

**COLLABORATIVE INTERDISCIPLINARY TEAM TEACHING IN JAPAN:  
A STUDY OF PRACTITIONER AND STUDENT PERSPECTIVES**

Andrew Gladman, M App Ling,  
Grad Dip (Information & Library Studies), B.A. (English)

Research conducted at Miyazaki International College, Japan

Department of Linguistics  
Division of Linguistics and Psychology  
Macquarie University  
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## **ABSTRACT**

The research of this thesis investigates team teaching within a Japanese tertiary context. Miyazaki International College (MIC), Japan, is a liberal arts college using English as its medium of instruction. Within nearly all of its lower-division classes, the college employs an unusual team teaching initiative, called Collaborative Interdisciplinary Team Teaching (CITT). In each CITT class, a specialist in TESOL and a specialist in the academic subject of the class integrate their specialities to team-teach English language and the academic subject in parallel. The team teachers adopt a highly collaborative approach, teaching each course jointly as equal partners, being present in the classroom at all lesson times and sharing responsibility for all aspects of their shared course. I am a TESOL specialist at MIC, and although there has been some CITT research conducted at MIC in the past, I am the only person researching CITT at the present time.

This series of research studies was designed primarily as an exploratory study of CITT, investigating how classroom participants define what CITT is, identifying the important elements of CITT, and describing what they believe constitutes effective or ineffective CITT. The series comprises three small-scale but connected studies: an exploratory focus group study of team teachers, a follow-up questionnaire-based study of team teachers, and an exploratory questionnaire-based study of students from the team-taught classroom. A qualitative data-driven approach was employed, allowing CITT participants to define and describe the processes of CITT on their own terms, and using the data to guide the direction of the research. The data were also used to develop a conceptual model of effective CITT for application by practising team teachers.

In this thesis, the three studies of the research series are presented in their institutional context. The studies are also situated in the context of previous research findings regarding CITT and similar team teaching initiatives in other educational institutions around the world. The findings from this research series are used to identify possible implications for collaborative practice and future research opportunities.

## STATEMENT OF CANDIDATE

I certify that the work in this thesis entitled “Collaborative Interdisciplinary Team Teaching in Japan: A study of practitioner and student perspectives” has not previously been submitted for a degree nor has it been submitted as part of requirements for a degree to any other university or institution other than Macquarie University.

I also certify that the thesis is an original piece of research and it has been written by me. Any help and assistance that I have received in my research work and the preparation of the thesis itself have been appropriately acknowledged.

In addition, I certify that all information sources and literature used are indicated in the thesis.

The research presented in this thesis was approved by Macquarie University Ethics Review Committee, reference number: HE26MAY2006-D04705C on 5 July 2006.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'A. Gladman', with a long horizontal flourish extending to the right.

Andrew Peter Gladman, 31389503

30 June, 2009

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If I tried to name all the individuals who gave me assistance in the writing of this thesis, I would embarrass myself by leaving someone out. Instead, I'd just like to offer my gratitude to my students and colleagues at MIC, and my colleagues in my study cohort and at various other colleges and universities in Japan and beyond, who helped me with my research. That includes those who acted as respondents, those who piloted the studies, those who gave me translation assistance or who performed inter-coder agreement checks, and even those colleagues who agreed to rearrange their teaching schedules to accommodate my time constraints! Thanks to all of you. I would, though, like to single out Kyoko Miyazato for a special mention, for taking such a positive interest in my work and giving me her feedback and assistance as a fellow team-teaching researcher.

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

AET	Assistant English Teacher
ALM	Audio-Lingual Method (of language teaching)
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CALP	Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency
CBLI/CBI	Content-based (Language) Instruction
CES	Cambridge English School
CITT	Collaborative Interdisciplinary Team Teaching (of MIC)
CLAIR	Council of Local Authorities for International Relations (Japan)
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching (approach)
CT	Content Teacher (of a CITT partnership)
D App Ling	Doctor of Applied Linguistics (of Macquarie University)
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
EOP	English for Occupational Purposes
EPIK	English Program in Korea
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESOL	English for Speakers of Other Languages
ESP	English for Special/Specific Purposes
FRC	Faculty Review Committee (of MIC)
JALT	Japan Association for Language Teaching
JET	Japan Exchange and Teaching

JTE	Japanese Teacher of English
L1	First language (learned)
L2	Second language (learned)
LET	Local English Teacher
LT	Language Teacher (of a CITT partnership)
MEI	Miyazaki Educational Institution
MEXT	Japanese Ministry of Education (Full English title: The Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture)
MIC	Miyazaki International College
NEST	Native English Speaking Teacher
NET	Native-speaking English Teacher
NNS	Non-Native Speaker
NNST	Non-Native Speaker Teacher
NS	Native Speaker
NST	Native Speaker Teacher
PNET	Primary Native-speaking English Teacher
SSM	Soft Systems Methodology
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TRAC	Testing and Research Assessment Committee (of MIC)

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## **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1. Introduction**

The education system of Japan, within which the research reported in this thesis is located, is the second largest education system in the developed world after that of the United States (Walker, 2005), and, as McVeigh (2005) points out, “Japanese students are expected to devote a remarkable amount of time studying English” (p. 41). The system thereby offers many ongoing opportunities for researchers investigating the English language classroom. The pronouncements of the Japanese education ministry (MEXT) show that sweeping changes have been occurring in English language classrooms in recent years, as part of its long-term goal to improve students’ communicative English skills. A recent example is its development in 2003 of a pioneering five-year action plan to improve the English abilities of secondary school students (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008). However, though such initiatives are laudable, critics have been quick to point out that “a substantial gap exists between MEXT’s vision and classroom realities in Japan” (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008, p. 135), and that real educational change for the better is not as evident as has been hoped (McVeigh, 2005). The institutional setting for the research reported in this thesis, Miyazaki International College, represents one Japanese private educational foundation’s attempt to bridge that gap at the college level and provide a genuinely different type of educational approach to achieve more effective classroom realities.

One part of the atypical educational approach practised at this institution is its widespread use of collaborative teaching, or ‘team teaching’, for delivering integrated language and content instruction in English to its students. Although team teaching itself, as an educational

initiative, is not particularly new, the sustained implementation of interdisciplinary team teaching across the college curriculum represents an unusual application of this practice. This particular team teaching practice was selected as the topic of the research reported in this thesis. If, as has been claimed by the institution, this type of team teaching is a feature of a more effective way of learning for students (MIC Self-study Steering Committee, 2005), there is a need for research that investigates it and explores its properties. Research findings that can shed light on such a topic may also prove helpful for language teachers in various collaborative contexts and carry beneficial implications for future teaching practice.

## **1.2. The institutional setting**

Miyazaki International College (MIC), in Kyushu, southern Japan, offers an unusual educational programme that attracts faculty members from a variety of countries beyond Japan's borders. Over a number of years it has generated a substantial degree of interest from journalists and educators from counterpart colleges in other parts of the nation, as well as the general public, because of various features characterising the way it offers its programmes. One aspect of the unusual character of the college curriculum is its institutional teaching practice, which is based on team teaching principles. The faculty body of MIC is broadly composed of two large subgroups of roughly equal proportions. One subgroup comprises English language teaching faculty, while the other comprises faculty from a variety of different academic disciplines representing the contents of a typical liberal arts curriculum. The institutional practice of MIC is that individuals from each subgroup are paired together into sustained collaborative teaching partnerships. These pairs of 'language' and 'content'

teachers jointly design and deliver courses across the curriculum, integrating content and language instruction to meet parallel learning goals.

As the author of this thesis, and a member of the English faculty at MIC, I approached the topic of the research with an interest informed by a degree of relevant professional experience. In 1994, I accepted an overseas posting from Australia to Japan to serve as an Assistant English Teacher (AET) in several Japanese high schools, as a Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) programme participant (see section 3.4). In this capacity, I team-taught English language for three years with a range of teaching partners, primarily at Asahi Senior High School in Okayama City, but also in several other primary and secondary schools, on a rotating basis. Although my experience of team teaching came to an end on my return to Australia in 1997, it was to resume seven years later in Miyazaki, after a series of events led me back to Japan. In August 2004, I was hired as an English language lecturer at MIC, and was immediately required to team-teach as a language teaching specialist in collaboration with a content specialist partner. Since that time, I have team taught a range of courses every academic term, collaborating with almost a dozen different team teaching partners from various disciplinary backgrounds.

While my experience of team teaching as a JET programme participant has been shared by many thousands of other assistant teachers from a range of different countries since the programme was founded in 1987 (McConnell, 2000), my experience as a team teacher at MIC has proved less typical, not just in terms of scope, but also in terms of its application beyond the high school level and its interdisciplinary integration of content and language instruction

across a range of curricular courses (see section 3.5). As it is a different type of team teaching than that which is usually associated with Japan (i.e., the high-profile JET programme), the team teaching of MIC represented an opportunity for an onsite researcher to contribute something new to the professional literature on collaborative teaching in Japan.

Since the team teaching practice of MIC is a long-standing interdisciplinary practice, first founded in 1994, it represents a particularly pertinent real-world example of how interdisciplinary teaching collaboration can be achieved, and it is therefore worth researching. Stewart (1996) touches on this point when he suggests that interdisciplinary team teaching is the most efficacious means of meeting the needs of second language (L2) learners of English to reconcile their academic and linguistic goals in higher education. Using the terminology of Cummins (1979), Stewart (1996) notes that L2 college students can take four to ten years to reach the average cognitive /academic language proficiency (CALP) level of their native-speaking counterparts, and argues that it would be unreasonable to expect L2 learners to wait such a long time to enroll in college courses. Therefore, a curriculum that draws together content and language instruction through interdisciplinary collaboration is well placed to meet these students' needs. Since the team teaching practice of MIC represents such a curriculum, it offers researchers examples of existing applications that may have useful implications for providing students with improved services in other educational contexts.

On a more personal basis, this thesis was written in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the Macquarie University Doctor of Applied Linguistics (D App Ling) programme. As a professional doctorate programme, the D App Ling was designed to meet the needs of



working professionals in applied linguistics, and align closely with the existing professional practices of the students enrolled in it. This approach stands in contrast to more standard Ph.D. programmes, that tend to place a greater emphasis on theory, and do not usually require direct alignment with the student's professional work.

As a student on the D App Ling programme commencing the research component of my study, I chose MIC, which is my working context, as the site of my study, and team teaching was a feature of my professional environment. Yet while team teaching had been widely practised at the college since the time of its founding, there was no ongoing research into its implementation to critically evaluate its value to stakeholders and the institution as a whole. There was also little explicit theoretical underpinning for the practice, and no recent research had been conducted with a view to creating a conceptual model to guide and understand its workings (see also sections 2.6 and 3.5). Stewart, Sagliano and Sagliano (2000) make the point that team teaching was initially implemented at MIC without any comprehensive conceptual framework, growing “in a more or less organic fashion” (p. 214) from the efforts of teachers just trying to make their instruction work; while Tajino (2002) notes that problems have often arisen in team teaching because of the lack of an established method or principles that teachers need to follow. The research reported in this thesis was designed to meet these particular institutional needs, as identified from my professional context as a faculty member of that institution, as well as to contribute to the wider body of existing knowledge of teacher collaboration (see literature review in Chapter 3).

### **1.3. Research structure**

This thesis reports the findings of three consecutive research studies that constitute an investigative process or research series, and that aimed to explore team teaching at MIC from various perspectives (hereafter, the three studies together will be referred to as the ‘research series’). In accordance with the requirements of Macquarie University’s D App Ling programme, the three studies of this research series were designed to stand alone as research projects in their own right, yet to be thematically linked by a shared point of focus which was of relevance to the researcher’s professional context. In the case of this research series, the topic of the research (i.e., team teaching at MIC) represents the linking theme.

The initial study of this research series (reported in Chapter 4) constitutes the point of departure for the whole investigation. The first study was conceived as an exploratory baseline study to help determine the direction the research should take. As an entry point into the topic, the study was created to explore team teaching at MIC from the perspectives of its practitioners, and generate a rich supply of data that would guide the development of subsequent studies in the series. Focus group methodology was used to elicit data from two small samples of team teachers at MIC, with each representing either the ‘content’ or ‘language’ partners of the team teaching partnership.

The two subsequent studies of this series were intended to build on the earlier findings by pursuing directions of research suggested by analyses of those findings, or by directly addressing questions that emerged from the analyses. In this way, the research series was intended to be a process of gradually compiling a complete picture of team teaching at MIC

through the incremental adjustments made possible by each new set of findings. It was believed that such a process would also provide future researchers at MIC with a sound basis for further investigations.

The second study of the research series (reported in Chapter 5) expanded on the first study by examining its findings further through questionnaire data drawn from a larger and more representative sampling of the population of team teachers at MIC. The scope of the study was also broadened to test out the respondents' reactions to questionnaire items created with reference to accepted findings from the professional literature on team teaching. However, the focus of the study was sharpened to explore primarily which aspects of team teaching would be identified by respondents as important to the development of an effective team teaching partnership. Also, a new question about students' needs derived from the first study was included for additional investigation.

The third and final study of this research series (reported in Chapter 6) expanded on the preceding studies by widening the scope of the research to include a sampling from a new population, the team-taught students. This questionnaire-based study was intended to test out the findings of the first two studies through contrast and comparison of students' responses with the teachers' responses. It was also designed to reveal any changes in the students' opinions over the course of an academic term. To some degree, the third study was designed to parallel the exploratory nature of the first study, allowing new perspectives to emerge that might complement the findings of the earlier studies, and create a more comprehensive picture of team teaching than before.

The findings from the three studies in this research series are presented as individual sets of findings emerging from each study in order of implementation. On completion of the reports of the three studies, all findings are then drawn together and presented cumulatively for interpretative purposes, and to explore the broader implications of the research series as a whole.

#### **1.4. Research purpose**

Since the character of this research series is exploratory, the direction of the research process was conceived as largely data-driven. This direction allowed a degree of flexibility in addressing some of the research questions that emerged from the findings of the consecutive studies. As a whole, the series as a whole was designed to explicate effective (or ineffective) team teaching at MIC from the point of view of its participants, through the identification of its key elements. By comparing and contrasting findings from the research against the context of the team teaching literature, the intention was not only to contribute to existing knowledge, but to formulate a conceptual model that could guide and inform existing team teaching practice, and provide a baseline for further relevant studies.

Essentially, the following research questions are addressed by the findings of the first study:

- What are MIC team teachers' perceptions of team teaching?
- What do they think makes team teaching effective or ineffective?
- What do they see as the benefits or limitations of team teaching?

- What do they think are the requirements of team teaching?
- What do they think is important about team teaching?

After the first study, it was possible to tighten the focus of the research design to answer more specific questions. Essentially, the following research questions are addressed by the second study:

- What do team teachers at MIC see as the important aspects of an effective team teaching partnership?
- How do their responses compare with previous data, and the literature?
- According to their responses, how important are these different aspects, relative to each other?
- Are there substantial differences between the opinions of content and language teachers?
- Do team teachers at MIC believe that the only important measure of an effective team teaching partnership is whether or not it meets students' needs?

For the third study, a reformulation of the research questions from the first study for use with non-teaching participants took the research in a new direction. Essentially, the following questions are addressed by the findings of the third study:

- What are team-taught MIC students' perceptions of team teaching?
- What do they think makes team teaching effective or ineffective?

- What do they see as the benefits or limitations of team teaching?
- Did their opinions of team teaching change over the term?
- Do they equate an effective teacher with an effective team teacher?
- What do they think is important about team teaching?

Although the specifics of the research questions were modified as appropriate to the requirements of the progressive findings, the broader purposes of this research series were used to guide the direction of all three studies.

### **1.5. Thesis structure**

The eight chapters of this thesis trace the complete story of this research series from its original conception to its conclusion. Chapter 1 provides an overview of the main topic of the research and why this topic first attracted my interest, then outlines briefly the reasons why this topic was seen to be worth researching in the first place. It also describes the nature of the three studies constituting this research series, and presents an overview of the contents of each chapter in this thesis.

Chapter 2 explains the organisational aspects of MIC, as the implementing body for the team teaching practice under study. After the local context is defined, this information is used to guide the explanation of the research rationale presented for these studies. Chapter 3 widens the focus of the investigation beyond its local context to present a critical review of professional literature on team teaching practices from around the world, thus situating this research series within a broader framework of existing knowledge.

The first study of this research series is described in detail in Chapter 4. For this study, two sample groups of team teachers from MIC were created with four teachers in each group, and each group was interviewed using focus group methodology. Chapter 4 describes how the study was conducted, and how the data from the discussions were content-analysed to identify major themes, or common categories of response. These initial findings are presented and discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 5 presents details of the second study from this research series, which was designed to extend the findings from the initial focus group study. For the second study, a questionnaire was created to gain team teachers' responses to findings from the focus group data and from the literature. This questionnaire was distributed to almost all practising team teachers at MIC, to gather the broadest practicable sampling of respondents. Responses from the study were content-analysed to identify major themes, and some quantitative analysis was also included to offer additional support for the findings. Findings from this study are presented and discussed, then summarised at the end of the chapter.

