term *microteacher* to refer to the instructional role that trainees play in their microteaching. However, it is important to note that the participants used the local term, *jugyoo sha*, which can be translated as "lessoner," rather than "student teachers." This local expression is neutral in that it simply describes what the person does. I would be inclined to use this term to capture the essence of the indigenous concept, but, to avoid possible confusion which may result from the use of the uncommon expression, I shall continue to use the term *microteacher* throughout the thesis to refer to PTE trainees giving microlessons. As discussed later, the English word *teacher* can be translated as “sensei”; however, it means “living ahead.” Also, its other Japanese counterparts *kyooshi* and *kyooin* have special connotations; the former means a “teaching master” while the latter refers to practising teachers. Typically, it is not until the PTE trainees go to their alma maters to do their practica that they are addressed as “*sensei*” for the first time. Therefore, I would reserve the terms “student teacher” or “pre-service teacher” especially for their status at this stage. Additionally, I shall use the term *mentor* to refer to in-service teachers who supervise student teachers during their school-based practica.

In the remainder of this chapter, I first define the scope of my research by identifying research gaps to be filled. This is followed by the presentation of the research questions guiding the inquiry. Finally, I provide an overview of how the remaining chapters are organized.

1.2 The Problem Statement

Since the early 1990s, an increasing number of L2 scholars have turned their attention to the POF interactions, identifying politeness strategies employed by trainers to mitigate the illocutionary force of potentially face-threatening speech acts such as advising and evaluating (e.g., Vásquez, 2004; Wajnryb, 1994) and negotiation and construction of face and identity (e.g., Copland, 2011) as well as the trainer’s role in promoting teacher reflection. However, there are many aspects of the POF that are relatively unexplored.

First, most studies to date have examined POF interactions accompanying teaching practice involving real students, rather than peer microteaching (e.g., Copland, 2011; Engin, 2013; Philpot, 2016). This is a reasonable direction considering the goal of teacher preparation is to help trainees to develop their professional competency to promote their students' learning. Also, researchers and teacher educators (e.g., Johnson & Arshavskaya, 2011) have pointed out the artificial nature of peer microteaching, which has been found to affect the interaction between "teachers" and their "students" (Bell, 2007; Skinner, 2012). Nonetheless, peer microteaching is the most appropriate available means for practising teaching skills in methods courses offered at Japanese universities because these are prerequisites for the school placement (i.e., the teaching practicum).

Second, most TESOL-related POF studies, including those involving trainees using English as an additional language, have taken place in ESL contexts and focused almost exclusively on POF conferences conducted in English, rather than in their first language (L1). Consequently, we know relatively little about how L2 English-speaking trainees learn the social practice of ELT mostly in L1-mediated POF interactions (cf., Hall, 2017, 2020).

Thirdly, there is a relative lack of research on POF in Japan. Despite the large number of publications that discuss Lesson Study (e.g., Akita & Sakamoto, 2015), only a little has been reported on what actually transpires in POF discussions held in Japanese contexts (e.g., Sakamoto, 2013; Sugiyama & Yamazaki, 2016; Watanabe & Iwase, 2017). Most of these reports (with a few exceptions, including Yamamura & Okazaki, 2019; Yoshida, 2020) are written in Japanese and generally not readily accessible to a broad audience. Also, while focusing on what was achieved through collaborative POF interactions, these studies did not conduct a detailed linguistic analysis of POF discourse, which would have revealed much more linguistic and interactional subtleties involved in joint meaning making. Additionally, the existing literature for pre-service SLTE in Japan seems to be limited to brief endorsement of reflection and POF discussion in books or book chapters on ELT methodology (with the notable exception of Tamai et al., 2019).

Fourthly, only a few studies have examined POF as a speech event through which trainees are socialized into being teachers of English in the Japanese education system despite the recognition that learning to teach is a process of socialization. As Valli's (1997) words quoted at the beginning of this chapter suggest, individual teachers' thinking requires socialization into the relevant norms, values, and practices of the TESOL profession so as not to be uninformed/misinformed or *self-absorbed* (Edge, 2011). Learning to teach EFL can therefore be conceptualized as professional socialization into discourse and practices of the ELT profession (Duff, 2010; Farr et al., 2019; Freeman, 2016; Richards, 2008). It can also be regarded as a process of *academic discourse socialization* (Duff, 2010) because teachers are expected to learn to use the academic knowledge and discourse of TESOL and related disciplines such as applied linguistics and SLA (Hedgcock & Lee, 2017) in order to make sense of what transpires in their classrooms. While an increasing number of language socialization (LS) studies have detailed university students' engagement in academic tasks and activities such as oral presentations (Kobayashi et al., 2017), relatively few studies have examined teacher trainees' learning to teach an L2, that is non-native trainees learning to teach their L2.

Finally, very little is known about how trainees learn the social practice of ELT over time and across contexts (e.g., activities, courses) although previous studies in this area have greatly contributed to our understanding of the moment-by-moment unfolding of interaction within single POF events, whether it concerns trainers' use of scaffolds (Harvey & Vásquez, 2015) or politeness strategies (e.g., Bailey, 2006; Vásquez, 2004; Wajnryb, 1998), the impact of video use on POF talk (e.g., Baecher & McCormack, 2015), or the complex process of negotiating face and identity (e.g., Copland, 2011; Donaghue, 2020). However, learning to teach is such a complex process that it cannot be confined to a single event. What is missing from the current literature then is longitudinal research that traces trainees' sustained engagement with the *affordances* (i.e., learning opportunities that arise from individuals' participation, van Lier, 2000) of prior POF events. Also, although the influence of trainees' past experiences is acknowledged in the literature (e.g., Bailey et al., 1996), relatively little is known about what experiences and resources trainees and trainers actually draw on to make sense of specific aspects of the classroom events under discussion and how they use them for meaning making through POF talk.

In this section, I have discussed the issues that need to be explored regarding the use of POF conferences in SLTE. These include (1) POF conferences in conjunction with peer microteaching, (2) L2 English-speaking trainees' learning of ELT in POF conferences conducted in their L1, (3) L2 English-speaking trainees' language socialization through POF conferences, and (4) trainees' sustained engagement with the affordances of prior POF interactions.

1.3 Research Questions

To address these issues, the present study employs a longitudinal multiple case study approach, adopting linguistic ethnography (LE) as a conceptual and methodological framework. According to Rampton et al. (2004), LE posits that "to a considerable degree, language and the social world are mutually shaping, and that close analysis of situated language use can provide both fundamental and distinctive insights into the mechanism and dynamics of social and cultural production in everyday activity" (p. 2). Thus, this project seeks to understand the mechanism and dynamics through which PTE trainees could be socialized by conducting a detailed analysis of POF interactions as situated in a wider socioeducational context. Moreover, this study draws upon socioculturally oriented perspectives, namely, the theory of language socialization (Ochs, 1986), Vygotskian sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1987), and Bakhtin's (1981) theory of dialogism; the first two theories stress the role of language in human learning whereas Bakhtin's theory provides important insights into the situated nature of utterance.

This investigation was guided by the following research questions:

(1) What do PTE trainees and their trainer talk about in their POF conferences? What other texts and contexts do they refer to in this process?
(2) What is the role of the trainer in supporting PTE trainees' meaning making and knowledge construction through POF talk?
(3) How do the trainees continuously engage with and act upon points discussed in prior POF sessions?

The first question, consisting of two parts, addresses the "what" of POF sessions conducted over a span of one academic year. The first part addresses the topics discussed. From an LS perspective, an analysis of the content of POF talk, would give us an indication of what the participants are concerned with, what they prioritize, and, therefore, what the participants are socialized into. Given that LS entails learning to select proper topics for discussion, what participants in a POF event talk about serves as important evidence for their professional socialization (Farr et al., 2019). However, this is an aspect of the POF event that has not been examined systematically to date, with a few exceptions, such as Farr et al.'s (2019) SLTE corpus study and Sugiyama and Yamazaki's (2016) study in primary science education, and therefore merits more research attention. The second part of the research question addresses the references that the participants make in discussing various topics. In a sociocultural perspective, the prior knowledge and understanding that people bring to a topic is claimed to mediate their perceptions and interpretations of the information (Lantolf & Poehner, 2014). To better understand this process of socialization and mediation, it is important to examine references that the participants make to other texts and contexts in their meaning-making efforts. Maybin (2004) argued that intertextual referencing is one important means by which students become socialized into institutional values, roles, and procedures.

In contrast, the second question aims to reveal how the participants talked about those topics to be identified in Chapter 5, focusing on the moment-by-moment unfolding of this speech event. While foregrounding the role of the instructor as an agent of socialization, this question recognizes the co-constructed nature of the meaning-making interactions in POF sessions. In other words, the knowledge and understanding facilitated by these sessions is conceptualized as a joint act between these social actors instead of being transmitted in a one-way direction from the trainer to the trainees, the very type of education that Freire (1970) problematized as the *banking concept of education*.

While some learning can happen within a discrete event over a relatively short span of time, other learning takes place over time as a result of the cumulative effects of a number of events (Mercer, 2019; Putney et al., 2000; van Lier, 1988; Wortham & Reyes, 2021). The same may be said about teacher learning. The third research question therefore aims to trace PTE trainees' learning over time. Moreover, POF is intended to promote teacher reflection; however, as Akbari (2007) states, "reflection is not an end, but a means to an end; the end sought here is better student learning and more efficient teacher performance" (p. 204). Therefore, it is necessary that we go beyond the confines of single POF sessions to examine what actions trainees take as a result of dialogue-mediated reflection as well as how such reflection might guide their interpretations of classroom events.

1.4 Overview of the Thesis

Chapter 2 situates this study in the literature by describing the historical and cultural context of English language education in Japan, outlining the theoretical perspectives informing the investigation and reviewing the relevant studies pertaining to teacher socialization and POF conferencing. Chapter 2 also discusses what is missing in prior research on POF conferencing and how this study aims to address the research gaps identified.

Chapter 3 focuses on the methodology of this research; it first outlines the principles of LE and then describes the methods and procedures for data collection and analysis. The POF conferencing is conceptualized as a major unit of analysis, and analysed in various ways to examine not only what transpires within the speech event but also across events over time. Also, recognizing my role in the process of data generation and interpretation, I address issues of reflexivity, ethics, and trustworthiness here. This study adopts a multiple-case study approach involving four focal trainees enrolled in a PTE programme at a Japanese university.

Chapter 4 is intended as a background chapter to contextualize the analysis to be presented in the following four chapters. Chapter 5 addresses the first research question to identity the topics of the focal trainees' POF conferences, thus focusing on the "what" of the POF talk. The topics of the focal trainees' POF sessions and their references to other texts and contexts are explored. In contrast, Chapter 6 examines the interpersonal processes of joint knowledge construction and problem solving in the focal trainees' POF conferences, foregrounding the role of the instructor as an agent of socialization in the ongoing meaning-making interactions.

Chapters 7 and 8 can be considered as "twin" chapters as they both trace the four focal trainees' learning across POF conferences and other events. The focus is what Wortham and Reyes (2021) referred to as "the pathways of linked events" (p. 22) across which professional discourse socialization took place. Because presenting all the four cases is beyond the scope of a single chapter, I present two cases in each of these chapters.

As the final chapter, Chapter 9 summarizes the research findings and discusses their implications for theory, methodology, and pedagogy in the area of SLTE and discourse socialization. It also addresses the study's limitations and discusses directions for future research. The chapter ends with reflections on my personal transformation as a linguistic ethnographer studying teacher learning.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

The main purpose of Chapter 2 is to situate this study within the literature. This chapter consists of five sections. The first section describes the historical and cultural context (i.e., macro-context) of English language education in Japan to better contextualize the study. The second section provides an overview of the three theoretical perspectives informing this investigation: namely, language socialization (LS), Vygotskian SCT, and Bakhtin's dialogism. The third section also discusses what these perspectives have to offer to research on L2 teacher learning, paying particular attention to how LS theory can inform SLTE. The fourth section reviews relevant studies on various aspects of POF conferences with the goal of further elaborating on the research gaps identified in Chapter 1. This review is intended to provide a selective, rather than exhaustive, coverage of relevant theories and studies to identify key gaps in the literature. The final section provides a summary of this chapter.

2.1 Historical and Cultural Context of English Language Education in Japan

Because this study takes an LE approach to explore undergraduates' learning in a PTE programme in Japan, it is essential to consider the macro-context in which its participants—PTE trainees, their trainers, programme administrators—are all situated. In this section, I describe the historical and cultural context of English language education in Japan.

2.1.1 ELT in Japan

In Japan, English language lessons have long been taught through *Yakudoku*, which literally means translation and reading. It is a Japanese version of the Grammar-Translation method. A typical lesson would involve word-by-word translation of English sentences, teacher explanation of target language structures, and choral reading (Gorsuch, 1998). These activities are done almost entirely in Japanese. As LoCastro (1996) indicates, (1) there is a heavy emphasis on sentence-level grammar which is indicated by teachers' and students' constant reference to "sentences," rather than discourse; and (2) interaction involving negotiation of meaning, considered conducive to student learning, tends not to occur even in Japanese. In short, *Yakudoku* instruction is described as "heavily didactic, utilizing a deductive approach, with all necessary information conveyed by the teacher to students" (LoCastro, 1996, p. 50) in Japanese. Moreover, *Yakudoku* has been considered as an appropriate way of helping students prepare for their university entrance examinations that focus heavily on grammar and reading (e.g., Nishino, 2011; Sakui, 2004). This was the very approach that I was required to use in my undergraduate methods course in 1991 (see Chapter 1).

2.1.2 Teacher Preparation in Japan

PTE takes place mostly at the undergraduate level in Japan. Undergraduates with a non-education major may elect to pursue teaching licences in addition to their major-related courses required for graduation as long as their universities and departments are recognized by MEXT as teacher education institutions. The subject matter of a teaching licence roughly corresponds with the focus of each department or faculty that offers PTE. For example, students majoring in international relations can obtain a licence for teaching social studies, and students in a foreign language and literature programme can obtain a licence for ELT in addition to a licence for teaching the language of their major language (e.g., German, French) if they complete a MEXT-approved PTE programme offered by their faculty. Broadly speaking, there are three levels of teaching licences: First-Class, Second-Class, and Advanced. The granting of each of these licences is contingent upon completion of a relevant degree programme (an associate degree for the Second-Class Licence, a bachelor's degree for the First Class Licence, and a master's degree for the Advanced Licence) and the minimum number of PTE credits required for each licence. All participants in this study were working toward their First-Class Licences for Senior and/or Junior High School.

2.1.3 The Course of Study

In Japan, all public-school curricula from the primary level to senior high school level are governed by a set of national curriculum standards named the *Course of Study*. It is revised every ten years and implemented over a three-year period; first at the primary school level, second at the junior high school level, and third at the senior high school level. In 1989, the then Ministry of Education, Science, and Culture (later MEXT) revised the *Courses of Study* for junior and senior high schools to emphasize that the learning objective of studying EFL was to develop communicative competence (Wada, 1994), which has been mandated over the last three decades. Importantly, in 2013[1], MEXT (2009a) implemented the current Senior High School *Course of Study* for Foreign Language, which aims to develop students' communicative competence in

---

[1] *The Course of Study* is promulgated a few years before it is actually implemented.

English and requires senior high-school teachers, both non-Japanese teachers and Japanese teachers of English, to teach English through the medium of English in high schools where grammar and translation had long been major foci of instruction. This *Course of Study* states:

> When taking into consideration the characteristics of each English subject, classes, in principle, should be conducted in English in order to enhance the opportunities for students to be exposed to English, transforming classes into real communication scenes. (MEXT, 2009b, p. 3)

While Japanese students' lack of ability to use English for communicative purposes had been a burning topic of public discussion, this was the first *Course of Study* that required Japanese teachers working at senior high schools to teach English through the medium of English. In 2017, MEXT issued the new *Junior High School Course of Study*, which is scheduled to take effect in the 2021 academic year. Under this new curriculum, Japanese teachers working at the junior high schools will be required to teach mainly through the medium of English (MEXT, 2017a), just as their senior high-school counterparts are under the current curriculum. Importantly, this does not mean that the use of L1 is prohibited. MEXT (2017a) explains this point as follows:

> the point is … to create "opportunities for students to be exposed to English" and "situations to communicate" and, if these are the purposes of the lesson, it is conceivable that Japanese will be used accordingly as an auxiliary means. The reason behind this revision which has introduced the mandate "to

> conduct lessons in English in principle" is that if one has conducted lessons using an approach based predominantly on explanation of grammar in Japanese and Japanese translation of reading passages, one must rethink such lessons, consider how to communicate meaning and content in English, and devise ways to improve one's lessons. (p. 86, my translation)

MEXT goes on to state that teachers should first try to use English actively and demonstrate willingness to communicate to foster such attitudes among students.

Also, the new *Courses of Study* aim to achieve three pillars: (1) knowledge and skills, (2) ability to think, evaluate, and express ideas, and (3) ability to engage in learning through education of each school subject. They also specified these goals should be realized through students' active involvement in learning, conceptualized by MEXT (2016)[2] as "proactive, interactive, and deep learning" (p. 8) across school years and across school subjects. In short, the three pillars refer to the "what" of the *Course of Study*, whereas the three types of learning are considered to constitute the "how" of delivering the curriculum.

---

[2] In the latest version of the document, MEXT (2019a) changed the translation of the third type of learning to "authentic learning" (p. 8).

The MEXT (2017c) explains the three types of leaning as follows:

Proactive Learning	Students having an interest in learning, relating it to their career formation, staying tenacious with a vision, engaging strongly in learning, and **synthesizing and reflecting on one's learning activities for the next step of learning**
Dialogic Learning	Students broadening and deepening their own minds through **collaboration with other students, dialogues with teachers and local people, and engagement with the wisdoms of ages past**
Deep Learning	Students using **ways of seeing and thinking associated with each subject**, **interrelating various concepts to understand them more deeply**, scrutinizing information to develop opinions, identifying problems and thinking of solutions, and creating new ideas based on different thoughts and opinions in the process of learning as acquisition, application, and exploration

(p. 22, my translation, emphasis added)

Here, it is critical to point out that the second type of learning, although translated as "interactive" in the only English documents made available by MEXT (2016, 2019a) at present, seems to be closer to "dialogic" in both form and meaning. It is closer in form to dialogic because the original term *taiwa teki* literally means dialogic. It is closer in meaning as well because it refers to students' broadening their own minds through collaboration with other students, dialogues with teachers and local people, and engagement with the wisdom of the past (my translation, MEXT, 2017c). As discussed later, it is such engagement with different perspectives or voices that makes discourse dialogic (Scott et al., 2006).

In conjunction with these changes, which have a direct bearing on students, MEXT commissioned a team of educators and researchers in 2015 to develop a Core Curriculum for SLTE (see Tokyo Gakugei University, 2016, for details), which spells out core competencies required for all trainees to implement the new national *Courses of Study*. Based on its curriculum statements, all the universities offering a teacher licence programme proposed PTE curricula and submitted them to the Ministry for scrutiny and approval in 2018.

While PTE programmes are designed and run by universities and colleges, teaching licences are issued by the prefectural boards of education. According to Ishida et al. (2011), a recent survey conducted by the Japan Association of College English Teachers (JACET) reported that no more than 20 percent of the people who obtained their teaching licence(s) actually become teachers, suggesting that the majority did not pass teacher employment tests administered by respective prefectural boards of education or they opted to take PTE courses just to become licensed. Yet, undertaking a PTE programme for secondary teaching requires a great commitment as it involves taking extra courses, doing one-week care work in a nursing home or special school (see Excerpt 8.9), and doing a two- to four-week teaching practicum.

In 2019, MEXT implemented what they call *Core Curriculums for Foreign Languages* (MEXT, 2019b), until which time teacher education programmes in Japan had not been standardized, yielding wide variation in course offerings and teacher quality. According to Ishida et al. (2011), only a few institutions set a minimum English proficiency standard for taking ELT methods courses or teaching practica, possibly because it was assumed that students enrolled in their PTE programmes had adequate English language skills. The researchers also pointed out that, although many of the students have not reached a basic minimum level of English to function as an EFL teacher, some institutions avoid setting a minimum language standard for taking PTE courses, because they publicize the number of trainees who obtain a teaching licence as a way to attract prospective students. To improve this situation, the Core Curriculum thus specifies the minimum abilities and skills that pre-service trainees aspiring to teach English at junior and/or senior high school in Japan need to acquire (MEXT, 2019b). These include the minimum English proficiency (i.e., test scores comparable to CEFR Level B2) as well as academic knowledge in SLA, language assessment, and the history of English education in Japan. In particular, the Core Curriculum has as its goal to help Japanese teachers of English to "develop a level of English language proficiency high enough to conduct lessons in English appropriate to the level of their students" (MEXT, 2019b, p. 7, my translation).

Thus, the preparation of highly qualified English language teachers has taken on greater significance than ever before for teacher certification programmes in Japan. Despite this importance, little is known about how Japanese undergraduates learn to teach EFL in their pre-service programmes. This deserves more research attention as it is through MEXT-approved pre-service coursework, especially ELT methods courses, that undergraduates are expected to learn the basic skills and knowledge necessary for undertaking the kind of work stipulated by the *Courses of Study*. In fact, a cursory look at the Core Curriculum would suggest that the methods courses are expected to help PTE trainees learn not only the fundamental practices of ELT, including planning, giving and reflecting on lessons as well as assessing student learning, but also SLA and language assessment.

In sum, there have recently been many major changes in English language education in Japan, which have long been dominated by teacher explanation of target grammar in L1 and translation of reading passages into Japanese. These changes include the implementation of the new *Course of Study* and the Core Curriculum for Foreign Languages. While the *Course of Study* stresses integrating the four skills and providing students with more L2 exposure, the Core Curriculum aims to standardize the knowledge and skills to be acquired by teachers at primary, junior, and senior high school levels and specifies the minimum English language level required for each group of teachers. It is against this background that the present study focused on PTE trainees learning to teach EFL.

2.2 Theoretical Lenses Informing the Investigation

To examine the locally and temporarily situated experiences of undergraduates learning to teach English, this study draws upon sociocultural perspectives on learning and development, including language socialization theory (e.g., Duff, 2010; Ochs, 1988), Vygotskian sociocultural theory (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Vygotsky, 1987), and Bakhtin’s (1986) dialogism. In what follows, I review each of these in turn.

2.2.1 Language Socialization

Originating from linguistic anthropology (e.g., Hymes, 1972b), the theory of language socialization (LS) holds that newcomers to a community become gradually apprenticed into the sociocultural practices of that community as they participate in language-mediated activities under the guidance of people who are already members of it (Ochs, 1988; see also Lave & Wenger, 1991; Rogoff, 1995; Wells, 1999). In other words, children and other novices learn through *guided participation* (Rogoff, 1995) the socioculturally valued ways of behaving, thinking, believing, interacting, talking, and writing (Gee, 2008).

Because LS concerns gaining “communicative competence, membership, and legitimacy in the group” (Duff, 2007b, p. 310), or learning “culturally expected and acceptable ways of being a person and interacting with others” (Paugh, 2011, p. 151), it can be related to Copland’s (2012) notion of *legitimate talk*. According to Copland, legitimate talk takes place between socioculturally sanctioned co-participants as they discuss particular topics in a specific time-bound context where particular knowledge is privileged over other forms. Thus, to be recognized as a legitimate member of a community, one needs to learn to talk about socioculturally valued topics in the ways that reflect the participation structures (i.e., interactional rights and obligations, Erickson, 1982) of specific events by drawing upon socioculturally valued knowledge.

LS takes place explicitly as more experienced members articulate their beliefs, norms, and values, or overtly model ideal linguistic behaviors. However, the more pervasive form of LS takes place implicitly (Ochs, 1990). In other words, individuals learn how to participate appropriately in their communities primarily through observing and using language associated with their roles. An increasing number of LS researchers (e.g., Duff & Kobayashi, 2010; Morita, 2004; Watson-Gegeo, 2004) have drawn upon Lave and Wenger’s (1991) theory of situated learning, which conceptualizes “learning as increasing participation in communities of practice” (p. 49). According to Wenger (1998), the concept of a *community of practice* (CoP) refers to how groups of people engage in “sustained pursuit of a shared enterprise” (p. 47). The members of a CoP interact with each other, drawing on and creating a shared repertoire of resources including *jargon* and *shortcuts* to communication as well as *shared stories*, *inside jokes*, and *knowing laughter*.

LS as a process involves learning not only to participate appropriately in sociocultural activities, but also to claim relevant social identities. Ochs (1993) has proposed a framework for understanding the relation between language and social identity; "a cover term for a range of social personae, including social statuses, roles, positions, relationships, and other institutional and other relevant community identities one may attempt to claim or assign in the course of social life" (p. 288). Ochs also suggests that language users signal their *stances* and *acts* linguistically to realize particular social activities and identities. For instance, to claim an identity as an English language teacher, one must perform a range of social acts, such as giving directions and giving corrective feedback, which requires socially valued ways of talking that display affective and epistemic stances (e.g., communicating enthusiasm or confidence). Furthermore, more experienced individuals serve as implicit models for their novice counterparts for learning appropriate ways of acting and displaying stances as members of a community. Importantly, the relationship between language and social identity is "not direct but rather mediated by the interlocutor's understanding of the conventions for doing particular social acts and stances and the interlocutors' understandings of how acts and stances are resources for structuring social identities" (p. 289). In other words, social identities are co-constructed and negotiated constantly through social interactions. Because social acts and stances may vary across communities, an ethnographic approach to discourse would be a natural choice as research methodology (Duff, 2002).

LS has often been critiqued as being overly deterministic; however, LS scholars have overcome such criticism by incorporating the construct of learner agency (Duff, 2007b, 2015). While concepts such as *socialization* and *scaffolding* typically refer to what old-timers practise with newcomers, the concept of *learner agency* refers to the perceptions and actions of those subject to such socialization. Therefore, socialization and learner agency can be regarded as constituting two sides of the same coin. Perhaps one of the most often cited definitions of the term agency is the one provided by Ahearn (2017), who conceptualizes it as "the socioculturally mediated capacity to act" (p. 275). What this implies is that agency does not refer simply to people's individual capacity, but it also depends on the environment in which they are situated (van Lier, 2010). In applied linguistics, Duff (2012a) defines agency as "people's ability to make choices, take control, self-regulate, and thereby pursue their goals" (p. 413) in ways that make a difference in their lives. In this thesis, I regard agency as the participants' socioculturally mediated ability to perceive and act on opportunities afforded by their environment. Having outlined the theoretical perspectives informing this investigation, I next discuss how they are related to research on teacher learning.

2.2.2 Vygotskian Sociocultural Theory

Another theoretical perspective informing this study is Vygotskian Sociocultural Theory (henceforth SCT). Vygotsky (1981) argued that all higher mental functions, such as reasoning and problem solving, "are internalized social relationships" (p. 164). This means that learning takes place on two planes: first, interpersonally, through social interactions, typically with more experienced members of society; and then as individual engagement in problem-solving. Crucial in this conceptualization of learning is the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which refers to an interactional space in which children and other newcomers accomplish what they could not do on their own, or, to borrow Vygotsky's (1978) words, perform "a head taller" than themselves (p. 102). It is proposed that what is accomplished interpersonally on the social plane becomes transformed into an intrapersonal process. Van Lier (1996) suggested that the key to making this internalization process successful would be the quality of the social interaction involved.

Vygotsky (1987) regarded language as a major (if not the major) psychological tool that mediates individuals' thinking (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Building on this idea of semiotic mediation, Swain (2006) developed her notion of *languaging*, which is defined as "the process of making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language" (p. 98). In the case of PTE trainees learning to teach EFL in their home country, this process is most likely mediated by their L1 (see Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, for a relevant discussion). Languaging can also take the form of narrating. Johnson and Golombek (2011) discuss pivotal roles that the act of narrating plays in teacher development, saying that it "influences how one comes to understand what one is narrating about" (p. 490). Thus, narrating as a form of languaging "completes our thought (cognition, ideas) and transforms them into artifacts that allow for further contemplation, which in turn transforms thought" (Swain et al., 2015, p. 41).

Also pertinent to this research is Vygotsky's (1987) discussion of mediation through concepts. According to Lantolf (2011), the SCT notion of concept refers to "the meaning that cultures construct to make sense of the world" (p. 32). As such, this term has been defined variously by Vygotskian scholars as "knowledge" (Johnson &

Golombek, 2016; Lantolf, 2011), "understanding", and "principle" (Swain et al., 2015), and "the subject matter to be learned" (Mahn, 2015, p. 258). Vygotsky (2012) made a distinction between *everyday concepts* and *academic concepts* (also called *scientific concepts*). According to Swain et al. (2015), the former concepts refer to "understandings individuals develop from their experiences to solve various cognitive and emotional problems" (p. 148), whereas the latter concepts are "conscious (and consciously applied), systematic and not bound to a context" (p. 50). In this research, scientific concepts include theories of L2 learning and teaching and their metalanguage/metadiscourse (Freeman & Cazden, 1991; Hedgcock, 2002, 2009; Richards & Farrell, 2011; Walsh, 2006), whereas everyday concepts relate to trainees' experiential understanding and knowledge about L2 learning and teaching.

As Vygotsky (2012) argued, everyday and scientific concepts are not mutually exclusive, but, rather, they should, through dialectic interactions, become integrated into deeper understandings, often referred to as *true concepts*, which may be regarded as "the basis for expertise in a particular domain" (Au, 1990, p. 272). Vygotsky (1987) acknowledged the reciprocal relationships between everyday and scientific concepts, in which they affect and shape each other in complex ways. Everyday concepts mediate the development of new scientific concepts introduced in school, whereas scientific concepts mediate students' understanding of previously acquired, everyday concepts (Daniels, 2016). An important link here, as Mahn (2015) suggests, is the concept of ZPD. To create a ZPD, teachers need to recognize the primacy of interaction that helps connect the life experience and prior knowledge that students bring to the learning situation and the subject matter to be learned (i.e., scientific concepts).

Related to the ZPD is the notion of scaffolding originally proposed by Wood et al. (1976) in their study on the role of tutoring in problem-solving. Scaffolding is conceptualized as providing learners with temporary support that allows them to outstrip their unassisted efforts. Its functions include enlisting the learner’s interest in and attention to the task, simplifying the task, demonstrating an ideal act to be performed, controlling the learner’s frustration, highlighting the critical features of the task, and helping pursue the goal. Bruner (1983) suggested that the old-timer (e.g., a teacher) must gradually reduce support and hand over the responsibility as the learner gains more skill and confidence to assume greater responsibility. As such, scaffolding is *contingently responsive* (Wells, 1999) assistance that old-timers provide based on their close monitoring of the reactions of the learner to something unfamiliar or puzzling (Walqui & van Lier, 2010). In sum, the concepts of ZPD and scaffolding both seem to foreground the interpersonal processes involved in co-construction of meaning and understanding; however, placing such a focus on the interpersonal plane of analysis alone does not enable us to see how individuals change as they participate in sociocultural activities.

2.2.3 Bakhtin’s Dialogism

This study is also informed by Bakhtin’s dialogism. Like Vygotsky (1978), who emphasized the importance of social interaction as a context for human learning and development, Bakhtin (1986) writes, “the unique speech experience of each individual is shaped and developed in continuous and constant interaction with others’ individual utterances” (p. 89). As Wertsch et al. (1993) suggest, socialization takes place as individuals learn how to speak through others’ voices. This process is referred to by

Bakhtin as *ventriloquation*. As Bakhtin (1981) suggests,

> The word in language is half someone else's. It becomes "one's own" only when the speaker populates it with his intention, his accent, when appropriates the word, adapting it to his semantic and expressive intention. (pp. 293-294)

What this suggests is that when someone produces an utterance, oral or written, there are at least two voices in operation as it involves explicit and/or implicit traces of other texts or prior utterances (Linell, 2009). As Lantolf (1994) succinctly states, "no single voice is completely unique; it is a hybrid that always carries elements extracted from other voices" (p. 229).

According to Morson and Emmerson (1990), Bakhtin's use of the term *dialogue* includes (1) the dialogic nature of utterances, and (2) dialogue as opposed to monologue. In the former sense, every utterance is considered as being intended as a response to what has been said before; at the same time, it is made in anticipation of subsequent responses. This is because utterances are always directed toward or addressed to others, either a real or imagined audience (Bakhtin, 1986). The second sense of dialogue allows us to distinguish *internally persuasive discourse* from monologic, *authoritative discourse*. The former refers to "discourse that is one's own and reflective of autonomous thought", whereas the latter refers to "discourse that carries unquestionable authority and power and is taken as given without critique or question" (Kotsopoulos, 2009, p. 297). Thus, dialogue in the second sense is "an indeterminate and emergent process" (Baxter, 2004, p. 117) because the outcome of the talk is contingent on how the participants react to and build on each other's contributions.

As Phillipson and Wegerif (2016) put it, dialogue refers not just to any kind of talk between individuals, but more specifically to “a chain of shared thinking … therefore means roughly the same thing as ‘thinking together’” (p. 1). Thus, a true dialogue is regarded as a dynamic process of inquiry within and between/among individuals that generates a new understanding which none of them envisaged at the outset (Wells, 1999). In short, I use the term to refer to individuals’ engagement in conversations with both self and others, which brings a new way of looking at the situation under discussion.

Bakhtin’s theory has been influential in education and has informed recent work that has explored classroom interactions involving pupils and students learning school subjects such as science and literacy (Boyd & Markarian, 2011; Mortimer & Scott, 2003). For instance, Mortimer and Scott (2003) argue that meaning making is “a fundamentally dialogic process, where different ideas are brought together and worked on” (p. 3). They proposed a taxonomy of communicative approaches consisting of two continua, one of which concerns whether the talk is authoritative or dialogic (or “internally persuasive” in Bakhtin’s terms). The former type of discourse focuses “students’ full attention on just *one* meaning” (Scott et al., 2006, p. 610), whereas the latter type allows for the exploration of ideas and engagement with different voices and perspectives. According to Phillipson and Wegerif (2016), participants in dialogic discourse “are open to each other’s ideas and genuinely seek to understand these ideas even if they do not always agree” (p. 1). In short, it is open-mindedness demonstrated through the interanimation (or juxtaposition) of viewpoints that characterizes dialogic discourse.

The other continuum proposed by Mortimer and Scott (2003) refers to interactivity, which concerns whether speakership is restricted to a single individual or whether others have opportunities to participate in the talk. Combination of the two continua results in four types of discourse: (1) interactive-dialogic, (2) non-interactive-dialogic, (3) interactive-authoritative, and (4) non-interactive-authoritative (see Table 2.1 for a visual representation). For instance, a typical Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE, Mehan, 1979) sequence in which a teacher initiation of a question, a student response, and a teacher evaluation, falls into the category of the interactive-authoritative approach because its goal is to get students to guess what is in the teacher's mind. Although originally developed to examine pedagogical discourse in high school science classes, this analytical framework seems to be instrumental in illuminating the nature of meaning making through POF talk, as it allows us to capture the difference between "interactive learning" and "dialogic learning" discussed earlier.

Table 2.1: Four Classes of Communicative Approach

	Interactive	Noninteractive
Dialogic	A. Interactive/Dialogic	B. Noninteractive/Dialogic
Authoritative	C. Interactive/Authoritative	D. Noninteractive/Authoritative

(adapted from Scott et al., 2006, p. 611)

Also pertinent is the notion of "*dialogic stance*", which is intended to "encourage students to articulate what they know and position them to have interpretive authority" about the topic being discussed (Boyd & Markarian, 2011, p. 519). Teachers taking this stance create an interactional space where they listen carefully to students' ideas to use them as the basis for further discussion. To borrow Fisher's (2013) words, "a good dialogue engages the receptive mind, and the receptive mind depends on an attending ear" (p. 14). Thus, dialogue should go hand in hand with active listening.

Another Bakhtinian concept relevant to this study is that of *delayed reaction* (Bakhtin, 1986; Putney et al., 2000). Bakhtin suggested that some responses do not follow immediately within the same event, but emerge on a later occasions in the speech or behavior of the listener. As such, the identifications of such reactions require examinations of relatively long stretches of discourse across contexts and over time (see Kobayashi, 2004, for a cross-event analysis suggesting an undergraduate student's delayed reaction to the affordance of prior oral presentations). Delayed reactions can be seen as signs of what Maybin (1993) called *long conversation,* which captures the idea that people in a speech event recall and respond to the voices of others as well as their own in previous events. Giampapa and Canagarajah (2020) use the term to refer to "conversations between participants that transcend space and time so that they appear to be threads of the same ongoing talk" (pp. 121-122). As such, co-participants in long conversations draw on their shared history or common ground to maintain the dialogic space that transcends space and time. Having outlined the theoretical perspectives informing this investigation, I next discuss how they are related to research on teacher learning.

2.3 Learning to Teach English as a Language Socialization Process

While LS was originally developed to examine children's learning of and through their first language (e.g., Ochs, 1988), an increasing number of L2 scholars have drawn on this perspective to explore adult learning in a variety of contexts (Duff, 2002; Morita, 2004). This seems reasonable, given that LS is “both a life-long and a ‘life-wide’ process across communities and activities or speech events” (Duff, 2012b, p. 564). Likewise, teacher development is widely accepted as a complex, life-long process. Learning to teach has been described by Graves (2009) as an ongoing, developmental process for which “there is no terminal competence” (p. 118). Johnson and Golombek (2011) similarly suggested that there is no start point or end point in teacher development. This is because teachers need to keep adapting to their students’ needs as well as to their new roles and responsibilities in the face of the rapidly changing circumstances (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Ellis et al., 2010). As such, becoming an EFL teacher is also a career-long process that involves developing a language teaching identity and learning to think and talk like L2 professionals (Singh & Richards, 2006). In other words, language teacher learning and development can be conceptualized as a process of professional discourse socialization.

Cook (2008) suggests that implicit socialization is more powerful than explicit socialization because, “while novices can reject the social norms inherent in explicit socialization, it is not easy to reject the sociocultural knowledge implicit in the use of grammatical structures or interactional mechanisms” (p. 4). What this suggests for teacher learning is that, while novice teachers can reject explicit explanation of principles and practices given by their teacher educators, it is not easy to reject their conceptions of how teachers use language to teach, acquired implicitly through their apprenticeships of observation (Lortie, 1975). As Kennedy (1992) put it, “teachers acquire seemingly indelible imprints of teaching from their own experiences as students, and these imprints are tremendously difficult to shake” (p. 68). Given that the new *Courses of Study* aim to promote dialogic learning, it becomes important that future teachers have experienced such learning as students. Importantly, PTE might be the final chance for many trainees to gain such experience from sustained coursework. As reviewed above, their conception of language teaching and learning might be shaped through their apprenticeship of observation, and this is an implicit form of socialization that is hard to resist. Seen in this light, how the teacher educator orchestrates their interactions with their trainees, including POF talk, may contribute to shaping their ideas about what dialogic learning is like.

Conceptualized as an LS process, learning to teach English entails socialization to use the discourse of the TESOL profession. Considering the acquisition of professional discourse as being central to her teacher education pedagogy, Edwards (1995) suggested that teacher educators:

> help students both translate their own experiences into frames provided by public knowledge and to acquire the most powerful language frameworks offered by an understanding of that knowledge so that they become insiders in professional discourse and able to articulate it and keep it as public and open to scrutiny rather than as tacit or private knowledge. (p. 598)

In this study, learning to teach EFL is therefore conceptualized as a form of *academic discourse socialization* (Kobayashi et al., 2017). This is partly because, as Duff (2010) explains, professional socialization generally entails “a strong academic component prior to or concurrent with internships and other field experiences in the professions and because academia itself is a professional site” (p. 175). Moreover, Bloome et al. (2005) consider academic discourse to refer to “the ways of using language—the genres, the social and cultural practices, the epistemologies, and the ideologies or an academic or professional field" (p. 48). Thus, there seems to be a great deal of overlap between academic discourse and professional discourse. In fact, as mentioned above, the Core Curricula for English language teacher education specify knowledge about SLA as well as phonetics, pedagogical grammar, and language assessment as academic knowledge to be acquired by pre-service and in-service teachers.

Given that becoming an EFL teacher is a process of professional socialization into the Discourse (Gee, 2015) of ELT, pre-service teachers need to develop "expertise in professionally relevant discourse" (Rueda, 1998, para 8) or "cultivate entirely new social language repertoires and literacies" in order to gain membership in communities of language professionals (Hedgcock, 2009, p. 146). Germane to this process is Goodwin's (1994) notion of *professional vision*, which refers to specialized ways of seeing events that are socially sanctioned by different professions. Professional vision is learned and enacted through such practices of *coding*, *highlighting*, and *producing,* and *articulating material representations.* Coding refers to naming and classifying observed phenomena according to professionally established categories, while highlighting involves making features of an event salient by drawing attention to them. These two practices are more pertinent to this study than the third practice, as my participants had only a few opportunities to visually represent or articulate their understanding of teaching and learning in their POF sessions.

Van Es and Sherin's (2002) translation of professional vision into teaching is described as the ability to notice and interpret important aspects of classroom interaction (Sherin, 2007). Importantly, professional vision is not just individual cognitive capacity or a mental process, but also situated expertise or competence that members of different professions (Goodwin, 1994) call on and display as they engage in relevant discursive practices of their respective communities. Moreover, Blomberg et al.'s (2011) study showed that pre-service teachers of different subjects (e.g., mathematics, social science) displayed different professional visions. What this indicates is that novices are socialized into discipline-specific ways of seeing and looking with the help of old-timers who guide their attention to professionally meaningful aspects of the object/phenomenon in the context of practical activity (Gherardi, 2016). Thus, the process of becoming a language teacher entails developing professional vision and practice associated with language teaching and learning, and discourse is "a major if not the major tool" through which this process of socialization takes place (Ochs, 1986, p. 3). Despite such recognition, however, only a few studies have drawn explicitly on LS theory to examine teacher learning. Warhol's (2011) study with graduate students in TESOL at an American university suggested that novice teachers do not simply accept socioculturally valued practices of seeing and looking; they challenge more experienced others' practices when they believe their prior experiences allow them to position themselves as relative experts.

Although not drawing on the notion of professional vision, Kiely and Askham (2012) examined PTE trainees' learning in a four-week TESOL programme. Naturally, completion of this short, albeit intensive, pre-service programme did not lead to acquisition of solid knowledge and skills for trainees. However, one important outcome of the programme was the "recognizably TESOL ways" (p. 514) of talking that trainees demonstrated in discussing their work, expectations, and aspirations. Based on this finding, the researchers developed the notion of *furnished imagination* as a means of conceptualizing teacher learning, describing it as being “evidenced by the ways teachers talk about their work in TESOL” (p. 496). This suggests that trainees’ reflection talk, including POF talk, would reveal their emerging professional vision.

In the following three subsections, I explore three specific topics related to the professional discourse socialization of language teachers: (1) reflection and talk in L2 teacher learning, (2) teachers’ use of SLA knowledge for reflection, and (3) pedagogical link-making through dialogue.

2.3.1 Reflection and Talk in L2 Teacher Learning

It is widely acknowledged that language education is now in a post-method era (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). With this acknowledgement has come growing recognition of the importance of reflection in the professional development of English language teachers. As Delaney (2015) explains, “metaphorically, reflection ‘holds a mirror up to practice, allowing the trainee to reflect on what they are doing in the classroom” (p. 91). In this thesis, I use the term *reflection* in two senses. First, I draw on Mohan’s (2011) notion of social practice, which entails the *discourse of action* and the *discourse of reflection*. The former refers to the discourse of doing ELT, whereas the latter refers to the discourse of talking or writing about it. POF talk can be considered as a kind of reflection discourse. Thus, talking or writing about a social practice is one way to engage in reflection, although it can involve different types of thinking skills, such as describing, classifying, hypothesizing, and evaluating (Mohan, 2011).

Secondly, I draw on the work of Dewey (1933), who defined reflection as “active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it, and the further conclusions to which it tends" (p. 9). This definition meshes with what Mann and Walsh (2017) refer to as *evidence-based reflective practice*. Also, Dewey (1933) regarded the function of reflection as transforming "a situation in which there is experienced obscurity, doubt, conflict, disturbance of some sort, into a situation that is clear, coherent, settled, harmonious" (pp. 100-101). In this thesis, reflection is also regarded as a process of resolving cognitive dissonance between one's beliefs and what one sees happening in one's recorded lessons (Baecher, 2020; Johnson & Golombek, 2016).

Although scholars use different terms such as reflective practice, reflective teaching, and reflective pedagogy, they all seem to agree that "[e]xperience is insufficient as a basis for development" and that "[c]ritical reflection can trigger a deeper understanding of teaching" (Richards & Lockhart, 1994, p. 4). For instance, in Wallace's (1991) reflective model, professional competency is conceived as an outcome of recursive cycles of action and reflection informed by received knowledge (i.e., knowledge that teachers gain from academic studies) and experiential knowledge (i.e., knowledge that teachers gain from their classroom experiences). Sherin and Han (2004) argue that, like their students, teachers require opportunities for constructing new understanding and reflecting on their learning. Freeman (2016) argues that the work of language teachers involves three uses of language: language as content, as the means of teaching, and professional discourse. Thus, EFL/ESL teachers' professional discourse socialization entails getting to know the English language well enough to teach it and learning to use classroom language effectively, but also participating in and using the discourse of ELT (Richards & Farrell, 2011). The third use is of particular interest to this study because of its focus on POF, which aims to promote reflection and learning through talk.

In a large-scale study conducted by Bailey and Springer (2013), it was found that the second-most common procedures for doing reflective teaching among 1,100 language teachers was discussing teaching with colleagues (6.57 on a nine-point Likert scale), which was also considered the second-most appealing (7.69). They also reported that being mentored by other teachers, although not frequently experienced (4.55), was considered appealing (6.92). These findings suggest that many practitioners preferred reflective practice involving others, mentors or peers. However, to enhance professional development, such practice should help socialize individual teachers' thinking (Valli, 1997) by providing opportunities to link their experiential knowledge and received knowledge. As Nishimuro and Borg (2013) suggest, "[e]xperience, especially that which is not subject to critical reflection informed by propositional knowledge, may not necessarily promote productive pedagogy" (p. 45). To avoid this trap of being driven solely by experiential knowledge, trainees should be exposed to relevant academic concepts to see teaching and learning in new ways. However, as the previous research on teachers' use of SLA theory and research suggests, introducing scientific concepts is not enough; trainees need to be assisted in making their everyday concepts explicit so as to use them as a way of making scientific concepts uniquely their own (Johnson, 2009). One major way to accomplish this is through languaging, which can take the form of speech or writing. However, Mann and Walsh (2017) have pointed out that reflective practice has privileged individually written forms of reflection over collaborative spoken forms, arguing that it should incorporate a wider variety of tasks and activities to promote reflection through interactions, including POF and group journals.

2.3.2 Teachers' Use of SLA Knowledge for Reflection

Among the various disciplines which are considered to have important scientific concepts to offer for L2 teaching, one possible source is SLA research. In fact, the Core Curriculum for English Language Teachers specifies SLA as a required component of the ELT methods courses. As SLA has advanced our understanding of how languages are learned in different contexts, a growing number of researchers have become interested in exploring the relationship between SLA theory and SLTE pedagogy (e.g., Crookes, 1997; Ellis, 2010; Horii, 2014; Leung & Teasdale, 1999; Tarone & Allwright, 2005). Crookes (1997) argued that the connection between the two areas is desirable but not as strong as it should be, calling for empirical research to investigate the use of research by teachers. Because teachers' beliefs about language learning is claimed to greatly shape their instructional approaches (Brown, 2015), several L2 studies have since examined language teachers' perceptions of SLA research and theory. For example, Busch (2010) reported on the positive effects of an introductory SLA course on pre-service teachers' knowledge and beliefs about language learning and teaching. More recently, Nassaji's (2012) study with ESL/EFL teachers revealed that, although the majority of the participants acknowledged the potential usefulness of SLA research, they did not consider the knowledge that they gained from it to be as relevant as the insights that they gained from their teaching practices. This finding seems to support Freeman and Johnson's (1998) and many others' view of teachers' professional knowledge as being mostly constructed out of their own experiences as learners and teachers, indicating the value of an experiential approach to SLTE (van Lier, 1996) and the need to consider teachers—in-service and pre-service—as active agents engaged in their own knowledge construction, rather than as mere recipients of ready-made knowledge (Freeman & Johnson, 1998).

2.3.3 Pedagogical Link-Making Through Dialogue

According to Capel et al. (2005), deep learning requires students "to engage in the active reconstruction of information, to make new links and test old ones, to resolve contradictions, and to identify underlying principles" (p. 279). Pertinent to this concept is Scott et al.'s (2011) notion of pedagogical link-making (PLM), which is based on the constructivist idea that learning takes place as students engage in the process of connecting newly encountered information with their existing knowledge and understandings, and on the Bakhtinian idea that their teachers play an important role in orchestrating the meaning-making interactions. In this process, explicit talk about connections helps because it allows students to see that learning is interconnected and "not a series of unrelated episodes" (Loughran, 2010, p. 93).

Moreover, as Johnson (2009) cogently argues, L2 teacher development involves a process of linking what trainees have learned about language, language learning, and language teaching from their experiences as L2 learners and teachers with commonly known disciplinary knowledge about language, SLA, learning, and language teaching that has been made available through academic research. Intended as a site for trainees to reflect on their microteaching experiences, POF seems to have an important role in promoting such a process of linking. However, little research has been carried out into how trainees learn to use academic concepts through their participation in POF conferences and related events and how their trainers mediate this process of learning.

Although not framed as an investigation of pedagogical link-making, Farr et al.’s (2019) study illustrated how trainees attempted to draw connections between educational and linguistic theory and their classroom practices in their interactions across different modes of reflection, including online chat and face-to-face peer tutor-guided group discussions. For example, in discussing the importance of “pitching subject content more accurately to the proficiency level of the learners” (p. 86), references were made to Krashen’s notion of i+1 and Vygotsky’s notion of ZPD. This seems to suggest that trainees’ pedagogical link-making is facilitated through multiple and varied opportunities afforded by different modes of reflection.

2.4 Post-Observation Feedback (POF) Conferencing for Teachers

From a Vygotskian SCT, POF talk is one important way of promoting reflective thinking, mainly through social interactions. Edwards (1995) suggested that, through engagement in “constant ‘zigzag’ of action and discussion between learning situations and reflective explications” (p. 598), teacher trainees become able to represent their understanding of the situations in increasingly more sophisticated ways. In fact, a growing number of educational researchers have examined how trainees talk about their lessons with their supervisors to improve their teaching and better facilitate their students’ learning. Importantly, Farr (2011) considers variables which can potentially affect the supervisory process in POF, including conflicting expectations and agendas between trainer and trainees, trainee anxiety, gaps between expectation and reality, contradicting roles of the trainer as assessor and helper, and the timing of the POF.

While acknowledging the broader range of topics and issues that have been investigated in previous research in this area (see Copland & Donaghue, 2021, for a comprehensive review), here, I focus on five specific areas of research that have specifically informed the research questions of this investigation: (1) POF as a speech event, (2) the content of POF talk, (3) types of talk and trainer role in POF conferences, (4) emotions in POF, (5) the use of video in POF, and (6) learning pathways involving POF.

2.4.1 POF as a Speech Event

From an LS perspective, the feedback conference can be viewed as a speech event into and through which teachers with different experiences become professionally socialized. Previous studies have identified different phases or stages of the POF event (Arcario, 1994; Copland, 2008; Waite, 1995). However, the interactional norms of the event may vary, not only across institutions and groups, but also even in the same institution, depending on the personal beliefs of individual trainers. For example, Copland (2011) reports that the norms of the group feedback event examined in her LE study included the right to offer advice and critique to fellow trainees. As these "rules" tend to be unspoken, they need to be inferred by examining through detailed microanalysis who gets to perform what social acts and how mentors communicate their values and expectations verbally and nonverbally. Copland's (2010) study demonstrated that conflicts and tensions can arise from the competing expectations that trainees have about peer feedback as well as from trainees' reluctance and/or inability to perform roles expected by their trainers (e.g., giving self-reflective comments). More recently, Engin (2014) reported that, in cases where trainees and trainers had a shared understanding of the conventions and norms of the feedback session, this served as a macro-scaffold for their joint meaning-making efforts. Because these trainees understood that they were expected to play a critical role in their analysis of their lessons, they would respond willingly to their trainers' prompts and fulfill this expectation. The opposite also seems to hold true. Some trainees, who did not understand the expectation were unable or unwilling to reflect critically on their teaching, despite the trainer's guidance.

Moreover, previous studies have indicated that each POF talk is culturally, socially, and institutionally situated. Copland's (2012) study of POF in a CELTA programme illustrated that the legitimacy or acceptability of talk is communicated and negotiated not only through what is talked about, but also how the talk is managed. What counts as being legitimate is shaped by institutional values as well as a wider discourse about ELT. Furthermore, studies undertaken by Sherin and her associates have shown that mathematics teachers' discussions shifted in focus from teacher actions to student actions and ideas as they participated in a series of video club meetings (i.e., monthly meetings in which groups of teachers review and discuss segments of their video-recorded lessons) over time (Sherin & Han, 2004), demonstrating their growing ability to notice and interpret classroom events (Sherin & van Es, 2009). In sum, POF talk is an important event into and through which trainees, both in-service and pre-service, need to be socialized so as to benefit from joint reflection (Copland, 2010).

2.4.2 The Content of POF Talk

As Mann and Copland (2010) explained, POF talk on English language lessons typically focuses on the trainer’s performance, skills, and linguistic knowledge. For instance, topics explicitly identified in previous studies (e.g., Engin, 2015a; Vásquez; 2004) included lesson stages, classroom management issues, and progress of individual students in class. Donaghue and Oxholm (2017) identified recurring themes of their participants’ stimulated recall interactions involving student pairs and their tutor (i.e., POFs). The eleven themes included in this list, which appear to include both what is being talked about and what the talk is being used to do (Schegloff, 1990), can be reframed as the following topics: lesson objectives, alternative actions, awareness of stages/progression, teaching procedures/techniques, teacher talk, teacher beliefs, other teachers’ lessons, learner engagement, assumptions and knowledge of learners, and moments of learning/enlightenment. Of great relevance to this study is Sugiyama and Yamazaki’s (2016) study with undergraduate trainees in primary education who talked about their microlessons in science education with their tutor at a Japanese university. They examined both what was talked about (i.e., topic) and what the talk was used for (i.e., function). Their analysis showed, for example, that teaching was the most frequently discussed topic, and that most of this talk was used to discuss alternative actions. Akcan and Tatar’s (2010) study involved 52 student teachers majoring in ELT at a university in Turkey—an EFL context similar to the one in the present study. They examined the content of both university supervisor feedback and mentor feedback given orally in POF conferences and in written evaluation sheets during the student teachers’ school-based practica. They found that topics addressed by both university supervisors and mentors included the student teachers’ use of English, the type of activities, and classroom management. Engin's (2015b) findings also suggested that errors made by her Turkish student teachers were a frequently discussed issue in their POF conferences. To my knowledge, these are the only studies that found trainees' L2 use to be a major topic of POF discussions.

While many studies to date have examined through detailed analysis of POF discourse how their participants talked about various topics and what their talk did, only a few attempts (e.g., Farr et al., 2019; Sugiyama & Yamazaki, 2016) have been made systematically to examine or report the range of topics that they discussed in POF sessions. Because what trainers and trainees choose to talk about can be seen as an indicator of the vales and practices into which the trainees are socialized, this deserves more research attention. By systematically examining the range of topics discussed in each POF session, the current study aims to contribute to this line of research.

Also related to the content of POF talk is intertextuality. According to Lemke (2005), "we make sense of any text only by relating it to other texts, or to textual patterns … abstracted from many texts" (p. 32). From this vantage point, the "text" of a POF session is the observed lesson under discussion; the participants attempt to make sense of it by making references to other texts. Vásquez and Urzúa (2009) examined two types of such intertextual referencing: the use of reported speech and reported mental states by novice teachers of English. Their analysis indicated that the former type tended to be used for showcasing the trainees' accomplishments and emerging expertise, whereas the latter was used for displaying uncertainty, knowledge gaps, or negative emotions. Another type of intertextual referencing reported in previous research includes the use of metalanguage. Conceptualizing this term broadly as “all the lexical items that relate to the professional knowledge base, norms and practices of English language teachers” (p. 66), Farr et al. (2019) provided a list of the top 1000 words with their frequency counts. These included not only terminology associated with language systems (e.g., verb, tense) but also terms related to educational theory and practice as well as references made to pedagogical materials and learning contexts (e.g., classroom, school). As the researchers suggest, such analysis can provide a useful lens through which teacher trainees’ socialization into the community of practice of English language teachers can be examined.

A third important source of intertextual referencing is shared history. Just like any other event, POF is temporally situated. Mercer (2001) suggests that participants in an event “draw on a considerable body of shared knowledge and understanding, based on their past shared experience or similar histories of experience” (p. 255) in their meaning-making efforts. Given that “learning takes place when the new is embedded in the familiar” (van Lier, 1996, p. 171), it becomes important to examine how POF participants make use of their shared history to deepen their joint meaning making and what role trainers play in this process. Such analysis would reveal what trainers and trainees, as co-participants in the feedback event, value as well as how they “build on their own and each other’s contributions and chain them into coherent lines of thinking and understanding” (Alexander, 2020, p. 131) not only within the event but also across events and contexts. Despite this, little has been reported on such processes. The present study aims to address this gap in two ways. It examines a wider range of references than previous studies in teacher education, including written and visual texts as well as personal experiences. It also employs a mixed-methods approach that draws on insider insights gained primarily from ethnographic observations and microanalysis of POF discourse.

2.4.3 Types of Talk and Trainer Role in POF Conferences

As Golombek (2011) suggests, POF talk makes visible trainees' understanding of the teaching-learning process of their classrooms, thereby allowing them to demonstrate their abilities to reflect on their own lessons when free from the cognitive and emotional demands of actual classroom teaching. At the same time, trainers, especially those taking a developmental approach to supervision, are expected to play an important role in orchestrating the POF interaction to creating opportunities for reflection and learning. In this section, I first review studies on types of POF interactions and then those on trainer roles in promoting reflection and knowledge-construction as well as, trainees' learning of professional discourse.

2.4.3.1 Types of POF Interactions. With the conceptualization of language as a mediational tool, SCT researchers have examined the nature and quality of social interaction in different situations (e.g., Littleton & Mercer, 2013; van Lier, 1996; Walsh, 2006). Perhaps this is one of the most vibrant lines of research on POF as well (see Copland & Donaghue, 2021). However, only a few studies have examined POF interaction in terms of dialogic teaching/learning. According to Wells and Ball (2008), the ultimate goal of such education is "to foster in each student lifelong dispositions to be agentive in learning and to collaborate with others in seeking for understanding that enables effective and responsible action" (p. 183). This meshes with the career-long nature of teacher development. Despite this recognition, there is a dearth of research that detail features of dialogic talk in POF sessions. One notable exception in TESOL is the work of Mann and Copland (2010), which compared dialogic talk and monologic talk in a pre-service training context. They found the former to be characterized by a more equal distribution of turns (i.e., symmetry) and more self-nomination as the participants work together “to co-construct an understanding of what went wrong” (p. 183), whereas the latter involved one-way transmission from trainer to trainee. However, despite the good intentions of trainers to employ dialogic talk, trainees may prefer a more directive, authoritative approach (Hyland & Lo, 2006; Mann & Copland, 2010).

Louw et al. (2016) drew upon Bakhtin’s work to examine four trainers’ beliefs and practices. Their analysis showed that although all the trainers held a dialogic belief (e.g., letting students self-correct), only one of them gave feedback in a way that corresponded with their stated beliefs. According to the authors, these were beliefs associated with widely espoused progressive methodologies, which they “received” from their community of practice (Wallace, 1991). As such, the trainers might have felt pressured to conform to them. This finding suggests the need to examine not only the relationship between trainer beliefs and practices but also the sources of these beliefs.

2.4.3.2 Promoting Reflection and Knowledge Construction in POF Conferences. Previous studies have identified a variety of ways in which trainers encourage trainee reflection. In her study of scaffolding, Engin (2013) identified trainer questions that appeared to promote Turkish trainees’ reflection and knowledge construction. These included hypothetical questions, recall questions, and fill-in-the slot questions. Waring's (2013) conversational analysis of POF interactions between a graduate trainee and her supervisor identified mentor assessment and advice as practices to promote teacher reflection. For instance, in accepting or rejecting assessment, the trainee generated reflective talk to offer a self-analysis of her success or to reconsider her pedagogical actions. Kim and Silver (2016) argue that a major key to promoting reflection through POF talk is *recipient orientation* (i.e., tailoring questions to trainees). Their microanalysis suggested that who initiated a topic seemed to shape greatly how the following interaction unfolded. When a trainee initiated an exchange by stopping the video, and the mentor's general question (i.e., "So what happened here?") allowed her to identify an incoherence in her own teaching. In contrast, a mentor-initiated query, starting with a question almost identical to the one above, failed to generate trainee reflection. The micro-analysis also illustrated that, by attending to the trainees' nonverbal signs (e.g., head nods), the mentor successfully created spaces for reflection.

Waring (2017) examined the practice of *going genera1,* in which mentors handle the delicate work of offering critiques and making suggestions. By *depersonalizing* advice (e.g., "we tend to think …"), the trainer can take the spotlight off the trainee and turn the focus to the problematic action itself, thereby avoiding the imposition of the problem unilaterally and creating a space for the co-participants to reach a common understanding of it. Similarly, Vásquez (2004) spoke of "speaker's denigration of self or own ability" (p. 45), which is claimed to promote trainee alignment and thus professional socialization.

Moreover, Gelfuso (2017) focused on the discursive practices intentionally employed by a trainer to promote pre-service trainees' simultaneous engagement in constructing pedagogical content knowledge and agentive identities. One important practice, named "creating symmetrical power relationships," involves using phrases such as "what do you notice about…," "In your mind right now…," and "let's try to figure out…," which helped position the trainer and trainees as thinking agents and co-learners. In sum, these studies all point to the crucial role that trainers play in monitoring and assessing trainees' understanding and providing contingent support to promote their learning.

2.4.3.3 Promoting Trainees' Learning of Professional Discourse. As outlined in section 2.3, the sociocultural perspectives hold that teacher learning develops out of newcomers' experiences interacting with more experienced others and watching their participation in the everyday activities of their community (Ochs, 1996; Rogoff, 1995). Seen in this light, teacher educators seem to have a major role to play in PTE trainees' development of professional vision through participation in recurrent activities such as POF conferences. As van Es and Sherin (2002) suggest, professional vision, reframed in terms of teacher noticing, consists of three processes: (1) identifying what is noteworthy in a teaching situation, (2) using knowledge about the context to reason about situations chosen for analysis, and (3) making connections between particular classroom events and general concepts and principles of teaching and learning. In this view, supervisors are expected to guide trainees to pay *selective attention* to important features of classroom interactions and to engage in *knowledge-based reasoning* (Sherin, 2007) about the teaching-learning processes selected for discussion.

Of particular relevance to this research is the trainer role in giving trainees opportunities to hear or use professional language. Harvey and Vásquez's (2015) study examined post-lesson discussions involving two novice ESL teachers and their mentor. These sessions entailed overt teaching, as they were intended to help the teachers deepen their understanding of teaching and gain greater control over their own classroom practice. A sociocultural analysis, which drew upon Vygotsky's notions of scientific and everyday concepts, illustrated that the mentor modelled conceptual thinking in a variety of ways, reflecting different levels of decontextualization. Philpott (2016) analysed the discourse of POF events in which PTE postgraduate students participated with their school-based mentors and university-based tutors, focusing particularly on the process of narrating and the role of narratives in feedback. The analysis showed that tutors and mentors often used terms (e.g., modelling, clear instructions) that were derived from the canonical narrative widely accepted way of conceptualizing learning and teaching in England. It also illustrated how a student teacher, invited by his tutor, re-narrated his teaching experience by drawing on the canonical narrative of teaching and learning. This practice, although not so claimed by Philpott, can be regarded as an intertextual referencing to promote PLM and thus academic discourse socialization. Practices of a similar nature have been identified in the context of POF conferencing, described by Waring (2017) as *invoking disciplinary and pedagogical principles,* and by Gelfuso (2017) as *noticing and naming*.

In summary, the above-reviewed studies detailed how tutors worked together with their trainees to promote their learning by linking trainees' lived experiences with scientific concepts and with official guidelines. In other words, trainers attempted to socialize their trainers into the professional discourse of language and literacy teaching. However, as Scott et al. (2011) put it, to promote deep learning of conceptual knowledge in science, teachers must not only demonstrate the process of link-making on the social plane, but also give learners opportunities to engage in this process for themselves on their own.

2.4.4 Emotions in POF

Much of the literature reviewed thus far has centred on the rational or cognitive dimensions of reflection through POF talk (e.g., reasoning). However, given that reflection is not only a cognitive but also an emotional process (Stanley, 1999), emotional aspects of POF interaction cannot be ignored. Phillips (1994) discusses a wide range of functions of silence in teacher training, suggesting that trainers' and trainees' use and interpretation of silence in POF can greatly influence how they feel during and after the conference. In their handbook for TESOL teacher educators, Randall and Thornton (2001) extensively discuss the emotions likely to be involved in POF conferences, which include how to create a positive psychological climate for providing advice and how to address emotional matters in the feedback event. In particular, they stress the importance of attending to trainees' nonverbal cues. While it is important to listen to trainees' verbal accounts of how well they perceived their lessons went, this can only provide their trainers with superficial information, because the trainees may be susceptible to great anxiety immediately after their lessons. While Phillips (1994) and Randall and Thornton (2001) provide useful guidelines for monitoring trainees' emotional states in POF conferences, they do not present a formal analysis of POF discourse or trainees' perceptions of their experiences of giving and receiving POF. Perhaps Farr's (2011) monograph is one of the first empirical studies to have intensively examined the emotional dimensions of POF in TESOL. Her analysis of the data drawn from tutor and student teacher responses to an online questionnaire suggests that, while both groups regarded emotional functions of POF talk, including addressing emotional/affective issues and humour, as being important, the tutors attributed greater importance to addressing any emotional issues that the student teachers might have.

Moreover, Golombek and Doran (2014) have suggested that emotion is a functional component of learning to teach an L2, as it inevitably involves experiencing emotional/cognitive dissonance when there is a clash between the ideal and reality. As such, POF conferences following unsatisfactory teaching practice are likely to entail emotionally charged moments. The present study aims to add to the existing literature by conducting a microanalysis of how a trainer responds to such critical moments.

2.4.5 The Use of Video in POF

The use of video has gained currency as a powerful tool for mediating teacher reflection, which allows teachers to attend to details and notice things that they would not otherwise (Mann & Walsh, 2017; Payant, 2014; Tripp & Rich, 2012). For example, Payant (2014) reported that pre-service non-native teachers in an MATESOL programme were able to reflect constructively on their English language skills after watching their own video-recorded microteaching performance. She suggested, based on this finding, that non-native teachers use the video to improve their linguistic abilities, including the grammatical dimension of their communicative competence, but also that teacher educators can play an important role in helping them develop strategies to foster successful classroom communication with their students. Also, although spoken discourse is transient, video-recordings of lessons can be used as a tool to promote what Mann and Walsh (2017) refer to as evidence-based and data-led reflection. Thus, the use of video could prevent POF participants from relying mainly on memory and having the kind of talk in which trainees and trainers disagree about what happened in the observed lesson (c.f., Engin, 2015a).

Baecher and McCormack's (2015) study compared video-mediated POF with traditional POF without the use of video in the context of MA candidates' 15-week practica. Their analyses showed that the former type of event generated more trainee talk than supervisor talk and allowed the trainees to initiate topics and refer to the video as evidence. This seems to have entailed what van Lier (2000, 2002) called triadic interaction. According to van Lier (2002), this type of interaction entails people "working side-by-side, with a joint focus of activity, the object (computer screen) as a third interlocutor of sorts" (pp. 147-148). Reviewing the focal lesson was an integral part of the POF in this study for the reasons discussed in Chapter 3.

2.4.6 Learning Pathways Involving POF

While previous research has greatly contributed to our understanding of the moment-by-moment unfolding of the POF interaction, as well as the outcomes of single POF conferences (e.g., Mann & Copland, 2010), few studies have documented teacher trainees' learning and development beyond discrete feedback events (e.g., Johnson & Arshavskaya, 2011; Kurtoglu-Hooton, 2016; Vásquez & Reppen, 2007). Vásquez and Reppen (2007) reported on longitudinal action research that involved the researchers as supervisors acting on what they found from their analysis of their POF talk in the first semester. More specifically, having found a considerable imbalance between ESL teachers and themselves, the supervisors developed a template of possible questions and made explicit their expectations regarding teacher participation in the event in order to encourage active teacher involvement. This resulted in more talk from the teachers and allowed them to verbalize their critical reflections on their lessons in the second semester.

Kurtoglu-Hooton (2016) examined the impact of POF on pre-service trainees enrolled in a four-week introductory certificate programme. By using multiple case study design, she detailed how each participant responded to feedback from his/her trainer and peers subsequently in writing. In Jake's case, for instance, the analysis centred around the confirmatory feedback—defined as "positive feedback in the form of praise, or confirmation and/or reassurance that something went well" (p. 3)—that he received about his creativity demonstrated in his teaching practice. Jake found this particular feedback to be an eye-opener, which dramatically changed his self-image as a teacher and had long-lasting effects on his practice even several months after the programme ended.

Furthermore, Johnson and her associates (e.g., Johnson & Arshavskaya, 2011; Johnson & Golombek, 2016) have reported on the implementation of an innovative team-teaching project involving graduate students working in groups of three or four toward teaching a lesson in a real ESL class. This project consisted of a series of related activities, including an observation of the class that they were assigned to teach eventually, tutoring sessions with one student from the class, collective lesson planning, a peer-microteaching called *practice teach*, the actual teaching, a video-mediated POF, and a written reflection. Of particular interest to this study are the practice teach and the POF sessions, both of which were intended to act as contexts for social mediation in the Vygotskian sense. In the former activity, each team's lesson could be halted by their trainer or peers to ask questions and provide feedback or suggestions whereas, in the latter activity, each team was encouraged to verbalize their thinking and feelings while watching their video-recorded actual teaching. The analysis revealed that the trainees' understanding of the subject matter and how they were expected to teach it developed in a mutually constitutive relationship as they participated in the series of activities. It also showed that the instructor played a crucial role in supporting trainees' meaning-making efforts responsively on multiple occasions.

More recently, Hall (2020) reported on cases of novice EFL teachers in Japan who did not take up the trainer's suggestions, indicating that the latter's misjudgment of what the former, if perceived to be an issue, could negatively affect recipient orientation and therefore inhibit alignment.

According to Wortham and Ryes (2021), "[n]o matter how sophisticated our analyses of discrete events, we cannot offer empirically adequate analyses of processes like learning and socialization unless we study pathways across linked events, because such processes inherently take place across events" (p. 1). If we view learning to teach as "a long-term, complex, developmental process that is the result of participation in the social practices and contexts associated with learning and teaching" (Johnson & Freeman, 2001, p. 56), it then becomes extremely important that researchers go beyond the within-event analysis of POF interactions to examine individual trainees' learning pathways over time and the role of their POF talk in this process. This study thus aims to document the "long-term processes of situated meaning making" (Maybin & Tusting, 2011, p. 522) in which Japanese undergraduates engage in a sustained manner over one academic year. More specifically, the study draws particularly on Bakhtin's notion of delayed reaction and Maybin's (1993) notion of long conversation to trace their learning pathways across POF and other events.

2.5 Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter, I have situated this study within the current literature. The first section has described the macro-context of ELT in Japan. The examination of the policy documents, including the *Course of Study,* has suggested that Japanese PTE trainees are expected to have learned a great deal about ELT (e.g., SLA, language assessment) by the time they start their practicum in their respective schools. In the second section, I have outlined the sociocultural perspectives that constitute the conceptual framework for this study. Informed by LS theory, learning to teaching EFL is regarded as a process of professional/academic discourse socialization. Given the powerful nature of the apprentice of observation, it then follows that it is not just what trainees learn in PTE but also how they learn it that contribute to their developing views on language teaching and learning. As such, it becomes important that PTE provides opportunities for Japanese trainees to experience dialogic learning in a sustained fashion.

Also, because the student-participants in this study are pre-service trainees with little or no teaching experience, I have examined the literature relating to novice language teachers' socialization. Although novice teachers may have difficulty enacting their lesson plans, they may be able to demonstrate their learning through their talk about teaching and learning. Thus, a close analysis of POF talk might provide a window into what trainees have learned from their PTE coursework.

In the third section, I reviewed previous POF studies that are particularly relevant to the research questions presented in Chapter 1. This review has led me to identify the following research gaps: a lack of research that (1) focused on a group of L2 English-speaking trainees, (2) systematically examined the topics discussed and references made in POF interactions, (3) examined trainer role in promoting trainees' learning of professional discourse, and (4) followed trainees' sustained engagement with points discussed in earlier POF sessions. To address the second gap, Scott et al.'s (2006) work would be instrumental in examining the nature of POF interactions in which participants talk about teaching and learning, and, as such, into which they are socialized.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

3.1 Linguistic Ethnography (LE)

As discussed in Chapter 2, this study is grounded primarily in LS and Vygotskian SCT. In these theories, learning is regarded as being situated in and shaped by language-mediated interaction, which itself takes place in a particular historical, cultural, and social context. To address this situated nature of learning, the study takes an LE approach (e.g., Copland & Creese, 2015; Rampton et al., 2015; Tusting, 2020) and draws upon relevant analytical tools of SCT (e.g., tracers) and Japanese discourse studies (e.g., sentence-final particles).

3.1.1 Principles and Characteristics of LE

According to Duff and Talmy (2011), LS research typically “examines macro- and micro-contexts in which language is learned and used, and employs longitudinal research designs that feature ethnography and linguistic/discourse analytic methods” (p. 95). As such, it is highly compatible with LE. While LS provides a theoretical lens through which to “document and explain (a lack of) change in and the (non)development of linguistic, cultural, and communicative competence over time” (Duff & Talmy, 2011, p. 108), LE offers a methodological framework for investigating such complex processes and outcomes. Because LE builds on and develops ethnography, it seems useful to first outline its principles and characteristics as a research methodology.

One major principle is the *emic* (as opposed to *etic*) principle. This, according to van Lier (1989), refers to “the rules, concepts, beliefs and meanings of the people themselves, functioning with their own group" (p. 43). As such, ethnographers would seek to look at the phenomenon under investigation through the perspective of people in a specific cultural group, thus avoiding pre-determined categories and meanings. To borrow Watson-Gegeo's (1988) words, "a carefully done emic analysis proceeds and forms the basis for etic extensions that allow for cross-cultural or cross-setting comparisons" (pp. 580-581). Likewise, Grasseni (2008) suggests that ethnographers should develop the dual perspectives of both local people and anthropologists, saying that the latter strive to develop an understanding of the former's "skilled visions" (p. 161) from ethnographic fieldwork and use this understanding to guide their subsequent work.

Another principle is that of holism (van Lier, 1989), which holds that understanding any act or event requires knowing the context of their occurrence or their relations to other acts or events. In his discussion of the ethnography of communication, Hymes (1974) stated:

> One cannot take linguistic form, a given code, or even speech itself, as a limiting frame of reference. One must take as context a community, or network of persons, investigating its communicative activities as a whole, so that any use of channel and code takes its place as part of the resources upon which the members draw. (p. 4)

Thus, the principle of holism necessitates that the use of language be examined in relation to its surrounding context as well as interconnectedness of social events (Blommaert & Dong, 2020). However, espousing holism does not imply that we can capture a complete picture of the context in which the phenomenon of interest is situated. As van Lier (1988) succinctly put it,

> context may be regarded as extending like ripples on a pond, in concentric circles from any particular action or utterance. At some point we will have to draw a line and say: this is as far as we shall look. (p. 10)

Thus, any ethnographic description is holistic but inevitably partial in nature. In this study, I decided to focus mainly on POF conferencing, a particular kind of activity, situated in a particular course with particular students in a particular year, namely a group of undergraduates in a PTE programme at a Japanese university. While foregrounding this micro-interactional context, I also try not to lose sight of what the Douglas Fir Group (2016) has called *macro-* and *meso-contexts*. The former refers to ideological structures such as national policy guidelines and public discourse, whereas the latter concerns sociocultural institutions and communities. The macro-context of which the POF conferences are part (e.g., *Course of Study*) has been described in Chapter 2. More details about the meso-context of the POF interaction (e.g., methods courses) are provided later in this chapter (Section 3.2) and in Chapter 4.

Furthermore, ethnography is an emergent adaptive practice in that it “evolves in design as the study progresses” (O’Reilly, 2012, p. 11). This is understandable, given that it is “fundamentally about examining social practice as it unfolds, while it happens” (Heller et al., 2018, p. 8). More specifically, continuing examinations of fieldnotes yield “a shifting interpretation of both which issues are relatively well understood and which issues require further observations, so that ethnographers make design decisions—on an almost daily basis—about how to pursue their emerging interpretations” (Morgan, 2008, p. 246). This feature is called by Lincoln and Guba (1985) *emergent design*. However, it would be naïve to assume that flexible qualitative research such as ethnography (Duff, 2008) is completely emergent, as all researchers bring to the field prior conceptions and beliefs (Morgan, 2008) and may be time-pressed or granted access only to a limited part of the field.

