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Hokkai-Gakuen Organization of Knowledge Ubiquitous through Gaining Archives.

A Pre-service Teacher's Retrospective Verbalization of an EFL Practicum Lesson

Suzanne Yonesaka

Abstract

This study investigates the unvoiced "theories" of language teaching that underlie the classroom actions of a pre-service Japanese teacher of English. The informant viewed a videotape of himself teaching a practicum lesson and simultaneously reported on thoughts he had had while teaching. Semantic analysis found that two-thirds of the thoughts concerned pedagogical thoughts and events specific to that lesson, and one-third concerned the informant's perceptions and beliefs. Subsequent analysis found that some classroom actions were congruent with stated beliefs, but others were not. The informant was strongly influenced by his own past experiences as a learner and attended to affective aspects of language teaching more than linguistic aspects. The informant was negatively affected by excessive constraints on lesson content and teaching method. The study suggests that an ongoing, retrospective analysis of small segments of classroom teaching may help pre-service teachers recognize their "theories" of teaching.

Keywords: *English; pre-service teachers; practicum*

Japanese university students who wish to become teachers of English at the secondary level must successfully complete 1) prescribed undergraduate courses in general education, English, and pedagogy; 2)

a two-week* teaching practicum during the senior year; and 3) a series of written and oral examinations administered by prefectural or local Boards of Education. This paper focuses on the second element, the teaching practicum, and the student-teacher's construct of teaching that is revealed during this brief period.

Although the practicum is normally the first teaching experience for pre-service Japanese teachers of English (PJTEs), they are not *tabula rasa*. PJTEs begin their practicum with years of experience as learners of English. They have intuitive knowledge of the culture of the Japanese classroom. They have what is termed "received knowledge"— abstract pedagogical knowledge imparted in university pedagogy courses.

This accumulated knowledge about teaching and learning is called a construct of teaching, and it is upon this construct that observable classroom behavior is based. "For a fuller and more complete understanding of the teaching process...studies of overt classroom behavior need to be complimented with studies of the pedagogical knowledge of teachers." (Gatbonton, 1999, p.35) Thus, trainers who wish to guide PJTEs' overt classroom behavior must also understand the constructs of teaching that underlie their behavior.

As VanPatten (1997) explains in his introduction to the *Modern Language Journal's* special issue on how language teaching is constructed, we can investigate how language teaching is constructed at both micro- and macro-levels.

There is a fair amount of macro-level research on pre-service teachers in Japan. Teacher educators have conducted surveys investigating the effect of the teaching practicum on the attitudes, self-

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*four weeks for students at universities of education

images, and beliefs of pre-service teachers in general (Kohno & Kanbe, 1991; Yamamoto, 1994; Ito, 1997; Uchida, 1999) and of PJTEs in particular (Shiroyama, 1997; Takaki, 1997; Kobayashi, 1998).

Taking another tack, micro-level research examines "individual cases of how language teachers construct class time, how their philosophies of teaching develop, and how instructional decisions are made." (Van Patten, 1997, p.2) Micro-level research aims at building up composite pictures of pre-service, novice, and expert language teachers' beliefs and actions. So far, unfortunately, I have been unable to locate any such micro-level research concerning PJTEs.

This micro-level study investigates the construct of teaching of PJTEs through the detailed analysis of a videotaped lesson taught by a single PJTE. Videotaped lessons are commonly examined for patterns of teacher behavior or classroom events through the use of checklists or frequency counts. However, in this case, I felt that the closed format of a checklist would lead the PJTE away from self-discovery and towards a limited and prescriptive view of teaching. Rather than analyzing the PJTE's classroom actions, I wished to explore the beliefs, assumptions, expectations, and intentions which impelled those actions.

For that reason, this analysis uses retrospective verbalization. This is a technique in which the informants are asked to tell researchers what they had thought and done while performing a particular task that has already been completed. The present analysis derives strongly from Gatbonton's (1999) study of the pedagogical knowledge of experienced ESL teachers.

Gatbonton (1999) investigated whether it is possible to access the knowledge about teaching and learning that experienced teachers utilize while they teach. She specifically asked whether certain thoughts dominate and whether there is consistency among teachers in

the patterns of thoughts they reported. Seven experienced ESL teachers simultaneously watched videotaped segments of themselves teaching and reported on thoughts they claimed were in their minds as they taught those segments. After qualitative and quantitative analysis, Gatbonton categorized the data into twenty pedagogical categories. Although the frequencies varied with each teacher, the dominant categories of thoughts were: Language Management, Procedure Check, Progress Review, Beliefs, Knowledge of Students, Decisions, Affective, and Note Behavior. For every teacher, the top-ranked category of thought was Language Management — thoughts concerned with managing both the language the students hear and the language they produce.

To reiterate, the first goal of this paper is to begin a composite picture of the construct of teaching of PJTEs by exploring the thoughts, beliefs and actions of a single PJTE during a practicum lesson. By replicating Gatbonton's study as far as possible, it may also be possible to discover whether the PJTE's pattern of pedagogical thought is similar to that of experienced ESL teachers.

A secondary goal of this paper is to explore the feasibility of systematically videotaping PJTEs during their practicums for the purpose of eliciting feedback. In a survey of the practicum in US graduate TESOL programs, Richards and Crookes (1988) found that most feedback on student performance during practice teaching occurs during conferences with the practicum supervisor or cooperating classroom teacher, and that the second most frequent type of feedback involves the observation of videotapes of the trainee's practice lesson. It is worth exploring whether it is practical and meaningful to videotape PJTEs' display lessons for feedback.

At the end of the practicum, PJTEs perform a display lesson which

is followed by an oral feedback session with the cooperating classroom teacher, the principal, and other educators who observed the lesson. Unfortunately, because this occurs near or at the end of the practicum, PJTEs cannot evaluate and implement this feedback in a classroom setting. Eventually, as the specific context in which the feedback was given fades from the trainee's memory, the feedback loses its potency and meaningfulness.