In Chapter 6, the third study of this research series is presented, in which data were collected from a new population to integrate into the cumulative findings from this research series. For the third study, a questionnaire was created to distribute to a sample of students from the team-taught classrooms of MIC, allowing comparisons to be drawn between the responses of the team teachers and their students, so that a broader picture of all team teaching participant

viewpoints could emerge. Findings from this study are presented and discussed, then summarised at the end of the chapter.

In the last two chapters of this thesis, the three studies of this series are drawn together and discussed holistically. The specific findings of the three studies are compared and contrasted in Chapter 7, and the implications of those findings are presented within the institutional context of MIC. The data from these studies are then used to underpin the development of a conceptual model of good team teaching practice with practical applications for a range of collaborative teaching contexts beyond MIC. In Chapter 8, the scope of the focus of the thesis is widened to explore the findings from this research series with reference to the team teaching literature as a whole. The contributions of the studies are situated within the literature, and the broader implications of the findings from this research series for team teaching practice beyond MIC are identified, using the conceptual model introduced in Chapter 7. Chapter 8 concludes the thesis, and relevant appendices are included for reader reference at the end of the paper.

Since D App Ling research is designed to align with the researcher's professional practice and development (see section 1.1), one of the features of the programme is that students are given encouragement by Macquarie University to publish their work as they progress through the implementation of their various research studies. For this reason, in contrast with more traditional Ph.D. programmes where chapters are typically reworked into publishable articles after the thesis has been completed, D App Ling students may submit previously published articles reporting on their doctoral research as chapter entries in their theses. In the case of the



research series presented in this thesis, the first of the three studies was accepted for publication in *Comparative Culture: The Journal of Miyazaki International College* in 2007, and this journal article is therefore submitted in its entirety as Chapter 4 of this thesis. The text of Chapter 4 is presented in this thesis exactly as it appears in its published form as a ‘stand alone’ journal article, and was written to conform to the constraints and editorial requirements of that journal. For example, an editorial decision of the journal was that the term ‘theme’ was not desirable to describe a group of common findings from the focus group study, so ‘category of response’ was substituted as a term that was acceptable to the editorial board. Other changes were also made to render the article more acceptable for inclusion in the journal. Therefore, Chapter 4 should be read and evaluated with reference to its function as an article submitted for publication. The subsequent studies of this research series are not yet published at the time of writing, and are presented in this thesis in the more familiar format of the standard doctoral thesis chapter.

## **1.6. Summary**

In this chapter, I provided an overview of the topic of this research series and explained why I began conducting research in this area. I also briefly described the nature of the three studies that constitute my research series, and outlined what is included in each of the eight chapters of this thesis.

Since the researching of teacher collaboration is comparatively rare in the field of applied linguistics (see Chapter 3), the research series described in this thesis is offered with the intention of contributing findings which will be of value to other practitioners of collaborative

teaching. It is also hoped that the findings of this research series will provide a helpful point of reference for future researchers working in this area. The dynamics of teacher collaboration are complex, and there is plenty of scope for future investigation to assist in the expansion of existing knowledge.

In the next chapter, I explain the organisational aspects of the college where these studies were conducted, including the history and mission of the college, and information pertaining to both faculty and students. I also explain my rationale for conducting this type of research at MIC.

## **CHAPTER 2: RESEARCH CONTEXT**

### **2.1. Introduction**

As a current member of faculty at Miyazaki International College (MIC), I developed the present research series to match the specific requirements of my institutional context.

Essentially, my research was intended to initiate an investigative process that was closely aligned with my own professional circumstances (see Chapter 1).

This chapter will outline the institutional context that provided the backdrop to my research. The institutional history and mission of MIC will be described, with reference to its place within its wider governing body and the educational context of higher education in Japan. The management structure of the college will also be described. This section will be followed by an outline of MIC's faculty and teaching practices, leading to a brief overview of the student body. Finally, there will be a rationale for the present research series, in terms of how it was designed to explore a unique feature of the institutional context in which it was conceived.

### **2.2. Institutional history and mission**

Following the major reforms of the American Occupation forces aimed at demilitarising and democratising Japanese education after World War II, there was a steady growth in the higher education system of Japan that remained unabated for over half a century (Walker, 2005).

Walker (2005) notes that the modern Japanese education system is almost the largest in the world, second only to that of the United States in terms of student enrolment numbers. More than 95% of Japanese participate in “post-compulsory education”, with almost three million students enrolled in Japan's colleges and universities at any given time (Walker, 2005, p. 166).

However, the growth of the Japanese higher education system was not smooth, but was punctuated by a number of attempts to overhaul and reform it to meet the needs of the time. For example, Okada (2005) describes how the 1980s saw Japan conform to an international movement to increase competition between universities and enhance the diversification and marketability of their educational services, though critics condemned this reform as an attempt to produce an industrial workforce while neglecting other benefits of schooling (Okada, 2005). About twenty years later, an even more radical reform was implemented nationally with a view to reorienting Japanese higher education to better meet the ideological and financial needs of twenty-first century society. Goodman (2005) describes how this reform de-centralised power from the education ministry (MEXT) to the heads of Japanese universities and colleges, who were given more autonomy to manage their institutions as appropriate to their organisational needs. By this time, the post-war baby booms had come to an end, resulting in a corresponding decrease in the number of 18-year olds seeking higher education, producing new challenges for institutions that had, hitherto, enjoyed the benefits of a “seller’s market” (Walker, 2005, p. 166). Despite this decrease, however, the 1992-2004 period saw a paradoxical increase in the number of four-year institutions of higher education emerging in Japan. As Goodman (2005) relates, a number of explanations have been offered for this paradox, such as the increased numbers of women entering higher education and the common conversion of two-year universities into four-year institutions to improve their financial viability. This was the period that saw the origin of MIC, another new four-year institution of higher education in Japan, but one that was markedly different from its counterparts.

Founded in 1994, MIC, a small, private liberal arts college based in Miyazaki, Southern Japan, is one of a group of educational institutions sponsored by a private foundation, the Miyazaki Educational Institution (MEI). Itself founded in 1939 “for the purpose of cultivating working women” (MIC Accreditation Committee, 2008, p. 1), MEI is governed by a board of trustees and encompasses, in addition to MIC, a junior college, a high school, a junior high school, two kindergartens and an academic library. However, MIC is distinctly different from the other institutions within MEI, due to its atypically high proportion of non-Japanese teachers (see section 2.4) and its use of English as the primary language of classroom instruction and interactions involving faculty outside the classroom.

In other respects, too, MIC is very unrepresentative of Japanese educational institutions, to the extent of being described as an educational experiment providing “an alternative model for Japanese higher education” (MIC Self-study Steering Committee, 2003, p. 32). The founding president of the college, Hisayasu Otsubo, explicitly defines the purpose of MIC in terms of how it differs from other Japanese colleges and universities, claiming that “Miyazaki International College is attempting to make a monumental change in the educational tradition that Japan has promoted since the establishment of Tokyo University” (Otsubo, 1995, p. 8). McVeigh (2005) explains the significance of such a comment by noting that Tokyo University, founded in 1877, has “become the pinnacle of the entire educational system in terms of prestige, actual institutional clout and as the ideal model for other universities” (p. 81).

The first article of the MIC college rules defines the mission and objective of the college as being “to develop international citizens conversant in Japanese and foreign cultures and societies and fluent in English” (MIC Faculty Council, 2008b, p. 1). In defining his vision for MIC, Otsubo has often promoted this mission in public speeches and college publications, both online and in print. For example, in 2003, he emphasized the importance of equipping students with the skills to engage with diverse cultures and develop into international citizens who “study world-wide human problems and issues” (Otsubo, 2003, n.p.), while in his final entrance ceremony address as college president in 2008, he told students that “it has become vital for us to pursue our studies with a strong awareness of our existence within international society” (Otsubo, 2008b, n.p.). This position stands in contrast to more traditional higher educational models, which tend to prepare students exclusively for entry to Japanese society, in what Best (1987) describes as a closed, nationalistic system. As Otsubo (1995) noted in the year after MIC was founded, “there is no other national higher education system in a developed nation as far behind in promoting internationalization as that of Japan” (p. 6).

In addition to these features, other aspects of the educational program of MIC differentiate it from most conventional colleges and universities in Japan. For example, all students are required to participate in a study abroad program to one of five English-speaking countries (Australia, Canada, England, New Zealand or the United States) for the second semester of their second year. Also, class sizes are typically restricted to no more than 20 students, and teachers are encouraged to facilitate active learning and develop their students’ critical thinking skills (see also section 2.4). The college president referred to these unusual features when he declared to graduating students that “your very first time experiencing a teaching

method so different from the previously accepted form of passive learning in university was, I am sure, rigorous” (Otsubo, 2008a, n.p.).

However, perhaps the most visible difference between the operations of MIC and other Japanese institutions of tertiary education is its use of sustained collaboration between two faculty members in single courses for lower-division students (see section 2.4), which the college faculty handbook describes as “a curriculum that integrates academic content (disciplinary and multidisciplinary courses in comparative humanities and social sciences) with the development of English language skills” (MIC Faculty Council, 2008a, para 1). It is this collaborative mode of instruction that constitutes the focus of the present research series (see Chapter 4).

### **2.3. Management structure**

At the time of writing, the former president of MIC, Hisayasu Otsubo, functions as Chief Trustee in the Board of Trustees overseeing MEI operations and supported by an Advisory Council to the Board of Trustees and MEI administrative staff. Within the administrative structure of MIC, the College President oversees all college operations and holds legislative authority over the college rules. The Dean of Faculty serves in a dual capacity in faculty and administration, as Director of Academic Affairs, and Chair of both Faculty Council and the College Advisory Committee.

MIC’s organisational culture typically conforms most closely to Handy’s (1985) ‘person culture’ model, with a system of “shared governance” (MIC Self-study Steering Committee,

2003, p. 178). As outlined in the Faculty Handbook, all MIC faculty are expected to participate as Faculty Council members, and, as such, are responsible for “making recommendations on educational issues related to curriculum, faculty, and student matters, and on changes in the College Rules” (MIC Faculty Council, 1999, para 1). These responsibilities are exercised through Faculty Council Committee operations, which encompass three permanent committees: Committee on Faculty; Committee on Curriculum; and Committee on Students and Admissions. All faculty members are eligible to be voted into permanent committee service. Each of these committees considers policies within its purview and makes recommendations to the Faculty Council, which in turn approves or rejects the recommendations according to voting procedures.

The College Advisory Committee exists to coordinate operations between the Faculty Council and the college administrative departments. It is comprised of heads of departments and chairs of the permanent committees of MIC. Faculty are also represented in the college administration by the appointment of two area facilitators to represent the two types of team teaching specialist groups within faculty (i.e., ‘language’ and ‘content’ specialists) (see section 3.5). Area facilitators are elected by their peers.

## **2.4. Faculty and teaching**

At the time of writing, MIC employs 33 full-time faculty members. Since the founding of the college, 80% or more of the faculty body has been represented by non-Japanese from a range of different countries, including the United States, Great Britain, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, India and Singapore. At the present time, MIC has the highest foreign-faculty-to-



student ratio of any educational institution in Japan (MIC Accreditation Committee, 2008). Virtually all faculty members are required to teach their classes in English and use English teaching materials<sup>1</sup>. They are also expected to conduct many of their workplace interactions with colleagues and students in English.

Faculty members are hired on two-year renewable contracts, and are required to design and submit portfolios of their professional achievements at the end of each contract period should they wish to seek re-appointment. The portfolios are appraised using an in-house points system by a faculty review committee (FRC) of elected faculty members, the membership of which is renewed annually. The FRC then presents recommendations to the College President and Dean of Faculty on each applicant's suitability for re-appointment.

MIC faculty offer students a four-year undergraduate programme of study. There is a range of undergraduate courses available that is typical of a liberal arts education, with a strong emphasis on the humanities and social sciences. For example, courses are available in philosophy, literature, history, psychology, anthropology and economics. Half of the courses are taught using an 'environmental issues' approach at the first-year level (Miyazaki International College, 2005), to reflect the college's founding goal to foster the students' "moral commitment to protecting the environment" (MIC Self-study Steering Committee, 2005, p. 12). The remaining half comprises introductory courses for the major liberal arts disciplines represented in the college curriculum. Virtually all courses are conducted in English, and students are discouraged from reverting to Japanese use in the classroom.

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<sup>1</sup> Exceptions to this rule include two faculty members hired to teach Japanese expression courses in Japanese, in order to ensure that students' formal Japanese language skills do not go undeveloped .

Courses for lower-division students (i.e., first-year and second-year students) are team-taught according to the ‘CITT model’ (see section 3.5), requiring a content specialist teacher and an English language specialist teacher to collaborate in designing a course and delivering classroom instruction for all lessons, as well as sharing responsibility for student assessment and course evaluation. Team teachers are expected to jointly pursue parallel pedagogical goals in language and content education through their collaborative course development.

Additionally, single-teacher courses in ‘pure’ ESOL English instruction are required for lower-division students in their first three terms of enrolment at MIC<sup>2</sup>, to supplement their language development resulting from the integrated content and language instruction of their team-taught courses.

After returning from their study abroad term as second-year students, MIC students enter the upper division (i.e., third and fourth years) of the curriculum, continuing their education via single-teacher instruction, and with no further ESOL classes. In this respect, the upper-division student curriculum proceeds along more traditional lines, with no specific focus on language support as the students complete their content-based studies with a view to graduating in the major disciplines of their choice. Their final requirement is to complete a senior thesis of at least 6500 words in English, under the guidance of a faculty adviser from a discipline appropriate to their thesis topic.

Faculty are required to develop their own syllabi and teaching materials for their courses. It is typical for there to be no prescribed textbook for team-taught courses at MIC, since the

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<sup>2</sup> Students are expected to complete their study abroad programmes in their fourth term of enrolment.

collaborating teachers work jointly to produce course material appropriate to their learners' needs and the content and language goals that the teaching partners have established together. In accordance with the college goals, MIC teachers tend to encourage "active learning" through "problem-solving" tasks (Greenfield, 2005, para 2), using pairs or small groups. Oral presentations are also common and sometimes used as substitutes for final examinations, with teachers opening them to interested visitors within the college community.

All students complete mandatory evaluations of their teachers shortly before the end of each term, under strict terms of confidentiality. These evaluations become part of the faculty members' permanent records and are included in the FRC's deliberations to determine a teacher's suitability for re-appointment. The evaluations are released to the faculty concerned upon final submission of their students' term grades.

## **2.5. The student body**

Virtually all MIC students are Japanese<sup>3</sup>, in most cases making an immediate transition to tertiary education after graduating from high school. It is estimated that about 85% of students come from Kyushu or the smaller southern islands of Japan, while about 45% come from within Miyazaki Prefecture itself (MIC Self-study Steering Committee, 2005). The college usually accepts 65-85 new students each year, and has a total student body of 280-320 at any given time. Females outnumber males by approximately two to one. Upon graduating, most MIC students find employment within various Japanese industries, particularly in the fields of

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<sup>3</sup> One-year placements are available at MIC for exchange students, primarily from Woosuk University, Korea. However, these students are comparatively rare, typically comprising one percent or less of the total student body.

education and transportation (MIC Self-study Steering Committee, 2003). Some progress to graduate school or find employment outside Japan.

With a current ratio of actual student enrolment to enrolment capacity at less than 80%, “satisfying student capacity is the most urgent issue faced by the College” (MIC Accreditation Committee, 2008, p. 36). Falling birthrates (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (Japan), 1996-2008) and financial cutbacks in Japanese education, as a result of what Mulvey (2000) describes as ‘bottom-line consciousness’ implicit in the educational reforms of recent years, have increased competition between universities and colleges in Japan attempting to attract dwindling numbers of potential students (Goodman, 2005). General concerns over falling enrolment numbers have also been heightened by the 2008 global economic downturn. MIC’s comparatively high tuition costs, as a result of limiting its class sizes and maintaining two teachers per classroom for many of its courses, make the college particularly vulnerable to such recruitment problems (MIC Self-study Steering Committee, 2005). In response, the college has become more proactive in promoting its services at local high schools and to the public at large. This initiative has included the recent development of a continuing education programme to provide evening classes for members of the general public for the first time in the college history (MIC Accreditation Committee, 2008). To date, though, MIC has done little to promote its services internationally, citing as its main constraints the college’s lack of scholarship funds for international applicants, and its financial inability to compete with larger institutions that are better equipped to meet the typical curricular requirements of potential students from outside Japan (MIC Self-study Steering Committee, 2005).