Ethnography is described by Agar (1996) as "experientially rich social science" (p. 58). This is because ethnographers attempt to immerse themselves as deeply as possible in their participants' communities in order to learn "what they experience as meaningful and important" (Emerson et al., 2011, p. 3). Such immersion, according to Emerson et al. (2011), necessitates *resocialization* on the part of the researcher. Through sustained participation in the community under study, or what Sarangi (2006) refers to *thick participation*, an ethnographer "travels from an innocent outsider to a knowledgeable member of the field" (Blommaert & Dong, 2020, p. 32), learning what it takes to become a competent member of that community and to experience events and meanings in ways that resemble those of insiders (Emerson et al., 2011). The major purpose of this ethnographic immersion or (re)socialization (Sarangi, 2006) is for the ethnographer to produce a *thick description* (Geertz, 1973) of a local group that is informed by the *emic* perspective of members of that particular group, including beliefs and values that guide their actions and interactions (Ochs & Schieffelin, 2009).

Another essential characteristic of ethnography is distancing. Ethnographic immersion allows researchers to develop close connections and familiarity with participants and their cultural practices, which in turn may make many aspects of the culture taken for granted and thus hard to notice. This is even more likely to be the case for ethnographers conducting research in their own communities. Studying people close-by may require greater efforts to make the familiar strange than studying those far away from home (Blommaert & Dong, 2020).

Importantly, the ethnographer is often described as being a primary instrument for data generation and analysis. In other words, all data that feed into the final ethnography are filtered through the researcher with particular academic interests, theoretical predispositions, and personal experiences (Emerson et al., 2011; Madden, 2010). Thus, ethnographic researchers should acknowledge that their subjectivity is involved in all phases of their inquiry (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2019; Light, 2010; Madden, 2010), avoiding the "view that the researcher is a detached and impartial 'scientist' who seeks the 'truth'" (Light, 2010, p. 173).

This brings us to the concept of reflexivity, which is defined by Davies (2008) as "a turning back on oneself, a process of self-reference" (p. 4). Reflexivity is an essential part of doing and writing ethnography. Although ethnographers' prolonged engagement in the field affords them opportunities to develop close relationships with their participants, what they achieve is "always experientially contingent and highly variable by setting and by person" (van Maanen, 2011, p. 4). As such, ethnographers, as observers, interviewers, and writers, need to "reflect on their positioning and subjectivity in the research and provide an explicit, situated account of their own role in the project and its influences over the findings" (Starfield, 2015, p. 141).

LE entails integrating these ethnographic principles and characteristics with linguistic (or discourse) analysis. According to Shaw et al. (2015), LE tends to be a *topic-oriented* (as opposed to *comprehensive*) ethnography, just like the ethnography of communication (Hymes, 1996), in that it focuses on particular aspects of a cultural group rather than an entire culture. Its small-scale nature allows researchers to attend to the minute details of interaction that are important to understanding the moment-by-moment construction of meaning (Snell & Lefstein, 2015). Thus, it takes what Gee and Green (1998) called an *ethnographic perspective*, which offers an emic lens through which to analyse discourse interaction and guides our efforts to examine "how discourse shapes both what is available to be learned and what is, in fact, learned" (p. 126). Furthermore, Rampton et al. (2015) explain that LE generally holds that language both shapes and is shaped by social life, thus rejecting what is referred to by Drew and Heritage (1992) as a "bucket view of context" (p. 21), in which any given interaction is seen as being constrained by pre-existing external conditions. Espousing a dynamic view of context, LE sets out to investigate contexts for communication without assuming them (Rampton et al., 2015) and provides a set of methods with which to examine "communication within the temporal unfolding of social process, as this affects persons, situated encounters, institutions, networks and communities of practice" (Rampton, 2009, p. 9). To address these closely related empirical foci, LE brings together and marries the systematicity and microscopic insights of linguistic analysis and the holism and openness of ethnography on the premise that "there is more to be gained in union than in separation" (Creese, 2013, p. 139). More specifically, LE argues that linguistic analysis can benefit from ethnographic reflexivity—described by Copland and Creese (2015) as "an uncomfortable process, causing us to question our own assumptions, feel uneasy with ethical decisions, and remain unsure about our representations" (p. 166).

On the other hand, linguistic analysis encourages ethnographers to zoom in on particular instances of everyday actions and interactions in local communities and scrutinize minute details of linguistic evidence that may not be visible otherwise (Shaw et al., 2015). This integration, as Copland and Creese (2015) suggest, enables researchers to draw connections between the macro and the micro and the individual and the social, which is also the hallmark of LS research (Duff & Talmy, 2011). At the same time, the integration inevitably entails tensions between the openness of ethnography and the systematicity of linguistic analysis, which might not be fully resolvable, but, if judiciously done, can be productive (Shaw et al., 2015). Thus, under the umbrella of LE, the two perspectives can form what Vygotskian scholars refer to as a *dialectical unity* of opposing natures (Lantolf & Poehner, 2014), which can offer "fertile ground for the growth of new ideas and creative products" (Moran & John-Steiner, 2003, p. 63). According to Copland and Creese (2018), LE pursues the ways in which linguistic and ethnography can complement each other. In this sense, it is "syncretic[3], creating a new logic of inquiry" (Bloome et al., 2005, p. 241).

According to Rampton (2007), LE typically employs case-study methodology. This is understandable, given that a case study is suitable for examining "a contemporary phenomenon (the 'case') in depth and within its real-world context, especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident" (Yin, 2018, p. 15). The focus on cases in LE is deemed compatible with ethnography, which, according to Duff (2014), typically pays attention to "cultural *patterns*, meaning, and socialization in social groups and communities as observed and documented over a period of time" (p. 234; see also Duff, 2020).

3.1.2 Tools and Techniques Employed in LE

According to Snell and Lefstein (2015), LE espouses what they refer to as "rigorous eclecticism" (p. 473). By definition, LE seeks to integrate linguistic analysis and ethnographic analysis with the intent of yielding a rich, nuanced account of the phenomenon under investigation. To this end, researchers draw on multiple sources of data by employing a variety of research tools and techniques, including (1) observation and fieldnotes, (2) interviewing, (3) recording, and (4) transcription and translation. I shall now address each in turn.

---

[3] According to Tateo and Marsico (2018), the term syncretism refers to "an epistemological stance that is never rejecting any emerging or potential new ideas because it belongs to a different 'specie' or 'perspective.' It is never hegemonic, it is on the contrary open to the construction of knowledge through complementarity of views" (p. 1).

3.1.2.1 Observation and Fieldnotes. Ethnographic descriptions are generated by being based primarily on the researcher's firsthand experience as a participant observer in the field. As Gobo (2008) explains, the upmost concern of an ethnographer is "always to observe actions as they are performed in concrete settings" (p. 5). Observation is thus considered as "the signature method of ethnography" (Heller et al., 2018, p. 77) in general and LE in particular (Copland & Creese, 2015; Papen, 2020). As Heller et al. (2018) pointed out, although the distinction is sometimes made between participant observation and non-participant observation, it is "not so clear, since we are always engaged in some activity" (p. 78). They also stated that the term *participant observation* indicates that "the researcher is one more component of the social practice under analysis" (p. 10). Moreover, Daynes and Williams (2018) described observation as "an active presence" (p. 81). Along these lines, while recognizing that there are different degrees of researcher involvement in the focal social practice, I use the terms *observation* and *participant observation* interchangeably.

A closely related tool is fieldnotes. As Emerson et al. (2001) put it, fieldnotes are a way of reducing the complexity and richness of everyday life into written texts that can be reviewed and reflected upon multiple times (see also Dewalt & Dewalt, 2002). As such, fieldnotes are inevitably selective and thus partial (Davies, 2008; Emerson et al, 2011; Gobo, 2008; Hammersley & Atkinson, 2019; Mills & Morton, 2013; Richards, 2003). For instance, Hammersley and Atkinson (2019) state that, because it is not possible to record everything, what is written down in fieldnotes "will depend on one's general sense of what is relevant to the foreshadowed research problems, as well as on background expectations" (p. 156). Furthermore, fieldnotes reflect the ethnographer's "selective point of view" (Gobo, 2008, p. 222) or his/her choice of frames of reference, which present events in certain ways, overlooking other ways of presenting these events (Emerson at al., 2011). To borrow Massey's (2003) words, "distance, or height, or standing on top of skyscrapers, cannot lend objectivity; it is still a view from somewhere" (p. 75).

3.1.2.2 Interviewing. Qualitative interviewing has long been employed as an important research technique in ethnographic research to obtain participants' emic perceptions of the phenomenon under investigation (Olson, 2016). It has been considered as a research instrument to reveal "what 'really happened, or what participants 'actually' felt" (Talmy, 2010, p. 131). More recently, there has been a growing recognition of the situated, co-constructed nature of interviews in applied linguistics (e.g., Mann, 2016; Talmy, 2010) as well as in social sciences. Put simply, what is said in an interview is a joint construction between interviewer and interviewee, rather than a reflection of what is "out there" to be excavated (e.g., Block, 2000; Briggs, 1986; Heller et al, 2018; Heyl, 2007; Holstein & Gubrium, 2003; Mishler, 1986; van den Berg et al., 2003). Viewed in this light, each interview yields "a version of truth, snapshot of competence or of ideas elicited for a specific purpose in a particular space and time" (Duff, 2008, pp. 133-134). With this recognition comes the need for linguistic ethnographers to examine "not only the whats, or the products of the interview, but also the hows or the processes involved in the coconstruction of meaning" (Talmy, 2010, p. 132; see also King et al., 2019; Mann, 2016; Roulston, 2019).

3.1.2.3 Audio-Visual Recording. Linguistic analysis in LE draws on different traditions of discourse analysis; however, in any analysis of spoken discourse, whether it is interaction among participants in an observed event or an interview in which the researcher played an active role as an interviewer (Roulston, 2019), audio recording is a sine qua non for yielding credible findings. In some traditions, such as Conversation Analysis (CA) and microethnography, video-recording is favored to capture non-verbal conducts, such as eye gaze and pointing, as well as physical and spatial arrangements. Thus, video recording is undoubtedly a powerful tool that allows researchers to capture more contextual information than audio-recording. It is still inevitably selective and partial, however, as it entails making decisions regarding, for instance, where to place the camera and/or recorders, how many cameras or recorders to use, and what to focus on (Goodwin, 1994; Palys & Atchison, 2014; Richards, 2003). Again, it is "a view from somewhere" (Massey, 2013, p. 75). This is exactly why LE encourages its practitioners to draw on multiple data sources such as fieldnotes and collected materials.

3.1.2.4 Transcription and Translation. Finally, any fine-grained analysis of moment-by-moment interaction entails transcription, which refers to the process of rendering recorded interactions into written transcripts. In this process, each and every researcher needs to make a number of decisions, ranging from who should undertake transcription and what conventions to use, to what to include or leave out and how to present bilingual/multilingual data (O'Reilly & Kiyimba, 2018; van Lier, 1988). Van Lier (1988) states that researchers often find themselves torn between concern about accuracy and readability. Thus, transcription is an act of "re"-presentation (Green et al., 1997) that inevitably entails reducing the complexity of the social life. As Ochs (1979) suggests in her seminal paper, transcription is "a selective process reflecting theoretical goals and definitions" (p. 44). In other words, because transcripts are by no means perfectly objective renditions or entirely accurate representations of unfolding speech events (Jenks, 2011), researchers should each choose a transcription system that best matches their research purpose and be aware of the consequences of this choice (e.g., what is not being represented or examined, or what is given more prominence than others).

The same can be said about translation. As Copland and Creese (2015) suggest, rending a spoken text into a written one is, in a way, "both an act of translation and transcription because both involve adaptation and interpretation" (p. 200). This is even more so when one is working with typologically distant languages (e.g., English versus Japanese). Additionally, the layout of data needs consideration. Nikander (2008) points out that the order in which original and translated utterances are presented on the page is "never an innocent nor straight-forward pragmatic business, but rather also constructs priority orders between languages" (p. 227). In fact, it was my awareness of the prominence of leftness in English writing that motivated my decision to present the original utterances in the left column and their translation in the right.

In short, LE brings together different tools and techniques. It is now widely acknowledged that the ethnographer is “involved and implicated in the entire process of knowledge construction” (King et al., 2019, p. 183; see also Coffey, 1999; Delamont, 2016; McCall, 2006). As such, I use the term *data generation* (Mason, 2017), rather than data collection in this thesis. Moreover, it is each researcher’s responsibility to recognize not only the selectivity involved in data generation and analysis, but also the inevitable partiality of any re-presentation of reality.

3.1.3 A Linguistic Ethnographic Approach Involving Multiple Cases

This study employed a longitudinal multiple-case study design to trace PTE trainees’ learning pathways. Lefstein and Israeli (2015) point out that LE tends to “privilege the ‘here and now’ of the recorded evidence over longer time scales” (p. 202). However, because learning occurs over a relatively long period of time, a longitudinal component is needed. Although there is no general agreement as to how long a study should be to qualify as longitudinal (Ortega & Byrnes, 2009; Saldaña, 2003), Saldaña (2003) suggests that, for qualitative study in educational settings to be considered longitudinal, it should involve at least nine months of fieldwork, stating that “human actions and participants might change during the course of a study” (p. 4). Ortega and Byrnes (2009) state with respect to SLA research that choice of study length is ecologically and practically motivated in most cases. In fact, many LS studies in educational settings, described as longitudinal, have been one academic year in length (e.g., Kobayashi, 2016; Morita, 2004), which is typically the “lifecycle” of a programme or course (Duff & Kobayashi, 2010; see also Duff, 2020). Likewise, this study was conducted for one academic year because it involved trainees enrolled in

Methods 1, a year-long core course of the PTE programme. Thus, the major part of the data generation amounted to nine months of fieldwork (Appendix A).

As Duff (2013) puts it, multiple-case studies, if successfully conducted, can yield a richer, more holistic understanding of the phenomenon under investigation than single case studies because they allow cross-case analysis among different individuals or groups that are selected as units of analysis. In this study, a multiple case study approach was employed to identify commonalities and variation in the experiences of four trainees with the goal of contributing to the body of research on individual differences in teacher learning and development (Akbari, 2007).

3.2 The Pilot Study

This project was conducted over two academic years (201X-201Y[4] and 201Y-201Z; see Appendix A) in an undergraduate PTE programme at a private university in the Eastern part of Japan. It was structured in two major phases: the pilot study and the main study. Whereas the pilot was conducted in two situations (i.e., one course and POF session) during only the second semester of Academic Year 201X-201Y, the main study involved year-long fieldwork in four different situations (i.e., three courses and POF sessions).

During the second semester of Academic Year 201X-201Y (September to January), I conducted a small-scale pilot study that involved observing SLA classes and a POF session. Generally speaking, pilot studies are instrumental in trying out and refining research instruments and procedures (Maxwell, 2013); however, the purpose of pilot studies varies from project to project in qualitative research (Denicolo et al.,

---

[4] To protect anonymity, I have decided not to specify the last digit of the year.

2016). My reason for observing the SLA course was my interest in exploring the potential role of SLA knowledge in PTE trainees learning how to teach EFL[5]. I aimed to learn what was going on and what aspects required closer attention, thus guided by the following questions: (1) What is going on in the SLA course?, and (2) How does the instructor teach SLA? Here, Agar's (1996) metaphor of the funnel to describe ethnographic research becomes pertinent. This entails casing the net wide and gradually narrowing the scope to focus on specific aspects of practice. The intent of this pilot was thus to develop a general understanding of how things were done in the SLA course that would help develop a set of questions appropriate to the research context, and as well as to determine how best to work with my research tools.

Moreover, I observed a POF conference in which a PTE trainee, Koko[6], talked about the video-recorded microlesson that she had given in one of her methods classes. This particular student was chosen because she was highly motivated to review and improve her teaching. Importantly, this conference, conducted with Dr. Hiroki Sekiguchi (henceforth Hiroki-sensei), was audio-visually recorded.

At the same time as generating the data, I read and re-read my fieldnotes in my private spaces (e.g., my office) on an on-going basis. I often made what Richardson (1994) refers to as *methodological notes* to remind myself of actions to be taken including (e.g., who to ask what questions, where to place a camera next time). Also, I watched the video-recorded lessons and POF conferences multiple times and took notes of discourse features that seemed important to address the research question as well as those that I found intriguing, surprising, and puzzling. As Copland (2015a) puts it, “this level of analysis is almost intuitive rather than deliberate as we tend to go with gut feelings about what is important” (p. 101).

---

[5] My work commitments prevented me from observing the Methods courses.

[6] All names used in this thesis are pseudonyms.

From this pilot phase of the study, I learned the following points about the SLA course: (1) students were often encouraged to talk to each other in Japanese to check their understanding of academic content presented in the textbook *How Languages are Learned* (Lightbown & Spada, 2013) and explained by the instructor; (2) in each class, a group of students (two or three) did a 15- to 20-minute PowerPoint presentation to recap the main points from the previous class and were encouraged to give examples to illustrate their points and share their thoughts; (3) the instructor often shared his observations and experiences in explaining the academic content; (4) students were encouraged to share their thoughts and experiences where relevant; (5) before introducing new concepts, the instructor often used activities in English and encouraged students to talk about their experiences doing these activities. In short, making connections seemed to be a valued practice in this classroom.

Furthermore, the pilot allowed me to experience what it was like to observe a POF session in a small office. I wrote in my fieldnotes:

> Setting up my camera on Hiroki-sensei’s desk, I asked myself if it was too close to the participants. I was a little worried that I might make Koko and Hiroki-sensei nervous by taking notes and audio-visually recording their talk, but they seemed very relaxed even after I started recording their talk. They sometimes looked at me, but in a friendly and relaxed way. Each time, I responded with a smile, I believe. They laughed and smiled a lot. I was particularly amazed to see how much Koko spoke. She seemed to be enjoying talking about her own lesson. (fieldnotes)

Thus, this pilot provided me with confidence about the feasibility of my planned observations. Also, it provided me with insights which I could not have gained without actually being in the field (Maxwell, 2013). More specifically, I noticed that Hiroki-sensei and Koko referred to the POF session as "*furikaeri*" (looking back) or "*rifurekushon*" (reflection). The pilot therefore provided me with two important sensitizing concepts; namely, reflection and making connections between theory and personal experiences. These are constructs that were derived from my interactions with and observations of the participants and that gave me "a general sense of direction and a reference" (Schwandt, 2015, p. 282).

3.3 The Main Study

The main study took place in the following academic year (April to March, Year 2). There were four groups of participants in the main study: (1) course instructors, (2) PTE trainees, (3) non-PTE trainees, and (4) administrators. I shall introduce each in turn. The first group consisted of two instructors: Drs. Hiroki Sekiguchi (instructor of SLA and Methods 1) and Ren Otani (Methods 2 instructor). As mentioned in Chapter 1, Hiroki-sensei came forward and proposed that he incorporate POF into his methods course. He had previously taught both courses at the university and other institutions. For Otani-sensei, it was the first time to teach Methods 2. Both instructors received their PhD and MA from a North American university and were TESOL practitioners and researchers with a special interest in SLTE. They both had more than ten years of teaching experience at the university where this study was conducted.

The second group includes 14 PTE trainees (aged 21-25) enrolled in one or more of the following two courses: Methods 1 and Methods 2 in a PTE programme.

Methods 1 was a year-long course required for all PTE trainees, whereas Methods 2 was also a year-long course but was required only for trainees who wished to obtain a teaching licence for junior high school. These courses were chosen for three major reasons. First, they were core courses directly related to ELT and intended to introduce the theories and practice of ELT, but they differed in that the former focused on senior high-school teaching and the latter focused on junior high-school teaching. Second, because both courses required trainees to do microteaching, I thought that they would allow me to see how PTE trainees actually teach English. Thirdly, the Methods and SLA courses were all upper-division courses, which were usually taken during Year 3 in the BA programme. PTE trainees would normally take Methods 1 and 2 in their third year, because they were prerequisites for the school-based practicum to take place in their fourth year. As such, the three courses were deemed to provide a valuable window into how trainees travel across courses taught by different instructors. The trainees enrolled in Methods 1 consisted of nine third-year students and three fourth-year students and one BA holder from the same university. Moreover, four of them were enrolled in SLA. This was an elective with a strong pedagogical focus and was open to non-PTE trainees as well. To examine the PTE trainees' interaction in SLA, the rest of the class (*n*=23) were also invited to participate[7]. Fortunately, all the students agreed, forming the third group of participants.

The fourth group of participants includes the Director of Teacher Education and a staff member in charge of teacher education matters, including registration and practicum placements. They were selected as interview participants because they were the most knowledgeable about the overall PTE programme. Additionally, the

---

[7] I use the term student to refer to all undergraduate participants including PTE trainees.

Programme Director had taught Moral Education, another required course for teacher certification.

3.3.1 The Focal Participants

Out of the 14 PTE trainees, the four English-majoring students (two males and two females) taking SLA as well as the methods courses—were *purposefully* selected as focal trainees on the principle that they could provide rich information about learning in the required Methods course or across the courses (Patton, 2014). More specifically, this is what Patton (2014) referred to as *homogeneous sampling* as they shared similar characteristics including their major and the PTE courses in which they were enrolled. Moreover, because this study focuses on POF conferencing, a unique feature of Methods 1, its instructor, Hiroki-sensei, was treated as a focal participant.

3.3.1.1 Focal Trainees. Haru Sakaguchi was a 20-year-old third-year student. Her initial motive for enrolling in the teacher preparation courses was limited to obtaining a teacher's licence. In her second year, she went to the U.S.A. to escort a group of junior high school students and had chances to observe ESL lessons. This experience, according to Haru, had a great impact on her view of teaching. Although not vocal, Haru participated actively in class and POF sessions by listening to others and taking notes constantly. She was always smiling and responded to her classmates' jokes in a friendly manner. Her highest TOEIC score was 630.

Noelle Komatsu was a 20-year-old English major. In addition to the licence programme for secondary school teaching, she was enrolled in the certificate programme in Teaching English to Young Learners (TEYL). Noelle's mother was an

EFL teacher, who was very close to her. Not only did Noelle learn English from her, but she also shared with her mother what she was experiencing in the PTE programme. Noelle occasionally commented that she enjoyed learning about ELT. She was described by Hiroki-sensei as “sincere” and “hardworking;” however, she was “selective” when it came to learning abstract ideas. In fact, at several POF sessions, I witnessed her smilingly confess to Hiroki-sensei and her peers that she would often get “turned off”, especially when faced with complex SLA theories. The instructor once responded by saying “I know!”, smiling, which was followed by Noelle’s peers’ head nods, laughter and smiles. Thus, my observation of Noelle’s selectivity seemed to be shared at least by the instructor and some of her classmates (see Chapter 7). She had a TOEIC score of 625.

Saburo Takahashi was 21 years old. He had a strong desire to become an English language teacher at the junior high school level as it was at this level that he struggled to learn English and wanted to help junior high school students, especially those in similar situations. He was described by Hiroki-sensei as “always positive and eager to learn.” In fact, he often self-nominated to make verbal contributions in class discussions. Saburo was very sociable and got along with everyone. He was one year older than most of his classmates, which would normally require the younger to use polite register; however, all of his classmates spoke to him casually (see Chapter 4). His highest TOEIC score was 740.

Takumi Iwaya was 20 years old. Unlike the other three focal trainees, he had always wanted to become an English language teacher. In his words, he was “intrinsically attracted to the occupation”. More specifically, he wanted to teach EFL at his alma mater, a private senior high school, because of his positive experience as a student. He was always positive and never failed to participate actively in class discussion. In fact, he was usually the first one to speak up. Many of the participants in this study asked for his advice when preparing for their microlesson. His utterances often made his classmates smile and laugh. His highest TOEIC score was 695.

3.3.1.2 Focal Instructor. As mentioned earlier, Hiroki-sensei taught both Methods 1 and SLA. After completing his undergraduate studies, he started to teach EFL at a private language school, rather than at a junior or senior high school, because he wanted to use English on a daily basis. Through his initial teacher training and subsequent teaching at the private language school, he learned to teach English mainly through English. In particular, he learned the importance of presenting target structures in context and vary his speech to accommodate different students. Hiroki-sensei also had opportunities to supervise both Japanese and English-speaking teachers. One of his trainers once discussed the possibility of his becoming a teacher trainer in the future, which raised his interest in SLTE and subsequently informed his decision to pursue graduate degrees in TESOL at North American universities. Through his graduate studies, he became familiar with Vygotskian views of language as a mediational tool and became fascinated with such concepts as *exploratory talk* (Mercer, 2019) and *instructional conversation* (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). Believing that many Japanese students lacked L2 exposure, Hiroki-sensei mostly welcomed the new *Course of Study*, which aims to promote students' learning of English mainly through target language interaction; however, espousing Vygotskian theory, he considered judicious use of Japanese to be an important scaffold for L2 learning. Hiroki-sensei agreed to participate in this study out of his desire to explore POF as an alternative way of providing feedback on trainees' microteaching. As mentioned in Chapter 1, as an established researcher and dedicated educator, he regarded this project as a chance to deepen his understanding of the role of social interaction in SLTE[8].

3.3.2 The Researcher and her Relationships with the Participants

It is now widely recognized that researchers' access to information and the quality of data generated are largely shaped by their relationships with participants. As mentioned earlier, I had worked with the two instructors at the university for more than a decade when I started my data generation. Thus, I was very familiar with both instructors. Our educational backgrounds were also similar. The instructors had studied in North American institutions to obtain graduate degrees in TESOL. Likewise, I chose to pursue postgraduate studies in TESOL in the U.S.A., Australia, and Scotland after obtaining my BA in Japan. It became evident in our interactions that we had read many books in common. Moreover, we were all affiliated with the same professional organizations in TESOL and Applied Linguistics. As such, we shared a body of professional knowledge including theories, concepts, and vocabulary. As experienced classroom researchers themselves, the two instructors were empathetic with my presence in their classes and/or POF sessions.

I was fairly familiar with most of the participants enrolled in Methods 1, including the four focal trainees, as they had taken my courses. According to Lincoln et al. (2018), "the way in which we know is most assuredly tied up with both what we know and our relationships with our research participants" (p. 142). Because I had known many of the participants in this study for one-to-two years, their talk often indexed our institutional roles (Garton & Copland, 2010). For example, all the participants would speak to me at the same level of formality as they did with Hiroki-sensei and Otani-sensei. In fact, they addressed me as well as their tutors as *sensei*, which literally means "teacher". Also, our conversations drew upon a shared history. For example, the PTE trainees often referred to particular people and events that we all knew.

---

[8] Any more details would run the risk of revealing his students' identities as well as his own.

3.4 Data Generation

The major part of the data generation took place during academic Year 1 (April 201Y-March 201Z, see Appendix A) through multiple data sources, including student questionnaires, classroom and meeting observations, semi-structured interviews and casual conversations with trainees and instructors, and the collection of relevant documents (e.g., trainees' lesson plans and reflective essays, Hiroki-sensei's teaching journal, microteaching feedback forms). These data include approximately 130 hours of audio-visually recorded classroom interaction and over 52 hours of audio-visually recorded POF conferences (*n*=34), and approximately four hours of audio-recordings of instructors' meetings. Table 3.1 provides a summary of the methods and the contents of the database.

Table 3.1: Summary of the Database

Methods	Data Collection Period	Data
Classroom observations and casual conversations with trainees and instructors	- Throughout	- Classroom discourse - 130 hours of audio- and video-recorded classroom interactions including microteaching - Fieldnotes

POF observations	- Throughout	- Over 52 hours of audio- and video-recorded 34 POF conferences - Fieldnotes
Collection of relevant documents	- Throughout	- Course syllabi and materials - Hiroki-sensei's teaching journal - Trainees' lesson plans, reflective essays, peer feedback forms, notes taken during POFs - Programme Guidebook
Interviews and questionnaires with students	- Interview1: End of Term 1 - Interview 2: End of Term 2 - Questionnaire 1: Beginning of Term 1 - Questionnaire 2: End of Term 2	- Audio- and video-recorded semi-structured interviews with students - Fieldnotes - Questionnaires
Interviews with instructors, administrators and instructors' meetings	- Interview1: End of Term 1 - Interview 2: End of Term 2 - Once with administrators - Meetings 1: Beginning of Term 1 - Meeting 2: Beginning of Term 2	- Audio- and video-recorded semi-structured interviews - Semi-structured interviews with lecturers and administrators - Approximately 4 hours of audio- and video-recorded instructors' meetings - Fieldnotes

In what follows, I detail each data generation procedure.

3.4.1 Observations and Fieldnotes

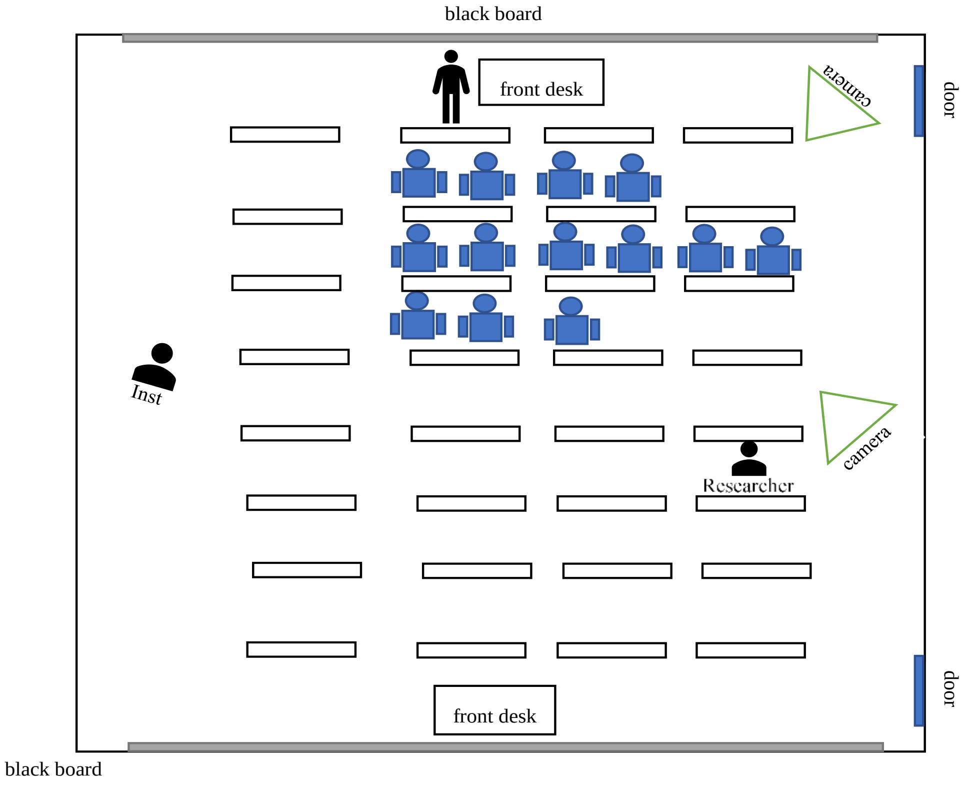
I observed and audio-visually recorded all the sessions of the three courses during the academic year. Precisely speaking, Methods 1 and 2 were both year-long four-credit courses,[9] while the SLA seminar consisted of SLA 1 and SLA 2, each of which was a semester-long two-credit course. The methods courses comprised 30 weekly 90-minute sessions, whereas SLA 1 and 2 each had 15 weekly 90-minute sessions (see MEXT, 2011, for regulations). Thus, I observed 90 sessions in total.

---

[9] For these four-credit courses, students received their grades at the end of the academic year (i.e., in March).

I placed a portable digital voice recorder[10] on the lecturn to capture the instructor or trainees giving a microlesson or an oral presentation and several more voice recorders around the classroom to capture the focal PTE trainees' interactions with their peers. I also placed a video camera in the back of the classroom to capture a full view of the classroom (see Figure 3.1 for layout of the class).

Figure 3.1: Methods 1 Classroom Layout for Whole-Class Situations

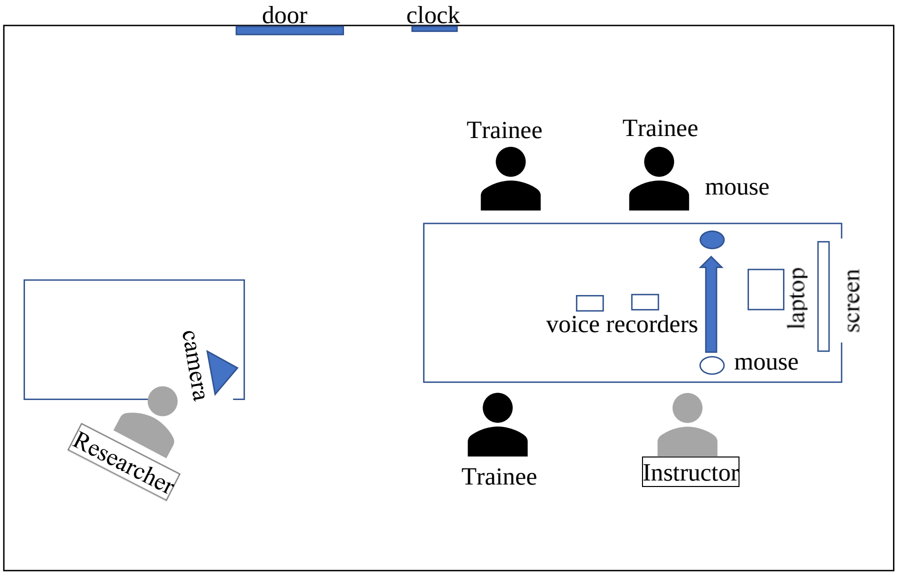


---

[10] I considered using wireless lapel mics to capture the participants' voices; however, I decided to use portable digital voice recorders instead because of their greater accessibility and lesser visibility/obtrusiveness (see Mori & Zuengler, 2008, for a relevant discussion).

In addition, I observed and recorded 34 POF conferences where the trainees enrolled in Methods 1 watched video sequences of their microteaching and talked about them with their peers and instructor. Participation in these conferences took place in the instructor’s office at times mutually agreed upon by the trainees and instructor. I placed a video camera on a desk to capture the participants from the side. Moreover, I observed the instructors of the two methods courses as they discussed their courses, twice; once in March and once in September (see Figure 3.2 for layout of the POF).

Figure 3.2: POF Conferencing Layout


door
clock
Trainee
Trainee
mouse
voice recorders
laptop
screen
mouse
camera
Researcher
Trainee
Instructor

During these observations, I was a *peripheral member* (Adler & Adler, 1987), as I quietly observed my participants and took observational notes. Sitting in the back of the classroom in the case of regular classes, and in the corner of a room in the case of POF sessions, I did not speak unless I was nominated. I tried to jot down as much as possible “because one never knows what will turn out to be important later and be an eventual focus of the study” (Palys & Atchison, 2014, p. 207).

As mentioned earlier, the pilot study provided me with two sensitizing concepts: reflection and making connections. Thus, I paid special attention to instances where they used the term reflection and engaged in any kind of connection making, while continuing to write down what I found surprising and confusing. I wrote my notes in Japanese and/or English depending on the situation. Because most of the class discussions took place in Japanese, I found it easier to take notes in Japanese, but when they did communicative activities in English, I took notes in English.

Because both Methods 1 and 2 required trainees to review their microteaching performance, video-recording of microlessons was a natural part of these courses. As requested by Hiroki-sensei, I operated the video cameras in his classes. In case of technical problems (e.g., no image projected on the screen or no sound played through the monitor), I was often called on for help by student teachers and presenters.

Importantly, I was both an insider and outsider to the three courses. Most notably, having worked at the university for over ten years, I was already a part of the institution. Thus, like Copland (2015b) in her study in CELTA programmes, I had completed gaining initial entry to the field, although I conceptualized this as the beginning of *ongoing negotiation and renegotiation* of my *relationship*s with my participants (Maxwell, 2013), of which the challenge could never be underestimated, especially for longitudinal research (Duff, 2008) such as that undertaken in this study. Also, I had become familiar with the SLA course through the semester-long observations and subsequent interviews conducted in the pilot phase, but the course was inhabited by a new group of trainees in the new academic year. Moreover, having taught various courses, including Methods 1, at the university, I was fairly familiar with the content of this course.

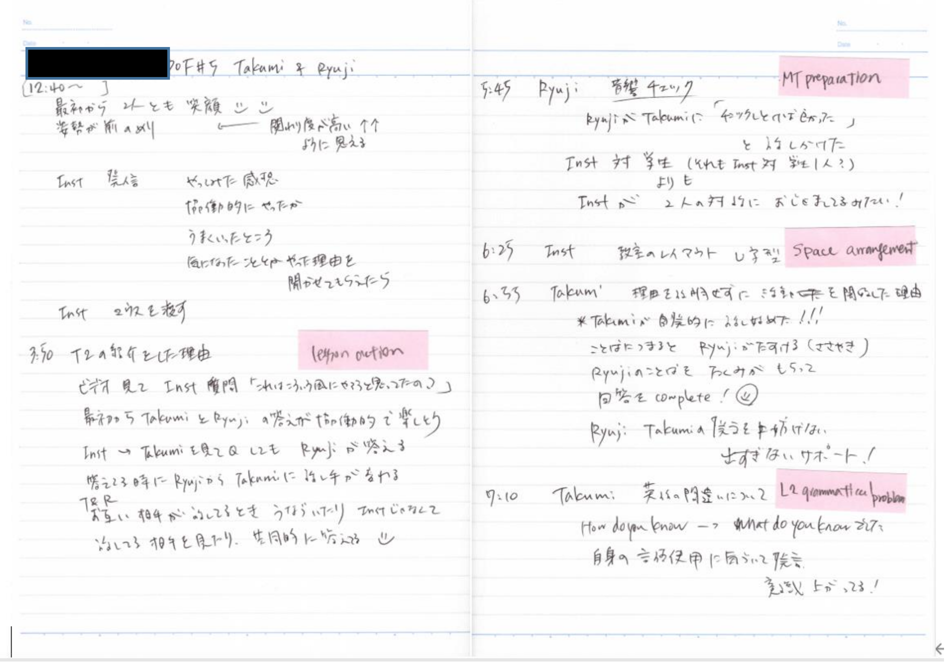
On the other hand, I was an outsider because I had never observed their methods classes, I had little idea of how they would teach how to teach EFL, or of how they would try to facilitate reflection. According to Jackson (1990), fieldwork can be considered as “a social process whereby we learn to formulate questions that members of the cultures being studied find interesting and appropriate” (p. 31). Thus, I see fieldwork not just as data collection, but also as a learning process (Blommaert & Dong, 2020; Rossman & Rallis, 2016). As an L2 researcher taking an ethnographic approach, I learned to ask appropriate questions as I gained more familiarity with and insights about my participants and the research context in order to achieve a local understanding of the phenomenon in focus[11] (i.e., POF conferencing).

In my fieldnotes, I recorded the date and time of each event (e.g., lessons, POF meetings), the physical arrangement of the setting, participants involved (including the names of absentees), and the nonverbal behaviours, actions, and interactions of the participants (see Excerpt 3.1). In particular, I included sketches of seat arrangements to indicate the location of each student and his/her interlocutors. Moreover, I took notes of what I found interesting, surprising, or confusing. As Copland (2018) puts it, “it is often the irregular that alerts the researcher to what is taken for granted in the research site and what acceptable behavior from the research participants’ perspectives looks like” (p. 259).

---

[11] Although the major focus of this thesis is POF, I was initially focusing equally on POF and microteaching.

Excerpt 3.1



[redacted] POF#5 Takumi & Ryuji
[12:40〜]
最初から 2人とも 笑顔 ☺ ☺
姿勢が 前のめり ← 関わり度が高い ↑↑
ように見える

Inst 発信 やってみた感想
協働的にやったが
うまくいったところ
気になったことや やった理由を
聞かせてもらえたら

Inst マウスを渡す

3:50 T2の紹介をした理由 lesson action
ビデオ見て Inst 質問「これはこういう風にやろうと思ってたの？」
最初から Takumi と Ryuji の答えが 協働的で 楽しそう
Inst → Takumi を見て Q しても Ryuji が 答える
答える時に Ryuji から Takumi に 話し手が 変わる
T&R
お互い 相手が 話してるとき うなづいたり Inst じゃなくて
話してる 相手を見たり. 共同的に答えてる ☺

5:45 Ryuji: 音響チェック MT preparation
Ryujiが Takumiに「チェックしとけば良かった」
と 話しかけた
Inst 対 学生 (それも Inst 対 学生1人？)
よりも
Inst が 2人の対話に おじゃましてるみたい！

6:25 Inst 教室のレイアウト L字型 Space arrangement

6:35 Takumi 理由を説明せずに 話すこと~~[illegible]~~を聞かれた理由
*Takumiが 自発的に 話し始めた !!!
ことばにつまると Ryujiが たすける (ささやき)
Ryujiのことばを たくみが もらって
回答を complete ! ☺
Ryuji: Takumiの 発言を 妨げない
出すぎない サポート !

7:10 Takumi: 英語の間違いについて L2 grammatical problem
How do you know → what do you know だった
自身の言語使用に気づいて 発言
意識 上がってる !

(27/Jan/201Z)

Also, I wrote my personal comments on and reactions to what I observed. Hammersley and Atkinson (2019) suggest that ethnographers record their "feelings of personal comfort, anxiety, surprise, shock, or revulsion" (p. 151) because they are analytically important. Similarly, Copland and Creese (2015) discuss the significance of fieldnotes in ethnography saying that researchers can recognize the complexities and partialities of the interpretive processes involved in making ethnographic observations and incorporate them into their ethnographic accounts by recording their emotions, beliefs, and values. Such "emotionally evocative fieldnotes" (Emerson et al., 2001, p. 361) would give us extremely important information not just about *what* we saw in the field, but also about *how* we saw it (Blommaert & Dong, 2020).

Because these notes were jottings often in the form of phrases and incomplete sentences, written in a combination of Japanese and English, I took some time to flesh them out with more details after each observation. More specifically, I added additional details to make initial notes more coherent by writing out “fragments, abbreviations, or other cryptic comments” (Yin, 2016, p. 175). This practice has been described in the literature as “a process of ‘filling in the gaps’ in an empirical record” and by others as the process of making sense of their observed events (Mills & Morton, 2013, p. 85). Ideally, researchers start writing up their fieldnotes soon after their observation in order to develop their jottings into a more coherent narrative while the experience is fresh in their memory (e.g., Blommaert & Dong, 2020; Delamont, 2016; Emerson et al., 2011; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Palmer, 2010). However, I sometimes found that it was not easy to do this constantly, because of my full-time work commitments. Also, unexpected events, such as answering questions from participants and others, and meetings with colleagues, often prevented me from spending enough time to develop my initial notes into coherent narratives immediately after each observation. However, I took time at least to finish unfinished sentences between classes or observations and wrote up my fieldnotes as soon as possible, usually on the same day.

3.4.2 Interviews

Broadly speaking, three groups of people were interviewed: (1) the focal trainees and their micro-lesson partners who co-planned (and co-taught) the lesson, (2) the instructors, and (3) two staff members involved in PTE. All the interviews were semi-structured and audio-recorded. The semi-structured interview method was employed because it allows for flexibility in when and how to ask questions, based on the interview guide. Moreover, all the interviews were conducted in Japanese because this is our first language and the primary language of our everyday communication through which we had built our relationships.

3.4.2.1 Interviews and Conversations With Trainees. I conducted two interviews with each of the focal trainees over the academic year: one at the end of the first semester (in early August), and the other at the end of the second semester (between late January and early February). At each time, the focal trainees' partners were also interviewed. I used an interview guide specifying topics and issues to be covered (Patton, 2014; see Appendix B for sample questions) that I had developed based on my observations in the pilot phase and the first semester. I revised this guide based on my observations during the first semester and then used it for the second interview. Although guided by the list of questions, I altered the order or wordings of my questions according to the way the interview interaction actually unfolded. As a listener, I wrote down only key words and phrases as reminders of what I wished to remember later. My principle was to record utterances verbatim (Yin, 2016) in order to obtain insights into the insider meaning of participants (Maxwell, 2013; Tracy, 2020). I used double quotation marks to distinguish the *in vivo* terms from my descriptions and comments, which later helped me, for instance, consider how the aforementioned term *jugyoosha* might be different from *kyooshi* (master of teaching) or *kyooin* (teaching staff), all of which would normally be translated as teachers.

In addition to these interviews, I often had causal conversations with my participants. For instance, I would walk to the parking lot with the focal trainees, after the POF session was held in the evening, so that I could ask them about their experience. These *tiny talks* (Zoshak, 2016) allowed me to ask a few questions with which I came up during my observations and to obtain the most immediate reactions from the participants in my research. I wrote in my fieldnotes what we talked about as soon as I could.

3.4.2.2 Interviews With the Instructors. In the same way as with the focal trainees, I interviewed the instructors at the end of each semester. These interviews were semi-structured and based on the interview guide that centred around the basic questions on such topics as (1) instructor expectations, (2) instructor roles, and (3) instructional goals (see Appendix C for sample questions). Each interview lasted one to 1.5 hours. Moreover, I conducted three stimulated recall interviews of about 1.5 hours' duration each (in August, December, and February). I showed pre-selected segments of some POF sessions to Hiroki-sensei and asked him about his intentions, thoughts, and feelings. In addition to these formal interviews, I conducted an informal interview with Hiroki-sensei soon after each POF session to gain insights about his perception of the event. These interviews were brief (i.e., less than 5 minutes) and usually conducted in his office after I had the tiny talks with the focal trainees[12] (see 3.4.2.1).

3.4.2.3 Interviews With the Staff Members Involved in Pre-Service Teacher Education. I interviewed two PTE staff members, one of whom was Professor Yokoyama, the Director of PTE, and the other Ms. Hayashida, a staff member of the PTE office. They were purposively selected; I thought that because they both played a key role in the administration of the PTE programme, they would be able to provide important insights into the institutional macro-context surrounding the PTE programme. For example, they were asked what values were being promoted and what expectations they had of their PTE trainees (see Appendix D). The interviews with Professor Yokoyama gave me additional information regarding how microteaching and ensuing feedback were conducted in her course on moral education, which I did not observe. The interview with the Director lasted approximately 50 minutes and the interview with Ms. Hayashida lasted approximately 40 minutes.

---

[12] Hiroki-sensei would wait for me to return to his office, usually writing his journal entries or marking students' assignments.

3.4.3 Written Products

Written products and documents were collected from four sources. The first source was the student participants. Over the academic year, they produced a variety of written products related to microteaching, including lesson plans, worksheets, reflection essays, and peer comments. Also, those enrolled in Methods 2 were required to write a summary of their assigned reading for each class. All of these student products were collected with their permission. Importantly, Hiroki-sensei's comments on these documents were collected with their permission as well. Moreover, many of the trainees took notes during their POF sessions on paper, which were also photocopied with their permission. The two instructors provided me with course syllabi and class handouts. Furthermore, to gain an insider perspective, I obtained 42 journal entries from Hiroki-sensei, who wrote in English about the two courses (i.e., Methods 1 and SLA) and the POF sessions[13]. These entries ranged in length from 52 words to 457 words. The third source of written information was the Office of Teacher Education. I obtained a publication and presentation materials outlining the unique features of the PTE programme at the university as well as a copy of the Teaching Practice Handbook. Although not central to my analysis, these documents helped me better understand the institutional expectations for PTE trainees.

---

[13] Hiroki-sensei said that he was keeping a journal not only to promote his own professional development but also to practise what he preaches about the importance of reflective practice.

3.4.4 Background Questionnaire

The background questionnaire, conducted at the beginning of the academic year, asked trainees about their reasons for taking the courses and what they might bring from their previous and concurrent PTE courses, as well as their English test scores, language learning experiences, and future aspirations (Appendix E). I believed that this insight would be vital to contextualizing their subsequent participation in activities including microteaching and POF conferences. The background questionnaire, conducted at the end of the academic year, asked the same questions to see if there have been any changes in their future plans and English language test scores.

3.5 Data Analysis

This study focuses on the POF session as a major unit of analysis. Like other LS studies (e.g., Duff, 2002; Duff & Kobayashi, 2010), the study draws on the Ethnography of Communication and employs the unit of speech event (Hymes, 1974). Building on the work of Hymes, Ochs and Schieffelin (2008) provided the following definition that captures the dynamic nature of speech events: “socially recognized activities that occur in specified situations, involving participants performing one or more socially relevant acts using communicative resources in conventionally expected ways to achieve certain communicative outcomes” (p. 4). Speech events identified in this study include academic presentations, class discussions, research interviews, as well as POF sessions.

As Atkinson et al. (2011) succinctly put it, the concept of speech event, “as a hybrid combination of contextual components and linguistic forms, licences the marriage of ethnography and discourse analysis in the ethnography of communication” (p. 90). In other words, a detailed linguistic analysis of speech events, coupled with ethnographic sensitivity, allows the researcher to better understand not only what it means to be communicatively competent in a particular community, but also how individuals and their co-participants as active agents contribute to the unfolding and outcome of the events (Bloome et al., 2005; Goodwin & Duranti, 1992). As Mishler (1986) suggests, conceptualized in this way, the term speech event becomes interchangeable with what Gumperz (1982) terms *speech activity* to highlight the emergence of meaning through interaction. These dynamic views mesh quite well with the aforementioned principle of LE that the relevance of a context must be demonstrated through close examinations of that to which co-participants actually orient. In this thesis, I use the terms speech event and speech activity interchangeably.

Another unit of analysis employed in this study is an *episode* (Ricketts, 2019). This is a smaller unit than the speech event/activity as it refers to different phases of the latter or sub-events constituting the former. Importantly, as Ricketts (2019) suggests, episodes generally concern a specific topic, and a change in the topic signals the beginning of a new episode. In this thesis, I present major episodes to illustrate specific instances of meaning making.

Moreover, a speech event can be conceptualized as having both *narrated events* and *narrating events* (Wortham & Reyes, 2021). According to Wortham and

Reyes (2021), the narrated event is what is being talked about, while the narrating event is the activity of talking about it. In this study, the former refers to topics discussed in the POF talk and the latter is the very process of discussing observed lessons. This study focuses on both aspects as it examines not only what was talked about in the POF sessions, but also how it was carried out.

As described earlier, my data analysis began while I was in the field. For example, I reviewed my fieldnotes and video-recorded lessons and POF sessions regularly between observations and wrote analytical memos in my research journal, which informed my subsequent observation and conversations with participants. Thus, I went through multiple cycle of data generating, data analysis, and reflection. As Rampton et al. (2015) suggest, ethnographers continuously oscillate between "involvement in local activity on the one hand and, on the other hand, an orientation to external audiences and frameworks beyond" (p. 15) with the goal of *making the strange familiar* and *the familiar strange*. Such continual back and forth between fieldwork and private reflection in my private space was important for me to reassess on an ongoing basis "how to conduct the research based on what has been learned from prior data collection and analysis" (Morgan, 2008, p. 246). As an example of this modification process, I refined my research questions and changed my analysis to reflect my renewed understanding of the research context and began to focus on the role of POF talk, rather than on both microteaching and POF conferencing.

While completing the preliminary analysis, I started to transcribe the recordings of the POF conferences in which the focal trainees participated, using a modified version of the conventions used by Duff (2002; see Appendix F) in her "interaction-oriented ethnography of communication" (Rampton et al., 2002, p. 373) because it allows for a line-by-line analysis of the unfolding interaction involving non-verbal actions and relevant contextual details without sacrificing the readability of excerpts. This modification was intended to include additional keys to signify voice volume, tone (e.g., an exclamation mark for an enthusiastic tone), and quality (smiley voice versus laughing voice), as well as to accommodate differences between English and Japanese (e.g., no capitals in Japanese). Voice volume and tone were major features of teacher talk into which trainees were socialized, whereas laughing and smiley voices seemed to communicate a great deal, not only about the working relationships among POF participants, but also about their shared knowledge. While notations in parentheses would capture the occurrences of these features, using special symbols (e.g., $ for smiley voices, £ for laughing voices) allows for a visual representation of which part of an utterance is accompanied by changes in volume, tone, and quality.

I mainly used the video data for performing the analysis, as it allowed me to note nonverbal behaviors and contextual information (e.g., participants' gestures, eye gaze, and positions). This was supplemented by the audio data, which often offered greater clarity of sound and was thus helpful in clarifying unclear or inaudible sounds. The transcripts were examined by employing three major types of analysis: content analysis, within-event analysis, and cross-event analysis. These took place primarily after completing the fieldwork.

3.5.1 Content Analysis

This analysis was conducted mainly to identify the topics discussed and references made in the focal trainees' POF sessions. During the fieldwork phase, I took notes of salient topics as I watched video-recordings of POF sessions and read through my fieldnotes multiple times with the intent of obtaining a general sense of what they talked about. Also, I generated initial codes by placing post-it-notes on the fieldnotes.

After the fieldwork was completed, all the transcripts of the focal trainees' POF interactions were analysed with a qualitative data analysis software, MAXQDA. Given the exploratory nature of this investigation, I created codes inductively as I read the transcripts multiple times. First, I employed descriptive coding to examine the transcripts of the first POF sessions involving the four focal trainees. As Saldaña (2021) explains, this type of coding "summarizes in a word or short phrase – most often a noun – the basic topic of a passage of qualitative data" (p. 134). While constantly asking myself, "What is this talk about?", I identified coherent segments of POF interaction and assigned them new codes as necessary. This open coding entailed constantly comparing data with data, data with codes, and codes with codes (e.g., Charmaz, 2014). At the same time, I wrote memos to record the definition of each code and the relationships among codes, which helped me revise and refine the codes as I analysed more data.

Importantly, MAXQDA is capable of counting the number of times a code occurs, which allows researchers to determine the frequency of coded features. To increase the trustworthiness of the analysis, I invited Hiroki-sensei to code parts of the data. After analysing the transcripts of the first POF conferences, I shared my tentative codes with Hiroki-sensei, going over each one of them with the goal of preparing for the intercoder agreement analysis to take place upon completion of all the coding.

Intercoder agreement concerns the "intersubjectivity of analysis" (Kuckartz & Rädiker (2019, p. 267), which refers to the extent to which two independent coders of the same document agree on understanding of categories. Once all the coding was completed, I asked Hiroki-sensei to join me again in discussing and revising the codes that I had created. Following this discussion, I asked him to analyse the transcript of one POF conference (i.e., Haru's POF 2.2) individually, while I reanalysed the same transcript. I then used MAXQDA to compare our analyses. Importantly, I consider the application of intercoder agreement in qualitative research such as this study as a process of striving for what Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) call *dialogic intersubjectivity*, which refers to agreement through a rational discourse and reciprocal criticism between those interpreting a phenomenon" (p. 121). As such, we discussed the possible reasons for the differences and reached an agreement for each with the goal of improving the quality of the coding. Importantly, this discussion allowed me to gain emic insights from the instructor as well as to refine the codes.

3.5.2 Within-Event Analysis of POF Discourse

To analyse the moment-by-moment unfolding of the POF event, I conducted a microethnographic analysis (Bloome et al., 2005), which itself is already eclectic, as it draws upon concepts and insights from different approaches such as CA and interactional sociolinguistics. Microethnography is based on the assumption that people become "environments for each other" (McDermott, 1976, p. 27) as they interact with each other through the use of language and other semiotic resources. With this focus on people *acting and reacting to each other*, microethnography treats an event as "bounded series of actions and reactions people make in response to each other at the level of face-to-face interaction" (Bloome et al., 2005, p. 5). In this light, it is important for researchers to conduct a close analysis of turn taking and speaker-listener coordination, paying attention not just to the verbal aspects of the ongoing interaction, but also to its nonverbal aspects, including listening behaviors (Erickson, 1996). Thus, a special importance is attached to the use of video-recording in microethgraphic analysis (Hornberger, 2003). In the rest of this sub-section, I outline two major analyses conducted in this study: (1) analysis of intertextuality and intercontextuality, and (2) analysis of Japanese sentence-final particles.

3.5.2.1 Analysis of Intertextuality and Intercontextuality. According to Erickson (2006), micro-ethnographic analysis of discourse emphasizes “prior learning as a source of social order” (p. 182). One central component of this approach is the notion of *intertextuality* (Bloome et al. 2005), which means textual hybridity created through the juxtaposition of multiple texts. Intertextuality has long been understood as “an inherent attribute of a literary text or located in the intentions and crafts of a writer” (Bloome & Eagan-Robertson, 2004, p. 20). However, microethnography, as a social constructionist approach, goes beyond this traditional notion by treating it as relations between and among texts constructed in a moment-by-moment fashion through the actions and reactions of co-participants in a speech event. More specifically, intertextual links must not only be made relevant to the ongoing talk as the current speaker refers to or invokes a text (proposal), but their relevance must also be recognized and acknowledged by his/her interlocutors and must have social consequences for the people involved (Bloome et al., 2005; Dixon et al., 2005; Shuart-Faris & Bloome, 2004).

The concept of intercontextuality, which originates from Floriani’s (1994) interactional ethnography conducted in a grade six classroom, is now considered as a companion to the concept of intertextuality in microethnography (Bloome et al., 2005). Building on the work of Bloome and his colleagues (e.g., Bloome & Bailey, 1992), Floriani suggested that, just like texts, contexts can be juxtaposed and invoked interactionally by co-participants in an event. Likewise, as Bloome et al. (2005) write, "Part of creation of any event involves the construction of relationship between the event and other events" (p. 44). Thus, in a classroom situation, students and their teacher may draw upon practices or activities from prior contexts as they attempt to jointly make meaning from texts. As Floriani (1994) suggests, the concept allows for a "discussions of what counts as context and provides a means of identifying the contexts members are drawing on to frame their interactions" (p. 255).

Following Bloome and Egan-Robertson (2004), I conducted a line-by-line analysis to identify the *proposal*, *recognition*, and *acknowledgement* of intertextuality and intercontextuality. I first marked all the instances where participants made explicit references to other texts/utterances and practices and events (proposals). However, as Bloome and Egan-Robertson suggest, intertextual (and intercontextual) links are often proposed implicitly. Thus, I attended carefully to the interlocutors' reactions (i.e., uptake) and the speaker's subsequent actions (recognition). In this process, nonverbal features such as eye gaze, laughter, and facial expressions, served as important *contextualization cues* (Gumperz, 2001 and elsewhere), which, according to Gumperz, "represent speakers' ways of signaling and providing information to interlocutors and audience about how language is being used at any one point in the ongoing exchange" (p. 221). Then I checked whether the proposed intertextual/intercontextual links were recognized and acknowledged by the interlocutors. Bloome and Egan-Robertson (2004) suggest that, theoretically, recognition and acknowledgement could be signaled separately, or the former could be signaled without the latter; these two meanings are more likely to co-occur.

Once the three components are located, I examined the social consequence of intertextuality/intercontextuality. Consider the following example:

T: Who remembers the story we read? (proposal)

S: I remember it. I read it. (recognition and acknowledgement)

(adapted from Bloome & Eagan-Robertson, 2004, p. 49)

The teacher is drawing students' attention explicitly to a previous context that he or she wants to make relevant in this exchange. This question affords the student the chance to respond in such a way that positions himself/herself as a contributor to the class discussion and as a student and reader, but it is the teacher's questioning that promotes intercontextuality. Likewise, Bloome et al.'s (2009) analysis illustrates how a teacher's explicit reference to a previous class saved her from having to repeat the same directions.

This socioconstructionist approach to intertextuality and intercontextuality is instrumental in delineating the dynamic, contingent, and emergent nature of context, speech event, and human activity, as recognized in LE (Rampton, 2008, 2009) and related disciplines (Goodwin & Duranti, 1992; Heritage & Clayman, 2010). Furthermore, the approach contributes to LS research such as that presented in this thesis as it allows researchers to illuminate how students orient to various texts, voices and/or practices through interaction, and how they are assisted in this process of orientation and link-making.

3.5.2.2 Conversation Analysis and Japanese Sentence-Final Particles.

Because the POF talk in this research was held primarily in Japanese, I drew on insights from Japanese discourse studies, especially on CA (Takagi et al., 2016). Of particular relevance to the present investigation are notions of assessment and response token. According to Sidnell (2009), the term *assessment* is used in CA research to refer to "an evaluative act, typically performed by an utterance that contains a negative or positive predication of a referent or a state of affairs expressed by the subject or the object of the sentence" (p. 9). Pomerantz (1984) shows how a speaker's assessment of a referent that is accessible to the recipient often invites a second assessment of the same referent, with which the recipient can either agree or disagree.

A response token is defined by Wong and Waring (2021) as "a lexical item used to perform a range of functions in the environments of responding to informing or telling" (p. 93). Gardner (2001) explains that response tokens, coupled with assessments, provide co-participants in the ongoing talk with information about how preceding chunks of talk have been received, as well as information about how the response token user is projecting activities that follow (e.g., agreeing, disagreeing). In short, focusing on assessments and response tokens allows us to use the reaction of the recipient as an important resource for interpreting spoken discourse (Pomerantz, 1984).

As I examined the conversational contingencies of the POF event, I came to realize that participants' use of Japanese sentence-final (or, as some scholars such as Morita (2002) call it, interactional) particles might play an important role in the claiming of an epistemic stance as well as in turn-taking. Thus, I started to take special note of the sentence-final particles *ne, yo,* and *yone*. Although these markers affect neither the grammatical construction nor the propositional content of utterances, they are intimately associated with the interpretation of a particular utterance as they signal the speaker's and his/her co-participants' relative closeness to the referent or proposition in the ongoing talk (Kamio, 1997) or "the speaker's attitude in order to invite the involvement of the conversation partner" (Lee, 2007, p. 363). For instance, the particle *ne* is often used to index a topic that the speaker considers to be shared with the hearer whereas the particle *yo* is used to index a topic that the speaker believes to be more familiar to him/herself because he or she has experienced it firsthand or previously gained knowledge about it (Hayano, 2011). Hayano (2011) suggests that the particle *yo* is used to claim what Raymond and Heritage (2006) referred to as *epistemic primacy*—"a 'one-up' position on the addressee in terms of knowledge about or epistemic access to the referent" (p. 60).

In contrast, the particles *ne* and *yone* are often used to treat the propositional content as equally accessible both to the speaker and addressee. However, they are not identical. The aforementioned concepts of first and second assessments are instrumental in helping us understand the difference between the two sentence-final particles (i.e., *yo* and *yone*). Here, it is worth considering the following examples given by Saigo (2011). If someone says, "The weather is getting worse," the addressee could choose either of the following second assessments to agree:

	Japanese	**Form**	**Approximate Translation**
A	soo desu ne.	soo copula ne.	It is so *ne*.
B	soo desu yone.	soo copula yone.	It is so *yone*.

While A simply indicates the speaker's acceptance of the proposition, B indicates that s/he may have a further proposition to advance, such as "I am supposed to go hiking with my friends this weekend, but we'll probably have to cancel it" (Saigo, 2011, p. 46). According to Hayano (2011), a *yone*-marked second assessment indicates the speaker's claim to having individual access to the referent (Hayano, 2011), either via firsthand experience or prior knowledge. In either case, the use of *yone* indicates the speaker's greater interest in and concern for the proposition.

According to Morita (2002), the particle *ne* marks a relatively weak epistemic authority on the part of the speaker that requires the addressee's alignment with regard to the propositional content, whereas the particle *yo* marks the speaker's strong epistemic authority on the referent that is not negotiable to the addressee. Also, they are highly relevant to turn-taking in Japanese in that they serve as fairly clear signs as to what sort of response is preferred in the next turn (Saigo, 2011). For example, a *ne*- and *yone*-marked assessments invite the addressees' alignment as a preferred response. For these reasons, although not central to this study, these particles will be further explained as they become relevant to my analysis in the later chapters.

Additionally, acknowledging the co-constructed nature of interviews discussed above, I conducted CA-oriented analyses of selected excerpts to scrutinize how I was implicated as the interviewer in the data (Drew et al., 2006; Mann, 2016; Roulston, 2011; Talmy, 2010). In other words, by drawing on the aforementioned distinction made by Wortham and Reyes (2021), I examined not only what events were narrated in the interviews, but also how interviews as narrating interactions unfolded. Importantly, the POF discourse and interviews, both conducted mainly in Japanese, were transcribed following the previously mentioned conventions. Selected excerpts were translated into English after generating findings (Roulston, 2010). Then, where the Japanese sentence-final particles (i.e., *yo*, *yon*e, *ne*) became relevant to the analysis, I placed Romanized renditions of Japanese (indicated by angle brackets) under Original Utterances to mark the locations of the particles.

3.5.3 Cross-Event Analysis: Identifying Tracers

To trace individual trainees' pathways over time (Research Question 3), I conducted a cross-event analysis. I first noted what topics were discussed in each POF conference. I then read each focal student's POF transcripts multiple times to identify any sign of sustained engagement with the affordances of earlier events (see Kobayashi & Kobayashi, 2018, for an SLA study that took a similar approach). Concepts, words, and practices that were negotiated in one POF and in at least in one other event (e.g., microteaching, another POF) were identified as *tracers* (Newman et al., 1984). All intertextual and intercontextual ties across different texts (e.g., trainees' lesson plans, textbooks used in the two courses) and events (e.g., microlessons, POF conferences, class discussions) were also noted (Dixon et al., 2005; Gee & Green, 1998), with the goal of identifying what processes and practices trainees draw on from previous events and situations to guide their actions and decisions in their microteaching, as well as their reflective talk in subsequent POF conferences. This analysis involved a cyclical process of analysing various data backward and forward in time to see how the focal trainees construct their learning pathways across different events and contexts (i.e., courses). In other words, it was "an iterative process of moving backwards and forwards through time, trying to make sense of the episodes as a linked chain of interactions" (Scott et al., 2006, p. 626). In all the cases, more than one tracer was identified; however, because space is limited, I selected for each focal trainee one that yielded the longest pathway consisting of a number of POFs and related tasks and activities (e.g., class discussions, written reflections) with the intent of delineating each trainee's sustained engagement. This selection process was informed by the focal trainees' responses in their final interviews. Once individual pathways were identified, a cross-case analysis was conducted to identify commonalities and differences among the four cases.

3.6 Ethical Concerns and Considerations

Ethical issues can arise not only in the phase of *getting in* (i.e., negotiating access to a research site) but also in the remainder of the phases of ethnographic research: *getting on* (i.e., establish and maintain positive relationships with social actors), *getting out* (i.e., leaving the field), and *getting back* (i.e., checking findings and interpretations) (Buchanan et al., 1988; Jones, 2010). Thus, ethics is not about a one-time event of obtaining approval or informed consent; rather, it is an ongoing process of attending and responding to ethical challenges as they arise throughout the course of a study (Brooks et al., 2014).

My proposal for this study was approved by the General University Ethics Panel of the University of Stirling. It was conducted in accordance with the general principles of voluntary participation, anonymity, and confidentiality. Appropriate consent to conduct this research (Appendix G) was obtained from all the participants and the university administration in Japan (e.g., President, Dean, Programme Head). After obtaining permission from the University, I met with the two instructors individually to explain the nature and the purpose of the study and obtained their consent. Then the instructors asked the three classes whether I could visit them, thereby obtaining their permission. In Week 1, I held information sessions where students were informed of the nature of their involvement as focal or non-focal participants and their right to withdraw without any penalty at any time during the study. I often reminded my participants of this right after obtaining their consent. This was because I anticipated that students might feel obliged to participate in the study because I was a faculty member at the institution where this research was undertaken, although not involved in teaching PTE courses in any time during the study (see Copland, 2015a, for a similar ethical dilemma). To allow for time and space and to provide a way for students to opt out without having to explain to or face the researcher, the students were asked to submit their consent forms (written in Japanese) to a staff member one week after the information session.

All interviews were scheduled in consultation with the participants. All individuals and institutions involved in this study were assigned pseudonyms, which were used throughout the data generation and analysis. All electronic data were kept securely in the Box Cloud, which is administered by the University of Stirling, while hard-copy documents, including students' written products and printed copies of transcripts, were kept in a locked cabinet in my office. However, as Duff and Early (1996) rightly assert, assigning participants pseudonyms does not necessarily help protect their anonymity. For example, the focal trainees in this study are more likely to be recognized by others in the community because of the detailed descriptions of their backgrounds, actions, and utterances—contextualization being one of the major strengths of qualitative methodologies such as qualitative case studies and ethnographic research (Duff, 2007a, 2008). All students were therefore informed of this possibility at the information session.

Moreover, recognizing the situated nature of ethics in research (Kubanyiova, 2008; Simons, 2009), the study followed the principles of flexibility and reciprocity (Hobbs & Kubanyiova, 2008). During the study, I would often listen to my participants' concerns or answer their questions, which centred around their courses (e.g., missed content due to absences) or their extracurricular teaching experiences (e.g., Japanese language teaching, on-campus peer tutoring), rather than my research. I also made myself available to attend and respond to the needs of my participants in order to reciprocate their willingness to devote time and effort to this project (Duff, 2008). Again, I wrote about my interactions with my participants (e.g., topics, interlocutors, time and place, and my thoughts and feelings) in my research journal, which I believed would be an important step in staying vigilant against potential ethical problems and developing a reciprocal relationship with the participants.

In fact, I had what Guillemin and Gillam (2004) called "ethically important moments," which refer to "the difficult, often subtle, and unusually unpredictable situations that arise in the doing of research" (p. 262). Such a moment arose in Haru's final POF session. When asked how her microlesson went, Haru burst into tears and cried intermittently for about 15 minutes. By the end of the session, Haru was genuinely smiling and even laughing, but because of its sensitive nature, at a member-checking interview, I asked Haru if it would be all right for me to include it as a critical moment in her learning and identity construction (see 6.2.2), and she gave me the permission to do so. This process was repeated several times during the study to see whether she had any second thoughts.

After the fieldwork, I had more ethical considerations to make. For example, I decided not to specify the academic year in which the study was conducted in order to protect the participants' anonymity. This was not part of my initial plan, but I became increasingly concerned that, by discussing my insider status at the university, which was important for the sake of reflexivity, I increased the likelihood of revealing the participants' identities. It was this ethical dilemma that led me to obscure the year of my data generation. Moreover, the focal participants were consulted regarding any concerns that they might have about my analysis and presentation of the data as they became available. For example, knowing Hiroki-sensei's busy schedule, I occasionally asked him throughout the study to let me know whether he felt that his involvement in this study was taking too much of his time.

3.7 Trustworthiness of the Study

Notwithstanding their theoretical orientations, all researchers should ask themselves what methodological *warrant* or justification they have for the claims that they make (Edge & Richards, 1998). Traditionally, this is a matter of addressing reliability and validity. Lincoln and Guba (1985) reframed these in terms of *trustworthiness,* which concerns how researchers can persuade their audience that their findings and interpretations are "worth paying attention to, worth taking account of" (p. 290). In other words, researchers must strive "to gain a trust, rather than to establish 'truth'" (Baden & Wimpenny, 2014, p. 83). Consistent with constructivism, this study adopts Lincoln and Guba's (1985) criteria for naturalistic inquiry: i.e., *credibility* (aka internal validity), *dependability* (aka reliability), *confirmability* (aka objectivity), and *transferability* (aka external validity).

Credibility has to do with whether a researcher has the necessary steps to generate believable evidence. Several strategies were employed to address this criterion, one of which was triangulation[14]. As an LE study, this research draws on multiple sources of evidence, triangulating not only the viewpoints of different co-participants including my own, but also data generation techniques, and settings (i.e., three different courses and POF conferences). In particular, I observed not only the POF conferences as narrating events, but also their narrated events (i.e., microlessons), which allowed me to compare the trainees' and the instructor's perceptions of their microlessons with my own perceptions of the same events.

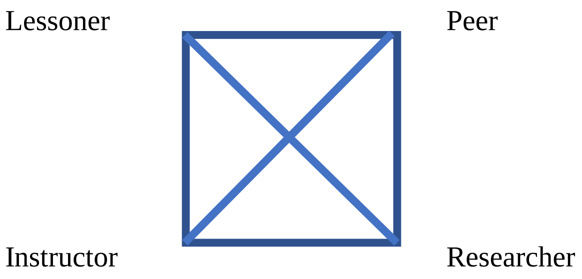
Importantly, unlike triangulation in surveying, one of the fields from which this concept originated, triangulation in social and educational sciences does not necessarily result in complete convergence of viewpoints or perspectives (Duff, 2008; Richards, 2014); however, this is not taken as lack of reliability, but rather as "the texture and multidimensionality of the study" (Duff, 2014, p. 241; see also Gilbert, 2008). Like Merten and Hesse-Biber (2012), I consider triangulation as "a 'dialectical' process whose goals seek a more in-depth nuanced understanding of research findings and clarifying disparate results by placing them in dialogue with one another" (p. 75). In this study, I was not so much concerned with convergence toward a singular reality as with exploring different perspectives (Simons, 2009) to capture the complexity of socialization into and through feedback events. As such, insights gained from multiple sources using different methods for data generation and analysis at different points in place and time were triangulated (Figure 3.3) to develop a richer and more holistic, subtle understanding of the trainees' socialization experiences than that gained through the use of a single method or from a single viewpoint alone.

---

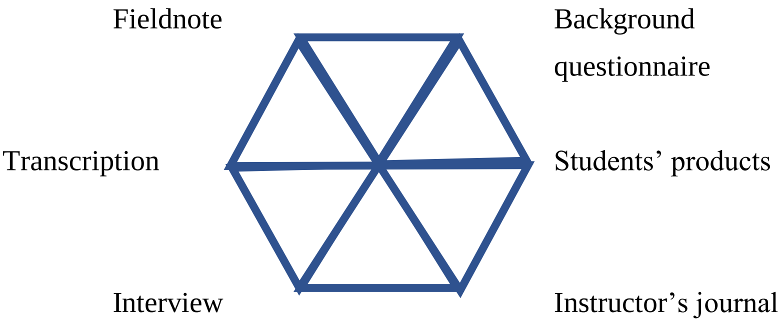
[14] There seems to be some confusion regarding whether triangulation should involve three reference points or whether a different term should be used if it involves more than three (Brown, 2014). However, the idea underlying this concept is to use two fixed reference points to locate the position of an object. The triangle is thus the basic unit as any polygon can be divided into triangles. In short, triangulation can involve two or more reference points, but does not necessarily involve only three (see Figure 3.3).

Figure 3.3: Triangulation[15]

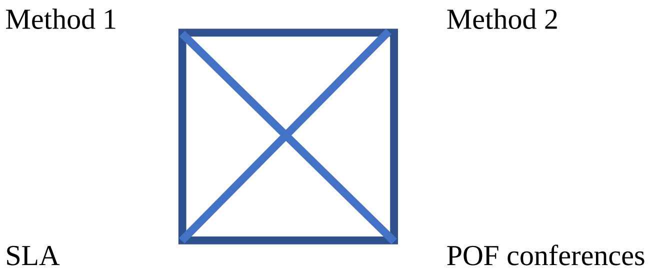
Viewpoints of different co-participants including my own


Lessoner
Peer
Instructor
Researcher

Data generation techniques


Fieldnote
Background questionnaire
Transcription
Students' products
Interview
Instructor's journal

Settings


Method 1
Method 2
SLA
POF conferences

---

[15] Like Kobayashi (2004), I owe it to my father-in-law, Matsuo Kobayashi, who worked as a surveyor for more than 50 years that I was able to develop these visual representations of triangulation.

Additionally, recognizing the difficulties involved in presenting discourse data in a language unfamiliar to an audience (Hepburn & Bolden, 2017; Jenks, 2011; Nikander, 2008), I juxtaposed the original utterances made in Japanese and their translation so that readers familiar with the Japanese language "can then gauge the adequacy of the translation for themselves—in effect providing at least an opportunity to corroborate, if not triangulation" (Yin, 2016, p. 88). Also, I placed the original Japanese utterances in the left column and translated utterances in the right column to draw readers' attention to the former, which was actually analysed (Nikander, 2008).

Other strategies employed to achieve credibility included two closely related ones, prolonged engagement and persistent observation. Prolonged engagement involves researchers spending sufficient time in the field to develop rapport and trust with their participants as well as to develop an in-depth understanding of the focal phenomenon. According to Krefting (1991), "extended time period is important because as rapport increases, informants may volunteer different and often more sensitive information than they did at the beginning of the research project" (p. 217). My prolonged engagement, which took the form of a 170-hour period of fieldwork, completed within four different contexts, was instrumental in making my presence as a researcher a natural part of the POF sessions and in ameliorating participants' reactivity as evidenced by their laughter and facial expressions. Persistent observation refers to researchers increasingly focusing on specific aspects of their participants' actions and interactions that are relevant to their investigation. This was facilitated through the constant back-and-forth between action (i.e., fieldwork) and reflection (i.e., writing and reading about my fieldwork) discussed earlier.