The videotaping and subsequent ongoing analysis of the demonstration lesson may provide an opportunity for meaningful and timely feedback. This feedback would be meaningful in that it is self-generated through observation and reflection, and it would be timely in that the process could continue after the practicum is completed, in a sort of "virtual" practicum. Thus, the secondary goal of this paper is to pilot the process of videotaping of a PJTE's display lesson, eliciting a retrospective verbalization, and analyzing this self-generated feedback.

SUBJECT

The informant, a 26-year old Japanese male, was a fourth-year student in an evening university program. He was an English major who was enrolled in courses leading toward an English teacher's license. The informant had more, and more varied, experience in teaching and learning languages than most student-teachers. He had completed a 420-hour course in teaching JSL (Japanese as a Second Language), during which he had taught three practicum JSL lessons. He had also studied Spanish for seven months in Spain, an experience which he claims (personal communication, 4/24/2000) greatly influenced his teaching. I believe that these experiences gave him much more

self-assurance than the typical student-teacher, strongly influencing his practicum outcomes and his retrospective verbalization.

The informant's 2-week teaching practicum occurred in September, 1999, at a public junior high school in an upper-middle class area of Sapporo. There were approximately 40 first-year students in the class. The 45-minute lesson taught by the informant on the day that he was videotaped introduced does/doesn't using lesson seven in an approved textbook, *One World (1).*

DATA COLLECTION

The class was filmed after receiving permission from the school principal and the cooperating classroom teacher. A digital camera was set up on a tripod at the back of the classroom about five minutes before the class began. At that time, the informant explained to the students that the purpose of the filming was to help him learn to be a better teacher.

In October, one month after the demonstration class, the informant watched the video (using earphones) while the researcher audiotaped his retrospective verbalization, which was in Japanese. There was no training prior to beginning the retrospective verbalization; the informant was only told to try to talk about what he remembered thinking.

The videotape of the class was transcribed and simultaneously translated into English. Utterances that were originally in English were underlined. Utterances that needed to remain in Japanese for clarity (e.g. L2 —> L1 translations) were transcribed into roman letters and italicized. Actions were bracketed. After reviewing the transcription several times, the few remaining unintelligible sections were checked by a Japanese native speaker. This video transcription

totaled over 3,700 words.

The audiotape of the retrospective verbalization was transcribed and simultaneously translated into English. Utterances that were originally in English were underlined. After checking the transcription, the few remaining unintelligible sections were checked by a Japanese native speaker. This audio transcription totaled over 4,000 words.

The two transcripts were matched up in the following manner. The retrospective verbalization was searched for utterances describing specific events in the videotape. Examples are: "Right now, all of the students are reading [aloud]" and "I'm explaining that <u>often</u> is *shiba-shiba.*". There were 24 utterances that clearly referred to specific parts of the lesson, thus establishing an anchoring framework around which the remainder of the verbalization was filled in.

DATA ANALYSIS

The audiotaped retrospective verbalization was semantically analyzed in the following non-linear process which is described in detail below: 1) segmentation of thought units, 2) broad categorization into type of reporting, 3) detailed analysis within each type of reporting.

<u>Data analysis (Phase 1): Segmentation of thought units</u>

Following the example of Gatbonton (1999) the audiotape of the retrospective verbalization was tentatively segmented into thought units (TUs) and was numbered. The videotape transcript was used to help establish the context and meaning of each utterance. The length of the TUs varied from just a few words to about 50 words. An example follows:

> (63) The example sentence is, "Does Lisa like sushi?" or tempura and so on, about this sentence, using does in a question, (64a) and as always with this class, [laughs] there is no reaction....(64b) pretty much, I've taught this group quite a few times, so this is about as much reaction as I can expect. (65) During this class, I wasn't surprised [at the lack of reaction], I don't think. (66) But the first time I taught in the practicum, well, I was really surprised [at the lack of reaction] when I called the class to order. Because I was stranger.

The rationale for this initial segmenting is: (63) concerns language content; (64a) & (64b) were originally segmented as a single thought group concerning student reaction; (65) concerns the informant's feelings; (66) concerns past experiences.

Much later during the data analysis phase, (64) was divided into two TUs: (64a) concerning characteristics of this particular group of students and (64b) concerning the informant's expectations. This demonstrates how the segmentation process continued throughout the data analysis, sometimes by the further division of TUs and sometimes by the recombination of TUs.

Data analysis (Phase 2): Broad categorization into type of reporting

In an overview of retrospective verbalization in learning strategy research, Matsumoto (1994) indicates three types of reporting that occur during retrospective verbalization:

- Type 1: What informants had thought and done during a particular event.
- Type 2: What informants would do and think in a hypothetical situation.
- Type 3: Informants' perceptions, views, beliefs, and attitudes based on past experience and knowledge (not directly related to a specific

event).

Because we are working with classroom events and not learning strategy, we need to add another criteria to Matsumoto's first type of reporting:

- What informants now understand of a particular past event.

These types of reporting that occur during retrospective verbalization can be conceptualized as in Table 1, below.

Table 1 Types of reporting occurring during retrospective verbalization

	Awareness during event	Awareness after event
Reporting directly related to a specific event	Type 1 (a) On-going reporting of thoughts and events	Type 1 (b) Post-active reporting of thoughts and events
Reporting related to general experience and knowledge	Type 2 Hypothetical situation	Type 3 Perceptions and beliefs

Below are the criteria for and examples of each type of reporting:

- Type 1 THOUGHTS AND EVENTS: The informant reports on thoughts and events specific to the videotaped lesson.

These reports may contain clues indicating that the thoughts had occurred during the lesson: "So I mentioned quickly where often goes, but I didn't want to spend a lot of time on it. That's what I thought during the lesson. So that's why I just glossed over it." These reports may also contain clues indicating that the thoughts occurred while the teacher was viewing the videotape: "Thinking about it now, Does he like sushi? and suchlike — all of the students were able to read it aloud together but when I called on individual students — were they shy or what, I don't know — [they read] in voices I could barely hear." Finally, these reports may describe behavior or events that reflect underlying pedagogical knowledge: "As I walk, I am explaining, let's do the practice problems."

- Type 2 HYPOTHETICAL SITUATION: The informant reports on

what he would think or do in a hypothetical situation.

