

教師育成のためのマイクロティーチング： 会話分析的研究

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要 旨

本文では、マイクロティーチングにおける修復を会話分析の手法を用いて観察した。マイクロティーチングは1963年にスタンフォード大学でDwight Allenが始めた教師育成の方法である。十種者は短時間で小人数に教えた授業を録画し授業の直後にそのビデオを仲間と指導教員と一緒にしながらフィードバックやコメントを受ける。

会話分析はHarvey SacksとEmmanuel Schegloffによって1960年代に社会学から発展された研究方法である。人と人の相互行為という社会的な活動はどのような仕組みで起こっているのかを基本的に分析することが会話分析の目的である。自然に生起する相互行為の画像は音声を繰り返し観察や文字化しemicな視点（相互行為者自身の視点）からデータを見て実際に何が起こっているのかを観察することが会話分析の基本的な方針である。

自然な会話では参加者はある互の背景、常識、文脈から相手がどういふ発話しているのかを理解することができる。だからといって、会話に問題が生じないということがない。話してが上手に言葉が出せなかったり、聞き手の方が聞き取れなかったり、理解できなかったり等の問題が生じることがある。ただし、会話を中断せずに会話参加者は会話内の問題—発話の問題、聞き違い、理解の問題—に対する効果的な解決方法を使用し会話を続けることができる。この方法は会話分析では修復と呼ばれる。修復は通常の訂正のようにも見えるのだが、会話分析では修復は必ずしも何らかの誤りに対するものではない。また、

すべての誤りが修復されるわけではない。

言語教育の中では修復と訂正の両方が起きることがあるが、修復と訂正の区別をすることが重要である。Hall (2007) や Macbeth (2004) によるとある発話を相手が理解しているが、話し手の発話にあった誤りを直すために修復しようとするとはそれは訂正であり、話し手の発話が理解できなかった場合に開始する修復は会話分析な修復である。教室内で教師が生徒の発話に対して行う修復は主に訂正である。

本文では大学生が実際に行ったマイクロティーチングの授業を文字化してその中から複数の修復の例を揚げそれぞれを分析した。分析の結果、マイクロティーチングのインタラクシオンで参加者は Aline & Hosoda (2009) が述べた言語形式 (language code) に志向していたことがわかった。また実習生による自己修復はマイクロティーチングの全体の進行性に重要な役割を与えていることもわかった。また、指導教師による他者修復は実習生が正しくないことを教えてしまうこと、いわゆる Transfer of Learning (Elis, 1965) の規制であるように見えた。

さらに、マイクロティーチングの授業をすることが実習生に二つの重要な学習機会を与えていることも明らかになった。一つ目は実習生にとって第二言語として英語を使用する機会であり、二つ目は学生でありながらも先生が生徒に対し使う英語を試すことができるということだ。先生が使用する言葉を使うことによって学習者は Swain (1985) が “output hypothesis” で説明したように自身が現在に使っている言葉と先生として使うべき言葉の違いを身につけ、次回により良いパフォーマンスを出来るようになる可能性があることが指摘された。

APPLICATION OF MICROTEACHING IN TEACHER EDUCATION: A CONVERSATION ANALYTIC STUDY

Bhatta Baikuntha

1. INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Microteaching has been used as a teacher training tool in a significant number of universities throughout the world (Abdurrahman, 2010; Allen & Wang, 1996; Ananthakrishnan, 1993; Brown, 1975; Chatzidimou, 2003; Heyworth, 1982; MacLeod, 1992; Pauline, 1993; Shah & Masur, 2011; Zens, 2007) in many academic fields such as second language instruction (Arends, 2000; Miller & Brennan, 1983; Stanley, 1998; Woods, 1996), science education (Eick, Meadows & Balkom, 2005; Sen, 2010; Yeany, 1978), mathematics education (Niess, 2005; Remillard, 2005), and so on. Basically, microteaching is a teacher training technique used in various education programs. It was developed in the early 1960s at Stanford University. It provides a trainee teacher with a practice setting where the complexities of the normal classroom are minimized. With the minimized setting, a teacher is provided with an opportunity to safely put themselves “under the microscope” of a small group audience. Microteaching provides an opportunity to the trainee teachers to practice their planned lesson in a protected environment of colleagues and supervisors. In a microteaching environment, the teacher can concentrate on the acquisition of a skill since it reduces the complexities of a normal classroom environment (Bush, 1969; Cooper, 1967). In

sum, microteaching is an organized practice setting for the trainee teachers to acquire confidence in the field and to develop professionally with teaching activities. However, in spite of being an extensively used technique in teacher training, microteaching has been criticized concerning various aspects of its implementation.

This study utilizes conversation analysis (CA) (Heritage, 1984; Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998, 2008; Levinson, 1983; Psathas, 1995; Sacks, 1992; Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974; Schegloff, 2007; Schegloff, Jefferson & Sacks, 1977; Sidnell, 2010; Ten Have, 1999; Terasaki, 1976) as an empirical methodological approach for analyzing the data from microteaching classes. CA is one of the dominant contemporary methods in the analysis of social interaction. It avails itself of an emic perspective in the analysis, where the observer does not manipulate variables or try to interpret behaviors based on an a priori template. Rather, everything is observed and analyzed from the perspective of the participants in the data based on their manifested interpretation of the previous turn. CA brings out the elements of the interaction from the point of view of the participants.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This section reviews some of the relevant literature in application of microteaching in teacher education. In what follows, I briefly introduce microteaching and the way it has been practiced in the field of education and teacher training. Then, some of the main advantages and limitations of microteaching are discussed.

2.1. Microteaching

2.1.1. Introduction to Microteaching

Microteaching is a training technique used in various pre-service and in-service teacher-training programs. Microteaching

provides a trainee teacher with a practice setting where the complexities of the normal classroom are minimized. To minimize the complexities of a normal teaching situation, microteaching employs a reduced length and narrowed scope of the lesson, and fewer students than in a usual class (Allen & Ryan, 1969). In this technique, a trainee teacher videotapes their own lesson, reviews the videotape after the lesson, and then conducts a “post-mortem” of the lesson with professors and peer trainee teachers. In the review session, the teachers analyze their lessons, search for the successes, discover aspects that could be improved, and discuss what needs to be done to enhance their teaching techniques. With this minimized situation, microteaching provides trainee teachers with the opportunity to safely put themselves “under the microscope” of a small group audience. Therefore, basically, microteaching, as a tool for teacher preparation, trains teaching behaviors and skills in a small group setting with reduced complications.

In microteaching, the trainee teachers can try out a short piece of what they would usually do or plan to do with regular classroom students, in a protected environment of friends and colleagues, and supervisors, and receive well-intended feedback. It is a good opportunity for the development of trainee teachers since they can adopt new teaching and learning strategies and, through assuming a student role, they can attain an opportunity to build understanding and assimilation of students’ needs and expectations. Furthermore it provides chances for the trainees to learn from others and to enrich their own knowledge of teaching methods. Not only this, but microteaching also provides trainee teachers with support, leadership, and direction from skilled supervisors.