Another strategy used to increase the credibility of the findings was member-checking/member-validation. After the initial analysis, I conducted three member-check interviews with each focal student and asked them to comment on the resonance of my descriptions and interpretations of their actions and utterances. Likewise, I met with Hiroki-sensei eight times to obtain his feedback on the adequacy of my interpretations and conclusions. The duration of these member-checking sessions ranged from 20 minutes to one hour. Furthermore, as mentioned earlier, I was fortunate to have the chance to collaborate with Hiroki-sensei to categorize the topics of the POF talk. This collaboration allowed me opportunities to engage in dialogue with the instructor about the data, receive feedback, and gain additional emic insights (Tracy, 2020).

Heath and Street (2008) stress the inherently interpretive, subjective, and partial nature of ethnographic research, suggesting that "what matters is that researchers lay out decision rules that guide how to do their work" (p. 45). This seems to relate to the notions of dependability and confirmability. To address these criteria, I have outlined the theoretical positions that I brought to this study to make explicit my personal investment in this study and my theoretical orientation as a bias in Chapters 1 and 2, respectively. In this chapter, I have described my sampling decisions, analytical procedures, as well as my theoretical assumptions, which mediated my fieldwork, data analysis, and writing (Heath & Street, 2008).

Madden (2010) claims that credibility presupposes reflexivity in ethnographic research, saying that "the point of getting to know 'you, the ethnographer' better, getting to know the way you influence your research, is to create a more reliable portrait, argument or theory about 'them, the participants'" (p. 23). Creswell (2007) also included reflexivity as a criterion for both a good ethnography and case study. In this study, I kept a research journal (Duff, 2008) throughout the study to record my thoughts, feelings, decision-making, and interactions with research participants to reflect on how I was implicated in the research process. Also, I have described my personal interest in POF conferencing in Chapter 1, following Fischer's (2011) advice that, by writing about the "biographically grounded personal interest" (pp. 28-29) that motivated their inquiry, researchers can help their readers understand the perspective that might have guided their inquiry and shaped their findings.

Transferability concerns the degree to which the findings of a study can be applied to a similar setting or context or the extent to which the findings resonate with the target audience. To achieve this quality, a researcher needs to provide a rich description of what Lincoln and Guba (1985) called the "sending" context or the context in which his/her research was conducted with the goal of enabling his/her audience to evaluate its applicability to his/her own context (i.e., "receiving" context). Moreover, van Lier (2005) suggests that case studies are not so much about generalization, but about *particularization*, which concerns the extent to which "insights from a case can inform, be adapted to, and provide comparative information in a wide variety of other cases" (van Lier, 2005, p. 198). Informed by these views, this study seeks to provides a rich description informed by participants' insider perspectives of their learning in and through POF sessions with the goal of enabling readers to decide for themselves whether and to what extent the insights from the current investigation can be particularized in their contexts.

3.8 Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter, I have outlined LE as a methodological framework and the research methods employed in this study. LE, as a *site of encounter* (Rampton, 2007), allows researchers of different disciplines to combine various theoretical perspectives and approaches to discourse. It sits very well with the LS and the sociocultural perspectives outlined in Chapter 2. This study employed an ethnographic multiple case study in conjunction with discourse analyses, drawing upon insights from linguistic anthropology (e.g., speech event) and SCT (e.g., tracers). Consistent with the LS theory, the data were collected through multiple sources, representing different viewpoints, and the data analysis was primarily inductive. To assess the quality of this study, Lincoln and Guba's (1985) trustworthiness criteria were also employed.

Chapter 4: Pedagogical Context of POF talk

4.0 Introduction

The sociocultural perspectives reviewed in Chapter 2 all embrace “the situatedness of activity” (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 33). Seen in this light, the POF talk, just like any other human activity, is always situated and thus does not take place in a vacuum as it occurs among particular people in a particular place at a particular time. In ecological terms (van Lier, 2004), each POF talk can be conceptualized as being enmeshed in a complex web of interactions and relations in which all inhabitants have a place and role. As such, it seems crucial to devote some space here to the pedagogical context in which the POF conferencing occurred as well as to the *ecology of tasks* (Mohan, 1990), which, in this case, encompasses interrelationships among POF sessions, microteaching, and other activities.

This chapter aims to delineate the situatedness of POF. I first describe the institutional (meso) context before considering the microteaching and its physical environment. I then detail post-lesson activities used in the two focal courses – Methods 1 and 2. Finally, I consider the relationships between the focal trainees and their POF partners.

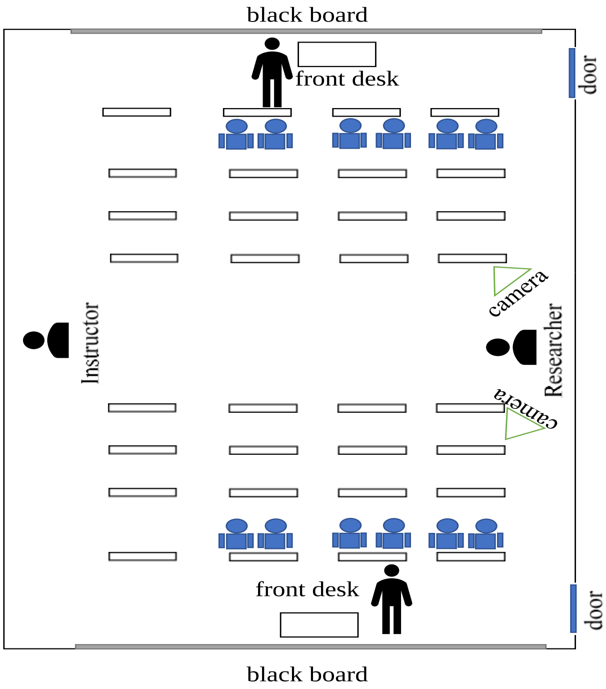
4.1 Institutional Context

As mentioned in Chapter 3, this study took place at a private university in Japan. As a higher education institution, the university had as its goal to cultivate students’ attitude and ability to appreciate the diversity and coexistence in an increasingly globalized world. Other goals included fostering students’ metacognition and autonomy and developing their problem-solving skills as well as social and communication skills to cooperate and build positive relationships with others. All course instructors, regardless of their subjects, were expected to employ an active learning approach, which involves a repeated cycle of action and reflection, supported by peers working toward a common goal. Thus, it was not surprising that the term *reflection* and its Japanese counterpart *furikaeri* were part of the trainees' everyday vocabulary.

4.2 Microteaching and its Physical Environment

As is typically the case with undergraduate ELT methods courses offered in Japan, peer microteaching was the major component of the two methods courses. According to Franks (2015), "physical environments shape activity and learning as much as social activity and interaction shape the physical environments" (p. 243). Following this line of thinking, I first describe the two classroom environments in which trainees' microlessons occurred. Hiroki-sensei's Methods 1 had moveable desks and chairs, but took place in a relatively large classroom, which in fact could be turned into two small rooms. As such, the classroom was equipped with two blackboards and screens, one in the front and the other in the back which made it possible to have two concurrent microteaching sessions at one time (see Figure 3.4). It was precisely because of this feature that Hiroki-sensei, who wanted to give as many microteaching chances as possible to his trainees, requested this particular room. To observe the two concurrent micro-lessons, the instructor and the researcher would sit, straddling the two class spaces (see Figure 4.1). Otani-sensei's Methods 2 took place in a relatively small classroom with moveable desks and chairs.

Figure 4.1: Methods 1 Classroom Layout for Concurrent Micro-Lessons



As mentioned in Chapter 3, both methods courses were year-long four-credit courses. Since these courses did not have any prerequisites, trainees typically took them simultaneously in their third year. Hiroki-sensei required four micro-lessons for Methods 1 (two each semester) while Otani-sensei required one microlesson in the first semester for Methods 2. Thus, those trainees who took both methods courses did five English micro-lessons in total, three in Semester 1 and two in Semester 2.

While the microteaching task for Methods 2 was a solo task, all the microteaching tasks for the Methods 1 were pair/group tasks, which involved peer collaboration. The first microteaching task required for Methods 1 was jointly planned by two or three students but given individually. To maximize the number of micro-lessons for each student to give, the class was divided into two groups of five or six so that there were two concurrent sessions at one time (see Table 4.1 for major task descriptions).

Table 4.1: Descriptions of the Major Tasks for Methods 1 & 2 in Chronological Order

	Week	Task	Descriptions	Session format
Semester 1 April to August	8 & 9	Methods 1 MT 1	Each student planed a 50-minute lesson for a class of 10th graders with a partner (or two) and taught a 15-minute segment of this jointly planned lesson to a half of the class.	2 concurrent sessions
	8-11	Methods 1 POF 1	Each pair or group viewed their video-recorded lessons and talked about them with the instructor.	
	12-14	Methods 2 MT	Each student planned a 50-minute lesson for his/her target student group. Students shared their plans in small groups and commented on each other’s plan, and each taught a 15-20 minute segment.	whole-class session
	12-15	Methods 1 MT 2	Each student retaught the lesson for 20 minutes to the whole class.	whole-class session
	13-16	Methods 1 POF 2	Each student talked about his/her lesson with the lecturer and a classmate or two who volunteered to participate in the feedback session.	
Semester 2 September to February	24-25	Methods 1 MT 3 Round 1	Each student worked in pairs or groups of three to plan a 50-minute lesson for a group of undergraduate students on a teacher education programme (i.e. their classmates). One member of each pair taught 20 minutes of this jointly planned lesson to a half of the class.	1 concurrent & 1 whole-class session
	24-26	Methods 1	Talked about the first round with their	

		POF 3.1	partner(s) and the lecturer. Discussed possible changes to be made.	
	27-29	Methods 1 MT 3 Round 2	The other member of the pair (or, in case of a group of three, a second member) retaught the lesson to a half of the class.	1concurrent & 1 whole-class session
	27-30	Methods 1 POF 3.2	Talked about the Round 2 lesson with their partner(s) and the lecturer. Discussed possible changes to be made.	
	28	Methods 1 MT 3 Round 3	A third member retaught the lesson to the whole class.	whole-class session
	29	Methods 1 POF 3.3	Talked about the Round 3 lesson with their partner(s) and the lecturer. Discussed possible changes to be made.	
	33-35	Methods 1 MT 4	Students worked in pairs or groups of three to plan a 45-minute lesson (or, for one group of three, 50-minute lesson) for a class of their choice. They had the choice of either treating this teaching as a solo activity or team-teaching.	whole-class session
	33-36	POF 4	Talked about their joint lesson with their partner(s) and the lecturer.	

There was an unintended affordance of the above microteaching arrangement as evidenced by following comment by Noelle. The symbol (i.e., @) is used to signify my back-channeling.

Excerpt 4.1: Unintended Affordance of the Microteaching 1 Arrangement

(@ signifies back-channeling)

Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
それぞれで: なんか同時にやる時って“なんかあたしってけっこう早く進んじゃうんだな”って言うのをおんなじでやるからこそ気づいたりとか: なんか - あっち反応いいのに(EK: @) “なんで同じことやってるこっちは反応が悪いんだろう”とか: 考えたりとか(EK: @)なんか同じ授業を同じぐらいのスピードで進んでるから:(EK: @)対称になるものがあって(EK: @)というか凄い私はそれは思って: (EK: @):	when each of us did a microlesson at the same time, I was like “well my lesson is going faster than I thought.” I realized this only because each of us did the same lesson at the same time. I was like “well they are very responsive (EK: @) but although we are doing the same thing, I wonder why this group is not so responsive I thought like that. (EK: @) well because we were doing the same lesson almost at the same pace (EK: @) that was a performance indicator for me (EK: @) well that’s what I felt strongly

(Interview, 2/Aug/201Y)

As such, the physical arrangement of this particular microteaching provided at least Noelle with opportunities to compare her performance with that of her partners and mull over her teaching.

The second microlesson was based on the same lesson plan as the first lesson but given to the whole class. In other words, the first two microteaching assignments were intended to form a context for task repetition (Bygate, 2018). Hiroki-sensei explained at his initial interview that the second microteaching was intended as a chance to address challenges encountered in the first microteaching (see Wallace, 1991, for a discussion of reteach).

The third and fourth micro-lessons for Methods 1, both of which took place in Semester 2, were co-planned, but they differed from each other in that the former was a teach-reteach task whereas the latter was a team-teaching task. The third microteaching task involved trainees planning a 20-minute lesson in pairs or groups of three and each member teaching the same part of the lesson (Wallace, 1991). Thus, each member had a chance to see his/her partner teach the same lesson either before or after his/her own teaching. Hiroki-sensei explained the adoption of this task feature as providing vicarious experiences for each pair/group who taught based on the same plan. Also, microteaching 3 required them to prepare a lesson at a level appropriate to their undergraduate peers, not a lesson for them acting as high school students. This requirement was not part of the initial plan but was added after the first two microteaching assignments to address the artificial nature of microteaching involving peers acting as students (Wallace, 1991).

The final microteaching task required trainees to work together to plan and teach a 45-minute lesson. The instructor explained in class that this would allow the trainees to experience teaching almost an entire lesson because lessons given at junior and senior high schools are 50 minutes in length. Also, Hiroki-sensei explained at his first interview that he wanted the trainees to experience what it was like to have another microteacher in class as they would have opportunities to do team-teaching once they are employed as teachers. For Methods 2, trainees individually planned a 50-minute lesson and executed a 15-20 minutes microlesson to the whole class of their peers acting as secondary school students.

All of these microteaching tasks counted toward the final grade and were thus assessed based on the list of criteria given before the first microteaching assignment (MT1) in April. This list was introduced when the class discussed features of a “good” EFL lesson for secondary school students in Japan and was occasionally referred to throughout the course. As such, the criteria included in the list represented some of the values and practices into which the trainees were intended to be socialized. The instructor developed the list into a feedback form, which carried a grade for each microteaching performance (Appendix I). Importantly, the trainees received their grades via email after each POF conference.

4.3 Post-Lesson Activities

This section details the post-lesson activities, including POF conferencing, which took place in each of the two methods courses, as well as their instructors' reasons and expectations for adopting them.

4.3.1 Written Peer Feedback and POF in Methods 1

In Methods 1, trainees participated in two kinds of post-lesson activities: written peer feedback and POF. Immediately after each microlesson, they were given a few minutes to write their comments on their peers' teaching, focusing on both strengths and areas for improvement. Also, after their lessons, each microteacher met voluntarily with Hiroki-sensei and a peer or two to have a POF conference that took place outside of class time in the instructor's office (see Figure 3.2 for layout).

Well aware of the potential conflict between development and evaluation reported in the literature (e.g., Copland, 2010; Farr, 2011; Waring, 2013), Hiroki-sensei did not include his trainees' POF participation in the formal evaluation in order to promote honest feedback and reflection. Nevertheless, since all the microteaching assignments including lesson plans and written reflections counted toward the final grade (see Appendix H), the tension between development and evaluation could not be entirely eliminated (Farr, 2011). In fact, Hiroki-sensei commented in his pre-course interview as follows:

Excerpt 4.2

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	EM	評価の対象は,	what will be evaluated is,
2	Inst	模擬授業と個人で書く内省文, (0.6) [中間試験	microteaching and individually written reflections, (0.6) [midterm
3	EM	[あ：はい=	[oh: yes=
4	Inst	=ま：だから - もちろんフィードバックセッションは評価に入らないんだけど：模擬授業とか内省文が評価されるから:	=well so - of course feedback sessions won’t be evaluated but microteaching and written reflections will be evaluated so:
5	EM	そっか.	I see.
6	Inst	そう．方や自由に意見を言ってくださいってやってるのに、方や点数付きます, (0.5) 基準に従ってねみたいな.	yeah. it’s like on one hand you’re saying please share your opinions freely and on the other hand you’re saying you’ll get scores for your performance, (0.5) so follow the criteria..
7	EM	あ::	oh::
8	Inst	ね? - そこがまっ悩みどころというか	you see? - well that’s what I’m not sure about.
9	EM	そっかそっか.	I see I see.

Hiroki-sensei’s utterances in lines 4 and 6 seem to indicate that he was ambivalent about the potentially contradictory task expectations that were to be communicated to his trainees: namely, diversity and dialogue promoted in POF conferences and conformity to the requirements of the microteaching and written reflection. Here it is important to note that it was Hiroki-sensei who bring up this contradiction in values (line 4). In contrast, none of the focal trainees and their partners seemed to be concerned about evaluation. For example, Ryuji said at his Semester 2 interview, “*whether or not my* *performance is evaluated doesn't matter to me and I simply try my best to improve my teaching*" (my translation). Likewise, Takumi and Noelle said that they enjoyed making efforts to improve their teaching so much that they had forgotten that their performance was being evaluated.

Moreover, because POF participation was not evaluated, it was intended to be optional. However, all the trainees agree to participate although it cannot be denied that they might have felt obliged to accept the instructor's invitation initially at least.

In each POF conference, each microteacher watched and discussed his/her own video-recorded lessons usually with his/her classmate(s) who co-planned the lesson. However, because the first two microteaching assignments for Methods 1 involved each trainee planning a lesson in a pair, consulting the instructor, and individually teaching the same lesson twice, Hiroki-sensei suggested that, for the second POF, they meet with a different peer than the first POF to obtain different views as "students." Hiroki-sensei and the trainees met at mutually agreed upon times, which included lunch hours, as well as common free time slots between classes and after school.

At his initial interview, Hiroki-sensei discussed his reasons for adopting POF outside of class. He said that he was dissatisfied with the quality of the interaction in the POF events that he had seen in in-service teacher training as well as in the teaching methods classes that he had previously taught. One major reason had to do with the social participation structures of the events. According to Erickson (1982), this term refers to "a patterned set of constraints on the allocation of interactional rights and obligation of various members of the interacting group" (p. 151). Hiroki-sensei said that the feedback events that he had attended varied greatly in size from 6 people to about 50 people; what was common to these events, however, was that the moderator would nominate speakers one by one and the microteacher would listen, take notes, and thank each feedback provider. Sometimes it was university instructors and teacher supervisors who would first be asked to provide feedback, which resulted in a relatively extended turn. In case of feedback sessions conducted in a large group, the participants did not necessarily know each other. To quote Hiroki-sensei, “there was not much meaningful interaction” (28 March, 201Y). He thought that the social participation structures of such feedback events were so rigid that they position microteachers as mere recipients of feedback from their trainers and peers, thereby preventing them from getting proactively involved in learning and from using interaction to deepen understanding. He thus decided to conduct POF conferencing in the way described above in order to have more profound discussions about his trainees’ microteaching experiences. While Hiroki-sensei recognized the time efficiency of the one-way communication in those post-lesson sessions that he had witnessed, he expressed his dissatisfaction with such directive feedback as it lacked important qualities that the *Course of Study* aims to develop in high school students, such as willing to communicate in the target language and learning through dialogue (MEXT, 2017c). His utterance “first teachers should be able to demonstrate these” is particularly noteworthy since it reflects his belief that teachers should be good role models for their students (see Chapter 6). To this end, Hiroki-sensei as a teacher educator considered it important to interact and feedback in the way he wanted his trainees to interact with and feedback to their future students.

In summary, Hiroki-sensei’s decision to adopt POF out of class stemmed from his own experiences observing one-way POF communication in in-service teacher training sessions as well as ending up being directive in his PTE classes. He envisioned the POF session as a place for the PTE trainees to experience a two-way (or multi-way) interactions that promotes deeper exploration of microteaching-related topics.

Another reason for adopting POF conferencing was a perceived lack of time. Excerpt 4.2 shows how the instructor started to discuss how time-pressed he was in teaching Methods 1, which is mandated by MEXT to cover a wide range of topics and activities. In Line 2, he names some of these, including SLA, language assessment, and instructors' demonstrations of teaching. Although not shown here, he discussed his desire to give his trainees as many opportunities as possible to experience what it is like to learn English mainly in English, including L2 communicative activities (e.g., jigsaw reading) that he wanted them to learn to use in their teaching[16].

Excerpt 4.3

Line	SPKR	Original Utterance	Approximate Translation
1	EK	授業時間外に会うことになると何て言うか (0.5) 先生の負担が (-) 大きくなりますよね:	If you meet with students outside the classroom how can I put this (0.5) your burden will (-) be greater, right?
2	Inst	そうなんですよね:: もちろん うん全部授業時間でできればいいだけど (0.6) SLA とか評価とか教員の見本とか (-) 教授法に加えて色々やることが多くて	you're right. of course yeah it would be great if we could do everything in class but there is simply a lot to do in addition to teaching methods (0.6) like SLA, assessment, and teacher demonstration,
3	EK	うんうん本当そう	mhm mhm exactly
4	Inst	模擬授業だけでもけ::こう取られるちゃうじゃない?	microteaching alone takes up quite a lot of time?
5	EK	ん: 確かに. 模擬授業が始まるまでの準備に時間がかかることもありま	mm certainly. Students often need time to get ready to do their

---

[16] This is what Woodward (2003) refers to as *loop input*, a particular kind of "experiential teacher training that involves an alignment of the process and content of learning" (p. 301).

		すよね?	microteaching, don’t they?
6	Inst	そうそう！パワーポイントだったり，張りものだったり，け::こう時間かかるかかる．	right right! whether it be PowerPoint or materials to be put up on the board, it takes quite a lot of time. yeah it does.
7	EK	うん[うん	mhm [mhm
8	Inst	[それでも模擬授業は何回かはやらせてあげたいし．	[even if that’s the case I want to let students do several micro-lessons.
9	EK	うん分かります．	yeah I know.
10	Inst	そうなるとフィードバックの時間があまり取れなくて，	which means we don’t have much time for feedback.
11	EK	はいはい	mhm mhm
12	Inst	結:局私と授業を受けた学生がよかったこと言ったり，一方的にこうしたらいいんじゃないかとか話をしておしまいになっちゃうみたいな	after all we have time only for me and peers acting as students to tell what they thought was good and what could be improved, running out of time
13	EK	一方通行ってことですよね¿	one-way information flow right?
14	Inst	そうそう．　全然対話になってないな:って (-)で(-)でもそうするには時間かかるし．　う:[ん	yeah yeah. It’s far from dialogic I feel and that would require more time. yea[:h
15	EK	[そうするにはっていうのは?	[can you explain what you mean by that ((referring to dialogue)).
16	Inst	お互い(-)一緒にやり取りを通して (0.5) 一緒に考えられたらなって	mutually (-) it would be great if we could think together (0.5) together through interaction
17	EK	先生と授業者がってことですよね?	you mean you and the microteacher, right?
18	Inst	そうそう．それで思い切って別に時間取ってやってみようかなって (0.6)　まぁ参加は must じゃないんで，どれだけ希望するか (0.5) まだ分からないけど	yeah yeah. That’s why I decided that I would take out-of-class time (0.6) well since participation is not a must we are not sure yet how many students would want to come.

(Interview 1, 28/March/201Y)

As mentioned in earlier chapters, microteaching was a major component of both

Methods courses. As his utterances in Line 10 suggests, Hiroki-sensei was planning to provide trainees with several microteaching opportunities. In fact, more than one third of the entire lesson time (i.e., 12.5 out of the 32 90-minute-lessons) was spent with trainees' microteaching. Importantly, Hiroki-sensei brings up again the issue of the feedback being one-way or directive and discusses the importance of thinking together with microteachers through interactions, which he refers to as a dialogic approach (e.g., Alexander, 2020; Wells, 1999).

While his main focus was on POF, Hiroki-sensei gave his trainees peer feedback forms to complete. This form contained a list of things to look for in microteaching (e.g., clear articulation, enthusiasm, use of visuals, clarity of points, time management, facilitation of activities) and two open-ended questions (i.e., what was effective, and which areas needed improvement). Hiroki-sensei discussed two advantages of written peer feedback given on trainees' micro-lessons, which can be summarized as follows: it allows the microteacher to get feedback from everyone involved in a relatively short amount of time (e.g., within 2-3 minutes). He also discussed its disadvantages, one of which is written feedback can appear inadvertently harsh in the absence of such nonverbal cues as facial expressions and voice tones. In fact, after reading trainees' comments on their peers' microteaching, he spent approximately 20 minutes of his class time to address this issue and reminded the class occasionally thereafter. Hiroki-sensei also confirmed my observation that he valued a careful choice of wording and use of emoticon to tone down the face-threatening nature of written feedback.

4.3.2 Individual Video Reviewing and Peer Written Feedback in Methods 2

The major post-lesson activity for Methods 2 was individual video viewing. Otani-sensei uploaded the video-recordings of his trainees' lessons to their course management system so that they could give written feedback on their peers' teaching as well as review their own teaching individually at their convenience in order to write reflective essays. Otani-sensei also gave feedback on both microteaching performance and their reflective essays about the microteaching experience.

The following exchange was taken from the end-of-the-semester debriefing meeting that the two instructors had to share their Semester 1 experiences and their plan for the second semester. Otani-sensei articulates his reason for requiring his trainees to watch their video-recorded lessons.

Excerpt 4.4

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Otani	なかなかオブザベーションって自分でこう - 観察するって機会がないので	we rarely have chances to observe our own lessons so
2	Hiroki	うん	mhm
3	Otani	だからもちろんコメントも大事ですけれども．なんとかそのやっぱり自分が教えてるその - 姿っていうのをやっぱり<yappari>こう 外から見させたいってのがあったので，　だからビデオを撮るってことはまぁちょっとあの:なんとかっていうことで　そこだけは最低限したかったんですけども:	of course feedback is important, but I wanted to have the trainees somehow see themselves teaching like as expected - from outside, so video-recording well yeah well was something that I at least wanted to do:
4	Hiroki	それ大事ですよね[やっぱりね: <sore daiji desu yone[yappari ne:>	that's important isn't it: [as expected

5	Otani	[はい.　なかなか恥ずかしいとは思うんですけども:	[yes. it’s really embarrassing I suppose.
6	Hiroki	$恥ずかしいですよね$	$it’s embarrassing isn’t it.$
7	Otani	ははは　((laughing))	hahaha ((laughing))

(31/Aug/201Y)

In Lines 1 and 3, Otani-sensei makes it clear that video-recording would allow PTE trainees to “see themselves teaching from outside,” which rarely occurs in the course of everyday life. Notice his use of the adverb *yappari* here, which, according to Maynard (2005), “implies that the topic has already been discussed and as a consequence adds a sense of familiarity” (p. 300). In Line 4, Hiroki-sensei also uses the same adverb along with the sentence-final particle *ne* to show empathy, thereby aligning with Otani-sensei.

Prior to Excerpt 4.4, Hiroki-sensei told Otani-sensei that some of the written comments that his trainees gave their peers were a little too harsh. In Line 1, Hiroki-sensei states that he felt that the trainees needed instruction on how to give constructive feedback. After aligning with this statement, Otani-sensei begins to share his views on written feedback. He first discusses the importance of writing as much as possible in providing feedback and then the importance of specifying areas needing improvement and suggesting alternative actions, rather than simply providing evaluative comments.

Excerpt 4.5

Line	SPKR	Original Utterance	Approximate Translation
1	Hiroki	だったのでちょっとフィードバックの仕方も指導しないといけないかなと思いました.	that’s why I thought I needed to give some instruction on how to give feedback.
2	Otani	そうですね.　なるべくコメントも書く (-)もちろん書くのも	right. it’s important to write as many comments as they can (-) of course

		そうですけども　そのやっぱりいい面は絶対学生挙げるんですね,	writing is important but well as expected trainees never fail to comment on good points you know
3	Hiroki	そうですね:	rig:ht
4	Otani	あ(xx) 絶対そこはもう言わなくても挙げてくれるんですけどやっぱりその improvement のところとかは: 改善点のところとかは:　なるべく良かった悪かった　あまり私ジャッジが好きじゃないので: ,	ah (xx) they comment on those without any prompting but as expected well as for areas for improvement, rather than saying it's good or bad=as I don't like judgements,
5	Hiroki	う::ん	mh:m
6	Otani	どの部分がこう (-) 改善の余地があるのかっていうのを: こうこういう風にしたらいいよっていう感じで書いた方がいいって=	which parts well (-) need to be improved should be specified that's what I=
8	Hiroki	=うん=	=mhm=
9	Otani	=うん　言ったんだけどまだでもちょっと十分に伝えきれてなかったかなっていうのは	=yeah advised them but I couldn't make that completely clear to them
10	Hiroki	あ::	ah::
11	Otani	はい　ちょっと反省点ありましたね	yes that's what I regret.

(31/Aug/201Y)

In summary, the two excerpts have made explicit Otani-sensei's intentions behind the use of individual video-reviewing and his expectations regarding peer written feedback. He wanted to give his trainees a chance to see their own teaching performances in a step-back manner and expected them to give each other constructive feedback that would specify alternative actions.

4.4 The Focal Trainees and Their POF Partners

From a sociocultural perspective, personal history and interpersonal relationships can be considered as important constituents of the ecology of the classroom (van Lier, 2000). In this section, I first describe the trainee's experience with microteaching, POF, and individual video-viewing. I then describe the interpersonal relationships among the trainees.

4.4.1 Trainees' Experience With Microteaching, POF, and Individual Viewing

Out of the four focal trainees, Haru, Noelle, and Saburo had given a microlesson in the course on L2 literacy instruction that they had taken in the year preceding Methods 1. They all said that this assignment made them nervous at first as they had no idea about how to teach a lesson, but they found it be a positive learning opportunity. Noelle said that she developed a clearer idea by participating in a microlesson given by an older classmate who had completed her practicum at the primary level. Haru said that it gave her confidence. Each trainee enrolled in the course received a video-recording of his/her lesson. Saburo said that it was embarrassing to see his own teaching. In contrast, Noelle confessed that, not appreciating its importance, she simply could not watch it while Haru said that, although she had watched it, she was not sure what to focus on. In short, the focal trainees' experience and understanding of the activities were fairly limited at the beginning of this study. In May, Hiroki-sensei asked Koko, the trainee with whom he had conducted a POF in the pilot study phase, to give a microlesson in Methods 1. For Takumi, this was the first time to see someone teach a microlesson. Following this lesson, the class discussed what aspects they would like to emulate.

4.4.2 Interpersonal Relationships Among the Trainees

In the Ethnography of Communication framework outlined in Chapter 3, participants and their relationships are an essential facet of a speech event. In fact, they are abbreviated as P in Hymes's (1972a) mnemonic SPEAKING along with other components: setting, ends, acts sequences, key, instrumentalities, norms, and genres. This section therefore focuses on the focal trainees and their partners as co-participants in the feedback event, discussing how their relationships are indexed linguistically (Ochs, 1996).

Table 4.2: The Focal Trainees and Their POF Partners

Focal student **POF**	**Haru (21)**[17]	**Noelle (21)**	**Saburo (22)**	**Takumi (21)**
POF 1	Noelle (21) Friends since junior high	Haru (21) Friends since junior high	Takumi (21) Friends for 2 years	Saburo (22) Friends for 2 years
POF 2.1	Phil (21) Friends for 2 years	Koko (22) *Senpai* in the TEYL programme	Mizuki (22) Friends for 2 years	Ryuji (25) Just met
POF 2.2	Masato (23) Just met			
POF 3	Yuki (21) Just met	Ryuji (25) Just met	Ohka (21) Just met	Kana (22) Just met
POF 4	Yuki (21) Just met	Ryuji (25) Just met	Ohka (21) Just met	Kana (22) Just met
POF 5	Kana (22) Just met	Masato (23) Just met	Mizuki (22) & Shun (21) Friends for 2 years	Ryuji (25) Just met

---

[17] The numbers in parentheses indicate the participants' ages at the end of the academic year.

As Table 4.2 shows, some of the trainees had known each other for years while others had just met each other in the methods courses. For example, Haru and Noelle had been friends since they were junior high school students.

Moreover, because the trainees ranged in age, different levels of formality and degrees of intimacy/distance seemed to exist. According to Nakane (1970), Japanese people categorize others into three categories: *senpai*, *koohai*, and *dooryo*. *Senpai*, which literally means “someone ahead,” refers to people with more experience, and its companion antonym is *koohai*, which can be translated literally as “someone behind” and refers to those with less experience. *Dooryo* literally means “someone at the same level”. As Nakane (1970) put it, “even among dooryo, differences in age, year of entry or graduation from school or college contribute to a sense of senpai and koohai” (p. 26). Although made 50 years ago, this observation still seems to hold true. All the student participants enrolled in the two methods courses can be considered to be *dooryo* since they were enrolled in the same courses; however, the trainees seemed to have perceived some of their classmates as *senpai* and treated them accordingly. Kana, Koko, Masato, Mizuki, Ryuji and Saburo, for example, were all older than the rest of the class members; however, my observation suggested that the first three were spoken to constantly in formal register whereas Saburo and Mizuki were spoken to casually.

Such differential treatment is more clearly evidenced by their classmate’s use of different suffixes, *san* and *kun*. According to Moody (2018), the suffix *san* is “a default egalitarian, which “has become ideologically tied to respect and/or deference toward others and thus its use may contribute to the perception of distance between individuals” (p. 201). In contrast, the suffix *kun* is “typically used in reference to male addresses[18] who are equal or lower in social status, age, institutional hierarchy" (p. 210) and tends to index a relatively friendly and close relationships. Table 4.3 indicates that Saburo was perceived to be the closest among the five while Masato was perceived to the most distant. In short, Masato, Ryuji, and Kana seem to be considered as *senpai* whereas Mizuki and Saburo as *dooryo*.

Table 4.3: Address Terms of the Older Trainees

Pseudonym	Address Term	Form	Formality
Masato Ito	Ito-san	Family name + san	High
Ryuji Oguri	Ryuji-san	First name + san	
Kana Nishioka	Kana-san	First name + san	↕
Mizuki Ashida	Mizuki-kun	First name + kun	
Saburo Takahashi	Saburo-kun Sah-kun	First name + kun Nickname + kun	low

Additionally, trainees used the suffix *sensei,* which can be translated as teacher but literally means "living ahead." This suffix would naturally fall in the broad category of *senpai* and constitute its upper level of hierarchy. The trainees addressed the two instructors as follows:

Table 4.4: Address Terms of the Instructors

Pseudonym	Address Term	Form	Formality
Ren Otani	Otani-sensei	Family name + sensei	formal
Hiroki Sekiguchi	Hiroki-sensei	First name + sensei	less formal

---

[18] The suffix *chan* is often used to address female interlocutors at a similar level of formality.

These interpersonal relationships seem to have mediated the peer feedback practices among the trainees. Excerpt 4.5 is part of what Noelle said when I asked her what she thought of using Moodle to give feedback on their peers' microteaching.

Excerpt 4.5: Noelle's Interview

Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
フィードバックとかを: (EK: @)なんか - 紙とかで書く(EK: @)のは全然いいんですけど(EK: @)なんか 打ち込んでとか: (EK: @) その皆が閲覧できるじゃないですか(EK: @)なんかそれが(EK: @) - なんかそれがフィードバックする相手にも凄いよるんですけど: (EK: @)おんなじ学年とかだったりとかだとやっぱり(0.7) そうだよねああだようねっ(EK: @)ていう風に言えるんですけど: (EK: @)やっぱり先輩にフィードバックするっていう(EK: @)時は: (EK: @)本当の意味でこういう風に思ったとしても: (EK: @)やっぱり文字でだと文字の方が強くなっちゃうので: (EK: @)どうしてもフィードバック£が::£ できなくて: (EK: @)みんな同じような感じ:になっちゃって::	I really don't mind writing my feedback on paper but well when you post it (on Moodle) (EK: @) everyone can see it right (EK: @) well that - well that (EK: @) - depends a lot on who I'm giving my feedback to and when it's my classmates in the same year as expected (0.7) - I can say "that's right" and "that's that," but as expected when I give feedback to *senpai*: even if I thought a certain thought I'm not good at giving feedback because when they are given in writing than orally comments seem harsher (EK: @) so I end up writing similar things When comments are in writing they seem harsher than when it's given orally. For the life of I can't give honest feedback so

(2/Aug/201Y)

Here, Noelle is classifying her classmates into three categories. She describes her *dooryo* as classmates who started their studies "in the same year." Although Noelle does not use the term *koohai* here, she uses the term *senpai* to refer to the older members of the class, to whom Noelle and her *dooki* (someone in the same cohort) were junior (*koohai*). This serves as additional evidence of the three categories at work in the present research context.

As can be seen in later chapters, trainees' perceptions of their POF partners as *senpai*, *dooryo*, or *koohai* seemed to have mediated not only their language choices but also the power relations among the co-participants in the POF event. These relations might contribute to what van Lier (1996) referred to as *symmetry* and *asymmetry*, which concern "distribution of rights and duties" (p. 175) in interactional events including POF conferences. Additional insights on this complex matter are provided by the content analysis conducted on MAXQDA, which has yielded, as a by-product, a crude indication of how much each participant contributed to the ongoing talk verbally and/or nonverbally in each POF event (see Appendix H).

4.5 Summary

This chapter has discussed the situatedness of POF conferencing by describing the spatial, social, and cultural contexts in which the POF talk occurred. The first section described the requirements of the microteaching assignments as tasks. All the micro-lessons conducted for Methods 1 were not only planned and/or conducted in pairs/groups, but also discussed in these pairs or groups (with the exception of POF 2). The second section detailed the post-lesson activities that followed the microteaching assignments and the instructors' reasons and expectations for them. The third section focused on the focal trainees and their POF partners as their relationships may mediate their POF interactions differently. It is against this backdrop that the following four chapters examines the PTE trainees' language socialization into and through POF sessions.

Chapter 5: The Content of Post-Observation Feedback Conferences

This first data chapter aims to address the first research question, which has two parts:

(a) What do PTE trainees talk about with their peers and trainer in their POF conferences?

(b) What other texts and contexts do they refer to in this process?

The chapter therefore examines the topics addressed (a) and references made (b) in the focal trainees' POFs, thus focusing mainly on the "what" of their talk. In the first section, I outline the stages of the POF conference and episodic boundaries briefly to give some background for the reader. The next two sections constitute the major body of this chapter. In Section 5.2, I present and discuss the topics identified through content analysis. Then, in Section 5.3, I present the findings of my intertextual analysis, summarizing references made in the feedback events. Throughout these sections, I use an episode from Takumi's fourth POF to illustrate my analyses since it is beyond the scope of this thesis to discuss all the topics and references as they occurred in context. Here, it is important to note that both topic analysis and intertextual analysis were conducted in reference to the original contexts of the identified topics and references. By using MAXQDA to code the transcripts, I was able instantly to retrieve the *co-text*—defined by Yule (1996) as "a linguistic part of the environment in which a referring expression is used" (p. 21)—of each coded segment. Finally, I summarize and discuss the findings in Section 5.4.

5.1 Stages of POF and Episode Boundaries

Previous studies have shown that the feedback event as a genre plays out sequentially in stages (e.g., Copland, 2008; Waite, 1995). Because the feedback event in this study involved the use of video, each session can be divided into three phases: (1) pre-viewing, (2) during-viewing, and (3) post-viewing. In the pre-viewing phase, microteachers are asked to comment on their lessons and to explain the objectives of their lessons. While viewing the video, the microteacher of the focal lesson would typically sit closest to the computer and operate the mouse so that s/he could stop the video at any time to initiate POF talk. Other participants were also encouraged to share their ideas or to ask questions. In the post-viewing phase, the instructor would again invite the microteachers to comment on their lessons, including what went well and what areas needs improvement, and to share what they learned from reviewing and discussing their peers' microlessons as well as their own.

The during-viewing phase is the main stage of the POF event that consisted of a number of episodes. As discussed in Chapter 3, an episode typically concerns a specific topic, and a change in the topic signals the beginning of a new episode (Ricketts, 2019). To illustrate how I conducted my analysis, I present Episode 5.0 as an example episode.

Episode[19] 5.0 Example Episode

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation	Code
1	Inst	ちょっと止めてもらっていい?	Is it okay to ask you to pause it?	Proposing the boundary
2	Taku	はい	yes	Ratifying the boundary
3	Kana	((pauses the video))	((pauses the video))	Ratifying the boundary
4	Inst	これさ:　どう¿　指示として	What do you think of this as instruction?	Giving instructions/ Directions (Topic)

---

[19] I use the term episode to refer to POF interactions while I use the term excerpt to refer to other examples (e.g., interviews, student essays).

5	Taku	一気にやりすぎてる	I tried to do too much at once.	
6	Inst	((nods twice)) う:ん ((nodding))	((nods twice)) ye::ah ((nodding))	
7	Kana	((nods twice))	((nods twice))	
8	Taku	って言われました.	That’s what I was told.	Reference to a peer comment
9	Inst	あっ言われた?	oh you were told?	
10	Taku	サブくんに.	by Sabu-kun.	
11	Inst	あっそ:お	oh re:ally	
12	Taku	hahaha	hahaha	
13	Inst	ほ:んとお　私もそう思ったんだよ.	re:ally I thought so too.	
14	Taku	はい.	Yes.	
15	Inst	多分これ消化しきれないんじゃないかなって	like perhaps this could not be fully grasped [by the students].	Reference to his own thought
16	Taku	はい　そうですね	yes that’s right	
17	Inst	うん　kana さんどう?	yeah how about you Kana?	
18	Kana	あの takumi 君時々 okay って言ったんだけどたぶんあれじゃ足りないかな::って思って.	Well you sometimes said okay? but I thought like maybe it is not enough.	Reference to her own thought
19	Taku	mhm　[((nods twice))	mhm　[((nods twice))	
20	Inst	[うん ((nods twice))	[yeah ((nods twice))	
21	Kana	そう	yeah.	
22		(1.8)	(1.8)	
23	Inst	はい　((looking at Kana))	*hai* ((looking at Kana))	Proposing the boundary
24	Kana	あっすみません	umm excuse me	Declining the proposed boundary
25	Inst	あっいいよいいよ	oh go ahead go ahead	
26	Kana	それと大事だなここ忘れないで欲しいと	and what you think is important or what you want	Additional comments

		かっていうとこは声の調子を変えたり繰り返したり sore to daiji da na koko wasurenai de hoshii toka tte iu toko-wa	them to remember should be repeated using different tones of voice	Use of the topic marker
27	Taku	はい.	yes.	

(Takumi POF4)

The boundaries—beginnings and ends—of episodes were more clearly marked by particular verbal and nonverbal contributions. The microteacher, who operated the mouse, would simply pause the video or other participants would ask the microteacher to pause the video by saying "*chotto ii desuka*?" (Can I have a minute?). In Episode 5.0, it was the instructor who proposed such a boundary (Line 1). Topic closings were typically signaled by the discourse marker "*hai*," which is analogous to the English markers such as "yes" or "okay" (Watson Todd, 2016). According to Yamamoto (2008), *hai* is often used in Japanese secondary classrooms to signal the end of a lesson or an exchange. These actions were instrumental in identifying the boundaries of episodes in the POF conference. However, from a microethnographic perspective, boundaries between episodes cannot be drawn a priori; rather, they are socially constructed as people act and react (Bloome et al., 2005). As such, the use of a boundary marker does not guarantee the beginning or ending of an episode because boundaries need to be proposed by a speaker and ratified by his/her interlocutor(s). In Episode 5.0, the end of the episode boundary was proposed by the instructor's use of *hai*; however, this proposal was declined by Kana (Line 24), who wanted to make additional comments. I use this episode throughout this chapter for further illustration.

5.2 Topics of the POF Talk

The content or subject matter of the POF talk is considered as being comprised of a number of topics. Van Lier (1988) defined topic as “a single issue or set of related issues” (p. 148). As this definition suggests, a topic can consist of more than one issue or sub-topic. While Episode 5.0 is a clear example that has only one topic within a boundary, participants often talked about more than one topic within one boundary. Thus, it can be daunting to determine the content of a conversation especially when related issues are interwoven (Schegloff, 1990). According to Watson Todd (2016), “markers and phrases which indicate the start of a new topic vary in their explicitness, the level of the topic that is being shifted, in the amount of the information they contain about the nature of the shift, and their specificity of use” (p. 34). In this thesis, like Farr et al. (2019), I followed the approach of Brown and Yule (1983), “incorporating all reasonable judgements of ‘what is being talked about’” (p. 75). More specifically, I employed two strategies: (1) identifying episodes and (2) attending to the Japanese topic marker *wa*. It is impossible here to provide comprehensive coverage of the complexity of this particle as a topic marker. Suffice it to say, however, that *wa* is used to create and maintain topics (Hinds et al., 1987). For instance, the topic of Episode 5.0 was coded as giving directions/instructions (see the colour code). As discussed earlier, Kana declined the boundary proposed by Hiroki-sensei as she had an additional comment to make. Her utterance in Line 26 could be taken as initiating a new topic (i.e., using intonation and stress) but was coded as part of the same episode as her use of the topic marker *wa* suggests that she continues to talk about direction/instruction giving.

Moreover, the topic is typically not stated explicitly when it is clear to the participants in a conversation what is being talked about. Also, participants sometimes resumed a topic left unfinished. In these respects, having been a participant observer, however peripheral, provided me with useful insights to identity topics of POF talk. Similarly, working with the instructor on some parts of the data to ensure intercoder-agreement was tremendously beneficial in deepening my understanding of what was happening.

During their POFs, participants talked about a wide range of topics (see Appendix I). Here, I mainly discuss frequent topics and those that require further explanation. Unfortunately, space does not permit inclusion of any more topic examples here, but instead I indicate what is being talked about in each of the episodes presented in Chapters 6, 7, and 8. (Below each number is used as an item identifier, which follows the capital letter T for topic.) Where relevant, references are made to the criteria that the instructor used for assessing his trainees' microteaching (Appendix I), as they can be seen as explicit statements of some of the values and practices into which the trainees were intended to be socialized.

Many of the topics identified are *social acts* (Ochs, 1993) that need to be performed by teachers. For instance, the most frequently discussed teacher act, *giving directions/instructions* (T1), is considered to be an essential teaching skill (Harmer, 2012). Such skills are realized as social acts in the activity of teaching. POF participants discussed whether the microteachers' directions were clear enough to be understood not only by peers acting as students but also by secondary school students. In fact, this is one of the criteria listed in the instructor feedback form. The social act of giving directions/instructions is indexed through the use of imperatives (e.g., "Repeat after me."). Some trainees including Takumi commented that they first felt uncomfortable using imperatives with their fellow classmates including older members, which suggested that the trainees need to learn how to exercise the institutional power (Johnson, 1995) that teachers have but clashed with the artificial nature of the microteaching situations involving older peers as acting as secondary school students.

Among the top ten acts in the category of Teacher Acts, Topics 2, 3, 5, and 9 were more student-focused, as they relate to student understanding and participation. Hiroki-sensei often attempted to draw the microteachers' attention to their students' actions and behaviors in the focal lesson. These all seem to relate to one of the criteria listed in the instructor feedback form: namely, *facilitation of student activities.*

Allocating and managing time was another frequently discussed act (T4). Several participants expressed their concern about time management, saying that they heard from their *senpai* (seniors) who had already experienced their practica that they were expected by their mentors to create detailed plans specifying time allotted and finish each activity within the allocated time. Like *clear directions*, *time management* was one of the criteria used for assessing trainees' microteaching.

Also noteworthy are *using an enthusiastic tone* (T10) and *talking and acting confidently* (T23) as these acts concern communicating an affective and epistemic stance, respectively. According to Ochs (1993), individuals claim certain social identities by performing certain social acts and displaying certain stances that constitute certain social activities. Seen in this light, claiming the social identity as an EFL teacher arguably entailed performing social acts (e.g., presenting target grammar and responding to and giving feedback) and displaying enthusiasm and confidence verbally and nonverbally in the context of microteaching.

As well as teacher acts, participants talked about various topics in the category of Lesson Features and Qualities. This totaled 226 instances which were divided into five sub-categories. The most frequent topic was *student participation, engagement and performance* (T40, 134 occurrences). This indicates that one of the major concerns of the focal trainees and their partners was how actively their students participated in their microlessons and how well the students performed both individually and as a group. Importantly, a closer examination of the coded segments showed that out of the 134 instances where this topic was discussed, 55 instances (41%) was initiated by the microteachers whereas 79 (59%) were initiated by the instructor. This suggests that the instructor played a major role in drawing trainees' attention to student activities.

Group dynamics and atmosphere (T42) was another frequent topic (23 occurrences). Because Microteaching Tasks 1-4 basically required trainees to work in pairs with one member teaching a half of the class and the other the rest, many trainees often compared the dynamics of their group with that of their partner's group. This seems to indicate that the trainees' awareness that the class group can have an important effect, whether positive or negative, on the quality of learning (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003).

Participants also discussed processes unique to the *artificial aspects of microteaching* (T44). For instance, in her POF on Microteaching 5, Noelle talked about her perceived awkwardness of taking over the teaching role in the 45-minute lesson, which she planned with a classmate. They decided that her partner would teach the first part of the lesson while Noelle would teach the second half. Although all the participants in the methods course knew that Microteaching 5 entailed two or three microteachers giving an entire lesson designed for a high school class, Noelle found it awkward simply to start teaching the second half without saying anything. This led Hiroki-sensei to refer to Saburo's group, who briefly stated at the beginning that their lesson was going to be taught by the three microteachers, thus explicitly framing their microteaching as team-teaching. Another example concerned how to address older peers. As discussed in Chapter 4, older members were addressed by their peers using the suffix *san*, which indexes formality and respect, and many of them carried over this practice into their microlessons. However, Masato, as an older member, said in his POF that all peers acting as students should be addressed equally in microlessons.

The 265 topics listed in Appendix I relate to Teacher Knowledge, Skills, and Beliefs. Among the eleven topics in this category, *L2 grammatical and lexical problems* (T45) was by far the most discussed (83 occurrences). Also salient were *classroom English expressions* (T48) and *L2 pronunciation problem* (T50). These are analogous to what Swain (1998) referred to as *language-related episodes*—"any part of the dialogue in which students talk about the language they are producing, questions their language use, other- or self-correct" (p. 70). Perhaps this is a unique finding of the present study that involved undergraduate PTE trainees in Japan who were not proficient or confident enough to have POF talk in English (cf., Engin, 2014, 2015a).

The participants also talked about the tools and resources that they employed in their microlessons (Topics 56-74 in Appendix I). Examinations of the coded segments suggest that trainees were encouraged simultaneously to increase the amount and quality of English used by both their students and themselves, and to use Japanese productively so as to support L2 learning. Perhaps T68 (*microteacher's notes and scripts*) also needs a little explanation as it is closely related to the participants' English language proficiency. As shown in Appendix I, *classroom English expressions* (T48) was a frequently discussed topic in Teacher Knowledge, Skills and Beliefs. Because many of the microteachers had trouble coming up with proper L2 expressions (e.g., read silently, switch roles) instantly, Hiroki-sensei often asked them if they had planned or scripted what to say in their microlessons.

Another category was Microteacher Emotions, which falls into four topics: (1) during-microteaching emotion, and (2) post-microteaching emotion, (3) emotion about POF, and (4) anxiety about future teaching. These typically took the form of a brief exchange consisting of the microteacher's commentary and verbal and/or nonverbal acknowledgements from other participants, but on rare occasions, they resulted in an extended discussion of emotionally charged moments (see Section 6.2.2).

Most of the topics related to the microteaching assignment concerned negative emotions, such as nervousness and anxiety (during-microteaching) and frustration, confusion, and disappointment (post-microteaching) while some concerned positive emotions such as relief, pleasure, and confidence. This seems to suggest that microteaching can be a highly stressful event. A few trainees expressed their feelings about reviewing their own lessons in their POF talk (T78). This occurred in earlier conferences (POFs 1, 2, & 3) and immediately before or after the microteachers' lessons were played.

Two topics (T79 and T80) related to the category of Professional Development. These topics revolved around what attitude and effort are needed for trainees to develop professionally. While it is clear how self-study (T79) is related to professional development, T80 may require some explanation. It relates to two types of tests that PTE trainees are expected to take. The first is the teacher employment test administered by each prefectural board of education, which they need to take in their fourth (final) year of undergraduate studies. The second type is English language proficiency tests such as EIKEN or TOEIC. As mentioned in Chapter 2, Japanese teachers of English are expected by MEXT to take these tests to demonstrate their English language proficiency. Thus, it is considered an important part of professional development. Also, teacher candidates who have demonstrated certain levels on these tests will be exempted from sitting for the English language section of the teacher employment test. As such, some participants in this study digressed to talk about the tests themselves when they expressed concern about their lack of English language proficiency.

Although the primary focus of the POF talk was the most recent microlessons given by the POF participants, on some occasions, the participants talked about other events that they considered relevant to their microteaching (T81-T83, Appendix I). Interestingly, many participants discussed how the POF events helped them think about their teaching. For example, both Noelle and Haru said in their respective last POFs that having experienced POF conferences, they had a clearer idea of what to focus on their teaching, referring to their experience of reviewing their video-recorded microlessons in the previous year without knowing what to look for. The participants additionally talked about their future practica and prior microteaching experiences.

5.3 References to Texts and Contexts

In the context of discussing the topics listed above, participants made references to various texts and contexts (e.g., events/activities and courses) in their POF interactions. These included not only spoken and written words, but also visuals like diagrams and inner speech shared as reported thought. For example, in Episode 5.0, each participant makes an intertextual reference. First, Takumi refers to Saburo’s comment (Line 10) on his instruction. Hiroki-sensei then refers to his own thoughts (Lines 13 and 15) to offer negative feedback. Finally, Kana refers to her own thoughts (Line 18) to communicate a similarly disaffiliative stance suggesting a change. While these are fairly explicit references, some of the references presented below are implicit and thus hard to identify without considering the contexts. In such cases, I relied on the *contextualization cues* (Gumperz, 2001) used by the POF participants (e.g., smiles, tones of voice) and my knowledge of the participants gained through prolonged observation. Thus, where necessary, I explain how selected examples were selected as such. (Below each number is used as an identifier, which follows the capital letter R for reference.)

By far the most frequent type of intertextual referencing was microteachers' referring to their own words and thoughts (R1). They used reported thoughts or speech to discuss what they had intended to do individually or as a group as well as what they were thinking at particular moments in their lessons. This seems to reflect one of the pedagogical goals of the POF discussed by Hiroki-sensei in an interview: to provide trainees with opportunities to articulate the rationale behind their actions and their thinking in action. In fact, he asked such questions as "what were you thinking at this moment?"

Ninety-two references were made to other POF participants' thoughts. For instance, in Episode 5.0, both Hiroki-sensei and Kana pointed out what they saw as a problem in Takumi's microteaching. Common to their utterances are not only the use of the mental verb *think*, but also the use of the adverb *tabun* (maybe), the tag expression *janai*, and the particle *kana*, both of which are considered to be resources to mitigate the face-threatening nature of the negative feedback (Matsugu, 2005). The analysis also reveal that, in making these intertextual links, Hiroki-sensei often showed his observation notes to the microteachers, both positive and negative ones. (In our conversation, he gave two reasons for doing this: (1) provide evidence for his oral feedback and (2) to alleviate his trainees' worries and insecurities about being observed. Hiroki-sensei explained that he had adopted this practice when he conducted ethnographic research (my fieldnotes, 15/July/201Y). As such, it was used regularly as a way of making trust and building rapport.)

Eighty-nine references were made to POF participants' previous utterances in the current POF conference (R3). Hiroki-sensei often went back to what the trainees had said earlier so as to challenge their thinking or to build on their contributions. POF participants revisited others' previous utterances to show their agreements and/or their own utterances to recap what they thought as a result of their POF talk.

Seventy-two instances were identified where POF participants referred to MEXT-approved EFL textbooks. This seems natural given that the trainees were required to choose a unit from a MEXT-approved textbook to teach for their microteaching assignment. While some references were fairly explicit, others (e.g., "that quote") were relatively implicit references that assumed common knowledge of which quote the speaker was referring to. In fact, in the latter case, the participants had talked about the specific quote several times as the microteachers had planned all the activities around it.

Other trainees' utterances were frequently referenced. For instance, *words uttered by peers who acted as students* (R5) were referenced 42 times. Trainees often shared in their POF conferences what peer feedback they had received informally from peers and how this feedback informed their decisions. Also, POF participants including Hiroki-sensei often referred to what other trainees had said in class discussions. Another frequently referenced type of peer utterances concerns what other trainees said in previous POF conferences (R6, 32 occurrences). Together with R5, this topic serves as evidence for the participants' orientation to other trainees' words.

Particularly noteworthy was the reference to the following quote[20] from Author Ward (n.d.) (R8), which Hiroki-sensei had encountered during his initial teacher training more than 20 years earlier.

Excerpt 5.1

> The mediocre teacher tells.
>
> The good teacher explains.
>
> The great teacher demonstrates.
>
> The superior teacher inspires.

Hiroki-sensei introduced this quote early in his Methods 1 course and often showed it to his trainees during POF conferences to help those whose default teaching strategy is lecture-style explanation of grammar in Japanese to explore alternative ways. In other words, he used this particular quote as a frame for discussing his trainees' microteaching. He often told his trainees both in class and POFs that, if their goal is to cultivate students' communicative competence, their students would expect them to demonstrate L2 communicative competence. At his Semester 1 interview, Hiroki-sensei mentioned that the same held true for him as a teacher educator.

Another salient type of intertextual referencing addressed the *Course of Study* and other MEXT-related documents (R9). The POF participants used terms and phrases from the *Course of Study*, including “active learning,” “willingness to communicate actively in English” and “integration of four skills,” all of which were introduced in lectures during the first semester.

---

[20] This quote has been published in a number of books, however, its title, date, and source are unknown.

Hiroki-sensei’s words and actions were also referenced (R10). In eight out of the eighteen conferences in which the focal trainees participated, Hiroki-sensei showed his observation notes to the POF participants. These intertextual references were affiliative moves in that they were made to challenge the microteachers’ negative evaluation of their own performance and to support their peers’ positive comments. Written in advance, the notes seemed to have served as evidence to make the instructor’s oral feedback more trustworthy, which was indicated by trainees’ smiles and laughs. Also, Mizuki referred what Hiroki-sensei did in his teaching of ELT methods. An examination of its textual context revealed that this reference served as a common ground for discussing what was considered to be a good practice.

In addition to the actual words and actions of specific actors, the participants made references to their use of (1) material and tools and (2) concepts and knowledge (Appendix I). The top two most frequently referenced materials were teacher resources such as grammar books and classroom English books (R15) and example lesson plans written by practising teachers (R16). For instance, Hiroki-sensei provided the trainees with URLs for the teacher resources sites of several prefectural boards of education where examples of lesson plans prepared by practising teachers are shared.

Fourteen references were made to the practice of filling out a feedback form (R17), which seemed unique to the microteaching situation. Some trainees wrote their comments on this sheet during their peers’ microteaching, which was brought up in several conferences as a problem. This was because it was taken as a sign of student lack of engagement in the lesson as it apparently prevented them from participating fully in tasks and activities. It was also because seeing peers filling out the feedback sheet made the microteachers feel being evaluated, thus making them nervous.

Also unique to this context is the use of a script (R19). As mentioned in 5.1.3, Hiroki-sensei encouraged his trainees to plan what to say and how to say it in English and even to use scripts or notes if necessary. For instance, Noelle referred to her use of script when discussing her lesson preparation.

SLA/TESOL concepts and principles (R20) were another major type of intertextual referencing identified. These included straightforward use of metalanguage (e.g., comprehensible input), metaphoric and metonymic expressions such as "that pie chart" and "pie-chart-like thing" to evoke the three dimensions of form, meaning, and use (Larsen-Freeman, & Celce-Murcia, 2016) commonly known as *Grammar Dimensions*. These were the implicit type of intertextual referencing discussed earlier, which were commonly used in this study. Importantly, basic metalanguage terms (e.g., verbs, auxiliary verbs, passive voice) were not counted; because these terms were familiar to them as high school students, they would not serve as evidence for trainee learning in the PTE programme.

Culturally shared knowledge (R21) was an important reference in meaning making. For example, as shown by Example A, in Appendix I, participants referred to familiar English language proficiency tests (i.e., EIKEN Test) to decide if certain words (e.g., silently) could be used when presenting a new topic to a particular group of students (e.g., eighth graders). They also talked about the use of widely known characters to provide examples to illustrate what texts mean or to contextualize their target structures (e.g., Character X is older than Character Y). Hiroki-sensei commented in his Semester 1 interview that he considered it essential for his trainees to learn how to use culturally shared knowledge to contextualize topics and target structures as this would allow them to consider and use what their students bring to the classroom and push them to think not just about the *form* and *meaning* of target structures but also about their use (Larsen-Freeman & Celce-Murcia, 2016).

R22, *a generalized image of primary/secondary education,* may require a little elaboration. Because the microteaching assignment examined in this study was a peer-teaching task, POF participants often referred to students in real schools. This can be considered as an important strategy for them to think beyond the immediate situation to consider the resources and constraints of their future teaching contexts. For example, Hiroki-sensei often encouraged his trainees to consider the feasibility of their planned activities based on their understanding of what their target students are likely to know about the English language and what they are likely to be able to do with it.

Just like R20 (*SLA/TESOL concepts*), *concepts in general education* (R23) were frequently drawn on in POF conferences. However, they are different in that, while the latter types of concepts were mentioned across PTE courses, the former type of concepts were used only in classes related to ELT such as SLA. Two salient concepts were *kikan-junshi* (between-the-desk patrolling) and *kikan-shido* (between-the-desk instruction). Although both concepts involve monitoring students working individually or in groups, they differ connotatively in that the former refers simply to the act of looking around while the latter implies intervention (Green, 2014). While some trainees used them interchangeably, Hiroki-sensei seemed to distinguish between them as suggested by the example given in Appendix I.

There were also references to *particular students' characteristics and personal interests* (R24). For instance, referring to Phil's tendency to fall asleep during lectures, Noelle stressed how engaging her microteaching partner Ryuji's lesson was when Ryuji expressed dissatisfaction with his microlesson. Also Hiroki-sensei's utterance ("just like multi-instrumental players") invoked Ryuji's background in playing in marching bands, thus catering to the trainee's personal interests. This was another example of implicit referencing that built on shared knowledge among the interactants. These references also mesh with the idea of considering and using what trainees bring to the learning situation.

The POF participants referred to other events and activities (Appendix I). While most of the reference types concerned the participants' past events and contexts, three types of future events were referenced as well. One of them was *future practicum and teaching as a practitioner* (R28), the most commonly referenced event. Like those references to generalized images of secondary school instruction and students (R22), this reference indicates the participants' awareness and concern about the possible differences between the microteaching situation and real secondary-school classrooms. Many trainees juxtaposed the microteaching situation and their future teaching contexts to consider how their lessons should be modified to meet the needs of their target students, thereby mentally preparing themselves for the challenge of working with real students in real classrooms. Similarly, although much less frequently, the participants referred to teacher employment tests (R34) that many of them were to take in the following year.

5.4 Summary and Discussion

This chapter has focused on the content of the focal trainees' POF discussions with the goal of providing an overall picture of this feedback event conducted as part of Methods 1. The bulk of the POF talk took place in the during-viewing phase where the POF participants reviewed and discussed specific aspects of their microlessons.

The content analysis in the second section has suggested that the participants discussed a variety of topics related to ELT. These included teacher acts, lesson features and qualities, teacher knowledge, skills, and beliefs, tools and resources, microteacher emotions, and professional development. Many of these seemed to be important professional acts that the trainees were expected to perform in order to become a competent EFL teacher. One important finding had to do with the prevalence of language-related episodes where the POF participants talked about L2 problems associated with the microteachers lacking accuracy in producing target words and structures or not knowing basic classroom management phrases. This suggests that POF conferences provided an important space for the L2 English-speaking trainees to work out their L2 problems. Viewed in this light, the POF conferences seemed to have served as a locus of L2 learning. Certainly, it was teachers and teaching that constituted the majority of the topics, which corroborates the previous research suggesting that novice teachers were more concerned about their teaching performance than about student learning (Richards & Farrell, 2011). However, given the artificial nature of the microteaching simulation used in the focal courses (i.e., peers acting as secondary school students), this should be interpreted carefully.

Having said this, I find it surprising that student participation, engagement and performance (T40) was a relatively salient focus of the POF talk. Moreover, among the

39 teacher acts, *checking and ensuring students' understanding* was the third most discussed topic. Because the POF conference is a social arena where trainers as experts can draw the trainees' attention to student activities by initiating relevant topics and highlighting what is considered worthy of attention, the content analysis by itself does not reveal whether individual trainees have fully developed the habit of focusing on student activities. In fact, a closer examination suggested that the instructor played a major role in drawing trainees' attention to student activities. As van Lier (1988) argued, a higher level of self-regulation in teacher noticing is demonstrated when topics are initiated by the microteacher than when they are initiated by their trainer. However, as Küpers (2014) put it, "we are socialized into what is worth looking at and how we see it" (p. 21). As members of a classroom community that frequently draws their attention not only to their teaching performance but also to student activities, the trainees are in a better position to develop the professional vision that encourages them to look for and create opportunities for student learning.

The intertextual analysis has demonstrated that the participants referred to various texts and contexts in the POF conferences. These included references to their own thoughts, previously encountered words, formal documents, publicly known theory, past learning experiences, concurrent coursework, and future teaching practice including practica. This seems to corroborate Marsh's (2002) claim that "teacher thinking is a mélange of past, present, and future meaning that are continually being negotiated and renegotiated through social interaction" (p. 6). In short, the discourse of each POF event was highly intertextual.

The most frequent type of referencing was the microteachers' quoting their speech and thoughts. Given the instructor's intent of providing PTE trainees with opportunities to articulate the rationale behind their actions and their thinking in action, this can be seen as evidence of socialization as well. Yet another salient type of intertextual referencing was co-participants' referring to their own thoughts. Although the focus of this chapter is on the content of the POF talk, here, the form of this particular type of intertextual referencing deserves some explanation as it seems to play an important function in conveying an epistemic stance (Vásquez & Urúza, 2009). Wortham and Reyes (2021) suggest that the use of reported thought frames someone's thought as occurring at some other time and therefore locates the individual who is reporting the thought in the narrating event and the individual whose thought is being reported in the narrated event, "even if it is the same biographical person" (p. 51). It then seems that, by embedding their negative feedback in reported thought, speakers can distance themselves from the face threatening act of critiquing. This was a common strategy used by the instructor and many of the trainees.

Another frequent type of reference was made to SLA/TESOL concepts and principles. Given that one major function of teacher education is to help trainees to develop disciplinary knowledge-informed ways of looking at and talking about the teaching-learning process in their own classrooms (e.g., Edwards, 1995; Freeman, 1996, Hedgcock, 2009), it becomes important that pre-service trainees learn to use the technical language and academic concepts of TESOL and SLA in their POF talk. Their frequent references to formal theory and use of academic terms in their meaning-making efforts serve as evidence for professional discourse socialization, indexing their growing understanding and membership in the community of TESOL. While some of the references were fairly explicit, many others are implicit references, which outsiders to this Methods 1 class would find it hard to identify. These references included jargon and seemed to function as shortcuts to communication (Wenger, 1998).

In short, the participants talked about a wide range of topics, referring to various texts and contexts. Although no explicit references were made to the instructor feedback form, all the criteria listed in this form were discussed with varying degrees of frequency. While this chapter focused on the "what" of the POF event, the next three chapters detail their meaning-making processes within and across POF events.

Chapter 6: The Instructor's Role in Joint Meaning Making and Knowledge Construction through POF Interactions

6.0 Introduction

This chapter addresses the second research question: What is the role of the trainer in supporting PTE trainees' meaning making and knowledge construction through POF talk? Thus, while recognizing the co-constructed nature of human agency (Duff, 2015; van Lier, 2008; Vitanova et al., 2011), I foreground the role of the instructor (Hiroki-sensei) in knowledge construction and meaning making through POF interactions. Here, I focus on episodes involving what Mann and Walsh (2017) referred to as *lightbulb moments,* where "new realization and greater insights come about and get their first airing before becoming internalized" (p. 41). To identify such moments, I paid particular attention to what is referred to in CA as *state-of-change tokens* (Heritage, 1984). These are a kind of response tokens or short utterances to suggest that some kind of change has taken place in the utterer's mind. However, not all support involves such moments; instead, some may concern giving trainees a space to talk about their experiences and feelings as well as helping them see their own strengths.

My intention in this chapter is to detail through microethnographic analysis of POF interactions how the instructor guides his trainees towards greater knowledge of the school subject to be taught (i.e., the English language) and deeper understandings of the pedagogical principles and practices of TESOL (Johnson & Golombek, 2016) as well as positive identity construction. The moment-by-moment analysis of the POF discourse is complemented by Mortimer and Scott's (2003; Scott et al., 2006) taxonomy of classroom discourse outlined in Chapter 2. The microanalysis is also complemented by Johnson and Golombek's (2016) sociocultural analysis, which facilitated the placing of a focus on trainees’ emotional/cognitive dissonance. This term refers to a sense of incongruence between the perceived and ideal performance or between the perceptions of others and one’s own. Following Johnson and Golombek, I regard moments of emotional/cognitive dissonance to be what McNeil (1992) called *growth points* or, simply put, opportunities for trainer mediation and scaffolding. Where relevant, I draw on the participants’ interview data to consider their intentions and perceptions. In what follows, I first examine Hiroki-sensei’s support in knowledge construction and then other types of instructor support including communicating a dialogic and empathetic stance and capitalizing on trainees’ strengths.

6.1 Supporting Knowledge Construction

Hiroki-sensei took a variety of overt actions that led to lightbulb moments in the context of POF conferencing. These actions corresponded to (1) helping trainees notice and attend to language issues, (2) explicitly modelling pedagogical actions, (3) demonstrating professional vison and (4) helping trainees make pedagogical links.

6.1.1 Promoting Trainees’ Noticing of and Attention to Language Issues

Gebhard and Oprandy (1999) suggest that, since talk with a supervisor can promote teacher learning in a similar fashion as teaching promotes student learning, “much of what we have learned about teaching and learning should also transfer to what supervisors do with teachers” (p. 25). As reported in Chapter 5, the participants often talked about their language issues in their POF conferences because the student participants were not only learning how to teach English but also learning the language at the same time. As such, SLA theory and research are relevant to my analysis of POF talk. The discourse analysis showed that Hiroki-sensei encouraged trainees' noticing and awareness to language issues through interaction. As Hall (2018) put it, L2 learners need "maximum opportunities not only to use the L2 but, as importantly, to focus their attention on constructions that would otherwise go unnoticed or unlearned" (p. 136). In his Semester 1 interview, Hiroki-sensei explained his focus on language issues in POF conferences as follows:

Excerpt 6.1

Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
実習校に行って本当の生徒を教え始めたら - 自分が提示するものに責任が出てくるわけじゃない? 文法にしろ発音にしろ．中学生だったら黒板に書いてることそのまま写しちゃうかもしれないし， - もし実習生が同じ間違いを何度も何度もしちゃったら，生徒の信頼を失いかねないだろうしね．中には教師の間違いに厳しい生徒もいるだろうし。だから - 学生たちが自分の誤りに気づけるような手伝いができたらなって思ってて だだ最終的には - まっ人に聞けるにしても: 自分でやっていかないといけないんで - 授業の前に新出構文とか表現がちゃんとあってるかいつでも意識してチェックするのが大事だよって分かってもらえたらなって．	once they start teaching real students as student teachers at their schools - they will be held responsible for whatever they present to their students as targets won't they? - whether grammar or vocabulary. Junior high school students may simply copy what's written on the blackboard and if student teachers keep making the same mistake again and again, they could lose their students' trust you know. some students can be very critical of their teachers' mistakes. so - I want to help them become aware of their own errors, but eventually well even though they could ask others but they need to do this on their own so it'd be great if I could help them see how important it is always to make a conscious effort to check the accuracy of the target constructions and expressions before class.

(Interview 1, Aug/201Y)

This seems to reflect Hiroki-sensei's belief in the necessity of having adequate understanding of the content and material and ensuring the accuracy of target structures.

In fact, Hiroki-sensei would often draw his trainees' attention to their grammatical errors and misuse of metalanguage.

6.1.1.1 Helping Trainees Notice Misuse of Metalanguage. In Episode 6.1, Hiroki-sensei uses an IRE sequence to bring Masato's misuse of metalanguage to his attention.

Episode 6.1 Use of Metalanguage

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	ごめんね – これ過去形?	Sorry – is this past tense?
2		(0.9)	(0.9)
3	Masa	過去分詞です［ね.	It's past particle [isn't it.
4	Inst	[そうだよね正式には過去分詞だ[よね <seeshiki ni wa kakobunshi da yone>	[right isn't is. Precisely speaking it's past participle isn't it.
5	Masa	[うん.	[yeah.

Interestingly, Hiroki-sensei prefaces his question with "sorry," which is taken to mean that he is sorry to interrupt the trainees' video viewing or for his upcoming of negative feedback. He then initiates a topic by asking a display question (Line 1). Masato responds in Line 2, and finally Hiroki-sensei evaluates Masato's contribution and confirms it in a *yone*-marked utterance. According to Hayano (2011), the use of the interactional particle *yone* treats the given information equally accessible to both the speaker and his/her interlocutor and invites a second assessment. In fact, Masato aligns with Hiroki-sensei in Line 4. As such, this is one of the least interactive examples of all the episodes identified in this chapter.

6.1.1.2 Helping Trainees see a Grammatical Error. Episode 6.2, which comes from Haru's third POF conference, centres around a grammatical problem in her L2 production. It is divided into two segments, corresponding roughly to the instructor (1) highlighting and explaining an L2 problem and (2) responding to Haru's resisting stance.

Episode 6.2 Highlighting and Explaining an L2 Problem

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	これ間違えてない英語¿	isn't there something wrong with this English?
2		(1.6)	(1.6)
3	Haru	what does [Kumi	*what does* [*Kumi*
4	Inst	[Kumi	[*Kumi*
5	Haru	have her breakfast.	*have her breakfast.*
6		(2.0)	(2.0)
7	Inst	her?	*her*?
8		(1.0)	(1.0)
9	Inst	えっ<ett>待ってどういう意味で言ってるんだっけ? これ	what - wait what was it that you want to say? here
10	Haru	Kumi は:朝食に何を食べま[したか	what does Kumi eat for breakfast
11	Inst	[そうだよね - でも最初の時こんな風に言ってなかったよ. [<soo da yone - demo saisho no toki konna huu ni itte naka ta yo>	[that's so isn't it - but at first you did say this.
12	Haru	うそ!	you must be kidding!
13	Inst	what does Kumi: - eat,	what does Kumi: - eat,
14		(3.5)	(3.5)
15	Inst	for じゃない? for breakfast <for ja nai? >	isn't it for? *for breakfast*
16	Masato	((nods twice))	((nods twice))
17	Haru	((looks up briefly in the air))	((looks up briefly in the air))
18	Inst	朝ごはんに[何を食べましたか	what did you eat for breakfast

19	Haru	[((looks up in the airs)) °あ::°	[((looks up in the air)) °oh::°
20	Inst	what does she eat for breakfast じゃない? <ja nai?>	it's *what does she eat for breakfast* isn't it?
21	Haru	そうですね ((nods twice)) <soo desu ne>	right ((nods twice))

Hiroki-sensei's initiation in Line 1 draws Haru's attention to a mistake in the sentence that she has presented in the focal lesson. Here one would expect a yes or no response from the addressee, but instead Haru starts to repeat the focal sentence after 1.6 seconds, and Hiroki-sensei overlaps with her in Line 4 as she says the subject of the sentence. Haru completes the sentence in Line 5. Although not shown in the transcript, Hiroki-sensei's nonverbal behaviors (e.g., eye gaze and facial expressions) indicate that he seems to be waiting for Haru to go on—hence the silence of two seconds in Line 6. Hiroki-sensei then says "her?" with a rising intonation, which is meant as negative feedback to let her know where the mistake is. This too is met with a pause of one second. Hiroki-sensei then asks what it was that Haru wanted to express, inviting her to explain it in Japanese (Line 9). His use of *ett* at the beginning of the same utterance expresses his surprise at an unexpected utterance (Maynard, 2005). However, since neither Haru nor Masato is making any verbal statements here, it is likely that Hiroki-sensei's use of this expression refers to their unexpected silence.

In Line 10, Haru tells Hiroki-sensei what she has intended to express. While accepting it, Hiroki-sensei claims that that is not what she said in her first microlesson. Haru's response in Line 12 treats this claim as unbelievable. As an observer, I found this surprising as the utterance, which literally means "lie," challenges the credibility of the instructor's claim as well as lacks the degree of formality required in talking to one's teacher in Japan. I wrote in my fieldnotes,

Excerpt 6.2

> I was surprised that Hiroki-sensei didn't seem to mind at all Haru's questioning his explanation or using a casual register, so I asked him about this after the conference. He answered that he would welcome such actions as long as they help to create a comfortable atmosphere to explore "teaching practice to promote student learning. (18/July/201Y)

What this suggests is that seeing the primary objective of the POF conferencing as helping his trainees think of ways to make their teaching conducive to student learning, Hiroki-sensei placed a greater focus on the content of their POF talk and the relationship with the trainees rather than his authority or the formality of the talk.