This type of reporting is related to the informant's general experience and knowledge of how the situation could or should be, as evidenced by expressions such as "if it were me"; "I would"; and "in fact I really wanted to". For example: "And at this time [during gesture time], I really wanted to let students go up at random — anyone is OK." This hypothetical situation (of letting students go up at random) is in the informant's awareness during the actual teaching event.

- Type 3 PERCEPTIONS AND BELIEFS: The informant reports on perceptions, views, beliefs, and attitudes that are based on past experience and knowledge (not directly related to a specific classroom event).

In this type of report, the informant becomes aware of his perceptions, views, beliefs, and attitudes though viewing the videotape; however, these beliefs are related to general experience and knowledge rather than to a specific classroom event. For example: "Obviously, without many years of teaching experience, its difficult to factor in things like this and still make any progress in the class."

Once these three types of reporting were clarified in the researcher's mind, the data that had been segmented into thought units (TUs) was categorized. Below are the results of the semantic segmentation of TUs and their broad categorization into type of reporting.

Table 2 Thought units by type of reporting (frequency and percentage)

	Thought units	
Type of reporting	Frequency	% of total
Type 1 : Pedagogical thoughts and events	149	66.2
Type 2 : Hypothetical situation	10	4.4
Type 3 : Perceptions and beliefs	58	25.8
Irrelevant or unclear	8	3.6
Total	225	100

Data analysis (Phase 3): Detailed analysis within each reporting type

During the final phase in the data analysis, the TUs within each reporting type were analyzed semantically and were categorized.

The analysis of Type 1 THOUGHTS AND EVENTS was based on Gatbonton's (1999) qualitative analysis of verbal protocols obtained from seven experienced ESL teachers who watched videotaped segments of themselves teaching and reported on thoughts they had as they taught those segments. These teachers uniformly reported 20 categories of pedagogical thought which were used as a framework for this paper. The analysis of Type 2 HYPOTHETICAL SITUATION and Type 3 PERCEPTIONS AND BELIEFS proceeded without a framework; semantic categories were constructed that included all or most of the TUs in each type.

As noted at the beginning of this section, data analysis was not linear. (See Fig. 1) For example, as concepts were gradually refined during the detailed analysis, some TUs which had originally been categorized as Type 1 THOUGHTS AND EVENTS were recognized as Type 3 PERCEPTIONS AND BELIEFS. In particular, TUs within Type 1 THOUGHTS AND EVENTS were labeled and relabeled again and again until clear boundaries among the categories emerged. The division and recombination of thought groups also continued through-

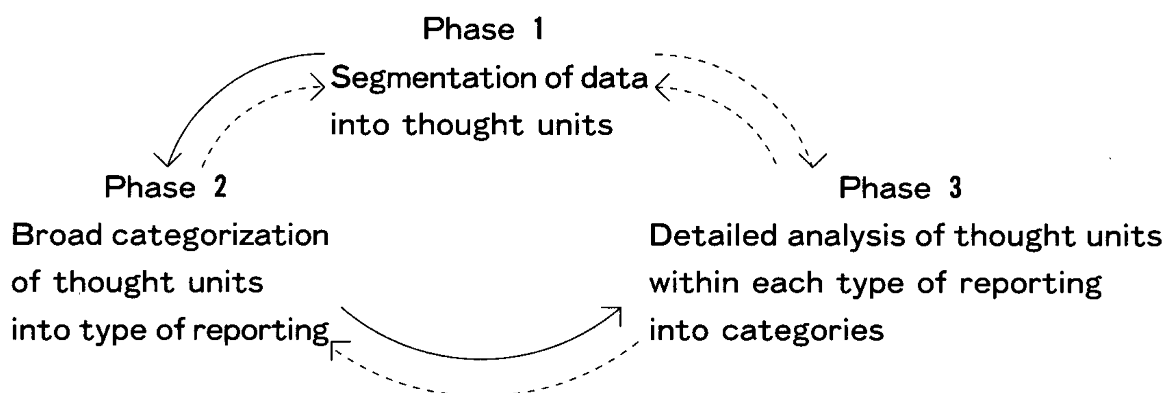

Figure 1 Interaction of the three phases of data analysis

out the process. This ongoing, organic process continued until a certain level of coherence in the data was achieved.

In the next part of this paper, the three types of reporting are examined one by one, with the results and discussion given separately for each type. This is followed by a general analysis of the results and the conclusion of the paper.

TYPE 1 THOUGHTS AND EVENTS: RESULTS

As noted earlier, the present study uses Gatbonton's categories as a framework for analysis of pedagogical thoughts and events. (See Table 3) The definitions for the asterisked categories are gleaned from Gatbonton's article and the remaining definitions are reconstructed from her data; thus, these categories will not precisely reflect Gatbonton's working definitions. Nevertheless, it was decided that it would be more beneficial to follow an established protocol than to construct new categories.

After semantic analysis, the 149 TUs referring to pedagogical thoughts and events were were placed into the above categories. (See Table 4) Three categories of pedagogical thoughts account for nearly half of the total: Content, Note Student Behavior, and Decisions. The addition of Knowledge of Students, Problem Check, and Language Management accounts for over three-quarters of the total pedagogical thoughts.

Next, TUs were analyzed semantically within each category. The results within the first eight categories (accounting for 90% of the pedagogical TUs) appear following Table 4.

Table 3
Categories used in detailed semantic analysis of Type 1 THOUGHTS AND EVENTS

Affective: T's reported feelings toward Ss & lesson; T's reported efforts to create positive interpersonal relationships.*

Comprehensibility: Anticipating and minimizing difficulties.

Content: Determining and describing contents of teaching (e.g. presentation; activities; goals).*

Decisions: T's reports on choices made while teaching and the implied or stated reason for choice.*

Group Work: Managing pair/group work.

Knowledge of Students: Descriptions of Ss personality, ability, needs.*

Language Management: Dealing with Ss' language input (e.g. highlighting or illustrating specific items) or output (e.g. eliciting, correcting, writing on board).*

Level Check: Matching teaching to Ss levels

Note Student Behavior & Reactions: Noting how Ss reacted & behaved.*

Planned Acts: Comments whether a particular activity was planned or not planned.* (These did not occur in this analysis.)

Problem Check: Noting Ss difficulties and failures.