In sum, microteaching is an organized practice setting for a trainee teacher. It aims to give confidence, support, and feedback to the instructors. They can practice their teaching techniques and strategies among friends, colleagues, and their supervisors in

a practice setting of a minimized form of what they are eventually going to do with their students. Ideally, microteaching lessons are videotaped for later review so as to discover the shortcomings and successes of the lesson. It is a quick and efficient way to help new teachers get off to a strong start. This way, microteaching has added real meaning to courses in educational psychology because it provides an opportunity to actually practice what the courses preach.

In practical application, two types of microteaching practices have become apparent. One of these is a type of microteaching where the fellow trainees act as model students. Thus it has the quality of an experimental setting. The other type argues for real students' participation where learning takes place in a true sense. Many reports of microteaching describe it as simulated teaching. In many cases, in a microteaching session, students are described as peers, that is, fellow student-teachers. In this practice, the fellow student-teachers are acting as they think their prospective secondary or elementary school students would behave. Even if they are behaving naturally, they still are not an actual part of the population that the practicing teachers are preparing to teach. Though this type of peer teaching format of microteaching provides valuable experiences to the trainees, Cooper and Allen (1970) do not equate it with microteaching since the role-playing students cannot be directly equated with the actual students that will be taught in the future. Rather, they define microteaching in a strict sense and claim that the teacher in microteaching needs to be a real teacher, the participating students need to be real students, and learning needs to actually occur in the lessons even though the scope is narrowed (Cooper & Allen, 1970).

2.1.2. Historical Context of Microteaching

In the early and mid 1960s, Dwight Allen and his colleagues from Stanford University planted the seeds of a novel teacher training program aimed at improving the verbal and non-verbal

aspects of teachers' speech and general performance. Developed in the Secondary Teacher Education Program at Stanford, Allen's model, enlisting actual students as an authentic audience, was a combination of three steps: (a) teach, (b) review, (c) re-teach. In the beginning, microteaching was applied to science education, but later it was introduced to language teaching. During the early 1970s, a similar type of model, the Instructional Skills Workshop was developed in Canada as a training support program for college and institute faculty. Both the Stanford model and the Instructional Skills Workshop were designed to enhance teaching and open collegial discussion about an instructor's performance.

An attempt to find a new and more effective way of initial training of pre-intern teachers gave birth to microteaching. In 1963, Kim Romney and Dwight Allen designed a demonstration lesson to help their students feel liberated from the complexities of a regular classroom (Allen & Ryan, 1969). In the demonstration lesson, the interns were asked to teach a lesson to a group of four pupils. This model was set in an extremely artificial situation since the participants in the demonstration lesson were only role-playing formulaic students. Later this process of having peers role-play the students was deemed unnecessary when the trainees were asked to prepare a short lesson of their own chosen subject matter by which they could focus on the content that they would teach. It was an improvement over the demonstration lesson but still lacked direction and teaching techniques. In the summer of 1963, Horace Aubertine worked to develop the teaching skill of "How to Begin a Lesson" as part of a research study (Aubertine, 1967). In Aubertine's study the interns were asked to use the skill of beginning a lesson in their microteaching. As a result, the practice of focusing on one skill at a time proved to be successful and so was adopted.

The teaching-skills approach assumed that the teacher could gradually acquire a repertoire of teaching skills to use in actual

lessons by breaking down the complex teaching act into more easily learned skill units. It was thought that repertoire building of skills would help trainee teachers to be more flexible and versatile. Thus they would be capable in adjusting and more effective in adapting their teaching style to suit the students' needs or the objectives of the lesson. According to Hamachek (1969), an effective teacher is one who can adapt their teaching methods to be more effective in producing positive student performance and attitudes than one who lacks versatility (Hamachek, 1969, p. 343).

After its inception in 1963, the widespread use of microteaching focused on the teacher's development of a repertoire of teaching skills. Besides trainee teachers, microteaching has played a vital role for the professional development of in-service teachers, as well. Since that time, over twenty different general teaching skills for elementary and secondary teachers across most subject matter areas have been developed. Most of which were identified through the analysis of teachers' tasks in the classroom.

Early studies explored and defined the underlying principles of microteaching and its effectiveness as a teacher training methodology (Allen & Wang, 1996; Brown, 1975; Heyworth, 1982; Pauline, 1993). Even if it is constructed in a practice situation, many researchers agree that it should be considered to be real teaching because it is grounded in real practice situations for the trainee teachers (Allen & Clark, 1967; Allen & Ryan, 1969). The teacher can concentrate on the acquisition of a skill since the complexities of a normal classroom environment are reduced (Bush, 1966; Cooper, 1967). In addition, microteaching practitioners consider the trainee's capacities by enabling them to select content from the area of their greatest competence so that they can perform to the best of their abilities (Meier, 1968). For novice teachers, teaching for the first time in an actual classroom results in a high degree of anxiety as it is a maximum threat

situation due to the fact that they must interact with real students who are not previously known or are little known to the trainees. But microteaching provides a low threat arena in which they can practice their skills in the presence of their own professors and colleagues. Also, as microteaching is not a part of the pupils' regular lessons, it provides a low risk situation for both teacher and students (Allen & Clark, 1967).

2.1.3. Steps in Microteaching

The microteaching environment provides trainee teachers with an opportunity to try out their teaching strategies and methods as part of a gradual process. In other words, the teachers in a microteaching program do their activities in an orderly and organized manner. The microteaching cycle begins with the activity of defining certain skills to master and passes through various stages. This section describes the various steps teachers take during a microteaching program.

Since microteaching helps teacher trainees to practice and master a specific area of teaching skills, the initiating phase in a microteaching environment is selection of the skill to be practiced. In this stage, the supervisor explains the particular skills to be practiced to the trainees. They might provide suitable examples that help the trainees to obtain the targeted skills. The supervisor may also explain the specific teaching behaviors and the objectives of the behaviors to achieve.

After definition of specific skills, the next step in the microteaching environment is demonstration of the selected skill. Generally, the teacher trainer gives a demonstration lesson using the particular skill. The demonstration lesson provides the trainees with a model so that they can design their own lesson and teach toward some sort of template (Allen & Ryan, 1969). The main objective of this stage is to present a model to guide and support the trainees. Instead of the trainer teaching a demonstration lesson, some prepared video or film can be used

according to its availability and appropriateness for the skill in focus.

In the next step, the trainees plan a short lesson. During the planning, they base their lesson on the defined skills they are going to try out. They design their lesson plan using the previously selected model as a template and relate the design to the particular skill they chose to practice in the microteaching session.

Actually teaching the lesson is the core activity in a microteaching session. After the trainees plan the lesson, they teach it to a small group of pupils. According to Cooper and Allen (1970), the participant students should be real students, but in general practice, the group of pupils includes peers and the trainer. The principle of microteaching requires a lesson to be audio or videotaped while the trainee is delivering the lesson, which is then viewed and reviewed in the discussion session. Even if the trainee's lesson is not videotaped, it is critiqued by the supervisor and peers upon its completion.