Importantly, Haru's expression of her disbelief can be seen as a sign of her emotional/cognitive dissonance, serving as a growth point at which trainer mediation can be directed. Recognizing the contradiction between Haru's intended meaning and actual utterance, Hiroki-sensei moved on to address this important moment. In Line 13, he starts to produce the focal sentence but stops without completing it. Again, his use of elongation, short pause, and continuing intonation indicates that this was intended as what Koshik (2002) referred to as a *designedly incomplete utterance* to invite Haru's completion of it; however, neither Haru nor Masato speaks. After a relatively long pause of 3.5 seconds, Hiroki-sensei uses the expression *ja nai*, a copula and negation with a rising intonation. This expression does not allow for much freedom of choice in responding; however, as it "asks for the addresses' confirmation to the speaker's conjecture" (Hayashi, 2010, p. 2689), it creates some interactional space, which allows the speaker to avoid imposing his/her opinion (Kidd, 2016). Hiroki-sensei is explicitly indicating that the next word is the preposition for and inviting a confirmation from the trainees. While Masato aligns with this by nodding twice, Haru's nonverbal behavior of looking up seems to suggest her uncertainty or disagreement.

Hiroki-sensei then orally translates the sentence under discussion, stressing the Japanese particle *ni*, which is equivalent to the preposition for in meaning. While still looking up in the air, Haru shows signs of understanding ("a::" as translated as "oh::") albeit said softly. In Line 20, Hiroki-sensei attaches the expression *ja nai* to the end of the whole sentence, thus inviting a confirmation from the trainees. This time, Haru confirms Hiroki-sensei's idea in Line 21, using the particle *ne* as "a marker of common ground between the speaker and the addressee" (Cook, 1990, p. 42).

This POF interaction can be characterized as authoritative in that it aims at the establishment and consolidation of one idea; this, however, is understandable given the nature of the topic here (i.e., grammatical accuracy of an L2 sentence presented by the microteacher). It is also predominantly trainer-led in that trainee initiative is scarce. Important insights can be gained from the following excerpt from Hiroki-sensei's journal entry written on this day:

Excerpt 6.3

> With Haru, I think I did even more talking because she gave only short answers to my questions and rarely asked questions. It's probably more accurate to say I felt like being pushed to talk in order to keep the conversation going. How can I help people like her to articulate their thinking and explore ways to improve their lessons? (Journal, 18/July/201Y)

In other words, because Haru and Masato made minimal responses, it seems as though Hiroki-sensei felt forced to talk despite his willingness to let the trainees talk about their microteaching experiences. To borrow Vieira et al.'s (2008) words, Hiroki-sensei needed "to adopt a directive informative style rather than a collaborative one," even though that was not the choice that he would ideally make (p. 230).

If we look only at Episode 6.2, Haru seems to have accepted Hiroki-sensei's idea; however, the rest of the exchange suggests otherwise. There was a relatively long silence (3.4 seconds) after Haru said yes in Line 23.

Episode 6.3 Responding to a Student's Less-than-embracing Stance

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
24		(3.4)	(3.4)
25	Inst	だと思うよちょっと確認して (xxx) たぶん前はそういう風に言ってたよ.	that's what I think can you check (xxx) maybe last time you said so.
26	Haru	ん:::	mmm
27	Inst	what did she eat for breakfast って	I mean "*what did she eat for breakfast*"
28	Haru	うん	yeah
29	Inst	だけどなんでここで	but here why you
30	Haru	huhuhu	huhuhu
31	Inst	えっ書いてあった? 教科書に	what? was that written? in the textbook
32	Haru	書いてあった気がします.	it was written I think.
33	Inst	えっ$絶:対おかしい$	what - $absolutely strange$
34	Haru	((looking at the textbook)) えっ? あれ? hehehe <ett? arett? hehehe>	((looking at the textbook)) what? oh? hehehe
35	Masato	書いてあったっけ. ((looks for his textbook))	was that written in the textbook. ((looks for his textbook))
36		(3.6)=((Masato looks at the textbook)	(3.6)=((Masato looks at the textbook)
37	Inst	°これどこ?°	°where is it?°
38	Haru	あ:違う. 作ったんだ [(x) <A: CHIGAU. Tsuku tta n da [(x)>	OH NO. I made it up! [(x)

39	Inst	でしょ? $でしょ$	see? $see?$
40	Haru	[AHAHAHAHA - hahahaha	[AHAHAHAHA - hahahaha

In Line 25, Hiroki-sensei suggests that Haru should check the original sentence. As noted in my fieldnotes, he said after the POF session, "*since she did not seem willing to accept my suggestion, I thought that it would be best if she check the original and see it herself*" (my translation).

Hearing Haru's laughter in Line 30, he asks her if her version of the sentence was written in the MEXT-approved[21] textbook. Although hedging, Haru states that she thinks that it was written in the textbook, thus disagreeing with Hiroki-sensei. In Line 33, Hiroki-sensei jokingly but forcefully denies Haru's claim that it was printed in the textbook. Although Haru expresses surprise (*ett*?) and confusion (*arett*?), she continues to look for the focal sentence in the textbook. In Line 35, Masato, who has shown agreement with Hiroki-sensei but has been silent, speaks up to ask Haru if it was printed. Finally, in Line 38, Haru finds the original sentence in the textbook and accepts her error. Here, she uses *A:* to indicate her realization that she created the sentence without checking the textbook. According to Hayano (2011), this is similar to the English *state of change token* oh (Heritage, 1984), which suggests that "its producer has undergone some kind of change in his or her locally current state of knowledge, information, orientation or awareness" (p. 299). This episode illustrates how Haru resisted what Hiroki-sensei pointed out as a grammatical problem and how he responded to her resisting stance.

---

[21] All public schools must use textbook authorized by MEXT "in accordance with National Curriculum Standards and Textbook Authorization Standards" (MEXT, 2019a, p. 10).

In short, Hiroki-sensei performed a variety of actions in Episode 6.3, ranging from pointing out a grammatical error and explaining what it was to encouraging Haru to compare her version with the original sentence in the MEXT-approved textbook as a source of authority. Importantly, he changed his strategies depending on Haru's reactions.

6.1.1.3 Helping Trainees Find an Alternative L2 Expression. In Episode 6.4, Hiroki-sensei scaffolds a different pair of trainees in their effort to come up with an alternative L2 expression. I have divided this episode into two parts: (a) attending to a student's concern and (b) co-constructing a solution.

Episode 6.4a

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Sabu	((looking at the screen)) hh, ((smiles)) hh	((looking at the screen)) hh, ((smiles)) hh
2	Inst	今のどういうこと¿	what does that mean?
3	Sabu	$えっと$なんか	$well$ you know
4	Inst	うん	mhm
5	Sabu	歌はその歌って言うかシンガーソングライターって言うんですかはなんか自分自身の何かに対しての見方とか,	songs I mean singer songwriters well write their songs to represent their views about something and,
6	Ohka	ん:: ((nodding))	mh:m ((nodding))
7	Sabu	意見について歌を書いていることが多いって感じで	opinions often or something like that
8	Inst	あ:そうか.	oh I see.
9	Ohka	うん	yeah
10	Inst	だから "view"って言ったんだ	that's why you used the word *"view"*
11	Sabu	はい	yes
12	Ohka	はい ((nodding))	yeah ((nodding))

In Line 1, Saburo employs several nonverbal cues, including eye gaze, inhalation, smiling, and exhalation, implicitly communicating that he is not satisfied with his own performance that he is reviewing. In other words, he is expressing his emotional/cognitive dissonance. Picking up this message, Hiroki-sensei asks Saburo what he means by his nonverbal actions, demonstrating his recipient orientation. Saburo then shares what he (and Ohka) intended to express in English (Lines 5 and 7). After indicating his understanding in Line 8, Hiroki-sensei makes a confirmation check, explicitly linking his utterance to what Saburo said in the narrated microteaching event. This intertextual link is recognized by both Saburo and Ohka. In short, Episode 6.4a illustrates how the co-participants achieved shared understanding of what Saburo perceived to be a problem (his own explanation), establishing a common ground for the upcoming discussion.

In Episode 6.4b, which took place three lines later than Episode 6.4a, Hiroki-sensei guides the trainees' effort to think of an alternative expression.

Episode 6.4b

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
15	Inst	どれくらい分かったかね:	I wonder how many students got it
16	Ohka	そう[ですね	we:ll
17	Sabu	[確かに. なんだろ	[right. I wonder how
18	Inst	なんて言ったらいいんだろね	how can we say it I wonder
19	Ohka	°なんて言うんだろ°	°how can we say it°
20	Inst	なんか view とかたぶん難しいかもね. ちょっと抽象的だよね	something like *view* may be difficult you know. a little abstract isn't it
21	Ohka	う:ん ((nodding))	mhm ((nodding))
22	Sabu	なんか考え-日本語で考えてたのは,=	well what I was thinking in Japanese was, =

23	Inst	=うん	=mhm
24	Sabu	その人の生き方とか:,	particular people’s ways of living a:nd,
25	Inst	うん	mhm
26	Sabu	なんかそれに基づいて,歌は作られてることが多い	based on those, songs are often written.
27	Ohka	う:ん	mhm
28	Sabu	って感じで	that’s what we
29	Inst	と言うことは:もっと簡単に考えたら,	which me:ans, if you put it more simply,
30		(2.0)	(2.0)
31	Inst	歌にはなんかあるんじゃない - 歌には:,	A song has something - a song ha:s,
32	Sabu	メッセージ!	a message!
33	Inst	うん. って言ったらどうかな¿	yeah. how about saying that¿
34	Ohka	う:ん そうですね!	ye:ah right!
35	Sabu	確かに	certainly
36	Ohka	確かに [それいいと思う.	certainly
37	Sabu	[そうですね.	[right.
38	Sabu & Ohka	((start taking notes))	((start taking notes))

In Line 15, Hiroki-sensei suggests that the word choice might not have been appropriate for the students’ level. Hearing both Ohka and Saburo agree with him, he invites them to think of an alternative expression. In Line 20, he states that the word view may be too difficult as it is a little abstract. In Line 22, Saburo nominates himself to articulate in Japanese what he wanted to express. In Line 29, Hiroki-sensei invites the trainees to put it simply, but neither of them responds. After two seconds, he makes another attempt at getting them to respond. His second utterance in Line 31 “a song ha:s,” is a designedly incomplete utterance, as evidenced by the elongation and continuing intonation. These are typically employed to allow trainees to correct their own errors by providing them with a slot to fill in. Here Hiroki-sensei is inviting the trainees to complete the slot with an appropriate L2 expression by evoking the song-message association. Consequently, Saburo comes up with the word message (Line 32), a commonly used English loanword in Japanese. Hiroki-sensei then aligns and suggests that Saburo (and Ohka) uses this particular word instead of view, a less known word. Both trainees enthusiastically endorse its use, indicating that it is a mutually agreed upon word choice. This exchange is authoritative in that it is the instructor's idea that gets adopted in the end; however, the idea developed as a result of Hiroki-sensei listening to Saburo and Ohka's intended meaning. Thus, it was emergent from and contingent on the above POF interaction.

6.1.2 Explicit Modelling Pedagogical Actions

Explicit modelling was another major strategy that the instructor used in POF conferences. This seems to reflect his belief that teachers should be able to practise what they want their students to learn, which originates from the Ward's (n.d.) quotes introduced in Chapter 5:

The following two examples illustrate how the instructor's modelling of a suggested pedagogical action helps deepen trainees' understanding. Episode 6.5 took place after Noelle, Haru, and Hiroki-sensei watched a segment of Noelle's first microlesson where she had the students read the text and asked comprehension questions. The topic of this episode is activity sequences.

Episode 6.5: Noelle's POF 1

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	一つはあの － 逆にしたらどうかって思って ((points at the textbook))	one way would be - well - to do it in a reverse order ((pointing at the textbook))
2	Noelle	((eyes on the textbook))	((eyes on the textbook))
3	Haru	((eyes on the textbook))	((eyes on the textbook))
4	Inst	質問前にして	you first ask questions and
5	Noelle	あ: えっ? - 読んで <ah: e- yonde>	oh: what? - you read
6	Inst	うん	mhm
7	Noelle	質問してってことですか?	and ask questions, you mean?
8	Inst	ううん例えば ((in higher pitch)) o:ka:y no:w you're going to listen to - a conversation - between ((looks at the textbook)) uh Kumi and Amy ((looks at Noel and Haru)) oka:y?! - 絵見せてもいいかもよ - それこそ this is Kumi (0.5) and this is Amy - って絵を. (0.6) and they are talking - about their breakfast! なんだったっけ なんだっけ ((looks at the textbook)) まぁそういう風に	no for example, ((in higher pitch)) *o:ka:y now you're going to listen to - a conversation - between* ((looks at the textbook)) *uh Kumi and Amy* ((looks at Noelle and Haru)) okay?! you could use pictures, right - like this *this is Kumi and this is Amy* - like this showing a picture. (0.6) *and they are talking - about their* breakf*ast*! what was it? ((looks at the textbook)) well something like that.
9	Noelle	そうなんです.	that's right.
10	Inst	だよね? で now umm like 例えば ((looks at the textbook)) … ((in higher pitch)) oka:y let's read the text, (0.5) and (0.5) fi:nd out what uh Annie じゃない Amy has for breakfast!	right? and *now umm like* for example, ((looks at the textbook)) … ((in higher pitch)) *oka:y let's read the text, (0.5) (0.5) and fi:nd out what uh Annie* no *Amy has for breakfast!*
11	Noelle	あ:: ((nods twice))	oh:: ((nods twice))
12	Haru	((nods four times))	((nods four times))
13	Noelle	うんうんうん ((nodding))	*mhm mhm mhm* ((nodding))
14	Inst	って言って分かる?	you say something like this - you see?

15	Noelle	うんうん　((nodding))	yeah yeah ((nodding))
16	Haru	((nods three times))	((nods three times))

Hiroki-sensei suggested presenting the questions before having the students read the text, because this would give the students a reason for reading the text. Noelle's reactions in Lines 5 and 7 indicate her uncertainty. Then, Hiroki-sensei models the suggested instructional sequence (Lines 8 and 10), interspersing the instructional discourse with explanation in Japanese. Importantly, his modelling speech entails higher pitch, longer vowels, relatively longer pauses between phrases, and animated tones, which seem to index the identity of an enthusiastic teacher, as further evidenced by the next example.

Sometimes Hiroki-sensei followed up his modelling with explicit explanation. In Episode 6.6, Hiroki-sensei is explaining his modelling performed in Episode 6.5.

Episode 6.6

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	だから - そんなたくさんしゃべる必要もないし,	you don't need to speak so much @ or
2	Noelle	ん: ((nods))	mhm ((nods))
3	Inst	難しい文法や語彙も使わなくていいんだよ. <muzukashii bunpoo ya goi mo tsukawanaku temo ii n da yo.>	use complex grammar or vocabulary you know.
4	Noelle	ん[:: ((nodding twice))	m::[hm ((nodding twice))
5	Haru	[((nods three times))	[((nods three times))
6	Inst	どっちかと言えばそうしない方がいいかも.	I'd rather say you shouldn't maybe
7		(0.8)=((both Haru and Noelle nod))	(0.8)=((both Haru and Noelle nod))

8	Inst	もちろん生徒が - その: 理解できればそうしない手はないだろうけど: -	of course if your students - I mean have no problem comprehending, why not but
9		((both Haru and Noelle nod))	((both Haru and Noelle nod))
10	Inst	多くの場合 - はっきり話したり簡単な表現を使ったり, それと - まぁ比較的短い文で話せて決して損はないと思う.	in many cases - it would never hurt if you're ready to speak clearly, use simple expressions, and speak in relatively short sentences I suppose.
11	Noelle	はい.	yes.
12	Haru	((nods twice))	((nods twice))
13	Inst	あとは (0.7) 元気なのが大切だと思う. こっちのなんていうのかな一生懸命さ, (0.6)とかあっ熱意が伝わるようにね.	also (0.7) being uplifting is important I think. so that our - how can I say it enthusiasm, (0.6) or oh passion will be conveyed you know.
14	Noelle	はい. $怖くないようにしないとですね!$	yes. $important not to sound intimidating right!$
15	Inst	あ:: 確かに ((laughing))	oh:: certainly ((laughing))
16	Haru	((laughs))	((laughs))

In Line 3, Hiroki-sensei is using the sentence-final particle *yo*, which does not require a confirmation from Noelle or Haru because it indicates his epistemic primacy over the proposition (i.e., teacher talk). This seems to reflect his teaching experience on which he is basing the advice as well as the modelling that he has just performed in Episode 6.5 Hiroki-sensei goes on to discuss the importance of talking that conveys the teacher's passion and enthusiasm about the subject matter. Thus, his use of animated tones was intended to model how to communicate his affective stance, which he personally values. Additionally, Noelle's utterance in Line 14 provides us with further insight into her active participation. As Hiroki-sensei's and Haru's responses suggest, they seem to have found the utterance funny. In fact, although not shown in the transcript, I too remember finding it "funny" (fieldnotes). This shared laughter came from earlier moments in the same POF session where Noelle realized that she sounded “intimidating.” In other words, Noelle’s comment in Line 14 invoked this shared context, which was recognized and acknowledged by her interlocutors.

6.1.3 Demonstrating Professional Vision of Classroom Interaction

According Sherin (2007), one defining process of professional vison is *selective attention* or the ability to recognize important aspects of a classroom event and prioritize their attention. The first example illustrates how Hiroki-sensei demonstrated his selective attention in his effort to help the trainees see the problem that he had noticed. During POF conferences, Hiroki-sensei would often ask the microteacher and his/her partners what their students were doing or saying in their microlesson. As he explained in these POF conferences as well as in his interviews, this was his attempt to shift their attention from teacher performance to student learning. Hiroki-sensei commented as follows:

Excerpt 6.4

Original Utterances	**Approximate Translation**
皆自分の教え方ばっかり気にしてるみたいなんだよね.@ まぁ経験ないと当たり前のことではあるんです@けどね:もちろん授業を計画したり，指導案が書けたり，色んな教え方ができたり. (0.9) 英語だって@生徒の学びを支援できるくらいのレベルは@必要だよね?@だけど絶対忘れちゃいけないのは: - やっぱり生徒の学びだよね. @たとえどんなに指導案通りの授業ができたとしても，どんなに完璧な英語を先生が話せたとしても, @生徒が何も学んでないな	they seem to be mostly concerned how they perform don’t they. @well it’s only natural especially when you don’t have much experience @ though. of course they need to learn how to plan lessons, how to write lesson plans, how to use different methods, (0.9) and they need to be proficient enough in English @to help their students learn you know? @but what we must never forget is - as expected student learning isn’t it. @ however closely you could follow the lesson

ら意味がなくなっちゃう．やっぱり一番大事なのって生徒の学びでしょ?@そこでキーとなるのがインターアクション,@だと思う．教師と生徒がどんな風に言葉を駆使してお互いインターアクションするかっていうかね．だから教科法の学生には@自分が模擬授業でどんな風に生徒役とインターアクションしているのか - ここで見て欲しい@んだよね．	plan, however flawlessly you could speak English, @if students didn't learn anything, it would be meaningless. as expected it's student learning that matters most isn't it? @And I believe interaction is the key. @I mean how teachers and students use language to interact with each other you know. @so I want my methods students @to see how they actually interact with their students - here @you know.

(Interview, 1/Aug/201Y)

In accordance with this stated belief, Hiroki-sensei often tried to draw his trainees' attention to their students' actions and behaviors. In Episode 6.7, he is highlighting what Saburo, who acted as a student in Haru's second microlesson, said.

Episode 6.7

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	これなんて言ってたか知ってる:¿	do you know what he was saying?
2		(0.9)	(0.9)
3	Inst	今 Haru さんうん？って言ったじゃない?=	you said "huh?" didn't you?=
4	Haru	=うん	=yeah
5	Inst	私のところには聞こえたのね <watashi no tokoro ni wa kikoeta no ne>	from where I was I heard you know.
6	Haru	うん	mhm
7	Inst	この- ここで. ((pointing at the screen))	this- here. ((pointing at the screen))
8	Haru	うん	mhm
9		(1.0)	(1.0)

10	Inst	三郎君か誰かな - ここに ((pointing at the screen)) いた子が言ったのね: なんて言ったか知ってる¿ 最初 Haru さんうん？って sunny side up がどうして sunny side up って言われてるか知ってますかって言った時に.	Saburo or someone else - who was here ((pointing to the screen)) said something. Do you know what it was? Haru, you first responded huh? when you asked the class why *sunny-side-up* is called *sunny-side-up.*
11	Haru	(1.7)	(1.7)
12	Inst	Haru さんふん？って言ってその後にこう答えたんですね ((restarts the video))	Haru you said “huh?” and after that he answered like this. ((restarts the video))
13		(4.1)	(4.1)
14	Inst	((pauses the video)) 聞こえなかったね今. 今のって − この時点で(0.8) that’s right って盛り上がってるじゃない¿	((pauses the video)) we couldn’t hear it could we. that was - at this point, (0.8) you seem to be excited saying *“that’s right”* right?
15	Haru	うん	mhm
16	Inst	Haru さんは. でも私はこっちいたから聞こえたんだけど ((pointing at the right side of the classroom)) ここの人たちは聞こえてるかなって果たして	Haru but since I was here I heard it ((pointing at the right side of the classroom)) I wonder if those people in this area heard it.
17	Haru	う::ん ((nodding twice))	mmm ((nodding twice))
18	Inst	この二人の会話が	I mean the exchange between these two
19		(0.8)	(0.8)
20	Masato	あ:: ((nodding three times))	Oh:: ((nodding three times))
21	Inst	分かる¿言ってること	you know what I mean?
22	Haru	う::ん ((nodding several times))	yea::h ((nodding several times))
23	Masato	((nods three times))	((nods three times))
24		(0.9)	(0.9)
25	Inst	で実際なんてって言ったか知ってる? ((looking at Masato))	and you know what actually said? ((looking at Masato))
26		(1.0)	(1.0)
27	Inst	最初	first

28		(3.0)	(3.0)
29	Inst	((looking at Haru)) その - たぶん三郎君だったと思うんだけど: - その - “太陽”って言ったの	((looking at Haru)) well - I think it was perhaps Saburo - well - he said “the sun”
30	Haru	うん	mhm
31	Inst	“太陽”って言ったら，“ふん？”って言われたことによって (0.9) 自信なくな- あっ違う違う sunny って言ったんだ sunny sunny って言ったの	when he said “the sun,” you said “huh?” which affected his confidence- oh no no *sunny* he said *sunny sunny*
32	Haru	う:ん	mh:m
33	Inst	“sunny”って言ったの((points at the screen)) 英語で	he said *“sunny”* ((points at the screen)) in English
34	Haru	うん	mhm
35	Inst	だけどふん？って言われたことによってたぶん (0.7) あらって思って: 次太陽って言ったの	but you went like hmm? which perhaps (0.7) made him think oh and he said the sun next.
36	Haru	うん	mhm
37	Inst	そうしたら OH THAT’S RIGHT! って - 言って今ここに至ったんだけど:	and then you said *OH THAT’S RIGHT!* and we’ve reached this point.

Hiroki-sensei first asks Haru if she remembers what Saburo said in the focal lesson. The silence of 0.9 seconds in Line 2 suggests that she does not. In Line 3, Hiroki-sensei starts to describe chronologically what he observed, noting that he could hear what Saburo said from where he was. Notice his use of the interactive particle *ne* follows the nominalizer *no* in Line 5. According to Saigo (2011), *ne* often is attached to “a nominalized structure when the speaker intends to direct the addressee’s acceptance of the proposition contained in the structure as a ground for the next proposition in the sequence” (p. 153). In Episode 6.7, Hiroki-sensei having heard what Saburo said is treated as a given for the next proposition in the ongoing sequence (i.e., what Saburo actually said). This recounting continued until Line 12 where he made the cataphoric reference ("like this") and started to replay the specific segment where Saburo made the contribution, which unfortunately were inaudible. Hiroki-sensei then started to share what he had observed (Line 14). Importantly, in Line 16, he first reiterated that he heard the exchange between Haru and Saburo, positioning himself as legitimate knower; he then revealed his intention of discussing this particular segment, which was to suggest that, because Haru interacted only with students seated close to her, the others' involvement might have been limited. This suggestion seems to be accepted by both Masato and Haru, as evidenced by their responses accompanied by multiple head nods (Lines 20, 22 and 23).

In Line 25, Hiroki-sensei visually nominates Masato who played the role of a student in Haru's microlesson. Knowing that he was not within Haru's *action zone*, conceptualized as the interactional space where particular students receive the full focus of a teacher's attention verbally and nonverbally (Farrell, 2009), Hiroki-sensei asked him whether he had caught what Saburo had said. The two relatively long pauses (1.0 second and 3.0 seconds) separated by Hiroki-sensei' one-word utterance (i.e., *first*) indicate that he did not hear Saburo's contribution. Hiroki-sensei then begins to recount the exchange between Haru and Saburo in Line 29, revealing that at first Saburo said "sunny," but Haru's clarification request (i.e., "hmm?") made Saburo replace the word "sunny" with the Japanese word "*taiyoo*" meaning the sun. This was later confirmed by my line-by-line analysis of the transcript of the class. Importantly, as Hiroki-sensei suggested, Saburo's repair indicates that he might have perceived Haru's reply as a form-related one.

After observing this lesson, I mused, writing the following entry in my fieldnotes:

Excerpt 6.5

> Hiroki-sensei brought up for discussion the exchange between Haru and Saburo held in the microlesson. I knew Saburo had said something, but I wasn't exactly sure what it was. Although seated on the opposite side of Saburo, Hiroki-sensei was able to give a detailed description of how the exchange unfolded. If I'd been in his position, would I have attended to such details? Could I have recalled them and brought them up at the feedback session? He also showed an alternative way of responding to Saburo's contribution…I was impressed by his ability to see and remember details…
>
> (Fieldnotes, 18/July/201Y)

This entry seems to lend additional support to Hiroki-sensei's use of selective attention.

6.1.4 Helping Trainees' Link-Making

I have identified five types of pedagogical link-making (Scott et al., 2011) that Hiroki-sensei promoted in POF sessions: (1) using class materials to mediate trainees' reflection, (2) drawing on culturally shared practice to think about current problems, (3) encouraging the use and sharing of academic concepts, (4) linking trainees' pedagogical concerns with observed reactions, and (5) linking current concerns with prior discourse. What follows are examples of each type of link-making.

6.1.4.1 Using Class Materials to Mediate Trainees' Reflection. The first type of link-making identified in this research concerns the use of class materials to promote trainees' reflection on their microteaching. During POF sessions, Hiroki-sensei would often show the aforementioned quote by Ward and a pie chart representing the three dimensions of grammar (Larsen-Freeman & Celce-Murcia, 2016), especially in

Semester 1, and encouraged them to use these tools to make sense of what was going in the recorded microlessons.

Prior to following example, the POF group watched Masato's microteaching performance, which involved a transmissive, lecture-style presentation of the passive and its metalanguage in Japanese. Hiroki-sensei initiated a discussion about alternative ways of teaching the target grammar.

Episode 6.8

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	ど::お?　Haru さんはできると思う?	what do you think? Haru you think you could do it?
2	Haru	hahaha はい. なんか:そんなに説明し[ないで:	hahaha yes we:ll instead of explaining [too much
3	Inst	[しなくても: ((nodding))	[without explanation ((nodding))
4		(1.0)	(1.0)
5	Inst	例いっぱい出したら¿ 例を	how about giving many examples? I mean examples.
4	Masato	うん	mhm
5	Haru	うん	mhm
6	Inst	んでやっぱりこれよ　((shows the quote)) なんかどうしてもみんな: - これ覚えてる?	and as expected this ((shows the quote)) well everyo:ne tends to - do you remember this?
7	Masato	((nods))	((nods))
8	Haru	((nods))	((nods))
9	Inst	どこの辺りになってると思う今のだと	about where is your teaching falling now?
10		(0.8)	(0.8)
11	Masato	今は: と:: "tells"ですかね::	no:w well:: it's "tell" isn't it umm
12	Inst	この間ぐらいだよね: 分かる¿	somewhere in between isn't it you know?
13	Masato	あ[::	oh[::

14	Haru	[((nods twice))	[((nods twice))
15	Inst	その:: だから　やっぱり　その コミュニケーション能力をまぁ伸ばしたいっていうのであれば: - まぁ説明の部分は私はいけないっていってるわけじゃなくて: - プラスアルファがやっぱりないといけない.　もっと - 限られた時間で先生がなんかモデルを示して練習させるような時間っていうのが大事かな:って思うんだよね.	we:ll so as expected well if you want to develop students' communicative competence - well I'm not saying that explaining is bad - but rather other ways are needed. class time is limited, so it would be important to use it for the teacher to provide models and for students to practise, which is what I think.
16	Masato	((nods twice))	((nods twice))

In Line 6, Hiroki-sensei shows Ward's words (Excerpt 5.1) put in a plastic folder to Masato and Haru, asking them if they remember it. Having received positive responses from both trainees, Hiroki-sensei asks them which of the four sentences best describes Masato's teaching at the moment. Masato answers that it falls in the telling mode (Line 11), and Hiroki-sensei responds by saying that it falls somewhere between telling and explaining (Line 11). This leads to Masato's lightbulb moment as indicated by his use of the change-of-state token (Line 13) as well as to Haru's alignment (Line 14). The exchange has been interactive yet authoritative because Hiroki-sensei provided one lens or frame (i.e., Ward's quote) for the trainees to interpret and assess their microteaching situations and guided them through question-and-answer interaction sequences with the goal of promoting the application of that lens. Finally, in Line 15, Hiroki-sensei builds on this shared understanding as common ground to discuss what it means for teachers to demonstrate in the context of ELT. This part of the POF talk is non-interactive and authoritative because Hiroki-sensei summarizes a particular point of view without interacting with the co-participants.

6.1.4.2 Drawing on Culturally Shared Practice to Think About Current Problems. The second type of pedagogical link-making involved Hiroki-sensei making an intercontextual reference to culturally shared practice. In Excerpt 6.6, the participants are watching Saburo as he gives the following direction to the class:

Excerpt 6.6: Saburo's Microlesson #4 with Mizuki & Shun

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances
1	Sabu	so (1.3) today (2.2) today you (xxx) new word check - because you- your textbook didn't have information for new words. (1.2) okay. - so let's move to- move understanding of the contents. okay?
2		(1.4)
3	S1	okay.
4	S2	okay.
5	Sabu	yes? so (1.0) first you: read the sentence by yourself. eh- without- without voice. (1.2) And second- secondly -

(23/Jan/201Z)

Thus, Excerpt 6.6 is the narrated event of Episode 6.9.

Episode 6.9

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Sabu	((holding his head with his right arm)) .hh	((holding his head with his right arm)) .hh

2	Inst	どう,**今**の説明ちょっと:	how was it, **that** explanation
3	Sabu	**あ:::**なんか((laughs)) (1.3) 考えてはいたん- [ですよ説明文= <kangaete wa ita n- desu yo setsumee bun->	**AH:** well ((laughs)) (1.3) I had thought about the explanation=
	((lines omitted))		
12	Sabu	自分の中でちょっと制限してみようと思って:考えた結果なんかよく分からない	I thought I'd try limiting my expression and I thought about it but I'm not sure.
13	Inst	without voice が - 簡単かどうかって言ったら:何て言ったらいい?	if you ask me if *without voice* is easy or not, what else could you say?
14	Shun	°without voice は難しいな.°	°*without voice* is difficult.*°*
15	Sabu	°no voice とか?°	°something like *no voice*? °
16	Inst	えっ?	hmm?
17		(1.1)	(1.1)
18	Mizuki	((moves his upper body backward, smiles and cross his arms))	((moves his upper body backward, smiles and cross his arms))
19		(1.8)	(1.8)
20	Sabu	えっ?	*hmm?*
21		(1.1)	(1.1)
22	Sabu	without -	*without* -
23	Inst	えっ?もっと - 単語. 英検は?	hmm? more like – a word. how about EIKEN.?
24	Shun	° si- si- silence°	° *si- si- silence*°
25	Sabu	silently.	*silently.*
26	Inst	silently. そう! silently.	*silently*. right! *silently.*
27	Sabu	確かに. [はい. ((moving his upper body up and down))	right. [yes. ((moving his upper body up and down))
28	Mizuki	[((nods twice))	[((nods twice))

Just like in Episode 6.4, Hiroki-sensei responds to Saburo's nonverbal actions (i.e., holding his head with his arm and an audible in-breath), which apparently indicate that Saburo was experiencing a cognitive/emotional dissonance. This recipient orientation allows Saburo to articulate his thoughts. His use of the particle *yo* in Line 3 indexes his epistemic primacy over the propositional content, which in this case concerns his preparation of the direction (to have students read the text silently) transcribed in Excerpt 6.6. In the next several lines, he says that he could use a wider range of vocabulary for the previous microteaching as it was designed for university students. His utterance in Line 12 is important because it makes visible his intention (i.e., attempt to use a limited range of vocabulary suitable for teaching junior high school students) and perceived problem (i.e., uncertainty about the appropriateness of his direction). To address this growth point, Hiroki-sensei initiates a discussion to think about an alternative expression. However, both Saburo and Mizuki struggle and Hiroki-sensei makes an intercontextual link to the EIKEN Test in practical English proficiency (Line 23). This reference enables Shun to come up with the word "silence." Saburo then builds on this contribution, changing it to "silently." Anyone who has taken or conducted an interview for EIKEN Grades 3, Pre-2, or 2 would know immediately how his reference to EIKEN has allowed the students to come up with the word silently. The EIKEN Test is a widely administered test that caters to different levels of EFL learners in Japan. Each year, many junior and senior high schools encourage their students to take it and help them to prepare for the interview. It is therefore widely known that the first formal component of this interview is silent reading of a passage and that the examiner says, "Please read the passage silently for 20 seconds." It was this culturally shared knowledge about the practice of silent reading in the context of the EIKEN interview to which Hiroki-sensei helped the trainees to connect the current problem. Importantly, he did not mention how EIKEN is relevant here, trusting their ability to draw on their knowledge about the interview and link it to their current effort to find an appropriate expression. In other words, he practised what van Lier (1996) referred to as *prolepsis* or “a form of looking ahead, of assuming something to be the case before it has been encountered” (van Lier, 2004, p. 152). Here Hiroki-sensei, instead of spelling out every detail about the EIKEN interview, used it as a proleptic clue to invite the trainees to step into the “enlarged common pragmatic space” (van Lier, 1996, p. 161) where they used POF talk to *think together as a group* (Mercer, 2019).

6.1.4.3 Encouraging the Use and Sharing of Academic Concepts. At his Semester 1 interview, Hiroki-sensei mentioned that he believed one important goal of the POF conferencing was to help trainees use the major relevant concepts and principles of TESOL and SLA to make sense of their own microteaching experiences. By drawing on two episodes that share a similar focus (i.e., information processing involved in the activity under discussion, this section attempts to illustrate how Hiroki-sensei helped two trainee pairs better understand what was perceived to be problematic in their respective microlessons with or without reference to an academic concept (i.e., Levelt’s (1989) speech production model, which concerns how speakers allocate and use their limited attentional resources).

Episode 6.10 illustrates how Hiroki-sensei referred to Levelt’s model in discussing Takumi’s L2 production. Importantly, this example comes from Takumi’s final POF, which took place in late January (see Figure 6.1). Hiroki-sensei attempted pedagogical link-making to help Takumi develop a new way of understanding his microteaching experiences mainly through the practice of *coding* (Goodwin, 1994). As explained in Chapter 2, *coding* transforms what is observed in a particular situation into categories that draw on the discourse of a profession including academic concepts.

Episode 6.10: Making an Explicit Reference to an Academic Concept

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Taku	出てこないんですよね英語が	English won't come out of my mouth.
2	Inst	言うことは決めてなかったの? - その実際にどういう表現するかっていうのと	you didn't think of what to say - and how to express it?
3	Taku	そうですね．なんだろ - なんかこういうことを言おうっていうのは決めてたんですけど，実際にどういう英語で言おうっていうのは考えてなくて，あでもうん - いやある程度考えてたんですけど - うん - 出てこない．	right. what is it. well I had decided what I would say but I hadn't thought about how to express it in English and oh but yeah - no to some extent I had thought about it but - no - it didn't come out.
	((lines omitted))		
21	Inst	まぁ － 話すだけでもねほら前第二言語習得研究で － やった三つのプロセスが=	well - speaking in itself you know, involves the three processes we talked about in the SLA class=
22	Taku	=はい=	=yes
23	Inst	=あるじゃない？	doesn't it?
24	Taku	はい	yes.
25	Inst	分かってないかもしれない．((smiles))	maybe you don't know what theory I'm talking about ((smiles))
26	Taku	えっとどれですか haha	well which one did you mean? *haha*
27	Ryuji	haha	haha
28	Taku	haha shadowing と summarizing?	*haha* you mean *shadowing* and *summarizing*?
29	Inst	じゃなくてほら - Levelt のモデルやったじゃない? <ja naku te hora>	not that you know - we talked about *Levelt*'s model?

30	Taku	んと conceptualizer	well *conceptualizer*
31	Inst	そうそう. だから	right right. so
32	Taku	formulator あっそうですよね. もう完全に最初の段階ですよね= 自分. <formulator A-tt soo desu yone. moo kanzen ni saisho no dankai desu yone jibun.>	*formulator* OH that's right. it's absolutely the first stage isn't it =I mean my case.
33	Inst	最初のは用意したんだもんね what の部分は. <saisho no wa yooi shita n da mon ne. what no bubun wa.>	you prepared the first part right? as far as the *what* part is concerned.
34	Taku	はい.	yes.

In Line 1, Takumi confesses that he has trouble coming with appropriate L2 expressions while teaching. Hiroki-sensei asks him whether he has planned how to express his intended meaning. In Line 3, Takumi answers that, although he has planned what to say, he has spent limited time planning how to express it in English. In the omitted lines, Takumi first informs Hiroki-sensei that his microteaching partner Ryuji had advised him to talk to the students in English using intonation, rather than simply delivering his planned speech, but he was too busy introducing the text content in English to attend to his speech performance.

In Line 21, Hiroki-sensei uses the Japanese discourse marker *hora* (as translated as "you know") to highlight and evoke the three processes of speaking that they talked about in the SLA course; even though Takumi says yes twice, Hiroki-sensei doubts if he really understands what he is referring to (Line 25). In fact, Takumi admits his lack of understanding, which suggests that the proposed link was not recognized indeed. Then, prefacing again with the discourse marker *hora*, Hiroki-sensei rewords it as “Levelt’s model” in Line 29. This intertextual proposal was acknowledged by Takumi as he starts to name two of its components (i.e., conceptualizer and formulator). In Line 32, no sooner does Takumi say “formulator” than he realizes that he has yet to formulize his message in English when it comes to talking in the classroom. This lightbulb moment, which is marked by the change-of-state token “a-tt” (translated as “oh”), came into being as a result of Takumi’s articulation of Levelt’s theory of speech production. According to this theory, speech production entails three processes, conceptualization, formulation, and articulation. Conceptualization concerns planning what to say, formulation concerns how to express the content in the TL, and articulation relates to executing the phonetic plan to produce overt speech. Bygate (2001) posits that the limited human information-processing capacity may prevent learners from attending fully to all the three processes that are said to occur almost concurrently; however, familiarity with one process would allow learners to allocate more of their attention to the other processes. It was against the backdrop of this theory that the POF participants are discussing Takumi’s concern.

Going back to the episode, Hiroki-sensei makes a confirmation check in Line 33 to clarify Takumi’s focus in giving classroom talk in English. Notice he uses the combination of two particles *mon ne* after the predicate. According to Hayashi (2003), this utterance-ending consists of “the elements of both the speaker’s assertion and a solicitation of acknowledgment from the recipient” (p. 30). Also relevant is Hiroki-sensei’s use of the particle *wa*, which marks contrast (Kuno, 1973). Here, he is contrasting the first process of speech production (i.e., “what part”) with the second process (i.e., how) although this is not stated explicitly. Thus, in Line 33, Hiroki-sensei is inviting Takumi to confirm that he was focused on the “what” of his speech, but not on the “how.” This exchange is interactive yet authoritative in that the instructor concentrated on one particular point of view (i.e., application of Levelt’s model to Takumi’s L2 speech production) and guided the trainees through question-and-answer interaction sequences with the intent of promoting the application of the theoretical lens to the microteacher’s teaching situation.

After the above exchange, Hiroki-sensei asked Takumi to explain Levelt’s model to Ryuji, who was not taking SLA. (Hiroki-sensei often encouraged this type of peer interaction during the POF sessions.) Takumi drew a visual *representation* of this model and *articulated* why it was relevant to their discussion, thereby demonstrating his professional vison. This seems important in two ways. First, the act of explaining the complex theory positions Takumi, who has mostly received feedback from Ryuji, as a relative expert, thus making their interaction more *symmetrical* (van Lier, 1996). Secondly, Takumi’s explanation turns the theory into shared knowledge. Duff’s (2003) LS research suggested that intertextual referencing could prevent some students from participating fully in group discussions while privileging others. In this case, Ryuji might not have been able to participate fully in the discussion and felt alienated if Takumi had not explained the theory. In short, the instructor often encouraged his trainees to use academic concepts primarily in SLA to make sense of their experiences. In his words, the POF is “a great opportunity for me to help my trainees articulate why they did things in the way they did them and to help them realize how SLA theories could allow them to see their experiences differently” (Semester 2 interview).

In contrast, Episode 6.11 is an example where Hiroki-sensei intentionally did not attempt at pedagogical link-making. It comes from Haru’s second POF conducted in mid-July. Having seen a video segment in which Masato had his students read aloud a text before checking their understanding of it, Hiroki-sensei has asked the trainees what the purpose of having students read texts aloud might be.

Episode 6.11: Deciding not to Use an Academic Concept

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	音読してるときって: みんなどこに注意を払うと思う?	when reading a text aloud u:m what do you think people attend to?
2		(1.2)	(1.2)
3	Masa	°音読してる時注意を払う°	°paying attention in reading aloud°
4	Haru	音	sound
5	Inst	そう音　音ってことはどこ?	yeah sound. sound which means what?
6	Haru	発音	pronunciation
7	Inst	発音ですよね?	pronunciation right?
8	Haru	[((nods twice))	[((nods twice))
9	Masa	[((nods twice))	[((nods twice))
10	Inst	発音にフォーカスしてるでしょ?ってことは=でも読むって行為は普通はどこが	focusing on pronunciation right? which means= I mean the act of reading what would be
		((10 lines later))	((10 lines later))
20	Haru	内容?	content?
21	Inst	うん内容ってことは意味でしょ?	yeah content which means meaning right?
22	Masa	うん	yeah.
23	Inst	意味にフォーカスいかなくないですか?その[しゃべ-	but you can't focus on meaning can you? I mean when [you sp-
24	Haru	[う:ん	[yea:h
25	Masa	あ[::	oh[::
26	Inst	[音読してる時って 少なくとも発音と意味と: で分かれますよねその注意が	[when you read out a text it gets divided at least between pronunciation right? I mean meaning I mean your attention.
27	Masa	うんうんうん	mhm mhm mhm

28	Inst	だとしたら，音読させるって：最初にやっちゃうと：hh. どうかなっていう	if that’s the case. having students read aloud a text u:mm if that’s the first thing you do umm hh. I wonder if
29	Masa	あ::	oh::
30	Inst	はあるかなと思って．言ってることわかる?	that’s my concern. you know what I mean?
31	Haru	うん	yeah
32	Inst	だから - 例えば英検とかどう?	so - for example how about EIKEN?
33		(1.9)	(1.9)
34	Inst	英検の面接　受けたことある¿	have you ever taken an EIKEN interview?
35	Masa	うん	yeah
36	Inst	最初何やる?	what do you do first?
37	Haru	黙読=	silent reading=
38	Masa	=あっ黙読で[すね	=oh silent reading [right.
39	Inst	[ほら	[see?
40	Masa	**お::::**	OH::::
41	Haru	((nods three times))	((nods three times))
42	Inst	その後何やる¿	what do you do after that?
43	Haru	読む	read
44	Inst	音読だよね	read aloud right?
45	Masa	うん ((nods))	yeah.

As I wrote in my observational notes, Hiroki-sensei’s use of the expressions such as “attend to” (Line 1) and “focus on meaning” (Line 23) were reminiscent of Levelt’s model. However, he did not go further to propose an intertextual link to this academic concept. In a stimulated recall session, Hiroki-sensei gave two interrelated reasons for not referring to Levelt’s model. Firstly, it had not yet been introduced in his methods course or SLA course. The second reason was that he wanted Haru and Masato to focus on making sense of what happened and identifying their problems in the video. Thus, it was an intentional decision made on the basis of the instructor's understanding of what his trainees knew about SLA and what they needed to prioritize.

Instead of referring to Levelt's model, Hiroki-sensei refers to the oral interview of the EIKEN Test, a culturally shared practice, asking them what the first thing that applicants were required to do (Line 36). This proposal of an intercontextual link is both recognized and acknowledged by Haru and Masa, respectively in Lines 37 and 38. Consequently, both trainees seems to understand what Hiroki-sensei saw as problematic. This talk is interactive but authoritative because it focuses on one meaning (i.e., the instructor's interpretation of the episode).

In sum, Hiroki-sensei decided whether to use SLA concepts or not based on his assessment of his trainees' familiarity with them as well as on their readiness to go beyond identification of problems. Figure 6.1 represents a timeline that shows the moment in which the two exchanges took place in relation to the SLA session where Levelt's model was introduced.

Figure 6.1: Chronology of the two POF Events

Episode 6.11	Levelt's model introduced	Episode 6.10
18 July 201Y	26 December 201Y	22 January 201Z

Thus, Hiroki-sensei's decision was largely informed by his knowledge of what content had been dealt with in the SLA seminar.

6.1.4.4 Linking Microteachers' Pedagogical Concerns With Student Reactions. Before Episode 6.12, Saburo and his partners (Mizuki and Shun), together with Hiroki-sensei, watched a segment of their microlesson where Mizuki as a lead teacher asked the following questions: (1) What is universal design?; and (2) Who is universal design for? Saburo paused the video and asked his co-participants whether it is meaningful to ask the questions in this order, saying that, because the first question concerns the definition of the term, it includes the answer to the second question. Hiroki-sensei added that answering the first question might be more challenging as it requires more knowledge about the topic than the second one. The group then agreed that it would make sense to reverse the order of the questions as an alternative action. A few minutes later, Hiroki-sensei returns to the topic and initiates the following exchange:

Episode 6.12a

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	でもね: 私今の順番でも: まったく意味がないわけじゃないと思うけど.	but you kno:w personally this sequence is not totally meaningless I think.
2	Shun	ん: ((nods))	mhm ((nods))
3	Saburo	((nods)) ちょっと2度目	((nods)) the second time was kind of
4	Inst	うん2度目のでも=	yeah even the second one=
5	Shun	=確認の意味でもと言うか	=for the sake of checking meaning I would say
6	Inst	確認うん. どういうこと?	checking yeah. what do you mean?
7	Shun	なんか - さっきみずきさん - なんか一人ひとりいってたんで:	well - in the segment we watched you're checking one by one so:
8	Inst	うん	mhm
9	Shun	多分みんな：- なんか - 結局分かんない人もいれば	maybe everyone - well - after all some people didn't understand
10	Inst	うん	mhm
11	Shun	聞いて- あ: そういうことだなっていう風になって: でまた他の人で: さっきの	others listened and went like oh: I see and if you ask that
12	Inst	うん	mhm

13	Shun	who is -universal design for っていえば：もう一回 - なんか[復習として：繰り返し繰り返しで	I mean who is - universal design fo:r it would be another chance - well [to repeat repeat like a review
14	Inst	[((nods))	[((nods))
15	Saburo	うんうん	mhm mhm
16	Shun	なんか - 無駄$ - 無駄ではないかもしれない.	well - meaningless$ - not meaningful maybe.
17	Inst	うん	mhm
18	Shun	けど答え方が - ちょっと違うみたいな.	rather the question requires a different way of answering.
19	Inst	うん.答え方が違うよね.	yeah. a different way of answering isn't it.

In Line 1, Hiroki-sensei states that he also supports the original question order. Shun, who usually listens quietly to others, takes the floor in Line 5. Prompted by Hiroki-sensei's clarification request in Line 6, Shun takes extended turns at talk to air his opinion until he is finished in Line 18. Hiroki-sensei aligns with Shun in Line 19 by repeating his utterance. In short, the instructor's role has thus far been mainly to listen quietly to Shun and to provide him with space to talk.

In the second part, Hiroki-sensei builds on what Shun has said to discuss further the advantage of asking the questions in the original sequence.

Episode 6.12b

Line	**SPKR**	**Original Utterances**	**Approximate Translation**
20	Inst	なんで - 答え方が違うかっていうと. - 質問はど:お?	if you ask me why it requires a different way of answering, - how about the question?
21		(1.2)	(1.2)
22	Inst	who is universal design fo:r, って言ったら，誰かね, (0.5) ((hand toward the screen))最初その質問した時に-	when he said *who is universal design fo:r*, someone you know, (0.5) ((hand toward the screen)) I mean

		うん?	the first time he asked the question - she said “huh?”
23		（1.3）	(1.3)
24	Sabu	**$Noelle** です.$	$it’s **Noelle**.$
25	Inst	でしょ? [って Noelle さんなったでしょ?	wasn’t it? [she was like that wasn’t she?
26	Sabu	[£見てました£[hahahaha	[£I saw that.£ [hahahaha
27	Shun	[はい.	[yes.
28	Mizu	((smiles))	((smiles))
29	Inst	そうそうそう.	YEAH YEAH YEAH YEAH.
30	Sabu	見てました.	$I saw that.$
31	Inst	[まぁ敢えて名前言わなかったんだけど	[well I didn’t mention who it was on purpose.
32	Sabu	[“なんかおかしくね::?” [みたいな	[$she was like “isn’t there something wrong with it” [like that$
33	Inst	[**そうそうそう! - そう．** 一瞬 - そうなったのね,	[YEAH YEAH YEAH YEAH! - right. she was like that for a moment you know,
34	Sabu	[あ:: 確かに. <[a:: tashikani.>	[oh:: right.
35	Inst	[それ：-	[tha:t -
36	Sabu	はい. 確かに. <hai. tashikani.>	yes. right.
37	Inst	それこそまさに: あるじゃない (0.9) ポイントっていうかさその: 反応から分かるように	that’s exactly: you know what I mean (0.9) the point I mean we:ll as we can tell from her reaction
38	Sabu	うん	yeah
39	Mizu	あ:::	oh:::
40	Inst	前置詞が最後に来る質問ってちょっと変わってるよね	those questions that end with a preposition are a little unique aren’t they.
41	Sabu	うん ((nods))	mhm ((nods))
42	Shun	º うん º ((nods))	ºmhmº ((nods))
43	Sabu	º 確かにそっか º	ºright. I seeº
44	Inst	だから: -よくね: - what is it - what is	so: - oftentimes you kno:w - after

		it for って言って考えさせてから, 何のためのもの？ってよく聞いたりする. - ある意味似てるじゃない. だからその:そういう - タイプの質問の意味も=分かってもらうって[いう意味では -	saying *what is it. what is it for?* (in English) and having students think about it, I often ask what is it for" (in Japanese). isn't this similar in a sense? so well such types of questions are also= in the sense that we help students understand the meaning of such question types
45	Sabu	［う:ん	[m:hm
46	Inst	私は - 無駄じゃなかったかなっ - ってうん	[I think - are not meaningless yeah
47	Sabu	う:ん ((nods))	m:hm ((nods))

In Line 22, Hiroki-sensei mentions that someone reacted negatively when Mizuki asked the question "who is universal design for?" After a 1.3-second pause, Sabu answers that it was Noelle who made the negative reaction. The next several turns reveal that Saburo, Shun, and Hiroki-sensei had noticed Noelle's negative reaction, but not Mizuki who was teaching at the very moment. Additionally, although not reflected in my translation, Saburo's use of reported speech in Line 32 includes a casual variation of the negative adjective (i.e., *ne::*?) as well as casual intonation often associated with youth language (Sakuma, 2007), which may be considered to be inappropriate for the classroom. Thus, Saburo is positioning Noelle as a non-compliant, almost rebellious student who openly challenges the teacher's authority. At the same time, this portrayal seems to reflect Saburo's emotional/cognitive dissonance regarding Noelle's negative reaction. This was because he was confident about the accuracy of the comprehension question as he simply took it from the textbook, but Noelle's obvious negative reaction seemed to have undermined his confidence and authority as a microteacher.

In Line 34, Saburo expresses agreement, using the change-of-state token and the adverb *tashikani*, which means right. However, it is not clear what he is agreeing about here since Hiroki-sensei is simply aligning with Saburo in Line 33. Again, in Line 36, Saburo expresses agreement in a similar fashion. Saburo later commented at a stimulated recall interview that, at this point, he thought that he knew what Hiroki-sensei was trying to say. Hiroki-sensei's utterances in Lines 37 and 40 are important in that they link Noelle's negative reaction and Saburo's concern about the order of the questions. He goes on to share his experience asking the question "what is it for?" to see if his students could understand it, which serves as an example to support his claim in Line 44.

In this example, Hiroki-sensei is performing two primary actions. The first is his suggestion that Noelle's negative reaction could be used for further learning. To put it in sociocultural terms, it reflects Noelle's emotional/cognitive dissonance regarding the accuracy of the sentence presented by a peer acting as a teacher and that it could be seen as her growth point from which to start the scaffolding of students' understanding. The other action is targeting his mediation at Saburo's growth point as a learner of ELT by linking his question with Noelle's challenging behavior. What is noteworthy is that Hiroki-sensei did not deny either of the ideas (i.e., whether to present Question (1) first or Question (2) first), thus leaving open the possibility that either could be adopted. Arguably, Hiroki-sensei adopted an interactive/dialogic approach or a *dialogic stance* (Boyd & Markarian, 2011) in Episode 6.12 in that he listened closely to Saburo's concern, built on Shun's contribution to offer an alternative voice, and created an interactional space for thinking together with the trainees.

6.1.4.5 Linking Current Concerns With Prior Discourse. Episode 6.13 comes from Haru and Kana’s final POF conference. To contextualize this event, its ensuing microteaching task was again to give a 45-minute lesson as pair. Haru and Kana chose to take turns teaching different phases of the lesson individually, rather than team-teaching the lesson. As such, while one of them was teaching, the other acted as a student. In her part, Kana had the students read aloud the text (i.e., a written conversation among three characters) twice: first they did choral reading as a whole class and then worked in groups of three to read aloud an individual character’s lines. Immediately before Episode 6.13a, Hiroki-sensei asked Kana why she had had the students read aloud the text (i.e., a written conversation among three characters), and she answered that reading aloud the text would help students check if they understand the content and can pronounce all the words.

Episode 6.13a

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	今は何やってた? 3 人でやるのは何のため?	what were the students doing? What was working in a group of three for?
2		(1.2)	(1.2)
3	Kana	は先生なしで: その: ちゃんと- でよ- 読めるかって言うか: できるかその文章を さっきみたいに アクセントとか	it was to see if they could read the text or use stress by themselves without the teacher just like a few minutes ago
4	Inst	うん	mhm
5	Kana	まぁそういうところをおんなじように読めるかなっていう	well to see if they could read like the teacher
6	Inst	そこまででいい感じ¿	Are you happy if they could do that?
7	Kana	いや: (0.8) その先が分かんないから: 教えて欲しいです[もし	no: (0.8) I don’t know what to do next, so I’d like you to teach me [if
8	Inst	[いやいや (0.6) これって-でもさどう¿ - 本文は:	[no no (0.6) as for this - but this is you know? - the text i:s

9		(2.0)	(2.0)
10	Inst	会話じゃない? <kaiwa ja nai?>	is a conversation, right?
11	Kana	うん ((nodding three times))	yeah ((nodding three times))
12	Inst	だとしたら: (0.8) これちょっと3人いるじゃない¿ 例えば((acting as a student and reading in monotone with eyes on paper)) you look sleepy Miku, what time did you go to bed.	if that’s the case: (0.8) this - there are three people, right? for example, ((acting as a student and reading in monotone with eyes on paper)) you look sleepy Miku, what time did you go to bed.
13	Kana	((laughs))	((laughs))
14	Haru	hh ((laughs))	hh ((laughs))
15	Inst	これでいいの?	are you happy with this?
16	Kana	$良くない$ hh.	$I’m not$ hh
17	Inst	ね:	see:
18	Kana	act の方が°いいですか°	act would °be better°?
19	Inst	うん? 何?	hmm? what?
20	Kana	act - させて	have them act and
21	Inst	うんちょっとやっぱりその: もうちょっと[会話っぽく role play みたいにできた方がいいかな::って	yeah right umm: it might be better if they could do it a little more like a conversation, like role play
22	Kana	[うんうん [うんうんうん	[yeah yeah [yeah yeah yeah
23	Haru	[((nods twice))	[((nods twice))
24	Inst	思うのね	that’s what I thought.
25	Kana	°確かに°.	°right°.
26	Inst	Kana さんがよく言ってる “eye contact”! ((imitating Kana))	this is what you often say, “eye contact”! ((imitating Kana))
27	Kana	AHA[HAHA ((nodding twice)) $確かに$ ((laughs covering mouth))	AHA[HAHA ((nodding twice)) $RIGHT$ ((laughs covering mouth))
28	Haru	[huhuhu ((smiles))	[huhuhu ((smiles))
29	Inst	まさにそう! - まさにそれだと思うんだよ　だから例えば本当に Miku がいたら oh you look sleepy Miku! ってちょっとは見てはいいけど ((eyes on paper)) you look	exactly! - that’s exactly it. So for example if *Miku* were here, you would say ((in role as a conversant)) *“Oh you look sleepy, Miku!”* like this you can look at the textbook for

		sleepy Miku と全然違うじゃないですか ((with eyes on paper))	a second but ((eyes on paper)) if you say "*you look sleepy Miku.*" it would be totally different wouldn't it ((with eyes on paper))
30	Kana	う:んうんうん((nodding three times))	mhm mhm mhm ((nodding three times))
31	Inst	だからそれを促すような指示の仕方をしてもいいかな:	so you could give a direction to encourage students to do it.
32	Kana	分かりました.	I see.

In Line 1, Hiroki-sensei first highlights the students working in small groups and then asked Kana and Haru why Kana had the students to read aloud the text in groups of three. Basically she repeated the same answer that she had given to rationalize her decision to have her students read the text aloud, but she did not address the reason for putting them in groups of three. Hiroki-sensei's question in Line 6 seems to suggest that he does not find Kana's response satisfactory, thus challenging her to reconsider her intended outcome of the read-aloud activity. Kana then asks Hiroki-sensei what to do, but he rejects this request. This part gives a glimpse of what seems to be a clash of expectations. Kana seems to have expected to receive an answer from Hiroki-sensei whereas Hiroki-sensei seems to have expected Kana to think about the reason. In fact, Kana had said at her Semester 1 interview, "I want Hiroki-sensei to teach me all things that he considers to be good" (2/Aug./201Y).

Between Lines 8 and 10, Hiroki-sensei provides his viewpoint ("is a conversation") and invites her to agree with him by using the expression *ja nai* (a copula + negation) with a rising intonation. Kana's agreement in Line 11 suggests that common ground has been established regarding the genre of the text. Hiroki-sensei's modelling of less-than ideal read aloud lacking intonation and expressiveness (Line 12) makes both Haru and Kana laugh (Lines 13 and 14).

Having established common ground, Hiroki-sensei challenges them to rethink the objective of having students read the text in groups of three. In Lines 18 and 20, Kana asks Hiroki-sensei whether it would be better to have the students act as one of the characters in the text. Agreeing with this idea, Hiroki-sensei reveals that he is thinking something along the lines of playing characters, rather than reading an individual character's lines, in order to make it more conversation-like.

In Line 26, Hiroki-sensei directly quotes Kana's words, proposing an intertextual link. This is immediately recognized and acknowledged by Kana as it is the very advice that she had given her students in her microlessons. The consequence of this intertextuality is its convincing effect as evidenced by Kana's confirmation made with laughter and a relatively loud voice (Line 27) (this contrasts sharply with her previous confirmation made with a soft voice (Line 25) in response to Hiroki-sensei's suggestion that the read aloud be made more conversation-like). I wrote in my fieldnotes, "Amazing! He brought in the shared knowledge in such a timely manner! Kana really looked convinced" (Feb/201Z). In short, Hiroki-sensei used intertextuality as a strategy to make his feedback more relevant to the microteacher.

In Line 29, Hiroki-sensei models an ideal behavior and a less than ideal behavior. His commentary below was made at a member-checking session involving stimulated recall provides further insights:

Excerpt 6.7

Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
やっぱりど::しても読むことに集中しちゃって相手を見なくなって, @ 棒読みになっちゃう. @あとはせっかくの会話文だしスピーキングに少しでもつなげられたらなって @ (0.9) 四技能統合って言われてるし@ - だから read and look up ができると@いいかなって. @ (1.2) read and look up だと認知的に余計負荷かかるし@大切な表現生徒に覚えてもらえるかなって. @	as expected they can't keep themselves from focusing too much on reading the text and @ they end up reading in a monotone. @ also because it's a written conversation I wish to link the activity to speaking @ (0.9) as they talk about the integration of the four skills@ - so it would be great if the students could *read and look up*. @ (1.2) *read and look up* would be cognitively more demanding so they might be able to learn some important expressions by heart. @

(Feb. 201Y)

This excerpt makes it evident that Hiroki-sensei's suggestion was that read and look up should be incorporated. According to Nation (2008), this technique was devised by "as a way of helping learners to learn from written dialogues and to help them to put expression into the dialogues" (p. 68). Hiroki-sensei regarded it as a helpful way to promote eye contact and prevent trainees from sounding monotonous. Also, Hiroki-sensei thought that the use of this technique would make the learner's task cognitively more demanding than simple read loud and more instrumental in helping the students learn key expressions. Perhaps it is worthwhile mentioning here that the trainees have learned about the technique in previous classes. As such, Hiroki-sensei was invoking this shared knowledge.

Episode 6.13a can be characterized as *interactive* yet *authoritative* because it focuses mainly on the instructor's idea and does not entail the interanimation of different ideas (Scott et al., 2006). However, the following exchange, which occurred immediately after the above exchange, shows a different picture.

Episode 6.13b

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
34	Kana	$もう全然そんなの頭に[なくって $ hehehehe	$never thought about that [at all$ hehehehe
35	Haru	[huhuhuhuhu	[huhuhuhuhu
36	Inst	だからどこまで持っていきたいかにも[よると思うけど.	so it depends on how far you expect your students [to go I think though.
37	Kana	[うんうんうん	[mhm mhm mhm
38	Inst	ただその一人ずつ- 読む練習[音の確認だけできればいいのか	whether you just want to check their individual reading practice - their pronunciation or
39	Kana	[うん（(nods)）	[yeah ((nods))
40	Inst	その先を見据えた .hh	whether you expect further .hh
41	Kana	でもそれ先生の後にリピートして - 多分普通の授業だったら2・3回	but well repeating after the teacher - maybe if it's in a regular lesson it's done two or three times
42	Inst	うん	mhm
43	Kana	まぁ 2 回は- 少なくともやると思うんでそれでけっこう分かってると思うから: その先大事ですよね <sono saki daiji desu yone>	well at least twice I think that would be enough for students to know how to pronounce them so: going further would be important wouldn't it
44	Inst	うん	yeah

In Line 34, Kana nominates herself to comment on Hiroki-sensei's suggestion, indicating her acceptance. However, Hiroki-sensei suggests that the decision should be made based on what the teacher expects her students to learn, trying to juxtapose two goals. This indicates his uptake of Kana's idea and attempt to consider the two ideas although he does not finish his turn. He yields the floor to Kana, who starts to articulate her renewed understanding of what she would expect her students to be able to do through the group activity. By using the particle *yone*, Kana invites Hiroki-sensei to confirm her idea. This exchange is more dialogic than Episode 6.13a in that Hiroki-sensei attempts to bring together the two ideas whereas Kana demonstrates her attentiveness to Hiroki-sensei's idea through her uptake of it. It is also more symmetrical in that Kana takes an initiative by nominating herself twice to express her opinion while Hiroki-sensei listens. Importantly, Kana *talked herself into understanding* (Mann, 2002), thus attesting to the Vygotskian view of language as a mediational means (Swain, 2006).

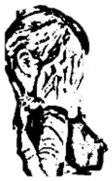
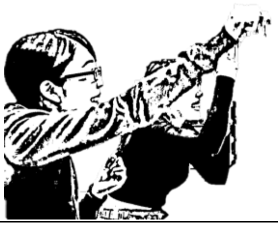
6.2 Other Types of Instructor Support

Other instructor support included (1) listening attentively and quietly and (2) responding to emotionally charged moments. While (1) is a typical incident that involves the instructor letting trainees talk, (2) is a somewhat extreme incident in that it was the only case that involved crying. However, it may not be so unusual that trainees feel anxious and vulnerable in POF sessions especially when trainees are not satisfied with their own performance (Farr, 2015; Randall & Thornton, 2001; Vásquez, 2004). This seems to be indicated by the number of instances where the participants talked about their nervousness, embarrassment, and anxiety (Chapter 5).

6.2.1 Listening Attentively and Quietly

Unlike Episodes 6.7 and 6.8, which illustrated how Hiroki-sensei's listening led to his trainees' lightbulb moment, the following episode shows an example where he listened attentively and quietly to let the POF participants explain the microteacher's actions. This exchange is initiated by Hiroki-sensei's referential question in Line 1.

Episode 6.14

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	ちょっとこれっ興味があるこれっ (0.9) 今[何したの¿	wait this looks interesting this- (0.9) what have you just done?
2	Koko	[フッハハ	[huhaha
3	Noelle	うん¿	hmm?
4	Inst	Are you ready? って言った後に:=	after you said *Are you ready:?*=
5	Koko	=yes って言わせましたよね: <=yes tte iwase mashita yone:>	=she made them say yes:
6	Inst	そ- そうだよね.	mm ye- that's right.
7	Noelle	ンッフフ（(両手で顔をかくす)） 	n huhu ((covers her face))
8	Koko	多分児童英語です[その流れです.	maybe it's TEYL[its influence.
9	Noelle	ッハ: [$多分 "yes I'm ready" を待ってました$アハッ	n ha: [$maybe I was waiting to hear "*yes I'm ready.*" $ah**a**
10	Koko	児童英語で: 必ず:-ARE YOU READY? YES [I'M READY! ((raising her right hand diagonally up))	in our TEYL method course always - *ARE YOU READY? YES [I'M READY* ((raising her right hand diagonally up))
11	Noelle	[I'M READY!((raising her right hand diagonally up)) 	[*I'M READY!* ((raising her right hand diagonally up))
12	Koko	って[やらせてるんですよ. <tte[yara seteru n desu yo>	that's [how we do it in that class.
13	Noelle	[ってやるんですよ. <[tte yaru n desu yo>	[how we do it.
14	Inst	あっ[そうなの? <att [soon a no?>	oh[is that so?

15	Koko	[これが[もう残っちゃって	[that's[stuck in my mind
16	Noelle	[hahahahaha	[hahahahaha
17	Koko	もうこの子[絶対 "yes I'm ready"	I was like "she is absolutely waiting to hear *"yes I'm ready"*
18	Inst	[あっそうなんだ= [att soo na n da=>	[oh is that so=
19	Koko	って待ってるんだろう[な: って思って	that's [what I thought and
20	Inst	[そうなんだ＝ <[soo na n da=>	[is that so=
21	Noelle	＝そしたら Koko さんが yes $あ: 良かった: [と思って$	=and then Koko said *"yes"* $and I thought "oh good" [and$
22	Koko	[ahahaha	[ahahaha
23	Inst	((smiles))	((smiles))

Here, Koko and Noelle jointly explain the latter's action in the narrated event. Their coordination of conversational effort is evidenced in many ways. For example, in Line 10, as soon as Koko says "ARE YOU READY? YES," Noelle starts to say "I'M READY!," overlapping with Koko as she says the same thing. Also, their hand gesture and prosody are in almost complete alignment (see the still image). This is followed by Koko's and Noelle's *yo*-marked statements, which suggest their epistemic primacy over the propositional content (i.e., an interactional routine in their TEYL methods course).

On the other side of this interactional coin is the listenership of the instructor who does not share their experience. Other than initiating the topic, Hiroki-sensei's role in this episode is being an attentive listener. His utterance in Line 6 is a confirmation made in response to Koko's *yone*-marked statement in Line 5. Moreover, the rest of his verbal contributions are either "*soo na no*" (Line 14) or "*soo na n da*" (Lines 18 and 20). These expressions are backchannels simply to acknowledge the receipt of information from the interlocutor (Maynard, 2005). For instance, Hiroki-sensei used this expression in Line 14 to respond to the *yo*-marked claim by both the trainees. Thus, it was arguably his listenership that afforded Noelle's and Koko's active engagement in co-construction of meaning. At a member checking session, Hiroki-sensei explained his stimulated recall session as follow:

Excerpt 6.8

Original Utterances	**Approximate Translation**
特にこの時は 二人とも$ノリノリで$@積極的に話してくれるの分かってたから- 私が大事だと思うことをあれこれ伝えるよりは 自分達が大事だと思うことを話してもらった方がいいかなって.	especially this session they were both $excited$ and I knew that they'd tell their stories actively so - rather than me telling them what I thought was important, I thought it'd be better to let them talk about what they thought was important to them.

This comment suggests that it was the instructor's intentional choice to assume primarily a listener's role to let the trainees express themselves. As Waite (1993) suggested, any rigid supervisory agendas would constrain the extent of negotiation possible between trainer and trainees. Mindful of such possibility, Hiroki-sensei intentionally allowed the trainees to take the lead in the interaction without imposing his agendas.

6.2.2 Responding to Emotionally Charged Moments (ECMs)

Hiroki-sensei said at his pre-semester interview that it was important for the POF conference to become a comfortable place where trainees could talk frankly about the teaching and learning processes in their lessons. In his words, "I hope that the trainees will see the value of the feedback session and want to come to this office to talk about their lessons" (March/201Z). To this end, Hiroki-sensei encouraged them to see not just what they needed to work on, but also what they did well.

This subsection presents analysis of five episodes to illustrate such efforts that Hiroki-sensei made in order to respond to Haru's ECM in a POF conference in which her emotional state seemed to change remarkably. To illustrate this point, I first present an episode where the ECM took place and an episode from the very end of the conference. I then present three episodes where Hiroki-sensei responded, albeit implicitly, to the ECM.

From my classroom observation, I knew that Haru had cried and talked in the back of the classroom with Noelle, who tried to cheer her up, while Kana was teaching her part. Consequently, I was vigilant about how Haru might participate in the POF conference. About six minutes into Haru and Kana's final POF session, Hiroki-sensei asked Haru's opinion of her own lesson.

Episode 6.15

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	どう¿ Haru さんは - やってみて	what do you think? Haru - after you did the lesson
2	Haru	えっ Haru もう(0.7)$今回$もう一番(0.8)なんか駄目だった[なって思って((in a nervous tone))	well for me certainly (0.7) $this time$ it was certainly the most(0.8)like miserable lesson [I thought ((in a nervous tone))
3	Inst	[あっなんで?	[oh why?
4	Haru	え::　°なんか:°	uh::m °like°
5	Inst	↑どこが:	↑which par:t
6	Haru	hh ((starts to cry))	hh ((starts to cry))
7	Inst	((in a higher pitch)) どうした:?	what's wrong?
8	Kana	↑な:んで泣くの:?	↑wh:y are you crying?
9	Haru	((shakes head crying))	((shakes head crying))

	((lines omitted))		
32	Inst	いいよ落ち着いてからで	that’s okay we can talk when you calm down.
33	Haru	ahaha	ahaha
34	Inst	もうちょっと落ち着いてからで大丈夫だよ.	we can talk when you calm down a little more=it’s okay.
35	Kana	((pats on Haru’s back))	((pats on Haru’s back))
36	Haru	((wipes tears with tissue))	((wipes tears with tissue))

In Line 2, Haru negatively assesses her own teaching performance. Her voice sounded tense although she was laughing nervously and anxiously. In Lines 3 and 5, Hiroki-sensei asks the reason for the negative assessment, but, instead of giving a direct answer, Haru starts to cry. Hiroki-sensei’s and Kana’s responses indicate their empathy (Lines 3, 5, 7, & 8). Although shown only partially in the transcript, their voice tones characterized by higher pitch and elongation seem to convey their alignment and empathy toward Haru, who also seems confused as indicated by her head shake (Line 9). This type of exchange lasted in the omitted lines. According to Shuster (2000), “the teacher creates a positive emotional tone when she conveys warmth, respect, a listening attitude through eye contact and other body language, voice tone, and physical contact as appropriate” (p. 290). In this episode, Hiroki-sensei communicates an empathetic listening attitude through high pitched tone of voice and facial expressions (not shown on the transcript), which is corroborated by Kana’s use of also high-pitched voice tone and physical contact (i.e., a pat on Haru’s shoulder). Thus, the instructor and Kana co-constructed an emotional tone.

In Lines 32 and 34, Hiroki-sensei advises Haru to take time to relax. Kana seems to align with this advice by patting Haru on the back. Here it is worth noting that, until Excerpt 6.15, Haru did not speak, although she did make occasional nods at Kana and Hiroki-sensei. This silence might have been used by Haru to hide her negative emotional state (Phillips, 1994), which seems to match with my observation that Haru “looked very tense, not as uplifting as she usually is” (fieldnotes, Feb. 2). After this exchange, Kana revealed that Haru had sent her a text message apologizing for her “poor” performance.

This ECM contrasts sharply with Episode 6.16, which took place at the very end of the same session.

Episode 6.16

Line	**SPKR**	**Original Utterances**	**Approximate Translation**
1	Inst	は:い お疲れ様:	oka:y well done
2	Kana	有難うございました.	thank you.
3	Haru	有難うございました.	thank you.
4	Inst	((to Haru)) ね ((smiling)) - よかった! <((to Haru)) ne ((smiling)) – yoka tta!>	((to Haru)) see ((smiling)) - what a relief!
5	Haru	よかった! ((smiling))	what a relief! ((smiling))
6	Inst	ハッピーになってよかった! ((smiling))	I’m glad you became happy! ((smiling))
7	Haru	AHAHAHA	AHAHAHA
8	Kana	((smiles and pats on Haru’s arm))	((smiles and pats on Haru’s arm))
9	Haru	ふ:: hahaha	hu:: hahaha
10	Inst	$よかった違うふ::で$ さっきのふ::はどうしようかって思った.	different hu:: $ I wondered what I should do about the previously uttered hu::$
11	Haru	AHAHA[HA hahaha	AHAHA[HA hahaha
12	Kana	[$確かに.$	[$absolutely.$

In Line 4, Hiroki-sensei expresses his relief at Haru’s emotional recovery both verbally and nonverbally (i.e., smiling and a playful, light-hearted tone). This is prefaced by an independent use of the interactional particle *ne* (Line 4), which indicates that Hiroki-sensei is assuming that Haru knows what he is talking about. Haru aligns completely both verbally and nonverbally. Hiroki-sensei's utterance in Line 6 more explicitly references the change in Haru's emotional state. His playful voice tone and smiling serve as contextualization cues to which Haru responds with a loud laugh. Kana's smile and pat on Haru's arm seem to display her relief and support as well. Hearing Haru's voiced sigh followed a laugh, Hiroki-sensei jokingly comments that he is glad to hear a "different" one, suggesting he was not sure what to do when he heard Haru's voiced sigh at the beginning of the session. This proposed intertextual link is recognized and acknowledged by Haru ad Kana with a loud laugh and a verbal agreement, respectively. Here, it is perhaps helpful to use Tannen's (2006) notions of *reframing* and *rekeyin*g. The former notion refers to a change in what the interaction is about whereas the latter relates to a change in the tone of the interaction. Through the above exchange, the ECM has been *reframed* as a playful, laughable moment and Haru's voiced sigh, which had occurred earlier in the same conference, was *rekeyed* into a humorous tone (Tannen, 2006). This can be considered as an example of pedagogical link-making to support emotional engagement (Scott et al., 2011). In what follows, we examine three specific instructor support that seem to have contributed to this change. In other words, we scrutinize three types of instructor support provided as a response to respond to Haru's ECM.

The following is an excerpt from Hiroki-sensei's teaching journal entry for this particular event:

Excerpt 6.9

> Haru started to cry when I asked her how she thought her lesson went. I was a bit surprised because I had thought she had done a much better job than the last time. She also laughed a lot perhaps because she was very nervous. I wanted to help see positive aspects of her teaching thinking that this would help her calm down and relax. I suppose that Kana felt the same way. So I was on the lookout for chances to give positive comments. (2/Feb/201Z)

Importantly, this entry indicates that Hiroki-sensei was not aware that Haru had cried, which was later confirmed by our post-feedback conversation. He simply could not see her cry from where he was seated during Haru and Kana's microlesson. More importantly, Hiroki-sensei made intentional efforts to help her relax and see her own strengths as a microteacher. In what follows, I present relevant examples.