Probe Students' Prior Knowledge: Checking Ss' prior knowledge.

Procedure Check: Checking whether Ss understood instructions (These did not occur in this analysis.)

Progress Review: Ensuring that Ss are on task.

Time Check: Managing time.

(Note: In the present study, some of Gatbonton's categories — Beliefs, Past Experiences, Post-Active, Self-Critique, and Self-Reflection — are subsumed under Type 3 PERCEPTIONS AND BELIEFS. The present study also includes two categories — Post-Active and Prompted — that Gatbonton excluded from her data.)

Table 4
Categories within THOUGHTS AND EVENTS: TUs by frequency and percentage

	Frequency	% of total	Cum. %
Content	30	20.1	20.1
Note Student Behavior	25	16.8	36.9
Decisions	19	12.8	49.7
Knowledge of Students	18	12.1	61.8
Problem Check	12	8.1	69.9
Language Management	11	7.4	77.3
Affective	10	6.7	84.0
Time Check	10	6.7	90.7
Comprehensibility	6	4.0	94.7
Progress Review	3	2.0	96.7
Groupwork	2	1.3	98.0
Level Check	2	1.3	99.3
Probe Ss Prior Knowledge	1	0.7	100.0
Total	149	100	100

Content

Table 5
THOUGHTS AND EVENTS: TUs in the category of Content

	Frequency
Objective description of content	17
Subjective reporting of predetermined content	9
Subjective reporting of content determined by informant	4
Total	30

In 17 thought-units, the informant objectively describes the content of the lesson. For example: "Number one and number two are also just review," and "Here, I will start to explain the vocabulary..." In nine TUs, the informant subjectively explains content which has been pre-determined by the textbook: "To start with, today's lesson is just this doesn't. Using does / doesn't and there's just some other things that have been stuck around them to make a reading." Four of the thought-units concern content over which the informant had some control: "So now what I'm saying is that they should look at the pictures and imagine, use their imagination while they're saying I like beef. This is what I'm explaining."

Note Student Behavior

Table 6 THOUGHTS AND EVENTS: TUs in the category of Note Student Behavior

	Positive behavior	Negative behavior	Total
Group behavior	4	12	16
Individual behavior	2	7	9
Total	6	19	25

In four TUs, the informant notes positive group behavior: that students read aloud together well, that they respond to each other, that they are on task, and that they are full of energy — after class: "The [other] students are responding [to their gestures] well". Two TUs note positive individual behavior: "But depending on the student, each student had their own way of doing it. Some of the students were just using black, and some were writing with black and red and blue like girls." Twelve TUs are concerned with negative group behavior. This class is not noisy or uncooperative, but unresponsive: "and as always with this class, [informant laughs] there is no reaction..." The informant also notes that group response is inadequate: that Ss are distracted or lack energy, or that their voices are too small. Seven TUs are concerned with individual negative behavior: three non-participating individuals, and four who participate only reluctantly: "And even these two are hemming and hawing and dragging their feet."

Decisions

Table 7 THOUGHTS AND EVENTS: TUs in the category of Decisions

	Frequency
Class flow/timing	7
Non-decisions	5
Content decisions	4
Setting up activities for success	3
Total	19

Seven of the TUs involved decisions regarding class flow or the timing of activities: "but...since I don't hear anything [from the students], I guess they've pretty well completed it." Four TUs involved content (teaching a grammar point that often appears on tests; emphasizing public speaking skills). Interestingly, five of the TUs explained what can only be termed non-decisions: "and, obviously, I have to at least start out by imitating the master teacher's way of teaching, that's what I did." Three of the TUs involved setting up activities to maximize student success: "And at the end we always have applause. That was a conscious decision..."

Knowledge of Students

These pedagogical thoughts concern the informant's knowledge of the particular students in this class (cf. General Knowledge of Students in Type #3 PERCEPTIONS AND BELIEFS).

Table 8 THOUGHTS AND EVENTS: TUs in the category of Knowledge of Students

	Positive	Negative	Total
Personality	2	7	9
Performance/ability	2	7	9
Total	4	14	18

Fourteen of the TUs negatively assess student personality or performance. Of these, seven are concerned with how this class has never shown much reaction and is extremely shy in new situations: "But this class isn't very, yeah, its on the quiet side. Its very quiet." Seven TUs concern the low performance level (in English and in general) of individual students and of the group as a whole. There are assessments of specific points: "They haven't really assimilated yet which be

verb I, you, he, she take." There are also assessments of general performance: "There was one kid in the class who couldn't do anything at all. Even if I spoke to him in Japanese, he wouldn't say yes or no — there is just no response."

Four of the TUs positively assess students' personalities or abilities. Two TUs refer to students who are "lively" and two refer to ability: "students who go to so-called *juku* can do it. They are completely done and they go on to other parts. There are five or six kids like that."

Problem Check

This category includes TUs in which the informant notes students' difficulties and failures in particular classroom situations. For example, "This guy isn't making any progress at all, probably hasn't written a thing." was considered a problem check because it refers to a student's difficulty in one particular task. (cf. "He can't write at all." in the category Knowledge of Students.)

Table 9 THOUGHTS AND EVENTS: TUs in the category of Problem Check

	Frequency
Written tasks	5
General difficulties	4
Speaking tasks	3
Total	12

Five of the informant's TUs concerned students' difficulties concerning written tasks: "They don't make any progress with the writing." Three of the TUs concerned students' difficulties concerning speaking tasks: "They can't do it very well. I've said "Does he like sushi?" so many times, but [they're] not saying it very smoothly".

Four TUs concerned general difficulty or students' confusion: "Probably the students are totally confused by now. Does, and Does she and Do and... [laughs]."

Language Management

Table 10 THOUGHTS AND EVENTS: TUs in the category of Language Management

	Frequency
Grammar: Describe focus of lesson	4
Grammar: Have students notice patterns	2
Grammar: Explanation	1
Vocabulary	4
Total	11

Seven of the TUs concern grammar. Four TUs explain what the grammatical focus of the lesson is: "The example sentence is Does Lisa like sushi? or tempura and so on, about this sentence, using does in a question." One TU is a grammatical explanation: "So I am just saying 'anything except I or you', the various third person singulars." Two TUs have the students notice grammatical patterns: "I had them go back to the previous page and compare I don't like classical music because it is the same pattern." Four of the TUs concern vocabulary. In three of them, the informant is explaining vocabulary: "Here I'm explaining where the often in We often make occurs. In most cases, its we often." One TU has the students notice vocabulary: "And they take out their pens and I'm having them underline the key words in the lesson."