A detailed discussion to provide feedback on the lesson follows the delivery section. This discussion includes comments and suggestions from the supervisor, peers as learners, and other possible observers. If the lesson is videotaped, the trainee teachers observe and analyze their lessons not only themselves but along with the supervisor and peers. The peer students and supervisor highlight the successful aspects of the lesson and the areas in need of improvement. The discussion and analysis session can also be audio or videotaped, which the trainee teacher might avail themselves of to further improve their skills regarding the lesson.

Using the comments and suggestions from the analysis section, the trainee teacher revises the lesson. Re-planning the lesson helps the trainees to use their skills in a more effective manner in the second round.

In principle, the revised and re-planned lesson should be

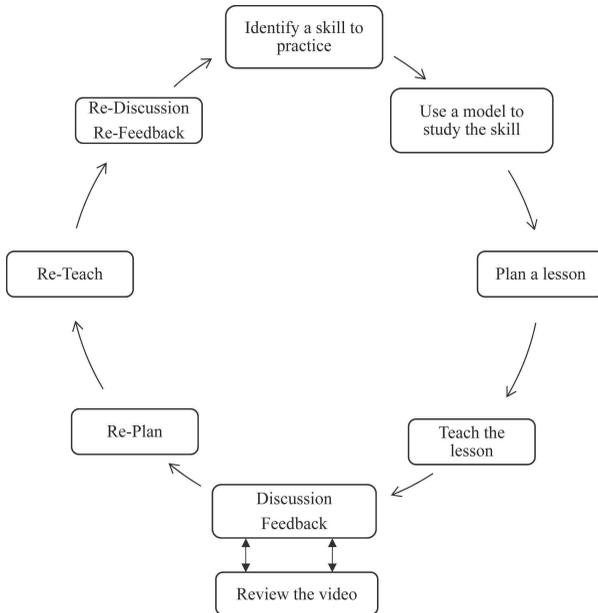


Figure 1. A Diagrammatic Representation of the Reiterative Cycle of Microteaching.

taught to a different but comparable group of pupils. But in practice the revised lesson is often taught to the same audience. Whatever the lesson is, the second attempt at delivering the lesson is also observed by peers and supervisors, and also audio or videotaped for feedback.

The trainee's second attempt is also analyzed in a re-feedback/re-discussion session. The supervisor and peers again highlight the areas that need improvement and suggest possible refinements in this session of the micro lesson. The re-feedback/re-discussion session helps the trainees to polish their skill in the specific area that they have selected to concentrate on.

Once one microteaching cycle is completed, a further cycle may be implemented in order to further polish the pedagogical skills being emphasized. The cycle continues till an adequate

mastery level is attained in the skill. In this whole process, the role of the supervisor is very important because they are most adept at guiding the trainee to perfect their performance due to their extensive teaching experience. The supervisor continuously directs the trainees to master performance of the particular skill in focus. The continuity of microteaching activities can be more clearly visualized with a diagrammatic representation of the steps. The following diagram, Figure 1, shows the cyclic order of microteaching from skill identification to feedback process. Additionally, this diagram shows the nature of the feedback session. In the feedback session, the supervisors and the participants discuss the delivery of the lesson and repeatedly view the video.

2.1.4. Advantages and Limitations

2.1.4.1. Advantages

In the following section, I review and outline the advantages and limitations of microteaching as discussed in the related literature (Allen, 1968; Allen & Ryan, 1969; Passi,1976). Microteaching helps teachers to develop and master important teaching skills. The microteaching environment enables the trainee teachers to practice the same skills in the protective environment of their supervisors' and colleagues' support. This type of practice situation helps them in the mastery of the teaching skills they are practicing. With the guidance of a supervisor, a trainee can analyze various aspects of their own performance in the light of their goals. All the feedback in microteaching can immediately be translated into practice when the trainee re-teaches the short lesson after the critique session.

A further advantage is that before the trainees teach what they have prepared for their microteaching session, they are provided with a model by using audio or video materials, or the supervisor provides a model lesson. This provides the trainees with many opportunities to study the desired patterns of

behaviors. In this way, microteaching helps the trainees to develop their own style.

Other advantages of this teacher training technique are that (a) microteaching lessons require less time, (b) are narrower in scope, and (c) they enlist only a few students. In other words, the microteaching environment is a reduced version of a regular classroom. This scaled down teaching minimizes the complexities of a normal classroom environment.

Further, in building up confidence in the trainee teachers, microteaching plays an important role by providing various opportunities in a gradual way. It provides a continuous reinforcement to the trainee teachers' performance and improves their teaching skills. In other words, a good micro lesson is an excellent opportunity to prepare for a good macro lesson. Therefore, microteaching provides a perfect prelude to a good, normal classroom lesson.

Microteaching is effective in modifying teaching behavior. It helps to decrease the amount of teacher talk in class discussions and to increase the number of the teacher's redirections, promptings, and teacher-initiated questions (Laxmi, 2009). As the teachers use promptings and ask more questions, it calls for the pupils' heightened attention and provides more opportunities for them to participate. According to Pangotra (1980), microteaching increases indirect talk and emphasizes pupil initiated talk, making the teacher-talk more effective.

A further advantage is the variety and depth of feedback available in a microteaching cycle. It is possible for the trainee teachers to obtain extensive comments and suggestions from their supervisors and peers of a type directly relevant to the specific skill being practiced. Moreover, the audio and videotaped recordings can be mined as a resource for further analysis by the trainee teachers themselves and by their colleagues or supervisors.

Providing a safe practice situation for the trainee teachers,

this technique multiplies the opportunities for improvement through its focus on the micro skills of pedagogy. In microteaching lessons, the trainees can try out what they will do with regular students in the future in the safe environment of the support from supervisors and peers, where the trainees will not be held back by any inhibitions. This sort of situation decreases the amount of stress the trainee teachers have (Houtman & Bakker, 1987; Leary, 1983). As a consequence, the less stressful situation provides opportunities for greater learning so the trainees will perform better in their actual lessons.

2.1.4.2. Limitations

Although microteaching has played a vital role in the training of pre-service and in-service teachers, there are still some aspects that have not yet been addressed. Many critiques of microteaching accuse microteaching of being too much of a skill-oriented technique (Zenger & Zenger, 1991). The criticism has been leveled at microteaching that it places the main emphasis on skills and does not pay adequate attention to the content, which is one of the most important components of the teaching-learning process. Similarly, because of the number of participants and the time consumed, all trainees cannot be given adequate opportunities for re-planning and re-teaching, though it should be done in principle. Providing opportunities for re-planning and re-teaching for all the participant-trainees makes this technique a lengthy and time consuming activity. Since trainee teachers practice certain specific skills in a microteaching environment, it may not cover the various aspects of skill development required for a teacher. Broad patterns of behavior are not paid attention to in the microteaching technique. That is to say, it does not seem to help develop a wide variety of skills, and consequently the entire process of teaching is not adequately addressed by this technique.