6.2.2.1 Confirming Teaching Performance. A major and perhaps the most direct way of responding to an ECM was to provide confirmatory feedback as suggested by the above journal entry. Such instances were identified several times during the POF conference. In Episode 6.17, he invites Kana to comment on Haru's direction-giving that they have watched so far. Asking a student first to offer comments is a strategy that Hiroki-sensei used in the POF sessions to promote peer interaction—a common technique in pair/group feedback sessions.

Episode 6.17

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	((to Kana)) どう¿これまでの指示.	((to Kana)) what do you think? I mean the directions so far.
2	Kana	↑ う::ん ((nodding twice))	↑m::hm ((nodding twice))
3	Inst	すっごい分かりやすいと思うよ. <suggoi wakari yasui to omou yo.>	it's very easy to follow I think

4	Kana	うん ((nodding))	yeah ((nodding))
5	Inst	うん ((nodding))	yeah ((nodding))
6	Haru	((laughs))	((laughs))

In Line 2, Kana gives a very positive answer produced with a higher pitch and accompanied by a head nod, which together seem to make her sound assuring. Hiroki-sensei then upgrades this assessment by stressing the word very and using the particle *yo* to claim his epistemic primacy. Kana then shows her support verbally and nonverbally, which is mirrored Hiroki-sensei's response. This exchange results in Haru's laughter in Line 6.

6.2.2.2 Using Puns and Jokes to Relax Trainees. Another way to deal with an ECM was to use humour, including jokes and puns. Hiroki-sensei said at his Semester 1 interview that he often made small talk or jokes when his trainees looked nervous in POF conferences to break the ice. Episode 6.18 comes from the pre-video-viewing phase of Haru and Kana's POF conference.

Episode 6.18

Line	**SPKR**	**Original Utterances**	**Approximate Translation**
1	EM	よかったらレーズンチョコです. <yokatta ra reezun choko desu.>	if you like here's raisin chocolate.
2	Inst	じゃチョコもどうぞ ((moves the chocolate to the middle of the table)) <ja choko mo doozo>	now help yourself to some chocolate too[22]. ((moves the chocolate to the middle of the table))
3	Haru	$有[難うございま:す.$	$tha[nk you.$
4	Kana	[$有難うございま:[す.$	[$thank you.$
5	Haru	[((reaches chocolate))	[((reaches chocolate))
6	Inst	ちょこっと食べる?	how about eating a little?

---

[22] This adverb "too" indexes the fact that I had previously offered mint tea to help Haru relax.

		<choko tto taberu?>	
7	Haru	[hahaha ((eats chocolate))	[hahaha ((eats chocolate))
8	Kana	[HA[HAHAHA	[HA[HAHAHA
9	Inst	[hahahaha	[hahahaha

In Line 1, I offered raisin chocolate to the participants. Hiroki-sensei then repeats part of my utterance to redirect the offer to Kana and Haru. In Line 6, he makes a pun that features the two meanings of *choko*, one meaning chocolate and the other being part of the adverb *chokotto* (a little). Hearing the pun, both Haru and Kana laugh. Thus, Hiroki-sensei seems to have succeeded in a creating a more relaxing atmosphere.

6.2.2.3 Capitalizing on Trainee Strength. A third, and arguably the most powerful way of responding to an ECM was to capitalize on trainees' strengths by giving them a chance to shine in what they do well. In the following example, the participants are watching Kana teaching the past progressive. Here, I use the acronym HN to signify a head nod to indicate the timing of the overlapping.

Episode 6.19

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	これ- ((hand toward the screen)) これ見て. ((pointing at the screen))	this ((hand toward the screen)) look at - this. ((pointing at the screen))
2	Kana	((pauses the video))	((pauses the video))
3	Inst	were you studying? - っていきなり言われても	if someone says *were you studying?* without context
4	Kana	う:ん	m:mm
5	Inst	何の話かわかんなくない?	you wouldn't know what she is talking about would you?
6	Kana	う:ん ((HN HN HN))	m:hm ((HN HN HN))
7	Haru	((HN HN HN HN HN))	((HN HN HN HN HN))
8	Inst	例えばさ((pointing at the screen))ど	for instance ((pointing at the screen))

		ういう時使える¿これ:	in what situation can you use this structure:
9		(3.3)	(3.3)
10	Inst	were you studying?って	I mean “were you studying?”
11	Kana	学校に来て:	when you come to school
12	Inst	((HN))	((HN))
13		(2.0)	(2.0)
14	Kana	えっ友達としゃべったりする時に	and well talk with friends
15	Inst	うん	mhm
16		(1.2)	(1.2)
17	Kana	テストの前とか: 勉強したみたいな時に - 勉強してたとか	when you want to ask if they studied before a test or something – were you studying and what not
18	Inst	それだと did you study だよね	that would be *did you study* wouldn’t it.
19	Kana	[あ::: そっか.	[oh::: I see.
20	Haru	[HN [HN HN HN])	[HN [HN HN HN
21	Inst	[((looks at Haru)) were you studying?って敢えて言う - 時ってどういう時¿ ((looks at Kana))	[((looks at Haru)) in what kind of situation would you need to say *were you studying?*¿ ((looks at Kana))
22	Haru	((smiles slightly))	((smiles slightly))
23		(3.3)	(3.3)
24	Inst	((looks at Haru))	((looks at Haru))
25	Haru	あ: なんか: えっ? どうなんだろ - 昨日 - なんか図書館で$見かけた$けど勉強してた[のとか	e:r li:ke what? I wonder about this - yesterday - like I $saw you” in the library were you studying [like that.
26	Inst	**[あ[:::**	**[OH[:::**
27	Kana	**[あ:: ((nodding))**	**[OH:: ((nodding))**
28	Inst	**そうそうそう　そういうことだよ!** 見かけた時勉強してたのって	YEAH YEAH YEAH - YOU’VE SAID IT! when I saw you were you studying you know
29	Haru	うん ((smiles))	yeah ((smiles))

In Lines 1 and 3, Hiroki-sensei highlights the problem in Kana’s introduction of the target structure. He then asks her to give a context in which the use of the past progressive is obligatory. After a relatively long pause of 3.3 seconds, Kana tries to contextualize the target structure, but ends up giving a context for the simple past. Hiroki-sensei looks at Haru as she nods four times and then asks again the same question. Kana struggles not being able to come up with more ideas. After a 3.3-second pause, Hiroki-sensei looks at Haru, who, although seemingly hesitant, shares her idea, specifying a reference point. Both of her co-participants seem to have found this convincing as evidenced by their use of the change-of-state token (*a:*). Hiroki-sensei recaps Haru’s idea in Line 28. Importantly, he stresses the word when, indicating the importance of the reference point. Particularly important here is his act of looking in Line 24 which invited Haru to share her idea. Hiroki-sensei said in the debriefing after the POF session that he was hoping that Haru would contribute to the discussion since he remembered that she had done a nice job contextualizing target structures on previous occasions. He also said, “I thought that Haru might be ready to speak halfway through the discussion because she was very responsive, but I wanted to give Kana another chance to think” (2/Feb/201Z). Her smile in Line 22 seems to have served as a contextualization cue for her readiness to speak. Thus, it was his close monitoring of Haru’s nonverbal reactions within the above interaction coupled with the insights gained from previous events that informed Hiroki-sensei to invite her to speak in Line 24, thereby allowing her to demonstrate her strength and thus claim a positive identity as well as demonstrating his own professional vision. This interaction can be interactive but authoritative in that Hiroki-sensei evaluated Haru’s contribution (Line 28). His nomination of Haru’s contribution seems to have served a similar function to the display questions asked by the supervisor in Donaghue’s (2020) study.

In summary, Haru’s emotional state seems to have changed through her positive experience in the POF conference. In fact, she said at her Semester 2 interview that, although she was extremely nervous at the beginning of the POF conference, she loosened up as she received many positive comments unexpectedly and that she was glad to see that her teaching “*was not as bad as I thought*” (9/Feb/201Z). Thus, it was the confirmatory nature of the POF talk (see Kurtoglu-Hooton, 2016) that seems to have contributed to the reframing and rekeying observed in Episode 6.16.

To better understand this critical incident, it seems helpful to consider what fueled Haru’s nervousness. The following interview excerpt is illustrative:

Excerpt 6.10

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Haru	凄い優しいんですけど: [sugoi yasashii n desu **kedo**]	this ((hand toward the screen)) look at - this. ((pointing at the screen)) very kind as she i:s
2	EK	うん	mhm
3	Haru	ど一番こう::なんだろ– 逆らえない感はありました.	the hardest like thi::s I wonder what – there was something about her that made it hard for me to say no.
4	EK	あ:::	oh:::
5	Haru	((laughs))	((laughs))
		((six lines later))	
12	EK	遠慮しちゃう - 感じ?	like you can’t help hesitating?
13	Haru	((smiles)) (1.0)	((smiles)) (1.0)
14	EK	まぁそれは駿河君に対しても$よね ((laughs))	wasn’t that true with Suruga-kun right? ((laughs))
15	Haru	((laughs))でも::: そうですねまぁでも (0.8) なんだろう	((laughs)) but umm yeah well but (0.8) I wonder what

16	EK	うん	yeah
17		(1.6)	(1.6)
18	Haru	までも (0.5) 例えば自分が言っ (0.9) なんだろう Kana さんから=	well but (0.5) for instance if I say- (0.9) I wonder what if Kana san
19	EK	=[うんうん	=[mhm mhm
20	Haru	=[なんかこう提案とか来たら::	=[makes something like a proposal
21	EK	うんうん	mhm mhm
22		(1.3)	(1.3)
23	Haru	あっじゃそれで行きましょうって	Oh then let's do that like that
24	EK	う::ん	mmm
25	Haru	なるかなみたいな	I would answer.

In Line 1, Haru answers my question about her working relationship with Kana, saying that she is very kind; however, her use of the particle *kedo* attached to the subordinate clause, which "expresses a contrastive relationship between two propositions" (Geyer, 2008, p. 195), prefaces the negative assessment to be made in the succeeding main clause (i.e., "there was something about Kana which made it hard for her to say no."). Her use of the demonstrative adverb *kedo* and the self-addressed question "I wonder what.") seems to function as hesitation markers. In Line 12, I made a confirmation check, but Haru responds with a smile, which I interpreted as a yes. In fact, I asked her if the same could be said about her relationship with Yuki Suruga, her partner for microteaching assignments 3 and 4. Although Haru expresses her agreement, her use of the connective *demo* (but) with a pause indicates her disagreement. In Line 18, Haru starts to describe her relationship with Kana further, hinting at the potential power differential that might have existed between them. I had also learned from my observation of their POF that Haru wanted to plan the entire lesson together with Kana, but Kana insisted that they divide up the lesson and plan their respective parts since they should be able to plan their lessons on their own during their practicum. Although Haru accepted this idea, she felt insecure about her lesson preparation and under tremendous pressure to live up to the challenge of doing a microlesson with Kana, a year-older *senpai* whom she perceived to be better at teaching and a more proficient speaker of English. As such, the instructor's act of capitalizing on Haru's strengths seemed to have allowed her to see herself in a positive light.

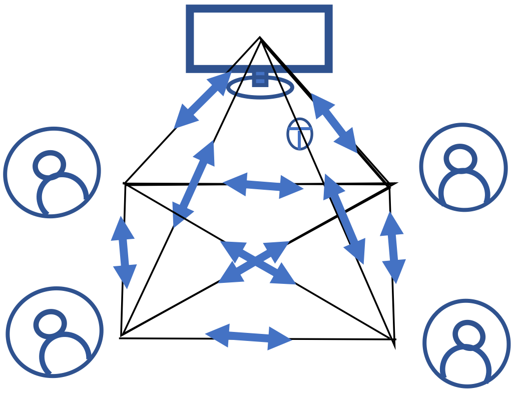
6.3 Summary and Discussion

This chapter examined how Hiroki-sensei worked with his trainees to promote their knowledge construction and meaning making through their POF interactions. The ethnographic microanalysis showed that he performed a variety of actions to help student learning. These included promoting trainees' noticing of and attention to L2 issues, modelling of pedagogical actions, demonstrating his pedagogical professional vision as conceptualized as an ability to see classroom interaction, and promoting pedagogical link-making. In particular, Hiroki-sensei helped his trainees solve their L2 problems and address their pedagogical concerns by linking their microteaching experiences with academic concepts, student reactions, prior voices, or culturally shared practices. Germaine to this point is van Es and Sherin's (2002) framework of teacher noticing, which involves identifying what is important in a teaching situation, as well as making connections between the particularities and contingencies of classroom interactions and the broader principles of teaching and learning and using one's knowledge about the classroom context to inform their actions and decisions. Thus, pedagogical link-making seems to be an essential part of teacher professional vision. Importantly, Hiroki-sensei performed different actions (e.g., listening and scaffolding) even within the same episode, combining different types of interaction (e.g., authoritative and dialogic). Here, it is worthwhile noting that his intention of giving a thinking space did not always match the expectations of his trainees, as suggested by Episode 6.13a. Several trainees, including Kana, Ryuji, Saburo, and Takumi said at their respective interviews that they sometimes wanted Hiroki-sensei to tell them what to do more clearly in earlier POFs. As van Lier (1996) suggested, many students continue to perceive and expect their teachers to be transmissive despite the latter's intentions to make their interaction more symmetrical. This may hold true for POF interactions between trainees and their trainer. However, the same trainees also commented that, before they knew it, they enjoyed thinking about alternative actions and their potential impact on student learning as well as the reasons for their actions.

Moreover, Hiroki-sensei listened attentively and quietly to his trainees. Given that an important goal of education is to cultivate students' proactivity, it then follows that teachers should allow students to take greater initiative, which in turn means that they need to gradually hand over responsibilities to students (van Lier, 2001). The same can be said about POF interactions between teacher trainers and their trainees. Trainees gradually need to assume a greater role in talking and reflecting about their teaching. By listening actively to their accounts, Hiroki-sensei exhibited a dialogic stance to his trainees. Another type of support was responding to ECMs. According to Martinez Agudo et al. (2019), active listening is an important step to the provision of emotional scaffolding. Also particularly noteworthy was that Hiroki-sensei drew upon insights gained from previous events so as to give Haru a chance to demonstrate her ability to contextualize a target structure, which Kana had trouble with. Thus, by creating a chance for Haru to shine, Hiroki-sensei seemed to have succeeded in capitalizing on her strength, which in turn allowed her to gain a positive self-concept in ELT.

What is more, Hiroki-sensei marshalled a variety of tools and resources to help trainees' meaning making. First of all, he often drew his trainees' attention to the video screen. Perhaps this can be considered as a built-in feature of the POF conferencing examined in this study as it involved watching video-recorded microlessons. Thus, this feedback event entailed triadic interaction (van Lier, 2000) where the speaker of the moment and the addressee(s) look at the screen as a focus of their attention as they talked about what they saw in the lessons (see Figure 6.2 representing all the interactions that actually took place in this study). The use of the video afforded the participants the actions of pausing and reviewing the video, highlighting and coding important aspects of the classroom event, pointing at the screen, and paying joint attention. In short, their POF talk which mediated the participants' meaning making was further mediated by the video.

Figure 6.2: Triadic Nature of Video-Mediated POF Interactions



Furthermore, Hiroki-sensei used the written quotation as a tool to frame and mediate his trainees' discussions about their microteaching performances. This can be considered as a case of reification, which refers to "making something ephemeral permanent" (Freeman, 2016, p. 112). In this situation, the quotation as well as the grammar pie chart was introduced and discussed in class, but this might not have been robust enough to promote trainees' appropriation of it. However, by showing them repeatedly as needed in the context of POF conferencing, Hiroki-sensei provided trainees with multiple chances to revisit and use them to reflect on their teaching. To borrow Freeman's (2016) words, the quotation became "reified in activity through explicit attention and controlled use" (p. 112).

In summary, instructor support appears to have been a major part of the trainees' learning through the feedback event. As Mercer (2019) puts it, any interchange between a teacher and his/her regular group of students can be regarded as constituting a long conversation in which the participants find themselves "hearing, and responding to, their own and other voices from previous conversational contexts" (Maybin, 1993, p. 145). Likewise, each POF talk can be considered as part of the long conversation carried out by Hiroki-sensei and his trainees over an extended period of time in various contexts. As reported above, Hiroki-sensei often drew on such shared history in his effort to support his trainees' meaning making and knowledge construction in their POF conferences. The microethnographic analysis of intertextuality/intercontextuality was instrumental in revealing what the participants treated as relevant to their ongoing POF discussion while Scott et al.'s (2006) taxonomy gave valuable insights into whose voices were heard or listened to.

Chapter 7: Trainees' Learning Across POF Conferences and Related Events

Haru's and Takumi's Cases

7.0 Introduction

I have examined thus far the content and process of meaning making within POF conferences. However, all the trainees enrolled in Methods 1 participated in at least five POF conferences over the academic year. In this chapter and the next one, I trace the four focal trainees' learning pathways across POF conferences and related events. Because presenting all the four cases is beyond the scope of a single chapter, I discuss two of the four cases in this chapter and the other two in Chapter 8. As discussed in Chapter 2, my view of pathway draws on Bakhtin's (1986) notion of delayed reaction. As He (2003) pointed out, "[r]eactions and responses of novices are not always immediately observable" (p. 143). Given this view, it then follows that undergraduates learning to teach English may not be able to respond immediately to feedback from their tutors or peers and, as such, it is necessary to look for delayed reactions as signs of their sustained engagement. The analysis presented in Chapters 7 and 8 therefore goes beyond the boundaries of a single feedback event to examine how the trainees engaged with the affordances of POF events over time. This analysis involved going back and forth in time in reading the transcripts of each trainee's POF interactions to identify *tracers—e.g.,* concepts, words, or phrases that traveled across events.

In this chapter, I present Haru's and Takumi's cases. The idea behind this selection is to compare two contrasting cases of L2 professional socialization that involved learning to use pedagogical tools for ELT. Unlike Noelle and Saburo, Haru and Takumi initiated few topics in their first POF conferences. However, they seem to have undergone different degrees of appropriation and personal transformation by their final POF conferences. The term *appropriation* is used in this thesis to refer to the process through which undergraduates adopt the pedagogical tools accessible and usable in their PTE programme and, consequently, internalize ways of thinking associated with particular sociocultural practices (Grossman et al., 1999). Furthermore, drawing on the work of Rogoff (1995)[23], I use the term *personal transformation* to refer to the process through which trainees transform their understanding of what it means to teach EFL through their engagement in POF conferencing and other related activities. In this chapter, I shall first detail Haru's learning in relation to the practice of teacher repetition. I shall then delineate Takumi's sustained engagement with teacher talk, especially its intonation. Each section is divided into sub-sections, based on the pivotal events that constituted the pathway of each student.

7.1 Haru's Learning Across Events

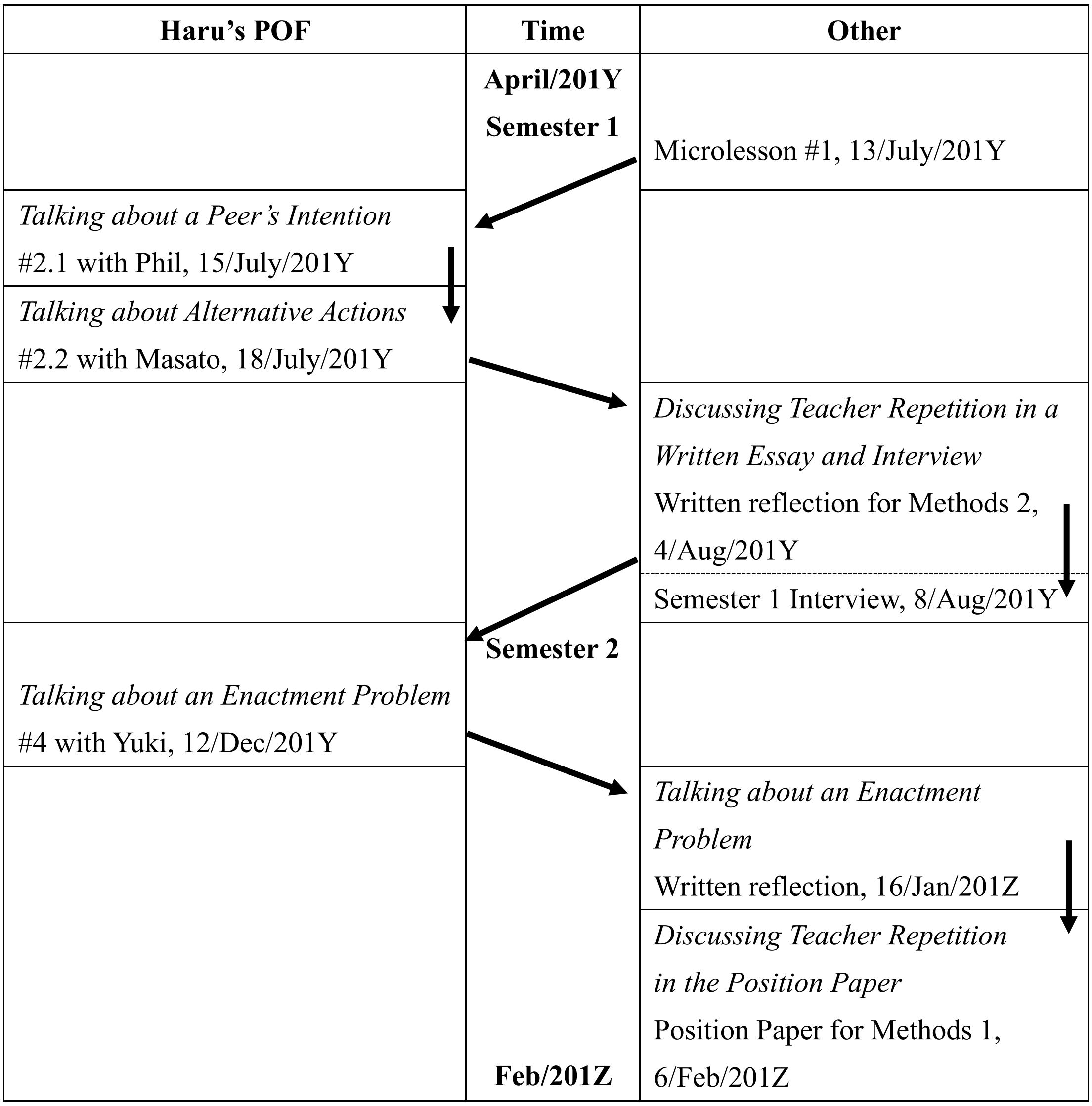
The cross-event analysis has led to the identification of echoing as a tracer (indicated by the enclosing box in the transcripts), which came up at least in three POF conferences in which Haru participated. According to Ur (2012), echoing serves different functions ranging from confirming a response, and ensuring that the whole class hears the response to providing opportunities to "correct and extend the students' response for the benefit of the rest of the class" (p. 233). Haru did not use this particular term, but the term repetition in an everyday sense; however, in the SLA literature, the term repetition is considered as a kind of teacher feedback which is distinguished from expansion and recast. In this thesis, I have decided to adopt Ur’s (2012) definition and name the tracer “teacher echoing” as Haru discussed all of the above-mentioned functions in her POF conferences. Figure 7.1 represents Haru’s learning pathway across events. Each POF conference represented in this figure is accompanied by a timeline to situate it temporally.

---

[23] I am aware that Rogoff (1995) uses the term *participatory appropriation*, however, since I draw on Grossman et al.'s framework of appropriation, I use the term *personal transformation* instead to avoid confusion.

Figure 7.1: Haru’s Learning Pathways

Teacher echoing as a tracer



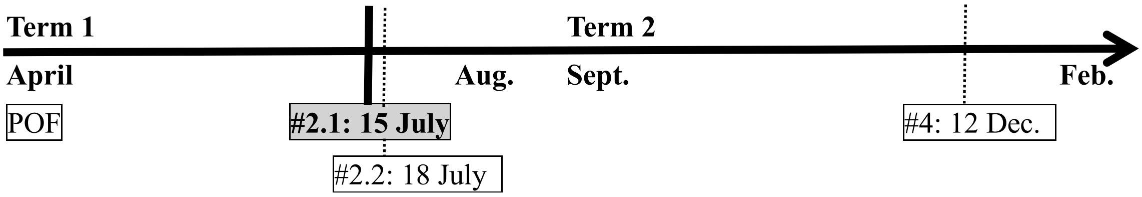
Haru’s POF	Time	Other
	April/201Y **Semester 1**	Microlesson #1, 13/July/201Y
Talking about a Peer’s Intention #2.1 with Phil, 15/July/201Y		
Talking about Alternative Actions #2.2 with Masato, 18/July/201Y		
		Discussing Teacher Repetition in a Written Essay and Interview Written reflection for Methods 2, 4/Aug/201Y
		Semester 1 Interview, 8/Aug/201Y
Talking about an Enactment Problem #4 with Yuki, 12/Dec/201Y	**Semester 2**	
		Talking about an Enactment Problem Written reflection, 16/Jan/201Z
	Feb/201Z	*Discussing Teacher Repetition in the Position Paper* Position Paper for Methods 1, 6/Feb/201Z

7.1.1 Talking About a Peer's Intention

Haru's engagement with the practice of echoing could be traced back to the extra POF session for which she volunteered in the first semester. Episode 7.1 comes from this particular session where they reviewed Phil's microteaching.

Episode 7.1

Haru's POF #2.1 with Phil, 15/July/201Y



Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	((pauses the video)) これど:お?今の何やった¿Phil 君今 ((looking at Haru))	((pauses the video)) what do you think of this? what did Phil do just now? ((looking at Haru))
2		(1.9)	(1.9)
3	Haru	((referring to Koko)) この方が言っ$た:$	((referring to Koko)) what this person said
4	Inst	うん	yeah
5	Haru	答えを she says, (0.7) Miyazato [Ai,	her answer *she says*[24]*,* (0.7) *Miyazato* [*Ai*
6	Inst	[うん	[yeah
7	Haru	played basketball って°繰り返し°	*played basketball* like this he is °repeating°
8	Inst	ど:お? これ:: ((looking at Haru and Phil alternately))	what do you think of this? ((looking at Haru and Phil alternately))
9		(1.0)	(1.0)
10	Inst	いいと思うんだけど[私	it's good [I think.
11	Haru	[うん ((nodding twice))	[yeah ((nodding twice))

---

[24] Italics indicate utterances originally spoken in English.

12	Inst	ど:お¿	what do you think?
13		(0.9)	(0.9)
14	Haru	((nods))	((nods))
15	Phil	((nods twice))	((nods twice))
16	Inst	((looking at Phil)) これ自然- 意識してやったの¿	((looking at Phil)) did you do this intentionally?
17		(0.7)	(0.7)
18	Phil	あ:: 多分. はい.	Ah:: maybe. yes.
19	Inst	それなんで?	why's that?
20	Phil	なんかその: (0.6) やっぱ一対一の- 対話になってるんで=	well erm (0.6) since it was a one-on-one exchange=
21	Inst	=うん	=yeah
22	Phil	ま: 皆にも	well to everyone
23	Inst	うん	yeah
24	Phil	ちょっと聞こえるように	to make it audible
25	Inst	うん	yeah
26	Phil	とか: ちゃんと皆がしっかり=	or so that everyone could certainly
27	Inst	=うん	=mhm
28	Phil	聞けるように[って	hear, [like that
29	Inst	[うん	[mhm
30	Phil	((nodding twice))	((nodding twice))
31	Inst	これ: いいですよね:= <kore: ii desu yone:=>	this is good ri:ght=
32	Haru	=うん ((nodding twice))	=yeah ((nodding twice))

In Line 1, the instructor pauses the video to ask Haru what Phil has just done in his recorded lesson. After a relatively long pause (1.9 seconds), Haru starts to describe Phil's action. In Line 8, the instructor poses a general question, looking at Haru and Phil alternately; however, this did not result in an immediate response, forcing the instructor to change his approach. In Line 10, he made a positive evaluation about Phil's action of *repeating*, which resulted only in a one-word response from Haru. In Line 12, he asks again what they think of Phil's action, which, too, resulted only in minimum responses from Haru and Phil (i.e., nodding). Then, in Line 16, the instructor asks Phil whether it was a conscious choice to repeat what Koko said. This specific question, coupled with the follow-up question (Line 19), led Phil to explain his intention (Lines 20, 22, 24, 26, and 28). This was followed by the instructor's positive assessment of the action (Line 31).

7.1.2 Talking About Alternative Actions

Although Haru's role in Episode 7.1 was limited to describing Phil's action of repeating a student' contribution and agreeing with the instructor, she seemed to have benefitted from this exchange. Excerpt 7.1 represents this whole-class situation where Haru asks the class what a certain egg dish is called in English and why it is called sunny side up.

Excerpt 7.1

Haru's Microteaching #1 as a narrated event of Haru's POF #2.2, 13/July/201Y

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Haru	名前は知ってますか?これの名前	do you know what it is called? the name of this
2		(2.0)	
3	Taku	sunny side up	
4	Haru	sunny side up yes sunny side up ((laughs)) you already know (2.1) this is sunny side up? (1.1) and over easy (1.6) can you guess (0.6) why it is called sunny side up? (0.9) Can you guess (0.8) why it is called - sunny side up. どうして – これが sunny side up と言われているか (0.7) 分かる人(1.0) 勘でいいので	can someone tell us why this is called *sunny side up*. (1.0) you can guess
5		(2.2)	
6	Sabu	°sunny°	

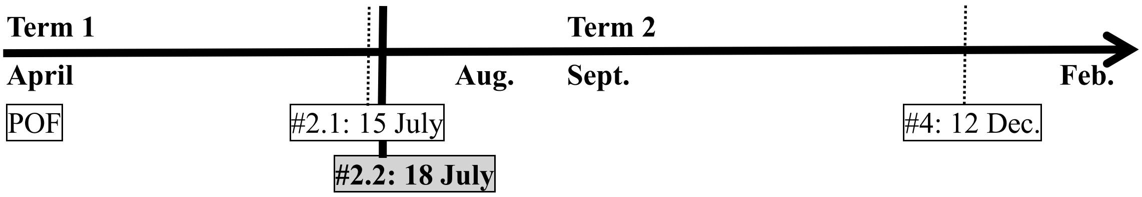
7	Haru	うん？	hmm?
8	Sabu	太陽	sun
9	Haru	AH: THAT’S RIGHT! 焼いた.	fried.

In Line 6, Saburo self-nominates and utters “sunny” softly; however, this is not heard by Haru as indicated by her response in Line 7. Saburo then utters “太陽,” which means the sun.

Excerpt 7.1 became a narrated event of the POF session that took place five days later than the above microlesson. Prior to Episode 7.2, the instructor recounted the exchange between Haru as a microteacher and Saburo as a student (see Chapter 6). Thus, Haru and her POF partner Masato had developed a shared understanding of the problem by the time the instructor initiated the following question in Line 38, which concerned how to avoid a whole-class situation where only part of the class can participate.

Episode 7.2

Haru’s POF #2.2 with Masato, 18/July/201Y



Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
38	Inst	これもしほら:- 聞こえ- ここだけで ((pointing at the screen)) 盛り上が- らないようにするために	here you know if hear- - if you want to do something so that only those students in this area ((pointing at the screen)) will not get excited
39	Haru	うん	yeah
40	Inst	どうしたらいと思う¿ ((looks at	what should you do? ((looks at Masa

		Masa and then at Haru))	and then at Haru))
41		(1.6)	(1.6)
42	Haru	リピートする¿	you repeat?
43	Inst	そうそうリピート大事だと思うんだよね. <so: so: repeat daiji da to omou n da yone.>	yeah yeah repeating is important I think you know.
44	Masa	((nods several times))	((nods several times))
45	Inst	だから THAT'S RIGHT SUNNY the SUN!とかいって it looks like the sun! that's why sunny side - UP ((with gesture)) $だよね.$ ((with gesture)) <$da yone$> ((with gesture))	so you could say *THAT'S RIGHT! SUNNY the SUN!* something like this and *it looks like the sun! that's why sunny side - UP!* ((with gesture)) $you know.$ ((with gesture))
46	Haru	((laughs))	((laughs))
47	Inst	up って上を向いてる	*up* means facing up
48	Masa	うん ((nodding))	yeah ((nodding))
49	Inst	そういう風に言ってもいいかもしれない	maybe you could say that.
50	Masa	((nods several times))	((nods several times))
51	Inst	だからもう一回言ってあげるっていうかね　どう¿言ってあげるとどう¿	so say the same thing again. what do you think? if you say again it, what would happen?
52		(0.7)	(0.7)
53	Haru	聞こえますね= <kikoe masu ne=>	we can hear it=
54	Inst	=聞こえるよねまず <=kikoeru yone mazu>	=we can hear it right? first of all
55	Masa	うん	yeah
56	Inst	聞こえるって効果もあると思うんだよその: 他の人にも - でもう一個あると思うんだよ大事な:= <de moo ikko aru to omou n da yo daijina:=>	making it audible is one effect I think I mean to other people - but I think there's another one something important=
57	Haru	=あとなんか - 言った: -自分が言ったのをなんか認めてくれてた[感	=and also - I would feel that what I said - what I said was accepted.

		じが	
58	Inst	[そうですね　まさに！ <soo desu ne MASANI!>	[right EXACTLY!
59	Haru	うん	yeah
60	Masa	うん	yeah
61	Inst	そう私の意見は:　僕の意見は: 認めてもらえたんだってけっこうそういうメッセージを - hh.なんか暗示的に送れる- から:凄く大事だと思うんだよね.	yeah because the message that my ((feminine)) opinion: or my ((masculine)) opinion: was accepted - hh. can be implicitly communicated it's very important I think.
62	Haru	うん	yeah
63	Masa	((nods several times))	((nods several times))

In Lines 38 and 40, the instructor asks both Haru and Masato what could be done to involve the entire class. After a 1.6-second pause, Haru self-selects to answer "you repeat?" in Line 42. This student's response was followed by the instructor's positive feedback in Line 43. Here it is important to note this IRE sequence is preceded by the rather lengthy exchange presented above, which seems to have served to create a *common ground* (Clark, 1996) needed to address the instructor's question (Lines 38 and 40) and consider alternative actions as a group.

In Line 45, the instructor demonstrates an alternative action. Again not shown in the transcript, both Haru's and Masato's nonverbal behaviors including eye gaze and facial expressions suggested that they observed this modelling attentively. From my perspective, the instructor was providing a model for responding to and building on the student's contribution as well as demonstrating his ability to see the details of interaction. The participants, however, seem to be primarily concerned with the *how* and *why* of repeating students' contributions. The instructor further asks what kind of benefits there might be if students' contributions were repeated, to which Haru answers, "*we can hear it*-ne" in Line 53. Notice Haru's use of the particle *ne* in the first assessment, which indicates that she is treating her answer as a matter of shared knowledge (cf., Morita, 2002). In Line 54, the instructor makes a *yone*-marked agreement with Haru*,* which suggests that he has come up with the same answer independently. The instructor's utterance in Line 56 marks the beginning of another IRE sequence. Here, he invites the trainees to think of another reason why repetition is useful in a whole-class situation (Line 56). Haru then answers that teacher repetition would make her feel that her contribution was recognized. This is positively assessed by the instructor (Line 58), who not only recaps what Haru said with respect to teacher repetition, but also adds a more general explanation for its benefit (as evidenced by the use of the academic term "implicit") in Line 61.

7.1.3 Discussing Teacher Repetition in a Written Essay and Interview

The following is an excerpt from Haru's reflection written for Methods 2, which was submitted on August 4 following the above POF session.

Excerpt 7.2

Haru's Written reflection submitted for Methods 2, 4/Aug/201Y

> I think it will be better to respond to the students. For example, it is better to **repeat** the student's answer. If I don't repeat the student's answer, some students can't hear the answer. Maybe almost all students don't say "please say it again."

Interestingly, Haru chose to write about the importance of repeating her students' contributions although she did not have such opportunities in her Methods 2 microlesson or receive any feedback regarding repetition from Otani-sensei or her peers enrolled in Methods 2. As such, this can be taken as further evidence of her engagement with what she had learned from her previous POF experiences.

The following excerpt from her Semester 1 interview reveals that Haru became interested in repeating partly through her experience of having done *shadowing and summarizing,* a pair activity that involves one student repeating the other's utterances (Murphey, 2007) in Methods 1.

Excerpt 7.3

Haru's Semester 1 Interview, 8/Aug/201Y

Line	**SPKR**	**Original Utterances**	**Approximate Translation**
1	EK	教科法 2 のあの:課題に: repeating が- [大切みたいなこと	in that assignment for Methods 2, you wrote *repeating* is important
2	Haru	[あ: [はい.	[oh: [yes
3	EK	[書いてあったけど,	[or something like that
4	Haru	うん	yeah
5	EK	あれはなんで- なんで repeating 大事だと思った?	what was the reason- why did you think *repeating* was important?
6	Haru	え:: なんか: 裕樹先生が前言ってませんでしたっけ?	umm well: didn't Hiroki-sensei say that before?
7	EK	えっどこでだっけ	oh where was it?
8	Haru	リフレクションの時 Phil くんとやった	during the reflection which I had with Phil
9	EK	あ:: あの時:: 宮里愛関連じゃなかった?	oh:: that session:: something related to Ai Miyazato right?
10	Haru	あそうですそうです！	oh yes yes!
11	EK	それで思ったんだ大事だって	and you thought it's important
12	Haru	そうですね (0.8) それと: 最初の授業でやった活動ですかね:	yes (0.8) and: the activity we did in the first lesson I guess
13	EK	うん?	huh?
14	Haru	え:と (0.9) 昨日やったことお互い 3 つ話して (0.6) リピートしま	well (0.9) let's talk about three things we did yesterday (0.6) and repeat

		しょうみたいな	them or something like that
15	EK	あ:: (0.6) shadowing and summarizing だ！	oh:: (0.6) it's *shadowing and summarizing*!
16	Haru	そうですそうです.	yes yes.
17	EK	あれか:	that one right:
18	Haru	うんあれいいなと思って	yeah I thought that's a good one
19	EK	あ:: そかそか． どこがいいと思う¿	oh I see I see. what aspects of the activity do you think are good?
20	Haru	えっなんだろう． huhu やっぱり: もう一度言ってくれたら嬉しいし	I wonder what. huhu as expected uh: the teacher's repeating makes me happy and
21	EK	う:ん - それはなんで?	yeah - why is that?
22	Haru	う::ん自分が言ったこと聞いてもらえてるんだって	u::mm it makes me feel that what I said was heard.
23	EK	あ: 聞いてもらえてるんだって	oh: you feel that you're heard.
23	Haru	はい	yes
24	EK	そんな風に感じたことある¿今まで	have you ever felt like that? actually
25	Haru	あります! 裕樹先生の授業で huhu	yes! in Hiroki's classes huhu
26	EK	あ:: 英語で活動する時?	oh: when you do activities in English?
27	Haru	あっそれもなんですけど:: -普通日本語で前の授業の復習したりする時とかも	oh that's true too but u:mm - also like when we review previous lessons in Japanese
28	EK	あ:: そっかそっか	oh I see I see
29	Haru	はい.	yes.
30	EK	他にある?	anything else?
31	Haru	あとは: (0.8) やっぱみんなに聞こえるようになるし:: <ato wa: (0.8) yappa minna ni kikoeru yoo ni naru shi::>	a:nd (0.8) as expected you could make students' words audible to everyone.
32	EK	うんうん - 他には?	mhm mhm - anything else?
33	Haru	なんだったけ (0.7) 裕樹先生が言ってたんだよな::	what was it? (0.7) Hiroki-sensei talked about its advantages I remember.
34	EK	うん$言ってましたね:$	yes $he did talk about them.$

35	Haru	huhu[hu	huhu[hu
36	EK	[あっでも自分が思うことで先生がってより	[oh but it’s what you think rather than what the teacher said
37	Haru	う::ん (0.5) 先生が英語で繰り返すと英語で話さなきゃって感じになる.	mmm (0.5) when the teacher repeats what I say in English it makes me feel that I should speak English.
38	EK	あ:: 英語使わないとな:: って感じになる	oh you feel that you should use English
39	Inst	はい.	yes.

To respond to my query about the importance of repetition (Line 5), Haru makes two references: (1) what the instructor said in a previous POF session (Lines 6 and 8) and (2) what she experienced in class (i.e., shadowing and summarizing, Lines 12 and 14), thus engaging in a kind of pedagogical link-making (Scott et al., 2011) discussed in Chapter 2. Haru’s reference to (1) is linguistically evidenced by her use of the particle *kke* (Line 6). Likewise, I used the same particle in Line 7 to ask her to remind me of when Hiroki-sensei talked about repeating. According to Hayashi (2010), this particle “makes implicit reference to knowledge or information previously held by the speaker and shared with the addressee, but which the speaker has somehow forgotten or is unsure about” (p. 2687). Thus, it helps “enlist collaborative participation of the addressee in the process of regaining that knowledge and information” (p. 2987). In fact, Haru and I collaboratively recounted their shared experience, which enabled me to recall the two occasions where Hiroki-sensei talked about repeating (Line 15).

Following up on Haru’s positive comment about the activity, I asked two questions to obtain Haru’s perspectives on the activity (Lines 19 & 21). Through this exchange, it became clear that she considered the instructor’s repeating to affect her emotion positively (Line 20) as it communicates a message confirming that her utterances are actually heard (Line 22). In response to my question in Line 24, Haru states that she has felt the same way in Hiroki-sensei's class, suggesting that her belief about the usefulness of repetition has been formed, at least partially, by her experience in Methods 1. Moreover, in the same interview she said that she was dissatisfied with how she was taught in junior and senior high schools but found it fascinating to experience the communicatively oriented mini lessons that Hiroki-sensei conducted in Methods 1.

In Excerpt 7.3, prompted by the researcher, Haru discusses another advantage of repetition as being instrumental in making students' contributions audible to a wider audience. In Line 31, she uses the adverb *yappa*, an informal variation of *yahari*/*yappari*, which indexes the speaker's assumption that "a critical mass of information" is shared among co-participants (Maynard, 1993, p. 127). According to Maynard (2005), this allows the speaker to give "the impression that what follows is already relevant to the conversation, that what follows is something the partner may also be thinking" (p. 300). Haru's use of *yappa* here seems to invoke the two earlier POF discussions (Episodes 7.1.1 and 7.1.3), which may be serving as common referent points as I have shared the experiences as a participant observer. However, Haru has trouble coming up with more advantages and refers to the fact that Hiroki-sensei has discussed several points in class. While recognizing and acknowledging this intercontextual link, the researcher asked Haru to name only those advantages that she personally considered to be important, rather than listing all possible advantages explained by the instructor (Line 36). Haru then seems to stop trying to recall what the instructor has said and replied that teacher repetition might help create a TL atmosphere in her class (Line 37). In short, while Haru seemed to be aware that the use of teacher repetition could be advantageous in many ways, her understanding seems to be rather superficial in that she could not adapt them to her particular situations on her own.

7.1.4 Talking About an Enactment Problem

Haru not only discussed repetition as an important instructional practice, but also attempted to employ it in her subsequent teaching. Extract 7.1.7 is a part of Haru's third microlesson, which centred around the following quote from a chapter of *Crown English Series II*, a MEXT approved textbook: "As we acquire more knowledge, things do not become more comprehensive, but more mysterious" (Schweitzer, n.d., as cited in Shimozaki et al., 2007, p. 83). Having presented this excerpt from the textbook on a screen and given some time for students to discuss its meaning, Haru is now asking the whole class to share what they talked about. In Line 7, Takumi nominates himself to say "(x) love - love." This is a relatively short answer the relevance of which is not clearly visible. In fact, I wrote in my fieldnotes, "How come she could understand what Takumi meant?" (5 December). However, Haru immediately indicates her understanding of this contribution in Line 8. It later became evident in the POF session that Haru and Takumi had talked about this outside the class.

Excerpt 7.4

Haru's Microteaching #2, 5/Dec/201Y

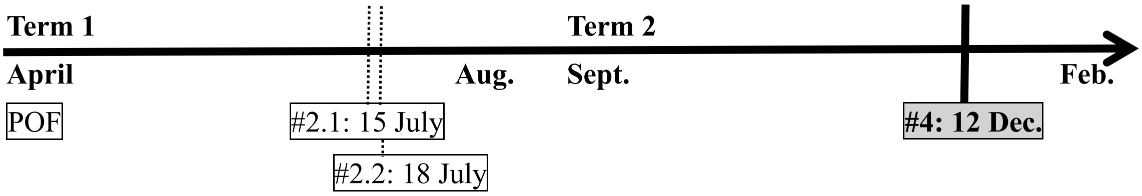
Line	SPKR	Original Utterances
1	Haru	so please (0.6) your answer: (0.7) please share your answer. how about this group?
2	Taku	ah:: [ah::
3	Haru	[Japanese is okay
4		(1.3)

5	Haru	what do you - think?
6	Ohka	((laughs))
7	Taku	(x) love - love
8	Haru	**AH:::**
9	Taku	((laughs))
10	Haru	**you:: (1.3) thought - that deeply.**
11	Ss	((lau[gh))
12	Haru	[good! good job thank you. thank you. ahaha love is- - good.

Excerpt 7.4 became a narrated event in the following POF session (Episode 7.3).

Episode 7.3

Haru's POF #4 with Yuki, 12/Dec/201Y



Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	このさ:: love の話は: - 元々予定に入ってたの¿	was thi::s topic of love: - part of the original plan?
2		(0.4)	(0.4)
3	Haru	あっ入ってなくって::	no it was no::t
4	Inst	うん	mhm
5	Haru	でもあの: さっきの意味: -	but tha:t when I said the meaning -
6	Inst	うん	mhm
7	Haru	"分かる?"って言った時に Takumi が: (0.6) あの:: 解釈の違い言って:: (0.7) 作ってる時にもちょっとこの話: -	"do you understand?" Takumi (0.6) well mentioned difference of interpretation::n (0.7) also when I was making my lesson plan I sort of mentioned this: -

8	Yuki	((pauses the video))	((pauses the video))
9	Haru	Takumi と話: -こういうの作ったんだけど:	I talked with Takumi - I said that I made this
10	Inst	うん	yeah
11	Haru	なんか　ある¿みたいななんか - 見てみ - 見て欲しいって言った時に:	do you have any ideas? something like - when I asked him to look- look at i:t
12	Inst	う::ん	mmm
13	Haru	「このじゃ:: Haru は:: 正義以外何があると思う¿」みたいな話で,	he said something like “then what can you think of other than justice?”
14	Inst	うん	mhm
15	Haru	「あ love とかもあるよね」みたいな話してたのを多分覚えてて: - でその解釈ん時に love って言ったんですよ. <de sono kaishaku n toki ni love tte itta n desu yo>	I said “oh *love* is another topic” and maybe he remembered this and that’s why he said “*love*” when we discussed the sentence.
16	Inst	あっ言ったんだ	oh he did
17	Haru	[はい	[yes
18	Inst	でも他の人は love だけで何の話か分かったかな？	but I wonder if the rest of the group understood what you two were talking about as all they heard was love?
19	Haru	そうですよね: <so: desu yone:>	ri:ght
20	Inst	あそこは文の意味を聞いたんだったよね? <asoko wa bun no imi wo kiita n datta yone?>	in that part you were asking the meaning of the sentence?
21	Haru	そうなんですよ. でも love って言われちゃったから <soo nan desu yo. demo love tte iware chatta kara>	right. but all he said was love.
22	Inst	あっそっか　((laughs))	oh I see ((laughs))
23	Haru	((laughs)) $はい$	((laughs)) yes
24	Inst	で you thought about it deeply みた	and you said something like “you

		いなこと言ったんだ¿	thought about it deeply" right?
25	Haru	は:い 他に思いつかなくって	ye:s I just couldn't come up with any other word.
26	Inst	どうすればよかったと思う¿	what could you have done?
27	Haru	う::んと　なんか:: もう意見が出てきたらリピートして拾おうって思ってて, (0.8) でもなんて言ったらいいのか分かんなくて:	oh we::ll I was thinking that if I get a response, I'd pick it up by repeating it, (0.8) but I wasn't sure what to say:
28	Inst	**あ::** love$って一言だけだったもんね$ <AH:: love$tte hitokoto dake datta mon ne$>	OH:: that's because he only said *love*.
29	Haru	そうなんです.	right.
30	Inst	だとしたらどうしたらよかったかな?	then what could you have done?
31		(1.8)	(1.8)
32	Haru	う:::ん なんだろ	we:ll I wonder what
33		(2.2)	(2.2)
34	Inst	もっと言ってもらったら¿　what do you mean?って	how about asking him to say more? like what do you mean.
35	Yuki	[°あ:: ° ((nodding twice)) <[°ah::° ((nodding twice))>	[°oh::° ((nodding twice))
36	Haru	[あ::: うん ((nodding four times)) <[a::: un ((nodding four times)) >	[oh::: yeah ((nodding four times))
37	Inst	そうしたら repeat しやすくならない¿	that would make it easier for you **to repeat** what he says, wouldn't it?
38	Haru	う:ん　[((nodding three times))	yeah [((nodding three times))
39	Yuki	[確かに.	[sure.
40	Inst	そしたら，他の人たちも - Takumi 君の love が何の話か分かるだろうし	then, the rest of the class would know what Takumi meant by *love*.

In Line 1, the instructor asks Haru whether she planned to deal with love in her microlesson. Haru answers that it was not part of her lesson plan, but reveals in Lines 7, 9 and 11 that she talked about this with Takumi when she asked him to look at her lesson plan. Haru goes on to reveal that Takumi asked Haru what could be something that "becomes mysterious" other than justice as "we acquire more knowledge" (Line 13) and that she answered that love might be another example (Line 15). Notice Haru's use of the interactional particle *yo* in Line 15, which indicates that she is claiming epistemic primacy (Hayano, 2011) concerning the topic, in this case, superior knowledge of why Takumi said "love" in response to her question.

Having established common understanding of the situation, the instructor asks in Line 18 whether the rest of the class understood what they meant by simply hearing the brief exchange between Takumi and Haru shown in Excerpt 7.4. Haru's use of *yone* in Line 19 indicates that while she is agreeing with the same level of intensity, she has become aware of the problem on her own (Hayano, 2011). In Line 20, the instructor asks a closed question to confirm Haru's intention behind showing the excerpt from the textbook, to which she answers using the *rare-chatta* form, a compound of the indirect passive "*rareru*" and the modal "*shi cha tta.*" The former suggests that a given action was unexpected and inconvenient while the latter implies a regret over something that should or should not have been done (Akatsuka, 1994). As Iwasaki (2013) put it, these two forms are often used together "to enhance the evaluative meaning ascribed by the speaker" (p. 301). Thus, Haru's response in Line 21 suggests that she found Takumi's one-word reply unexpected and inconvenient, thus regarding it regrettable as it did not address what she had asked (i.e., the meaning of the excerpt).

The instructor in Line 24 does a confirmation check, which directs Haru's attention to the reason behind the action. In Line 25, Haru confesses that she did not know any other way of responding to Takumi's contribution. In Line 26, the instructor asks what alternative action she could have taken, which did not result in Haru's articulation of an alternative action, but allowed her to explain that she intended to repeat Takumi's contribution. In Line 30, the instructor asks again what she could have done, which was followed by two relatively long pauses (1.8 and 2.2) sandwiching the I-wonder-what reply. In Line 34, the instructor suggests that she make a clarification request to elicit more utterances. This suggestion seems to be well accepted by both Yuki and Haru, who employed the change of state token ("a::" translated as "oh::": see Hayano, 2011; see also Chapter 5) and nodded multiple times. In short, although Haru wanted to repeat Takumi's contribution, she could not do so in such a way as to involve the entire group. In her written reflection, she discussed her need to improve her ability to speak English spontaneously as follows: "I spoke what I prepared for the class, but I couldn't speak well while I was thinking" (16/Jan/201Z).

7.1.5 Discussing Teacher Repetition in the Position Paper

Excerpt 7.5 is taken from Haru's position paper written for Methods 1 at the end of the academic year.

Excerpt 7.5

Haru's Position Paper for Methods 1, 6/Feb/201Z

Original Text	**Approximate Translation**
私は文法をなるべく説明よりも例をたくさん出す方法で教えたいです。なぜなら、中学生に形容詞とか副詞とか言ってもよくわからなくて逆効果だと思います。具体的に例を出して会話させたり、ジェスチャーで説明したりした	I would like to teach grammar by giving many examples rather than by explaining it. This is because I think that it would be counterproductive; if I used terms like adjectives and adverbs, I would only confuse junior high school students. I would provide my students with

いです。そこで覚えた英文の形をしっかりとアウトプットさせなければいけないと思います。((lines omitted)) しかしそのような授業を行うには教師の英語力が必要不可欠です。生徒が伝えたいことをしっかりと英語で言い換えてあげなければなりません。	specific examples and chances to talk about them and use gesture to convey meaning. I believe that I should give them opportunities to produce newly learned target structures. ((lines omitted)) However, to conduct such lessons, it is indispensable for teachers to be proficient in English. They should be able to recast what they want to say in grammatically accurate English.

Once again, Haru stressed the need for teachers to recast their students' contributions in grammatically accurate English. Also, asked about this position paper in the Semester 1 interview, Haru explained that she found it challenging to provide oral recasts because they needed to be done on the spot. In other words, she thought that the spontaneous nature of oral recasts would require high proficiency in English. However, both her writing and interview lacked explicit discussion of potential benefits that the use of teacher repetition would bring to her situation.

To summarize, the cross-event analysis revealed Haru's sustained engagement with the practice of repeating, which here encompasses recasting as well. Her first encounter with this practice in the context of POF conferencing was her third POF session for which she volunteered to view Phil's microteaching as a peer participant. Nominated by the instructor, she articulated an advantage of revoicing in a particular context. By this time, she had considered teacher repetition including revoicing as an effective way of acknowledging student contributions. This positive view seems to have originated partly from her fascination with Hiroki-sensei's interactive teaching style as well as partly from her dissatisfaction with the English lessons that she had experienced in high school. As such, Haru embraced the idea of teaching English mainly through

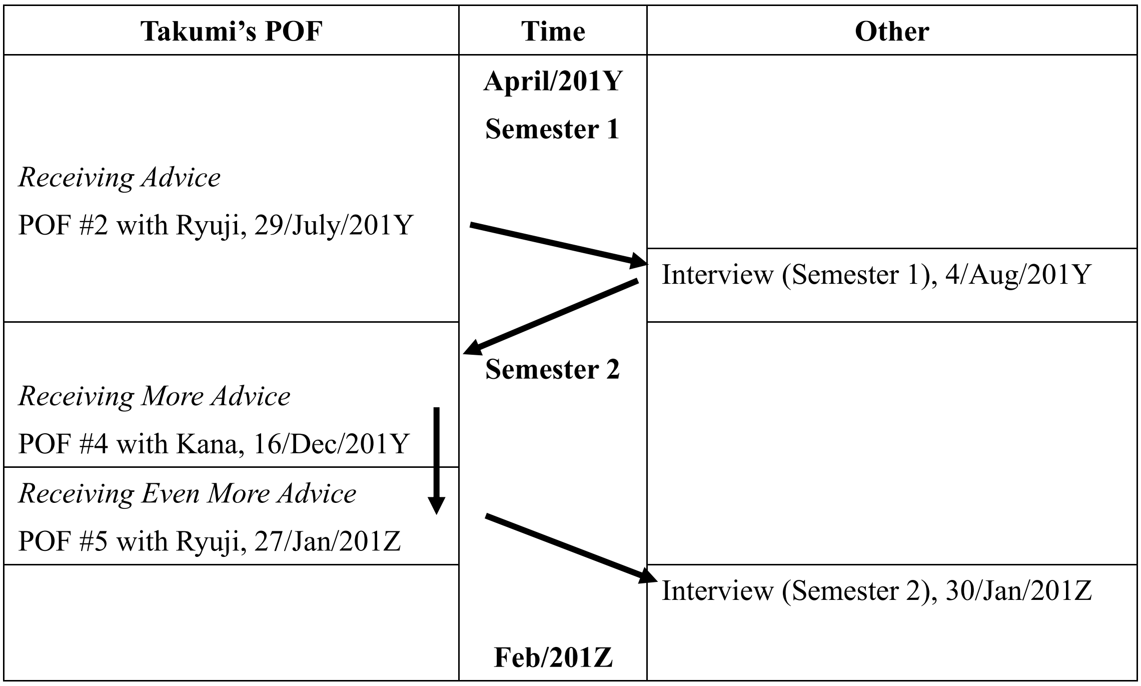
English from the beginning of the academic year. In her third microteaching, Haru wanted to recast Takumi's one-word contribution to make it more complete but she did not know what to do. Although she knew what Takumi meant, her lack of ability to speak fluent English prevented her from recasting and expanding his contribution in such a way that the rest of the class could understand it without any prior knowledge of what he meant. In other words, she had a problem enacting her imagined practice.

7.2 Takumi's Learning Across Events

The cross-event analysis of Takumi's POF talk has helped identify intonation as a major tracer. Underlying this, however, was a major shift in Takumi's view of ELT, which concerns the medium of instruction and teaching style. Figure 7.2 shows Takumi's learning pathway across events.

Figure 7.2: Takumi's Learning Pathways

Intonation as a Tracer



Takumi's POF	Time	Other
Receiving Advice POF #2 with Ryuji, 29/July/201Y	**April/201Y** **Semester 1**	
		Interview (Semester 1), 4/Aug/201Y
Receiving More Advice POF #4 with Kana, 16/Dec/201Y	**Semester 2**	
Receiving Even More Advice POF #5 with Ryuji, 27/Jan/201Z		
	Feb/201Z	Interview (Semester 2), 30/Jan/201Z

7.2.0 Exploring the Use of L1 and L2 to Reconsider the Medium of Instruction[25]

For Takumi, the first microlesson that he planned with Saburo was the very first microteaching experience. Both Saburo and Takumi mostly used English to teach the jointly planned lesson. When asked about the reason for this choice in his first interview, Takumi answered that they used English simply because that was what the pairs before them had done in the previous week. After the lesson, he thought that this lesson had gone well until he reviewed and talked about it in POF1. One thing that Takumi realized was that he spent too much time explaining. He then conducted his micro-lesson for Methods 2 entirely in Japanese, although he was well aware of the "English-mainly" policy stated in the *Course of Study*. This was also at odds with many of the values and practices promoted in the methods courses. (e.g. presenting target structures in meaningful contexts, providing opportunities for students to practise L2 structures). He wrote in his reflection that "The reason why I decided to use Japanese more than English is that I thought explanation can go smoothly in Japanese" (4/Aug/201Y). He was fairly satisfied with this lesson, but, through written feedback and POF conferencing, he came to realize that his lesson lacked TL exposure as suggested by the following reflection:

> as classmates commented, students only touch English from their eyes. When I watched the video, I found students did not hear, speak, and think in English. According to these facts, I think that greeting, questions, and interaction in English are needed to teach English effectively. If I have next time to do microteaching, I want to use English more. (Takumi's written reflection for Methods 2, 4/Aug/201Y)

---

[25] I have numbered this sub-section 7.2.0 because it is intended to provide background information to contextualize Takumi's learning pathway to be presented in the following sub-sections. Thus, it is not included in the above figure.

At his Semester 1 interview, Takumi commented that he had found this realization meshed with what he had learned in his SLA course, especially Krashen's (1982) Input Hypothesis.

Another source of influence on Takumi's view of teaching was Hiroki-sensei's teaching style. In the following extract from the interview, Takumi is discussing what kind of teaching is expected of those enrolled in Methods 1.

Excerpt 7.6

Takumi's Semester 1 Interview, 4/Aug/201Y

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Taku	本当に - なんだろ ahaha ((moves right hand back and forth))	what is it - really ahaha ((moves right hand back and forth))
		((9 lines omitted))	
10	EK	インター[アクション?	inter[action?
11	Taku	[あ- インターアクションですね [もう	[oh interaction it is [yeah
12	EK	う::ん	m:m
13	Taku	生徒と:	with students
14	EK	うん	mhm
15	Taku	対-	dia-
16		(0.6)	(0.6)
17	EK	対話しながら¿	through dialogue?
18	Taku	対話しながらって言うのが - 裕樹先生の授業にも:[それが	teaching through dialogue is - in Hiroki-sensei's lessons: [that's
19	EK	[う:ん	[mh:m
20	Taku	現れていると=	what is reflected=
21	EK	=あ:[:::	=oh:[:::
22	Taku	[思います. は[い	[I think. y[es
23	EK	[そう	[oh yeah
24	Taku	はい	yes
25	EK	じゃ::あの::先生の::え::と授業のスタイルから[:	the::n: we:ll from his umm teaching sty:[le

26	Taku	[はい	yes
27	EK	模擬授業に: (0.6) ん:: 真似したいな:と思うところが	do you think there's anything you'd like to take away for your microteaching
28	Taku	hh.	hh
29	EK	ある¿	is there?
30	Taku	一:杯あります[はい	there is a lo:t [yes
31	EK	[あ:: そう	[oh:: yeah
32	Taku	やっぱり - なんだろ本当に教科書をほとんど使わずに	as expected - what can I say really with rarely using[26] the textbook
33	EK	$うん$	mhm
34	Taku	$凄いなんか$ はい生徒と本当にずっと会話しながら進めて -	$great somehow$ yes he proceeds conversing with students all the time
35	EK	うん	mhm
36	Taku	いく感じなんでね: 本当に interaction が多い -[し	like tha:t really lots of *interaction* - and
37	EK	[う::ん ((nodding))	[mh::m ((nodding))
38	Taku	はい 教師 - がば[::って	yes rather than the teacher -
39	EK	[うん	[mhm
40	Taku	言うんじゃなくて	speaking continuously
41	EK	う::ん	mh::m
42	Taku	って言うところが: やっぱり大きい - 違いだと思います.	is what distinguishes his teaching I think
43	EK	う:[::ん	m:[::m
44	Taku	[はい.	[yes.

In Line 1, Takumi has trouble coming up with an appropriate expression, so he uses a hand gesture instead. In the lines omitted, Takumi kept using the hand gesture, and I jokingly said to him, "That's why we need video-recording." Having seen Takumi's hand gesture, I make a confirmation check, uttering "interaction" with a rising intonation in Line 10. Takumi immediately agrees with this in Line 11 and then starts to discuss Hiroki-sensei's teaching style (Line 13). In Line 15, he utters half of what seems to be the word dialogue. I then build on this by incorporating it into the phrase "through dialogue." Takumi's uptake in Line 18 indicates that the researcher's guess was right. Here, Goffman's (1981) notions of *autho*r and *principal* are of great relevance. The former refers to someone who has selected the content and form of utterances whereas the latter refers to "someone whose position is being established by the words that are spoken, someone whose beliefs have been told, someone who is committed to what the words say" (p. 144). Because Takumi initially had difficulty finding words for what was on his mind, I provided him with some words (i.e., interaction, dialogue) which I thought would help him express his thoughts. While I contributed to the authoring of Takumi's response to my question about what kind of teaching the instructor expected the trainees to do, Takumi was the principal of the utterances.

---

[26] A post-interview member-check suggested that what Takumi meant here was "without being constrained too much by the textbook" or "without relying too much on the textbook."

Despite the initial difficulty, Takumi was able to articulate clearly what he liked about Hiroki-sensei's teaching, suggesting that the instructor lived out his educational values in his daily teaching of ELT and SLA and expected his trainees to do the same. In Lines, 25, 27, and 29, I make a statement to confirm if there is anything about the instructor's teaching that he would like to emulate with a rising intonation. Takumi upgrades this by adding the adverb *ippai* (i.e., a lo:t) produced with elongation and stress (Line 30). This excerpt suggests that, by this time, Takumi was inspired by the instructor's interactive teaching style, which is not constrained too much by the textbook (Line 32). In fact, he incorporated a few discussion questions into his first presentation in the SLA course. Also, rather than simply evaluating his classmates' responses, Takumi commented on and justified them. This type of sequencing is called

Initiation-Response-Follow-up (rather than evaluation as in IRE), which, according to Nassaji and Wells (2000), provides a broader range of possibilities in terms of how the subsequent interaction unfolds (see also van Lier, 1996). Hiroki-sensei highly praised Takumi's use of this sequencing in the post-presentation feedback (transcript not shown here). Takumi mentioned at his Semester 1 interview that, although given in Japanese, this presentation was a good chance to think what it was like to make his speech interactive.

In short, Takumi described Hiroki-sensei's teaching as proceeding "through interaction/dialogue/conversation[27]" and without relying too much on the textbook, and clearly indicated his desire to emulate the interactive style. This, coupled with his desire to increase target language input, would mean that Takumi needed to change his teaching dramatically as he had conceived ELT as teaching grammar though explanation in L1. It is against this background that the following cross-event analysis should be understood.

7.2.1 Receiving Advice

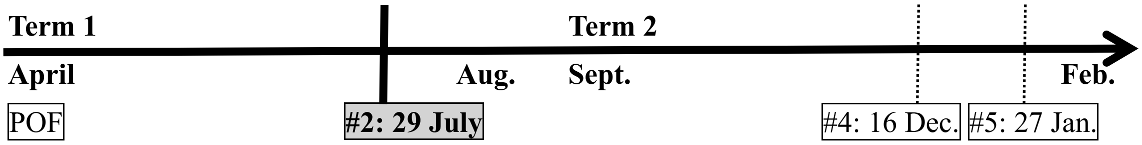
One major challenge that Takumi faced as a microteacher was to speak clearly with varying or exaggerated tones and stress, a major feature of teacher talk (see Chaudron, 1988, for one of the earliest discussions). This topic first came up in the POF session following his second micro-lesson, which took place in July.

---

[27] These words are used interchangeably here.

Episode 7.4

Takumi's POF #2 with Ryuji, 29/July/201Y



Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	ちょっと止めてもらっていい¿	can you please pause it?
2	Taku	はい　はい　haha　はい	yes yes haha yes
3	Inst	((to Ryuji)) なんか思う　頷いてたけど	((to Ryuji)) what's on your mind? you're nodding.
4	Ryuji	えっと:　hhh=	well: hhh=
5	Taku	=はい	=yes
6	Ryuji	岩屋君だけじゃないですけど皆さんあの - 大切なところにこうアクセントがないって言うか	it's not only about Takumi[28] but everyone well - many people put no stress on important parts.
7	Inst	あ::	oh::
8	Ryuji	[Ame:rica とか Japa:n とかこう	[like *Ame:rica* or *Japa:n* you know
9	Inst	あ::	oh::
10	Ryuji	Amy とか	or *Amy*
11	Inst	あ::	oh::
12	Ryuji	伝わってこないって言うか　ペラペラペラシュワシュワっていっちゃってるから:	they don't get through to me I mean they speak too rapidly and smoothly so:
13	Taku	あ:::	oh:::
14	Inst	そうだね あとは:: もうちょっと相手を意識して抑揚つけてもいいかもしれない.	right also:: a little more attention could be paid to the intonation to make your speech more varied.
15	Ryuji	うん ((nodding))	yeah ((nodding))
16	Taku	はい	yes

---

[28] Here, Ryuji is referring to Takumi formally as Iwaya-kun (i.e., family name + kun, see Chapter 4) as he is speaking to the instructor. At the same time, his use of the suffix *kun* indexes the hierarchical (*senpai-koohai*) relationship between Takumi and himself. However, to avoid confusion, I have replaced the original term with Takumi.

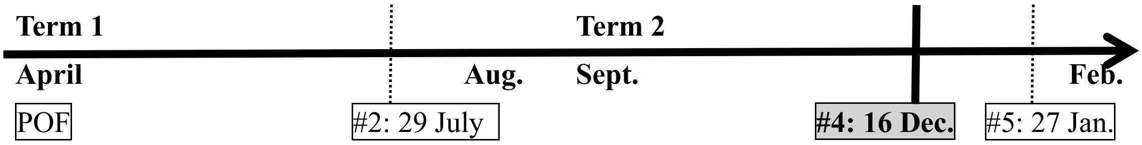
It was Hiroki-sensei who actually started the exchange in Episode 7.4 by asking Takumi to pause the video in Line 1; however, it becomes evident in Line 3 that this request was made in response to Ryuji's earlier head nods. In Line 6, Ryuji first declares that what he is going to say does not only concern Takumi, suggesting that it is a concern for everyone. This seems to be a strategy to mitigate the face-threatening nature of speech acts such as advising, suggesting and evaluating (Brown & Levinson, 1987), equivalent to *going general* (Waring, 2017) discussed in Chapter 2. In fact, Ryuji points out that Takumi lacks word stress (Lines 6, 8, 10, and 12). In Line 14, the instructor agrees with Ryuji and suggests that more attention be paid to intonation as well. Here, Takumi's role is limited to reacting to and accepting this advice.

7.2.2 Receiving More Advice

In Episode 7.5, Takumi is reviewing his microteaching with Hiroki-sensei and his partner Kana. Having watched a segment where Takumi gave lengthy directions in English, the instructor asked Takumi and Kana whether high school students could follow them, and both of them agreed that the directions needed to be changed.

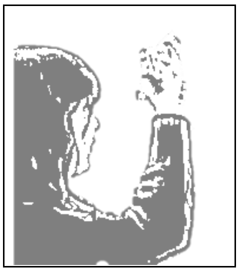
Episode 7.5

Taku's POF #4 with Kana, 16/Dec/201Y



Line	SPKR	Original Utterance	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	これ:: (1.5)どうしたらいいかね:	this:: (1.5) I wonder what could be done:
2		(1.3)	(1.3)

3	Kana	hh.	hh.
4	Taku	う[:ん	we[:ll
5	Kana	[うん わ- 私だったら: まぁこのスライド一枚でポンポンって説明したいんだったら: うんとね: Takumi くん凄い声が大きくて凄いいいなと[思ったから	[mm I- I wou:ld well if you’d like to use this slide to explain the procedure: well: your voice is well projected and I thought it was good so
6	Taku	[ehehehe	[ehehehe
7	Inst	うん	[yeah
8	Kana	もっとこ- あたしも苦手なんだけど: 声の調子を変える¿ なんかじゃこの: じゃスピーカーはこうでした.↑じゃぁさ:みたいな ↑じゃ次はさ:みたいになると:	[more- I’m not good at this either: vary voice inflections? well you know thi:s speaker was you know like this.↑ the:n something like this.↑ then ne:xt if you could speak like thi:s
9	Taku	うんうん ((nodding))	mhm mhm ((nodding))
10	Kana	なんかおっまた違うのかって	your students would think oh it’s a new topic
11	Inst	うんうん	uh-huh
12	Kana	じゃ今度こっちになるけどみたいな感じでこう	then the next thing is to this you know like this
13	Taku	うんうん	mhm mhm
14	Kana	声の調子を変えてあげる. Takumi 君は声がおっきくて凄く指示も分かり易いんだけど <Takumi-kun wa koe ga okkiku te sugoku shiji mo wakari yasui n dakedo>	you could change your intonation. Takumi, your voice is well projected and your instruction is easy to follow, but
15	Taku	有難うございます((bows slightly))	thank you. ((bows slightly))
16	Kana	あの (1.1)こういう((moving right hand horizontally)) 	well (1.1) like this ((moving right hand horizontally))

17	Taku	一定	monotone
18	Kana	あっそうそうそう!=	oh yeah yeah yeah!=
19	Taku	=[あ:: <[=*a::*>	=[oh:::
20	Inst	=[あ: たしかにね. <=[*a: tashika ni ne.*>	=[oh: right.
21	Kana	そうあたしもそう- そうなんだけどさ[:	yeah I'm like- like that too thou[:gh
22	Taku	[いえいえいえ	[*no no no*
23	Kana	日本語: 結構こうじゃん((moving right hand horizontally)	Japanese sounds pretty much like this right, ((moving right hand horizontally))
24	Taku	はい	yeah
25	Kana	けどなんか　もっともっとこういう感じ((moving hand up and down)) – 	but you know more more like this ((moving right hand up and down))
26	Taku	うんうん	yeah yeah
27	Kana	にして: あの: いいと思う=でもっとね: たぶん緊張してたんだと[思うんだけど:	you could speak like thi:s you I guess=and more: perhaps you were nervous [I suppo:se
28	Taku	[uhuhu ahaha $はい$	[uhuhu ahaha yes
29	Kana	楽しく楽しくやって大丈夫.	doing it merrily merrily is okay.
30	Taku	はい	yes
31	Kana	だと思うよ	that's what I think.
32	Taku	はい.	yes.

In Line 1, the instructor asks the two what they could do to improve the directions. In Line 5, Kana begins to discuss what she would do if she used one slide like Takumi did; however, she soon digresses to compliment Takumi's voice volume.

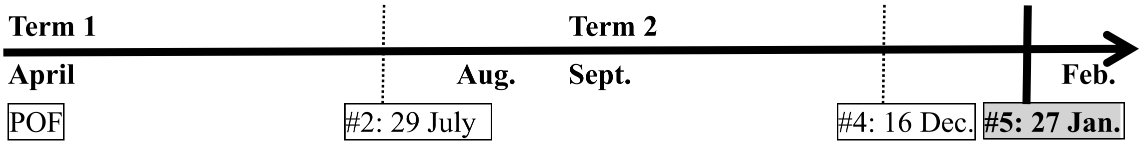
This seems to be another instance of the going general (Waring, 2017) strategy. In Line 8, Kana first states that she is also not good at what she is going to suggest. By positing herself as lacking the skill, she is making the speech act less face threatening. Kana then suggests changing voice inflections depending on topics and demonstrates how to do this in Japanese. In Line 14, she recaps the point and starts to compliment Takumi's voice volume and clear directions; however, her use of the clause-final-V-*kedo* foreshadows negative feedback. In fact, Kana delivers such feedback through her utterance and hand movement in Line 16 (see the still image). Takumi's response in Line 17 clearly shows his understanding of her message. Moreover, his use of the change-of-state token *a::* in Line 19 suggests that he sees its relevance to his teaching performance. In Lines 23 and 25, Kana uses hand gesture (see the still image) to contrast the sound patterns of Japanese and those of English, suggesting that Takumi should make his speech more varied in terms of intonation and stress. She adds in Line 29 that he could teach "merrily," implying that by changing his intonation, he could make his lesson more engaging. Again, Takumi seems to play a somewhat limited role here: back-channeling (Lines 9 and 13), appreciating Kana's positive comment (Line 15), providing a word for what Kana meant by her hand gesture (Line 17), signaling understanding (Line 19), denying Kana's self-downgrading (Line 22), agreeing (Line 24), and accepting Kana's advice (Lines 28, 30, and 32). However, by no means does this mean that Takumi was assuming a passive attitude toward improving his teacher talk. In fact, he revealed later in the same POF conference that he had practised his teacher talk while soaking in a bathtub paying particular attention to his intonation and stress. As such, his apparently passive responses reflected his complete respect for and agreement with Kana's advice. Takumi explained in his Semester 2 interview that he respected her so much that he had asked her to be his partner for the third microteaching assignment in order to learn from her.

7.2.3 Receiving Even More Advice

Episode 7.6 comes from Takumi’s final POF session that took place in January. His partner was again Ryuji, who reviewed his second microlesson (i.e., Reteach) in July (see Episode 7.4). This time, Takumi and Ryuji jointly planned and taught the lesson.

Episode 7.6

Takumi’s POF #5 with Ryuji, 27/Jan/201Z



Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Ryu	((smiles)) $ここもうちょっと行けたよね$ ((smiles)) <koko moochotto ike ta yone> ((smiles))	((smiles)) $here you could have gone a bit further couldn’t you.$ ((smiles))
2	Taku	((smiles and nodding)) $う:ん$ - $なんか$- aha - [aha	((nodding)) $yeah yeah - well$ ahaha
3	Inst	[£どういうこと?　ちょっと-どういうこと?£	£what’s going on? wait - what’s going on?£
4	Taku	あの::	we::ll
5	Inst	£ちょっと£	£wait£
6	Ryu	$もうちょっと行けたよね$ <koko moochotto ike ta yone>	$you could have gone further couldn’t you.$
7	Taku	£もうなんか£=	£well anyhow£=
8	Ryu	=$超::練習したの[に:$	=$what a pity we practised it so:: much [right!$
9	Taku	[$もうなんか飛んじゃって - 本当$	[$anyhow it was all gone - really$

		((9 lines omitted))	
18	Inst	えっ? どういう風に - イメージしてたの - ここでは	yeah? how did you imagine doing it here
		((3 lines omitted))	
22	Ryu	[あとは: あの練習の時点で, 岩屋君の: ね ((looks at Takumi)) <ato wa: ano renshuu no jiten de, Iwaya-kun no: ne ((looks at Takumi))	[also: at the time of rehearsal, Iwaya-kun's, right? ((looks at Takumi))
23	Taku	((nods twice))	((nods twice))
24	Ryu	話し方とかが: ずっと今まで僕見てきて:	way of talking or: as I have seen it:
25	Inst	うん	mhm
26	Ryu	淡々としてたりだとか抑揚がないっていうのがあったんで - それちょっと指摘して: - もっとさ: オーバーにやってさ: - って言ったら	sounded monotonous or lacked intonation so I pointed that out and advised him to exaggerate his tone of voice but
27	Inst	うん	mhm
28	Ryu	$全部戻っちゃってるの$ hahaha	$it was all reset unfortunately$ hahaha
29	Inst	ahahaha [￡いつもの:￡	ahahaha [regular
30	Ryu	[(全然) $おいって思って$ - そうそうそう	[(completely) $I was like hey.$ - yeah yeah yeah
31	Taku	も:: - 全部飛びました　アドバイスしてくださったの全部 - 飛んで,	it was all gone! all the advice he gave me was gone,
32	Inst	ahahahaha	ahahahaha
33	Taku	普通の - 授業になっちゃったっ[ていう	it became my usual lesson unfortunately [that was
34	Inst	[haha でもそれ気づい- ここでは気づいてないよね - [自分で	[haha but you weren't- here you weren't aware of that were you - [by yourself
35	Taku	[気づいてないですねもうなんか -	[no I wasn't.
36	Ryu	俺たぶんこの辺でお::いって言ってると[思いますよ　((laughs))	perhaps around this time I was saying he::y [I think ((laughs))

In Line 1, Ryuji nominate himself to suggest that Takumi could have done a little better. By using the interactive particle *yone*, he is inviting Takumi to comment. Notice that he smiles and speaks in a joking tone,[29] which signals that he is being humorous. Takumi aligns with Ryuji nonverbally through smiles and laughing voices, indicating they have a shared understanding of the situation. Hiroki-sensei then asks the trainees "what is going on" twice. No sooner had Takumi started to respond than Ryuji reinitiated the original *yone*-marked comment again, inviting Takumi to respond (Line 6). Takumi then starts to respond laughing hard, onto which Ryuji latches his utterance referring to the fact that they practised Takumi's part in friendly banter. In the next several lines, which are not shown here, they kept laughing. In my observation, this seemed like genuine laughter, rather than laughter to mitigate the awkwardness of the negative feedback.