## **2.6. Research rationale**

From its inception, MIC has been an educational experiment based on principles that have attempted to counter the prevailing educational norms of tertiary education in Japan (see section 2.2). The MIC accreditation team describes its role as ‘pioneering’ in the following terms:

In recent years well-known private and public universities have started to offer educational programs and policies similar to those of MIC. Their success testifies to the fact that MIC is a pioneer with an appropriate educational policy and ideal. (MIC Accreditation Committee, 2008, p. 37)

MIC’s use of team teaching, as one of the most visibly prominent features of its experimental character, has long attracted the attention of educators, administrators and journalists from outside the college. Team teachers at MIC are routinely asked by the college Office of Admissions and Public Relations to accommodate these types of classroom visitors, who often express an interest in observing team teaching proceedings first-hand. Stewart (1996) refers to the pioneering nature of MIC’s team teaching practice by identifying MIC as the first tertiary institution in Japan to implement interdisciplinary team teaching across the entire curriculum. Although other forms of team teaching are not uncommon in Japan, particularly under the auspices of the JET programme (see section 3.4), these forms are typically distinct from that practised at MIC in that they are: unidisciplinary (i.e., the team teaching of one subject only, English language, instead of integrating language with a subject discipline); applied at the pre-tertiary level of education; and limited to single courses instead of

representing a curriculum-wide initiative. MIC's team teaching, as a rare educational practice with the suggested potential to influence other institutions in Japan, invites the attention of researchers to investigate its properties and better understand its workings, with a view to considering how useful it may be as a potential model for further educational contexts. Indeed, with the growing trend for academics around the world to use English as their language of instruction, and the corresponding need for those academics to collaborate with EAP specialists in order to do so effectively (Hamp-Lyons, 2001), it is clear that the usefulness of understanding such collaborations extends well beyond Japan.

Within the first decade of MIC's existence, the college's unusual team teaching practice attracted the research interest of several of its faculty members, most notably Timothy Stewart, who authored or co-authored articles on the topic in MIC's in-house journal (Stewart, 1996) and in other journals from the TESOL literature across Asia, Europe and Canada (Perry & Stewart, 2005) (see also section 3.5). Some of the studies of team teaching at MIC in its early years by in-situ faculty tended to be anecdotal or simply self-reported descriptions. However, in other cases, particularly that of Perry and Stewart (2005), attempts were made to apply more objective research methodology to the subject and provide conceptual bases for the researchers' findings (see section 3.5). Yet at the time that the present research series was being conceived, most of these prior researchers had already departed from the college (the others were to depart soon afterwards), and all research into MIC's team teaching practice had come to a halt. This gap in ongoing research into team teaching at MIC suggested that there was a need to restart the investigative process and build on the original research findings from recent college history.

Another reason for re-establishing a research programme to investigate team teaching at MIC was concerned with timing. While prior team teaching researchers at MIC had conducted their studies within the early years of MIC's existence (and thus within the nascent years of the development of its team teaching practice), the opportunity to initiate the present research series arose in 2006. At this time, MIC had developed and sustained its own particular form of team teaching across the curriculum for a full 12 years from the time of its founding. It was considered that such a period had allowed sufficient time for any 'teething problems' to be resolved. In institutional terms, team teaching was well established at MIC, and many faculty members had accrued considerable first-hand experience of putting it into practice. The time seemed ripe for a researcher to take stock of team teaching at the college, and to take advantage of available team teaching faculty who could draw on the benefit of this experience to provide well-informed data.

Some MIC stakeholders, including faculty members, voice the opinion that team teaching is one of the college's strongest assets and a source of its distinctiveness in the marketplace for attracting potential students. However, as noted in section 2.5, the financial strain of maintaining such an expensive educational practice is a continuing problem. Even before the global financial downturn of 2008, the need for MIC to compete harder for dwindling numbers of potential students had prompted expressions of concern, and suggestions that team teaching was a luxury the college could no longer afford. For example, in 2005, a faculty member criticised the Dean of Faculty in writing for allowing classes to overload to 25 students or more in the projected teaching schedules of 2006, and proposed the partial

dismantling of team teaching in the curriculum as one possible means of increasing faculty availability to solve the problem (Name withheld, internal memo, November 11, 2005). Since there were legitimate financial reasons to suppose that MIC's long-established team teaching practice could be in danger of termination, it was considered possible that only a limited window of opportunity was available for any researcher to study it before it ceased to exist altogether. It was also considered possible that a research programme investigating team teaching could usefully inform any institutional policy decisions as to whether or not the team-taught curriculum should be dismantled in response to financial pressures. The advantage of information from such a source is that it could be shown to emanate from valid research findings rather than the political or personal considerations of specific stakeholders.

## **2.7. Summary**

In summary, the institutional context for this research series, MIC, is a small liberal arts college that, while based in Japan, is largely atypical of Japanese higher education. Its atypical features include the use of English as its language of instruction for nearly all courses, the high proportion of non-Japanese on faculty, its focus on internationalisation, and its mission to promote active learning. Also, MIC applies a uniquely collaborative teaching method for lower-division students across the curriculum, pairing content and language specialists to jointly design courses and teach together in the classroom, pursuing parallel subject and language teaching goals.

MIC advances an organisational culture that emphasizes shared governance and draws more than 80% of its faculty from a range of countries outside Japan, employed on fixed-term



contracts that are subject to review. Liberal arts subjects are taught, with a strong emphasis on providing students with English language support through team teaching and ESOL classes in the lower division, followed by a study abroad term to an English-speaking country in the students' fourth term. Upper-division students receive less language support but continue to attend classes in English, and are required to complete a senior thesis in English before graduation. Students are almost exclusively Japanese, primarily from the Kyushu region. In recent years, dwindling numbers of potential students have increased competition between Japanese institutions of higher education, leading MIC to promote its services more proactively and face more severe financial constraints.

The present research series was first proposed as an opportunity to investigate team teaching at MIC. This type of team teaching was considered an appropriate subject for study, as an early example of an educational practice that was potentially influential for other institutions in Japan, or in educational contexts elsewhere. In addition, though the research groundwork had been laid by previous faculty members, ongoing research into MIC's team teaching had ceased, and there was a need to restart this process and extend the findings of prior researchers at the college. The timing was considered fortuitous for doing so, since MIC had evolved beyond its formative years. By 2006, team teaching at MIC had become a well established institutional practice of twelve years' standing, producing team teachers who could draw on a greater depth of first-hand experience as research respondents than had been the case in the past. Finally, the potential threat of termination of team teaching at MIC for financial reasons added urgency to the need to study it while it was still available and gather

information based on valid research findings. Such information could be used to inform any institutional debate over the value and feasibility of sustaining team teaching in the future.

While team teaching at MIC is distinctive and experimental in the context of Japanese higher education, it can also be seen to represent one manifestation of a broader tradition of teacher collaborations in a range of educational institutions around the world. In the next chapter, I review the relevant professional literature for these different collaborations and situate MIC's team teaching within the context of that literature.

## **CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **3.1. Introduction**

Teacher collaboration, as an educational approach, has various definitions depending on the collaborators involved and the theoretical perspectives of the writers describing it. Broadly speaking, teacher collaboration might be defined as teachers working cooperatively on some aspect of the curriculum, be it design, planning, teaching, assessment or evaluation. The degree of collaboration is often conceptualised along a continuum. Team teaching typically falls at the 'high' (i.e., more strongly collaborative) end of this continuum, since collaboration outside the classroom is more common, and for many teachers, much less threatening, than sharing in-classroom teaching duties with a professional colleague (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Stewart, 2001). Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) divide the continuum into separate stages, namely 'cooperation', 'collaboration' and 'team teaching', and it is recommended that teachers in a non-collaborative context, who are attempting to implement better institutional cooperation between colleagues, pass through these as a kind of 'three-step' process to achieve team teaching as a pedagogical goal (Dudley-Evans, 2001).

However, 'team teaching' (or 'teaming') can be difficult to define as a concept. For example, in what Corin (1997) calls the 'four-handed' instructional mode of teaming, that is, when two partners teach as a single unit in the classroom by complementing each other's skills and abilities, it is often the case that one partner typically leads the delivery of in-class instruction, while the other plays a supporting role. Yet Sandholtz (2000) asserts that 'team teaching' may simply denote allocation of responsibilities between two teachers, or team planning with individual classroom instruction then occurring. For the purposes of this chapter, the term

‘team teaching’ will be used to denote two partners jointly teaching a group of learners in a single classroom, with this partnership being implemented according to any one of a number of different approaches. ‘Collaboration’ will be used in a broad sense, signifying two or more teachers working together on some aspect of the curriculum, which may or may not include team teaching.

In this chapter, I present an overview of the professional literature pertaining to teacher collaboration in different educational contexts. First, I review some of the readings and research initiatives concerning teacher collaboration from the field of education in general. Second, I review pertinent studies of teacher collaboration in the field of language education from various countries around the world. Next, I refine the focus of this review to the Japanese educational context, with specific reference to the type of team teaching that is commonly associated with the JET programme. Finally, I conclude by reviewing readings and research focussed specifically on the type of team teaching that is implemented in my own workplace, Miyazaki International College (MIC).

The broad review offered in this chapter underpins the literature review sections of Chapters 5 and 6, which focus on prior research findings of particular relevance to the studies reported. This chapter also relates directly to the ‘Research comparisons’ section of Chapter 8, in which I explain how my work fits into the context of the professional literature on teaching collaboration.

### **3.2. Teacher collaboration in general education**

In his assessment of teacher collaboration in general education prior to the 1990s, Thomas (1992) discussed a broad range of different forms of classroom collaboration. In addition to teacher teamwork, the author included the collaboration of teachers with other participating adults in the classroom, including teaching aides, educators for children with special needs, and even students' parents. Overall, however, his conclusions seemed surprisingly pessimistic, leading him to wonder if team teaching was worth the trouble and declaring, "The more I have looked at the question [of classroom teams], the more complex it has seemed to become" (Thomas, 1992, p. xi).

Thomas (1992) described how teamwork between teachers was promoted widely in the 1960s but that it was eventually abandoned in many institutions, citing the reason "that teamwork in classrooms is more difficult to achieve than many had anticipated" (Thomas, 1992, p. 1). He pointed to managerial confusion of the team teachers' responsibilities and lack of planning time for team teaching partners as likely causes of team teaching difficulty, claiming that teacher collaboration required extra investments of time and energy. Yet he identified most team teaching difficulties as personal in nature, including interpersonal stresses and tensions, differences of opinion and conflicts in team teachers' ideologies. From these observations, he recommended that a prime criterion for selection of team teaching partners was to minimise personality mismatches, and he inferred that "successful teaming rests not so much on top-down decisions as upon informal negotiations among team members" (Thomas, 1992, p. 198). In this respect, Thomas's (1992) conviction that top-down imposition of team teaching decisions is unhelpful for maintaining effective partnerships has resonated with the

conclusions of a number of other researchers of teacher collaboration since that time (e.g., Carless, 2006b; Sturman, 1992; Woo, 2003).

In contrast, when Eisen and Tisdell (2000) investigated the subject of teacher collaboration in general education the following decade, they showed greater enthusiasm for its pedagogical value. They also exemplified an emerging shift in attitudes by redefining the collaborative classroom to include the participation of its students as well as its teachers. Claiming that it “calls into question the notion of teacher as expert and learner as novice” (Eisen & Tisdell, 2000, p. 3), the authors identify team teaching as a reflection of the trend towards inclusion of different perspectives in the classroom, and call it “a vibrant model of collaboration that learners can emulate and even participate in” (Eisen & Tisdell, 2000, p. 1). This redefining of students as participants in the team teaching process has also emerged in the field of language education in Japan in recent years, and represents a change in how teacher collaboration is perceived and assessed by some researchers (see section 3.4).

Yet despite their differences in attitude, Eisen and Tisdell (2000), like Thomas (1992), tend to identify the interpersonal aspects of team teaching as crucial factors for its effective implementation. For example, Eisen (2000) claims that, in her experience of team teaching, “mutual trust and feeling comfortable together were essential” and both authors declare that “a foundation of trust and respect is integral to productive teamwork” (Tisdell & Eisen, 2000, p. 86). Indeed, the importance of the interpersonal relationship between the team teaching partners leads them to conclude that “all who engage in team teaching and learning or

collaborative work of any other kind must attend on some level to the relationship among collaborators” (Tisdell & Eisen, 2000, p. 84).

Given that the personal aspects of team teaching are considered so important, it is perhaps unsurprising that much of what is reported in the team teaching literature is derived from the authors’ own personal experiences of collaboration. Authors commonly use self-reporting to discuss their impressions of team teaching innovations introduced into their own classrooms, and how those innovations might prove instructive for other teachers who are considering experimenting with team teaching themselves. Self-reflections on lessons learned through personal experience are not unusual. For example, Tisdell and Eisen enjoyed a successful team teaching partnership together before jointly editing their book, *Team Teaching and Learning in Adult Education* (Eisen, 2000), and some of their observations are grounded in their own experiences of that partnership. Harris and Harvey (2000) too, in the same book, report on their first-hand experience of team teaching, claiming that “our experience of teaming in the classroom provides us with rich material and invaluable experience to help us become even more effective teachers” (p. 32). Though providing useful and practical information from personal experience, it is, of course, impossible to verify claims from anecdotal sources, as compared with conclusions supported by the application of rigorous research methodologies, and so such claims must be treated with a degree of caution.

Another pair of team teaching partners, George and Davis-Wiley (2000), report on their experience of collaborating in the teaching of a graduate course in clinical research for science educators at the University of Tennessee, USA. Although their report is largely based

on their own reflections, the authors supplement their claims by use of their students' responses to a questionnaire distributed alongside their institutional course evaluations. The authors devised the questionnaire to determine how the students felt about being team-taught, and how team teaching affected their understanding of the course content and work assigned. Since the authors had jointly constructed a rubric for assessing their students' work, and were concerned with the consistency of their assessments, they also asked the students how they felt about their collaborative assessment. All of their 32 students completed and returned the questionnaire.

The students' responses to their team-taught class were predominantly positive, with only three of the respondents expressing reservations about the course, mostly with regard to their uncertainty over two teachers grading their work. The positive comments were largely focussed on the benefits of students receiving more in-depth attention from two teachers, with greater opportunity to ask questions and establish a rapport with at least one of them. Using their own reflections and the students' responses, the authors provide a list of twelve recommendations for teachers entitled "What we learned about team teaching" (George & Davis-Wiley, 2000, p. 79). These recommendations tend to emphasize the importance of team teaching partners being consistent with each other and with their students, and making instructions clear. They also tell team teachers, "leave your ego at the door!" (George & Davis-Wiley, 2000, p. 79), advising them to respect their partners as equals and negotiate their differences outside the classroom instead of trying to upstage their colleagues in front of students.



Although their questionnaire data are helpful for supporting the authors' self-reflections, some criticism might be levelled at George and Davis-Wiley's (2000) procedures. It is not clear how the authors devised their questionnaire, and whether or not it was administered anonymously. Since all students returned the questionnaire, there is a question of whether students were free to respond in their own time, or were required to complete it in class in the presence of their teachers, perhaps influencing their responses. There is also no mention of whether students were able to add their own comments about team teaching to the questionnaire or were confined to answering the questions devised by their teachers. Nevertheless, George and Davis-Wiley's (2000) article is a useful addition to the literature concerned with team teaching at the university level, a research area which tends to be less explored than that of team teaching in secondary schools (see also section 3.4).

Another example of self-reporting on team teaching in the general education literature is Murata's (2002) case study of interdisciplinary teaming at Cactus High School, Arizona, USA. As is typical of a number of collaborative initiatives, team teaching was implemented experimentally at the school in the first instance, and evolved over time into a more extensive program that attracted the author's research interest. The author herself was a founder and participating team teacher in the programme. However, Murata (2002) did not confine herself to self-reflections from her personal experience, but applied more rigorous qualitative research methodology. She collected data from her own sophomore-level interdisciplinary team-taught course in English/Art over a period of four years, using journals, observations, interviews (audiotaped) and informal conversations with her partner (audiotaped and transcribed). In addition, since eight other teachers were participating in the teaming

programme, she collected field notes on the biannual meetings of the other teachers' teams over the course of one year. From these data, Murata (2002) attempted to discover which characteristics of team teaching were perceived as most powerful; if the benefits attributed to team teaching in the literature were consistent with her findings; and under what conditions team teaching could flourish.

Murata (2002) found the results of her research encouraging. She reports that team teaching fosters a sense of community among participating teachers, breaking down their feelings of isolation, and contributing to their professional development. She also extends this sense of community to team-taught students, claiming that interdisciplinary team teaching draws teachers and students together into a climate of shared values. Murata (2002) states that "by working together constructively, each team developed a synergy that fostered a classroom climate in which everyone – teachers and students – functioned as a unit" (p. 73). The author identifies trust between team teaching partners as "a critical ingredient for success" (Murata, 2002, p. 71) and attributes prime importance to team teaching partners sharing "essential beliefs about teachers' roles and attitudes, especially with regard to curriculum and instruction" (p. 73). She also talks of the need for partners to respect each other's differences, viewing those differences as complementary strengths that provide team teachers with the opportunity to learn from each other.

When considering the conditions needed for team teaching to flourish, Murata (2002) claims that it is essential for team teachers to have their own choice of partner and curriculum. She also notes that administrative support is necessary, with scheduling decisions taking into

account the extra planning time required to implement team teaching, and showing recognition that collaboration places greater pressure on teachers, potentially hastening teacher burnout.

Murata's (2002) action research provides very useful information regarding interdisciplinary teaming at the high school level, and makes good use of multiple data sources. The author also employs an effective respondent validation check by asking each team member to review her categories and provide feedback during the data coding stage of her analysis, thus improving the rigour of her research design. Her positive responses from participating teachers, though, should be balanced against the fact that all of the team teachers volunteered to participate in the programme, and thus are likely to have been well-disposed towards team teaching from the outset. Also, though the author uses the term 'team teaching', it should be noted that her model of teaming rates low on the collaborative continuum (see section 3.1). Team teachers planned their classes jointly but were not required to appear together in the same classroom at all times. In fact, the author reports that she and her partner only taught together "about 10% of the time" (Murata, 2002, p. 71). It is perhaps unsurprising in such a situation that the author emphasizes the need for team teachers to have sufficient planning time outside class, since this is where most of the actual collaboration of her experience occurred.