In early studies (Gage & Wince, 1975; Perlberg, 1987), microteaching was criticized based on the idea that the trainee

teachers might not be able to transfer the skills learned from microteaching lessons to normal lessons. Research findings in the field of microteaching have also been inconclusive about its efficacy (Wragg, 1982). It has been argued by many that the activity of teaching is an art as well as a science (Kaneez & Humera, 2011). Teaching certainly involves skills, but it also involves certain decision-making practices of when and how to use the skills learned. That is, the trainees have to learn the art of deploying skills alongside the learning of those skills. Furthermore, microteaching does not pay enough attention to the appropriateness of a particular skill to a particular lesson. It provides support to teachers in the acquisition of particular skills, but it does not address the issue that the activity of teaching is not only the combination of independent and isolated teaching skills. Teachers have to learn the art of combining those skills, which is one aspect argued to be sorely neglected by microteaching.

3. VIDEO RECORDING AND FEEDBACK IN MICROTEACHING

In the preceding section, I discussed the different aspects of microteaching. In recent days, the use of the video recording technique also is highly valued in microteaching. It is important to the trainees in the sense that they could have an opportunity to observe how they performed while delivering the lesson. This section discusses some of the studies related to the use of video recording in microteaching practices. There are numerous studies focusing on the analysis of teacher development through microteaching. Some of these examine the effects of video recording in microteaching lessons (Joshi, 1977; Linman, 1980; Zein, 1976), and some of them examine the effectiveness of feedback in microteaching (Brandl, 2000; Brinko, 1993; Jerich, 1989).

A lot of researchers support the view of using video

recording to bring about significant changes in the microteaching environment. For example, Joshi (1977) opines that the inclusion of video recording in microteaching helps trainee teachers to improve the learning of basic teaching skills. Relatedly, Olivero (1980) takes microteaching as an essential ingredient in teacher education and argues for the use of video recording to make it more beneficial. His research concluded that microteaching without video recording is less effective in skill development because the trainee teachers are not provided with sufficient opportunities to see their own errors. Consequently, they are deprived of the chance to learn from analysis of their errors. Zein (1976) conducted an experimental field-study to examine the effectiveness of video recording in microteaching. According to the results, microteaching is superior to other traditional training methods due largely to the application of video recording equipment. The use of video has made microteaching an efficient and effective technique in teacher training programs conducted in various parts of the globe.

Use of video recording techniques during the microteaching session also shows different effects on the teacher trainees' performance. Kpanja (2001) conducted an experimental study to test the effectiveness of video recording in a microteaching program. In this study, the subjects were divided into two different groups where the first group was allowed to practice their skills with the aid of video recording equipment and the second group practiced their skills without video recording. The results provided some data in favor of the use of video recording. It was found that the experimental group that utilized video recording behaved more confidently and positively towards the microteaching while the participants of the control group without video recording were less enthusiastic and found to be inadequately prepared for the microteaching lessons.

4. CONVERSATION ANALYSIS IN THE STUDY OF TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

The use of the conversation analytic method in the study of teacher development is the area on which this paper focuses. There is an abundant literature demonstrating the efficacy of applying conversation analysis to the study of classroom interaction (Aline & Hosoda, 2009; Baker, 1992; Hall, 2007; Koshik, 2002; Macbeth, 2004; Markee, 2000; McHoul, 1978; Mehan, 1979; Seedhouse, 1999, Wong, 2000; Wong & Olsher, 2000). Since most of these studies have centered on the analysis of learner initiated talk, there is yet a lack of research regarding the language used by teachers in interaction in the language classroom. However, in recent years, some studies have used conversation analysis to explicate teacher development (Hosoda & Aline, 2010a, Maekawa, 2012).

Hosoda and Aline (2010a) used the conversation analytic method to examine teacher development in an English as a foreign language environment. This study was based on the analysis of teacher trainees' actions and language use in English activity classes in Japanese elementary schools. More than 30 hours of classroom interaction was video-recorded during the data collection. The video was then observed, transcribed, and analyzed in detail. This longitudinal study of more than 19-months examined how the teacher trainees develop through the interactional practices. After a detailed examination and thorough data analysis, this research found that the trainee teachers developed in two related areas of classroom actions. First, the trainee teachers developed in the provision of assessments to the students, and the second, their gradual progress in directives issued to the students. This study revealed that the real practice situation for pre-service teachers is highly fruitful as they can evolve in deployment of pragmatic actions. According to Hosoda and Aline (2010a), the on-site practice situation develops the

teachers' interactional skills and deployment of pragmatic language use. This highlights the positive aspects of the practice situation for the prospective teachers.

Maekawa (2012) used conversation analysis and studied about the trainee teachers' identity shifts in a microteaching environment. This research included video recordings of various actual microteaching lessons and analyzed them using conversation analysis. Through the analysis, it was revealed that the trainee teacher shifts orientation to identity during a microteaching lesson. Identity generally means the participants' characteristics, thoughts, beliefs, etcetera, that distinguishes them from others. However, in CA identity means the participants' characteristics that they demonstrate and orient to through the interaction. The study by Maekawa (2012) found that the trainees display the identity of a teacher and at times being a language learner. In some other instances, they manifest the identity of being a novice learner when they interact with their advising professor. In the analysis of the data in her study, it was revealed that the trainee teachers orient to the identity of being a teacher when delivering the lesson and orient to the identity of a language learner while talking to the advising professor. They also occasionally show a shift in identity to that of a language learner when they manifest some sort of difficulties with the ongoing interaction.

Both of the above studies provide evidence that the practice situation for a pre-service teacher is highly important. In the Hosoda and Aline (2010a) research, the trainee teachers develop to become a full teacher through interactional practices. And in the study by Maekawa (2012), the trainee teachers displayed some possible signs of development from the identity of being a student/language learner to the identity of a teacher.

5. REPAIR IN CONVERSATION

The following section discusses how the organization of repair is observed in mundane interactional sites. Repair is a device in conversation that describes how interactants in conversation deal with problems in hearing, speaking, or understanding. Conversation in its manner is potentially subject to difficulty, and, as a self-regulating system conversation requires some devices to solve those difficulties. Repair is the aspect of conversation which works to solve problems encountered in interaction. Like various other aspects of conversation, repair is also an independent aspect of the conversational system because once repair is initiated, it passes through the repair organization of initiation to completion. In second language acquisition (SLA) theory, Jack Richards, John Platt, and Heidi Platt (1992) define repair in only a general sense as “a term for ways in which errors, unintended forms, or misunderstandings are corrected by speakers or others during conversation” (p. 314). However, from the perspective of CA, repair is one of the chief resources in conversation that the participants make use of in the construction of shared understanding (Schegloff, 1992). Thus, repair ultimately enables interactants to come out of the problems of conversation in a trouble-free manner. In naturally occurring talk, repair deals with a large variety of conversational infelicities such as incorrect word selection, slips of the tongue, mis-hearings, misunderstandings, etcetera.

In a general sense, repair appears to be how people deal with problems. If a conversational trouble occurs, the interactants move to point out the trouble and adjust it. When there is a problematic aspect in a talk, the following sequence comes with an order that starts from the trouble source, goes through initiation of repair, and ends with the outcome. In this ordinal perspective, repair appears to be similar to correction as a

sequential phenomenon where correction can be taken only as a subtype of repair. Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977), working within the highly specified methodological constraints of CA, confine the term “correction” to error replacement and allow “repair” to cover both errors and other types of troubles in interaction. So the term “repair” is used instead of correction in conversation analysis to represent the overall phenomenon of dealing with problems. CA employs the terms “repairable” or “trouble source” for the utterances in conversation that are oriented for repair (Schegloff et al., 1977, p. 363). For Schegloff et al., many cases that seem to have no salient difficulty, come to be seen as repair in conversation analysis. In fact, nothing can be excluded from the class “repairable” (p. 363). For example Liddicoat (2007) uses the following example as evidence of a repair sequence that seems to be relatively unproblematic on first inspection (p. 171).