In Line 18, Hiroki-sensei asks Ryuji and Takumi to describe how they imagined doing the particular part of the lesson. Three lines later, Ryuji starts to tell the instructor what he considered to be problematic features of Takumi's performance: namely, sounding monotonous and lacking intonation. In Line 22, he uses the interactive particle *ne*, thus communicating his assumption that the topic is shared. Takumi aligns nonverbally in Line 23. In Lines 26 and 28, Ryuji reveals that his advice was not at all reflected in Takumi's actual microteaching performance. As his use of elongation and stress suggests (Line 31), Takumi admits that he has completely failed to enact what he practised with Ryuji. Importantly, Takumi was not aware of this failure in the narrated event despite the negative feedback that Ryuji was trying to send privately by whispering in Line 36.

---

[29] These could be seen as resources to mitigate the face-threatening act; however, my later conversations with them suggested that they both found it funny that Takumi completely failed to incorporate what they had practised together.

Takumi brought up lack of intonation in his second interview conducted at the end of the academic year. Because of this self-initiation, I included this event as a pivotal event in his pathway. When asked what areas in his teaching needed improvement, Takumi tells that he lacks English proficiency (Line 3) needed to teach English in English including intonation (Line 7). His smiley voice serves as a contextualization cue indicating that what he is saying is meant not to be taken too seriously as well as that he knows that I have been in the POFs where this has been discussed at lengths. My laughter in Line 8 indicates affiliation and alignment (Glenn & Holt, 2013), which leads to Takumi's confession in a laughing voice that his peers' advice about intonation has been occupying his mind (Line 9). In the next two lines, Takumi and I reciprocate each other's laughter, suggesting that we were having an intersubjective understanding of the situation (i.e., lack of intonation as a recurrent problem). In Line 19, Takumi goes on to discuss what to improve: namely, his ability to communicate his meaning using a variety of expressions. Importantly, he makes an intertextual link to what Hiroki-sensei said in class (Lines 23. 25, 27, 31).

Excerpt 7.7

Takumi's Semester 2 Interview, 30/Jan/201Z

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Taku	やっぱり<as expected>自分に今足りていないのが	what do I need to improve now is
2	EK	うん	mhm
3	Taku	もう英語力	English proficiency
4	EK	うん	mhm
5	Taku	英語で教える - スキルが: 教える	skills in teaching English through

		スキルが圧倒的に足りてない	English - that's what is overwhelmingly lacking.
6	EK	うんうんうん	mhm mhm mhm
7	Taku	もう抑揚もそう$です[し: $	which of course includes intonation $you [know$
8	EK	[AHAHAHA	[AHAHAHA
9	Taku	£もう本当にもうず::っと残ってるんです£=もう抑揚をつける!	£it's really been stuck in the back of my mind ever since£=I need to use intonation!
10	EK	£もう - もう - もうずっとずっと残って£	£it's - it's - it's been stuck in the back of your mind ever since£
11	Taku	£もうず::と残ってて£　huhu	£it's been stuck in the back of my mind ever since£ huhu
12	EK	うん	mhm
13	Taku	抑揚をつける	use intonation
14	EK	うん	mhm
15	Taku	もそうですし:	as well as
16	EK	うん	mhm
17	Taku	もう幅¿	repertoire
18	EK	うんうん	mhm mhm
19	Taku	自分の発話の - 幅って言うんですか?	repertoire of my utterances if you like?
20	EK	うんう::ん	mhm mh:m
21	Taku	裕樹先生がおっしゃってたのは	what Hiroki-sensei said was
22	EK	うんうん	mhm mhm
23	Taku	一つのことに対して三つの言い方を持つっていう	to have three ways of expressing one thing
24	EK	うんうん	mhm mhm
25	Taku	まぁそういう - こと　- だから色んな言い方ができるように	well something like - that - so to be able to use different expressions
26	EK	う::ん	yeah
27	Taku	うん	yeah
28	EK	そうだね	right
29	Taku	伝える力みたいなのを:	like the ability to communicate
30	EK	う::ん	yeah

31	Taku	もっと: 伸ばしたい	I want to improve more
32	EK	そっか.	I see.

Additionally, although not included here, in the same interview, Takumi made important intertextual and intercontextual links. First, he said "I want to be able to modulate my voice. Since I focused most of my attention on the "what" of my speech, I want to be able to attend more to the "how" and pronunciation" (30/Jan/201Z). This utterance invokes Levelt's model, which he talked about in his final POF, and therefore evidences his appropriation of the theory. Also, Takumi referred to the two POF conferences with Kana; the first conference where he was impressed by Kana's ability to use English intonation to emphasize her main points and the second one where he re-recognized the gap between her performance and his own in terms of intonation. Takumi also said that he re-read the notes that he took during these sessions to prepare for his final microteaching, and that "*intonation was my key word*" (30/Jan/201Z). These suggest that Takumi was actively engaged in the process of meaning making through POF sessions despite his seemingly passive role limited to receiving feedback from his older partners (i.e., *senpai*).

In summary, the cross-event analysis helped identify lack of intonation as a major tracer which is instrumental in tracing Takumi's learning pathway over time. Advised by his POF partners on multiple occasions, Takumi attempted to address this problem in his microteaching. Although he faced the problem of enacting his ideal plan, he seems to have undergone a major conceptual change as a microteacher, from teaching as explaining to teaching through interaction. This shift led him to realize that he should increase TL exposure in his class, which in turn meant that the use of varying intonation would be of greater importance. Takumi tried hard to put his understanding of these concepts into practice although he had difficulty performing his teacher talk in the way that he had imagined. As such, his experience can be considered as a case of appropriating conceptual underpinnings in the framework proposed by Grossman et al. (1999).

7.3 Summary

In this chapter, I have traced Haru's and Takumi's learning pathways over time. While their pathways both concerned learning to use the pedagogical tools for ELT, they entailed different degrees of change and appropriation. Haru's sustained engagement with the practice of repeating students' L2 contributions was congruent with her prior conception of ELT and were further supported by the instructor's interactional practices in the Methods course. Thus, this part of Haru's socialization was a relatively smooth process of confirmation despite the enactment problem that she experienced in her third microlesson. However, her appropriation of the practice of echoing seemed to be limited to its surface features as she did not exhibit any signs of critical understanding of how teacher repetition might benefit her students' learning in either her interview or writing.

In contrast, Takumi's learning pathway involved a much more complex process of personal transformation and a deeper level of appropriation. He engaged in a sustained manner with his L2 intonation as it was a topic that recurred across POF events. However, Takumi had learned in his apprenticeship of observation that ELT was solely a matter of explaining grammar in Japanese. This was at odds with the communicatively oriented approaches that the instructor was trying to promote in accord with the *Course of Study*, which aims to develop students' communicative competence in English. Through a series of "experiments" and trials and errors, Takumi came to the realization that his Methods 2 microlesson provided students with such little TL exposure that he should use more English in class, which was supported with his newly gained knowledge of SLA. At the same time, having experienced the instructor's interactive teaching style as a student in his Methods and SLA courses, Takumi had a growing desire to make his own teaching interactive. These changes seem to underlie Takumi's sustained focus on intonation.

Furthermore, Haru's and Takumi's learning pathways seemed to have been guided and shaped more or less by what they experienced and observed in their PTE courses. In their interviews, both trainees often referred to Hiroki-sensei's words and teaching style as well as to their own experience in the methods course and others. Haru referred to a particular activity that she had experienced in Methods 1 and Hiroki-sensei's explanation of the activity. Likewise, Takumi made intertextual and intercontextual references to the instructor's words regarding the importance of being prepared to have at least three ways of expressing the same meaning as well as to his interactive approaches to teaching and learning practised on a regular basis in his teacher training courses. These references indicate what the focal trainees oriented to and thus what they counted as relevant to their learning of ELT.

Chapter 8: Trainees' Learning Across POF Conferences and Related Events

Noelle's and Saburo's Cases

8.0 Introduction

As "twin" chapters, Chapters 7 and 8 both trace trainees' learning pathways over time, identifying tracers. While Chapter 7 focuses on Haru's and Takumi's cases of appropriating pedagogical practices of ELT (i.e., echoing for Haru and the use of intonation for Takumi), this chapter focuses on Noelle's and Saburo's cases to illustrate how the appropriation of pedagogical practices involved the appropriation of academic concepts, such as the Output Hypothesis and scaffolding. Academic concepts are so named "because they are formed during the students' learning of academic knowledge at school" (Haenen et al., 2003).

Like Chapter 6, this chapter draws on Scott et al.' s (2011) notion of pedagogical link-making. Noelle's and Saburo's cases both demonstrate how they came to link academic concepts covered in their coursework (i.e., SLA) and everyday concepts deriving from their microteaching experiences in the ELT Methods courses and other PTE courses (e.g., TEYL Methods) which had strong practical components. While still concerned with the trainees learning how to use pedagogical practices of ELT, this chapter foregrounds the appropriation of academic concepts and the ensuing link-making processes involved in their professional discourse socialization as future teachers of EFL, which is conceptualized here as the process of becoming members of the profession of ELT in Japan. As the subsequent analysis demonstrates, both Noelle and Saburo made explicit use of an SLA theory in their POF talk and written reflections. Moreover, because Noelle's and Saburo's learning pathways consist of not only their

POF sessions, but also other naturally occurring class-related events and activities, such as informal conversations, review discussions, and lesson preparation, the usefulness of examining the latter's relationships with the former is more salient here than it is in Chapter 7. In what follows, I examine Noelle's and Saburo's experiences in turn.

8.1 Noelle's Learning Across Events

The cross-event analysis of Noelle's transcripts has allowed me to identify the use of classroom English (CE) as a major tracer. As will be seen later, Noelle's learning pathway entailed linking her experience using CE with Swain's (1995) Output Hypothesis.

Figure 8.1: Noelle's Learning Pathways

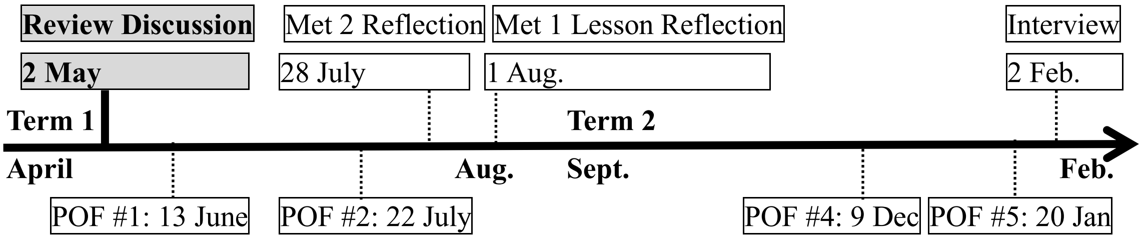
Use of classroom English as a tracer

Noelle's POF	Time	Other
	April/201Y **Semester 1**	Talking about the Previous Class 2/May/201Y
		Receiving Feedback Informally From Peers
Talking About Her Intention Behind Introducing a Classroom Phrase #1 with Haru, 13/June/201Y		
Talking About Her Intention Behind Introducing a CE Expression #2 with Koko, 22/July/201Y		
		Discussing Her Desire to Use More English in Class Written reflection submitted for Methods 2, 28/July/201Y
		Writing about the Importance of L2 Production Lesson Reflection, 1/Aug/201Y
Receiving Advice About Learner Training in Classroom Communication #4 with Ryuji, 9/Dec/201Y	**Semester 2**	
Talking About Her Intention Behind Using a New Expression #5 with Masato, 20/Jan/201Z		
	Feb. 201Z	*Talking About Her Intention Behind Using a New Expression* Semester 2 Interview, 2/Feb/201Z

8.1.1. Talking About the Previous Class

Excerpt 8.1 comes from one of the class sessions of Methods 1, which typically started with a review discussion where trainees orally shared what they had learned from the previous class. Noelle and Haru are talking about CE, more specifically, the importance of being able to express the same meaning in at least three different ways (Lines 3-10). In the previous lesson, the class brainstormed expressions for different classroom situations (e.g., trying to help the class to settle down, praising students), and Hiroki-sensei advised the class to have a good repertoire of CE expressions and to keep expanding it. Noelle's and Haru's utterances in the following excerpt show their orientation to this advice.

Excerpt 8.1


Review Discussion
2 May
Met 2 Reflection
28 July
Met 1 Lesson Reflection
1 Aug.
Interview
2 Feb.
Term 1
Term 2
April
Aug.
Sept.
Feb.
POF #1: 13 June
POF #2: 22 July
POF #4: 9 Dec
POF #5: 20 Jan

In Class Review Discussion, 2/May/201Y

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Noelle	あれじゃない¿なんかさ:一つのさ:	wasn't it like one you kno:w
2	Haru	うん	mhm
3	Noelle	表現 - を[さ:	expression you kno:w
4	Haru	[うんうん	[mhm mhm
5	Noelle	３つぐらい[のさ:	about three [you know
6	Haru	[うん	[uh-huh
7	Noelle	違う方面から言えるような[言い回しを	different ways of saying - [expressions
8	Haru	[ね: <[NE:>	[INDEE:D

9	Noelle	覚えてた方がいいみたいなの	should be remembered something like that
10	Haru	うんうん	mhm mhm
11		（2.9）	(2.9)
12	Haru	でも大事だよね <demo daiji da yone>	but it is important isn’t it
13	Noelle	確かに.	certainly
14	Haru	なんか同じこと言っちゃいそうだもんね. <nanka onaji koto icchai soo da mon ne[30].>	well we might keep saying the same thing right?.
15	Noelle	**ね:** **[NE:]**	INDEE:D
16	Haru	毎回.	every time.
17	Noelle	あでもさ:なんかさ: - 同じこと言えるぐらいさ:	well but if we learn expressions so thoroughly that I can express the same meaning differently
18	Haru	うん	mhm
19	Noelle	ポンて中に入ってればいいけどさ:	it would be great
20	Haru	うん	mhm
21	Noelle	いざ教壇に立ったらさ:	when we actually teach a lesson:
22	Haru	うん	mhm
23	Noelle	なんか - 慌てちゃうじゃ:ん	we would probably panic you know
		((5 lines omitted))	
29	Noelle	一時間を無事に終わらせられることが自分のまだなんか目標みたいになっちゃうからさ:やっぱり難しいよね <yappari muzukashii yone>	completing the lesson without any problems would still be my goal so as I thought it it’s difficult, isn’t it.
30	Haru	ね:! <NE!>	indeed!
31		(3.7)	(3.7)

---

[30] Just like the particle *yo*, *mon* indicates “a sense of insistence in asserting a claim” (Hayashi, 2003, p. 30). Thus, *yone* and *mon ne* can be considered equivalent.

32	Noelle	だよね: <da yone:>	right?
33		(2.5)	(2.5)
34	Noelle	でもさクラスルームイングリッシュぐらいはさ:	but at least classroom English should be
35	Haru	うん	mhm
36	Noelle	やっぱりさ:頭の中に入れててさ:	as I thought: kept in our heads and
37	Haru	ん:ん: <n: n:>	mhm mhm
38	Noelle	どっから(.)なんかポーンていって出ればさ:	if it comes out naturally from somewhere:
39	Haru	うん	mhm
40	Noelle	授業もスムーズにいくよね: <jugyoo mo sumuuzu ni iku yone:>	our lessons would go smoothly, wouldn’t they?
41	Haru	ね:! <NE:!>	indeed!

In Lines 12, 14, and 16, Haru expresses her agreement with Noelle’s reasoning, stating that, without conscious effort to learn CE, they might simply use a limited number of expressions repeatedly. In Line 15, Noelle shows her agreement using the particle *ne* but in an utterance-independent manner (Saigo, 2011). In Line 17, Noelle discusses the importance of having CE at their disposal, indicating her acceptance of the instructor’s advice. Noelle holds the conversational floor until Line 40 while Haru displays her listenership—her attention and comprehension through the use of backchannels (e.g., “mhm,”) as well as her agreement with the use of the particle *ne*. In short, this excerpt shows that both Noelle and Haru oriented to the instructor’s advice regarding CE as important.

8.1.2 Receiving Feedback Informally From Peers

From her first microteaching, Noelle was eager to help her students use CE. When Masato, a peer acting as a student, volunteered an answer, she encouraged him to say "let me try" before saying the answer. As Masato failed to follow her direction, she persisted in encouraging him. Immediately after this microteaching, Noelle received what Kurtoglu-Hooton (2016) calls *confirmatory feedback* from her peers. This type of feedback lets microteachers know which particular behaviors and skills they are developing along the "right" (or socially valued) lines. Excerpt 8.2 is an extract from my fieldnotes about the informal conversation.

Excerpt 8.2

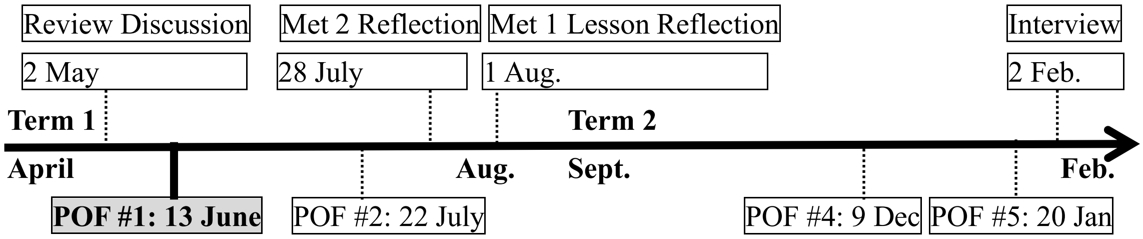
Informal Talk

> After the class is finished, Noelle approached Takumi and Saburo and asked them what they thought of her MT. Takumi said laughingly that he thought she was brave enough to force Masato to use the phrase "let me try." Noelle replied jokingly, "I know. It's crazy, right?" I thought that this exchange was interesting because it might tell something about how they see Masato. Saburo said to Noelle, "It was great that you never gave up, and I thought the timing of the introduction was also very good." Noelle replied jokingly. "Good! I did tried hard." (fieldnotes)

Admittedly, my interest at the time of writing this entry lay in the fact that Noelle forced Masato, an older peer, to use the English phrase because age is believed to be a major factor in dividing people into the aforementioned categories of *senpai*, *koohai*, and *dooryo* in Japan. As mentioned in Chapter 4, Masato's address term suggested that he was considered to be the most distant *senpai* in class. Seen in this light, it was indeed "brave" for Noelle to force Masato to use the phrase albeit acting as a teacher. However, having identified CE as a tracer through my cross-event analysis, I now see Saburo's second comment as more relevant as it is of a similar kind to the instructor's feedback in the following episode. In short, this brief conversation can be seen as informal POF talk that constitutes a part of Noelle's learning pathway.

8.1.3 Talking About Microteacher Intention Behind Introducing a Classroom Phrase

Episode 8.1


Review Discussion
2 May
Met 2 Reflection
28 July
Met 1 Lesson Reflection
1 Aug.
Interview
2 Feb.
Term 1
Term 2
April
Aug.
Sept.
Feb.
POF #1: 13 June
POF #2: 22 July
POF #4: 9 Dec
POF #5: 20 Jan

Noelle's POF #1 with Haru, 13/June/201Y

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	その let me try って言わせるっていうのは決めてたの　もともと心の中で決めてて:	well had you decided to have your students use *"let me try?"* already determined:
2	Noelle	let me try を言わせたかった[んで	I wanted to have them say *"let me try"* [so
3	Inst	[もう前からね.その場で思ったんじゃなくて？	[so you had decided. you didn't come up with the idea at that moment?
4	Noelle	じゃなくてです.	no I didn't.
5	Inst	うんうん	mhm mhm
6	Noelle	えっなんか他の先週の授業やってるときにみんな手を挙げる時=	hmm, well during the previous lesson when everyone raises his/her hands,=
7	Inst	=うん	=mhm

8	Noelle	何も言わずにこういう風に((raises her hand))そのまま手挙げててだったらこれはって思って	without saying like this ((raises her hand)) they kept their hands up so I thought this was
9	Inst	うん	mhm
10	Noelle	であたしも児童英語やってるときに始めて言うとき let me try ていうのを学んだんで=	and I also learned from my TEYL class that you can say *"let me try"* before saying something so=
11	Inst	=うん	=mhm
12	Noelle	じゃこれはチャンスって思って=	I thought then this might be a good chance=
13	Inst	=うん	=mhm
14	Noelle	思って使いました.	=thinking like that, I used it.

The instructor is asking Noelle whether she had already decided to have her students use the phrase. Her responses in Line 2 and 4 clearly indicate that she had planned to introduce the phrase in the microlesson. In Line 6, Noelle starts to narrate what motivated her decision. She saw her peers acting as students raising their hands to answer teacher questions without saying anything. She further explained after Episode 8.1 that they looked rather passive to her. She then thought that it would be a good chance to introduce the phrase "let me try," which she had learned from her TEYL course. It was based on this observation that motivated Noelle to introduce the phrase.

A few minutes after the above exchange, the group was watching a segment in which another student used the phrase "let me try" to take a turn. Episode 8.2 occurred shortly after Noelle commented that she was happy to see that.

Episode 8.2

Noelle's POF #1 with Haru, 13 June/201Y

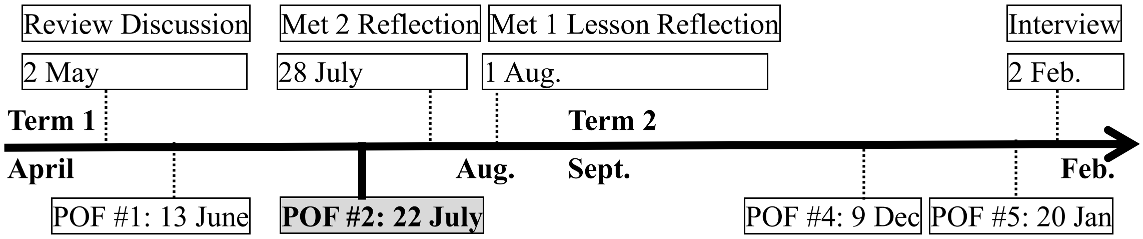
Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	その場で導入するのはい- 凄くいいと思うよ. <sono ba de doonyuu suru no wa i- sugoku iito iito omou yo>	introducing the expression at that moment is go- very good I think.
2	Haru	((nods four times))	((nods four times))
3	Noelle	((nods quickly four times))	((nods quickly four times))
4	Inst	その:本当にその表現が使えるその場で導入してるわけだもんね?	we:ll you're introducing the expression in the very situation where students can use it right?
5	Noelle	そうなんです. ((smiling and nodding))	that's right. ((smiling and nodding))
6	Haru	((nods twice))	((nods twice))
7	Inst	うんやっぱりこういう努力が大切ですね (0.5) 生徒が - なんて言うかな, 授業で使える表現 - う:ん授業に参加するための表現って言った方がいいかな - そういった表現を増やす手伝いをするっていうか.	yeah as expected this kind of effort is important isn't it (0.5) students - how can I put this, helping them increase expressions that they can use in class - or maybe it's better to say expressions to participate in class - help them increase those expressions.
8	Noelle	はい.そういうのこれからも$やっていきたいな::$って思います.	yes. I would like to continue that kind of thing.
9	Inst	是非是非! ((smiles))	absolutely! ((smiles))
10	Noelle	((smiles))	((smiles))

Here, Hiroki-sensei is giving confirmatory feedback. Notice Hiroki-sensei's use of the particle *yo* (Line 1), which indicates the speaker's epistemic authority over the proposition and "does not require any confirmation or approval from the hearer" (Morita, 2002, p. 227). Here, the use of *yo* positions the confirmatory feedback as non-negotiable although affiliative. Noelle and Haru display their strong agreement through multiple nods (Lines 2 and 3). Noelle further indicates her alignment with Hiroki-sensei as he discusses the reason for the positive assessment (Line 4) and reiterates the importance of helping students enhance their repertoires of expressions (Line 7). Noelle's announcement of her willingness to keep expanding her CE repertoire (Line 8) receives further encouragement from the instructor (Line 9). This entire exchange can be taken as a sequence of confirmatory feedback as it functions to let Noelle know that she was moving in the right direction.

8.1.4 Talking About Her Intention Behind Introducing a CE Expression

Noelle introduced a set of paired phrases in her second microlesson, which involved her raising her right hand obliquely. Prior to the following episode, the instructor asked Noelle to stop the video and explain what she had just done in the microlesson. Koko responded that it was a technique that they learned in their TEYL course.

Episode 8.3


Review Discussion
2 May
Met 2 Reflection
28 July
Met 1 Lesson Reflection
1 Aug.
Interview
2 Feb.
Term 1
Term 2
April
Aug.
Sept.
Feb.
POF #1: 13 June
POF #2: 22 July
POF #4: 9 Dec
POF #5: 20 Jan

Noelle's POF #2 with Koko, 22/July/ 201Y

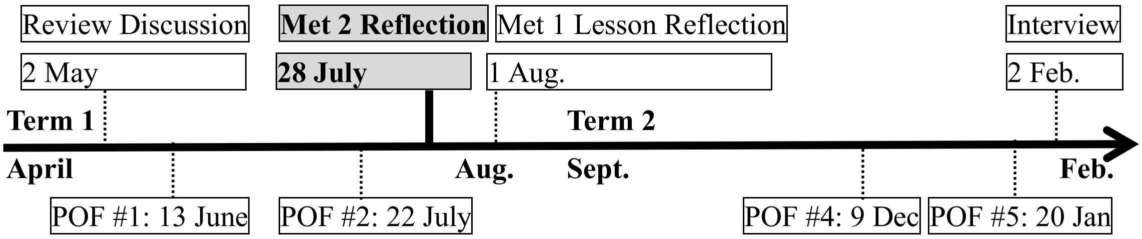
Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	あっ - じゃ:さっき - 1 回目: are you ready?って普通に言って: - 反[応が	oh - then a few minutes ago - for the first time you said *"are you ready"* in a usual tone but their rea[tion was
2	Koko	[あっ反応ない	[oh none
3	Inst	薄[かっ	we[ak
4	Noelle	[反応がなくって:でしかもなんか - みんななんかよく分かんないことしてて: -	[no reaction and u:mm also they were - all acting in a weird manner
5	Inst	((nods))	((nods))
6	Noelle	なんかもうなんかこう: ((looks down)) [なってたりとか	well umm well doing like thi:s ((looks down)) [and
7	Inst	[あっ -	[oh -
8	Noelle	だら:んみたいな	they were lolling
9	Inst	だから - ゆっくり	that's why you slowly
10	Noelle	ほんとに[大丈夫:¿-	I said "are you really [okay?"
11	Inst	[しゃべった	[spoke
12	Noelle	みたいな[感じで	like [this
13	Inst	[((nods deeply three times))	[((nods deeply three times))
14	Noelle	で "ready じゃないよね"[って言う意味を込めて - "are you ready?" って言いました.	and meaning "you are not really *ready* aren't you" - I said *"are you ready?"*
15	Inst	[((nods several times))そういうことね	[((nods deeply three times)) that's what it was.

In Line 1, the instructor started to narrate what Noelle did. Koko completes his utterance in Line 2, and Noelle starts to speak almost at the same time as the instructor's uttering of "weak" to take over the floor. She introduced the paired phrases to check her students' readiness to move on to a new activity; however, she figured from some of her students' posture and body orientation that they were not being responsive (Lines 4, 6, and 8). She then discusses her intention behind her repeating the question and enunciating it, which was to communicate that they did not seem ready to move on. Importantly, after the above exchange, Noelle reminded the instructor that the phrase "let me try" also came from the same TEYL course, thereby linking it to the paired expressions.

8.1.5 Discussing Her Desire to Use More English in Class

Subsequently, Noelle discussed her view of CE in her reflection written for Methods 2.

Excerpt 8.3


Review Discussion
2 May
Met 2 Reflection
28 July
Met 1 Lesson Reflection
1 Aug.
Interview
2 Feb.
Term 1
Term 2
April
Aug.
Sept.
Feb.
POF #1: 13 June
POF #2: 22 July
POF #4: 9 Dec
POF #5: 20 Jan

Noelle's Written Reflection submitted for Methods 2, 28/July/201Y

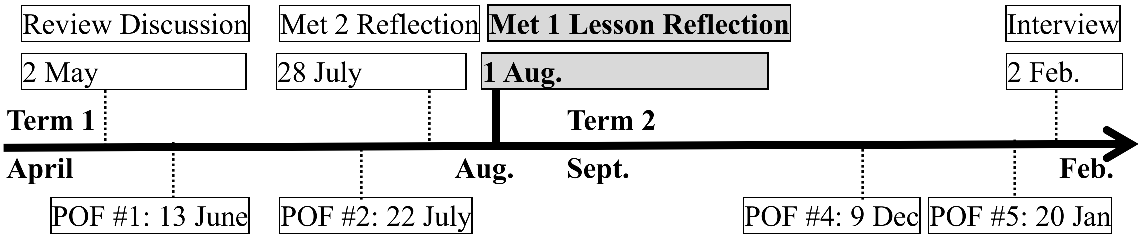
> I want to use more English during class because I think classroom English is very important to learn communicative English. Actually classroom English is impossible to learn by textbook… and I would like to show more simple conversation for example…if we show complicated example it might cause students' confusion.

This can be summarized in two major points: (1) her desire to increase the use of English in class so as to help her students learn English for communication and (2) the importance of showing simple examples to illustrate clearly what students are expected to learn.

8.1.6 Writing About the Importance of L2 Production

In her essay written for the SLA seminar, Noelle discussed the importance of having chances to produce L2 output. As will be seen in section 8.1.7, Noelle drew on this theory in her POF conference to discuss her microteaching experience.

Excerpt 8.4


Review Discussion
2 May
Met 2 Reflection
28 July
Met 1 Lesson Reflection
1 Aug.
Interview
2 Feb.
Term 1
Term 2
April
Aug.
Sept.
Feb.
POF #1: 13 June
POF #2: 22 July
POF #4: 9 Dec
POF #5: 20 Jan

Noelle's Lesson Reflection: Discussing the Output Hypothesis in writing, 1/Aug/201Y

英語科教育法Iの授業と第二言語習得論の講義でも先生が言っていましたが、アウトプットした時に初めてフィードバックがもらえるという点が私の中ではとても「たしかに」、「なるほど」と思いましたが、留学の時も「この時ってたしかこの表現ではなかったか？」または、「この表現で伝わるのかな」という気持ちででもやはりもったいないと思ったのでたくさん話すことを心がけました…	*As Hiroki-sensei said in ELT Methods 1 and SLA, it clicked like “sure” and “I see” when I learned that it is not until you produce output that you get feedback, and also when I studied abroad, I tried to talk a lot because I thought I didn't want to spend too much time thinking “in this case, I wonder if I should use this expression” or “Would I make myself understood by using this expression?”…*

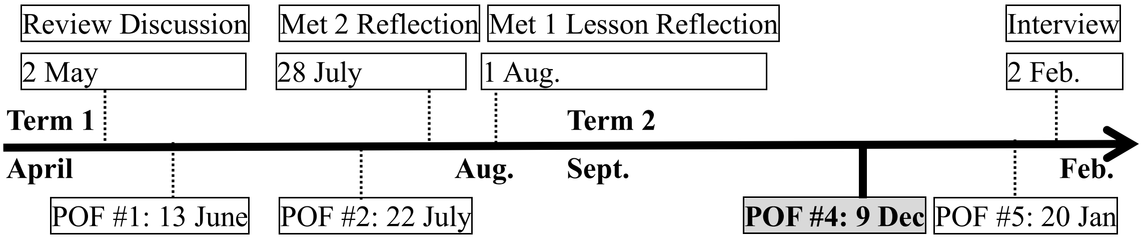
Hiroki-sensei talked about the Output Hypothesis on several occasions in both Methods 1 and SLA during the academic year, but only on one occasion in Semester 1 did he explain what Swain (1995) referred to as the “hypothesis testing” function of output. In a nutshell, this part of the theory posits that production of L2 output allows learners to test hypotheses against feedback from interlocutors. During his lecture in

Semester 1, Hiroki-sensei switched to English and directly quoted Swain as saying "[b]ecause you said it, you get feedback" (18/April/201Y). The above writing evidences Noelle's orientation to this quotation. In short, Noelle successfully appropriated the academic concept (i.e., output hypothesis) to reason about her use of CE in teaching.

8.1.7 Receiving Advice About Learner Training in Classroom Communication

In her POF session with Ryuji, Noelle shared her concern that her students were not very responsive. Having heard this, the instructor asked her to pause the video.

Episode 8.4


Review Discussion
2 May
Met 2 Reflection
28 July
Met 1 Lesson Reflection
1 Aug.
Interview
2 Feb.
Term 1
Term 2
April
Aug.
Sept.
Feb.
POF #1: 13 June
POF #2: 22 July
POF #4: 9 Dec
POF #5: 20 Jan

Noelle's POF #4 with Ryuji, 9/Dec/201Y

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	ちょっと止めて．ごめんね．	please pause the video. sorry
2	Noelle	((stops the video))	((stops the video))
3	Inst	あれかもね　こうなった場合どう思う？そのやっぱ do you- did you hear とかやってたじゃない?　あれってある意味さっき言ってたように　ちゃんと聞いてるかどうか確認したかったってことでしょ？	maybe in this case - what you do think? well as expected you were saying something like *do you- did you hear* right?
4	Noelle	((nods three times))	((nods three times))
5	Ryuji	((nods))	((nods))
6	Inst	声がちっちゃいだけじゃなくてね	not just to see if the volume of your voice was too soft right?
7	Noelle	((nods twice))	((nods twice))

8	Inst	それこそ “let me try”じゃないけど反応する練習みたいなのをちょっと取り込む	that indeed is just like when you introduced *“let me try”* incorporating some kind of practice to help students react.
9	Noelle	ん: ((smiling and nodding))	mhm ((smiling and nodding))
10	Ryuji	んん ((nodding))	mhm mhm ((nodding))
11	Inst	そういうのも必要かもしれないよね¿ そのある意味 learner training って言うんだけど	something like that may be necessary you know? well in a sense we call *learner training* and
12	Noelle	ん: ((nodding))	mh:m ((nodding))
13	Inst	まぁその会話とかコミュニケーションっていうのは:	well umm conversations and communication
14	Ryuji	((starts to take notes))	((starts to take notes))
15	Inst	まぁ一方的なものじゃなくて:やっぱりあなたの反応があっての話なのでっていうのを分かってもらえるようななんかね	well are not one-way and as expected depend on “your reaction” so we need something to help students see that you know
16	Noelle	ん::	mhm
17	Inst	ちょっとそんなのを定期的にウォームアップに入れるとか	something like that could be incorporated regularly into the warm-up phase.
18	Noelle	ん:	mhm
19	Ryuji	ん:	mhm
20	Noelle	そうですよね <soo desu yone>	that’s right.

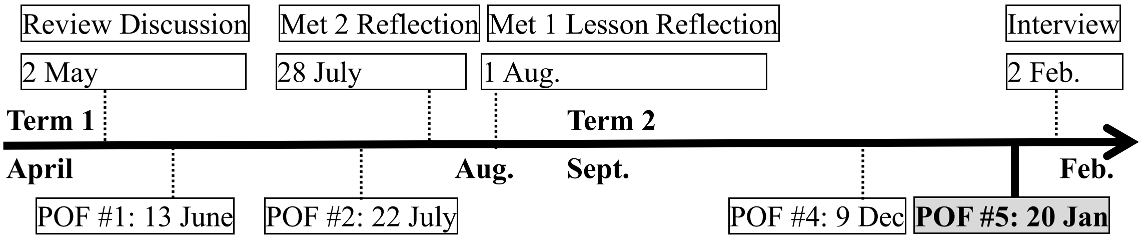
After checking his understanding of Noelle’s intention (Lines 3 and 6), Hiroki-sensei starts to give advice. His reference to the phrase “let me try” invokes Noelle’s first microteaching and its POF session (Episode 8.1), which is recognized and acknowledged by Noelle with smiles and head nods. This intercontextual link seems to be socially consequential in two ways: (1) helps Noelle and Ryuji have a better idea of what it is that the instructor is talking about, and (2) reconfirms the usefulness of

Noelle's past action (i.e., introducing a CE phrase at the very moment her students needed it). Noelle's response to Hiroki-sensei's suggestion (Line 20) includes the particle *yone*. This implies that she has been thinking along similar lines herself, and that the instructor's suggestion regarding incorporation of learner training in CE might have served as confirmatory feedback.

8.1.8 Talking About Her Intention Behind Using a New Expression

The topic of improving CE came up again in her final POF session. In the following episode, Noelle self-nominated to inform the co-participants that she had made some changes to her CE. Her utterance in Line 3 suggests her willingness to learn to use new expressions in her teaching. The instructor asks her to give an example in Line 4, and Noelle answered that she used the phrase "go ahead" instead of "start" in her final Microteaching (Lines 5 and 11).

Episode 8.5


Review Discussion
2 May
Met 2 Reflection
28 July
Met 1 Lesson Reflection
1 Aug.
Interview
2 Feb.
Term 1
Term 2
April
Aug.
Sept.
Feb.
POF #1: 13 June
POF #2: 22 July
POF #4: 9 Dec
POF #5: 20 Jan

Noelle's POF #5 with Masato, 20/Jan/201Z

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Noelle	今回の:クラスルームイングリッシュちょっと変えたところがあって:	this ti:me I made some changes to my classroom English a:nd
2	Inst	あ:そう?	oh: YEAH?

3	Noelle	なんかまた新しいのをやってみようと思って調べたりとかしてて:	thinking I'd try something new, I was doing some search:
4	Inst	えっどんな辺¿例えば	what change? for example
5	Noelle	えっ go ahead とか=	well *"go ahead"* for example=
6	Inst	=あ:go head	=ah: *go ahead*
		((4 lines omitted))	
11	Noelle	=なんか start って言ってました今まで	=well I have said *"start"* so far.
12	Inst	じゃ今けっこう意識的にやってたの?	so you were trying to use that intentionally now (in the lesson)?
13	Noelle	あ:はいこれはもともとクラスルームイングリッシュ自分の中で変えてみようって – **いくつか考えておいた方がいいって思って°授業でやったみたいに°**	ah: yes I was thinking I would change my classroom English - also thinking that it's good to have several ways of expressing the same meaning °as we discussed in class°
14	Inst	あ:(0.6)凄い. <a: sugoi.>	oh (0.6) great.
15	Masa	へ↑::すげ: <he↑e: suge:>	oh: awesome
16	Noelle	$えっなんか$ 4 月の時に:初めて模擬授業するのに: クラスルームイングリッシュ集ってのが図書館にあってそれを全部見ててこれは言えるこれは言えないってのがあって自分の中で - でなんか児童英語の授業とかも全部そういうの使ってみたんですけど: なかなか言えないと使えな- ううん違う知ってても - 言えないってことは自分の中できっと消化してないし: 使ってみないとなんかまぁこういう時にちょっとこれおかしくないってのも言われないんでよし言ってみよう[って=	well in Apri:l to do my first micro-lesson: I found a book on classroom English in the library and read it through thinking that I could use this and couldn't use this and I tried to use them in my TEYL lessons but: if you can't say them very well you can't use- mmm no - if you know some expressions but can't produce them, it means you haven't mastered them: unless you use them, you don't get told that something is wrong with your classroom English so okay I'll use them [that's=

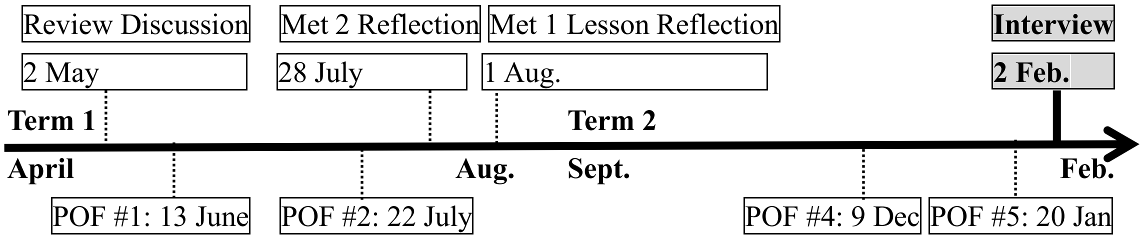
17	Inst	[凄い=	[great=
18	Noelle	=((smiles)) 今回はクラスルームイングリッシュを変えてみるのが自分の中のちっちゃな目標でした.	=((smiles)) it was my tiny goal to change my classroom English this time.
19	Inst	凄[い	great
20	Masa	[へ:[:: ((nodding twice))	[I [see: ((nodding twice))
21	Noelle	[((nods several times))	[((nods several times))
22	Inst	まさに- 今なんとも思わなかったから(0.7)なんて言うか良かったんだと思う	exactly- since I didn't notice anything wrong (0.7) how can I put it - it was good I think.
23	Noelle	あ:[: ((smiling))	ah:[: ((smiling))
24	Inst	[分かる?	[you know what I mean?
25	Noelle	((nods twice))	((nods twice))

In Line 13, Noelle makes an intertextual reference to the instructor's advice regarding classroom English in the first semester (Episode 8.1.5). This proposed link is recognized and acknowledged by both of her co-participants. Their acknowledgments take the form of admiration, which is realized in two ways. The first is through the use of the adjective *sugoi* and its informal variant *sugee*, which mean "extraordinary, deserving (surprising) admiration" (Maynard, 2005, p. 104) and thus are often used to make "awe-inspired assessments" (Greer, 2016, p. 120). Secondly, it is realized through the use of the non-lexical utterance *hee.* According to Mori (2006), this response token can be used not only to acknowledge what the speaker is saying, but also to communicate differing degrees of interest and/or surprise through varying prosody. Masa's raising of the pitch, accompanied by the lengthening of the vowel, seems to reflect the extent to which he found the information surprising. In Line 16, Noelle elaborates how she came to focus on her CE. Motived by the instructor's advice given in Semester 1, she consulted handbooks of CE that she found in the library, categorizing expressions into what she could use and what she could not. She revealed that she tried to use them in the TEYL course that she was taking concurrently. This experience led her to believe that mere knowledge of expressions is not sufficient to claim mastery of them. Here it is noteworthy that the wave-lined part of Noelle's utterance invokes Hiroki-sensei's explanation of Swain's Output Hypothesis in previous classes. Interestingly, Masato said at his interview that this event positively altered his perception of and attitude toward Noelle.

In Episode 8.5, Noelle has successfully woven together her everyday concepts (i.e., use of the phrase "go head.") and academic concept (i.e., hypothesis testing function) to produce a theoretically sound account of her learning of CE (Line 16), which is positively assessed by the instructor in Line 17. Although this assessment overlaps with the last part of Noelle's utterance and does not receive any verbal response from Noelle, who continues to speak, her smile suggests that she has heard it. Noelle reiterates in Line 18 that changing her CE was a small goal that she had set for herself, which again is positively assessed by the instructor and Masato. In Line 22, Hiroki-sensei suggests that her hypothesis was confirmed in a sense.

Noelle's efforts to make such theory-practice connections seemed to have been informed at least by what she heard in a previous class. She said in her Semester 2 interview that she considered it essential to rationalize her choices and actions as a microteacher.

Excerpt 8.5


Review Discussion
2 May
Met 2 Reflection
28 July
Met 1 Lesson Reflection
1 Aug.
Interview
2 Feb.
Term 1
Term 2
April
Aug.
Sept.
Feb.
POF #1: 13 June
POF #2: 22 July
POF #4: 9 Dec
POF #5: 20 Jan

Below, the "at" mark (@) is used to signify a backchannel.

Noelle's Semester 2 Interview, 2/Feb/201Z

(@ signifies back-channeling)

Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
あたし:何の授業だか忘れちゃったんですけど: (EK: @)多分教職とか: (EK: @) その児童英語系の授業で全部言われたんですけど(EK: @)自分がやること一つ一つに理由付けがあって: (EK: @)行動 s- するのがいい(EK: @)いいやり方っていうか: (EK: @) その:指導とか:何かをする上で: いやなんとなくって言う一番ダメっていうのをなんかでなんか習って頭の中にずっとそれがあるんですよね.	I forgot which course it was but (EK: @) perhaps it was something that I heard in all the PTE-related courses and (EK: @) TEYL courses (EK: @) every action we take should have a reason and (EK: @) we should act accordingly which is a good practice (EK: @) well I learned that the worst thing in teaching is well having no reason, which has been in my mind ever since.

Although Noelle did not remember where she got the above idea from, it was from the very first session of Methods 1 in which Hiroki-sensei talked about it. In fact, this was exactly what she said at her Semester 1 interview. What this suggests is that Noelle made conscious and continued efforts to rationalize her actions and choices, which was an important part of Noelle's professional discourse socialization that drove her to make connections between academic and everyday concepts.

To summarize, Noelle seems to have two closely related agendas regarding CE. One was to help her students develop their repertoire of CE and the other was to increase her own. To these ends, Noelle introduced CE phrases in her microlesson as her students needed them. This idea came from the TEYL course in which she was concurrently enrolled. Also, she started to consult books on CE and tried using some expressions (e.g., go ahead) in her microteaching. Particularly noteworthy is that her POF talk as well as her subsequent writing demonstrated that she was able to draw on the Output Hypothesis to discuss the need to try out CE expressions in her microteaching. This evidences Noelle's appropriation of the conceptual underpinnings of the SLA theory. Moreover, the cross-event analysis provides a glimpse of the change in Noelle's participation. Over the academic year, she discussed her intentions of introducing CE in three POF sessions. In the first two of these sessions, which took place in the first semester, Noelle was asked by the instructor to comment on her action. In contrast, it was Noelle who nominated herself in the final POF session to talk about her intention of using a new CE phrase. At her Semester 1 interview, she said that what she liked particularly about the POF conferencing was that the instructor "would ask me what I was trying to do and why I was trying to do it…and would extend from there" (2/Aug/201Y). This comment suggests that Noelle had become well aware of the instructor's expectation regarding reasoning and articulation of reasoning by the end of the first semester. In short, POF conferencing provided Noelle with opportunities to articulate her reasoning and receive confirmatory feedback.

8.2 Saburo's Learning across Events

Through my cross-event analysis, I have identified two tracers with respect to Saburo's learning pathway across events: (1) concern for accuracy of written language and (2) monitoring. The analysis indicates that these tracers relate to the concept of scaffolding; however, as space is limited, I focus on the latter here.

8.2.1 Monitoring Students' Participation

Just like Noelle's case, Saburo's pathway involves linking his microteaching experiences with his newly learned academic concepts (e.g., action zone, scaffolding). This section takes a somewhat backward approach and starts with an end product of Saburo's undergraduate studies for two related reasons. First, this approach makes it clear what the learning pathway is leading to. Secondly, Saburo's was the only focal student that oriented to the tracer in his thesis. The following excerpt is taken from his graduation thesis written in December 201Y:

Excerpt 8.6

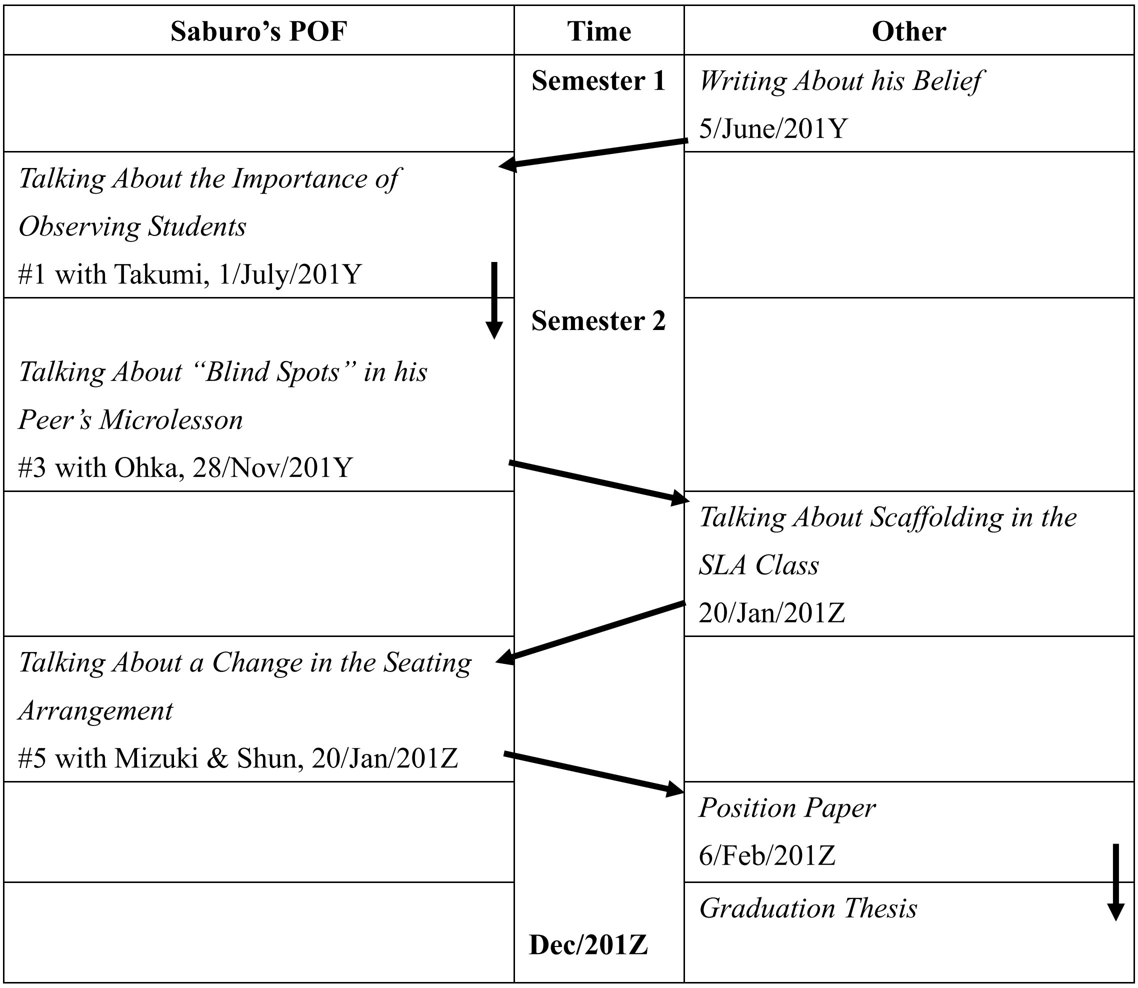
Original Text	**Approximate Translation**
初回の模擬授業の録画を筆者自身が客観的に見た時、授業についていけていないような学生や、授業に関心がなさそうな生徒役の学生に筆者が気づいていないことに気づいた。 ...計画した模擬授業をこなすことで精一杯であった。そのため、模擬授業中は周りの学生を見る余裕がなく、クラスメートと授業の内容について話している学生や、指示を聞き逃した学生に何もしてあげられていなかったことがわかった。そして模擬授業後、担当の先生との内省を行った時にそのことが発覚し、もっと学生を見る余裕を作るという改善点を見出すことができた。そこからもし教師が学習者の様子を見る余裕があったならば、生徒のどのような様子や合図を機に手助けができるのかと	When I watched my first microteaching objectively, I realized that I was not aware that there were students having trouble keeping up and students looking uninterested…all I could do was to deliver my lesson plan. As such, I could not afford to monitor students around me or do anything for students talking about the content of the lesson or students having missed teacher-provided directions. And this was brought to light when I had a reflection session with my tutor and I was able to find my goal to create more space for monitoring my students. From there, I came to ask myself what kind of student behaviors or signs teachers should use as cues to provide support if they could

いう疑問を持った。教員が、足場掛けをするタイミングを把握することができれば、学習者により多くの学びを提供できるようになると考えた。	afford to monitor their students. I thought that if teachers could see the moment to provide scaffolding, they would be able to provide their students with more learning opportunities.

In this introductory narrative, Saburo not only clearly identifies monitoring of students as an area for improvement based on his microteaching and POF experiences, but also effectively uses the notion of scaffolding to guide his future actions (i.e., monitoring). In what follows, we examine how he reached this level of understanding by using monitoring as a tracer.

Figure 8.2: Saburo's Learning Pathways

Monitoring

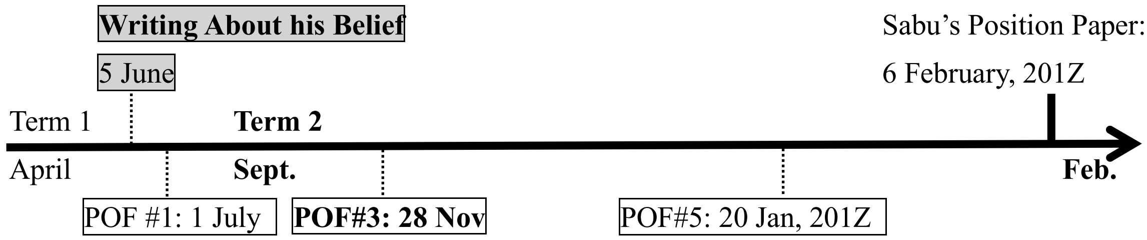


Saburo's POF	**Time**	**Other**
	Semester 1	*Writing About his Belief* 5/June/201Y
Talking About the Importance of Observing Students #1 with Takumi, 1/July/201Y		
Talking About "Blind Spots" in his Peer's Microlesson #3 with Ohka, 28/Nov/201Y	**Semester 2**	
		Talking About Scaffolding in the SLA Class 20/Jan/201Z
Talking About a Change in the Seating Arrangement #5 with Mizuki & Shun, 20/Jan/201Z		
		Position Paper 6/Feb/201Z
	Dec/201Z	*Graduation Thesis*

Writing about his Belief

In his belief-about-teaching paper required for Methods 2, Saburo discussed the importance of observing students. Excerpt 8.7 is the second paragraph of this assignment written in English. Italics are used here to indicate changes made based on my conversation with Saburo at a subsequent member-checking session.

Excerpt 8.7



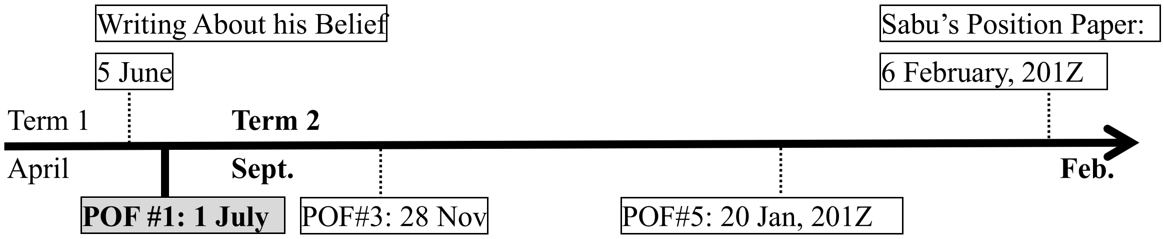
> One of my teaching belief is to *adapt my* teaching style for students. It means that I change my way to teach depending on each student who has a different English ability. For example, if I have a student who is bad at English, I would speak slowly to him, use words, grammar as easy as possible, and make sure to *address* his unknown points by asking…I should be careful not to favor one student too much…if the teacher talks to one student too much, other students would think that the teacher is not interested in them *or* do not want to teach them. In order to *help my students* and not to make the unfair situation, I will adapt my teaching style with careful observation *of* students. (5th June, 201Y)

This writing indicates his awareness of the need to carefully observe students in order to adapt his instruction to their level of understanding. Written one day before Saburo’s first microteaching performance, this belief statement serves as a reference point for his subsequent learning with respect to the practice of observing and monitoring students. By this time, Saburo had been exposed to the concept of scaffolding in his SLA course and to the concept of action zone in Methods 1, but he did not use either of them or any other related concepts in the writing.

8.2.1.1 Talking About the Importance of Monitoring/Observing Students.

Episode 8.6 begins with Hiroki-sensei's comment about Takumi's presentation of the topic of the microlesson that he had planned with Saburo.

Episode 8.6, ***1/July/201Y***


Writing About his Belief
5 June
Sabu's Position Paper:
6 February, 201Z
Term 1
Term 2
April
Sept.
Feb.
POF #1: 1 July
POF#3: 28 Nov
POF#5: 20 Jan, 201Z

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	((hand toward the screen)) 今説明としてはすごくスムーズにいったけど:	((hand toward the screen)) your performances went very smoothly as explanation but u:mm
2	Taku	$あっ - はい.$ ((nods))	$ah - yes.$ ((nods))
3	Sabu	[はい. (xx)	[yes. (xx)
4	Inst	ただ学ぶ:側からすると:-	but from the learners' point of vie:w -
5	Sabu	((nods))	((nods))
6	Taku	((nods))	((nods))
7	Inst	どれだけ頭を使ってるかって結構大事 <doredake atama wo tsukatte ru ka tte kekko[31] daiji>	you may find it surprising but it's important how much they think
8	Sabu	((nods))	((nods))
9	Taku	うんうんうん	uhm uhm uhm
10	Inst	だと思うんで.	I think so
11	Sabu	((nods twice))	((nods twice))
12	Inst	そ - それっうんちょっと生徒の様子見られるといいかな.	tha- that- yeah it'd be great if you could observe students' participation.

---

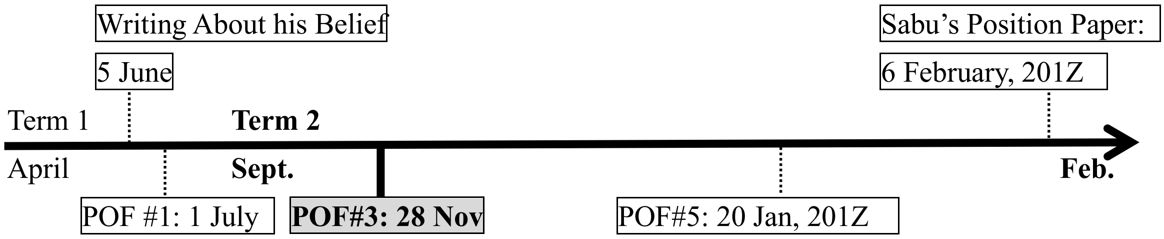
[31] According to Maynard (2005), the Japanese adverb *kekko* "implies that the degree is more than expected and is in some way a surprise" (p. 162). Following Maynard, I translated it as "you may find it surprising but" (p. 162).

13	Taku	はい.	yes.
14	Sabu	うん　((nodding three times))	yeah. ((nodding three times))

In Lines 4, 7, and 10, Hiroki-sensei states that it is important for students to think in class, suggesting that Takumi's one-way explanation might not have allowed for student thinking. Both Takumi and Saburo express their agreement. Hiroki-sensei then suggests in Line 12 that students' participations should be observed (or monitored), to which both trainees again agree. Although not presented here, there was another instance in the same POF conference where the instructor made an explicit reference to students' actions/behaviors. Initiated by Hiroki-sensei's question "Who is talking the most?", Saburo and Takumi both started to laugh and realized how little their students had spoken. After this POF session, Saburo said that he was "simply too busy delivering his lesson plan to see how the students were doing" (fieldnotes, my translation).

8.2.1.2 Talking About "Blind Spots" in his Peer's Microlesson. In Episode 8.7, Saburo is watching a scene from Ohka's microteaching. The third microteaching task required each student to give a 20-minute microlesson based on the lesson plan created in pairs/a group of three. Saburo had already given his lesson.

Episode 8.7



Sabu's POF #3 with Ohka, 28/Nov/201Y

Line	**SPKR**	**Original Utterances**	**Approximate Translation**
1	Inst	ちょっとさ止めてもらってい:い?	can you please pause it for a little while?
2	Ohka	はい.　((stops the video))	yes.
3	Inst	桜花さんさ: 誰を指してる¿ <Ohka-san sa: dare wo sashi te ru¿>	Ohka-san: who are you calling on?
4	Sabu	駿河君	Suruga-kun
5	Inst	うん後は¿　いままで	yeah anyone else? so far
6	Sabu	Haru	Haru
7	Ohka	隆二さん=	Ryuji-san
8	Inst	=はるさん自分で挙げたよね <= Haru-san jibun de ageta yo ne>	=Haru-san raised her hand didn't she.
9	Sabu	あ: 確かに	oh: right
10	Ohka	((laughs)) 確かにこの辺指しちゃう ((pointing at the screen))	((laughs)) right I tend to call on people around here. ((pointing at the screen))
11	Inst	後は?	anyone else?
12	Ohka	拓海君?	Takumi-kun?
13	Inst	そう [どっ	yeah [somewhe-
14	Sabu	[前とか	[front
15	Inst	どっか死角がない?	aren't there any blind spots?
16	Ohka	この辺とかこっちとか=	around here or here=
17	Inst	=[そうそうそう	=[yeah yeah yeah
18	Sabu	=[ノエル　$ノエルさん$	=[NOELLE $NOELLE-SAN$
19	Ohka	ノエル	NOELLE
20	Sabu	$死角はノエルだ$	$The blind spot is Noelle$
21	Ohka	=ahaha	ahaha
22	Sabu	[$ノエルが死角に$	[$Noelle is the bling spot$
23	Inst	[あのね:　私のノートにはここに全然行ってないって書いてある[んだよ	[you know: in my notes I wrote Ohka didn't go to this area very much.
24	Ohka	[あ: ((eyes on the notes)) <a: > ((eyes on the notes))	[oh:
25	Sabu	あ: 確かに ((eyes on the notes))	oh: right

		<a: tashikani ((eyes on the notes))>	
26	Ohka	そうかもしれない.	maybe so.
27	Inst	あの:教師としての action zone, って[いう	that: teacher's action zone as we call [it
28	Ohka	[ん: ((nodding))	[yeah ((nodding))
30	Inst	話したよね授業で¿	we talked about it in class right?
31	Ohka	((nods twice))=	((nods twice))
32	Inst	けっこう=	fairly=
29	Sabu	こっちより=	to this side ((the right side of the classroom))=
30	Inst	=うん こっちより. ((pointing at the right side of the classroom))	=yeah to this side. ((pointing at the right side of the classroom))
31	Ohka	そうですね ((nodding twice))	right ((nodding twice))

Hiroki-sensei's question in Line 3 can be interpreted as "Who are you calling on now?" or "Who have you called on?" because, in Modern Japanese, the *te iru* construction can be used to express the progressive or perfect aspect (e.g., Hasegawa, 2015). Sabu mentioned Suruga-kun who was being nominated in the video at the very moment that the instructor asked the question. While accepting this contribution, Hiroki-sensei asks the two trainees who else, adding "so far." This suggests that what he meant to ask was "Who have you called on?"

When Saburo named Haru, who was sitting on the right-hand side of the classroom, Hiroki-sensei challenges this by pointing out the fact that she raised her hand to nominate herself (Line 8). Through this exchange, Ohka comes to realize that she tends to call on students seated on the left-hand side of the classroom (Line 10). The instructor keeps asking who else she has called on, which resulted in the identification of another name (Line 12). In Line 15, Hiroki-sensei asks the trainees to identify any blind spots, and Ohka then points at two specific areas on the screen. In Line 18, Saburo laughingly utters Noelle twice and so does Ohka in Line 19. In Lines 20 and 22, Saburo equates the blind spot with Noelle. Having established common ground, Hiroki-sensei starts to reveal his intention of asking who has been called on, showing his observation notes that say that Ohka has not been to the area where Noelle is seated (Line 23). Both Ohka and Saburo seem to agree as indicated by their use of the change-of-state token (“a:” translated as “oh:”). Importantly, Hiroki-sensei uses the academic concept *action zone* in Line 27, reminding them that they talked about it in a previous class. This intercontextual link is recognized by Ohka in Line 31. Although not responding to this directly, Saburo suggests that Ohka’ action zone was to the right side of the classroom. This contribution was echoed by Hiroki-sensei in Line 30 and was then received by Ohka with head nods in Line 31. As reported in Episode 8.7, Saburo went on to use the term action zone as a conceptual tool to guide his effort to monitor students’ participation in the context of team teaching.

8.2.1.3 Talking About Scaffolding in the SLA class. Excerpt 8.8 is part of a small-group discussion in the SLA course where Saburo talked about the concept of scaffolding with Takumi and Mizuki. As this interaction was captured only by a digital recorder, many of non-verbal features are missing from the transcript.

Excerpt 8.8

Line	**SPKR**	**Original Utterances**	**Approximate Translation**
1	Taku	“臨機応変な - 支援” [ってことは:	“responsive - assistance” [
2	Mizu	[ん:: 足場を増やしたり解体するみたいでしょ?	[m:hm like increasing or dismantling the scaffold right?
3	Taku	ん: ん:	yeah yeah
4	Sabu	相手に合わせてこう: (0.5) その支援	in response to the level of the

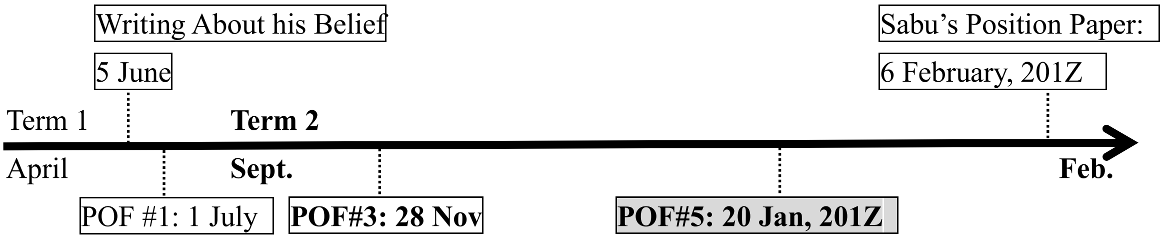
		の度合いを - 変えるってこと[だよね？	learner like (0.5) you change the degree of your assistance [right?
5	Mizu	[ん::	[m::hm
6	Taku	[そうだね. (0.5) だけど相手の反応見て	[right. (0.5) but you look at the interlocutor’s reaction
7	Sabu	見て合わせるって:	look at it and adjust your assistance
8	Taku	hahaha **むずっ**！ だって$模擬授業$	hahaha how difficult! you know microteaching
9	Mizu	ahaha $そんな余裕ないない$	ahaha I can’t afford to do that.
10	Taku	$いざやってみると, $ いかにでききてないかって分かるよね:	$when you actually do it,$ we can see how we cannot do what we’re supposed to do right.
11	Mizu	うん	yeah
12	Sabu	ん:: 確かに. でもまずは反応をよく見ることからかなって	yea::h right. but first we should start by looking closely at students’ reactions right
13	Taku	うんそうだね.　まずはそれかな	yeah right. the first thing’s that maybe
14	Mizu	確かに.	certainly.

(16/Jan/201Z)

In Line 1, Takumi borrows a phrase that Hiroki’s-sensei used in his talk. Saburo shared his interpretation of the phrase, which leads to Takumi’s realization how difficult it is to observe students and adjust this level of their assistance in response to his students’ performance (Line 8). Takumi then refers to their microteaching assignments, and Mizuki answers that he cannot afford to observe his students’ behaviors and tailor his assistance to their level. Takumi’s utterance in Line 11, which makes an intercontextual reference to their microteaching experience, invites Mizuki and Saburo to confirm. In Line 12, Saburo suggests that the first thing to do is to observe students closely. This statement is particularly important as it exhibit Saburo’s orientation to the idea of observing (or monitoring) students.

8.2.1.4 Talking About a Change in the Seating Arrangement. Episode 8.8 comes from the first phase of Saburo’s final POF session in which he reviewed the microlesson that he planned and taught with Mizuki and Shun. Asked by the instructor to discuss the purpose of the lesson, Saburo self-nominates to talk about the U-shaped seating arrangement that they adopted for this particular lesson.

Episode 8.8


Writing About his Belief
5 June
Sabu’s Position Paper:
6 February, 201Z
Term 1
Term 2
April
Sept.
Feb.
POF #1: 1 July
POF#3: 28 Nov
POF#5: 20 Jan, 201Z

Saburo’s POF #5 with Mizuki and Shun, 20/Jan/201Z

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Sabu	最初に: なんかこの: 机変えたじゃないですか¿	first of a:ll well we switched to this seating arrangement right?
2	Inst	うん	yeah
4	Sabu	なんかこう前回のリフレクションとかでみんなこっち向いてくれないっていうのがあがってたんで:	well in the last reflection what was raised as a problem was that the students did not look at us so:
5	Inst	うん	mhm
6	Sabu	でとりあえず机の形だけを最初変えてみて: -なんていうんですかこの真ん中に注目が行くような形でちょっとやってみよう((pointing at the screen))っていうのは=	and anyway we decided to change the seating arrangement and uh: -how can I say this so that they would focus their attention on this middle part ((pointing at the screen)) that was=
7	Inst	=そういうことなんだ.	=that’s what you intended.
8	Sabu	はい	yes

9	Inst	へ:: - それは誰の案だったの¿ <hee:: - sore wa dare no an datta no?>	Oh:: whose idea was it?
10	Mizu	それは: -	that's uh: -
11	Shun	さぶ君です。	it's Sabu-kun's
12	Sabu	です．はい．なんか結構Noelleとかが:後ろでなんか$やってたり$してたじゃないですか¿=	yes it was. well you know some people like Noelle $were doing$ something ((unrelated to the lesson)) in the back right?=
13	Inst	=うんうん	=yeah yeah
14	Sabu	それがなくなるかな:と思っ（0. 5）	I was hoping that could be prevented (0.5)
15	Inst	[うん	[mhm
16	Sabu	って:: とりあえず一回 U 字にしてみようって思ったのと: - 後はなんかいっ - これ:やってから気づいたんですけど:	and uh:: anyway I thought I would try arranging the desks in a u-shape and uh: - the other thing was well onc- this uh: is something I realized after the lesson but uh:
17	Inst	うん=	mhm=
18	Sabu	=あの: 介護等体験で -	=we:ll for the care work experience[32]
19	Inst	うん	mhm
20	Sabu	あの盲学校に行ったときに:	I went to the school for the blind a:nd
21	Inst	うんうん	mhm mhm
22	Sabu	で T1 が真ん中に入って:	and T1 was in the middle a:nd
23	Inst	うん	mhm
24	Sabu	T２はなんか後ろからサポートする[みたいな形だったんで	T2 was giving support from behind [this was what I saw
25	Inst	[うん - うんうん	[mhm - mhm mhm
26	Sabu	その形:: が理想なのかなって後々ちょっと思うようになって	I came to think that arrangement uh:: is ideal and

---

[32] All teacher candidates wishing to teach in primary schools or junior high schools are required to do one week of care work at nursing homes and special schools.

In Line 4, Saburo states that the unique seating arrangement was adopted in response to what he perceived to be students' inattention to the microteacher, which was raised as a problem in the previous POF session. In Line 9, the instructor takes a turn with the news-receipt-token "*hee::*" (translated as "oh::") with elongation, indicating his state of being impressed by the unique idea. Considering the fact that, at most junior and senior high schools, desks are typically arranged in rows, the U-shaped or horseshoe arrangement is not a common practice in Japan. In the same line, the instructor asks whose idea it was to adopt the seating arrangement. In Lines 10 and 1l, Mizuki and Shun jointly answers that it was Saburo's idea. Saburo then not only agrees with this, but also starts to reveal that he wanted to prevent Noelle and others from doing something unrelated to the lesson. Thus, this, too, was intended as a preventive measure against what he perceived to be his students' inattention or lack of engagement. Saburo then adds that he had seen a similar seating arrangement allowing two teachers (T1 and T2) working effectively as a team in the observed class at the special school for the blind where he did his care-work experience (Lines 18-26). In short, this POF talk suggests that the decision to adopt the U-shaped seating arrangement was motivated largely by Saburo's experiential knowledge obtained from his previous microteaching and observation of team-teaching in an actual class and his resultant awareness of the need to monitor his students' engagement.

8.2.1.5 Talking About Saburo's Monitoring of Student Participation. In the following exchange, Saburo is watching a scene from his final micro-lesson with his partners and the instructor. To give a little background, unlike many other groups who simply took turns to teach for an equal amount of time, Saburo's group consisting of three members, decided that each member would teach for an equal length of time (i.e., 15 minutes) as a lead teacher (hereafter T1) and support the lesson as a second teacher (T2). They decided that a third member would observe the lesson since they thought it unlikely that three teachers team-teach a lesson. In the narrated event, Saburo was a T2, monitoring students' activities and assisting them to follow teacher directions in the back of the room. This rather long episode has been divided into two parts below.

In Line 4, the instructor asks Mizuki, who was leading the lesson as T1, if Noelle is repeating after him. Saburo's original utterance in Line 5 (*shite nai n desu*) contains the *n-desu* form. This is an informal version of *no desu*, which, according to Simpson (2006), provides "some explanation (or information) of a contextually salient background situation or event (a strongly presupposed situation or event)" (p. 140). Its use implies the speaker's full commitment to the truth of the presupposition involved. Thus, Saburo is suggesting that he was aware that Noelle did not repeat after Mizuki, thus not following the instruction, which, according to Saburo, was the very reason why he moved closer to Noelle. In Line 9, he reveals that he repeated after T1 so as to encourage Noelle to do the same. In Line 19, the instructor asks Saburo whether he was aware that Noelle was not following the direction. Saburo replies by imitating her body posture. This observation was positively assessed by the instructor as demonstrating his ability to see while teaching.

Episode 8.9

Sabu's POF #5 with Mizuki and Shun, 20/Jan/201Z

line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
1	Inst	$ちょっと１個言っていい¿ ((pointing at the screen))	$can I say one thing&? ((pointing at the screen))
2	Mizu	はい.	yes

3	Sabu	hh	hh
4	Inst	ノエル$さん$ repeat after – you してる?=	Is Noelle san repeating after (-) you?=
5	Sabu	=して$ないんです.$ [=shite nai n desu.]	=no she is not.
6	Mizu	AHAHA[HA ((laughs))	haha[ha ((laughs))
7	Sabu	[だから$そっちに移動してみました.$	[that's why $I tried moving close to her. $
8	Mizu	hahaha ((laughing))	hahaha ((laughing))
9	Sabu	$でなんか一緒になんか発音-とりあえず後ろから言ってみようか[な：って	and well I thought I should pronounce - say something from behind anyway e[h:
10	Inst	[あっ-そうなんだ	[oh is that true
11	Sabu	そうです$そうなんです!$	yes it is. $that's right!$
12	Mizu	あっ - [そ:うなんだ	oh - [REAlly
13	Inst	[だから行ったんだ (behind here)!	[THAT'S WHY YOU WENT (behind here)!
14	Sabu	絶対やってないんだろうな：と思って	thinking that there's NO WAY she was doing it
15	Mizu	へ::: <he:::>	really:::
16	Shun:	hahaha ((laughing))	hahaha ((laughing)))
17	Inst	凄い! <sugoi!>	GREAT!
18	Mizu	suge:	awesome
19	Inst	えっ分かったんだ¿	so you're aware¿
20	Sabu	はい.もうずっとこんなんなってたんで ((touch his chin))	yes. because she was like this all the time ((touching his chin))
21	Inst	ほ:んと: :気付いたんだ.素晴らしい!	RE:ALLY:: you noticed that. excellent!

Having made the positive appraisal above, Hiroki-sensei asked why Saburo decided to take the stance that he took (i.e., doing choral repetition together).