Affective

Table 11 THOUGHTS AND EVENTS:
TUs in the category of Affective

	Frequency
Frustration	4
Used to this class	4
Enthusiasm	2
Total	10

Four of the TUs indicate the informant's frustration or regret. He is concerned that the size of the class affects his ability to care for individual students and that certain activities are too difficult or not meaningful: "But it [reviewing the main idea at the end] is probably meaningless. Truly." He twice mentions his frustration at the students' lack of response: "[I wanted] more reaction." At the same time, there are four TUs indicating that the informant is also becoming used to the preset pattern of the class and to the students' lack of reaction: "During this class, I wasn't surprised [at the lack of reaction], I don't think." In two of the affective TUs, the informant displays his enthusiasm and concentration, even to the point of not noticing a thunderstorm: "I saw it [the storm] a bit, but it didn't bother me. My head was just full of what was going on in class."

Time Check

Ten TUs pertain to time. Some of these involve the informant checking the time (evidenced in the video where he glances at his watch): "At that time I must have been thinking, 'Why can't they get it done in three minutes?'" Others reveal time management: "but I didn't want to spend a lot of time on it. That's what I thought during the lesson. So that's why I just glossed over it." Most of these time-related TUs occur in the second half of the lesson as time starts to run short.

TYPE 1 THOUGHTS AND EVENTS: DISCUSSION

Content

Most of the content TUs were objective explanations which add little to our understanding of the informant's state of mind: "And now, this is copying-into-notebooks time." Because only the informant had access to earphones while watching the video, he may have felt it necessary to explain to the researcher what was occurring on the video screen. In future research, better conditions for viewing the videotapes could reduce this type of content TU.

Some TUs suggest that the informant does not feel responsible for much of the lesson content: "If I think about it now, if you want to put it in extreme terms, beef and we and often, they're just added on." Furthermore, in other TUs (prompted by a question from the researcher), the informant suggests that the lesson's objectives are unclear: "You end up not knowing what the most important thing in this lesson is."

In contrast, a clear sense of purpose is demonstrated in TUs concerning the few parts of the lesson in which content had been determined by the informant: "I thought that if I ended the lesson with gestures, the overall impression would be that the entire lesson had consisted of gestures. So I wanted to remind them of the main [grammatical] point".

For this PJTE, being able to control the lesson content is central to how he perceives himself as a teacher. Unfortunately, he will need to accept that class content is more or less pre-determined through Ministry of Education-approved textbooks, and he will need to discover — or create — meaningful objectives within that prescribed content.

Note Student Behavior

Before the observation, the cooperating classroom teacher had warned that this was a particularly shy group. This was corroborated by the researcher, who was invited to share the school-provided lunch with the students after the class. Even in a relaxed atmosphere, the students interacted as little as possible with the (Japanese-speaking) researcher.

The informant's attention is strongly focused on the absence of group energy (*genki ga nai*), which can be considered negative group behavior in the Japanese junior high school context. The single behavior that is noted most frequently overall (8 times) by the informant is a total or near-total lack of group response: "Ah — no reaction at all from the students."

Johnson (1992) finds that there are "patterns of instructional actions and decisions that may be unique to second language teaching". (p.528) The most salient pattern involves how teachers interpret and respond to deficient student response, which is "a behavior or response not made after being elicited by the teacher" (p.535); in other words, a non-response, or silence. Pre-service teachers in non-ESL elementary contexts tend to interpret deficient student responses as indicating lack of attention or effort; the teachers' likely response is to try to focus student attention. On the other hand, the pre-service adult ESL teachers in Johnson's study interpreted deficient student responses as indicating a lack of understanding; their likely response was to check student understanding and to provide further explanation. This is an important distinction because pre-service ESL teachers are "forced to interpret and respond to silence frequently during second language instruction." (Johnson, 1992, p.529)

In this study, the informant sometimes interpreted deficient

response as indicating non-understanding and sometimes as indicating understanding. Although he would obviously prefer responses, he does seem to accept non-response as culturally appropriate behavior.

Native-speaker teachers with unresponsive students often assume that a lack of response occurs simply because they are native speakers. However, we see here evidence that non-response is a problem for this PJTE, undermining the entire lesson because he cannot determine the extent of student understanding: "But here I don't really remember everyone having such a good reaction and saying particularly, 'Oh I get it! That's why it is I don't or I doesn't.'" The implication is that PJTE's must be taught ways of checking student understanding, even with extremely non-responsive groups.

Decisions

The majority of the informant's decisions involved the ending of activities to keep the class flowing: "Well, time was running out, so I thought that was about it..." For the same reason, the informant also gives less able students the option of giving up: "He says, 'Give up, yes', so I skipped him and went on ahead." He explains: "If I took five minutes just with that one kid, the class wouldn't make any progress. So, that's why I went on."

This is corroborated by Johnson (1992), who examined the instructional actions and decisions of six pre-service ESL teachers who viewed videotapes of their own teaching and provided recall comments that detailed their instructional decisions while teaching. The results supported the findings of educational literature (concerning teachers in general, not teachers of ESL) that pre-service teachers are primarily concerned with maintaining the instructional flow.

Knowledge of Students

The informant's assessment of the students' personalities and abilities is overwhelmingly negative. This is to be expected, because, as seen in Note Student Behavior, the informant's attention is strongly focused on the absence of group energy. It is worth noting here that, in the videotape of the lesson, the informant did not display any frustration or anger, but remained encouraging and upbeat. It was only after the practicum, during the verbal retrospection, that the informant allowed himself to voice his disappointment.

Problem Check

The informant's comments on students' difficulties and failures vary from sympathetic: "I guess its difficult, after all" to frustrated: "With exercises like this does — a blank that he has to fill in with does — and he can't even do this — even though its written right there..."