(1) [May and Jo]

May: she’s gone to:: .ho:h. wait and till
 I show you on the map where she’s going.=
 Jo: =right

In this extract the current speaker needs time to produce a word for the continuation of the ongoing talk. Here, the sound stretch *to::* and the audible in-breath *.ho:h* helps both to keep the turn going and to initiate repair in the form of finding the relevant word. But in this particular sequence, the current speaker fails to bring out the relevant word but rather chooses an alternative to keep communicating. This extract shows the present speaker’s abandonment of their attempt to produce the proper lexical item that they want to use while making the utterance.

While other paradigms take a different approach to repair (e.g., SLA), this study utilizes the CA approach to “repair”

throughout this paper and for the phenomena empirically outlined by CA. Therefore, repair is an inclusive term used in CA which covers various circumstances, from seeming errors in turn-taking, such as overlapping talk, to any of the forms of what is commonly called corrections of the substantive faults in the contents of what the participants have said. In a talk, either the speaker or hearer can initiate repair if they find themselves with a problem within the conversation. In conversation with a problematic utterance, the repair initiation aims at success and in most cases repair is achieved very quickly (Schegloff, 1979). But it needs to be kept in mind that repair may fail. That is to say, all initiations do not lead to the successful repair of the repairable item though the repair effort has been made. In the following extract from Shegloff et al. (1977), the repair effort is made but no repair is produced. (p. 364).

(2) [BS: 2:1:6]

C: C'n you tell me- (1.0) D'you have any records
of whether you- whether you- who you sent-
Oh (hh) shit

G: What'd you say?

C: I'm having the worst trouble talking.

In the above extract C initiates repair with *of whether you-* and cuts off to seek a relevant word for communication. The multiple attempts to find a word fail and C gives up with an oh-prefaced expletive *Oh (hh) shit*. In this extract the repair initiation is not immediately successful. At least to the point in the interaction presented here, the outcome is not a repair.

6. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1. Data

The data for this study come from video recordings of

microteaching interaction in a Japanese university in the Tokyo metropolitan area. Over ten hours of microteaching interaction was recorded using a video camera with a remote microphone. In the English department of the university where the data was collected, all the students who are enrolled in the teacher training course take part in the microteaching program. During the video recording, the camera was placed in the back of the classroom and the remote microphone was placed on the table at the front of the classroom to obtain good quality sound in the data.

6. 2. Participants

The participants of this study were Japanese university students involved in the microteaching where they chose to practice teaching English for Japanese junior or senior high school students. In the microteaching environment, the participants designed a full lesson in a group and taught the parts of it individually. Each microteaching lesson is consisted of about 15 university students and 4 or 5 of them practice teaching in one class session. More than 10 microteaching lessons of about 50 trainees' were video recorded, carefully transcribed, and analyzed in detail.

In the microteaching environment analyzed in this study, the teacher trainees participated as model students. They were the trainee teacher's classmates: both juniors and seniors. The professors conducting the course also participated as model students. Since the participants chose to teach English, a foreign language for them, in the training situation, the training was a practice situation for EFL teachers.

Throughout the microteaching lesson, the professor took part mainly as a model student. In some cases he intervened and helped the trainee teachers in the continuation of the lesson but most of the time he played the role of a student and simply listened as a model student to the lesson. It was only after the microteaching lesson was completed that he provided comments

and suggestions for improvement concerning pedagogical, technical, and artistic areas.

6. 3. Ethical Consideration

Ethical issues were highly considered during the collection and analysis of data in this study. The participants were informed that their privacy would not be violated in any cases. Also they were informed that the video would be viewed only by the researcher and some scholars for the purpose of studying how the interaction is taking place, and that their participation or non-participation would not be related to their academic evaluation. The research consent form is presented in Appendix A.

6. 4. Method

This study uses conversation analysis (CA) as the method of analysis. In conversation analysis, the main focus is given to the use of audio or video recordings of naturally occurring and non-experimental interaction. The video recorded data was repeatedly viewed and carefully transcribed using the transcription conventions established by Gail Jefferson (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984) (Appendix B). The video and the transcript were observed and the occurrences were analyzed using CA methodology. Occurrences of occasions of repair and repetition activity by the trainee teacher were found through repeated analysis. Since CA methodology rejects the observer's psychomental aspects in the analysis, this study uses the emic perspective, that is to say, it takes the view of the interactants' relation to their actions (Pike, 1954; Goodwin, 1984; Markee & Kasper, 2004). With the emic perspective in data analysis, CA calls on the interactant perspectives to understand the occurrences in the interaction. It does not have "a priori" theorization in the observation but makes an "un-motivated" examination with a piece of data and sees where the data leads the observers (Sacks, 1984). For this purpose readers are

provided with an expanded verbal transcription of the recordings. In conversation analysis, researchers look at the data and analyze from the point of view of the participants. In this paper too, understanding of the occurrences in the interaction is built from the participants' perspective.

7. DATA ANALYSIS

This section presents the collected data and conversation analytical analysis of the data. In what follows, analysis of relevant extracts from the transcripts of the microteaching lessons are. In the analysis, the repair-initiation activities are given importance in the preliminary section and the later section deals with discussion of the relevance of the repair work in the context of microteaching interaction.

7.1. Some Instances of Self-Initiated Self-Repair

This section focuses on some initiations of self-initiated self-repairs the trainee teacher has made in the collected data set. In this section I analyze some extracts taken from the microteaching interaction. Throughout the presented transcripts, the trainee teacher is presented as TT, the professor as PS, the other member of the trainee teachers' group as T1, the choral participation of the students as Ss, and the students' individual participation is presented as S1, S2, and so on.

The following extract is a part of the transcript from microteaching interaction where the teacher is displaying information from the content of the lesson. In this section, the trainee teacher is teaching the content through a story. This part shows some repair in which the trainee teacher attempted orienting to the problematic parts of her talk.

(1) [Small Boat]

07 TT: and took a small boat (.) alone. alone.

((indicates one with index finger))

- 08 TT: small boat alone (.) and he reach. ah::
 09 TT: he reached (.) h (.hh) e he reached
 10 TT: risiri island (.) in hokkaido (.) safely.

In this part, the trainee teacher is continuing her talk without any problems though she has repeated some utterances in line 7. In line 8, as she is continuing her talk she experiences a problem in her utterance. To resolve the trouble, she initiates a repair with a hitching mark ah:: in line 8 and repairs the problematic part of her talk he reach into he reached in line 9. The repair of reach with reached shows that she is orienting to language code in this strip of talk. Moreover, she laughs after the repair is done and repeats the same utterance. Hosoda (2000) notes laughter as one of the actions occurring together with repair. Laughing while repeating the repair shows her orientation to the problematic utterance she has produced in the previous turn though she is teaching here. Jefferson, Sacks, and Schegloff (1977) note that laughter can be referring to already produced talk or the talk due. Hence, the trainee teacher's laughter appears to be referring to the problematicity in her previous utterance.