Episode 8.10

Sabu's POF #5 with Mizuki and Shun, 20/Jan/201Z

Line	SPKR	Original Utterances	Approximate Translation
22	Inst	なんでそれは：じゃ:-あえてその一緒にやってみようかなってスタンスを取ったわけ？	why - well - did you decide to take the stance of doing it together?
23	Sabu	なんかやっぱ後ろでやってるの聞こえてたら:=	well if she hears what I say from behind:=
24	Inst	=うん	uh-hmm
25	Sabu	見 - 見られてる感が[出る	the feeling of being watched might [develop
26	Inst	[うん	[uh-hmm
27	Sabu	かな:と思って[はい	I wondered [yes
28	Inst	[まず(0.6)第一段階として?	[first (0.6) as a first step?
29	Sabu	はい.	yes.
30	Inst	で=	and=
31	Sabu	=でも全然ダメ£でした.£	=but didn't £work at all.£
32	All	((laugh for 6.5 seconds))	((laugh))
33	Inst	((laughing))で hhh だめ?hhh	((laughing)) and hhh no effect? hhh
34	Sabu	£何- -何も変わらなかったです. £	£no- (-) nothing changed.£
35	Inst	£そのその後は£? ((pointing at the screen))	£and after that£ ((laughing))
36		(0.5)	(0.5)
37	Sabu	その後は: : やっぱ(h)ノエルが(h) - 指標になると思ったので:	after that: I thought Noelle would be an indicator so:
38	Inst	うん	uh-hmm
39	Sabu	なんかペアワークとかも：ちょっと居なかったんで自分が：入って	well for the pair work too: there weren't enough people so I: joined
40	Inst	そ - そういうことなんだ:=	tha- that's why:=
41	Sabu	=はい.	=yes.
42	Inst	凄い! - ちゃんと見てるん[だね.	great! - you're carefully observing students-ne.
43	Sabu	[AHAHAHA ((laughing)) $絶対やんないと思って$	[ahaha ((laughing)) $I though she would never do it$

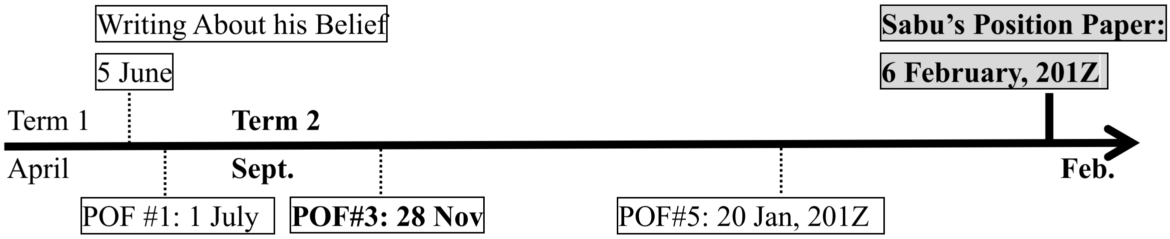
44	Mizu	は::	ah::
45	Inst	素晴らしい!	great!

As his response in Lines 23, 25, and 27 suggests, Saburo was hoping that Noelle would start doing choral repetition if Noelle heard his voice repeating after T1 and realized that she was being watched. However, Saburo reveals in Line 31 that this attempt was a complete failure, which made all the co-participants, including the researcher, laugh. As a response to Hiroki-sensei's question, Saburo answers in Line 39 that he chose to do the pair work with Noelle. He considered her as an indicator of student engagement because she was among the first to lose concentration. Although not included here, Saburo later described Noelle jokingly as "a person on my watchlist." Hiroki-sensei again assesses positively Saburo's decision to work with Noelle, attributing it to his careful monitoring of her behavior. Saburo then responds with an emphasis on the adverb "never," suggesting his conviction that Noelle would not follow their instruction as she seems to have lost her concentration. Importantly, Saburo used what he knew about Noelle's tendency to get bored and lose attention so as to guide his actions. As van Es and Sherin (2002) suggest, the use of such knowledge about the context to reason about a teaching situation is an important part of professional vision.

8.2.1.6 Using an Academic Concept to Interpret his Teaching Experience.

Saburo wrote about his final microteaching experience in his position paper submitted at the end of the academic year. Notice how Saburo articulates his renewed understanding of monitoring students, connecting the academic concept of action zone with his experience discussed in the above POF exchange.

Excerpt 8.9



Sabu's Position Paper, 6/Feb/201Z

Original Writing	Approximate Translation
そして、もし私が自由に授業を行うことができるのであれば、T2を付けて授業を行っていきたいと考えた。その理由は、先日行った最後の模擬授業で、T2がいることによって活動の幅が広げられたということを実感したからである。私がT2に入った時は、机の後ろから音読をしたり、授業に参加していなさそうな生徒と一緒に活動をしたりと、T1ではできないようなことができた。	Also, if I could teach freely, I thought that I would teach with a T2. This is because, in the micro-lesson we did the other day, I felt that my action zone was extended because I had a T2. When I was acting as a T2, I read the text aloud from behind and worked with a student who seemed not to be participating. I was able to do what I could not otherwise have done.

As mentioned in Chapter 2, Vygotsky viewed academic and everyday concepts as complimentary in forging true concepts (cf. Johnson & Golombek, 2016). Saburo, from his microteaching experience, realized that team-teaching allowed him to expand his group's action zone and attend to what he could not do otherwise. On the other hand, the academic concept action zone allowed him to make conscious effort to explore different ways of monitoring students (e.g., standing in the back of the classroom as T2). This link-making seems to represent one step forward for Saburo in his professional discourse socialization.

In summary, Saburo first became aware that some students including Noelle were outside of Ohka's action zone as they talked about her lesson with Hiroki-sensei. As a result, he came to associate Noelle with blind spots of his class and to focus on her participation. For the final microteaching, he took two specific actions to promote Noelle's participation. The first was to arrange the seating in a U-shape. Saburo believed that this configuration would allow his students to listen to the microteacher standing in the centre of the horseshoe while, at the same time, enabling the microteacher to monitor students' activities better. According to West (2010), the classroom layout "gives students more potential for sharing ideas, information and feelings—all so essential for speaking and listening activities, and for debates" (p. 16). Also, the horseshoe is claimed to be a relatively flexible layout because it allows either whole-class instruction or small group work with minor physical adjustments (Alexander, 2020). In fact, Saburo and his partners used both types of organization patterns in their microteaching.

The second action was to team-teach the lesson unlike many other groups who simply took turns to teach their parts. In the case of Saburo's group, while one member led the class as T1, another member monitored and supported students' activities outside the horseshoe. Noticing a sign of Noelle's disengagement, Saburo stood behind her and practised choral repetition of new words with the goal of encouraging her active participation. He also worked with her to complete a communicative activity. Both of these actions were informed by his prior experience observing a class as part of his care-work experience at a special school. Saburo's position paper demonstrated his appropriation of the academic concept (i.e., action zone) to make sense of his microteaching experience.

8.3 Summary and Discussion

In this chapter, I have traced Noelle's and Saburo's pathways of linked events across which they learned the social practice of ELT. Noelle's experience centred around her effort to increase the repertoire of CE that her class could use while one of Saburo's experiences revolved around his growing effort to monitor and support his students' participation. Common to these cases was their observation of students' behaviours and actions. Noelle's introduction of CE phrase and Saburo's actions to encourage students' involvement demonstrated increasing concern for student participation and engagement by taking what Wells (1999) would call *contingently responsive* actions. Given that, as suggested by the literature, teachers, as they gain more experience, "come to think about teaching less in terms of teacher performance and more in terms of learner engagement" (Richards & Farrell, 2011, p. 23), Noelle's and Saburo's learning pathways seem to have provided glimpses of their evolving professional competencies.

However, in this process, the POF talk seems to have played different roles for them. For Noelle, it was a chance to articulate her reasoning behind why she did what she did – the discourse practice into which she was socialized. It was also a chance to receive feedback from the instructor and peers. For example, she seems to have benefitted from the instructor's feedback specifying a particular instance where she could have introduced CE as well as from his advice regarding how to incorporate learner training in CE into her regular lessons. Importantly, she sought feedback from her classmates immediately after her microteaching, which suggests that POF can take place informally outside the formal context set by teacher educators. For Saburo, it was not only a chance to articulate his reasoning, but it also brought the issue of student disengagement to his attention.

Moreover, Noelle and Saburo both seem to have succeeded in appropriating relevant academic concepts (i.e., output hypothesis, action zone, scaffolding) and using these to make sense of their respective microteaching experiences. Common to these two cases was the use of academic concepts as tools to mediate their thinking and actions, which Johnson and Golombek (2016) call “thinking in concept” drawing on the work of Karpov (2003). According to Johnson and Golombek, “when teachers think in concepts, they are able to reason about and enact their teaching effectively and appropriately in various instructional situations, for different pedagogical purposes, and theoretically sound reasons for doing so” (p. 5). The POF conferencing seems to have allowed Noelle and Saburo to use academic concepts as lenses to see their microteaching experiences differently and to guide their future thinking and actions as developing teachers.

Chapter 9: Conclusion and Implications

9.0 Introduction

The purpose of this thesis was to explore how Japanese undergraduates learn the social practice of teaching EFL in a Japanese context. The investigation was guided by the following research questions:

1. What do PTE trainees and their trainer talk about in their POF conferences? What other texts and contexts do they refer to in this process?
2. What is the role of the trainer in supporting PTE trainees' meaning making and knowledge construction through POF talk?
3. How do the trainees continuously engage with and act upon points discussed in prior POF sessions?

This final chapter presents a synthesis of the main findings of the entire project and draws conclusions. I first summarize the major findings of the study. I then discuss implications for theory, methodology, and pedagogy. This is followed by a discussion of the limitations of the study and directions for future research. Finally, I reflect on my personal transformation as a linguistic ethnographer.

9.1. Summary of Findings and Discussions

This section outlines some of the major findings of this study in the order of their corresponding research questions.

9.1.1 The Topics Discussed and References Made

The first question was addressed in Chapter 5 by conducting two types of content analysis: namely, topic analysis and intertextual analysis. The topic analysis has suggested that the participants discussed a variety of topics related to ELT. These included teacher acts, teacher qualities required, microteacher emotions as well as student activities. Many of these seemed to be important social acts that the trainees were expected to perform in order to provide classroom instruction, such as giving directions/instructions and responding and giving feedback to students' oral contributions. Underlying these acts is the institutional power that teachers have to direct classroom activities. Thus, by learning how to perform such acts, the trainees were learning how to exercise the institutional power that enables their work. This seemed to be an essential part of becoming an EFL teacher, which was revealed by the content analysis of the participants' POF talk.

One important finding had to do with the prevalence of language-related episodes where the POF participants talked about L2 problems associated with the trainees lacking accuracy in producing target structures or not knowing basic classroom management phrases. In other words, the trainees had opportunities to address their L2 problems while viewing their microlessons. Trainees' L2 problems have not been reported as a major topic in previous studies, which is probably because their participants were L1 English-speakers and/or L2 English-speaking trainees who were skilled enough in English to pursue their degrees in English-medium programmes.

Another important finding was that student activities were a relatively salient focus of the POF talk in addition to teacher acts. *Student participation, engagement, and performance* was the second most frequently discussed topic of all the topics identified.

Moreover, among the 39 teacher acts, *checking and ensuring students' understanding* was the third most discussed topic. The analysis of topic initiation indicated that it was the instructor who initiated more than half of the episodes; however, this finding suggests that the trainees were socialized to attend to their students' activities as well as to their teaching performances.

In their discussions, the participants referred to various texts and contexts, including previously encountered words, formal documents, publicly known theory, past learning experiences, concurrent coursework, and future teaching practice including practica. The analysis showed that the most frequent type of referencing was made to SLA/TESOL concepts and principles, suggesting that the POF sessions provided the trainees with opportunities to use discipline-specific terms and hear others use them in talking about specific topics related to their microteaching. Another salient type of intertextual referencing was the trainees quoting their own thoughts to discuss reasons behind their actions. In short, their use of intertextual references serve as evidence for professional discourse socialization, indexing their growing control over academic concepts and their developing capacity to articulate reasoning.

9.1.2 Co-Construction of Knowledge, Joint Meaning Making, and the Instructor as a Socializing Agent

The microanalysis showed that Hiroki-sensei as a trainer performed a variety of acts to help trainee learning. He contributed to his trainees' lightbulb moments in many ways. Particularly important was the Hiroki-sensei's explicit modelling of ideal teaching acts. As Engin (2014) suggested, trainees without prior teaching experiences need "a model against which they could compare their own teaching" (p. 37). However, not all episodes entailed lightbulb moments. In such episodes, Hiroki-sensei gave a space for the microteachers to talk about their lessons by listening attentively and quietly. Also, he allowed the participants to operate the mouse from the second POF while viewing their microlessons so that they could pause the video at any time to initiate talk. Through these actions, he communicated a dialogic stance to his trainees, sending an implicit message that trainees' contributions were appreciated.

Moreover, Hiroki-sensei provided emotional support in the POF sessions. The analysis of Haru's emotionally charged moment illustrated that he helped her regain her confidence by using humour to help her relax, giving her a chance to show her strengths as a microteacher, and reframing the otherwise negative event. Furthermore, Hiroki-sensei seemed to have made a conscious effort to build positive relationships with his trainees. All the focal trainees and their partners commented that they were nervous and anxious before their first sessions because they thought that their teaching performances would be criticized. Randall and Thornton (2001) suggested that ambiguous situations might increase the anxiety of trainees. Hiroki-sensei seems to have dealt with this issue in different ways. For one thing, he often made jokes and humorous comments during POF sessions, to which the trainees aligned well. This was evidenced by frequent group laughter. In short, Hiroki-sensei helped the trainees see the POF event as an informal situation where joking and laughing were encouraged.

Another way of promoting positive relationships was to share his observation notes with his trainees in order to remind them that he was not observing their lesson to criticize, but to help them learn. As his comment suggested, Hiroki-sensei believed that sharing his notes would help alleviate the trainees' worries and insecurities since even negative feedback was typically worded constructively as questions. This practice might have helped position him as a trainer who can provide candid and sensitive feedback on their performance. All of these findings seem to indicate that teacher educators have an important role to play in trainees' cognitive and emotional engagement in reflective practice (Farr, 2006) and that the informal and intimate nature of the POF event can provide an interactional space for this.

The analysis also showed that Hiroki-sensei marshalled all the four types of discourse outlined by Scott et al. (2006) although he generally preferred dialogic talk. In most situations, his talk was interactive as it involved conversational transaction with his trainees, but the degree of dialogicality/authority varied from situation to situation. For example, in cases where misinformation, especially about L2 grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation was given, the instructor would often ask a display question to help correct it through an IRE sequence (Episode 6.1), using an interactive-authoritative approach. Also, Hiroki-sensei would first ask the microteachers to describe a particular lesson segment, and once an understanding of what happened was shared, he would move from there to discuss ways to improve the situation (e.g., Episode 6.4). This type of interaction often led to interactive but authoritative talk because Hiroki-sensei had formed his responses at the time of topic initiation, thus being contingently responsive (Wells, 1999).

Furthermore, Hiroki-sensei often attended closely to his trainees' nonverbal cues. For example, seeing Saburo hold his head in arms (Episode 6.9), Hiroki-sensei invited him to share his thoughts, which created an interactive space for them to share his concern. Likewise, interpreting Haru's smile as her readiness to contribute, he gave her a chance to demonstrate her knowledge of the target structure under discussion. In other situations, Hiroki-sensei worked with his trainees to address issues raised by the microteachers themselves (e.g., Episode 6.10), using interactive and dialogic talk. It was his observation of what the trainee might be orienting to at a particular moment that enabled him to tailor his question to his/her concern. Also, Hiroki-sensei used non-interactive talk as well to summarize earlier points. Although space only allowed inclusion of one episode in which non-interactive talk was used and thus illustrate non-interactive-authoritative talk, there were episodes where he used non-interactive but dialogic talk to summarize different views expressed in earlier POF discussions. In short, Hiroki-sensei used different types of talk depending on the nature of the issue under discussion.

The analysis further showed that Hiroki-sensei and his trainees deployed the sentence-final particles (i.e., *ne*, *yo*, and *yone*) to communicate their epistemic stance regarding what is being talked about. While a comprehensive treatment of these interactional devices is beyond the scope of this thesis, the examination of selected episodes indicate how important they are to the POF conducted in Japanese in terms of setting the tone and providing a resource for co-participants to make points in a subtle manner. Thus, they serve as contextualization cues to signal interlocutor positionality.

Another important finding relates to pedagogical link-making. Hiroki-sensei often encouraged the trainees to link their POF discussions to academic concepts including SLA theories to help them see the teaching-learning process in new ways. For example, when Takumi confessed the problem of not being able to come up with expressions, Hiroki-sensei referred to Levelt's model of speech production to explain the challenge of processing both meaning and form simultaneously. As a result of this exchange, Takumi realized the importance of pre-planning his classroom talk so as to allocate his attentional resources to other than the production of routine classroom expressions. Urzúa and Vásquez (2008) argued that "[d]uring initial teaching experiences, novice teachers need to be mindful of how their linguistic knowledge, pedagogical skills, and general sense of self…relate to the characteristics of a given task" (p. 1943). Hiroki-sensei often used POF talk to raise trainees' awareness of the gap between their individual capacity to use and teach the L2 and the demand of the microteaching task and to help them to think of ways to address this gap.

However, not all his trainees were taking the SLA course. While the two Methods courses covered some SLA/TESOL concepts, there seemed to be a big knowledge gap between those trainees who were taking SLA and those who were not. In a POF conference involving trainees taking SLA, Hiroki-sensei would often ask these trainees to explain relevant academic concepts to their peers, thus positioning the former as more knowledgeable others. However, Hiroki-sensei did not always attempt to promote link-making that involved academic concepts. Haru and Masato's POF session was such an illustrative case. Knowing that Levelt's model had not yet been covered in the SLA course, Hiroki-sensei told me that introducing the new academic concept would place extra cognitive demand on Haru and Masato, who seemed busy making sense of what was going on in their recorded lesson. Thus, he made a reference to a culturally familiar practice (i.e., EIKEN oral interview) instead. As Scott et al. (2011) put it, successful link-making requires teachers to consider "how this piece of teaching and learning links with other subject matter at other times on micro/meso/macro scales and ways of engaging students emotionally in addressing the subject matter" (p. 33). In the above case, Hiroki-sensei decided whether to introduce the academic concept into the POF discussion based on his understanding of what had been covered in the SLA course (i.e., meso-context) as well as his assessment of the trainees' ability to interpret what was going in their video-recorded lessons (i.e., micro-context).

Additionally, Hiroki-sensei welcomed Koko's request to audit his methods course, which was important in at least two ways. First, he asked her to give a microlesson for his current trainees in Methods 1, considering her to be good at both speaking and teaching English. This arrangement seems to have communicated to the trainees the instructor's expectations regarding the microteaching task. Secondly, asked by Noelle, Koko participated in her second POF session, contributing actively to the discussion. Thus, by inviting Koko, the instructor created opportunities for what Murphey (1998) called *near peer role modeling*. In sum, Hiroki-sensei seemed to have played a major role in attending to his trainee's cognitive and emotional states to promote their engagement and learning and in arraigning the social environment to incorporate both vertical (i.e., instructor, Koko as a relative expert) and horizontal (i.e., classmates) dimensions of socialization..

9.1.3 Learning Pathways Across Events

In Chapters 7 and 8, I traced the four focal trainees' learning pathways of linked events across which they learned the social practice of ELT. Chapter 7 detailed the contrasting cases of Haru and Takumi. While their pathways concerned learning to use pedagogical tools for ELT, they entailed different degrees of change and appropriation.

Haru's appropriation of echoing seemed to be a relatively smooth process of confirmation, but limited to its surface features, lacking critical understanding of how it might benefit student learning. In contrast, Takumi's learning pathway involved a much more complex process of personal transformation and a deeper level of appropriation.

His pre-conception of ELT as a matter of explaining grammar in Japanese was at odds with the communicatively oriented approaches promoted in accordance with the *Course of Study*. This gap resulted in Takumi's experience of the cognitive/emotional dissonance, which led him to realize through deliberate experimentation and reflection that he needed to use more English. Importantly, this realization was mediated by his newly gained knowledge of SLA. Concurrently, Takumi developed a desire to make his own teaching interactive as he experienced Hiroki-sensei's interactive lectures as a trainee in his courses. Here, it is worth emphasizing that Takumi's conceptual change, which fueled his sustained effort to improve his intonation, seems to have owed a great deal to his exposure to and appreciation of Hiroki-sensei' s interactive teaching style, which demonstrated the instructor's commitment to the very pedagogy that he was trying to promote in the PTE programme (see Farr, 2006, for a relevant discussion). Also, peer support in the form of explicit advice and modelling played an important role in this process. Although Takumi could not use intonation as effectively as he had hoped to, he developed a clearer idea of how to talk as an EFL teacher.

In Chapter 8, I traced Noelle's and Saburo's learning pathways. Noelle's experience centred around her effort to increase the repertoire of CE expressions that her class could use while Saburo's experiences revolved around his growing effort to monitor and support his students' participation. Common to these cases was their observation of students' behaviours and actions. Noelle's introduction of CE phrases and Saburo's actions to encourage students' involvement demonstrated increasing concern for student participation and engagement by taking what Wells (1999) would call *contingently responsive* actions. As suggested by the literature, novice teachers tend to be more concerned about their self-image as teachers rather than their students' learning (cf., Berliner, 1987); however, teachers, as they gain more experience, come to think about teaching more in terms of learner engagement (Richards & Farrell, 2011). Seen in this light, Noelle's and Saburo's learning pathways seem to have provided glimpses of their evolving professional competencies.

However, in this process, the POF talk seems to have played different roles for them. For Noelle, it was a chance to language her reasoning behind why she did what she did – the discourse practice into which she was socialized. It was also a chance to receive feedback from the instructor and peers. For example, she seems to have benefitted from Hiroki-sensei's feedback specifying a particular instance where she could have introduced CE as well as from his advice regarding how to incorporate learner training in CE into her regular lessons. For Saburo, it was not only a chance to language his reasoning, but it also brought the issue of student disengagement to his attention.

Also, Noelle and Saburo both seem to have succeeded in appropriating relevant academic concepts (i.e., output hypothesis, action zone, and scaffolding) and using these to make sense of their respective microteaching experiences. Common to these two cases was trainees learning to think in concepts (Johnson, 2009). POF conferencing seems to have allowed Noelle and Saburo to use academic concepts as lenses to see their microteaching experiences differently and to guide their future thinking and actions as developing teachers. In sum, despite being enrolled in the same courses (Methods 1 and 2, and SLA), the focal trainees constructed different learning pathways, displaying different degrees of appropriation and transformation. The analysis showed how they oriented to and acted on the affordances of their POF discussions over time.

9.2 The Implications of the Study

In this section, I outline some implications of the present study for theory, methodology, and pedagogy. I discuss theoretical and methodological implications together as they are closely related.

9.2.1 Theoretical and Methodological Implications

This study offers important theoretical implications. Lefstein and Israeri (2015) questioned the suitability of LE for investigation of learning because it tends to favor the present, moment-by-moment interaction rather than longer-term processes of meaning making that take place across events and contexts, and also because it tends to emphasize the social interactional processes over cognitive processes. This is probably because LE, as a general conceptual framework, does not have an in-built theory of learning. This study therefore drew on LS theory and Vygotskian SCT. For example, the concept of languaging, whether collaborative dialogue or private speech, allows us to observe how learners work with new information and reach "an understanding of previously less well understood material" (Swain, 2006, p. 98). Seen in this light, learning can be seen and located in the here and now of the moment-by-moment interaction, including that of the POF conference, where people use language and other semiotic tools to think together—what Mercer (2019 and elsewhere) calls *interthinking*. Likewise, LS has been advanced particularly to delineate and explain the development of sociocultural and communicative competence (or lack thereof) over time (Duff & Talmy, 2011). It was this view of learning as a long-term process coupled with the Bakhtinian notions of long conversation and delayed reaction that led me to conduct the tracer analysis. While I am not aware of any previous research that has investigated teacher learning though POF conferencing from an LS perspective, this theory provides a theoretical lens that complements LE as a conceptual and methodological framework for investigating teacher learning and development (see Kobayashi & Kobayashi, 2021, for a relevant discussion).

Moreover, in this study, ELT was conceptualized as a social practice into which trainees are gradually socialized through scaffolded participation with others. As Carlgren et al. (1994) put it, "the prominence of social practice means that cognition turns into sociocognition and learning becomes situated" (p. 3). Duff and Kobayashi (2010), from an LS perspective, claim that the concept of *sociocognition* helps bring together "the social, cultural, and cognitive dimensions of situated language learning" (p. 75). The same can be said about teacher learning as socially and culturally situated in a particular programme. The LE analysis in this study allowed us to see how the focal trainee's learning within and across POF sessions might have been informed by their experiences in other situations infused with cultural values (e.g., the instructor's lectures, in-class group discussions in the SLA seminar). While having a strong foundation in sociolinguistics, LE can serve as a viable and useful framework for documenting and theorizing L2 teacher learning through POF as a sociocognitive process that entails such language-mediated processes as languaging and interthinking because it allows for both hybridity in terms of perspectives (e.g., LS, SCT) and methods (e.g., ethnographic observation, quantification) and openness in terms of resultant work (Copland & Creese, 2017).

Furthermore, this thesis speaks methodologically to the fields of L2 teacher education and language socialization by addressing research gaps in each of these fields and relating them in the area of L2 teacher learning in a novel way. Regarding POF conferencing as a nexus of the two fields, the study explored different dimensions of EFL teacher trainees' LS through POF conferences by using a variety of research methods (e.g., quantification of topics and references, microethnographic analysis of intertextuality/intercontextuality, tracer analysis). As Charalambous et al. (2018) pointed out, previous studies on teacher learning has largely treated trainees as "undifferentiated whole" that benefits similarly from video-mediated group discussions of lessons. Also, as Duff and Kobayashi (2010) pointed out, LS research has favored collective over individual experiences, perhaps due to its ethnographic "orientation to normative local cultures and communities of practice" (p. 93). By adopting longitudinal multiple-case study design coupled with the tracer analysis, this study has generated a rich illustration of each focal participant's unique learning pathway.

Another important methodological contribution is that, while focusing mainly on the POF session as a speech event, this study considered how each POF session built on earlier events and led to subsequent ones. This was made possible not only by the tracer analysis but also by the use of multiple research tools. For instance, I learned from my observations of casual interactions among trainees after microteaching sessions as well as of POF sessions that feedback could occur informally, and my fieldnotes and intertextual analysis provided evidence for this. The speech event has been used as a major unit of analysis in many LS studies (e.g., Duff, 2002; Kobayashi, 2016) while the micro-interactional process of the feedback event has been a major focus of most previous research on POF (Copland, 2011; Donaghue, 2020). However, as Rymes (2008) pointed out, by focusing only on recurrent events, researchers would fail to capture "emergent quality of speech events within face to face interactions" (p. 36).

Had I focused exclusively on the POF event, I might have overlooked the informal peer feedback that emerged out of a causal conversation after microteaching.

9.2.2 Pedagogical Implications

This study offers a number of implications for SLTE. The large number of instances where the participants discussed trainees' use of English seems to reflect the language focus in the *Course of Study*. However, it also means that much of the discussion time was spent on language, which in turn indicates that other important issues including trainees' decision-making might not have received due attention because of time constraints. One way to improve this situation may be to offer a course on English-for-teaching (Freeman at al., 2015) that provides trainees with opportunities to learn how to perform a variety of instructional acts.

Another implication relates to the depth of learning. As reported in Chapter 7, Haru's appropriation of echoing remained at a rather superficial level. How can we encourage trainees like her to engage critically with the affordances of prior events so as to rationalize their actions and articulate their reasoning in a discipline-specific way? One possible way is to take some class time to let trainees share in small groups their learning, along with any questions and/or issues that arose from their POF discussions. If conducted under the explicit guidance of the trainer, this reflection on POF might allow the trainees to gain insights from their peers. Also, the trainees could be introduced to relevant literature and encouraged to think of its relevance to their questions about their microteaching. Such guidance might not only be necessary to deepen their understanding of the pedagogical tool under discussion (e.g., teacher echoing), but also serve as a first step in fostering attitudes needed for what Borg (2010) calls *engagement with research* as a reader and user. Clearly this merits further empirical investigation. Moreover, as Noelle's case has demonstrated, trainees may benefit from proactive use of CE handbooks to enrich their classroom talk and interaction. Similarly, they may gain deeper insights into authentic usage of classroom language from corpus-based studies involving experienced teachers of English in EFL contexts (e.g., Farrell, 2020; Nicaise, 2021[33]). This research may not be readily accessible to EFL undergraduate trainees due to its complexity; however, trainers could first familiarize themselves with the literature and then help their trainees to understand some of the key findings with the goal of socializing them into autonomous engagement with research.

A third implication concerns the sustainability of the POF conferencing beyond this study. Because it was the first time for Hiroki-sensei to conduct POF sessions outside the classroom, he wanted to see how far he could go in terms of facilitating his trainees' reflection and learning. As such, he would typically allow the POF participants to talk until all of their concerns were addressed. In fact, some of the conferences lasted over two hours in the second semester. This raises a question of how sustainable this practice is. One way to address this problem is to combine the POF conferencing with individual viewing of the video at home employed in Methods 2. Trainees could watch their recorded lessons in advance and bring to the POF event selected scenes to discuss and questions to ask. This would allow the POF participants to have more focused discussions of concerns raised by themselves, thereby saving time. At the same time, they should be given opportunities to review lessons under the guidance of their trainer because PTE trainees as novices may not have a clear idea of what to look for and how to look at it in their lessons. Vygotskian SCT suggests that individuals need to experience meaning making or knowledge building first in social interaction with more experienced others if they are to internalize these complex processes. Scott et al. (2011) argue that if pedagogical link-making is not practised through teaching, it is unlikely to be appropriated by students. In short, trainees need expert mediation especially in early phases of PTE. It then follows that individual viewing should follow the type of guided POF discussions employed in this study. Also, the latter type could be incorporated into regular course meetings. In fact, Hiroki-sensei said that, while acknowledging the importance of the personal and private space that POF conferencing provides for trainees, he had begun to invite trainees willing to talk about their microlessons in class and take some class time to have public POF sessions with these volunteers with the goal of demonstrating what to focus on and how to talk about it and that this seemed to be well received by his trainees.

---

[33] Similar studies should be conducted in Japanese secondary classrooms to reveal the effective use of classroom language by Japanese teachers of English and other local English teachers, as well as by native English-speaking teachers.

A further possibility is to encourage trainees to form a study group or, to borrow Crookes's (2003) term, a *teacher development group*. In fact, many of the trainees including the four focal participants continued to meet in the following academic year to conduct microteaching and feedback sessions. This may be indicative of the trainees' emerging "habit of mind that sees teaching as continuous process of self-reflection and changes in practice as a result of collaborative working among professionals" (Lawson, 2008, p. 178). Given that an important goal of the new *Course of Study* is to foster students' proactivity, such an initiative by future teachers seems to be an important step in the right direction. Here, one may question the effectiveness of such peer learning. Asaoka (2019) rightly points out that PTE trainees' feedback may be based on an inappropriate model of teaching and “intuitive, not underpinned by theoretical knowledge” (p. 135). However, the trainees who have experienced POF, may have a better idea of what to look for in microteaching and would thus be in a better position to provide each other with constructive feedback and to talk about the teaching-leaning process in their lessons meaningfully. They would be even better prepared if they learn in class how to use reflection tools such as Fanselow’s (1977) FOCUS (Foci for Observing Communication in Settings) and Walsh’s (2011) SETT (Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk) Framework as well as what aspects of classroom interactions they are designed to deal with (Fanselow, 1988). The use of such tools would allow the POF participants “to share and discuss ideas and concepts related to education, teaching and learning and classroom practice” (Farrell, 2015, p. 90) and to overcome the problem of each participant giving equivocal accounts of the same event (Fanselow, 1977).

Moreover, Chapter 6 demonstrated that, while the instructor supported his trainees’ meaning-making efforts in multiple ways, their learning remained mostly private. However, Shulman (2004) argued that “learning flourishes when we take what we think we know and offer it as a community property among fellow learners so that it can be tested, examined, challenged, and improved” (pp. 36-37). Likewise, Putney et al. (2000) suggested that what members of a community learn can become cultural resources that other members may draw on. From these perspectives, it would seem important for trainees to have opportunities to share their learning from POF sessions with the rest of the class. It might be worthwhile to encourage them to talk informally about their learning from POF that they feel comfortable sharing with others.

Furthermore, the *Course of Study* positions dialogic learning as a means for achieving its goals. However, it can be considered as a legitimate goal in itself given that people construct their knowledge of subject matter as they learn to use dialogue (Mercer, 2019). In other words, dialogic learning, or more inclusively, dialogic education, means not only *education through dialogue* but also *education for dialogue* (Phillipson & Wegerif, 2016). What this suggests for teacher education is that teachers are expected to learn how to organize their instruction in ways that promote dialogic learning. The same goes for trainers: in order to help their trainees learn to promote dialogic learning, trainers themselves must provide opportunities for their trainees to experience and reflect on such learning. The POF conference can serve as an important context for this. However, as Mann and Copland (2010) suggested, dialogic talk is not always possible or desirable due especially to time constraints.

Importantly, dialogic learning could not be accomplished without the presence of highly skilled trainers who can recognize and seize the right moments to promote dialogue as they arise in POF interactions, and vary his instructional discourse (e.g., dialogic or authoritative) depending on the needs and circumstances of specific trainees as well as on the nature of the topics. For this, trainers need to be mindful of how they actually use talk with their trainees and consider how it matches the purpose for which it is intended. This can be made possible only by trainees’ reflection on their own POF participation, which was exactly why Hiroki-sensei agreed to be involved in the present study. In this respect, the preparation of highly skilled teacher trainers is another area that needs more emphasis. As Krishnan et al. (2017) suggests, future trainers would benefit greatly from advanced coursework that incorporates both experiential components including giving and receiving POF and reflective components such using a particular framework (e.g., Wajnryb, 1994) to analyse POF talk. Such formal education could help future and practising trainers alike become aware of how they talk, how their utterances may be perceived by their interlocutors, and what opportunities are taken or missed.

Also, as Moon (2004) argues, if trainers expect their trainees to engage in reflective practice, they should do the same to serve as implicit role models. I could not agree more with Engin when she says that trainers “may take on the role of participant researcher themselves exploring their own talk and noticing how their talk impacts on the response, and thus the reflection and learning opportunities, of their trainees” (pp. 70-71). Thus, Hiroki-sensei’s involvement in stimulated recalls and content analysis was enormously meaningful not only methodologically to opportunities to tap into his emic perspective, but also professionally to develop his own professional vision and pedagogically to serve as an implicit model for his trainees’ socialization.

9.3 Limitations of the Study and Directions for Future Research

The findings of this study should be interpreted with care dues to the following limitations. Because of its intensive nature, the present study focused on trainees enrolled in one particular programme. Conducting similar studies in other PTE programmes would allow for comparison across different contexts, thereby deepening our understanding of teacher learning through POF discussions. Also, this study focused on the trainees’ learning in their coursework. It remains to be seen to what extent it may inform the trainees’ classroom practice during their practica and subsequent teaching.

Another limitation is that the study focused on the participants who willingly invested so much of their time in the POF sessions. In fact, all the student-participants said that they enjoyed and appreciated having opportunities to talk about their lessons with their peers and trainer. Interestingly, Haru said that her friends had told her that they did not understand at all why she spent so much time discussing her lessons in the instructor's office. Although the findings of this study seems to corroborate Clark's (2001) statement that "good conversation is voluntary" (p. 177), it remains an unanswered question what fueled their investment.

Although the content analysis conducted with MAXQDA provided a crude indication of how much each participant contributed verbally and/or nonverbally in each session (see Appendix H), it does not tell us how each participant exercised their initiatives (van Lier, 2008). Systematic coding of POF interactions in terms of participants' turn-taking behaviors (e.g., self-selection, topic initiation) would shed useful light on the degree of symmetry in the POF discussions as well as on the contributions of each participant. By examining the learner initiatives of each participant in each session, researchers might be able to gain useful insights into how his/her participation evolves over time. This is an important topic given that POF itself is a social practice into which trainees need to be socialized. Along this line, future research might investigate how trainees learn how to provide feedback to each other over time. In this process, a more systematic examination of Japanese participants' use of interactional particles (e.g., *yo*, *ne*) might shed useful light on how they negotiate their epistemic stance or communicate a dialogic stance in POF interactions.

Also, this study focused on the role of Hiroki-sensei as a trainer in his trainees' professional socialization while keeping other co-participants in the background. I believe that this was an important first step to understanding the socialization process involved in the POF event since trainers can be considered as major socializing agents. However, the bi- or multi-directionality of LS has been long acknowledged (Ochs, 1990; Duff & Talmy, 2011). How do trainers become socialized as they seek to accommodate to the needs of their trainees through POF interaction? What do they learn in terms of what to focus and how to conduct feedback conferences? How do trainees learn to give feedback through their repeated engagement in the POF event? Answers to these questions would illuminate the multi-faceted, multi-directional nature of teacher learning and socialization.

Furthermore, Chapters 5 and 6 together indicated that the trainees might have had a number of lightbulb moments in their POF sessions. However, the tracer analysis in Chapters 7 and 8 showed that not all these moments led to sustained engagement that transcend the current feedback event. What affordances of their earlier POF sessions do trainees continue to work with? What informs and motivates their sustained efforts? These questions merit further attention to better understand the role of trainee agency in professional discourse socialization.

Moreover, although not a focus of this investigation, the analysis suggested that participants' relationships with their peers might have shaped and been shaped by their co-participation in POF session. Haru's emotionally charged moment was a case of the former type while Masato's POF with Noelle was a case of the latter. Future research is needed to examine the role of peer relationships in POF discussions and the role of POF discussion in relationship formation.

In this project, all the participants were willing to stay until they addressed all their concerns, but, as mentioned earlier, this might put the sustainability of the POF at risk. Future research could examine how POF participants decide the focus of their talk when they have too many items on the agenda for the amount of time scheduled. How do they prioritize what to discuss? And why? How do they use which type of talk to discuss what type of topics? These questions deserve further investigation.

An additional line of future research could study the affordances of online POF conferences. Since the spring of 2020, the coronavirus pandemic has forced universities and colleges all over the world to go online. Particularly promising is video-conferencing because its web-camera features allow co-participants in an online meeting to share materials including video-recordings in addition to seeing and talking with each other synchronously (Murrary & Christison, 2017). In fact, Hiroki-sensei and I have conducted online POF conferences in our respective courses. Future research could, for instance, compare the affordances of online POF with those of face-to-face POF, or explore how trainees learn to participate in online interactions over time.

9.4 Personal Reflection as a Linguistic Ethnographer

It is now widely acknowledged that ethnography entails the personal transformation of the researcher (Orellana, 2020). In this final section, I reflect on my own personal transformation as a linguistic ethnographer studying teacher learning through POF conferences. In Chapter 1, I presented a short account of my personal experience receiving POF in three different contexts. I knew that I preferred feedback sessions involving interactions in small groups or one-on-one situations and particularly liked my Practicum professor's way of conducting POF. In hindsight, I realized that it was the dialogic nature of the interaction that I appreciated. However, it was not clear to me what it would take to have such dialogic talk. Having examined my participant's POF discourse in many ways, I now have a clearer understanding of how dialogues are created in POF events. Also, Scott et al.'s (2006) framework has enriched my understanding of the term dialogue, enabling me to articulate how my Practicum professor's approach to POF (i.e., interactive and dialogic) differed from the approach taken during my initial teacher training at the private language school (i.e., interactive but authoritative). This in turn has made me even more assured that one of the three types of learning promoted by MEXT should be translated as dialogic learning, rather than as interactive learning.

Moreover, following van Lier (1996), I regarded teacher learning to be “the cumulative result of sustained effort and engagement over time, with continuity being central” (p. 43). I accepted this position almost intuitively based on my own experience as a teacher educator and trainee; however, I was not sure how continuity could be created. Through this project, I have learned that POF participants can continue to engage with the affordances of their earlier discussions by drawing on shared experiences and knowledge and by responding to previous utterances on later occasions. Also, I have learned that the social construction of intertextuality and intercontextuality is a key process that enables POF participants to engage in joint thinking that transcends time and space.

Furthermore, I had known that it is important to practise what you preach; however, having seen Hiroki-sensei interact with his trainees on numerous occasions during my nine-month fieldwork, I re-realized its importance and relevance in my own context. In my effort to act on my findings and emulate his practice, I have found having dialogic POF talk to be both rewarding and challenging and re-realized the importance of reflecting on my own practice. Additionally, I am now more mindful of my own use of the interactional particles having learned through my analysis of interactional data that they have powerful functions in communicating the speaker’s epistemic stance about the propositional content of his/her utterances.

In conclusion, this thesis is my attempt to answer the three research questions constructed based on my understanding of the current state of theory, research, and practice in SLTE. One major pedagogical value of the feedback event lies in its potential to provide a whole array of learning opportunities, including opportunities for trainees to learn alongside their peers what to look at and how to look at it as well as to connect the dots among their teaching practice, academic knowledge taught in coursework, and prior knowledge and understanding. Also, POF could play a therapeutic role by allowing trainees to vent negative feelings, which requires an environment where each trainee feels safe, supported, and valued.

As was also mentioned in Chapter 1, the POF in my research context was seen as an innovative way to promote PTE trainees' reflection and learning. According to Hyland and Wong (2013), innovation can be considered "successful to the extent that targeted clients are reached, informed and persuaded to buy into it" (p. 2). The trainees' willingness to spend long hours discussing their microlessons in a lively manner and their subsequent initiative to continue to meet as a group together seem to suggest their appreciation of the reflective opportunity. In short, POF as an educational innovation was instrumental in fostering the development of reflective attitudes in the trainees.

It is also worth reflecting on the difficulty that I felt in seeking the emic views of the trainees and their trainer. As described in Chapter 3, I had more opportunities to listen to and talk with Hiroki-sensei than any of the focal students, whether through interviews or content analysis. As a university tutor myself, I found it easier and more natural to spend time with the trainer. While this affiliation allowed me to better understand his emic view, it might have prevented me from obtaining the emic perspectives of the trainees and their partners. My analysis might have been more informed by the trainer’s view, although it is perhaps safe to say that the four cases presented in Chapters 7 and 8 mostly represent the focal trainees’ emic views.

The study has attempted to provide thick descriptions of Japanese undergraduates’ experiences learning to teach EFL in a university-based PTE programme. My study has taken place at a particular institution in Japan; however, detailing the dialogical practice that has taken centerstage in this context, my aim is to allow the reader to judge whether some of the findings “can be *particularized* as part of pedagogically sound curricula in other settings” (van Lier, 2003, p. 57). This suggested writer-reader interaction puts into practice Bakhtin’s (1986) words: “If an answer does not give rise to a new question from itself, it falls out of the dialogue” (p. 168). It is therefore my hope that this thesis will spark further research and dialogue about the role of POF conferencing in SLTE.

References

Adler, P. A., & Adler, P. (1987). *Membership roles in field research*. Sage.

Agar, M. (1996). *Professional stranger: An informal introduction to ethnography* (2nd ed.). Academic Press.

Ahearn, L. M. (2017). *Living language: An introduction to linguistic anthropology* (2nd Ed.). Wiley-Blackwell.

Akatsuka, N. (1994). Negative conditionality, subjectification, and conditional reasoning. In A. Athanasiado & R. Dirven (Eds.), *On conditionals again* (pp. 323–354). John Benjamins.

Akbari, R. (2007). Reflections on reflection: A critical appraisal of reflective practices in L2 teacher education. *System, 35*, 192–207. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2006.12.008

Akcan, S., & Tatar, S. (2010). An investigation of the nature of feedback given to pre-service English teacher during their practice teaching experience. *Teacher Development, 14*(2), 153–172. https://doi.org/10.1080/13664530.2010.494495

Akita, K., & Sakamoto, A. (2015). Lesson study and teachers' professional development in Japan. In K. Wood & S. Sithamparam (Eds), *Realising learning: Teachers' professional development through lesson and learning study* (pp. 25–40). Routledge.

Alexander, R. (2020). *A dialogic teaching companion*. Routledge.

Arcario, P. (1994). *Post-observation conferences in TESOL teacher education programs* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database (UMI No. 9511029).

Asaoka, C. (2019). *Early professional development in EFL teaching: Perspectives and experiences from Japan*. Multilingual Matters.

Atkinson, D., Okada, H., & Talmy, S. (2011). Ethnography and discourse analysis. In K. Hyland & B. Paltridge (Eds.), *The Bloomsbury companion to discourse analysis* (pp. 85–100). Continuum.

Au, K. H. (1990). Changes in a teacher's views of interactive comprehension instruction. In L. C. Moll (Ed.), *Vygotsky and education: Instructional implications and applications of sociohistorical psycholog*y (pp. 271–286). Cambridge University Press.

Baden, M. S., & Wimpenny, K. (2014). *A practical guide to arts-related research*. New Springer.

Baecher, L. (2020). *Video in teacher learning: Through their own eyes*. Corwin.

Baecher, L., & McCormack, B. (2015). The impact of video review on supervisory conferencing. *Language and Education, 29(*2), 153–173. https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2014.992905

Bailey, K. M. (2006). *Language teacher supervision: A case-study approach*. Cambridge University Press.

Bailey, K. M. (2012). Reflective pedagogy. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to pedagogy and practice in second language teaching* (pp. 23–37). Cambridge University Press.

Bailey, K. M., Bergthold, B., Braunstein, B., Fleischman, N. J., Holbrook, M. P., Tuman, J., Waissbulth, X., & Zambo, L. (1996). The language learner's autobiography: Examining the "apprenticeship of observation." In D. Freeman & J. C. Richards (Eds), Teacher learning in language teaching (pp. 15–40). Cambridge University Press.

Bailey, K. M., & Springer, S. E. (2013). Reflective teaching as innovation. In K. Hyland & L. C. Wong (Eds.), *Innovation and change in English language education* (pp. 106–122). Routledge.

Bakhtin, M. M. (1981). *The dialogic imagination* (M. Holquist, Ed. and C. Emerson and M. Holquist, Trans.). University of Texas Press.

Bakhtin, M. (1986). *Speech genres and other late essays*. (C. Emerson & H. Holoquist, Eds.; V. M. McGee, Trans.). University of Texas Press.

Baxter, L. A. (2004). Dialogues of relating. In R. Anderson, L. Baxter, K. N. Cissna (Eds.), *Dialogue: Theorizing differences in communication studies* (pp. 107–125). Sage.

Bell, N. D. (2007). Microteaching: What is it that is going on here? *Linguistic and Education, 18*, 24–40. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2007.04.002

Berliner, D. C. (1987). Ways of thinking about students and classrooms by more or less experienced teachers. In J. Calderhead (Ed.), *Exploring teachers' teaching* (pp. 60–83). Cassell.

Block, D. (2000). Problematizing interview data: Voices in the mind's machine? *TESOL Quarterly, 34*(4), 757–763. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587788

Blomberg, G., Stürmer, K., Seidel, T. (2011). How pre-service teachers observe teaching on video: Effects of viewers' teaching subjects and the subject of the video. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 27*(7), 1131–1140. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2011.04.008

Blommaert, J., & Dong, J. (2020). *Ethnographic fieldwork: A beginner's guide* (2nd ed.). Multilingual Matters.

Bloome, D., & Bailey, F. (1992). Studying language and literacy through events, particularity, and intertextuality. In R. Beach, J. Green, M. Kamil, & T. Shanahan (Eds.), *Multiple disciplinary approaches to researching language and literacy* (pp. 181–210). NCTE & NCRE.

Bloome, D., Beierle, M., Grigorenko, M., & Goldman, S. (2009). Learning overtime: Uses of intercontextuality, collective memories, and classroom chronotopes in the construction of learning opportunities in a ninth-grade language arts classroom. *Journal of Language and Education, 23*(4), 313–334. https://doi.org/10.1080/09500780902954257

Bloome, D., Carter, S. P., Christian, B. M., Otto, S., Shuart-Faris, N. (2005). *Discourse analysis and the study of classroom language and literacy events: A microethnographic perspectives*. Routledge.

Bloome, D., & Egan-Robertson (2004). The social construction of intertextuality in classroom reading and writing lesson. In N. Shuart-Faris & D. Bloome (Eds.). *Uses of intertextuality in classroom and educational research* (pp. 17–64). Information Age.

Borg, S. (2010). *Language teacher research engagement. Language Teaching, 43*(4), 391–429. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444810000170

Boud, D., & Molly, E. (2012). Problems with feedback In D. Boud & E. Molly (Eds.), *Feedback in higher education and professional education: Understanding it and doing it well* (pp. 1–10). Routledge.

Boyd, M. P., & Markarian, W. C. (2011). Dialogic teaching: Talk in service of a dialogic stance. *Language and Education, 25*(6), 515–534. https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2011.597861

Briggs, C. L. (1986). *Learning how to ask: A sociolinguistic appraisal of the role of the interview in social science research*. Cambridge University Press.

Brooks, R., te Riele, K., & Maguire, M. (Eds.). (2014). *Ethics and education research*. Sage.

Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1983). *Discourse analysis*. Cambridge University Press.

Brown, H. D. (2015). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (4th ed.). Pearson Education.

Brown, J. D. (2014). *Mixed methods research for TESOL*. Edinburgh University Press.

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. C. (1987). *Some universals in language usage*. Cambridge University Press.

Bruner, J. (1983). *Child's talk: Learning to use language*. Norton.

Buchanan, D., Boddy, D., & McCalman, J. (1988). Getting in, getting on, getting out, and getting back. In A. Bryman (Ed.), *Doing research in organizations* (pp. 68–81). Routledge.

Busch, D. (2010). Pre-service teacher beliefs about language learning: The second language acquisition course as an agent for change. *Language Teaching Research*, *14*, 318–337. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168810365239

Bygate, M. (2001). Effects of task repetition on the structure and control of language. In M. Bygate, P. Skehan, & M. Swain (Eds.), *Researching pedagogic tasks: Second language learning, teaching, and assessment* (pp. 23–49). Longman.

Bygate, M. (2018). Introduction. In M. Bygate (Ed.). *Language learning through task repetition* (pp. 1–25). John Benjamins.

Carlgren, I., Handel, G., & Vaage, S. (1994). Introduction. In I. Carlgren, G. Handal, & S. Vaage (Eds.), *Teachers' minds and actions: Research on teachers' thinking and practice* (pp. 1–6). Routledge.

Capel, S. A., Leask, M., & Turner, T. (2005). *Learning to teach in the secondary school: A companion to school experience*. Routledge.

Charalambous, C. Y., Philippou, S., & Olympiou, G. (2018). Reconsidering the use of video-clubs for student-teachers' learning during field placement: Lessons drawn from a longitudinal multiple case study. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 74*, 49–61. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2018.04.002

Charmaz, K. (2014). *Constructing grounded theory.* Sage.

Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second language classrooms: Research on teaching and learning*. Cambridge University Press.

Clark, C. M. (2001). *Talking shop: Authentic conversation and teacher learning*. Teacher College Press.

Clark, H. H. (1996). *Using language*. Cambridge University Press.

Coffey, A. (1999). *The ethnographic self: Fieldwork and the representation of identity*. Sage.

Cook, H. M. (1990). The sentence-final particle ne as a tool for cooperation in Japanese conversation. In H. Hoji (Ed.), *Japanese/Korean Linguistics*, vol. 1 (pp. 29–44). Stanford University Press.

Cook, H. M. (2008). *Socializing identities through speech style: Learners of Japanese as a foreign language*. Multilingual Matters.

Copland, F. (2008). *Feedback in pre-service English language teacher training: Discourses of process and power* (Doctoral Thesis). Available from EthOS e-thesis online service.

Copland, F. (2010). Causes of tension in post-observation feedback in pre-service teacher training: An alternative view. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 26*(3), 466–472. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2009.06.001

Copland, F. (2011). Negotiating face in the feedback conference: A linguistic ethnographic approach. *Journal of Pragmatics, 43*(15), 3832–3843. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2011.09.014

Copland, F. (2012). Legitimate talk in feedback conferences. *Applied Linguistics, 33*(1), 1–20. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amr040

Copland, F. (2015a). Case study two: Researching feedback conference in pre-service teacher education. In F. Copland & A. Creese (Eds.), *Linguistic ethnography: Collecting, analysing, and presenting data* (pp. 89–116). Sage.

Copland, F. (2015b). Examining talk in post-observation feedback conferences: Learning to do linguistic ethnography. In J. Snell, S. Shaw, & F. Copland (Eds.), *Linguistic ethnography: Explorations* (pp. 110–128). Palgrave Macmillan.

Copland, F. (2018). Observation and fieldnotes. In A. Phakiti, P. De Costa, L. Plonsky, & S. Starfield (Eds), *The Palgrave handbook of applied linguistics: Research methodology* (pp. 249–268). Palgrave Macmillan.

Copland, F., & Creese, A. (2015). *Linguistic ethnography: Collecting, analysing, and presenting data*. Sage.

Copland, F., & Creese, A. (2018). Linguistic ethnography. In L. Litosseliti (Ed.), *Research methods in linguistics* (2nd ed., pp. 259–280). Bloomsbury.

Copland, F., & Donaghue, H. (2021). *Analyzing discourses in teacher observation feedback conference*s. Routledge.

Creese, A. (2013). Linguistic ethnography. In L. Litosseliti (Ed.), *Research methods in linguistics* (pp. 138–154). Bloomsbury.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (2nd ed.). Sage.

Crookes, G. (1997). SLA and language pedagogy. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 19*, 93–116.

Crookes, G. (2003). *A practicum in TESOL: Professional development through practice*. Cambridge University Press.

Cutting, J. (1995). MSc common room conversations: Topics and terms. In D. Graddol & S. Thomas (Eds.), *Language in a changing Europe* (pp. 24–34). Multilingual Matters.

Dalaney, J. (2015). The “dirty mirror” of reflective practice: Assessing self- and peer-evaluation on a CELTA course. In R. Wilson and M. Porter. (Eds.), Assessing language teachers’ professional skills and knowledge (pp. 91–112). Cambridge University Press.

Daniels, H. (2016). *Vygotsky and pedagogy* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Darling-Hammond, L., & Bransford, J. (Eds.). (2005). *Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do*. Jossey Bass.

Davies, C. A. (2008). *Reflexive ethnography: A guide to researching selves and others* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Daynes, S., & Williams, T. (2018). *On ethnography*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Delamont, S. (2016). *Fieldwork in educational settings: Methods, pitfalls, and perspectives*. Routledge.

Denicolo, P., Long, T., & Bradley-Cole, K. (2016). *Constructivist approaches and research methods: A practical guide to exploring personal meanings*. Sage.

Dewalt, K. M., & Dewalt, B. R. (2002). *Participant observation: A guide for fieldworkers*. AltaMira Press.

Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think: A restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the educative process.* Heath and Company.

Dixon, C., Green, J., & Brandts, L. (2005). Studying the discursive construction of texts in classrooms through interactional ethnography. In R. Beach, J. Green, M. Kamil & T. Shanahan (Eds.), *Multidisciplinary perspectives on literacy research* (pp. 349–390). Hampton Press.

Donaghue, H. (2020). Time to construct positive identities: Display questions in post observation teacher feedback. *Classroom Discourse, 11*(3), 193–208. https://doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2019.1581626

Donaghue, H., & Oxholm, A. (2017). Engaging student teachers in reflection through microteaching and interaction. *The European Journal of Applied Linguistics and TEFL, 6*(2), 145–163.

Dörnyei, Z., & Murphey, T. (2003). *Group dynamics in the language classroom*. Cambridge University Press.

Douglas Fir Group (2016). A transdisciplinary framework for SLA in a multilingual world. *Modern Language Journal, 100*, 19–47. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12301

Drew, P., & Heritage, J. (1992) *Talk at work: Interaction in institutional settings.* Cambridge University Press.

Drew, P., Raymond, G., & Weinberg, D. (2006). *Talk and interaction in social research methods.* Sage.

Duff, P. A. (2002). The discursive co-construction of knowledge, identity, and difference: An ethnography of communication in the high school mainstream. *Applied Linguistics, 23*(3), 289–322. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/23.3.289

Duff, P. A. (2003). Intertextuality and hybrid discourses: The infusion of pop culture in educational discourse. *Linguistics & Education, 14*(3–4), 231–276. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2004.02.005

Duff, P. (2007a). Beyond generalizability: Contextualization, complexity, and credibility in applied linguistics research. In M. Chalhoub-Deville, C. Chapelle, & P. Duff (Eds.), *Inference and generalizability in applied linguistics: Multiple perspectives* (pp. 65–96). John Benjamins.

Duff, P. A. (2007b). Second language socialization as a sociocultural theory: Insights and issues. *Language Teaching, 40*(4), 309–319. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444807004508

Duff, P. (2008). *Case study research in applied linguistics*. Lawrence Erlbaum.

Duff, P. A. (2010). Language socialization into academic discourse communities. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 30*, 169–192. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190510000048

Duff, P. (2012a). *Issues of identity.* In S. M. Gass & A. Mackey (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition*, (pp. 410–426). Routledge.

Duff, P. A. (2012b). Second language socialization. In A. Duranti, E. Ochs, & B. Schieffelin (Eds.), *Handbook of language socialization* (pp. 564–586). John & Wiley.

Duff, P. A. (2013). Case study: Defining case study research. In C. Chapelle (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of applied linguistics* (pp. 1–8). Wiley-Blackwell. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal0121

Duff, P. A. (2014). Case study research in language learning and use. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 34*, 233–255. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051

Duff, P. A. (2015). Examining agency in (second) language socialization research. In P. Deters, X. Gao, E. R. Miller, & G. Vitanova (Eds), *Theorizing and analyzing agency in second language learning: Interdisciplinary approaches* (pp. 54–72). Multilingual Matters.

Duff, P. A. (2020). Case study research: Making language learning complexities visible. In J. McKinley & H. Rose (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of research methods in applied linguistics* (pp. 144–153). Routledge.

Duff, P., & Early, M. (1996). Problematics of classroom research across sociopolitical contexts. In S. Gass & J. Schachter (Eds.), *Second language classroom research: Issues and opportunities* (pp. 1–30). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Duff, P. A., & Kobayashi, M. (2010). The intersection of social, cognitive, and cultural processes in language learning: A second language socialization approach. In R. Batstone (Ed.), *Sociocognitive perspectives on language use and language learning* (pp. 75–93). Oxford University Press.

Duff, P. A., & Talmy, S. (2011). Language socialization approaches to second language socialization: Social, cultural, and linguistic development in additional languages. In D. Atkinson (Ed.), *Alternative approaches to second language acquisition* (pp. 95–116). Routledge.

Edge, J. (2011). *The reflexive teacher educator in TESOL: Roots and wings*. Routledge.

Edge, J., & Richards, K. (1998). May I see your warrant, please?: Justifying outcomes in qualitative research. *Applied Linguistics, 19*(3), 334–356. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/19.3.334

Edwards, A. (1995). Teacher education: Partnerships in pedagogy? *Teaching and Teacher Education, 11*(6), 595–610.

Ellis, R. (2010). Second language acquisition, teacher education, and language pedagogy. *Language Teaching, 23*(2), 182–201. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444809990139

Ellis, V., Edwards, A., & Smagorinsky, P. (2010). *Cultural historical perspectives on teacher education*. Routledge.

Emerson, R. M., Frets, R. I., & Shaw, L. L. (2001). Participant observation and fieldnotes. In P. Atkinson, A. Coffey, S. Delomont, J. Lofland, & L. Lofland (Eds.), *Handbook of ethnography* (pp. 353–368). Sage.

Emerson, R. M., Frets, R. I., & Shaw, L. L. (2011). *Writing ethnographic fieldnotes* (2nd ed.). University of Chicago Press.

Engin, M. (2013). Questioning to scaffold: An exploration of questions in pre-service teacher training sessions. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 36*(1), 39–54. https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2012.678485

Engin, M. (2014). Macro-scaffolding: Contextual support for teacher learning. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 39*(5), 26–40.

Engin, M. (2015a). Trainer talk in post-observation feedback sessions: An exploration of scaffolding. *Classroom Discourse, 6*(1), 57–72. https://doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2014.919867

Engin, M. (2015b). Written artefacts in post-conference feedback sessions: The running commentary as a support for teacher learning. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 41*(3), 254–266. https://doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2015.1041289

Erickson, F. (1982). Classroom discourse as improvisation: Relationships between academic task structures and social participation structures in lessons. In L. C. Wilkinson (Ed), *Communicating in the classroom* (pp. 153–181). Academic Press.

Erickson, F. (1996). Ethnographic microanalysis. In S. L. McKay & N. Hornberger (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language teaching* (pp. 283–306). Cambridge University Press.

Erickson, F. (2006). Definition and analysis of data from videos: Some research procedures and their rationales. In J. L. Green, G. Camilli, & P. B. Elmore (Eds.), *The handbook of complementary methods in education research* (pp. 177–191). Routledge.

Fanselow, J. F. (1977). Beyond Rashomon: Conceptualizing and describing the teaching act. *TESOL Quarterly, 11*(1), 17–39. https://doi.org/10.2307/3585589

Fanselow, J. F. (1988). "Let's see": Contrasting conversations about teaching. *TESOL Quarterly, 22*(1), 113–130. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587064

Farr F. (2006). Reflecting on reflections: The spoken word as a professional development tool in language teacher education. In R. Hughes (Ed.) *Spoken English, TESOL and Applied Linguistics,* (pp. 182–215). Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230584587_9

Farr, F. (2011). *The discourse of teaching practice feedback: A corpus-based investigation of spoken and written modes*. Routledge.

Farr, F. (2015). *Practice in TESOL.* Edinburgh University Press.

Farr, F., Farrell, A., & Riordan, E. (2019). *Social interaction in language teacher educatio*n. Edinburgh University Press.

Farrell, A. (2015). In the classroom. In F. Farr (Ed.), *Practice in TESOL* (pp. 89–111). Edinburgh University Press.

Farrell, A. (2020). *Corpus perspectives on the spoken modes used by EFL teachers*. Routledge.

Farrell, T. S. C. (2009). *Talking, listening, and teaching: A guide to classroom communication*. Corwin Press.

Fischer, C. T. (2011). *Qualitative research methods for psychologists: Introduction through empirical studies*. Academic Press.

Fisher, R. (2013). *Creative dialogue: Talk for thinking in the classroom*. Routledge.

Floriani, A. (1994). Negotiation what counts: Roles and relationships, content and meaning, texts and context. *Linguistics and Education, 5*(3&4), 241–274. https://doi.org/10.1016/0898-5898(93)90002-R

Franks, A. (2015). How physical environment affects learning: School teachers engaging with theater-based pedagogies. In S. Davis, B. Ferholt, H. G. Clemson, S. Jansson, & A. Marjanovic-Shane (Eds.), *Dramatic interactions in education: Vygotskian and sociocultural approaches to drama, education and research* (pp. 229–244). Bloomsbury.

Freeman, D. (1996). Renaming experience/reconstructing practice: Developing new understandings of teaching. In D. Freeman & J. C. Richards (Eds), *Teacher learning in language teaching,* (pp. 221–241). Cambridge University Press.

Freeman, D. (2016). *Educating second language teachers: The same things done differently*. Oxford University Press.

Freeman, D., & Cazden, C. (1991). Learning to talk like a professional: Some pragmatics of foreign language teacher training. In L. F. Bouton & Y. Kachru (Eds.), *Pragmatics and language learning* (pp. 225–245). University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Freeman, D., & Johnson, K. E. (1998). Reconceptualizing the knowledge-base of language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(3), 397–417. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588114

Freeman, D., Katz, A., Gomez, P. G., & Burns, A. (2015). English-for-teaching: Rethinking teacher proficiency in the classroom. *ELT Journal, 69*(2), 129–139. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccu074

Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. Herder & Herder.

Gardner, R. (2001). *When listeners talk: Response tokens and listener stance*. John Benjamins.

Garton, S., & Copland, F. (2010). “I like this interview: I get cakes and cats!”: The effect of prior relationships on interview talk. *Qualitative Research 10*(5), 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1177/1468794110375231

Gebhard, J. G., & Oprandy, R. (1999). *Language teaching awareness: A guide for exploring beliefs and practices*. Cambridge University Press.

Gee, J. P. (2008). A sociocultural perspective on opportunity to learn. In P. Moss (Ed.), *Assessment, equity, and opportunity to learn* (pp. 76–108). Cambridge University Press.

Gee, J. P. (2015). Discourse, small d, big D. In K. Tracy (Ed.), *The international encyclopedia of language and social interaction* (pp. 418–422). Wiley. https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/9781118611463.wbielsi016.

Gee, J., & Green, J. L. (1998). Discourse analysis, learning, and social practice: A methodological study. *Review of Research in Education, 23*, 119–169.

Geertz, D. (1973). *The interpretation of cultures*. Basic Books.

Gelfuso, A. (2017). Facilitating the development of preservice teachers' pedagogical content knowledge of literacy and agentic identities: Examining a teacher educator's intentional language choices during the video-mediated reflection. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 66*, 33–46. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2017.03.012

Geyer, N. (2008). *Discourse and politeness: Ambivalent face in Japanese*. Continuum.

Gherardi, S. (2016). *How to conduct a practice-based study: Problems and methods*. Edward Elgar.

Giampapa, F., & Canagarajah, S. (2020). *Skilled migration and global English*. Routledge.

Gilbert, N. (2008). *Researching social life*. Sage.

Glenn, P., & Holt, E. (2013). Introduction. In P. Glenn & E. Holt (Eds.), *Studies of laughter in interaction* (pp. 1–22). Continuum.

Gobo, G. (2008). *Doing ethnography*. Sage.

Goffman, E. (1981). *Forms of talk*. University of Pennsylvania Press.

Golombek, P. (2011). Dynamic assessment in teacher education: Using dialogic video protocols to intervene in teacher thinking and activity. In K. E. Johnson & P. Golombek (Eds.), *Research on second language teacher education: A sociocultural perspective on professional development* (pp. 121–135). Routledge.

Goodwin, C. (1994). Professional vision. *American Anthropologist, 96*(3), 606-633. https://doi.org/10.1525/aa.1994.96.3.02a00100

Goodwin C., & Duranti, A. (1992). Rethinking context: An introduction. In A. Duranti & C. Goodwin. (Eds.), *Rethinking context: Language as an interactive phenomenon* (pp. 1–42). Cambridge University Press.

Gorsuch, G. (1998). Yakudoku EFL instruction in two Japanese high school classrooms: An exploratory study. *JALT Journal, 20*(1), 6–32.

Grasseni, C. (2008). Learning to see: World-views, skilled visions, skilled practice. In N. Halstead, E. Hirsch, & J. Okely (Eds.), *Knowing how to know: Fieldwork and the ethnographic present* (pp. 151–172). Berghahn Books.

Graves, K. (2009). The curriculum of language teacher education. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 115–124). Cambridge University Press.

Green, E. (2014). *Building a better teacher: How teaching works*. W. W. Norton & Company.

Green, J., Franquiz, M., & Dixon, C. (1997). The myth of the objective transcript: Transcription as a situated act. *TESOL Quarterly, 31*, 171–176. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587984

Greer, T. (2016). On doing Japanese awe in English talk. In M. T. Prior & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Emotion in multilingual interaction* (pp. 111–130). John Benjamins.

Grossman, P. L., Smagorinsky, P., & Valencia, S. (1999). Appropriating tools for teaching English: A theoretical framework for research on learning to teach. *American Journal of Education, 108*(1), 1–29. https://www.jstor.org/stable/1085633

Guillemin, M., & Gillam, L. (2004). Ethics, reflexivity, "ethically important moments" in research. *Qualitative Inquiry, 10*, 261–280. https://doi.org/10.1177/1077800403262360

Gumperz, J. (1982). *Discourse strategies*. Cambridge University Press.

Gumperz, J. (2001). Interactional sociolinguistics: A personal perspective. In D. Schifrin, D. Tannen, & H. Hamilton (Eds.), *The handbook of discourse analysis* (pp. 215–228). Blackwell.

Haenen, J., Schrijnemaker, H., & Stufken, J. (2003). Sociocultural theory and the practice of teaching historical concepts. In A. Kozuklin, B. Gindis, V. S. Ageyev, S. M. & Miller (Eds.), *Vygotsky's educational theory in cultural context* (pp. 246–266). Cambridge University Press.

Hall, J. (2017). *A linguistic ethnography of learning to teach English at Japanese junior high school* (Doctoral Thesis). Available from EthOS e-these online service.

Hall, J. (2020). A self-critique of facilitating dialogic reflective practice with novice teachers. *Reflective Practice, 21*(5), 672–685. https://doi.org/10.1080/14623943.2020.1798920

Hall, J. K. (2018). *Essentials of SLA for L2 teachers: A transdisciplinary approach*. Routledge.

Hammersley, M., & Atkinson, P. (2019). *Ethnography: Principles in practice* (4th ed.). Routledge.

Harmer, J. (2012). *Essential teacher knowledge: Core concepts in English language teaching.* Pearson Education.

Harvey, J. K., & Vásquez, C. (2015). Preparing for the complexities of teaching: Modelling conceptual thinking in post-observation conferences. *Ilha do Desterro, 68*(1) 91–103. https://doi.org/10.5007/2175-8026.2015v68n1p91

Hasegawa, Y. (2010). *Soliloquy in Japanese and English*. John Benjamins.

Hasegawa, Y. (2015). *Japanese: A linguistic introduction*. Cambridge University Press.

Hayano, K. (2011). Claiming epistemic primacy: yo-marked assessment in Japanese. In Stivers, L. Mondada, & J. Steensig (Eds.), *The morality of knowledge in conversation* (pp. 58–81). Cambridge University Press.

Hayashi, M. (2003). *Joint construction of utterance in Japanese conversation*. John Benjamins.

Hayashi, M. (2010). An overview of the question-response system in Japanese. *Journal of Pragmatics, 42*, 2685–2702. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2010.04.006

He, A. (2003). Novices and their speech roles in Chinese heritage language classes. In R. Bayley & S. Schecter (Eds.), *Language socialization in bilingual and multilingual societies* (pp. 126–146). Multilingual Matters.

Heath, S. B., & Street, B. (2008). *On ethnography: Approaches to language and literacy research.* Teachers College Press

Hedgcock, J. (2002). Toward a socioliterate approach to second language teacher education. *Modern Language Journal, 86(*3), 299–317. https://doi.org/10.1111/1540-4781.00151

Hedgcock, J. (2009). Acquiring knowledge of discourse conventions in teacher education. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds), *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 144–152). Cambridge University Press.

Hedgcock, J. S., & Lee, H. (2017). An exploratory study of academic literacy socialization: Building genre awareness in a teacher education program. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *26*, 17–28. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2017.01.004

Heller, M., Pietikäinen, S., & Pujolar, J. (2018). *Critical sociolinguistic research methods: Studying language issues that matter*. Routledge.

Hepburn, A., & Bolden, G. B. (2017). *Transcribing for social research*. Sage.

Heritage, J. (1984). A change-of-state token and aspects of its sequential development. In J. M. Atkinson & J. Heritage (Eds.), *Structures of social action: Studies in conversation analysis*. Cambridge University Press.

Heritage, J., & Clayman, S. (2010). *Talk in action: Interaction, identities, and institutions*. Wiley-Blackwell.

Heyl, B. S. (2007). Ethnographic interviewing. In P. Atkinson, S. Delamont, J. Lofland, & L. Lofland (Eds.), *Handbook of ethnography* (pp. 369–283). Sage.

Hinds, J., Iwasaki, S., & Maynard, S. (1987). *Perspectives on topicalization: The case of Japanese wa.* John Benjamins.

Hobbs, V., & Kubanyiova, M. (2008). The challenge of researching language teachers: What research manuals don't tell us. *Language Teaching Research, 12*(4), 495-513. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168808097162

Holstein, J. A., & Gubrium, J. F. (2003). Introduction. In J. A. Holstein & J. F. Gubrium (Eds.), *Inside the interviewing: New lenses, new concepts* (pp. 1-30). Sage.

Horii, S. (2014). Second language education and language teacher education. In M. Bigelow & J. Ennser-Kananen (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of educational linguistics* (pp. 313–324). Routledge.

Hornberger, N (2003). Linguistic anthropology of education (LAE) in context. In S. Wortham & B. Rymes (Eds.), *Linguistic anthropology of education* (pp. 246–270). Praeger Publishers.

Hyland, K., & Wong, L. L. C. (2013). Introduction: Innovation and implementation of change. In K. Hyland & L. L. C. Wong (Eds.), *Innovation and change in English language education* (pp. 1–10). Routledge.

Hyland, F., & Lo, M. M. (2006). Examining interaction in the teaching practicum: Issues of language, power, and control. *Mentoring & Tutoring, 14*(2), 163–186.

Hymes, D. (1972a). Models of the interactions of language and social life. In J. Gumperz & D. Hymes (Eds.), *Directions in sociolinguistics* (pp. 35–71). Holt. Rinehart, & Winston.

Hymes, D. (1972b). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Homes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics: Selected readings* (pp. 269–293). Penguin.

Hymes, D. (1974). *Foundations in sociolinguistics: An ethnographic approach*. University of Pennsylvania Press.

Hymes D. (1996). *Ethnography, linguistics, narrative inequality: Toward an understanding of voice*. Taylor & Francis.

Ishida, M., Jinbo, H., Hisamura, K., & Sakai, S. (2011). (Eds.). *Eigo kyooshi no seicho: Motomerareru senmonsei* [English language teacher development: Desired expertise]. JACET.

Iwasaki, S. (2013). *Japanese* (2nd ed.). John Benjamins.

JACET SIG on English Language Education. (2017). *The foundations and practice of action-oriented English language education: Teachers develop* [koodoo shikoo no eigoka kyooiku: kyooshi wa seichoo suru]. Sanshuusha.

Jackson, J. E. (1990). “I am a Fieldnote”: Fieldnotes as a symbol of professional identity. In R. Sanjek (Ed.), *Fieldnotes: The makings of anthropology* (pp. 3–33). Cornell University Press.

Jenks, C. J. (2011). *Transcribing talk and interaction: Issues in the representation of communication data*. John Benjamins.

Johnson, K. E. (1995). *Understanding communication in second language classrooms*. Cambridge University Press.

Johnson, K. E. (2009). *Second language teacher education: A sociocultural perspective*. Routledge.

Johnson, K. E., & Arshavskaya, E. (2011). Strategic mediation in learning to teach: Reconceptualizing the microteaching simulation in an MA TESL methodology course. In K. E. Johnson & P. R. Golombek (Eds.), *Research on second language teacher education: A sociocultural perspective on professional development* (pp. 168–185). Routledge.

Johnson, K. E., & Freeman, D. (2001). Teacher learning in second language teacher education: A socially-situated perspective. *Revista Brasileira de Linguistica Aplicada, 1*(1), 53–69. http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S1984-63982001000100004

Johnson, K. E., & Golombek, P. R. (2011). The transformative power of narrative in second language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly, 45*(3), 486–509.

Johnson, K. E., & Golombek, P. R. (2016). *Mindful L2 teacher education: A sociocultural perspectives on cultivating teachers' professional development*. Routledge.

Jones, J. S. (2010). Introductions. In J. S. Jones & S. Watt (Eds.). *Ethnography in social science practice* (pp. 3–12). Routledge.

Kamio, A. (1997). *Territory of information*. John Benjamins.

Karpov, Y. (2003). Vygotsky's doctrine of scientific concepts: Its role for contemporary education. In A. Kozulin, B. Gindis, V. Ageyev, & S. Miller (Eds.), *Vygotsky's educational theory in cultural context* (pp. 65–82). Cambridge University Press.

Kennedy, M. M. (1992). The problem of improving teacher quality while balancing supply and demand. In D. Guilford & E. Boe (Eds.), *Teacher supply, demand, and quality* (pp. 65–108). Washington D.C., National Academy of Science.

Kidd, J. A. (2016). *Face and enactment of identities in the L2 classroom*. Multilingual Matters.

Kiely, R., & Askham, J. (2012). Furnished imagination: The impact of preservice teacher training on early career work in TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly, 46*(3), 496–518. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.39

Kim, Y., & Silver, R. E. (2016). Provoking reflective thinking in post observation conversations. *Journal of Teacher Education, 67*(3), 203–219. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487116637120

King, N., Horrocks, C., & Brooks, J. (2019). *Interviews in qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Sage.

Kobayashi, E., & Kobayashi, M. (2018).Second language learning through repeated engagement in a poster presentation task. In M. Bygate (Ed.), *Learning through task repetition* (pp. 223–254). John Benjamins.

Kobayashi, E., & Kobayashi, M. (2021). A language socialisation approach to exploring feedback conferences. In F. Copland & H. Donaghue (Eds.), *Analysing discourses in teacher observation feedback conferences* (pp. 204-205). Routledge.

Kobayashi, M. (2004). *A sociocultural study of second language tasks: Activity, agency, and language socialization* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from UMI ProQuest Dissertations and Theses (Accession Order No. NQ 99492)

Kobayashi, M. (2016). L2 academic discourse socialization through oral presentations: An undergraduate student's learning trajectory in study abroad. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 72*(1), 95–112. http://dx.doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.2494

Kobayashi, M., Zappa–Hollman, S., & Duff, P. (2017). Academic discourse socialization. In P. Duff & S. May (Eds.), *Language socialization: Encyclopedia of language and education* (3rd ed., pp. 239–254). Springer.