Teacher collaboration can occur in educational experiments that are initiated for general purposes. In other words, the initiators believe that a range of benefits are likely to ensue for teachers and students, as in Murata's (2002) case, where she and her partner began team

teaching “to improve practice” (p. 67). Yet it can also be used as a pedagogical tool for meeting a more specific need. For example, George and Davis-Wiley (2000), as professor and graduate student, turned to team teaching to address an unexpected staff shortage, collaborating on a three-section course that was originally divided among three professors. Team teaching is also perceived by some to be of benefit in non-mainstream educational contexts where the learners have specialised needs. One example of such a context is described by Shannon and Meath-Lang (1992).

Shannon and Meath-Lang (1992) interviewed 25 teachers with team teaching experience, particularly in cross-disciplinary programmes, at the National Institute for the Deaf, USA. Initially, the researchers piloted the interview process with each other before engaging their subjects in the same process. Each teacher participated in an interview of one to two hours in duration, in which he/she was encouraged to talk about partner choices, conflict resolution, inter-partner dialogue and characteristic behaviours and concerns. Interviewees were free to respond in detail and to talk about other aspects of team teaching that were important to them. Responses were transcribed and coded for content analysis to reveal recurring themes in the data. During the analysis stage, the researchers engaged 20 of the teachers in a respondent validation exercise to provide support for the validity of their themes.

Shannon and Meath-Lang (1992) point out that deaf students share some of the same issues as L2 language learners, such as competence in a first language or L1 (in this case, sign language) and similar levels of written proficiency. They also claim that many of the teaching methods employed by teachers of the deaf are derived from L2 teaching methodology, so that

one might expect that their conclusions would show consistency with those from team teaching researchers in the language education field. In fact, an examination of their findings reveals that this is often the case (see section 3.6).

Shannon and Meath-Lang (1992) conclude that interdisciplinary courses lend themselves particularly well to team teaching. They claim that having two teachers with different points of view in a single classroom encourages students to construct diverse dialogues, and raises awareness of connections across disciplines. However, they do temper these claims with the assertion that single-teacher instruction should not be abandoned in favour of team teaching, but that a balance of the two types of instruction is desirable.

By exploring the aspects of a successful team teaching experience, the authors identify four emerging themes from the data. First, a shared philosophy between teaching partners is necessary for a productive partnership. This theme centres on shared beliefs regarding pedagogical principles rather than similarities in teaching style. Second, team teaching provides the opportunity for professional reflection. Such reflection is perceived to be beneficial in promoting professional growth, encouraging critical thinking and improving listening skills. Third, team teaching builds ego strength by providing partner validation for one's professional competencies and yielding improved teaching practice through collective insights. The authors also note the need for flexibility between partners and condemn domineering behaviour from one partner over another. A further observation in relation to this theme is that, while some respondents assert that teacher conflicts should be dealt with outside the classroom, others point out that the sharing of diverse views could be helpful to students.

Fourth, team teaching is commonly described by teachers through relational metaphors, such as friendship or marriage. Such metaphors lead respondents to claim that mutual respect and trust are fundamental to a successful partnership.

Shannon and Meath-Lang (1992) make good use of qualitative research methodology and contribute important findings to the team teaching literature. One of the limitations of their study, which they identify in their conclusion, is that their data are drawn from teachers only. The authors call for further research to gather information about the perceptions of students with regard to teacher collaboration. They also warn that team teaching requires extra time to implement, and declare that administrative support is crucial to successful collaboration.

Another example of team teaching for students with special needs is described by Weiss and Lloyd (2003), who researched the teacher collaboration (which they call ‘co-teaching’) of six special educators for children with disabilities in the United States. In their case study, Weiss and Lloyd (2003) took a qualitative approach to their subject, collecting data from observational field notes, interviews and documents over a five-month period. All data were transcribed and coded for analysis and grounded theorising purposes. The researchers also used respondent validation checks and conducted weekly sessions to search for disconfirming evidence for their interpretations.

In their results, the authors found that subjects assumed different support roles at different levels of collaboration, depending on their “contextual conditions” (Weiss & Lloyd, 2003, p. 32). Although the special education teachers reported feeling under pressure to participate in

co-teaching from their peers, their institutions and the community, only one engaged in actual collaborative teaching as an equal partner in the classroom, as opposed to simply providing teaching support to the general education teachers. The authors use their findings to criticise the lack of administrative and institutional support for teachers in the implementation of appropriate co-teaching programmes. They emphasize the need for informed policy-making at the institutional level, based on professional literature, to avoid the problem of individual teachers developing an ‘ad hoc’ variety of co-teaching relationships that may or may not be of use to the specific needs of the students. In this respect, although coming from outside the field of language education specifically, these concerns tend to resonate with language teachers. For example, Nunan (1992) emphasizes the need for administrative support to implement team teaching successfully (see also section 3.6).

Another specific need that can be met through teacher collaboration is the need to provide student teachers with in-service training. In an extensive research project, Sandholtz (2000) explored team teaching initiated for the purpose of fostering the professional development of student teachers at the Comprehensive Teacher Education Institute in the University of California, Riverside, USA. The research was primarily focussed on the collaboration of four experienced teachers and four student teachers over the course of five years. Data were collected from questionnaires (using open and closed questions), teacher interviews, observations (audiotaped and transcribed), group discussions and document collection. Evaluation was formative in that, at the end of each year, changes were made to the team teaching programme in response to the research findings, and the research design was adapted to fit emerging categories of analysis. Sandholtz’s aim was to identify the benefits and

drawbacks of team teaching and identify its key areas, particularly in terms of its potential for fostering the teachers' professional development.

Sandholtz (2000) claims that team teaching is particularly effective when pairings are created across interdisciplinary lines, noting that interdisciplinary pairing increases the advantages of team teaching and decrease its disadvantages. She concludes that "the interdisciplinary element increased the amount of experimentation, collaboration and collegial analysis that occurred" (Sandholtz, 2000, p. 52). She also identifies the benefits of interdisciplinary team teaching for reducing the expert-novice distinction between partners and facilitating their distribution of equal roles and responsibilities. These benefits of the collaboration are believed to have enhanced the professional growth of student teachers and experienced teachers alike. It is also worth noting that Sandholtz (2000) emphasizes the importance of giving team teachers sufficient planning time and allowing them to participate voluntarily in collaboration with the partners of their choice, though she admits that guidance from supervisors is sometimes needed for teachers choosing partners outside their own disciplines.

As indicated for Murata, it should be pointed out that Sandholtz's (2000) concept of team teaching is not precise in terms of the collaborative continuum (see section 3.1), but covers a broad range of collaborative approaches that underwent changes as the teaching experiment progressed. In some cases, collaboration occurred only in the course planning stages, while in others, triads of teachers taught together in a single classroom. Sandholtz (2000) is also sometimes vague on the details of her project. For example, more detailed explanations of her data analysis might have been helpful. Nevertheless, these are minor criticisms of a very



instructive qualitative research project that made good use of multiple sources of data over an extensive period to support the researcher's conclusions. Although Sandholtz's (2000) research was conducted beyond the TESOL field, and confined to team teaching for professional development purposes only, it is evident that her conclusions are largely consistent with common research findings from language education (see section 3.6).

In the next section, I look more specifically at literature pertaining to collaboration research in the language classroom.

### **3.3. Teacher collaboration in language education**

A number of studies looking at teacher collaboration in the language classroom originated from the United States. One example is Bailey, Dale and Squire's chapter from Nunan's (1992) book *Collaborative language learning and teaching*, in which the authors reflect on their classroom experience and use their reflections to offer advice to prospective team teachers. Bailey, Dale and Squire (1992) base their conclusions on observations drawn from two different ESL team teaching situations. Two of the authors were partnered to teach an ESL class for non-native speakers enrolled as master's degree candidates in the fields of international management, translation and interpretation, or international policy studies, at the Monterey Institute of International Studies, USA. The teaching partners taught the course across three different semesters. The second team teaching context was that of the third author, who kept journals of his team teaching experience as a student teacher under the supervision of the first author. In this case, team teaching was applied in an eight-week multi-level ESL content course on learning styles, followed by an eight-week upper intermediate ESL content

course on learning strategies. In both situations, the student groups were heterogeneous, with most participating students from countries in Asia.

For much of their paper, Bailey et al. (1992) offer detailed descriptions of the collaborative processes applied in their team teaching situations. Teacher collaboration occurred at the stages of syllabus planning (including student needs assessment), materials selection, weekly lesson planning, in-class collaboration, student assessment, course evaluation and teacher evaluation. At various times, the participating teachers used a combination of in-class team taught instruction, or single-teacher instruction following collaborative planning. Based on these experiences, the authors make several claims about the benefits of collaboration. They point out that team teachers can be role models of interactive target language use, and that one partner can help clarify points to students who may still be confused after receiving instruction from the other partner. They note that group work in the team-taught classroom offers students more speaking opportunities, and provides more choice of teachers to consult to meet their specific learning needs. They claim that concurrent, split-class teaching allows team teachers to deliver the same instruction to two different groups of students in immediate succession, giving excellent opportunity for teacher reflection and improvement. They also argue that collaborative assessment is fairer for students than single teacher assessment because partners must make their assessment decisions explicit and justify them to one another. Finally, the authors note how partners can evaluate one of their lessons together, to aid professional development, and that collaboration is helpful for ‘coaching’ new teachers.

In the latter part of their paper, Bailey et al. (1992) introduce the results of a questionnaire that they administered to experienced team teachers at the Monterey Institute of International Studies, as well as two other institutions in the US and one in Japan. Sixty teachers responded to the survey, in which they were asked to think about a collaborative teaching experience they had had, and rate their agreement across a Likert scale with a range of claims regarding the benefits and drawbacks of team teaching. The questionnaire items focussed largely on how team teachers establish the most effective in-class interaction and how collaboration impacts on their professional development, with some mention of how team teaching impacts on lesson planning and the students' learning. The findings indicate strongest agreement for the claim that team teaching requires an "atmosphere of trust and mutual respect", and that problems can result from team teaching partners having "different goals" (Bailey et al., 1992, p. 177). Strongest disagreement was elicited for the item "team teaching didn't seem to work for my students" (Bailey et al., 1992, p. 177).

As with the Sandholtz (2000) paper, Bailey et al.'s (1992) study is evidently more rigorous than many of the older anecdotal treatments of team teaching in the language classroom (see section 3.4). The authors triangulate their observations with a teacher's journal notes and data drawn from a questionnaire-based survey of sixty teachers to support their claims, instead of simply relying on reflections from the authors' collective experience. However, the authors did not gather comparative data in the first instance and draw conclusions from their findings. Instead, they began their article with reflections and claims based on their memories and written experiences as team teachers, then presented their findings from a questionnaire "whose items were derived from the claims made in this chapter" (Bailey et al., 1992, p. 172).

In this respect, the content specifications of their questionnaire were necessarily limited by the authors' preconceived beliefs and conclusions. Bailey et al. (1992) themselves admit the limitations of their study, and do not make any claims that their data rigorously substantiate their claims, but only offer a degree of supportive evidence, carefully noting that they have no data to show the effect of teacher collaboration on their students' language proficiency. Calling their questionnaire findings "preliminary data", the authors state that "it is important to note that the reliability and validity of this instrument [the questionnaire] have not been established" (Bailey et al., 1992, pp. 166, 175). Essentially, the authors argue for the benefits of team teaching and present team teaching success strategies based on their experience and some of their exploratory research findings, but they conclude by highlighting the need for further research to document other teachers' experiences with collaborative teaching.

Another example of teacher collaboration in the United States is Kaufman and Brooks' (1996) article, which reports on a collaborative initiative in teacher education. Kaufman and Brooks (1996) focus on undergraduate and graduate students in two teacher education programmes for science and TESOL, offered by the State University of New York at Stony Brook. The authors used content-based language instruction (CBLI or CBI) research to develop joint interdisciplinary sessions between the two programmes. Initially, the collaboration was introduced experimentally, with two three-hour classes occurring twice a semester, but the positive responses from participants later precipitated its expansion to four classes per semester. The authors report that participating teachers employed a pedagogical approach in which they were encouraged to pose problems of emerging relevance to their students instead of focussing on decontextualised facts or skills. Teachers were to "structure lessons around

important concepts and ideas” (Kaufman & Brooks, 1996, p. 234), which teachers and students could then use to jointly search for new knowledge. Kaufman and Brooks (1996) emphasize the compatibility of this kind of collaboration between teachers and students with the collaborative integration of class participants from different programmes. The authors report that their TESOL-Science education collaborative experiment was designed for the purpose of encouraging teacher trainees to engage in similar interdisciplinary collaborations after they enter the profession, as a means of better meeting the needs of minority students from increasingly diverse linguistic populations.

In what is largely a descriptive report, Kaufman and Brooks (1996) describe the development of their collaborative initiative and offer reflective evaluations of its effectiveness in practice. To substantiate their evaluative claims, the authors draw information from videotaped classroom activities, trainee portfolios, trainee journals, trainee evaluations and correspondence from teachers and other stakeholders in the programmes, such as principals from graduates’ placement schools. Although they concede their inability to assess the long-term impact of the collaboration, the authors claim overwhelmingly positive results, including heightened motivation and enthusiasm as well as improved linguistic and academic achievement from the students of participating teacher trainees, and improved professional growth for teachers. They conclude by endorsing collaboration for future teacher training programmes, and reporting on the development of new collaborations between the TESOL and social science teacher training programmes at their university.

As an experiment in team teaching, the Kaufman and Brooks (1996) initiative stands at the lower end of the collaborative continuum (see section 3.1), with no more than four joint instructional sessions per term, and represents a weak version of the ‘adjunct’ approach to CBLI (see section 3.5), with its partial integration of existing language and content programmes. Also, although the authors used multiple sources of data to justify their claims, they did not undertake any systematic collection of data for analysis according to a specified research design. The participants tried out their collaborative experiment, keeping records of the experience, and the authors reported on the process after the event, reflecting on lessons learned. In this respect, the Kaufman and Brooks (1996) article tends to be more typical of the self-reflective type of team teaching report than a formal research study. In drawing from other sources of data beyond their reflections, it is a concern that the authors selected excerpts from journals and correspondences that support their claims for the positive benefits of collaboration, but offer no mention of any other views that might have been expressed. Similarly, the claims of improvements in student enthusiasm and academic progress are supported by written comments from the trainee teachers and other educators (but not the students themselves), who intuitively attribute these benefits to causation from the collaborative experiment. They do not appear to consider that other factors may have affected these outcomes. In short, though Kaufman and Brooks’ (1996) conclusions are of interest, they must be accepted cautiously, with reference to these limitations.

In another, very different kind of educational context, Wertheimer and Honigsfeld (2000) report on the collaborative initiative called ‘coteaching’ of classroom teachers and ESL specialists in their own public elementary school in inner-city New York. Calling their ongoing initiative a work in progress, the authors describe how teaching partners work

together to meet parallel content and language objectives for helping students with limited English proficiency. Initially, the teachers established a pilot program of coteaching, with partners collaboratively teaching one class of 10-15 students at each grade level. The pilot then expanded into a larger program of 'literacy teams', including school principals and other types of teachers, extending across the school district. Thus, the developed program was not confined to in-classroom pairings of teachers but represented teacher collaboration in its broadest sense, including collaborative curriculum planning and collaborative teacher training, with a 'team' representing variable numbers of participants.

Wertheimer and Honigsfeld (2000) attribute certain benefits to teacher collaboration. They note that interdisciplinary pairings relieve the ESL teacher of much of the burden of having to develop lesson materials pertaining to content. They also suggest that students learn faster and more efficiently from collaborative teaching models than from more traditional forms of instruction, claiming "we have evidence that our ESL students perform better on teacher-made and standardized tests than they did before we implemented our changes" (Wertheimer & Honigsfeld, 2000, p. 27). However, the details of this evidence are vague, and it raises the question of whether the perceived improvements are directly attributable to collaborative teaching, or whether other factors might have influenced these outcomes.

Wertheimer & Honigsfeld's (2000) type of collaboration is a useful experiment, and a welcome addition to the literature. Yet their article is fundamentally a descriptive report of their own school district procedures. Although they do contextualise their 'coteaching model' in terms of the professional literature, particularly with reference to Snow, Met and Genesee's

(1989) framework for content-based language instruction (CBLI), the authors do not apply a particular research methodology to investigate their model, other than reporting on its implementation and describing lessons learned from it. Though instructive, the authors do not support their claims of the benefits of teacher collaboration with research findings, so their conclusions must be accepted on these terms.

In addition to reports from Japan and the United States, studies of team teaching innovations in the language classroom can be found in a range of different national contexts. For example, one of the earlier examples of experiments in teacher collaboration was conducted in Singapore. The implementation of this experimental class, with which Dudley-Evans (1983; 1984) was involved at the time (although there is no specific mention of the role he played) resulted in his writing of two articles which are typical of the reflective, self-reporting character of older team teaching studies from the team teaching literature.