Extract (2) below is a continuation from the previous extract in which the teacher is displaying information related to the content of the lesson through a story about a foreigner in the 18th century who was captured by the Japanese and sent to Nagasaki. In this part too, the teacher experiences a problematic part in the language code and initiates self-repair.

(2) [Nagasaki]

- 14 TT: he reached (.) risiri island alone (.)
 safely.
 15 safely means, he didn't any:: ah- he didn't
 have any trouble.
 16 he didn't have any trouble.

17 but he (.) was caught by (.) japanese soon,
 18 and sent to nagasaki. sent to nagasaki. (0.5)

In the continuation of her talk she produces a word *safely* in line 14. As soon as she produces the word, she starts defining it using different terms. When she starts defining *safely* in line 15 and produces *safely means, he didn't any::* she experiences a problem in her utterance. Her prolongation of *any::* shows some recognition of a problem. She initiates a self-repair with *ah-* and completes the repair work with *he didn't have any trouble* in line 15. In her repair she adds *have*, thus making it an insertion repair. In this utterance, her cut-off shows she is initiating repair in the previously uttered utterance. According to Schegloff (1979), cut-offs initiate repair in the previous utterance whereas prolongation and non-lexical perturbations show repair on the upcoming item. In the teacher's utterance at line 15, it includes both a prolongation of *any::* and a cut off. Here, with the prolongation of *any::* the teacher is looking for a word due, but before the utterance of the searched for word, she initiates repair with a cut off to solve the problematic utterance she has produced previously. Once the repair is done, she repeats the same utterance in line 16. By repeating her own utterance, she accepts her own repair in line 16. This repetition can also be seen as one of the many strategies teachers use to make their directions and instructions understandable to the learners (Richards & Lockhart, 1996) when viewed from pedagogical perspective.

In the next sequence the teacher self-initiates a repair though there is no clear problematic part in the talk. The following extract starts with a known-answer question (Koshik, 2002; Lee, 2007; Macbeth, 2004; Mehan, 1979; Levinson, 1992; Stokoe & Edwards, 2008) the teacher asks to a student. In this extract, the teacher is trying to elicit an answer to the question she asked from the students.

- (3) [Island]
 25 TT: what name of the small island do you know?
 26 miss (.) watanabe do you know?
 27 (1.8)
 28 in nagas- okay, i'll give you a hint (.)
 29 small island shaped ((draws on the board)) like
 this ((smiles))
 30 TT: hh [hhhhh
 31 S: [.hhhhh
 32 TT: in (.) small island d (hh) o yo (hh) u know
 33 S: ((laughs)) (0.8)
 34 ^oits^o unique shape
 35 anyone do you know?

In this extract, the teacher asks a known-answer question in line 25 and selects a speaker for the next turn in line 26. In selecting the next speaker, the teacher uses her authoritative right over turn allocation in the classroom. Here, the selected next speaker did not come up with the relevant second pair part for the preceding utterance and the talk resulted in a silence in line 27. The teacher takes this silence “as a failure of the next speaker to speak” (Liddicoat, 2007, p. 52). As the selected student did not respond with a relevant utterance, the teacher takes a turn in line 28 with the purpose of giving a hint to the student. The teacher’s repeated turn also shows one assumption of conversation analysis that conversation in interaction cannot go silent for any considerable length of time (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974). When she starts a hint with *in nagas-* in line 28, she uses a kind of overt form but suddenly cuts off there and changes it into an exposed form of giving a hint and says *okay, i’ll give you a hint* and starts to provide the hint by drawing a shape on the board. This shows the teacher is

repairing the action of giving a hint from only a verbal production to a more overt exposed form. The non-verbal action of drawing a shape is embedded within the verbal production between small island shaped and like this in line 29.

In the following part of the interaction, the teacher continues the information display section. She is focused on presenting the content of the lesson at this point in the lesson. Here too, the teacher initiates self-repair to work through one problematic aspect of her utterance.

(4) [Taught]
 60 PS: to learn=
 61 TT: =to learn engl (hh) ish (.hhh) he thought
 (.) ah::
 62 (2.0) ((looks at her notes))
 63 ah: he taught th (h) em. hhh he taught them
 english (.)
 64 in the cage, and his lessons were
 65 very hard. so: (.) a few japanese

In extract (4) above, the teacher is talking about the first English teacher in Japan. She is revealing the story of how some Japanese started learning English. As the teacher is proceeding with her talk, she experiences a problem in the continuous production of her utterance. After the production of thought in line 61, she displays some sort of trouble and initiates a repair with ah:: after a micropause. Though she initiates repair here, she could not produce the relevant word immediately and the interaction results into a 2-second silence. This silence in this interaction has important interactional significance. The teacher takes this time to look at her notes and to confirm the word selection. After the silence of line 62, she continues in line 63 with a hitching mark and produces he taught as a repair to her prior utterance. In her repair, she replaces thought with taught

and repeats it again with a short spurt of laughter. Her laughter here occurs in a similar context as in extract (1) line 9. She does the repair, laughs and repeats the utterance. This repetition could be observed as one of the strategies teachers use to make their directions and instructions understandable to the learners. Similar to extract (1) her laughter here also refers back to the mistake she did as a teacher and makes her orient to the role she is doing teaching here.

7.2. Some Instances of Other-Initiated Repair

While the preceding section dealt with self-initiated self-repairs, the following section of this research deals with some instances of other-initiated repairs found in the microteaching environment. In this part, I present some extracts where the trainee teacher is corrected by the supervisor using some repair techniques.

In the following extract, the teacher is introducing the content of her lesson. She displays the information that two countries had trade relations with Japan in the past though Japan had the concept of national isolation. After displaying the information, she moves to draw out the name of those countries from the students.

- (5) [MTA2 03: 43-6: 30]
 01 TT: ◦.hh◦ however (.) ◦.hhh◦ only two-
 02 only two (.) country had relation to japan
 03 only two country had relation to japan.
 04 which country are they.
 05 ◦.hhh◦ which country are they. two country.
 ((indicating two with fingers))
 07 (0.8)
 08 S1: Netherland. (TT turns to S1)
 09 (1.0)
 10 TT: ◦no◦ ((shakes her head))

11 Netherlandz
((looks at T1 and looks up with thinking
facial expression))
12 (1.0)
13 S1: Portugal
14 TT: ((laughing)) no, not Portugal. °Portuguese?°
15 (1.0)
16 TT: Ms. Watanabe, do you know?
17 (7.0) ((laughs))
18 S2: °japanese ok?°
19 T1: okay. ((nodding))
20 S2: Oranda?—
21 T1: [((nodding))]
22 TT: [yes, Oranda. (.) Dutch. (.) Dutch. (.) yes.
One country,
23 More one country.
24 (1.0)
25 it is near, >to< japan
26 (3.0)
27 S2: Chugoku?=
28 TT: =yes (hh), China, very good. china and
dutch (0.2)
29 had a relation to japan. (°ok°)
30 (0.8)
31 So, (0.2) Dutch is a country which [has-]
32 P S : [Dutch] is
not a
33 country, (.) Dutch is a language. (0.4)
34 Holland (.) or the Netherlands (0.2) is the
35 name of the country.
36 Ss: oh:::
37 (0.5)
38 TT: a:::::::::::: ok
39 (0.4)

- 40 PS: Holland
 41 TT: ok, [Holland Holland Holland Holland () ok
 sorry.
 42 T1: [Holland. (.)
 43 TT: () holland. a::: (.) Holland and China is
 a (.) country.