Koshik, I. (2002). Designedly incomplete utterances: A pedagogical practice for eliciting knowledge displays in error correction sequences. *Research on Language and Social Interaction, 35*(3), 277–309. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327973RLSI3503_2

Kotsopoulos, D. (2009). Dialogic inquiry. In A. J. Mills, G. Durepos, & E. Wiebe (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of case study* (pp. 297–300). Sage.

Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition.* Pergamon Press.

Krefting, L. (1991). Rigor in qualitative research: The assessment of trustworthiness. *The American Journal of Occupational Therapy, 45*(3), 214–222. https://doi.org/10.5014/ajot.45.3.214

Krishnan, A., Pahl, C., & Bailey, K. M. (2017), Examining the discourse of language teacher supervision: The learning experiences of two supervisor trainees. In L. C. Wong, & K. Hyland (Eds.), *Faces of English education* (pp. 231–244). Routledge.

Kubanyiova, M. (2008). Rethinking research ethics in contemporary applied linguistics research: The tensions between macroethical and microethical perspectives in situated research. *The Modern Language Journal, 92*(4), 503–517. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2008.00784.x

Kuckartz, U., & Rädiker, S. (2019). *Analyzing qualitative data with MAXQDA: Text, audio, and video.* Springer.

Kuno, S. (1973). *The structure of the Japanese languages*. The MIT Press.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001). Toward a postmethod pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly, 35*, 537–560. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588427

Küpers, W. (2014). Between the visible and the invisible in organizations. In E. Bell, S. Warren, & J. E. Schroeder (Eds.), *The Routledge companion to visual organization* (pp. 19–32). Routledge.

Kurtoglu-Hooton, N. (2008). The design of post-observation feedback and its impact on student teachers. In S. Garton & K. Richards (Eds.), *Professional encounters in TESOL: Discourses of teachers in teaching*, (pp. 24–41). Palgrave Macmillan.

Kurtoglu-Hooton, N. (2016). *Confirmatory feedback in teacher education: An instigator of student teacher learning.* Palgrave.

Kvale, S., & Brinkmann, S. (2009). *InterViews: Learning the craft of qualitative research interviewing* (2nd ed.) Sage.

Lantolf, J. P. (1994). Sociocultural theory and the second-language classroom: The lesson of strategic interaction. In J. E. Alatis (Ed.), *Georgetown University Round Table on Language and Linguistics 1993: Strategic interaction and language acquisition* (pp. 220–233). Georgetown University Press.

Lantolf, J. P. (2011). The sociocultural approaches to second language acquisition: Sociocultural theory, second language acquisition, and artificial development. In D. Atkinson (Ed.), *Alternative approaches to second language acquisition* (pp. 24–47). Routledge.

Lantolf, J. P., & Poehner, M. (2014). *Sociocultural theory and the pedagogical imperatives in L2 education: Vygotskian Praxis and the research/practice divide*. Routledge.

Lantolf, J. P., & Thorne, S. L. (2006). *Sociocultural theory and the genesis of second language development*. Oxford University Press.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (1983). Training teachers or educating a teacher. In J. E. Alatis, H. H. Stern, & P. Strevens (Eds.), *Georgetown University Round Table on Language and Linguistics 1983* (pp. 264–274). Georgetown University Press.

Larsen-Freeman, D., & Celce-Murcia, M., (2016). *The grammar book: Form, meaning, and use for English language teachers* (3rd ed.). Heinle Cengage Learning.

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge University Press.

Lawson, T. (2008). Assessing students. In S. Dymoke & J. Harrison, J. (Eds.), *Reflective teaching and learning* (pp. 155–194). Sage.

Lee, D. (2007). Involvement and the Japanese interactive particles ne and yo. *Journal of Pragmatics, 39*, 363–388. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2006.06.004

Lefstein, A., & Israeri, M. (2015). Applying linguistic ethnography to educational practice: Notes on the interaction of academic research and professional sensibilities. In J. Snell, S. Shaw, & F. Copland (Eds.), *Linguistics ethnography: Interdisciplinary explorations* (pp. 187–206). Palgrave Macmillan.

Lemke, J. L. (2005). Ideology, intertextuality, and the communication of science. In D. Lockwood, P. Fries, W. Spruiell, & M. Cummings (Eds.), *Relations and functions with around language* (pp. 32–55). Continuum.

Leung, C., & Teasdale, A. (1999). ESL Teacher competence: Professional education and the nature of professional knowledge. In H. Trappes-Lomax & I. McGrath (Eds.), *Theory in language teacher education* (pp. 57–69). Longman.

Levelt, W. J. M. (1989). *Speaking: From intention to articulation*. The MIT Press.

Light, D. (2010). The final stage: Writing up ethnographic research. In J. S. Jones & S. Watt (Eds.), *Ethnography in social science practice* (pp. 173–186). Routledge.

Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (2013). *How languages are learned* (4th ed.). Oxford University Press.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Lincoln, Y. S., Lynham, S. A., & Guba, E. G. (2018). Paradigmatic controversies, and emerging confluences, revisited. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (5th ed., pp. 108–150). Sage.

Linell, P. (2009). *Rethinking language, mind, and world dialogically*. Information Age.

Littleton, K., & Mercer, N. (2013). *Interthinking: Putting talk to work*. Routledge.

LoCastro, V. (1996). English language education in Japan. In H. Coleman (Ed.), *Society and the language classroom* (pp. 40−58). Cambridge University Press.

Lortie, D. C. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*. The University of Chicago Press.

Loughran, J. (2010). *What expert teachers do: Enhancing professional knowledge for classroom practice*. Routledge.

Louw, S., Watson Todd, R. W. & Jimarkon, P. (2016). Teacher trainers' beliefs about feedback on teaching practice. Negotiating the tensions between authoritativeness and space. *Applied Linguistics, 37*(6), 745–764.

Madden, R. (2010). *Being ethnographic: A guide to the theory and practice of ethnography*. Sage.

Mahn, H. (2015). Classroom discourse and interaction in the zone of proximal development. In N. Markee (Ed.), *The handbook of classroom discourse and interaction* (pp. 250–264). Malden, MA: Wiley Blackwell.

Mann, S. (2002). Talking ourselves into understanding. In K. E. Johnson & Golombek (Eds.), *Teachers' narrative inquiry as professional development* (pp. 159-209). Cambridge University Press.

Mann, S. (2016). *The research interview: Reflective practice and reflexivity in research processes*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Mann, S., & Copland, F. (2010). Dialogic talk in the post-observation conference: An investment for reflection. In G. Park, H. P. Widodo & A. Cirocki (Eds.), *Observation of teaching: Bridging theory and practice through research on teaching* (pp. 175–191). Lincom Europa.

Mann, S., & Walsh, S. (2017). *Reflective practice in English language teaching: Research-based principles and practice*. Routledge.

Marsh, M. M. (2002). *The social fashioning of teacher identities*. Peter Lang.

Martinez Agudo, J. D. D., Azzaro, G., & Banegas, D. L. (2019). The quality of emotional scaffolding in ELT: Toward a quality emotional competence training in TESOL teacher education. In J. D. D. Martinez Agudo (Ed.), *Quality in TESOL and teacher education: From a results culture towards a quality culture* (pp. 203–212). Routledge.

Mason, J. (2017). *Qualitative researching*. Sage.

Massey, D. (2003). Imagining the field. In M. Pryke, G. Rose, & S. Whatmore (Eds.), *Using social theory: Thinking through research* (pp. 71–88). Sage.

Matsugu, Y. (2005). Japanese epistemic sentence-final particle kana: Its function as a "mitigation marker" in discourse data. *Pragmatics, 15*(4), 423–436.

Maxwell, J. A. (2013). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach* (3rd ed.). Sage.

Maybin, J. (1993). Dialogic relationships and the construction of knowledge in children's informal talk. In D. Graddol, L. Thompson, & M. Byram (Eds.), *Language and culture: Papers from the annual meeting of British Association for Applied Linguistics* (pp. 142–152). Multilingual Matters.

Maybin, J. (2004). Reported speech and intertextual referencing in 10- to 12-year-old students' informal talk. In N. Shuart-Faris & D. Bloome (Eds.), *Uses of intertextuality in classroom and educational research* (pp. 147–169). Information Age.

Maybin, J., & Tusting, K. (2011). Linguistic ethnography. In J. Simpson (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of applied linguistics* (pp. 515–528). Routledge.

Maynard, S. (1993). *Discourse modality, subjectivity, emotion, and the voice in the Japanese language*. John Benjamins.

Maynard, S. (2005). *Expressive Japanese: A reference guide to sharing emotion and empathy*. University of Hawai'i Press.

McCall, G. J. (2006). The fieldwork tradition. In D. Hobbs & R. Wright (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of fieldwork* (pp. 3–22). Sage.

McDermott, R. (1976). *Kids make sense: An ethnographic account of the interactional management of success and failure in one first-grade classroom* (doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from UMI (7718265).

McNeil, D. (1992). *Hand and mind: What gestures reveal about thought*. University of Chicago Press.

Mehan, H. (1979). *Learning lessons: Social organization in the classroom*. Harvard University Press.

Mercer, N. (2001). Language for teaching a language. In C. N. Candlin & N. Mercer (Eds.), *English language teaching in its social context* (pp. 243–257). Routledge.

Mercer, N. (2019). *Language and the joint creation of knowledge: The selected works of Neil Mercer*. Routledge.

Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2016). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation* (4th ed.). Jossey-Bass.

Mertens, D. M., & Hesse-Biber, S. (2012). Triangulation and mixed method research: Provocative positions. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 6*(2), 75–79.

MEXT. (2009a). *Kootoo Gakkoo gakushuu shidoo yooryoo kaisetu: Gaikokugo and eigo hen* [Explication of the senior high school Course of Study: Foreign languages and English]. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology.

MEXT. (2009b). *The senior high school Course of Study: Foreign languages and English*. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Techonology. Retrieved from http://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/shotou/new-cs/youryou/eiyaku/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2012/10/24/1298353_3.pdf

MEXT. (2011). *Kokusai teki na dookoo wo fumaeta daigaku kyooiku notennkai ni tsuie* [Development of university education in line with global trends.] The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Techonology. Retrived from https://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/shingi/chukyo/chukyo4/015/gijiroku/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2011/12/20/1314107_1.pdf

MEXT. (2016). Overview of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Retrieved from http://www.mext.go.jp/en/about/pablication/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2017/02/15/1374478_001.pdf

MEXT. (2017a). *Chuugakkoo shidoo yooryoo kaisetsu* [Explication of Junior High School Course of Study]. MEXT.

MEXT (2017b). *The Course of Study for junior high schools*. https://www.mext.go.jp/component/a_menu/education/micro_detail/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2019/03/18/1387018_010.pdf

MEXT. (2017c). *Atarashii gakushuu shidooyoyoo no kangaekata: Chuuooshingikai no giron kara kaitei soshite jisshi he* [Principles behind the new Course of Study: Discussions at the Central Council for Education, revision, and implementation]. https://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/shotou/new-cs/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2017/09/28/1396716_1.pdf

MEXT. (2019a). Overview of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology. Retrieved from https://www.mext.go.jp/en/about/pablication/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2019/03/13/1374478_001.pdf

MEXT. (2019b). Gaikokugo (eigo) koa karikyuramu. [Foreign Language (English) Core Curriculum].https://www.mext.go.jp/component/a_menu/education/detail/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2019/04/04/1415122_3.pdf

Mills, D., & Morton, M. (2013). *Ethnography in education*. Sage.

Mishler, E. (1986). *Research interviewing: Context and narrative*. Harvard University Press.

Mohan, B. A. (1990). LEP students and the integration of language and content: Knowledge structures and tasks. In Simich-Dudgeon (Ed.), *The proceedings of the First Research Symposium on Limited English Proficiency Student Issues* (pp. 130–160). U.S. Department of Education, Office of Bilingual Education & Minority Language Affairs.

Mohan, B. A. (2011). Social practice and register: Language as a means of learning. In E. Hinkle (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning volume 2* (pp. 57–74). Routledge.

Moody, S. J. (2018). Terms of address and identity in American-Japanese workplace interaction. In H. M. Cook, & J. S. Shibamoto-Smith (Eds.). *Japanese at work: Politeness, power, and persona in Japanese workplace discourse*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Moon, J. A. (2004). *Reflection in learning and professional development: Theory and practice*. RoutledgeFalmer.

Moran, S., & John-Steiner, V. (2003), Creativity in the making: Vygotsky's contemporary contribution to the dialectic of development and creativity. In R. Sawyer, V. John-Steiner, S. Moran, R. J. Sternberg, D. H. Feldman, J. Nakamura, & M. Csikszentmihalyi (Eds.), *Creativity and developmen*t (pp. 61–90). Oxford University Press.

Morgan, D. L. (2008). Emergent deign. In L. M. Given (Ed.), *The Sage encyclopedia of qualitative research methods* (pp. 244–248). Sage.

Mori, J. (2006). The working of Japanese token hee in informing sequence: An analysis of sequential context, turn shape, and prosody. *Journal of Pragmatics, 38*(8), 1175–1205. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2005.05.0

Mori, J., & Zuengler, J. (2008). Conversation analysis and talk-in-interaction in theclassroom. In M. Martin-Jones, A. M. de Mejia, & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.),*Encyclopedia of language and education: Vol. 3. Discourse and education*(pp. 15–26). Springer.

Morita, E. (2002). Stance marking in the collaborative completion of sentences: Final particles as epistemic markers in Japanese. In N. Akatsuka & S. Strauss (Eds.), *Japanese/Korean Linguistics 10* (pp. 220–233). CSLI Publications.

Morita, N. (2004). Negotiating participation and identity in second language academic communities. *TESOL Quarterly, 38*(4), 573–603. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588281

Morson, G. S., & Emerson, C. (1990). *Mikhail Bakhtin: Creation of a prosaics*. Stanford University Press.

Mortimer, E. F., & Scott, P. H. (2003). *Meaning making in science classroom*s. Open University Press.

Murphey, T. (1998). *Language hungry: An introduction to language learning, fun and self-esteem*. Macmillan.

Murphey, T. (2007). Ventriloquation: The inter/intramental dance in language learning. In L. Miller (Ed.), *Learner autonomy 9: Autonomy in the language classroom* (pp. 68–87). Authentik.

Nakane, C. (1970). *Japanese society*. University of California Press.

Nassaji, H. (2012). The relationship between SLA and language pedagogy: Teachers' perspectives. *Language Teaching Research, 16*, 337–365. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168812436903

Nassaji, H., & Wells, G. (2000). What's the use of 'triadic dialogue'?: Investigation of teacher-student interaction. *Applied Linguistics, 21*(3), 376–403. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/21.3.376

Nation, I. S. P. (2008). *Teaching ESL/EFL reading and writing*. Routledge.

Newman, D., Griffin, P., & Cole, M. (1984). *The construction zone: Working for cognitive change in school.* Cambridge University Press.

Nicaise, E. (2021). *Native and nonnative teacher talk: A corpus informed study*. Routledge.

Nikander, P. (2008). Working with transcripts and translated data. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 5*, 225–231. https://doi.org/10.1080/14780880802314346

Nishimuro, M., & Borg, S. (2013). Teacher cognition and grammar teaching in a Japanese high school. *JALT Journal, 35*(1), 29–50. https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTJJ35.1-2

Nishino, T. (2011). Japanese high school teachers' beliefs and practices regarding communicative teaching. *JALT Journal, 33*(2), 131–155.

Ochs, E. (1979). Transcription as theory. In E. Ochs & B. B. Schieffelin (Eds.), *Developmental pragmatics* (pp. 43–72). Academic Press.

Ochs, E. (1986). Introduction. In B. B. Schieffelin & E. Ochs (Eds.), *Language socialization* (pp. 1–13). Cambridge University Press.

Ochs, E. (1988). *Culture and language development: Language acquisition and socialization in a Samoan village*. Cambridge University Press.

Ochs, E. (1990). Indexicality and socialization. In J. W. Stigler, R. Schweder, & G. Herdt (Eds.), *Cultural psychology* (pp. 287–308). Cambridge University Press, Ochs, E. (1993). Constructing social identity: A language socialization perspective. *Research on Language and Social Interaction, 26*(3), 286–306. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327973rlsi2603_3

Ochs, E. (1996). Linguistic resources for socializing humanity. In J. J. Gumperz & S. C. Levinson (Eds.) *Rethinking linguistic relativity.* (pp. 407–437). Cambridge University Press.

Ochs, E., & Schieffelin, B. (2008). Language socialization: An historical overview. In P. A. Duff & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education*, *Volume 8: Language socialization*, (2nd ed., pp. 3–15). Springer.

Ochs, E., & Schieffelin, B. (20 09). Language acquisition and socialization: Three developmental stories and their implications. In A. Duranti (Ed.), *Linguistic anthropology: A reader* (2nd ed., pp. 296–328). Wiley-Blackwell.

Olson, K. (2016). *Essentials of qualitative interviewing*. Routledge.

O'Reilly, K. (2012). *Ethnographic methods* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

O'Reilly, M., & Kiyimba, N. (2018). *Advanced qualitative research: A guide to using theory.* Sage.

Orellana, M. E. F. (2020). *Mindful ethnography: Mind, heart and activity for transformative social research*. Routledge.

Ortega, L., & Byrnes, H. (2009). The longitudinal study of advanced L2 capacities:An introduction. In L. Ortega & H. Bynes (Eds.), *The longitudinal study of advanced L2 capacities* (pp. 3–20). Routledge.

Palmer, C. (2010). Observing with a focus: Field notes and data recording. In J. S. Jones & S. Watt (Eds.), *Ethnography in social science practice* (pp. 107–125). Routledge.

Palys, T., & Atchison, C. (2014). *Research decisions: Qualitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches*. Nelson.

Papen, U. (2020). Participant observation and field notes. In K. Tusting (Ed.), The *Routledge handbook of linguistic ethnography* (pp. 141–153). Routledge.

Patton, M. Q. (2014). *Qualitative research and education methods* (4th ed.). Sage.

Paugh, A. (2011). Local theories of child rearing. In A. Duranti, E. Ochs, & B. B. Schieffelin (Eds.), *The handbook of language socialization* (pp. 150–168). Blackwell.

Payant, C. (2014). Incorporating video-mediated reflective tasks in MATESOL programs. *TESL Canada Journal, 31*(2), 1–21. https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v31i2.1174

Phillips, D. (1994). *The functions of silence within in the context of teacher training. ELT Journals, 48*(3), 266–271.

Phillipson & Wegerif, R. (2016). *Dialogic education: Mastering core concepts through thinking together*. Routledge.

Philpott, C. (2016). Narrative as a vehicle for mentor and tutor knowledge during feedback in initial teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Development, 20*(1), 57–75. https://doi.org/10.1080/13664530.2015.1108927

Pomerantz, A. (1984). Agreeing and disagreeing with assessments: Some features of preferred/dispreferred turn-shapes. In J. M. Atkinson & J. Heritage (Eds.), *Structures of social action: Studies in conversation analysis* (pp. 57–101). Cambridge University Press.

Putney, L. G., Green, J., Dixson, C., Duran, R., & Yeager, B. (2000). Consequential progressions: Exploring collective-individual development in a bilingual classroom. In C. D. Lee & P. Smagorinsky (Eds.), *Vygotskian perspectives on literary research: Constructing meaning through collaborative inquiry* (pp. 86–126). Cambridge University Press.

Rampton, B. (2007). Neo-Hymesian linguistic ethnography in the United Kingdom. *Journal Sociolinguistics, 5*, 584–607. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9841.2007.00341.

Rampton, B. (2008). Linguistic ethnography, interactional sociolinguistics, and the study of identities. *Working Papers in Urban Language and Literacies, 43*, 1–14.

Rampton, B. (2009). Linguistic ethnography and the analysis of data. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/253800959_Linguistic_Ethnography_and_the_Analysis_of_Data

Rampton, B., Maybin, J., & Roberts, C. (2015). Methodological foundations in linguistic ethnography. In J. Snell, S. Shaw, & F. Copland (Eds.), *Linguistic ethnography: Interdisciplinary exploration*. Palgrave.

Rampton, B., Roberts, C., Leung, C., & Harris, R. (2002). Methodology in the analysis of classroom discourse. *Applied Linguistics, 23*(3), 373–392. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/23.3.373

Rampton, B., Tusting, K., Maybin, J., Barwell, R., Creese, A., & Lytra, V. (2004). *UK linguistic ethnography: A discussion paper.* Retrieved from https://www.lancaster.ac.uk/fss/organisations/lingethn/documents/discussion_paper_jan_05.pdf

Randall, M., & Thornton, B. (2001). *Advising and supporting teachers*. Cambridge University Press.

Raymond, G., & Heritage, J. (2006). The epistemics of social relations: Owning grandchildren. *Language in Society, 35*, 677–705.

Richards, K. (2003). *Qualitative inquiry in TESOL*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Richards, J. C. (2008). Second language teacher education today. *RELC Journal, 39*(2), 158–176. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688208092182

Richards, J. C., & Farrell, T. S. C. (2011). *Practice teaching: A reflective approach*. Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C., & Lockhart, C. (1994). *Reflective teaching in second language classroom.* Cambridge University Press.

Richards, L. (2014). *Handling qualitative data: A practical guide* (3rd ed.). Sage.

Richardson, L. (1994). Writing: A method of inquiry. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 516–529). Sage.

Ricketts, (2019). Analyzing the generative nature of science teachers' professional development discourse In G. J. Kelly, & J. L. Green (Eds.), *Theory and methods for sociocultural research in science and engineering education* (pp. 206–233). Routledge.

Rogoff, B. (1995). Observing sociocultural activity on three planes: Participatory appropriation, guided participation, and apprenticeship. In J. V. Wertsch, P. Del Rio & A. Alvarez (Eds.), *Sociocultural studies of mind* (pp. 139–164). Cambridge University Press.

Rossman, G. B., & Rallis, S. F. (2016). *An introduction to qualitative research: Learning in the field* (4th ed.). Sage.

Roulston, K. (2010). *Reflective interviewing: A guide to theory and practice*. Sage.

Roulston, K. (2011). Interview "problems" as topics for analysis. *Applied Linguistics, 32*, 77–94. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amq036

Roulston, K. (2019). Introduction: Examining the social practices of interviewing. In K. Roulston (Ed.), *Interactional studies of qualitative research interviews* (pp. 3–27). John Benjamins.

Rueda, R. (1998). Standards for professional development: A sociocultural perspective. *Center for Research on Education, Diversity and Excellence Research Brief No. 2*, 1–2.

Rymes, B. (2008). Language socialization and linguistic anthropology of education. In P. A. Duff & N. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education, Vol. 8: Language Socialization* (pp. 29–42). Springer.

Saigo, H. (2011). *The Japanese sentence-final particles in talk-in-interaction*. John Benjamins.

Sakamoto, A. (2013). *Kyodoteki na seisatubamen wo tooshita kyoshi no gakushukatei* [Learning process of the teachers through collaborative reflection].Kazamashobo.

Sakui, K. (2004). Wearing two pairs of shoes: Language teaching in Japan. *ELT Journal, 58*(2), 155–163.

Sakuma, J. (2007). *Hajimete miyoo gengogaku* [Let's take up linguistics.]. Kenkuyushya.

Saldaña, J. (2003). *Longitudinal qualitative research: Analyzing change through tim*e. AltaMira Press.

Saldaña, J. (2021). *The coding manuals for qualitative researchers* (4th ed.). Sage.

Sarangi, S. (2006). The conditions and consequences of professional discourse studies. In R. Kiely, R. Rea-Dickins, H. Woodfield, G. Clibbon (Eds.), *Language, culture and identity in applied linguistics* (pp. 199–210). Equinox.

Schegloff, E. A. (1990). On the organization of sequence as a source of "coherence" in talk-in-interaction. In B. Dorval (Ed.), *Conversational organization and its development* (pp. 51–77). Ablex.

Schwandt, T. A. (2015). *The Sage dictionary of qualitative inquiry*. Sage.

Scott, P. H., Mortimer, E., & Aguiar, O. (2006). The tension between authoritative and dialogic discourse: A fundamental characteristics of meaning making interactions in high school science lessons. *Science Education, 90*(4), 605–631.

Scott, P., Mortimer, E., & Ametller, J. (2011). Pedagogical linking: A fundamental aspect of teaching and learning conceptual knowledge. *Studies in Science Education, 47*(1), 3–36.

Shaw, S., Copland, F., & Snell, J. (2015). An introduction to linguistic ethnography: Interdisciplinary explorations. In J. Snell, S. Shaw, & F. Copland (Eds.), *Linguistic ethnography: Interdisciplinary explorations* (pp. 1–13). Palgrave Macmillan.

Sherin, M. G. (2007). The development of teachers' professional vision in video clubs. In R. Goldman, R. Pea, B. Barron, & S. Derry (Eds), *Video research in the learning sciences* (pp 383–395). Routledge.

Sherin, M. G., & Han, S. Y. (2004). Teacher learning in the context of a video club. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 20*, 163–183. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2003.08.001

Sherin, M. G., & van Es, E. A. (2009). Effects of video club participation on teachers' professional vision. *Journal of Teacher Education, 60*, 20–37. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487108328155

Shimozaki, M., Iida, R., Kuroiwa, Y., Sasaki, H., Kanno, A., Tsujimoto, C., & Deaux, G. (2007). *Crown English Series II*. Sanseido.

Shuart-Faris, N., & Bloome, D. (Eds.). (2004). *Use of intertextuality in classroom and educational research*. Information Age.

Shulman, L. S. (2004). *Teaching as community property: Essays on higher education*. Josser-Bass.

Shuster, C. (2000). Emotions count: Scaffolding children's representations of themselves and feelings to develop emotional intelligence. In D. Rothenberg (Ed.), *Issues in early childhood education: Curriculum, teacher education, & dissemination of information. Proceedings of the Lilian Katz Symposium* (pp. 285–293). University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED470899.pdf

Sidnell, J. (2009). *Conversation analysis: Comparative perspectives*. Cambridge University Press.

Simons, H. (2009). *Case study research in practice*. Sage.

Simpson, A. (2006). On the reanalysis of nominalizers in Chinese, Japanese, and Korean. In Y. A. Li & A. Simpson (Ed.), *Functional structure(s), form and interpretation: Perspectives from Eastern Asian Languages* (pp. 131–160). Routledge.

Singh, G., & Richards, J. C. (2006). Teaching and learning in a language teacher education course room: A critical sociocultural perspective. *RELC Journal, 37*(2), 149–175.

Skinner, B. (2012). Changing identities: An exploration of ESL trainee teacher discourse in microteaching. *Classroom Discourse, 3*(1), 46–64.

Snell, J., & Lefstein, A. (2015). Moving from "interesting data" to a publishable research articles: Some interpretative and representative dilemmas in a linguistic ethnographic analysis of an English literacy lesson. In P. Smeyers, D. Bridges, N. C. Burbs, & M. Griffiths (Eds.), *International handbook of interpretation in educational research* (pp. 471–496). Springer.

Starfield, S. (2015). Ethnographic research. In B. Paltridge & A. Phakiti (Eds.), *Research methods in applied linguistics: A practical guide* (pp. 137–152). Bloomsbury.

Sugiyama, M., & Yamazaki, T. (2016). The effect of collaborative reflection with the aim of teacher knowledge development in simulated classes of elementary school science. *Journal of Research in Science Education, 56*(4), 435–445. https://doi.org/10.11639/sjst.15002

Swain. M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. In G. Cook & B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), *Principle and practice in applied linguistics: Studies in honor of H. G. Widdowson* (pp. 125–144). Oxford University Press.

Swain, M. (1998). Focus on form through conscious reflection. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 64–81). Cambridge University Press.

Swain, M. (2006). Languaging, agency, and collaboration in advanced second language proficiency. In H. Byrnes (Eds.), *Advanced language learning: The contribution of Halliday and Vygotsky* (pp. 95–108). Continuum.

Swain, M., Kinnear, P., & Steinman, L. (2015). *Sociocultural theory in second language education: An introduction through narratives* (2nd ed.). Multilingual Matters.

Takagi, T., Hosoda, Y., & Morita, E. (2016). *Kaiwa bunseki no kiso*. [Basics of conversation analysis.] Hituzi-shobo.

Talmy, S. (2010). Qualitative interviews in applied linguistics: From research instrument to social practice. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 30*, 128–148.

Tamai, K., Watanabe, A., & Asaoka, C. (2019). *Rifurekutibu purakutisu nyuumon.* [Introduction to reflective practice.] Hituji-shobo.

Tannen, D. (2006). Intertextuality in interaction: Reframing family arguments in public and private. *Text & Talk, 26*(4–5), 597–617.

Tarone, E., & Allwright, D. (2005). Second language teacher learning and student second language learning: Shaping the knowledge base. In D. J. Tedick (Ed.), *Second language teacher education: International perspectives* (pp. 5–24). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Tateo, L., & Marsico, G. (2018). The synthetic or syncretic nature of human culture. *Human Arena, 1*(1), 1–8.

Tharp, R. G., & Gallimore, R. (1988). *Rousing minds to life: Teaching, learning, and schooling in social context.* Cambridge University Press.

Tokyo Gakugei University. (2016). *Eigo kyooin no eigoryoku shidooryoku kyooka no tameno choosa kenkyuu jigyoo: Heisei 27 nendo hookokusho* [Research project to promote the English proficiency and instructional competencies of English language teachers: Report 2015]. Tokyo Gakugei University.

Tracy, S. (2020). *Qualitative research methods: Collecting evidence, crafting analysis, communicating impact* (2nd ed.). Wiley Blackwell.

Tripp, D. (2011). *Critical incidents in teaching* (Classic ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Tripp, T., & Rich, P. (2012). Using video to analyze one's own teaching. *British Journal of Educational Technology, 43*(4), 678–704.

Tusting, K. (Ed.). (2020). *The Routledge handbook of linguistic ethnography.* Routledge.

Ur, P. (2012). *A course in English language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

Urzúa, A., & Vásquez, C. (2008). Reflection and professional identity in teachers' future-oriented discourse. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 24*, 1935–1946.

Valli, L. (1997). Listening to other voices: A description of teacher reflection in the United States. *Peabody Journal of Education, 72*, 67–88.

van den Berg, H., Wetherell, M., & Houtkoop-Steenstra, H. (2003). Introduction. In H. van den Berg, M. Wetherell, & H. Houtkoop-Steenstra (Eds.), *Analyzing race talk: Multidisciplinary approaches to the interview* (pp. 1–10). Cambridge University Press.

van Es, E., & Sherin, M. G. (2002). Learning to notice: Scaffolding new teachers' interpretations of classroom interactions. *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education, 10*(4), 571–596.

van Lier, L. (1988). *The classroom and the language learner: Ethnography and second-language classroom research*. Longman.

van Lier, L. (1989). Ethnography: Bandaid, bandwagon, or contraband? In C. Brumfit & R. Mitchell (Eds.), *Research in the language classroom: ELT Documents 133* (pp. 33–53). Modern English Publication.

van Lier, L. (1994). Some features of a theory of practice. *TESOL Journal, 4*, 6–10.

van Lier, L. (1996). *Interaction in the language curriculum: Awareness, autonomy, and authenticity.* Longman.

van Lier, L. (2000). From input to affordance: Social-interactive learning from an ecological perspective. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 245–259). Oxford University Press.

van Lier, L. (2001). Constraints and resources in classroom talk: Issues of inequality and symmetry. In C. Candlin & N. Mercer (Eds.), *English language teaching in its social context: A reader* (pp. 90–107). Routledge.

van Lier, L. (2002). An ecological semiotic perspective on language and linguistics. In C. Kramsch (Ed.), *Language acquisition and language socialization: Ecological perspectives,* (pp. 140–164). Continuum.

van Lier, L. (2003). A tale of two computer classrooms: The ecology of project-based language learning. In J Leather & J. van Dam (Eds.) *Ecology of language acquisition* (pp. 49–63). Springer.

van Lier, L. (2004). *The ecology and semiotics of language learning: A sociocultural perspective*. Kluwer Academic Publishers.

van Lier, L. (2005). Case study. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 195–208). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

van Lier, L. (2008). Agency in the classroom. In J. Lantolf & M. Poehner (Eds.), *Sociocultural theory and the teaching of second languag*e (pp. 168–186). Equinox.

van Lier, L. (2010). The ecology of language learning: Practice to theory, theory to practice. *Social and Behavioral Sciences, 3*, 2–6.

van Maanen, J. (2011). *Tales of the field: On writing ethnography* (2nd ed.). University of Chicago Press.

Vásquez, C. (2004). "Very carefully managed": Advice and suggestions in post-observation meetings. *Linguistics & Education, 15*, 33–58.

Vásquez, C., & Reppen, R. (2007). Transforming practice: Changing patterns of participation in post-observation meetings. *Language Awareness, 16*(3), 153–172. https://doi.org/10.2167/la454.0

Vásquez, C., & Urzúa, A. (2009). Reported speech and reported mental states in mentoring meetings: Exploring novice teacher identities. *Research on Language and Social Interaction, 42*(1), 1–19. https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/08351810802671693

Vieira, F., Barbosa, I., Paiva, M., & Fernandes, I. S. (2008). Teacher education towards teacher (and learner) autonomy. In T. Lam & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Learner and teacher autonomy: Concepts, realities, and response* (pp. 217–235). John Benjamins.

Vitanova, G., Miller, E. R., Gao, X., & Deters, P. (2011). Introduction to theorizing and analyzing agency in second language learning: Interdisciplinary approaches. In P. Deters, X Gao, E. R. Miller, & G. Vitanova (Eds.), *Analyzing agency in second language learning: Interdisciplinary approaches* (pp. 1–16). Multilingual Matters.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes.* M. Cole, V. John-Steiner, S. Scribner, & E. Souberman (Eds.) Harvard University Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1981). The genesis of higher mental functions. In J. V. Wertsch (Ed.), *The concept of activity in Soviet psychology* (pp. 144–188). Sharpe.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1987). Thinking and speech. In R. Rieber & A. S. Carton (Eds.) & N. Minick (Trans.), *The collection of L. S. Vygotsky: Vol. 1. Problem of general psychology* (pp. 39–285). Plenum Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (2012). *Thought and language* (A. Kozulin, Ed. and Trans.; 2nd ed.). The MIT Press. (Original work published 1934)

Wada, M. (1997). *Nihon ni okeru eigo kyooiku no kenkyuu: Gakushuu shidoo yooryoo no riron to jissenn* [Studies of English language education in Japan: Theory and practice of the Course of Study]. Kirihara-shoten.

Waite, D. (1993). Teachers in conference: A qualitative study of teacher-supervisor face-to-face interactions. *American Educational Research Journal, 30*(4), 675–702. https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.3102/00028312030004675

Waite, D. (1995). *Rethinking instructional supervision: Notes on its language and culture.* Falmer Press.

Wajnryb, R. (1994). *The pragmatics of feedback: Mitigation in in the supervisory discourse of TESOL teacher educators*. (Doctoral dissertation, Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia) Retrieved from http://www.researchonline.mq.edu.au/vital/access/manager/Repository/mq:3116;jsessionid=922173FC46CA8D0668DE7AE588A0FDD9?f0=sm_creator%3A%22Wajnryb%2C+Ruth%22

Wajnryb, R. (1998). Telling it like it isn't: Exploring an instance pragmatic ambivalence in supervisory discourse. *Journal of Pragmatics, 29*, 531–544. https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S0378216697000763

Wallace, M. (1991). *Training foreign language teachers: A reflective approach.* Cambridge University Press.

Walqui, A., & van Lier, L. (2010). *Scaffolding the academic success of adolescent English language learners: A pedagogy of promise*. WestEd.

Walsh, S. (2006). *Investigating classroom discourse*. Routledge.

Walsh, S. (2011). *Exploring classroom discourse: Language in action*. Routledge.

Warhol, T. (2011). *How novice teachers talk about teaching writing* (doctoral dissertation, University of Pennsylvania). Retrieved from https://repository.upenn.edu/edissertations/337/

Waring, H. Z. (2013). Two mentor practices that generate teacher reflection without explicit solicitation: Some preliminary considerations. *RELC Journal, 44*(1), 103–119. https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/0033688212473296

Waring, H. Z. (2017). Going general as a resource for doing advising in post-observation conferences in teacher training. *Journal of Pragmatics, 110*, 20–33. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2017.01.009

Watanabe, T., & Iwase, N. (2017). Teacher education practice centering on dialogue-based review sessions of mock lessons to promote deeper reflection. *Annual Bulletin of the Japanese Society for the Study on Teacher Education, 26*, 136–146.

Watson-Gegeo, K. A. (1988). Ethnography in education: Defining essentials. *TESOL Quarterly, 22*(4), 575–592. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587257

Watson-Gegeo, K. A. (2004). Mind, language, and epistemology: Towards a language socialization paradigm for SLA. *Modern Language Journal, 88*(3), 331–350. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0026-7902.2004.00233.x

Watson Todd, R. (2016). *Discourse topics*. John Benjamins.

Wegerif, R. (2016). *Dialogic education: Mastering core concepts through thinking together*. Routledge.

Wells, G. (1999). *Dialogic inquiry: Toward a sociocultural practice and theory of education*. Cambridge University Press.

Wells, G., & Ball, T. (2008). Exploratory talk and dialogic inquire. In N. Mercer & S. Hodgkinson (Eds), *Exploring talk in school* (pp. 167–184). Sage.

Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning, and identity.* Cambridge University Press.

Wertsch, J. P., Tulviste, P., & Hagstrom, F. (1993). A sociocultural approach to agency. In E. Forman, N. Minick, & C. A Stone (Eds.), *Contexts for learning: Sociocultural dynamics in children's development* (pp. 336–356). Oxford University Press.

West, K. (2010). *Inspired English teaching: A practical guide for teachers*. Continuum.

Wood, D., Bruner, J. S., & Ross, G. (1976). The role of tutoring in problem solving. *Journal of Psychiatry and Psychology, 17*, 89–100. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.1976.tb00381.x

Woodward, T. (2003). Loop input. *ELT Journal, 57*(3), 301-304.

Wortham, S., & Reyes, A. (2015). *Discourse analysis beyond the speech event.* Routledge.

Yamamoto, K. (2008). Functions of "Hai" in teachers' utterances in Japanese classroom discourse: In a view of completion of a topic. *Tsukuba Journal of Applied Linguistics, 15*, 127–138.

Yamamura, H., & Okazaki, H. (2019). A qualitative case study on the post-observation feedback in the Practicum. *The Memoirs of the Faculty of Human Development University of Toyama, 14*(1), 73-83. http://doi.org/10.15099/00019736

Yin, R. (2016). *Qualitative research from start to finish* (2nd ed.). Guilford Press.

Yin, R. (2018). *Case study research: Design and methods* (6th ed.). Sage.

Yoshida, T. (2020). A second-person approach towards understanding English language lessons: A sociocultural analysis of the postlesson conversations. *The European Journal of Applied Linguistics and TEFL, 9*(2), 45–64.

Yule, G. (1996). *Pragmatics*. Oxford University Press.

Zoshak, R. (2016). 'Tiny talks' between colleagues: Brief narratives as mediation in teacher development. *Language Teaching Research*, *20*, 209–222. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168815627659

Appendix A: Project Timeline

Phase 1 **(Academic Year 201X–201Y)** **Pilot Study:** **Learning about the context**	**September–January**	· Observation of classes and other practices · Informal conversations with students · Negotiating access with the university administration
	February–March	· Transcription and preliminary analysis
Phase 2 **(Academic ear (201Y–201Z)** **Data generation in the three courses and POF sessions**	**April–January**	· Information sessions for students · Classroom observations focusing on microteaching and post-observation feedback, interviews, etc. with the target group · Transcription and preliminary analysis to concur
	February–March	· Interviews with students and lectures · Interviews with administrators · Transcription
Phase 3 **(Academic Year 201Z–)** **Data analysis and Writing up**	**May–**	· Transcription and data analysis · Member-checking

Appendix B: Trainee Interview Guide

Future plans

- How serious are you in becoming a teacher?
- Are you thinking of exploring other career options?

Microteaching

- What do you think of your experience doing microlessons?
- How did you prepare for each microlesson?
- Who, if anyone, did you talk to or seek advice from?
- What went well?
- What, if anything, did not go exactly as planned?
- How did the lectures, class discussions, and other activities help you plan and conduct your microlessons?
- What, if anything, did you learn from your classmates' microteaching?

Feedback

- What kind of feedback, if any, did you receive from your tutors and peers in each of the course?
- Did you find any of their feedback helpful in improving your microlessons?
  - What was the feedback about?
  - Who was it from?
- What did you think of the type and format of the feedback given in each course?
  - Which type do you think suits you better and why?
- You participated with a classmate or two in the feedback sessions for Methods 1. What if you had been the only student participant in the sessions? What if you had had different partners?
- What, if anything, did you find surprising or interesting?
- How would you describe the feedback session to a friend who is not taking the course?

SLA

- Please describe a typical lesson.
- What did you learn about SLA so far?
- What relevance, if anything, does SLA have for ELT?

Appendix C: Instructor Interview Guide

Trainers and Methods Courses

- What do you expect your trainees should be able to do on successful completion of the course?
- What assignments are they required to do for this course? Why?
- How do you try to guide and support your trainees' learning?
- What do you think of the new *Course of Study* and the Core Curriculum?

Microteaching

- What are some of the teaching skills do you expect the trainees to learn in this course?
- What do you think of microteaching as a major form of teaching practice?
- What do you expect your trainees to learn from doing microteaching?

Feedback and Reflection

- How have you provided feedback on your trainees' microteaching?
- What do you think makes feedback effective?
- What kind of feedback do you try to give?
- What is the purpose of requiring trainees to reflect on their microteaching?
- In what ways do you expect your trainees to use their SLA knowledge?

Appendix D: Interviews Guide for the Staff Members Involved in PTE

- Could you talk about the purpose of the PTE programme and how they are related to the different majors?
- What are the unique features of the PTE programmes? Are there any courses that are designed especially for PTE trainees?
- What are the goals of the teacher preparation programme?
- What are your overall impressions of the PTE trainees?
- What do you think are some of the characteristics of a good student teacher?
- What do you expect the PTE trainees have learned by the time they begin their practicum?

Appendix E: Background Questionnaire (with English translation)

	アンケート記入日時： 年 月 日		
氏名 Name	フリガナ	年齢	学年
試験 English language test scores	TOEIC (点) 資格取得日（ 年 月）	英検（ 級） 資格取得日（ 年 月）	
	TOEFL (点) 資格取得日（ 年 月）	IELTS(点) 資格取得日（ 年 月）	
	その他( ) 資格取得日（ 年 月）	その他( ) 資格取得日（ 年 月）	
海外経験 Overseas experiences	語学研修経験（国 ） 期間（ 年 カ月 週） 海外在住経験（国 ） 期間（ 年 カ月 週）		
教育実習 Practicum	実習先： 実習時期・期間： 月 週間		
教員採用試験 Intention to take the teacher employment test	① 教員採用試験について該当する項目を丸で囲んでください： 受験する・受験しない ② 受験する枠を選択してください（小学校・中学校・高等学校） ③ 私学教員採用試験について該当する項目を丸で囲んでください： 受験する・受験しない		
教員免許取得の主たる理由 Major reasons for pursuing teacher licensure			
教職関連科目 Courses taken	履修済の科目を〇で囲んで下さい： 英語学 言語学 第二言語教育論 英文学 児童英語教授法 日本語教授法 その他： 上記科目で今後履修予定のものを挙げて下さい：	第二言語習得論 リテラシー教育と理論 米文学 異文化理解 児童英語教育実習	

Appendix F: Transcription Conventions

=	latched utterances
[	beginning of overlap
(words)	the transcriber’s best guess of the utterance
(x)	an unclear word
((comments))	relevant details pertaining to interaction
utterance	original utterance, not translation
:	unusually lengthened sound
.	terminal falling intonation
,	rising, continuing intonation
¿	mid rising intonation
?	high rising intonation
!	spoken in an emphatic tone
↑	markedly higher pitch
↓	markedly lower pitch
Underlined	spoken with emphasis
CAPITALS	markedly loud speech in English
boldfaced	markedly loud speech in Japanese
°word°	quieter utterances
(-)	brief, untimed pause (i.e., less than 0.5 seconds)
(0.5)	timed pause (longer than 0.5 sec)
x-	(attached on one side) cutoff often accompanied by a glottal stop (e.g., a self-correction)
$word$	smiley voice
£words£	laughing voice
h	audible outbreath (multiple hs indicate longer outbreath)
.h	audible inbreath (multiple .hs indicate: longer inbreath)
“utterances/sentences”	direct or indirect quotes
Italics	approximate translation from Japanese
tracer	tracers or focal utterance of point of discussion for analytical purposes
<Roman letters>	Romanized rendition of Japanese

Appendix G: Consent Form (English translation)

INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR STUDENTS

Title of Study:
Japanese Undergraduate Students Learning to Teach English in a Pre-Service Programme

Investigator: Emi Kobayashi, PhD Researcher,
Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Stirling.

Purpose: The purpose of this project is to better understand how Japanese university students learn to teach English over time in their teacher education programme. More specially, the study will examine their learning of the principles and practices of English language teaching through their participation in their courses (Methods 1 & 2 and Second Language Acquisition). This study will be written up as my PhD thesis.

Significance: MEXT has recently urged secondary school teachers to teach English for communication. Thus, learning to teach English through English as well as learning to become reflective practitioners is of vital importance to university students enrolled in teacher education programmes. The implication of the findings will not only likely help the participants become aware of their own learning and inform the university with regard to improving their curriculum, but will also likely contribute to discussions of the Core Curriculum for English Language Teacher Education to be implemented by MEXT.

Procedures: This study focuses on students engaging in activities/events such as microteaching and related interactions. Your involvement in this study will include being observed as you interact with your lecturers and peers in the classroom and online, being interviewed about these experiences on a regular basis in the first and second semester of [redacted] (i.e., [redacted] [redacted]), two questionnaires, and being asked to attend at least two member-check sessions to comment on the accuracy of my interpretations in member-check sessions. Each session will take approximately 30–60 minutes and will be audio-recorded. Interviews and observations in out-of-class situations will be scheduled as needed and audio-visually recorded in consultation with you. From time to time, I may informally ask you some questions for a few minutes after observations. Furthermore, relevant documents such as your course outlines and lesson plans may be collected, again, with your permission. You will be asked to fill out two questionnaires that will help me us understand your background and future aspiration. Each questionnaire will approximately take 10–15 minutes to complete.

Compensation and Benefits:

There is no compensation for participation. There are no direct benefits for you to participate in this study, but the possible benefit includes developing a better understanding of your own strengths and weaknesses as a language teacher and learner.

Confidentiality: To maintain the confidentiality of the data, all individuals and institutions will be assigned pseudonyms and all still images will be blurred. Focal students and lecturers will be asked to choose pseudonyms. These names will be used in all field notes, interview transcripts, data analysis and in any reports of the completed study. All data (audio and video files and hard copies) will be stored securely in a locked cabinet in the researcher's office at her university. All audio- and video-recorded interactions will be presented as written transcriptions. Data from this study will be shared with my supervisor Professor Fiona Copland.

Risks: There are no foreseeable risks related to your participation in this study; however, there are limits to confidentiality. The presence of the recording devices may inadvertently allow others to identify the focal trainees. Also, some insiders may be able to guess their identities because of the tightknit nature of the PTE community. Focal participants and their partners will be consulted to confirm what information can be included in the final thesis.

Contact: At the end of this study, you will be invited to an open meeting to discuss what I learned from the project. However, if you have any questions about this research anytime during the course of the study, please do not hesitate to contact me at work by telephone ([redacted]) or by e-mail ([redacted]), or my research supervisor, Professor Fiona Copland, by e-mail ([redacted]).

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I have read the informed consent form and understand that my participation in this study is entirely voluntary and that I may refuse to participate or withdraw from study at any time without consequence. I understand that all information resulting from this research will be kept strictly confidential. I know that I may ask for further information about the study if I wish to do so at any time during the research period.

	Initials
I give consent for audio-recording of my activities.	___________
I give consent for video-recording my activities.	___________
I consent to being interviewed about my experiences.	___________
I consent to filling out two background questionnaires.	___________
I give consent for collection of my written products.	___________

I DO NOT give consent for audio-recording of my activities.	___________
I DO NOT give consent for video-recording my activities.	___________
I DO NOT consent to being interviewed about my experiences.	___________
I DO NOT consent to filling out background questionnaires.	___________
I DO NOT give consent for collection of my written products.	___________

I have received a copy of this consent form and I agree to participate in this study.

____

Name (please print)

___________________________________ ___________________________________

Signature Date

(version date: April 11, 201Y)

Appendix H: Assessment for ELT Methodology 1

Assessment

1. Microteaching	(1) Lesson plans	15%
	(2) Microteaching Performance	20%
	(3) Written reflections	10%
2. Midterm Examination		20%
3. Position Paper		20%
4. Class Discussion		15%

Appendix I: Microteaching Assessment Form Used by the Instructor

		Grade	Comments
1	Presentation of target language structures	3 2 1 0	
2	Presentation of content	3 2 1 0	
3	Clear directions	3 2 1 0	
4	Opportunities for students to practise target language structures and skills	3 2 1 0	
5	Appropriate teacher talk	3 2 1 0	
6	Appropriate use of L1	3 2 1 0	
7	Facilitation of student activities	3 2 1 0	
8	Organization	3 2 1 0	
9	Use of visuals	3 2 1 0	
10	Time management	3 2 1 0	

Grading Scale:

3	Excellent
2	Satisfactory
1	Needs improvement
0	Not attempted

Appendix J: POF Participants and Their Contributions

The following four tables summarize who participated in the focal trainees' POF conferences and how much they spoke or acted/reacted nonverbally. The figures signify the total number of lines that each participant's oral and nonverbal contributions took up (automatically coded by MAXQDA) and the proportion of each participant's contributions per session. These contributions vary greatly in length, ranging from one-word utterances or back-channel responses (e.g., yeah, mhm) to several clauses. Here, a line roughly corresponds to a turn, defined by Linell (1998) as "a continuous period one speaker holds the floor" (p. 159). However, because back-channels are noted as if they were full turns in the transcripts, a long turn may be separated into several lines although speaker change does not take place. Thus, it only gives a crude indication of how much each participant contributed verbally and/or nonverbally. Unlike previous studies that analysed English discourse (e.g., Vásquez, 2004), I did not use word counts because, as Hasegawa (2010) explained, "the concept of word is not well established in Japanese linguistics due to the ambiguity of the particle statuses, and due to the existence of syntactic—vis-à-vis morphological (lexical compounds)" (p. 195).

Also, the ratio of each participant's contributions to the total number is given in the parentheses. Here, it is important to remind the reader that, while many of the POF conferences involved reviewing the microlessons of both (or all) student-participants, some were devoted to reviewing a single microlesson taught by one of the participant. Because POFs 3 and 4 were conducted as part of the teach-reteach cycle that entailed pairs of trainees jointly planning a lesson but one doing the teach and the other reteach, each of these sessions was devoted to reviewing a single microlesson. I have shaded all the POF sessions in which the focal trainees' lessons were not reviewed.

Tables 1-4 summarize the focal trainees' and their interlocutors' contributions across POF conferences (total number of lines and proportion of talk per session).

Table 1: Haru's POF Participation:

POF 1					
Total	**Haru**	Noelle		Inst	EK
1401	315 (22.5%)	514 (36.7%)		565 (40.3%)	7 (0.5%)
POF 2.1					
Total	**Haru**	Phil		Inst	EK
472	72 (15.3%)	175 (37.1%)		222 (47.0%)	3 (0.6%)
POF 2.2					
Total	**Haru**	Masato		Inst	EK
1336	357 (26.7%)	334 (25.0%)		643 (48.2%)	2 (0.1%)
POF 3					
Total	**Haru**	Yuki		Inst	EK
1370	149 (10.9%)	601 (43.9%)		619 (45.1%)	1 (0.1%)
POF 4					
Total	**Haru**	Yuki		Inst	EK
1024	321 (31.3%)	233 (22.8%)		470 (45.9%)	0 (0%)
POF 5					
Total	Haru	Kana		Inst	EK
2268	447 (19.7%)	869 (38.3%)		944 (41.6%)	8 (0.4%)

As Table 1 indicates, Haru did not speak as much as many of her POF partners in most cases. In POF 2.2, she spoke almost as much as her POF partner Masato, who was another relatively quiet student, while reviewing their second microlessons. In both

POF 2.1 and POF 3, which did not involve reviewing her microteaching, Haru made a far more limited contribution. In contrast, she made a greater contribution in POF 4 than Yuki, the same partner that she worked with in POF 3. The third microteaching assignment was intended as a pair/group task. However, Haru confessed later that she and Yuki did not work as closely as other groups because their ideas were so different that they could not agree on a single lesson plan. Her contribution in POF 5 seems to be just as limited as that in POFs 2.1 and POF3. As reported in Chapter 6, Haru burst into tears in this particular session.

Table 2: Noelle's POF Participation

POF 1					
Total	Noelle	Haru		Inst	EK
1404	514 (36.6%)	315 (22.4%)		568 (40.5%)	7 (0.5%)
POF 2					
Total	Noelle	Koko		Inst	EK
2073	736 (35.5%)	488 (23.6%)		840 (40.5%)	9 (0.4%)
POF 3					
Total	Noelle	Ryuji		Inst	EK
2374	766 (32.3%)	779 (32.8%)		813 (34.2%)	16 (0.7%)
POF 4					
Total	Noelle	Ryuji		Inst	EK
1181	413 (35.0%)	333 (28.2%)		429 (36.3%)	6 (0.5%)
POF 5					
Total	Noelle	Masato		Inst	EK
1253	470 (37.5%)	249 (19.9%)		530 (42.3%)	4 (0.3%)

Table 2 suggests that Noelle participated much more actively than Haru. In fact, she contributed as much as Hiroki-sensei in some of the POF conferences (e.g., POFs 3 and 4). In POF 2, she made a much greater contribution than her partner Koko, who was auditing Method 1 and participated in the event upon Noelle's request. Perhaps most noteworthy is her participation in POF 3 where she watched Ryuji teach a microlesson that she had jointly planned with him. Although it was not an occasion to review her own microteaching, Noelle participated as actively as Ryuji the microteacher. This seems to suggest her ownership over the co-created lesson.

Table 3: Saburo's POF Participation

POF 1					
Total	Saburo	Takumi		Inst	EK
1230	346 (28.1%)	382 (31.1%)		500 (40.6%)	2 (0.2%)
POF 2					
Total	Saburo	Mizuki		Inst	EK
1427	529 (37.1%)	291 (20.4%)		607 (42.5%)	0 (0%)
POF 3					
Total	Saburo	Ohka		Inst	EK
1935	607 (31.37%)	578 (29.87%)		749 (38.71%)	1 (0.05%)
POF 4					
Total	Saburo	Ohka		Inst	EK
1552	529 (34.1%)	432 (27.8%)		589 (38.0%)	2 (0.1%)
POF 5					
Total	Saburo	Mizuki	Shun	Inst	EK
2647	820 (31.0%)	417 (15.8%)	327 (12.3%)	1077 (40.7%)	6 (0.2%)

Saburo produced more actions and reactions than many of his peer co-participants, as evidenced by Table 3. Like Noelle, he seems to have contributed to the session (POF 4) that was devoted to reviewing and discussing his partner Ohka's teaching of their jointly planned lesson. In fact, he spoke more than the microteacher. Importantly, in POF 3 where they reviewed Saburo's teaching of the same lesson, Ohka participated as actively as Saburo, indicating her strong involvement in the feedback event as well as her ownership over the lesson. Also, Saburo's contribution to POF 5 is in particular conspicuous in that he produced more actions and reactions than Mizuki's and Shun's contributions combined. This seems to have indicated Saburo's stronger involvement in the POF session.

Table 4: Takumi's POF Participation

POF 1					
Total	Takumi	Saburo		Inst	EK
1230	382 (31.1%)	346 (28.1%)		500 (40.6%)	2 (0.2%)
POF 2					
Total	Takumi	Ryuji		Inst	EK
2839	870 (30.7%)	847 (29.8%)		1093 (38.5%)	29 (1.0%)
POF 3					
Total	Takumi	Kana		Inst	EK
1936	447 (23.09%)	775 (40.03%)		713 (36.83%)	1 (0.05%)
POF 4					
Total	Takumi	Kana		Inst	EK
2736	994 (36.3%)	905 (33.1%)		834 (30.5%)	3 (0.1%)
POF 5					
Total	Takumi	Ryuji		Inst	EK
2684	897 (33.4%)	895 (33.4%)		883 (32.9%)	9 (0.3%)

What stands out most about Takumi's POF conferences is that all of his partners were senior to him. As indicated by Table 4.3, their relative statuses in the class were indexed by the different address terms. Moreover, as trainees majoring in primary education, Kana and Ryuji had had completed a practicum at elementary school. Despite these differences in age and experience, Takumi participated as much as his partners in all the POF conferences but POF 3 that focused on Kana's teaching of the jointly planned lesson. Surprisingly, in POFs 4 and 5, both Takumi and his partners produced more actions and reactions than the instructor.

Appendix K: Topics and References

Teacher Acts			
	Topics	**Foci of the POF Talk** (presented in question format)	**FRQ**
1	Giving directions/instructions	Are the instructions clear and easy to follow?	61
2	Responding and giving feedback to students' oral contributions	How does the microteacher respond to student contributions? Does the microteacher provide appropriate feedback? How does the microteacher respond to student questions if they do not know the answer?	48
3	Checking and ensuring students' understanding	How does the microteacher check and ensure students' understanding?	40
4	Allocating and managing time	Is an appropriate amount of time allocated to each activity? How is class time managed?	37
5	Leading and supporting student work	How does the microteacher guide students toward task accomplishment?	34
6	Planning and preparing for lessons	How did each microteacher prepare for the MT? How did the MT partners work together? What type of preparation would be helpful?	32
7	Using stress and intonation	Does the microteacher use stress and intonation appropriately?	30
8	Identifying task/activity purposes	What is the purpose of the ongoing activity/task being performed?	28
9	Promoting student involvement and engagement	How does the microteacher encourage and promote student involvement and engagement?	28
10	Using an enthusiastic tone	Does the microteacher use an enthusiastic tone?	28
11	Identifying learning objectives	What did the microteachers choose to teach (units, TL structures, etc.)? How did they choose it?	27

Teacher Acts			
	Topics	**Foci of the POF Talk**	**FRQ**
12	Monitoring student activities	How does the microteacher monitor student activities? What does he/she notice during rounds?	26
13	Presenting target words and phrases	How are the target words presented? Are they introduced in meaningful contexts?	25
14	Presenting new topics	How are new topics presented? Are they introduced in meaningful contexts?	24
15	Identifying lesson content	What do the microteachers choose to teach (units, TL structures, etc.)? How did they choose it?	22
16	Improvising and making on-the-spot decisions	Does the microteacher depart from their lesson plans? Why?	20
17	Using appropriate speech volume	Does the microteacher speak with an appropriate volume?	20
18	Nominating students	Does the microteacher call on students? Does every student have an equal chance of being nominated?	19
19	Team teaching	How do the MT partners work together during the lesson? What are their roles?	19
20	Presenting the target grammar	How is the target structure presented? Is it presented in a meaningful context?	18
21	Managing classroom activities and interactions	How does the microteacher manage classroom activities and interactions?	17
22	Introducing and using classroom English	How does the microteacher introduce classroom English expressions? How can students be encouraged to use such expressions?	16
23	Talking and acting confidently	Does the microteacher talk and act confidently?	16
24	Using level-appropriate language	Does the microteacher use language appropriate to the students’ level of understanding and English language skills?	14

Teacher Acts			
	Topics	**Foci of the POF Talk**	**FRQ**
25	Using appropriate pacing, tempo, and pausing	Does the microteacher speak at an appropriate speed? Does he/she pause appropriately?	13
26	Building rapport with students	Does the microteacher attempt to build rapport with students? How closely do they stand to their students?	12
27	Getting and sustaining students' attention	Does the microteacher attempt to get and sustain student attention? Does the microteacher look at the class and make eye contact with students?	10
28	Giving students time to think	Does the microteacher allow sufficient wait time so as to promote student thinking?	10
29	Modeling and demonstrating	Does the microteacher model or demonstrate what they expect their students to learn?	10
30	Using gestures in explanations	Does the microteacher use gestures to complement his/her verbal explanation?	10
31	Echoing student contributions	Does the microteacher repeat students' contributions to make them heard by the rest of the class?	8
32	Smiling	Does the microteacher look approachable?	6
33	Relaxing students	Does the microteacher attempt to relax students?	5
34	Setting up the task	Does the microteacher give a reason for reading/listening?	5
35	Creating an atmosphere of L2 communication	Does the microteacher attempt to create an atmosphere where students can communicate in English?	4
36	Dealing with students working at different speeds	How does the microteacher deal with students working at different speeds?	4
37	Addressing student interests	Does the microteacher attempt to address student interests?	3

Teacher Acts			
	Topics	**Foci of the POF Talk**	**FRQ**
38	Letting students succeed and shine	Does the microteacher give students with opportunities to experience a sense of success or to show their strengths?	3
39	Speaking logically	Does the microteacher present information in a logical, organized manner?	1

Lesson Features and Qualities			
	Topics	**Focus of POF Talk**	**FRQ**
40	Student participation and engagement, and performance	How much do the students participate in classroom activities? How are they engaged? How well do they perform?	134
41	Lesson sequence and coherence	How were the activities sequenced? Did they form a coherent whole?	42
42	Groups dynamics and atmosphere	What is the nature of the group? How well do they respond to the microteacher?	23
43	Lesson flow and organization	How is the lesson organized? How can the microteachers assure smooth transitions between activities? Does the lesson flow smoothly from one activity to the next?	15
44	Artificial aspects of microteaching	How are the microteachers’ and students’ actions influenced by the artificial nature of the MT task?	12

Teacher Knowledge, Skills, and Beliefs			
	Topics	**The Foci of the POF Talk**	**FRQ**
52	Target structures (form, meaning, and use)	How is the target structure formed? What does it mean? When and why is it used? How are two similar structures different?	6
53	Student characteristics	What the microteacher know about his/her students?	4
54	SLA theories	What is the theory about? What does it say about L2 pedagogy?	4
55	Cultural knowledge	What cultural knowledge is helpful for understanding texts?	3

Tools and Resources			
	Topics	**The Foci of the POF Talk**	**FRQ**
56	Classroom tasks and activities	What is the nature of the activity/task? What are the benefits of the activity/task? Where did the idea come from? Is the task appropriate to the language level of the students? How can the activity/task be made more manageable? How can the activities be modified for future use (e.g., in secondary schools)?	75
57	Teaching materials	What materials did the microteachers develop for their microlessons? How did they use these materials? How could they improve the materials?	58
58	L1 use	How can the microteachers use Japanese more effectively?	33
59	L2 use	How can the microteachers increase L2 use? How can they improve their teacher talk?	24
60	Organizational patterns and grouping	Why did the microteachers organize student groups in the way they did?	23
61	Audiovisuals aids and realia	Do the microteachers use audiovisual aids to help students' understanding of various texts? How could they use them more effectively?	19
62	Blackboard	How can the microteachers use the blackboard more effectively? How can they make their blackboard writing neater?	18
63	Space arrangement	Why did the microteachers arrange tables and chairs in the way they did?	17
64	Use of metalanguage	What do the microteachers introduce metalanguage for? What do they expect their students to do with it?	11
65	ICT	How could they improve their use of ICT? What tools are available in secondary schools? What might be some potential challenges in using ICT in high school classrooms?	10
66	Student choice of language	Which language did the students use?	8

Tools and Resources

	Topics	The Foci of the POF Talk	FRQ
67	Textbook	How did the microteachers deal with students who forgot to bring their textbooks? How could the textbook be used more effectively during the microteacher's introduction of a new topic?	7
68	Microteacher's notes and scripts	What do the microteachers use their notes for? To what extent is their speech scripted?	6
69	Oral drills and practice	How could the target sentences and words practised effectively?	6
70	Routines	How could the microteachers use routines activities to start their lessons in an engaging way?	4
71	Teacher resource books	What recourses did the microteachers use to prepare for their microlessons? What books would they benefit from?	3
72	Student use of dictionary	Do the students use a dictionary?	3
73	Written lesson plans	How do the microteachers see the role of writing a lesson plan?	2
74	Homework	How can homework be used to consolidate classroom learning?	1

Microteacher Emotion about MT, POF, and Future Practicum

Note: The number in the parenthesis indicates the number of instances where negative emotions were discussed.

	Topics	Foci of the POF Talk	FRQ
75	During-microteaching emotion	How were the microteachers feeling at particular moments in their microlesson?	22 (13)
76	Post- microteaching emotion	What did the microteachers feel about their MT performance?	26 (20)
77	Emotion about POF	What did the microteachers feel about watching their own lessons.	6 (5)
78	Anxiety about their upcoming practicum	What do the microteachers feel about student teaching?	5 (5)

Other Events and Contexts			
	Topics	**Foci of the POF Talk**	**FRQ**
81	POF in Methods I	How do the POF events help participants to think about their teaching?	14
82	Practicum	Where are the microteachers going to do their practicum? Which units of the textbook are they likely to be asked to teach during their practicum?	7
83	Prior MT experience	Have the microteachers had any prior MT experiences? What were they like?	2

Professional Development			
	Topics	**Foci of the POF Talk**	**FRQ**
79	Self-study	What efforts do the microteachers make to prepare for their upcoming practicum?	7
80	Tests required for Japanese teachers of English	What skills are tested in teacher employment exams? What are the characteristics of TOEIC and EIKEN?	2

References to Texts				
Reference (R)		**Definition of Reference**	**Examples (approximate translation)**	**FRQ**
1	Microteacher's own words and thoughts	Refers to what the microteachers thought and said before MT as well as what they were thinking at particular moments during MT.	Example A: Takumi: since **I had thought "I should cut down on explanation to give more time for student activities,"** (Takumi POF4) Example B: Noelle: We had planned to ask them to brainstorm these examples...We **said, "let's have them write their ideas on the blackboard.**" (Noelle POF4) Example C: Noelle: I hurried on to the next part and I **thought "Oh no I screwed up."** (Noelle POF2)	296
2	Other POF participants' own thoughts	Refers to what other POF participants thought during the microteaching, including their comments in their observation notes.	Example A: Inst: like maybe this could not be fully grasped [by the students]. [***tabun*** *kore shooka shi kire nai n ja nai* **ka na** *tte*] (Takumi POF4) Example B: Kana: well you sometimes said okay? But **I thought** like **maybe** it is not enough. Example C: Inst: **Here look at this.** ((**shows his observation notes** to Sabu and Mizuki)) voice projection see the smiley face? (Sabu POF2)	92

References to Texts				
	Reference	**Definition**	**Examples**	**FRQ**
3	POF participants' previous words	Refers to what the participants said earlier in the current POF event.	Example A: Inst: if you did only direction-giving in English **like you said**? …what do you think your students would learn? (Sabu POF2) Example B: Kana: **Like Hiroki-sensei** has said earlier, you could (Takumi POF4) Example C: Ryuji: I wanted to share with my classmates my intention behind the stepwise activity, **which I have told you**. (Takumi POF2)	89
4	Textbook content	Refers to the content of MEXT-approved textbook (e.g., excerpt, visuals, etc.)	Example A Inst: Sunny side-up is used **in the textbook** oh I mean - over easy you know? (Saburo POF1) Example B: Inst: I think you've just said a very important thing. If you agree, it would be worth trying to go back to **that quote**…**(Haru opens the textbook)** (Haru POF4)	72
5	Peers acting as students' words	Refers to what peers acting as students said outside the POF (e.g., causal conversation)	Example A: Takumi: I was advised by Sabu-kun. (Takumi POF4) Example B: Inst: **Remember what Masato said** after Mizuki's lesson the other day, (Sabu POF2)	42

References to Texts				
	Reference	**Definition**	**Examples**	**FRQ**
6	Other trainees' words	Refers to what other trainees said in other POF conferences.	Inst: Koko said, "I would bring kids kitchen cooking tools and demonstrate the action." (Takumi POF2)	32
7	Words from people not involved in Methods 1 or 2	Refers to what people not involved in either of the methods courses said.	Yuki: when I told the story about Mona Lisa, Kenta was like **"you're joking"**…I mean he was involved. (Haru POF3) Inst: The Vice Principle's advice was **"you should know ten things to teach one thing well."** (Haru POF2) Inst: He [Fanselow] suggests that **teachers try the opposite of what they usually do**. (Noelle POF5)	22
8	Quote about teaching	Refers to the Ward quotes about different types of teaching.	Inst: …**The mediocre teacher tells, the good teacher explains, the great teacher demonstrates**,… (Haru POF2)	25
9	*Course of Study* and other MEXT-related documents	Refers explicitly to or implicitly invokes national curriculum standards	Inst: **willingness to communicate actively in English** in a way concerns not just willingness to talk but also willingness to continue conversations, I mean the ability to sustain communication you know? (Sabu POF4)	18
10	Instructor's previous words and actions	Refers to what Hiroki-sensei has said and done in class.	Mizuki: **like** you **always** use this kind of gesture to have students repeat after you. (Sabu POF2)	14

References to Texts				
	Reference	**Definition**	**Examples**	**FRQ**
11	Previous teachers’ words and actions	Refers to what previous teachers (e.g., high school teachers) said and did.	Sabu: **my teacher would say “together”** a few times **using hand like this. ((beckoning gesture with both hands))** (Sabu POF2)	7
12	PTE Programme Handbook	Refers explicitly to or implicitly invokes university standards.	Inst: well to be honest, **a TOEIC score of 500** is a little too low (**as a minimum English language requirement for this course**). (Takumi POF4)	2
13	Writings on the blackboard	Refers to what is written on the blackboard.	Inst: ((**pointing at the screen**)) you mean **what you wrote on this side**? (Noelle POF3)	2
14	Microteachers’ notes	Refers to microteachers’ notes taken in previous POF conferences	Sabu: I **wrote** that **down** ((**showing his notes**)) (Sabu POF3)	2

References to Material and Conceptual Tools 1. Materials and Tools				
	Reference	**Definition**	**Examples**	**FRQ**
15	Teacher resources	Refers to the use of teacher resources such as teacher’s manuals, grammar references, dictionaries, classroom English books, etc.	Noelle: I didn’t know there was **a resource site for the textbook -** I want to use any of its resource that I find useful (Noelle POF1) Noelle: we can find that information **in a dictionary**, right? (Noelle POF2)	34
16	Model lesson plans	Refers to model lesson plans created by experienced teachers available online.	Kana: so I will look at those lessons written by practising teachers to get ideas about how to use English effectively. (Haru POF4)	22

References to Material and Conceptual Tools 1. Materials and Tools				
	Reference	**Definition**	**Examples**	**FRQ**
17	Feedback form	Refers to the practice of filling out the feedback form in the middle of MT	Inst: I guess our challenge is how to involve students so as to avoid **the feedback form problem** you know? (Noelle POF3)	14
18	Trainee-developed materials	Refers to trainee-developed materials such as worksheets and picture cards	Sabu: ((taking notes)) *in which country* well I might have written that **in the worksheet** as well (Sabu POF2)	4
19	Scripts	Refers to trainee's lesson scripts	Noelle: I also prepared **a script a:nd visualized how the exchange would unfold** and… (Noelle POF3)	2

References to Material and Conceptual Tools 2. Concepts and Knowledge				
	Reference	**Definition**	**Examples**	**FRQ**
20	SLA/TESOL concepts and principles	Refers explicitly or implicitly to concepts and/or principles in SLA/TESOL	A. Inst: what do you think is the focus of part of the lesson - in light of **the pie chart** [grammar dimensions]? (Sabu POF1) B. Masato: the textbook does not focus mainly on grammar I mean as a topic or reading it focuses on **learning through English** (Noelle POF5)	274
21	Culturally shared knowledge	Refers to culturally shared knowledge (e.g., English language proficiency tests)	A. Inst: silently isn't it? It's used even **in EIKEN Grade 3 test** right? (Haru POF 2) B. Using characters from recent **Ultraman** or **Masked Rider** series might be helpful in thinking about this issue. (Haru POF3)	54

References to Material and Conceptual Tools 2. Concepts and Knowledge				
	Reference	**Definition**	**Examples**	**FRQ**
22	Generalized image of primary or secondary education	Refers to a generalized image of primary or secondary school classes and students	Sabu: **a real high school student** would probably not know this, right? (Sabu POF2)	40
23	Concepts in general education	Refers to commonly used concepts across subject areas	A. Masato: ((looking at the screen)) here when I was doing **kikan-junshi** (between-the-desk patrolling), (Noelle POF5) B. Inst: yeah you first do **kikan-junshi** to see how they are doing. If necessary, you do **kikan-shido** (between-desk instruction), you know. (Sabu POF3)	34
24	Particular students' characteristics and personal interests	Refers to particular students' characteristics and personal interests	A. Noelle: **amazingly** Phil **didn't** fall asleep **today**. (Noelle POF3) B. Inst: **just like multi-instrumental players, like multi-instrumentalist**. (Takumi POF5)	18
25	Generalized image and expectations of teachers	Refers to what teachers are generally like and what they are expected to be.	Kana: because **teachers are said to be actors right?** (Takumi POF3)	7
26	Generalized image of university classes	Refers to a generalized image of Japanese undergraduate students and their English language proficiency	Noelle: because it was designed for **university students,** well I had thought they would have no problem answering the questions. (Noelle POF4)	4
27	Trainees' prior knowledge of TL	Refers to what the participants knew about the English language	Inst: **like the "am"** in the sentence "He is taller than I am." (Haru POF #3)	2

References to Material and Conceptual Tools 3. Events and Activities				
	Reference	**Definition**	**Examples**	**FRQ**
28	Future practicum and teaching as a practitioner	Refers to their future practicum at a secondary school and teaching after employment	Inst: and especially **when we do our practicum** they will probably check our English language proficiency. I mean students. (Sabu POF5)	60
29	Other students' MT	Refers to other students' MT	Inst: even **Noelle's way** [of introducing the new topic] lacked a few words I thought. (Haru POF)	33
30	Previous MT experiences in Methods I	Refers to the participants' own MT experiences	Noelle: **Last time I did this lesson** (Noelle POF2)	25
31	MT preparation and debriefing	Refers to the participant's MT preparation and debriefing outside the classroom	Sabu: well this too was brought up in my discussion with Iwaya-kun (Sabu POF2)	22
32	Previous class meetings	Refers to what took place in previous class meetings	Inst: that phase in which you read and discuss a text in a small group **you've experienced it remember?** (Takumi POF3)	20
33	Previous POF conferences	Refers to what has taken place in the participants' previous POF conferences	Taku: That's because I heard from Saburo **after his feedback session that…** (Takumi POF2)	12
34	Teacher employment test	Refers to teacher employment tests to be taken in the following year.	Inst: **Last year's teacher employment exam** required candidates to do that you know. (Haru POF 5)	11
35	Observed lessons	Refers to what the trainees noticed in real classrooms during their field experiences	Sabu: well **in my caring work experience** I mean **when I went to that school for the visually impaired** (Sabu POF5)	10

References to Material and Conceptual Tools 3. Events and Activities				
	Reference	**Definition**	**Examples**	**FRQ**
36	Other groups' POF conferences	Refers to what took place in other groups' POF conferences.	Inst: oh it's fine now…**when I watched Masato's lesson**, I couldn't hear what he was saying. I thought you played the music a little too loud. (Sabu POF3)	9
37	Subsequent MT in Methods I	Refers to the subsequent MT	Noelle: since we took the time for the students to write and think about the benefits, **let's** have them use this information to make a proposal **next time** (Noelle POF3)	8
38	Extracurricular activities	Refers to what the trainees did outside of the university curriculum.	**When I train a marching band**, I have its members practise physical movements immediately after my explanation, so	4

References to Material and Conceptual Tools 4. Other Courses				
	Reference	**Definition**	**Examples**	**FRQ**
39	Concurrent PTE courses	Refers to other courses that the student-participants were concurrently taking.	A. Inst: That's what you do **in the TEYL class**, right? (Noelle POF2) B. Inst: maybe you know you've experienced **what I regularly experienced in the SLA course** I suppose (Sabu POF4)	36
40	Previous PTE courses and related fieldwork	Refers to other courses that the student-participants have previously taken.	Sabu: I tried to use as English as possible this time because I thought I used Japanese a lot **last time**, I mean in **Professor Otani's class** (Sabu POF1)	19
41	Previous English language lessons	Refers to the practices of the speakers' previous English language lessons.	Shun: **Like a radio English programme that I did**, (Sabu POF5)	15

References to Material and Conceptual Tools 4. Other Courses				
	Reference	**Definition**	**Examples**	**FRQ**
42	Instructional practices at other institutions	Refers to instructional practices that the instructor has seen.	Inst: That’s **how the tables and chairs are arranged in the other university**. (Takumi POF5)	4