The class Dudley-Evans (1983; 1984) describes was part of an English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) programme for students in their final year of study at Ngee Ann Technical College, and was designed as a team-taught course with the intention of preparing students to use occupational English in the fields of building management and maintenance after graduation. Employing a collaborative approach where an English teacher was paired with a subject specialist, the teaching partners jointly constructed a task-based syllabus focussed primarily on writing tasks, posing authentic (or realistically hypothetical) occupational problems for students. In addition to collaborative materials writing, the team teaching partners jointly engaged in classroom instruction and the assessments of students' written



assignments. No mention is made of the number of students or teachers involved in the experiment overall, nor the duration of its implementation, although it can be inferred that the experiment was in its early stages from the author's observation that, at the time of writing, the students had not yet entered the occupations for which they were being trained.

Dudley-Evans draws a number of conclusions from the experience of implementing team teaching at Ngee Ann Technical College. He reports that the cooperation between language and subject teachers "has worked"; that "their different contributions have dovetailed well" (Dudley-Evans, 1984, p. 133); and that there were "few, if any, problems of conflict"; and that all individuals "got on well" (Dudley-Evans, 1983, p. 40). He emphasizes the importance of the fact that "they have worked together as equals, each aware of, and respecting the contribution of the other" (Dudley-Evans, 1983, p. 40; 1984, p. 133). The author also mentions the difficulty of 'untangling' language and content for overseas students doing content courses in English, and argues for the effectiveness of content-based team teaching in dealing with both language and content as integrated skills (Dudley-Evans, 1984, p. 132). He notes that content-based team teaching of English meets an important need for students who have yet to enter their occupations and thus who are unlikely to be able to assess their own communicative needs for occupational purposes (Dudley-Evans, 1984, p. 132). Finally, based on his experience with the project, Dudley-Evans makes recommendations to other teachers involved in similar experiments to maintain "close cooperation" between team teaching partners at all stages of the collaboration, including the establishment of aims, syllabus construction, classroom roles and the assessment of students' work (Dudley-Evans, 1984, pp. 132-133).

In his articles, Dudley-Evans (1983; 1984) initially presents descriptive reports of how team teaching was implemented at Ngee Ann Technical college. Although he uses the term ‘methodology’ to subtitle sections of his articles, these are not used to describe the methodology of a research study of the innovation itself, but of the task-based pedagogical approach employed by the team teachers in the classroom. After reporting how the team teaching project was implemented at Ngee Ann Technical College, Dudley-Evans presents “general considerations” (Dudley-Evans, 1984, p. 131) and recommendations to other practitioners engaged in teacher collaboration, though these are not conclusions derived from research findings.

In effect, the author establishes his credentials as an authority on team teaching by describing the implementation of a team teaching innovation with which he was involved, and uses this description as a point of departure to present his personal reflections and claims regarding the benefits that team teaching offers. Dudley-Evans (1983) generalises his conclusions to other contexts, when he argues that “our experience is of relevance to any teaching situation where students will enter jobs to which communication in English is vital” (p. 41), yet there are no research findings to support this claim, but only the author’s informed opinion on the subject. The author himself admits that it was too early to evaluate the Ngee Ann course fully at the time of writing (Dudley-Evans, 1983, p. 40; 1984, p. 133), and he claims to draw no definitive conclusions from its implementation overall.

In another example of team teaching innovations from beyond Japan and the U.S., Gottlieb (1994) looks at the team teaching of Japanese language classes in Australian universities. Like Dudley-Evans's (1983; 1984), Gottlieb's (1994) report offers an anecdotal treatment of its subject, "reflecting on the lessons learned during the author's sixteen years of experience with team teaching" (p. 186). Since the article tends to be a broad summary of the author's recommendations based on experience, there are few specifics. However, she does note that her experience is drawn from team teaching at two Australian universities. Her report is concerned with a 'sequential' approach to collaborative instruction, in which several teachers collaborate on planning a single course, but each member teaches his or her own component of the course via single teacher-instruction, one after the other. Although she uses the term 'team teaching', Gottlieb's approach might best be defined as collaborative, rather than team teaching per se. The author indicates that this approach is used in other universities throughout Australia, besides those of her own experience.

In the course of her paper, Gottlieb (1994) applies no formal research methodology, but selectively describes examples of team teaching classes from her own experience to illustrate her arguments. For example, "most courses in which I have participated have been taught by a three or four member teaching team" (Gottlieb, 1994, p. 187), or "an example of this kind of planning is the switch in teaching methodology undertaken in the late 1980s by the Japanese language teaching staff at my previous university" (p. 192). Reflecting on lessons learned, Gottlieb (1994) emphasizes the importance of coordination between team teachers, a clearly-written course manual, coherence in teaching methodologies, clear division of responsibilities, clear communication between team teachers, and the need to overcome problems of

overcrowding. The author uses these key points to underpin her advice on how a team taught course ought to be implemented. For example, “each team should be guided capably by a strong coordinator” (Gottlieb, 1994, p. 188); and “where a team has decided to adhere to a particular teaching methodology, it is essential that all members respect this in their classroom practices” (p. 191). At the end of the paper, she makes the concluding remarks that “experience has proven that team teaching has many benefits to offer” and “team teaching is here to stay” (Gottlieb, 1994, p. 199).

Clearly, advice from an experienced team teacher is of practical value. However, as a study in team teaching, Gottlieb’s (1994) paper is limited in the sense that it is fundamentally an extended discussion. The author selects examples from her team teaching experience to illustrate the claims she makes, but does not present research findings to support her conclusions.

In a different initiative based at the British Council Centre in Recife, Brazil, Edmundson and Fitzpatrick (1997) experimented with teacher collaboration as a catalyst for teacher development. The institutional context of Edmundson and Fitzpatrick’s (1997) collaborative experiment is described as “a specialised centre for English language teaching and learning” (p. 16), and the authors note that the course syllabus was negotiated with learners, with no set textbooks or internal tests. The students were typically professional adults preparing to leave Brazil to engage in training courses or programmes of higher education abroad, with English as the language of instruction.

In their article, the authors define ‘team teaching’ to be “[teachers] teaching as a team in the classroom” (Edmundson & Fitzpatrick, 1997, p. 16), and they note that this approach was applied extensively across the curriculum of their institution for two years, and involved all teachers and all classes. Citing financial reasons, the authors explain that, after this period, team teaching was restricted to larger classes and then eventually abandoned, though they do not mention the specific durations of these successive events. Overall, the authors report the implementation of a number of collaborative modes of teaching at their institution, including two partners team teaching a single group of students, two teachers combining their two respective student groups into a single classroom, two teachers swapping their respective student groups, and two teachers collaboratively engaging in lesson planning for single-instructor classes. Teachers were also encouraged to engage in joint evaluations of their classes, and a meeting was convened at the end of an unspecified semester for the two directors of studies and five participating teachers to reflect on their collaborative experiences.

In the course of their article, Edmundson and Fitzpatrick (1997) make a number of assertions regarding the effectiveness of teacher collaboration. They claim that teacher collaboration is beneficial for classroom instruction and lesson planning. They also assert that teacher collaboration ‘synchronises’ well with trends in ELT and action research that were current at the time of writing, and they claim that the broadening of teachers’ roles resulting from collaboration leads to improvements in the teachers’ critical self-awareness. They also declare that students benefit from seeing teachers collaborate in the classroom, and are encouraged to further their own cooperative efforts as a result. Furthermore, the authors conclude that collaboration offers teachers mutual support, improves teacher development and enhances the

relationship of trust between teachers and students. However, they do recognise some limitations of collaboration, namely the problems of overly large student groups in ‘combined’ classes, the difficulties of maintaining collaboration consistently over an extended period, and the danger of one team teaching partner trying to dominate the other.

Edmundson and Fitzpatrick’s (1997) experiment in teacher collaboration is a valuable contribution to the literature, since any sustained curriculum-wide collaboration in an institution for adult education is rare. However, it is evident from their article that the authors are presenting an interpretative self-report of their experiment without applying research methodology to test or validate their claims. They simply state their agreement with “the claims in favour of team teaching” (Edmundson & Fitzpatrick, 1997, p. 16) based on their readings and their own experiences with teacher collaboration. The authors themselves do identify a limitation of their collaborative experiment when they note that the decision to implement it was “taken intuitively, and there was little time to plan the innovation” (p. 16). After outlining claims for the benefits of team teaching derived from the literature, Edmundson and Fitzpatrick (1997) describe how they implemented collaborative teaching in their institution, and conclude by making their own claims based on the participating teachers’ retrospective opinions of what they believed their experiment demonstrated. Since their interest is largely confined to the effects of collaboration on teacher development, the authors focus their attention on teachers’ perceptions, and any alleged benefits of the collaborations are interpreted solely through the teachers’ own judgements.

In a different collaborative initiative from the United Arab Emirates, Bynom (2000) investigated the in-classroom collaboration of an English for Special Purposes (ESP) teacher with a content instructor for a one-semester CBLI-based university engineering course. The author notes that the institutional language of instruction for engineering is English, but that the students' prior studies in general English at university and high school level often do not provide them with adequate language skills to benefit fully from their engineering courses. For this reason, Bynom's (2000) study attempts to address the question of whether the CBLI team teaching approach under study could replace the university's specific ESP courses, meeting the students' content-based and language-based needs at the same time.

Bynom's (2000) study was focused on a single team-taught engineering course with 39 students, who were required to conduct research in five different topics in engineering, and produce written and oral reports for each topic. The team teachers conducted a needs analysis at the beginning of the semester, and used their results to identify which of the students' oral and written English skills needed to be developed in class by the ESP teacher. Bynom (2000), who participated as the ESP teacher in the course, reports that the team teachers adopted a 'turn-taking' approach in the classroom, with the content teacher typically delivering instruction related to the topic area to students at the beginning of a lesson, followed by the language teacher presenting the students with English skill-building activities to help them complete their research reports in the topic area. Data were gathered by asking the students to complete a questionnaire at the conclusion of the course, using a Likert scale to indicate the usefulness of the course in meeting the students' needs. In addition, Bynom (2000) supports his findings with anecdotal reports of changes in student perceptions of the ESP teacher as a

participant instead of a ‘visitor’ to the content classroom and increased numbers of student visits to the Language Support Service office outside lesson times.

Bynom (2000) reports that team teaching was a “positive experience for students and teachers” (p. 40), and claims improvements in the written and oral communication skills of most students. However, the questionnaire required the students to make personal judgements about perceived improvements in their own language abilities as a result of completing the course. It is not reported whether any objective attempt was made to assess the students’ actual learning outcomes according to specific criteria, in order to demonstrate measurable gains in student skills after course completion. Also, no explicit comparison is drawn between the team taught course and specific ESP courses taught by a single language instructor, which makes it difficult to see how the study addresses the author’s question of whether team teaching could replace the existing ESP approach. It seems likely that the researcher largely drew on his judgement and experience as the participating ESP team teacher for the course to present his claims for what it did and did not achieve.

Despite these criticisms, Bynom’s study is instructive in the sense that the author used his judgement and experience to draw conclusions about team teaching while also drawing on questionnaire data and other sources of information to lend support to his opinions. Also, Bynom gathered information about the students’ perspectives of the team-taught course, instead of confining his attention to the teachers’ perspectives, as is more typical of team teaching research.



Another atypical example of research investigating team teaching from the students' perspective is Lasagabaster and Sierra's (2005) study of students' perceptions of the native speaker teacher (NST)/non-native speaker teacher (NNST) debate. This study is not central to the literature of teacher collaboration, since its primary focus is the NST/NNST relationship. However, the team teaching relationship between NSTs and NNSTs is one component of the authors' study, and the students' opinions of team teaching figure prominently in their findings.

Situating their study in the context of Medgyes' (1994) research into NNST issues, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) question whether students show preferences for NST or NNST in general, at different educational levels, or in specific areas of language study. The authors collected data from 76 undergraduate students of English and Philology at a university in Spain, using a questionnaire which they developed with reference to the NST/NNST literature. The questionnaire required respondents to indicate agreement or disagreement with a range of statements on a Likert scale, and the authors used *t*-tests to statistically analyse the resulting data.

From their findings, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) report that their respondents showed a preference for the NST, but an even greater preference for having both an NST and an NNST teaching together in the same classroom, stating that "the most significant data have to do with the wide support of our sample for the team-teaching approach" (p. 35). The authors suggest that many of their respondents had experienced team teaching in private language schools and were aware of its advantages, hence their positive perceptions of it. This finding

leads the authors to recommend “including the team-teaching option in any questionnaire dealing with the NST versus NNST controversy” (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005, p. 32) and introducing team teaching into university classes in Spain, where team teaching is not common at the tertiary education level.

It is important to recognise the limitations of Lasagabaster and Sierra’s (2005) study, and the authors themselves point out that their data are limited to the perceptions of students, not teachers, and are confined to students of English and Philology. In addition, it is possible that these findings cannot be generalised widely beyond the Spanish educational context. However, the students’ positive perceptions of team teaching are strikingly prominent in Lasagabaster and Sierra’s (2005) data, and are supportive of findings from other student-oriented studies where teacher collaboration is central to the investigation (see section 3.6). In this respect, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005)’s study makes an instructive contribution to the team teaching literature.

In Asia, although much of the language team teaching literature is centred on Japan, with its major investment in the nationwide JET programme (see section 3.4), studies have also emerged in other national contexts. For example, as discussed earlier in this section, Dudley-Evans (1983; 1984) describes his experience of a team teaching experiment at a technical college in Singapore. Twenty years later, for his educational dissertation, Woo (2003) investigated team teaching in Korea and criticised the way it had been introduced into the education system without sufficient research to inform its implementation. In an attempt to redress this dearth of inquiry, Woo (2003) recorded the reflective dialogues of six Korean

language instructors with team teaching experience, then transcribed and coded the data to analyse emerging themes. From his findings, Woo (2003) concludes that team teaching is superior to single-language instruction, offering such benefits as complementary support for individual teachers' weaknesses and reducing the adverse impact of teacher absences. Yet he also identifies such disadvantages as the difficulties of evaluating or clarifying the responsibilities of individual teachers within a team, and maintaining teaching consistency across multiple instructors. He also emphasizes the point that the effectiveness of team teaching diminishes under a vertically imposed administrative system, and consequently argues for a fairer, horizontal structure of administration based on principles of professional cooperation, team autonomy and critical reflection.

As with Gottlieb's (1994) chapter, Woo's (2003) dissertation is another typical example of the retrospective self-reflections of experienced team teachers that are common to the literature. Yet his use of qualitative research methodology in collecting data from different respondents, and analysing them to identify recurrent themes, heightens the validity of his findings, and his conclusions are consistent with the common findings of researchers from other cultural contexts (see section 3.6). Although his respondents speak from past, rather than current, experience of team teaching, Woo's (2003) research contributes useful insights to existing knowledge of teacher collaboration.

Another team teaching researcher in the Asian region is Carless (2006a; 2006b), who has investigated teacher collaboration from a Hong Kong perspective and contributed prominently to the literature in recent years. In one study, Carless (2006a) explores collaborative EFL

teaching in Hong Kong primary schools between local English teachers (LETs) and imported native-speaking English teachers (NETs), to address the question of whether effective team teaching is possible with such young learners and to identify and analyse issues arising from the collaboration. Carless (2006a) collected data from questionnaires distributed to 47 local teachers; email or face-to-face interviews with twelve NETs, eight LETs and three other personnel involved in the collaboration; plus observations of six team-taught classes.

From his findings, Carless (2006a) notes that the NETs, and most LETs, claimed that team teaching had a positive impact on students. Communication problems between students and NETs were cited as a chief source of difficulty by those LETs not in full agreement. With regard to the professional development potential of team teaching, the findings were less conclusive, though some evidence emerged that LETs were considering and reflecting on new aspects of teaching to which they had been exposed. Carless (2006a) also identifies the time consuming nature of team teaching as a recurring theme among the LETs' responses.

However, in his final conclusions, Carless (2006a) declares that teacher collaboration "is having a generally positive impact on pupils and teachers" and makes particular note of the complementary benefits of team teaching for partners, "drawing out their respective strengths and minimizing their weaknesses" (p. 334). He also suggests that the primary school may be a particularly appropriate environment for teacher collaboration, and speculates on possible reasons, such as that LETs have more to gain linguistically through collaboration with NETs than secondary school teachers.

This study is a useful addition to the literature, providing insights into team teaching at a young learner level that is rarely investigated. The author clearly situates the collaborative Primary NET scheme (PNET) within its Hong Kong educational context, describing its evolution and objectives. Given the difficulty of eliciting useful data directly from the students themselves at this level, Carless (2006a) made good use of multiple data sources that were researcher-accessible, balancing survey-based and observational methods to collect triangulated data for his study.

In a more broad-based study, Carless (2006b) draws qualitative data from case studies of three different collaborative schemes across East Asia, in order to identify and summarise good team teaching practices common to all. Carless (2006b) focusses on the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) programme in Japan (see also section 3.4), the English Program in Korea (EPIK) and the Primary NET (PNET) scheme in Hong Kong. In each case, the collaboration scheme imports native-English speaking teachers (NESTs) from out of country to engage in collaborative EFL teaching with local teachers in pre-tertiary education. The author “draws on data from a wider study of NEST schemes in Japan, South Korea and Hong Kong, which involved e-mail or face to face interviews with 67 participants, supplemented by classroom observations and video recording” (Carless, 2006b, p. 343) for comparative purposes. He develops a framework for intercultural English teaching between NESTs and non-NESTs and then provides three case studies of good team teaching practice, representing each of the three schemes.