In this extract, the teacher starts by displaying information that Japan had international trade relations with two countries in the past. After presenting the information in line 3, she asks a known-answer question (Koshik, 2002; Lee, 2007; Macbeth, 2004; Mehan, 1979) in line 4 and repeats it in line 5 to induce an answer from the students. Her repetition here is accompanied by a gesture. Her gesture works as a means to scaffold student learning. In the classroom, teachers use gestures as a facilitating device for the students to better understand the interaction (Alibali & Nathan, 2007).

In known-answer questions, the teachers are aware of the answers to the questions they ask (Koshik, 2002; Lee, 2007; Macbeth, 2004; Mehan, 1979). In this extract, after the teacher asks a known-answer question to the class, S1 self-selects in line 8 and posits a candidate answer *Netherland*. After the student's response, the teacher is not able to supply feedback immediately and the interaction falls into a 1-second silence in line 9. After the pause, she deploys negative feedback in a quiet voice in line 10 and initiates repair by repeating the trouble source in line 11, saying *netherlandz*. After the repair initiation, she first turns to T1, a member of the group that designed the microteaching lesson as a team together with the trainee teacher, and then looks upwards with a thinking face. These features display her uncertainty of the answer for the known-answer question and her looking at T1 seems to be a request for assistance. This is an opportunity for T1 to other-repair the problematic part. However, T1 does not take a turn here and lets the trainee teacher manage

the interaction. Because of the appreciable silence without a response after his possible answer, S1 provides another candidate answer in line 13, saying *Portugal*. Unlike the previous answer, the teacher immediately provides feedback here saying *no, not portugal* and selects a next student to provide an answer. S2 asks for permission to use Japanese in line 18 and supplies a candidate answer *Oranda* in Japanese. The teacher accepts the answer by repeating it and changes it into the English version but uses the adjectival form rather than the noun form. Since there were two countries, she induces the name of the other country in the interaction from lines 23 - 28. After receiving both answers from the students, she then moves to the pedagogical objective of the lesson, which is teaching relative pronouns, and starts with *So, (0.2) Dutch is a country which has-* in line 31. At this point, the professor, who is also playing the role of a student in the microteaching environment, self-selects and takes a turn to initiate repair to correct the problematic part of the trainee teacher's utterance. The professor says [*Dutch*] is not a country, (.) *Dutch is a language. Holland (.) or the Netherlands is the name of the country.* and corrects the trainee teacher's utterance of line 31. After the professor corrects the trainee teacher, the students chorally produce a surprise token at line 36 and the teacher expresses her surprise as well at line 38. Her surprise here is also seen as a kind of change of state token. Heritage (1984) defines change of state as a change in the participant's situation undergoing. This surprise token at line 38 shows her realization of the improper utterance she has produced in the previous turn. Since she has not yet received the correction, the professor again provides the correct answer in line 40, then the trainee teacher accepts it through a repeat.

The professor's repair initiation in this context can be explained as a way to prevent "transfer of learning" (Ellis, 1965). According to Ellis (1965), in some instances, teachers happen to

60 PS: [to learn=
 61 TT: =to learn Engl (hh) ish (.hhh) he thought (.)
 62 ah: (2.0) ah: he taught th (h) em. hhh he taught
 them

The repair initiation by the professor in the above interaction provides a learning opportunity for the trainee teacher. The trainee teacher experiences some sort of problem in word selection to continue her talk at line 57. In the beginning of her utterance at line 57, the teacher seems to face a problem in finding a relevant word to complete the projected infinitive that results in a 1.2 second silence. After the time taken in word search, she uses the word *teach* but again appears hesitant about the word choice. Her uncertainty of the word selection is viewed when she turns her gaze to one of her group members, with whom she has worked in the designing of the microteaching lesson, thus showing a request for help. Moreover, the following silence of 2.3 seconds also shows her uncertainty of the application of *teach* in her utterance. Though she looks at her teaching partner after the problematic utterance, she does not receive any response. Therefore, she tries continuing her utterance using her previously used word *teach* though her production shows she is hesitant about the use here. And this is the place the professor takes a turn to initiate repair and produces more appropriate word by saying *learn*, *learn* at line 58. After the professor's repair initiation, the trainee teacher tries to reproduce the prior turn and starts again, but again experiences the same problem of which word to use. Subsequently, she displays signals for a next repair initiation by stretching her talk while saying *to* [::]. Her utterance here shows a probable repair in the upcoming part of her utterance (Schegloff, 1979). Then the professor again provides the relevant word in the infinitive format the trainee teacher has started and says *to learn*. After this, the trainee teacher immediately

accepts the repair and starts with *to learn engl (hh) ish in her following talk.*

Interestingly, in this part of the interaction, the professor does not orient to the error the trainee teacher made in the use of tense but initiates repair on word usage. Looking at the trainee teacher's utterance at line 56, grammatically, her utterance includes an error when she says *began to visited*, a grammatical error of tense, but the professor does not display any problem with this talk. Alternatively the trainee teacher's problematic part in the word selection is corrected by the professor through other-initiated repair.

7.3. Discussion

In this paper, I have presented some instances of repair activities in the preceding sections. The interaction presented in the previous sections in extracts (1) to (4) show some examples of self-initiated repair and extracts (5) and (6) present instances of other-initiated repair. Now, I briefly discuss some of the features of those repair activities. After an observation of the data set, it has become evident that self-initiated self-repairs occur dominantly in the interaction. Schegloff et al. (1977) explained the dominance of self-repairs over other-repairs in conversation. This phenomenon of the dominance of self-repair in conversation is also found in the setting of microteaching interaction. Moreover, in classroom interaction, the teacher has rights to take turns that also puts higher preference on the part of the teacher to initiate repair.

To consider the repair the trainee teachers initiate, in most of the cases, they show their orientation to language code (Aline & Hosoda, 2009). Looking back at extract (1), the trainee teacher initiates self-repair after experiencing a problem. In extract (1) she repairs her problematic utterance *he reach to a grammatically appropriate item he reached*, thus empirically demonstrating an orientation to language code. She produces

some laughter after the repair in extract (1). Her laughter here occurs together with repair, similar to its occurrence in mundane conversation, as noted by Hosoda (2000).

Similarly, observation of extract (2) also shows the trainee teacher's orientation to the problematic part of her utterance. This repair is similar to the repair in extract (1) in the sense that it is oriented to language code. But it is different in the sense that it includes an insertion of a word in the repair work, whereas the repair in extract (1) shows a type of self-correction of her utterance by changing the tense of the verb.