In a retrospective verbalization of an experienced teacher explaining how she notes a problem and attends to it, it is likely that the TU sequence Problem Check —> Language Management would often appear. On the other hand, what sequence would we expect for an inexperienced teacher who was unable to attend to the problem or who recognizes a problem only upon viewing the videotape? One likely TU sequence might be Problem Check —> Self-Critique (in Type 3 PERCEPTIONS AND BELIEFS), indicating that the teacher now acknowledges her failure to attend to the problem.

In fact, in this retrospective, neither sequence occurs. Instead the most common sequence is Problem Check —> Knowledge of Students, suggesting that the informant attributes problems to an inherent mismatch between the difficulty of the material and the ability of his students. Further examination of each Problem Check within the

audiotape reveals that the informant did not, in fact, attend to any of the students' problems or failures. This implies that student teachers require training in attending to problems and that they need to be encouraged to occasionally break from the lesson plan in order to do so.

Language Management

Gatbonton (1999) found Language Management to be the most frequent type of pedagogical thought for experienced ESL teachers. She notes that "As language teachers, it might be readily assumed that their main concern would, of course, be fine tuning language. However, this assumption is not always necessarily correct." (p.44)

In fact, Language Management ranks strikingly low for this informant. One likely factor is that he simply does not have sufficient control of the terminology or metalanguage — either in Japanese or in English — to articulate his reflections involving such an abstract area.

Another factor is that the informant's range of Language Management TUs is severely limited. Language Management involves both language input (e.g. highlighting; illustrating specific items) and language output (e.g. eliciting, correcting). However, the informant's input TUs concern only two classroom actions — explaining, and having the students notice patterns — and there are no output TUs at all.

It is possible that the area of Language Management may be the strongest discriminator between experienced and inexperienced teachers. Taken together, the results of Problem Check and Language Management indicate that PJTEs need training in specific techniques for managing language and attending to problems; these are not areas in which good intentions or instincts will suffice.

Affective

The affective TUs were particularly difficult to analyze because many TUs could be broadly interpreted as revealing the informant's true feelings toward the lesson or the students. The first analysis found 23 affective TUs, many of which broadly inferred the informant's affective concern for the students. A second, narrower analysis (which only included direct explanations of the informant's feelings) later narrowed this down to ten TUs, all concerning the informant's feelings toward the lesson.

Time Check

Japanese secondary English teachers are pressured to complete a set syllabus covering large amounts of textual material. For PJTEs, this is even more difficult, so finishing the lesson is accorded high priority in the teaching practicum. Probably partly because time management is one of the few clear-cut aspects of teaching, PJTEs' supervising teachers nearly always comment on whether or not the lesson plan was completely covered. In this context, the informant's strong focus on managing time (also noted in Decisions) is reasonable.

TYPE 2 HYPOTHETICAL SITUATION: RESULTS

Ten TUs refer to what the informant would do in a hypothetical situation: if he were in complete control of this class. Three categories emerged from semantic analysis of these TUs: Method, Time, and Content.

Four of the hypothetical thought-groups refer to teaching methods: "If it were just me [teaching this class], my way of thinking is that I'd let students study by themselves." Three TUs refer to temporal limi-

Table 12 Categories within HYPOTHETICAL SITUATION: TUs by frequency and percentage

	Frequency	% of total
Method	4	40
Time	3	30
Content	1	10
Total	10	100

tations. One TU refers to restraints on the content of the class: "If you ask me, we don't need to teach this."

TYPE 2 HYPOTHETICAL SITUATION: DISCUSSION

The informant seems to attribute the disparity between this class and a hypothetical, idealized class mostly to his student-teacher status which prevents him from teaching the way he would like. However, perhaps because class content is determined by the Ministry of Education, the informant speculates little on hypothetical content.

Although all teachers wish for more time, the informant's comments highlight the particular ways in which PJTEs' time is restricted. First, because of the short length of the practicum, PJTEs cannot establish and test classroom routines: "If I were able to teach them from the beginning of April, I'd distribute cards or something..." Second, the PJTEs might not be allowed to experiment with allotting time to tasks; thus they may not discover for themselves how and why their lesson plans work or not: "Out of 45 minutes, I really wanted to do gestures for about 15 minutes."

As for method, the practicum functions to socialize PJTEs into classroom routines. Yet at the same time, the informant is hypothesizing alternative classroom actions: "So rather than letting them talk to anyone they want, like their former teacher does, I'd say, it has to be

the classmate next to them." This conflict is not unusual: most PJTEs overwhelmingly admire their cooperative teachers' expertise but occasionally complain that their cooperative teacher controls every detail of the practicum (Uchida, 1999).

In conclusion, the practicum allows PJTE's to imagine a hypothetical situation: how they believe they would teach if they were completely in charge. To experienced teachers, these hypotheses might seem rather unrealistic or even irresponsible. However, the process of considering alternative classroom actions is valuable and necessary, and for a PJTE with no other experience, the videotape retrospection may be a worthwhile place to begin.

TYPE 3 PERCEPTIONS AND BELIEFS: RESULTS

Fifty-eight TUs refer to the informant's perceptions, views, beliefs, and attitudes, which although are not directly related to the videotape, are stimulated by it. Six distinct categories emerged from semantic analysis of these TUs:

- Limitations on Authority: The informant's perceptions of limitations to his authority or decision-making freedom during the practicum.
- General Knowledge of Students: The informant's knowledge of Japanese junior high school students in general.
- Past Experiences as Student: The informant's past experiences as student.
- Past Teaching Experiences: The informant's experiences teaching the practicum which inform his present perceptions.
- Pedagogical Beliefs: The informant's pedagogical beliefs.
- Self-Critique: The informant's critical perception of self.

Table 13 Categories within PERCEPTIONS AND BELIEFS: TUs by frequency and percentage

	Frequency	% of total	Cum. %
Pedagogical Beliefs	18	31.0	31.0
Limitations on Authority	12	20.7	51.7
Self-Critique	8	13.8	65.5
General Knowledge of Students	6	10.3	75.8
Past Teaching Experiences	6	10.3	86.1
Past Experiences as Student	5	8.6	94.7
Other	3	5.2	99.9
Total	58	99.9	99.9

Over half of the TUs concern the first two categories: Pedagogical Beliefs and Limitations on Authority. Below, each category is analyzed in detail.