Carless (2006b) concedes a number of problems and limitations implicit in this type of team teaching. He identifies problem factors as lack of experience, training and support for participating teachers; intercultural unfamiliarity between partners; imposed participation on teachers and lack of partner choice; and poor curriculum integration. However, from his cases of good practice, he also summarises positive outcomes of collaboration “as a counterpoint to these challenges” (Carless, 2006b, p. 350). These include largely positive student responses to team teaching in terms of their increased enjoyment of lessons, improved opportunities to communicate in English and intercultural exposure to people of different nationalities. The author also reports that team teachers can role model dialogues for their students and provide them with a greater degree of support than single-teacher instruction, and that partners can complement each other by playing to their respective strengths. Finally, Carless (2006b) identifies a list of conditions for establishing intercultural team teaching most successfully, which are chiefly characterised by what he describes as the “interpersonal sensitivities” (p. 350) of the teaching partners. According to these conditions, successful team teaching partners must share similar philosophies or demonstrate a willingness to adapt to each other through mutual goodwill, for the sake of maintaining a harmonious relationship. They also must exhibit respect for each other’s differing views and practices.

The author provides clear descriptions and examples from the three case study subjects selected from his dataset. However, the details of other interviewees and observations constituting his data are outlined less precisely, and described as originating from an unreferenced wider study. Other limitations of his article are noted by the author himself when he states that his data cannot address “the extent to which the team teaching is leading

to improved student language performance” (Carless, 2006b, p. 349) and warning that generalisations are limited in being derived from small case study samples. It might be argued that the prime strength of Carless’s (2006b) article lies in its exploratory purpose in identifying commonalities between East Asian team teaching schemes that are usually studied in isolation. As the author points out, there is a dearth of research allowing the voices of team teachers to feature prominently, particularly in the cases of the EPIK and PNET collaborations. Overall, Carless’s (2006b) study draws together key associations between these teaching collaborations from different cultural contexts; contributes to the literature investigating the features and benefits of effective team teaching; and opens up new directions for intercultural research in this area.

In a closely related article from the same publication year, Carless and Walker (2006) restrict their focus to team teaching between NETs and LETs in Hong Kong secondary schools. For their analysis, the authors draw two case studies from their “own recent data collection, involving classroom observation and interviews in schools” (Carless & Walker, 2006, p. 463) (presumably utilising the same sources noted in Carless’s (2006b) previous article) and use findings from published literature. The authors analyse their data to explore the nature of the collaboration being team teaching partners and the impact of team teaching on teachers and students. They also draw from their own professional experiences as teachers and teacher educators when considering the wider implications of their findings.

Carless and Walker (2006) contextualise their study against an unpublished research report into the Hong Kong teacher collaboration scheme, conducted by Storey et al. (2001). But in

contrast, rather than attempting a comprehensive study using representative sampling, the authors restrict their scope to outlier cases of particularly positive collaborations. As with Carless's (2006b) previous article, the authors focus on good practice, providing the justification that this is "to provide a basis for ongoing improvement of collaboration between NETs and LETs" (Carless & Walker, 2006, p. 466).

From their findings, Carless and Walker (2006) draw a number of conclusions, reiterating some of the points made in Carless's other articles. The authors report that team teachers can role model dialogues for their students and provide them with a greater degree of support than single-teacher instruction. In addition, LETs are able to support NETs by exploiting the L1 for learning or logistical purposes. In terms of team teaching's impact on students, the authors report that the NET's L2 language skills can enrich the learning opportunities provided by the LET. They also note that the varied and authentic interactions of the two teachers heightened the students' motivation and engaged them at a higher intellectual level. The extra attention from two teachers was also perceived to facilitate students' on-task behaviour. In terms of team teaching's impact on teachers, participants claimed to have developed professionally from collaboration, learning new language and teaching skills from the experience and gaining a better understanding of students' needs. They also reported that collaboration produced attitudes of encouragement and support for L2 users. However, some tensions arose from the partners' differing viewpoints on educational practices, and it was noted that team teaching required extra sacrifices from teachers, particularly through increased workloads. In general, Carless and Walker (2006) express the belief that diversity between team teaching partners is an asset, but note that each must show empathy and sensitivity for their partner's



differing views. The authors conclude that good collaboration can showcase the team teachers' strengths and minimise their weaknesses.

It is important to remember that Carless and Walker's (2006) article is skewed towards the work of team teachers demonstrating good practice and exhibiting largely positive attitudes to collaboration. It is less likely to reveal problems emerging from mismatched pairings or unenthusiastic teachers. Nevertheless, their study sheds light on teacher collaboration from a part of Asia that has been underrepresented in the team teaching literature in recent years, and their findings are broadly consistent with many team teaching studies from other parts of the world (see section 3.6). As Carless (2006b) himself demonstrates, the collaborative initiatives from different parts of East Asia serve as instructive points of comparison with team teaching in Japan.

In the next section, I review the literature concerned with team teaching from the JET programme and from other educational contexts of Japan.

### **3.4. Japan and the JET programme**

A review of research into team teaching in the language classroom, particularly in the Japanese context, would not be complete without reference to the national Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) programme. The establishment of this programme in 1987 to improve international exchange and foreign language education in Japanese schools, and its subsequent rapid expansion, has led to an increasing number of studies into the kind of team teaching relationship that forms its central initiative. Administered by the Education Ministry

of Japan (MEXT) and local boards of education, one of the functions of the JET programme is to bring young graduates from English-speaking countries into Japan on short-term visas and place them into pre-tertiary educational institutions as assistant English teachers (AETs) (note that languages other than English are also represented, but will not be dealt with in this chapter). The AET is expected to team teach in the English classroom alongside one or more of the Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs) employed by the school, to improve the students' English learning and intercultural understanding (CLAIR, 2005). In the JET approach to team teaching, the partners are typically unequal in terms of classroom roles and qualifications, and often by age, as well as being distinct in terms of 'native-speaker' or 'non-native speaker' of the target language.

'Pre-departure' and 'post-arrival' orientation sessions are provided for new AETs travelling to Japan from their home countries. However, these are based at centralised locations and typically offer ministry guidelines for establishing relationships and working with JTEs, rather than furnishing formal educational training in how to team teach, such as through creating classroom simulations. This lack of comprehensive training, which McConnell (2000) explains was particularly acute in the early years of the programme, prompted the production of various books for providing JTEs and AETs with guidelines for effective collaboration. Minoru Wada, a senior curriculum specialist in high school education described by McConnell (2000) as the ministry's "point man" (p. 44) for the implementation of the JET scheme, co-authored one of the first of these books to be published in English. In the Brumby and Wada (1990) guide, the authors emphasize the key importance of team teachers clearly defining their classroom roles to each other in order to avoid conflicts of expectation.

Typically for team teaching literature produced in Japan in the early years of the JET programme, these types of guidebooks resemble what Perry and Stewart (2005) describe as ‘how-to’ manuals for prospective team teachers, rather than the presentation of findings from actual research into JET collaborations. Wada (1994) himself points out that JET team teaching “began without any form of pedagogic research to validate it as an effective educational innovation” (p. 15). More research-oriented literature did not start to emerge until later.

### **3.4.1. Early studies**

Although pre-dating the JET programme, one initiative in teacher collaboration in Japan was to form the basis for multiple articles and provide an early example for JET-style team teaching. In a cooperative venture between the British Council-administered Cambridge English School (CES) and the Koto Board of Education in Tokyo, Japan, team teaching was implemented between native speaker and non-native speaker teachers of English at 23 lower secondary schools in ‘Koto-ku’ (i.e., Koto ward) in 1985. The purpose of the initiative was to improve students’ communicative skills and confidence in using English, and to respond to pressures on the Japanese education system to demonstrate greater internationalisation. Sturman (1992) used this initiative, known widely as the ‘Koto-ku’ project, as the basis for a case study in teacher collaboration. At the time of his reporting, the Koto-ku project had reached its fifth year of implementation. In the seventh year of its implementation, Brogan (1994) also reported on his experiences with the project.

For the Koto-ku project, ESOL teachers from the CES visited the schools on a regular basis to work alongside the Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) in their regular classrooms. Sturman (1992) reports that, over a ten-week period during the term, JTE and CES teachers were required to deliver 15 team taught lessons to the JTEs' usual students, allowing at least one extra single-instructor lesson per week for JTEs to spend alone with their classes. A one-hour liaison meeting was held every two weeks for the two team teaching partners, and CES teachers held their own meetings every two weeks. In addition, a series of ten professional support workshops were implemented over the ten-week period at a central location in Koto ward, allowing participants to meet and discuss team teaching methodology and materials development. It should be noted that, although team teaching partners in the Koto-ku project were expected to work together, the essential inequality of their relationship is underlined by Sturman's (1992) comment that the CES teacher must always remember "that the class 'belongs' to the Japanese teacher" (p. 145), and by Brogan's (1994) assertion that "the term 'team teaching' suggests an equal partnership, however this kind of team teaching relationship is actually difficult to achieve" (p. 224).

In his paper, Brogan (1994) draws from his experiences with the Koto-ku project to offer anecdotal advice to other teachers. Although he makes no attempt to evaluate the project, he notes that plans were underway to extend it to other grades, so that it must, therefore, have been deemed useful by the British Council and the Koto Board of Education. In contrast, Sturman (1992) describes a comparatively extensive set of evaluative criteria for the Koto-ku project which were applied in an attempt to determine whether or not it was a successful initiative. The project evaluation included the following:

- At the end of the ten-week period, participating students were asked to complete questionnaires asking what they thought of the team taught lessons;
  - Participating CES and JTE teachers were also asked to complete questionnaires to elicit their reactions;
  - The board of education for Koto ward submitted an annual internal report on the project;
  - The CES management team also submitted a similar report from its perspective;
  - A final meeting was held for coordinators of both the CES and JTE teachers, in order to discuss issues regarding the project “that neither side wants to see on paper.”
- (Sturman, 1992, p. 155)

Sturman (1992) does qualify these criteria with the comment that “evaluation of the project has to be open-ended as performance objectives have not been rigidly defined and so ‘success’ or ‘failure’ are both highly subjective” (p. 155). Nevertheless, he reports that the project was “considered to be a qualified success in terms of its teaching aims and a great success in terms of international and personal cooperation” (Sturman, 1992, p. 141), and draws the final conclusion that “the Koto-ku project is a successful example of international cooperation in education” (Sturman, 1992, p. 160).

Sturman’s claims of the success of the Koto-ku project are open to question, and are not helped by his inclusion of statements about what constitutes effective team teaching, when it is unclear to what degree these claims are influenced by the project outcomes or simply

represent the author's preconceived beliefs. For example, he lists features which he says he believes to be "essential components of successful team teaching", namely "mutual personal and professional respect, adaptability and good humour" (Sturman, 1992, p. 145), but offers no evidential support for their importance. Of more relevance to the project outcomes is Sturman's (1992) claim that the "overall tone" (p. 158) of reactions to the initiative was positive, supported by his inclusion of a list of perceived advantages of team teaching, as drawn from the teachers' common questionnaire responses. The list of advantages includes comments that team teaching was interesting and useful to students, and a good opportunity to meet foreigners and experience foreign language communication firsthand. Yet some disadvantages were also identified, and these include comments that team teaching required more time and work for teachers to implement, and disagreement about how many team teaching lessons per week would be most effective.

Brogan (1994), also, expresses the opinion that a prominent disadvantage of the Koto-ku project is the extra time it demands of teachers. In addition, he observes that the project clearly demonstrates the importance of punctuality and regular lesson planning meetings between team teaching partners to reach agreement on how best to meet their joint course objectives. The positive benefits of the project that he identifies from his own experience are that teachers can present students with natural dialogues which they can emulate through pairwork; that it is easier for team teachers to monitor students; that the AET can be used as a 'language resource'; and that the administrative burden of the class can be reduced by team teachers sharing the load.

One problem with the internal evaluation of the Koto-ku project was that questionnaire administration was not standardised. Sturman (1992) offers examples of how participating schools instructed respondents to complete the student survey in at least five different ways, and even reports that several teachers created their own alternative questionnaires after expressing dissatisfaction with the ones they were given. In addition, it was not mandatory for schools to administer any of the questionnaires to students or teachers, and Sturman reports that there was some resistance to the project from participating JTEs, with resentment expressed that their institutions had imposed team teaching roles upon them, typically only two weeks before the commencement of the academic term. Under such conditions, it is likely that only those institutions with a positive attitude toward the project would have implemented any of the surveys, while the less willing participants remained silent. Indeed, Sturman (1992) himself admits “that schools where the team teaching has not gone well do not want to administer the questionnaire at all” (p. 157). Furthermore, Sturman notes that the questionnaire data were used to generate periodic reports which were distributed to all participating institutions to publicise which schools did ‘best’ or ‘worst’ against each questionnaire item, in an attempt to show comparative progress across institutions. Far from encouraging objectivity, as a guarantee of confidentiality would have done, such an action is more likely to have encouraged schools to put pressure on respondents to overstate favourable reactions in order to out-do their ‘rival’ schools, thus skewing the data in favour of team teaching.

In Brogan’s (1994) paper, the author expresses his hope that his experiences “may be of some use to team teachers working on other team teaching schemes around the country” (p. 217).

Sturman (1992), by comparison, appears to be more cautious about generalising his findings and, in light of the methodological weaknesses of its evaluation, it seems appropriate that he claims the Koto-ku project “is not meant to be a role model for other team teaching projects in Japan or elsewhere” (p. 160). Nevertheless, as a kind of precursor to the JET programme, the Koto-ku project findings resonate with the common concerns and issues that began emerging when team teaching was implemented on a grander scale in Japanese schools.

A pertinent example of how the JET style of team teaching exerted a broad influence in Japan is that of Katsura and Matsune (1994). In the introduction to their study, the authors look to the team teaching approach employed by JET programme participants at the primary and secondary levels of education in Japan, in which Japanese (non-native speaker) teachers of English (JTEs) are partnered with (native speaking) assistant English teachers (AETs). They observe that “this form of instruction is rarely found in university level English classrooms” (Katsura & Matsune, 1994, p. 178). In response to this situation, the authors established a pilot team teaching project modeled on the JET approach at Hokkai Gakuen University, using four instructors in two team teaching partnerships, each comprised of a Japanese Teacher of English (JTE) and a Native English Teacher (NET). However, it is evident that the native speaker partners in this project were faculty members and professional teachers of English, rather than the non-professional teaching assistants (AETs) typically employed for the JET programme.

Katsura and Matsune’s (1994) pilot team teaching project was implemented across two classes of weekly English conversation lessons over a duration of two years. The authors



report that participating team teaching partners shared equal status and responsibility for lesson preparation, instruction and assessment, and that they were expected to co-ordinate lesson plans every week. Team teaching was implemented on a rotational basis, with one instructor typically joining the students' regular teacher in the classroom every other week, following a week of single-teacher instruction. The joint teaching sessions varied in instructional delivery. A 'turn-taking' approach was used for one type of joint session, during which each partner would claim half the lesson time for leading his or her own instructional segment. For the other type of joint session, the instructors team taught a 'combined lesson', bringing together both teachers and both student groups into a single classroom. Katsura and Matsune (1994) report that these two types of joint teaching typically alternated fortnightly, so that actual collaborative instruction from two teachers in the classroom tended to occur only once a month. Furthermore, the 'combined lesson' was abandoned after the first year of the course, "based on comments from the students and classroom logistics" (Katsura & Matsune, 1994, p. 180), and the project modified so that, in the new fortnightly joint sessions, the students' non-regular teacher appeared as a 'guest teacher' for one, and the two partners implemented 'turn-taking' instruction for the other. Therefore, in terms of instructional delivery, this project actually represents a lower-level application of team teaching on the collaborative continuum (see section 3.1) than that of the JET programme on which it was modelled.

Katsura and Matsune (1994) drew the conclusions from their project that their team teaching was successful in role modelling English as a medium of communication to students, and stimulating their interest in language and intercultural differences. These conclusions were

based on a student questionnaire administered at the completion of the course, together with videotapes of structured student-pair conversations recorded at the end of semester. The authors also mention making use of “additional comments” (Katsura & Matsune, 1994. p. 184) from students, presumably on an informal basis.

It is evident that the authors’ claims for the success of their project are derived as much from their professional judgements as teachers as from verifiable findings. For example, they offer no support for their claims to have observed successful verbal interactions between students at the end of semester, such as student assessment data. The authors themselves admit that their data were “subjective” (Katsura & Matsune, 1994, p. 185). In addition, there are problems with the validity of their questionnaire items. For example, the authors conflate the terms ‘useful’ and ‘interesting’ in three of their response items, effectively asking students to answer two questions at once. Also, the questionnaire makes no distinction between the students’ satisfaction with team teaching and the overall course itself, much of which, as has been noted, was delivered through single-teacher instruction.