Basically, the repair activity presented in extract (1) and extract (4) are similar in many ways. Extract (4) also shows the trainee teacher's orientation to language code. Similar to extract (1) she repairs the grammatical aspect of a word, changing specifically a present tense verb to a past tense verb. Moreover, her repair follows a slight laughter in both extracts. According to Jefferson, Sacks, and Schegloff (1977), laughter refers either to the preceding part or the following part of an utterance (p. 12). Therefore, the trainee teacher's laughter here is likely to refer back to the problematic part of her preceding utterance, showing the initiation of laughter along with repair (Hosoda, 2000).

In the data set presented in this chapter, the repair activity presented in extract (3) has a distinct feature. The trainee teacher initiates repair in line 28 after saying *nagas-*. Here, although the problematic part is not clear enough, the repair initiation displays an attempt to assist the next speaker to produce a relevant utterance. As soon as the trainee teacher produced *nagas-* she cuts off there and initiates repair to change the nature of her hint to the students. So, in extract (3), the trainee teacher's repair initiation is not related to her language code like in extracts (1), (2), and (4), but she is oriented to scaffolding student's learning here by providing a hint and making the question more understandable to the students.

Extract (5) presents an example of other-initiated repair from the data set. This repair shows the opportunities trainee teachers obtain to learn from their professors in microteaching interaction. Moreover, the professor's repair initiation to correct the inappropriate lexical item the trainee teacher has chosen shows a prevention of "transfer of learning" (Ellis, 1965, p. 72). The professor's utterance prevents the trainee teacher from passing the wrong information to her students, otherwise she might have done so. In extract (5), the professor does not choose to repair the trainee teacher's problematic part immediately. By not taking a turn to repair the trainee teacher's problematic part, the professor is giving her more time to work through the problem in the practice setting. His later initiation of repair also shows that he is showing an orientation to the "let it pass principle" (Firth, 1996, p. 243) at that point. According to Firth (1996) participants in interaction sometimes give more importance to the continuity of the interaction and choose not to initiate repair. But later, as she continues to experience the same problem, the professor takes a turn to initiate repair and corrects the problematic part of the trainee teacher's utterance.

The trainee teacher's failure in finding a relevant word in extract (6) also leads the professor to other-initiate repair. In extract (6) the trainee teacher takes time to look for a word during the 1.2-second silence at line 57 and comes up with the word *teach*. Though she uses the word at this point, she appears hesitant about the use that follows, as shown by an appreciable silence of 2.3-seconds and a non-lexical item. After the silence she turns to her group members to seek assistance but she is not able to receive any. So, the professor provides a more appropriate word for the context. The trainee teacher again experiences a problem when she tries to use the word, and the professor repeats it in the same format the trainee teacher has begun and completes the correction, which the trainee teacher accepts in her next turn. In this extract too, the professor does not choose to

correct the grammatically incorrect utterance of line 56 but chooses to help regarding a word selection. By not taking a turn to initiate repair in the problematic utterance of the trainee teacher, the professor is more concerned with the continuation of the sequence and pedagogical value of its completion rather than interrupting the model lesson to correct every instance of trouble in the language code experienced by the trainees.

8. CONCLUSION

After observing both of the repair initiation techniques, that is, self and other, it is found that the trainee teachers orient to the problem of their utterance regarding content and language code. In most of the cases, they both self-initiate and self-repair the problem of their utterances. On the other hand, the professor emphasizes the continuation of the whole interaction and chooses to initiate repair focusing on the problematic experience of the trainees' utterances related to the content they are practicing. Moreover, in the case of other-initiated repairs, they are initiated by the professors but not by fellow students. This shows that other-initiation of repair is not a regular phenomenon in the classroom interaction because in a setting of student-teacher classroom interaction, students do not usually other-initiate repair.

Finally, it can be said that the dominant instances of self-initiated repair activities show the opportunities the trainee teachers have to process and improve the way they deliver a lesson. Furthermore, the trainee teachers obtain an opportunity to process their employment of linguistic knowledge and to polish the performance in the conduct of a lesson because, after each problematic experience in the utterance, they come up with an utterance that is more finely produced than in their previous attempts. Moreover, from the other-initiated repairs, they receive learning opportunities from their professors, with the added possibility that they are able to perform better in their next

attempt or in the practice teaching.

Among all the extracts discussed in this study, there is a dominance of self-initiated self-repair done by the trainee teacher. This shows one feature of teacher-fronted classroom interaction where the teachers always hold the ground to initiate a sequence as a first speaker. Also, another feature highlighted by the dominance of self-initiated self-repair is that in a classroom setting students do not other-initiate repair to solve the problem of their teachers' utterances. This instance is similar to the finding of Aline and Hosoda (2009) that in a classroom setting students do not other-initiate repair to peers. In this data too, the participating students, though they are peers of the trainee teachers, do not choose to other-initiate repair for their teacher, the trainee teacher. Rather, the professor other-initiates repair for the trainee teachers in some instances.

Apart from the possible learning opportunities provided through various repair trajectories, the trainee teachers in a microteaching environment obtain different chances for "comprehensible output" as stated by the output hypothesis (Swain, 1985). The "output hypothesis" claims that input only is not adequate to build a level of grammatical competence in learners. Learners need to produce their knowledge in certain forms where they can notice the gap between their acquired input and their performance. As learners are aware of the gap between their knowledge and performance, they become more conscious of the gap and can obtain opportunities to revise their output so that they can learn more about the language. In the data set studied in this study, the participants of the microteaching environment acquired two situations to experience. First, an opportunity to practice language use as a second language learner, and, second, an opportunity to practice language use as a teacher. Through the practice of deploying instructional language, they can notice the gap between the language they used and the language they are supposed to use as

a teacher. This visibility of the gap assists the trainees to modify their output, and consequently, to attain various learning opportunities so that they can learn and develop as they grow into their profession as a teacher.

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Appendix A Research Consent Form

研究承諾書

本調査は、映像及び音声資料を収集し、相互行為における言語使用を考察するためのものです。研究課題は資料分析から生ずるもので、あらかじめ設定されたものではありません。また本調査は、被験者の教授法を批判したり言語の誤りを考察するものではなく、社会的相互行為の達成に注目するものです。

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APPENDIX B

Transcription Conventions

Convention	Meaning	Use
[text]	square brackets	start and end of overlap
=	equal sign	continuation of single utterance
(0.5)	timed pause	indicates pause in seconds
(.)	period in parenthesis	shows a micro pause (less than 1 second)
(hh)		audible laughter within a talk
hhh		audible exhalation
.hhh		audible inhalation
<u>okay</u>	underline	stress
okay?	question mark	rising intonation
okay,	comma	low-rising intonation
okay.	period	falling intonation
OKAY	capitalized text	increased loudness
○okay○	degree symbol	decreased volume
>okay<	greater than symbols	faster than the surrounding speech
<okay>	less than symbols	slower than the surrounding speech
oka:y	colon (s)	lengthening of the preceding sound (the more colons show the more lengthening)
oka-	hyphen	cut-off of the ongoing talk
((comment))		non-verbal behavior / transcriber's comment
(okay)		uncertain transcription