Pedagogical Beliefs

Table 14 PERCEPTIONS AND BELIEFS: TUs in the category of Pedagogical Beliefs

	Frequency
Classroom procedures	7
Affective aspects	6
Content	3
Fluency	2
Total	18

Of the eighteen TUs concerning the informant's pedagogical beliefs, seven are related to classroom procedures. Three of these concern having students take notes and setting up pairwork: "Sometimes it's hard to set the pairwork up well". Four concern the flow of the lesson: "If I think about it now — its better to teach with the assumption that they don't understand."

Six of the TUs concern affective aspects of teaching. Two of these concern the importance of imagination in the classroom: "I

believe that this [picturing the object when they read a word] is really important. I think its, well you know, that they are not taught to do this in Japanese schools."

Two of the TUs stress enjoyment: "Yes, of course I want them to laugh."

Three of the TUs concern content. The informant believes that he should teach cultural knowledge, pronunciation, and presentation skills: "this presentation is an important skill, no matter what country you live in".

Two of the TUs concern beliefs about errors: that fluency is more important than accuracy, and that errors in sentence composition are permissible, but not in grammar exercises.

Limitations on Authority

Table 15 PERCEPTIONS AND BELIEFS: TUs in the category of Limitations on Authority

	Frequency
Cooperating classroom teacher	4
Time	3
Routine	3
Educational system	2
Total	12

Twelve TUs concern the informant's perceived limitations on his authority or freedom during the practicum. Four TUs concern direct or indirect pressure to conform to the cooperating classroom teacher: "So the former teacher did it this way, and I was shown a class in which this was done and I was told to give the students time to copy the board..." Three TUs concern time constraints: "Because I am [only] in charge of this class starting in the middle of the school year, right?" Three TUs refer to the routine of the lessons: "The lesson has already

been set into a pattern." Two TUs refer to constraints due to the Japanese educational system: "the question of *juken* [cramming] and entrance exams."

Self-Critique

Table 16 PERCEPTIONS AND BELIEFS:
TUs in the category of Self-Critique

	Frequency
Own innate characteristics	3
Knowledge of students	3
Knowledge of subject	2
Total	8

Eight TUs concern the informant's critical self-assessment. In three TUs, the informant's criticizes his voice quality, his writing, and his own character which doesn't allow him to cut short an activity if all students have not finished. It can be inferred that the informant feels little control over these characteristics. The next three TUs concern the informant's insufficient knowledge of student names and ability: "At this point I didn't really know what junior high first year level really is." In two TUs, the informant bemoans his lack of subject knowledge, namely pronunciation: "...my pronunciation is pretty bad. I think so."

General Knowledge of Students

Table 17 PERCEPTIONS AND BELIEFS:
TUs in the category of General Knowledge of Students

	Frequency
Characteristics	3
Classroom behavior	3
Total	6

Six TUs concern the informant's background knowledge of Japanese junior high school students in general. In three TUs, the informant attributes to them certain characteristics: they ostracize students who are different; they are noisy and energetic outside of class; they are shy with the opposite sex: "Japanese girls and boys are shy together at this age, so girls do pairwork with girls." Three TUs concern their classroom behavior. They like to watch others perform in class; they have varying levels of ability; some groups of students are quieter than others: "There are some classes that laugh and some classes that are totally silent."

Past Teaching Experiences

There are six TUs in which the informant refers to his recent experiences teaching the practicum. Three of these concern problems that had occurred: "And the lesson before this one, different parts took a minute or two longer than I'd planned and I ended up five minutes behind and at the end of the lesson I was rushing." In the other TUs, he mentions feeling surprise and irritation, and tells of advice that he was given on the first day of the practicum.

Experiences as Student

Five TUs refer to the informant's past experiences as a student. One of them concerns his present experience at university, and four concern his experiences in junior high school: "The way I studied myself was pretty unusual when compared to other people. I didn't study carefully, writing everything down properly each time...."

TYPE 3 PERCEPTIONS AND BELIEFS: DISCUSSION

Pedagogical Beliefs

Some of the informant's stated beliefs, such as beliefs about how pairwork and how copying from the board should be carried out, are reflected elsewhere in this transcript and are coherent with the informant's classroom actions. Other stated beliefs are not yet completely established. For example, the informant states that all students should finish every activity. Later, he says "If two or three students don't have it finished, can I go on to the next activity or not? So I end up waiting." In this case, his stated belief is not yet strong enough to completely justify his classroom action.

The informant strongly believes that pronunciation skills, presentation skills, and cultural knowledge should be taught: "The best would be to not have to take some much time on this [grammar] and to just introduce American culture and Australian culture and tell them about it [unclear]. I believe that that would be a better way to teach them." Despite the fixed syllabus, the informant manages to incorporate some of this desired content into the lesson.

The informant's most coherent beliefs concern affective aspects of teaching. He believes that reading aloud should be done with feeling and imagination. He clearly states that students should enjoy performing and watching others perform in English, and that laughter, praise and applause are important elements of the classroom: "because there isn't enough praise or applause in Japanese education." He believes that spoken English is important for students' self-development: "That's what being human is about, to be able to have a conversation with anyone, isn't it?" The informant's classroom actions are congruent with these beliefs, indicating that they are already fairly stable.

Limitations on Authority

The informant implies that his authority or freedom to teach in the manner in which he would like is limited. There are at least two issues that emerge from this.

First, there is the danger that shortcomings can be blamed on limited authority: "Yes, but this is different because I teach them starting in the middle of the school year, so I can't [make word cards for the students]." The perception of limited authority and responsibility does not encourage PJTEs to become proactive teachers.

Second, spoken and unspoken pressure to emulate the cooperating classroom teacher's way of teaching severely limits the informant's range of experiences: "...they don't say we have to teach like that [unclear], but I knew I'd have to follow it or there'd be problems." This is not unusual. Even when PJTEs feel that their cooperating classroom teacher is a poor example of how to teach, they justify their teacher's actions and feel obliged to follow their example (Shiroyama, 1997).