In short, Katsura and Matsune’s (1994) chapter represents an important early foray into the researching of team teaching at a Japanese university. Yet the authors’ methods and claims were problematic and open to question. More rigorous follow-up research was needed to develop a better substantiated body of knowledge in this area.

### **3.4.2. The Tajino studies**

From the mid-1990's onwards, the literature of Japan reflected the growing tendency among educators to move away from the anecdotal or self-reporting type of writing, and apply more rigorous research methodologies to investigate team teaching. They also stopped restricting their scope to the teachers and began showing a wider recognition of the importance of other institutional participants. A prominent example of this change is Tajino and Walker's (1998) survey-based study of team teaching at a senior prefectural high school in Osaka.

Tajino and Walker (1998) acknowledge the inherent inequality between team teaching partners in Japanese secondary schools, due to the disparity in teaching qualifications and experience between the JTE and AET. Given this inequality, the authors pose the question of what roles the team teachers are expected to take, and develop a questionnaire to investigate student expectations of the roles of the JTE and the AET in the team taught classroom. While it is not made clear exactly what procedures were followed to create their questionnaire, the authors do note that "a number of questions in the questionnaire were made on the basis of the findings or suggestions made in other related studies" (Tajino & Walker, 1998, p. 118), citing Manto (1988) and Shimaoka and Yashiro (1990). The questionnaire comprised 21 'closed' questions in Japanese, using a Likert scale to indicate level of agreement. Questionnaires were distributed to 151 students at the high school, under conditions of anonymity in the classroom. All respondents were enrolled in an international cultural studies course and had taken at least two team taught classes per week for one to two years. In addition, nine of the school's experienced team teachers, comprising seven JTEs and two AETs, were asked to predict what the students' responses to the questionnaire would be.

Tajino and Walker (1998) conclude from the responses that, overall, students tend to have positive perceptions of team teaching, although some expressed the reservation that they rarely speak with the AET in the classroom (the questionnaire did not allow them to explain why this was the case). Also, about two-thirds of the student responses indicated that the JTE would not be needed in the classroom if the AET could speak Japanese well, but few indicated that the AET would not be needed if the JTE spoke English well. Using Spearman's rank order correlation method, the authors analysed the questionnaire responses and showed to what degree respondents consider specific classroom roles important for JTEs or AETs in the team taught classroom. The analysis revealed that students place higher expectation on the JTE for teaching grammar-based skills, and on the AET for teaching oral skills. Finally, when the teachers' predictions of the student responses were compared with the student data, it was revealed that teachers expect the students to perceive a more highly polarised distinction between the team teachers' roles than the students actually did.

The authors themselves make their research design limitations explicit, noting that the respondents were confined to a single school, that no follow-up data were collected and that the questionnaire comprised 'closed' questions only, which "limited the range of responses the participants might have made" (Tajino & Walker, 1998, p. 124). One other point that might be raised is that there seems to be room for other implications to follow from the data beyond those advocated by the authors. For example, since one of their findings is that two-thirds of the participating students believe the JTE is dispensable if the AET speaks Japanese, the authors use this finding as evidential support for Kumabe's (1996) claim that the JTE is

too often perceived as an interpreter and the AET as a ‘human tape recorder’ in the team taught classroom. As a means of resolving the problem, they advocate their ‘team learning’ approach to team teaching, which proposes the creation of better learning opportunities for all classroom participants by redesigning their roles so that students can become integrated into the teachers’ collaborative relationship. Though undoubtedly a constructive proposal, it might also be argued that other options exist for addressing the problem, such as establishing focussed discussion sessions between students and the AET to create more speaking opportunities; or creating activities to raise the students’ awareness of the JTE’s status as an experienced learner of ESOL who was once in the students’ position, and who can help them in ways the (native-speaking) AET cannot. However, minor criticisms notwithstanding, Tajino and Walker’s (1998) study compares favourably with prior research of this type in terms of its methodological rigour. It is a valuable addition to the literature on JET-style team teaching, particularly due to its subject focus on a participant group that was largely underrepresented at the time of the study.

Following the Tajino and Walker (1998) study, Tajino continued calling for a reformulation of the dynamics of team teaching to increase the participation of the students. For example, in Tajino and Tajino (2000), the authors review the previous decade’s team teaching practices and discuss the different roles that NESTs and non-NESTs play in a team teaching partnership. The authors suggest that a team teaching relationship in which each teaching partner produces separate ‘solo’ performances is a ‘weak’ version of collaboration. They propose that a ‘strong’ version encompasses more collaboration between the partners, and that this collaboration can be extended to include all classroom participants, instead of restricting

interaction to the teachers. The authors conceptualise classroom interactions in terms of ‘team patterns’ which integrate students and teachers in various permutations. Again, Tajino refers to his ‘team learning’ approach in calling for teachers and students of the team-taught classroom to work together in a single collaborative dynamic to improve their communicative competence, so that all participants can become teachers or learners. Yet Tajino and Tajino (2000) are careful to note that other team patterns are possible in the collaborative classroom, and “may be better suited to other tasks, contexts, and purposes” (p. 10).

In a related study, Tajino (2002) explores interpersonal issues between the NEST and the non-NEST in the JET team teaching partnership. Confining his focus to the JTE’s expectations of the AET that commonly go unexpressed, the author conducted a short survey of 20 junior high school teachers and presents a case study of views from five of the respondents. Respondents were required to complete sentences to express their opinions of what occurs in the team-taught (and non-team-taught) English class. Noting that Japanese teachers often follow cultural norms by withholding their true feelings in response to a direct question, Tajino (2002) used Checkland and Scholes’s (1999) ‘Soft Systems Methodology’ (SSM), a humanistic problem-solving approach to managing organisational change, as a means of analysing the data for evidence of emergent problems that could arise between team teaching partners. From his data, Tajino (2002) claims that the JTE’s expectation of the AET’s role may include social as well as pedagogical aspects, and that JTEs may regard AETs as guests rather than teaching partners, which is likely to conflict with AETs’ role expectations. The author proposes that SSM can aid in explicating the sources of such conflict, so that they can be improved.

Tajino's (2002) study is highly exploratory, representing a first attempt to apply a business management research methodology to team teaching, and shed some light on teachers' unexpressed opinions. Tajino's (2002) focus is limited to JTEs, and he notes that his subjects were drawn from a convenience sampling under time constraints. He therefore declares that future research should involve the AET and include data collected by alternative methods. Taken as a first step in applying an unusual methodology to explore the NEST/non-NEST teaching partnership of the JET programme, the strength of Tajino's (2002) study lies in its potential for opening up new perspectives in this area.

### **3.4.3. The Miyazato studies**

At about the same time that Tajino and Walker (1998) were conducting their studies, early work was being conducted by Miyazato, a researcher who would become prominent in the team teaching literature of Japan from the end of the 1990's. At the 1999 Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) conference, Miyazato (1999) reported her findings after conducting in-depth interviews with 14 teachers with current or previous experience of university-level team teaching of English by NESTs and non-NESTs. Encouraging reflective and in-depth responses, the researcher tape-recorded the data and identified multiple recurring themes. Miyazato (1999) listed ten specific advantages to team teaching, including the advantage of students' exposure to diverse viewpoints; and nine disadvantages, including increased workload and poorly-defined responsibilities for team teaching partners. It is also worth noting that Miyazato (1999) reports respondents using the terms 'respect' and 'flexibility' as key words for successful team teaching.

However, in her conclusion, Miyazato (1999) observed that only one of the disadvantages she had identified ('Student reliance on JTEs'), related to students of the team-taught classroom, while the rest impacted on teachers only. These findings, and the overwhelming popularity of team teaching among students expressed in feedback from her own team-taught classes, led Miyazato (1999) to call for further research into team teaching from the students' perspective. Miyazato (2001) herself then interviewed 18 university students to investigate their perceptions of team teaching in more detail. Six first-year participants were randomly drawn from each of the three language proficiency levels (beginner, intermediate, advanced) at a Japanese university, all having experienced team teaching in their cross-cultural and English classes over the academic year. Miyazato (2001) reports that 16 of the 18 respondents preferred team teaching to single-teacher instruction. She also reports that team teaching is instrumental in reducing learners' anxieties in L2 learning, particularly at higher proficiency levels, though some respondents indicated that they would prefer to change to single teacher instruction upon attaining sufficiently advanced proficiency in their L2, suggesting that these learners perceived team teaching as a stepping stone they could eventually progress beyond. That is, they believed they should eventually become single teachers in their own classrooms, because team teaching was for them a teacher training exercise. In addition, though admitting the limitations of using self-reported data, Miyazato (2001) tentatively claims that the team teaching of cross-cultural studies heightens learners' intrinsic motivation.

Within the limitations of a small-scale research project, Miyazato's (2001) findings are pertinent contributions to the literature, both in terms of investigating team teaching at the



tertiary educational level, and by exploring the students' perspectives. However, although continuing to research team teaching in Japan, Miyazato was to shift her research focus in later years to the relationship between team teaching partners, particularly with respect to their distributions of power.

At the 2006 JALT conference, Miyazato (2006a) reported the findings of her case study into the partnership between JTE and AET at a Japanese high school, for which she had videotaped the teachers' in-class interactions. Miyazato (2006a) concluded from her data that the JTE demonstrated 'hidden power' as mediator, code-switching into multiple roles to support the AET's classroom interactions. By keeping this power covert, the author suggests that the team teachers' interactions were perpetuating the fallacy of native-speaker supremacy in the language classroom, while masking the realities of the partners' in-class roles and responsibilities. As the author herself admitted (K. Miyazato, personal communication, November 5, 2006), this case study was very limited in being confined to observational data drawn from a single lesson taught by one teaching pair. For example, the JTE was female and the AET was male, and the researcher had not taken cultural gender roles into account that may have influenced the teachers' in-class interactions. However, Miyazato's (2006a) data in this instance were consistent with a more rigorous research project the author had undertaken in investigating team teaching partnerships at three different high schools in Japan.

For her doctoral research, Miyazato (2006b) implemented a case study of three JET team teaching partnerships based at three public senior high schools in the Kanto District. Over a six-month period, the researcher used fieldnotes to record bimonthly observations of the

participants' team teaching in their classrooms, and conducted unstructured interviews with each teacher individually in his or her native language outside the classroom. Additional data were collected from small group interviews with students from the team taught classes and individual interviews with several educational administrators, including the JET programme specialist, Minoru Wada. Supplemental data were collected through the researcher's observations of a JET seminar for team teachers, and analyses of a variety of texts concerning JET program operations, including government-issued JET program documents, *JET Journal* articles, AET speeches and contractual papers.

Miyazato (2006b) concludes that problems emerge in JET team teaching because of the difficulty of JTEs and AETs sharing power equally. In the division between NESTs and non-NESTs, one partner has a language-based advantage while the other has a cultural and professional advantage, and participants face many challenges in overcoming their own disadvantages. Miyazato (2006b) claims that the JET program encourages team teachers to perpetuate a 'native-speaker fallacy' at the expense of the JTE and a 'native culture expert fallacy' at the expense of the AET, both of which discourage linguistic or cultural novices from increasing their participation in the partnership. Miyazato (2006b) concludes that team teaching relies on "complex interpersonal relationships [that] cannot be fully explained by a mechanical analysis" (p. 222), and recommends that team teachers try to share power on as equal level as possible by "respecting each other's strengths and compensating for each other's weaknesses through cooperation" (p. 225).

A potential weakness of Miyazato's (2006b) is that she shows a tendency to over-generalise her arguments. For example, from her research into team teaching confined to a single tertiary institution, she claims that native speaker/non-native speaker issues are causing "a power struggle in university team teaching settings" (Miyazato, 2006b, p. 34). Nevertheless, for her high school case study, Miyazato (2006b) draws extensively from the literature and problematises her assumptions to identify the limitations of her research design. She also triangulates data from a wide variety of primary and supplemental sources to strengthen the internal validity of her analysis. In short, Miyazato's (2006b) study is likely to offer the most rigorous insights into power sharing between JTEs and AETs currently available in the team teaching literature.

#### **3.4.4. Other recent studies**

A number of team teaching studies from researchers other than Tajino and Miyazato emerged in Japan in the 2000s. For example, Kachi and Choon-hwa (2001) explored the experiences and beliefs of team teachers involved in the JET programme. Drawing from the literature and their own professional experiences, the authors developed a series of open-ended interview questions to examine team teachers' pre-service training experiences, their experiences of team teaching itself, their identification of specific problems in these areas, and their suggestions for improvement. The researchers then interviewed two JTEs and three American AETs. All participants worked at different schools and were selected on the basis of supervisor recommendations. The researchers' interviews were conducted via email, fax or face to face, in the first language of each respondent.

Kachi and Choon-hwa (2001) identify a number of common responses in their findings. While the JTEs reported having no special training for team teaching, the AETs all reported having had some form of 'hands-on' training prior to working as JET programme participants, although it was noted that the sole AET with prior experience of teaching in Japan believed that his training had not prepared him for collaborative teaching, in contrast to the views of the other AETs. The AETs reported that their training had been primarily focussed on acculturation to Japanese society and practices, with "bits and pieces of advice" (Kachi & Choon-hwa, 2001, p. 7) included about how to team teach. All respondents indicated that the success of their team teaching depended on the characteristics of the partners with whom they were required to collaborate, and on their institutional support. There was unanimous condemnation of the fact that team teachers were given "no channel to access the upper educational administration" (Kachi & Choon-hwa, 2001, p. 14) for team teaching support. Other concerns expressed were focussed on perceptions of the JTEs' lack of English proficiency, the AETs' lack of professional knowledge, and the need for all team teachers to be provided with ongoing training in collaborative methodology and classroom management. Participants were also critical of their institutions for not recognising that team teaching requires more preparation time than single-teacher instruction. In response to their findings, Kachi and Choon-hwa (2001) make several suggestions for improvement, advocating higher priorities for pre-service and in-service teacher training and for improving the educational qualifications of AETs and English proficiency levels of JTEs.

There are some problems with Kachi and Choon-hwa's (2001) research design. Though they claim that their findings "are applicable to similar contexts, such as in Korea" (Kachi &

Choon-hwa, 2001, abstract), the small size of their participant group casts doubt on the generalisability of their findings. The fact that only one of the participants was male and all were selected through supervisor recommendations rather than representative sampling, is also problematic in this regard. In addition, though claiming to have ‘interviewed’ all their participants, the authors actually collected data from some participants by use of questionnaires over a distance, and from others by use of face-to-face interviewing, which raises the question of whether the data were elicited consistently from all participants. In short, though making a useful contribution to the team teaching literature, Kachi and Choon-hwa’s (2001) findings must be interpreted with some degree of caution.

Another researcher from the 2000s implemented an atypically extensive study of a large group of team teachers in Japanese educational contexts. In this case, Gorsuch (2002) surveyed 884 full-time Japanese EFL teachers in high schools from nine randomly selected prefectures of Japan, including public and private institutions, and both co-educational and single-sex schools. The author used a questionnaire to investigate the self-perceptions of Japanese high school teachers of English, and how these self-perceptions might be affected by regular contact with AETs as team teaching partners. Gorsuch’s (2002) questionnaire was designed to address five research questions. Two of these were concerned with the degree of regular collaborative contact the participants had with AETs in their workplaces, and with patterns of AET distribution according to type of school. The remaining questions dealt with the JTEs’ perceptions of their own English speaking abilities and English learning experiences, and their degree of approval for three different ELT approaches, communicative (CLT), audio-lingual (ALM) and “yakudoku” or text-translation (Gorsuch, 2002, p. 11).

Gorsuch (2002) reports that her questionnaire items were developed according to an extensive literature review drawn from her own doctoral dissertation (Gorsuch, 1999), and a pilot questionnaire that had been administered to 500 Japanese EFL teachers in Tokyo five years earlier. The questionnaire was administered in a back-translated Japanese version that required participants to indicate their agreement on a Likert scale. For the section of the questionnaire dealing with the three different ELT approaches, Gorsuch (2002) included only items which were selected unanimously as representative of any given approach by a panel of eight experienced language educators, and were supported by factor analysis findings from the pilot questionnaire. Once data had been collected, the researcher employed several statistical tools to test the various sections of the questionnaire for significant differences between the response items according to degree of AET contact, including the chi-square test, a one-way ANOVA procedure and the Scheffé test.

The findings from Gorsuch's (2002) study suggest an unequal distribution of AETs across schools, with placements indicating higher distribution for public and vocational high schools, and lower distribution for private academic high schools, than would be accounted for by chance alone. With regard to JTEs' self-perceptions, JTEs who reported team teaching with an AET at least once a week rated their English speaking abilities in the classroom to be significantly better than did JTEs with little or no AET collaboration, and JTEs with extensive AET collaboration showed significantly greater approval for CLT approaches than the JTEs with little or no AET collaboration. Also, Gorsuch's (2002) findings did suggest some tendency for JTEs with extensive AET collaboration to disagree with the idea that they had learned English through the 'yakudoku' text-translation method. From these findings,

Gorsuch (2002) argues that collaboration with AETs is having a positive effect on JTEs in Japanese high schools, with the AET's presence providing an informal type of in-service teacher training that leads to personal and professional growth among participating JTEs. Gorsuch (2002) concludes by encouraging a more consistent distribution of AETs across English classes in Japanese high schools, and for schools to make better use of the AET's potential.