Self-Critique

Because the informant believes that pronunciation skills should be taught and includes some pronunciation work in this class, he is very critical of his own pronunciation: "I am taking Prof. X's lecture [in pronunciation] but, [its] not [improving] at all, in fact, its <u>Japanese English</u>." This is a salient example of how retrospective viewing of a videotaped lesson can help PJTEs accurately assess their own English skills.

Knowledge of Students

The informant's beliefs about the students may have informed

some of his classroom actions. For example, he demonstrated the "gesture time" gestures in a very animated fashion. He believed that the students would enjoy watching him perform in class, and indeed, after class they claimed this was true. In another example, the informant did not force a student who was completely lost to read aloud, perhaps not wishing him to be ostracized.

On the other hand, closer examination reveals that the informant does not effectively deal with potentially negative student characteristics. For example, although he acknowledges that "There are always students who refuse to do the pairwork unless they do it with a friend" he chafes against providing this security. A more experienced teacher might first pair up students with their friends and only gradually expect them to start speaking to other classmates. The informant seems to feel frustrated because he is unable to work with and through these negative characteristics.

Past Teaching Experiences

While viewing the videotape, the informant articulates his perceptions of his teaching experiences so far during the practicum. He recalls feeling surprised at the students' passivity and irritated at their slowness during his first practicum class. He recalls activities taking longer than planned and not being able to complete the lesson. To some extent, the informant has built on these experiences: he claims to be no longer surprised at the students' passivity, and he is able to complete the lesson as planned.

The informant also recalls a negative experience with a non-participating student: "Once I called on a really quiet girl and she wouldn't even stand up. Even though I told her to stand up, she just sat there." This is a difficult situation even for an experienced teacher,

and the only strategy that the informant could resort to was avoidance. To ensure the success of "gesture time", he consciously did not call on quiet, non-participating students.

Experiences as Student

The informant's beliefs are influenced by his own junior high school experiences. For example, he is strongly bothered by the amount of time set aside for students to copy sentences from the blackboard: "But when I was in junior high, I don't think we were given time just to copy things off the board. The teacher would write as he spoke, and we just copied it into our notebooks as he wrote. I think that's how we took notes by ourselves...." Yet, earlier in the audiotape, he had stated "But when I was in junior high I didn't take many notes. Not really." His learning experiences strongly inform his classroom responses; however, because the memories lack coherence, they may do so rather erratically.

The informant also justifies his negative perception of copying notes from the board in terms of his current university experience: "Now that I think about it, in X's class for example, X passes out [papers] because copying takes too much time."

These results are supported by Almarza's (cited in Gatbonton, 1999) study of the concepts of teaching of four ESL pre-service teachers. Her findings indicate that the influence of their learning experiences on the shape of their classroom behavior remained profound even after teacher training.

The audiotaped retrospection of the practicum video has allowed the subject to verbalize his unvoiced "theories" of language teaching and learning. In this section, a careful analysis of the TUs pulled together common threads and exposed contradictory points in his

perceptions, views, beliefs, and attitudes.

CONCLUSION

The first research objective of this paper was to explore how language teaching is constructed by a single PJTE. Several themes emerged:

- For the PJTE, maintaining the instructional flow takes precedence over other aspects of teaching (such as eliciting language output, and checking and aiding student understanding) for which he may not have the tools.
- Affective aspects of language learning (especially deficient response and non-participation) are more salient for the PJTE than linguistic aspects.
- Excessive constraints on lesson content and teaching method can discourage the PJTE from taking full responsibility for the lesson.
- The PJTE relies strongly on unvoiced "theories" which are heavily influenced by his own past experiences as a learner.

Kinginger (1997) explains that before student teachers are taught theories of language learning and teaching, they already hold informal, unvoiced "theories". These theories may have originally come from certain teaching practices in certain situations, but have since come to be dissociated from their origins and are felt to be universally applicable. Since these theories are perceived as common sense, the student teacher may find it very difficult to interpret them as one alternative among several. Kinginger says that one important function of teacher education is to explicate these theories, making them available as tools for evaluation and subjects of evaluation.

Much more micro-level research is needed to build up a composite

picture of the beliefs and actions of pre-service Japanese teachers of English. A fuller understanding of PJTEs' constructs of teaching should help pre-service teacher-trainers and cooperating classroom teachers to make the teaching practicum as meaningful and valuable as possible.

The second research question was whether it is meaningful and practical to videotape PJTEs practicum display lessons for retrospective verbalizations. First turning to practical aspects, an analysis of the entire lesson, as was done for this paper, is a shockingly time-consuming and arduous process which is impractical for PJTEs. However, I believe that PJTEs and their trainers will find it valuable to do a retrospective verbalization of a single five- to ten-minute section of the lesson — perhaps a problematic segment. A practical plan might be to have the PJTE:

1) view the entire demonstration lesson videotape and choose a five-minute segment
2) transcribe the five-minute segment from the lesson (and translate it if necessary)
3) tape record a retrospective introspection of that segment
4) transcribe the retrospective introspection (and translate it if necessary)

Based on problems that I experienced, I would recommend that the equipment be set up so that both the PJTE and the researcher can hear the videotape; if possible, that the researcher view the video beforehand so that problematic segments can be anticipated; and that the videotape be numbered or that a stopwatch be used to time the segments. Finally, for the data to be useful for the PJTE, the analysis needs to be completed before the prefectural examination is administered.

As for meaningfulness, by working intensely with one segment, the

introspection may gain in depth what it loses in breadth. Many PJTEs will need repeated viewing of their own teaching before they can probe beyond a superficial level. Mills (cited in Richards & Crookes, 1988) advocates using an "observation system that provides for a detailed breakdown of classroom experience at successively finer levels of analysis" (p.18). For example, the same segment could be viewed and verbalized again and again, verbalizing different aspects each time.

In order for teacher preparation programs to prepare the teachers to cope with the cognitive demands of L2 teaching, these programs need to create opportunities for pre-service teachers to understand not only what they do when they teach but why they do it (Johnson, 1992). Retrospective verbalizations can allow PJTEs' to deepen their awareness of how their instructional thoughts and judgments shape their actions in their classroom.

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