There are clear limitations to Gorsuch's (2002) research design. Her data are confined to JTEs' self-perceptions only, and, as the author herself admits, follow-up interviews and a longitudinal study are needed to substantiate a number of her conclusions. It might also be argued that Gorsuch (2002) is overly disposed to attribute a causal relationship between AET collaboration and changes in JTE attitudes by citing the literature and appealing to "common sense" (Gorsuch, 2002, p. 22), despite her admission that the question of causality was not answered directly by her own findings. However, with its use of primarily quantitative methodology for data analysis, and unusually large sample size, Gorsuch's (2002) study is an informative supplement to the more qualitatively-oriented studies of team teaching available in the literature.

In another study of JET team teaching that makes use of large sample groups, Mahoney (2004) investigated JTE's and AET's perceptions of team teacher's roles. Taking advantage of a Ministry of Education questionnaire distributed to team teachers at 2000 schools in Japan, Mahoney (2004) isolated responses to a single item for his data collection from the respondent group of 431 AETs and 971 JTEs. The questionnaire item required respondents to

give open-ended descriptions of the JTE and AET's roles in team teaching, and responses were categorised by six raters, with interrater correlation rates exceeding 96%. Mahoney (2004) then ranked the ten most prominent categories of response for each set of perceptions.

From his findings, Mahoney (2004) discovered that the most common perception of the JTE's role among JTEs was as 'explainer' or 'intermediator', while AETs most commonly perceived the JTE as the provider of translation. JTEs most commonly perceived the AET's role to be a 'demonstrator' or informant of authentic English culture, while AETs perceived their prime role to be pronunciation model and a means for students to engage in English conversation. Though JTEs and AETs showed some degree of consensus in his findings, Mahoney (2004) identified prominent differences. For example, JTEs and AETs show striking differences in their perceptions of appropriate power distribution in a team teaching partnership, and in their expectations for student-teacher relations. Mahoney (2004) concludes that team teaching conflicts arise between JTEs and AETs as a result of differences in their perceptions of team teachers' roles, and that this is partly attributable to the lack of official ministry directives regarding roles being made available to JET participants. He also points out that one of the respondents' prime concerns was the lack of planning time made available by the schools to implement team teaching effectively.

In response to his findings, Mahoney (2004) calls for more discussion among team teaching partners of their role expectations before working together, and suggests that large-scale questionnaire research should be conducted on a regular basis to inform decision-makers of the changing needs of JET programme participants. Although Mahoney's (2004) conclusions



may not be particularly original, they are useful in providing extensive support for similar conclusions reached by other team teaching researchers. A key strength of his research design is that few studies have collected data from such a large representative sample of JET team teachers, allowing well-substantiated ranked categories of their role perceptions to emerge.

Adopting a smaller-scale approach than Mahoney (2004), but also investigating team teacher roles in the classroom, Aline and Hosoda (2006) conducted an observational study of team teaching two years later. As with Carless in Hong Kong (2006a), Aline and Hosoda (2006) had noticed the paucity of research into team teaching at the pre-secondary school level, and attempted to address this deficiency by studying six different team-taught English classes in five randomly-selected elementary schools in Japan. Over a 14-month period, the researchers collected data by video- and audio-taping classes; interviewing teachers, curriculum designers and principals; and gathering course materials. Data were assembled in a database and analysed to record the team teachers' interactions.

From their data, Aline and Hosoda (2006) identify four specific interactional roles adopted by team teachers: 'bystander', 'translator', 'co-learner' and 'co-teacher'; and discuss how these roles can help or hinder classroom proceedings, using excerpts from class transcripts to support their analyses. The authors describe the 'bystander' role as pedagogically useful and under-represented in research. They claim that the 'translator' role is important, but can hinder student-teacher interactions if over-applied. The 'co-learner' role is shown to be helpful for modelling purposes. Finally, Aline and Hosoda (2006) claim that the 'co-teacher' role raises questions about power relationships between the teaching partners, as manifested

in the students' responses, because the institutional power resides with the JTE. However, the authors note that further research is needed to test this claim and explore the subject further. In general, the authors suggest that team teachers would benefit from becoming more aware of interactional patterns in their own classrooms.

Aline and Hosoda (2006) make suggestions regarding the implications of their findings, particularly for teacher training purposes. However, they emphasize that their findings should not be over-generalised, and that their case study is confined to a local context, which teachers should examine with reference to their own teaching situations. Overall, their study serves a useful purpose in helping to fill a research gap and providing observational data on team teachers' interactional roles, to supplement the more typical survey-based findings of other researchers in this area.

While the studies reviewed in this section provide pertinent contributions to the team teaching literature, they focus on the unidisciplinary team teaching of English which is, in some respects, different from the interdisciplinary team teaching practised at MIC. In the next section, I review the literature concerned specifically with CITT in its institutional context.

### **3.5. The CITT Model**

In their seminal text, *Content Based Second Language Instruction*, Brinton, Snow and Wesche (1989) identify three distinct CBLI curriculum models: 'theme-based', 'sheltered' and 'adjunct'. The 'theme-based' model entails the creation of a curriculum in which language activities are structured around relevant subjects or topics; the 'sheltered' model

separates L2 learners from NS learners to give them instruction from a content specialist in the target language that meets their own specific needs; and the ‘adjunct’ model links two concurrent courses in language and content, “with the idea being that the two courses share the content base and complement each other in terms of mutually coordinated assignments” (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 16). With reference to these models, Stewart, Sagliano and Sagliano (2002) describe the emergence of CITT at MIC as the “discovery of a method of interdisciplinary instruction that evolved primarily through personal experiments on variations of traditional CBI adjunct models” (p. 42).

The ‘adjunct’ model, while offering the most collaborative integration of language and content of Brinton et al.’s (1989) models, does not necessarily include team teaching. In their examination of the theoretical development of current teacher collaborations in Japan, Stewart et al. (2000) note that the traditional ‘adjunct’ CBLI approach requires cooperation between teachers in planning and evaluation, but does not necessitate the teachers delivering instruction in the same classroom. Yet team teaching is clearly one means of facilitating the integrated delivery of content and language instruction that is implicit in the adjunct model, and even considered the ‘ideal’ means by some (Johns, 1997; Stewart et al., 2000). In his report of various experimental models of CBLI deployed at the Monterey Institute of International Studies, Shaw (1997), too, acknowledges the adjunct model, but also identifies a related ‘team content model’ of instruction. In this model, a content instructor and language instructor combine their talents in a team teaching partnership in the L2 classroom, with the aim of improving learning opportunities for students. In this respect, Shaw’s (1997) model aligns closely with the practice of CITT.

One of the more prominent institutions for experimenting with collaborative models of CBLI has been the University of Birmingham in the U.K, cited by some researchers as a key influence in the early development of CITT (Stewart, 2001; Stewart et al., 2002). The University of Birmingham holds a long-established record of teacher collaboration in its English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses, as a means of equipping L2 learners with the skills to work with ‘authentic’ professional English after graduation (Dudley-Evans, 2001). Dudley-Evans, whose interest in teacher collaboration has already been noted in section 3.3, plays a prominent role in what he calls the ‘Birmingham approach’ (Dudley-Evans, 2001), where a language teacher acts as an intermediary between the students and a professor of a specific discipline in order to ‘interpret’ the language on their behalf, and the educators sometimes appear together in the same classroom, typically before examinations. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) describe a number of pertinent case studies at Birmingham University from as early as the 1970s, when a collaborative economics and language course was first offered for Iranian students of finance. The University of Birmingham collaborative approach is described by Stewart et al. (2000) as adjunctive or ‘linked’, in terms of the relationship between concurrent language and content courses, but they single out its limitations in focussing on small groups of ESL learners, rather than operating more extensively across the curriculum.

In contrast, CITT is designed for comprehensive implementation beyond the limitations of traditional CBLI initiatives, with complete integration of content and language instruction into team-taught classes for virtually all lower-division classes across the college curriculum (see

Chapter 2). Paradoxically, CITT is sometimes described by its practitioners in terms of ‘sheltered’ CBLI (e.g., M. Sagliano & Greenfield, 1998), despite Stewart et al.’s (2002) claim that it evolved from adjunctive models. Yet there is no inherent contradiction, since all MIC students are L2 learners, not native speakers of English, and it might be argued that the entire college thus operates as a ‘shelter’ from comparable liberal arts colleges in English-speaking countries. The fact that CITT began to blur the distinctions between Brinton et al.’s (1989) different CBLI models as it evolved merely serves to underline its uniqueness as a pedagogical initiative. In fact, Stewart et al. (2000) describe CITT as a “unique experiment” (p. 212) in comprehensively implementing an interdisciplinary CBLI programme of team teaching in tertiary education in Japan.

When students started graduating from MIC four years after its 1994 founding, faculty involved in the implementation of CITT began to publish their initial impressions of it. As with many team teaching publications in other contexts, particularly in the early years of collaborative innovation, these were primarily self-reflections on lessons learned through personal experience. In one article, M. Sagliano and Greenfield (1998) present CITT as a ‘collaborative model of content-based EFL instruction in the liberal arts’, and discuss its possible applications in the United States. As team-teaching partners specialising in TESOL and history, the authors retrospectively explore their own team-taught class over two semesters as a case study, and present examples of their class activities, in addition to their materials development and assessment procedures.

The authors report using a variety of instruments to assess their students' English and content achievements, and claim that their students had learned to use English vocabulary "to express key course concepts" (M. Sagliano & Greenfield, 1998, p. 26), and that their critical thinking skills had been enhanced, even when their linguistic capabilities were limited. Claiming that collaborative teaching "offers great promise" (M. Sagliano & Greenfield, 1998, p. 26), and is likely to be transferable to other educational contexts, the authors emphasize the importance of team teaching partners maintaining an equal relationship, and adopting "flexibility and an openness to change" (p. 27). However, they also warn that collaborative teaching requires sufficient training and administrative support for successful implementation, and that it may not be transferable to institutions with budgetary constraints.

It is arguable to what degree M. Sagliano and Greenfield's (1998) claims of improved student outcomes are directly attributable to the collaborative teaching aspect of CITT, as distinct from its integration of content and language instruction. Nevertheless, their article provides a useful 'snapshot' of the application of CITT in its early days of development, with a sample of insights based on team teachers' personal experience.

In the same year, one of the authors, Michael Sagliano, also collaborated with two other TESOL specialists at MIC to explore CITT from a different angle. In M. Sagliano, Stewart and Sagliano (1998), the authors advocate the potential of CITT for providing in-service teacher training. Identifying five 'training points' for socialising new faculty into their "new academic, institutional, and cultural environment" (M. Sagliano et al., 1998, p. 40), the

authors represent the MIC example as a model for effective training of TESOL professionals in different content-based instructional contexts.

As with M. Sagliano and Greenfield's (1998) article, the authors base their claims on their personal and professional experiences at MIC rather than the application of any formal research methodology, so their claims cannot be considered rigorous. Yet it is pertinent to the current research series that M. Sagliano et al. (1998) show an awareness of the potential for interpersonal and professional conflicts that is implicit in CITT, and discuss the need for training and interdisciplinary discussions to raise practitioners' appreciation of different teachers' viewpoints, as a means of obviating such conflicts. The authors conclude by concurring with Nunan's (1992) contention that team teaching requires institutional training and support, as well as adequate planning time, in order to be implemented successfully.

Extending their interest in using interdisciplinary collaboration to enhance teacher development, the same three authors collaborated in publishing another article in the same year on the subject of peer coaching. Like M. Sagliano and Greenfield (1998), J. Sagliano, Sagliano and Stewart (1998) applied a case study approach to their own personal and professional experiences as CITT practitioners, but applied more extensive data collection procedures. The authors collected written records, class video footage, conference presentation transcripts, team-taught class syllabi and materials, emails and workshop materials over the course of a single semester, and also drew from workshop and training materials that they had gathered in previous years. Using these materials to inform their discussions, the authors met to jointly share recollections and reflect analytically on their own

experiences, with a particular focus on peer coaching through collaborative course design, lesson planning and assessment.

Although J. Sagliano et al.'s (1998) study is self-reported, and is limited to the professional development aspect of CITT, it benefits from the authors' triangulation of data from multiple sources to better offset the limitations of their approach. From their data and discussions, J. Sagliano et al. (1998) conclude that their interdisciplinary collaborations altered their pedagogy, bringing about improvements in their teaching and their ability to meet their students' needs. Yet they also identify 'potential problem areas' of CITT that centre primarily on team teaching partners' potential unwillingness or inability to adapt to different teaching habits. The authors claim that problems can be overcome by team teachers engaging in candid communication with each other and showing willingness to be flexible in their behaviour. They also declare that "it is vital to the success of the venture that goals, tasks, and responsibilities of the partners are clearly understood at all times" (J. Sagliano et al., 1998, p. 80). With respect to the institutional implementation of CITT, the authors emphasize the labour-intensive aspect of collaboration and stress the necessity of team teachers being given pre-service training and in-service administrative support, including the allocation of sufficient time for joint planning. In general, J. Sagliano et al.'s (1998) findings show a high degree of consistency with common findings from other team teaching studies, at MIC and in other contexts (see section 3.6).

Towards the end of the 1990s, one of the collaborating authors of J. Sagliano et al.'s (1998) study, Timothy Stewart, had begun to emerge as the most prominent in-situ authority on CITT.



Stewart was to publish several articles on the subject of team teaching at MIC, alone and in collaboration with other CITT practitioners. In the first few years, Stewart began to publish explanations for how MIC's type of team teaching comprehensively integrated content and language (Stewart, 1996, 1997), drawing on such authorities as Malinowski (1966) and Halliday & Hasan (1985) to argue that social tasks and activities have inherent linguistic traits, and so "can be used to develop content area learning, language learning and thinking skills simultaneously" (Stewart, 1997, p. 7). In 2000, much of Stewart's work culminated in a 'professional report' from Stewart et al. (2000), which published the most thorough explication of team teaching at MIC then available in the literature, and for the first time coined the term 'Collaborative Interdisciplinary Team Teaching' (CITT) to define it.

In their report, Stewart et al. (2000) describe the history of the evolution of CITT and provide detailed descriptions of its implementation, drawing on the content-based instructional literature. Later, Stewart (2001) explained that the college had appointed him to "develop a planning model to facilitate collaboration of subject and language instructors directed at the co-design of integrated courses" (p. 54), thus providing some needed theoretical underpinnings for MIC's team teaching approach. Stewart et al.'s (2000) article represents the first time that CITT was explicitly defined as a theoretical model in its own right, instead of an ongoing pedagogical experiment largely defined by teachers attempting various ways of making their collaborations work. Stewart et al. (2000) contextualise CITT against Brinton et al.'s (1989) three CBLI models to demonstrate how their specific aspects compared with each other. They also discuss the advantages and disadvantages of CITT for both teachers and students, and considered the implications of implementing it in different educational contexts.

In terms of contributing to the findings of the team teaching literature, Stewart et al.'s (2000) article had little to add that was different to what the authors had already claimed in earlier publications. Though acknowledging its limitations, the authors advocate numerous benefits of CITT for students, and most particularly for teachers, claiming "experiences with the CITT model reveal that, in almost every aspect of teaching practice, benefits emerge" (Stewart et al., 2000, p. 239). However, in terms of contributing to the team teaching literature a comprehensive overview of the practice and theory of CITT as a newly-established model of collaborative CBLI, Stewart et al.'s (2000) article is an invaluable point of reference. Two years later, the same collaborating authors were to repackage much of this information for a chapter of a TESOL case studies book (Stewart et al., 2002), but from a less theoretical and more historical perspective, including the authors' updated impressions of lessons learned from the evolution of CITT over seven years. The writers conclude that the MIC collaborative programme improved considerably over time, and declare that "team teaching is both more challenging and also more beneficial for teachers than we had envisioned at the outset" (Stewart et al., 2002, p. 43).

In the first years of the 2000s, Stewart was to continue pursuing his research interest in CITT. For example, in one article he explores the question of whether interactions between team teaching partners might affect the status of the TESOL specialist, and presents his suggestions for how interdisciplinary team teachers can overcome the challenges of collaboration (Stewart, 2001). Most of Stewart's (2001) findings in this study are derived from a review of the professional literature, which he uses to contextualise the development of his own 'key

questions' for beginning the planning process of designing a team-taught course with a partner. Stewart (2001) notes that his writing is also informed by discussions with his own team teaching partners, as well as data from his own survey of MIC content teachers investigating their perceptions of team teachers' roles. The author confined this survey to content teachers only, suggesting that the language teachers' perspectives are sufficiently represented by discussions based on the TESOL literature, with the argument that "researchers in the field have surveyed ESP instructors on these matters" (Stewart, 2001, p. 61).

From his findings, Stewart (2001) reports that having an open attitude and being willing to communicate and adapt are important to the successful implementation of interdisciplinary team teaching. He also identifies a common belief among content teachers that team teaching had impacted positively on their pedagogy, helping to improve the quality of teaching and learning in their classes. The few negative responses in his survey data are attributed by Stewart (2001) to the effect of team teachers attempting to over-control the team-taught class, instead of sharing it with their partners; yet the author also lists a number of challenges that he claims to be inherent in team teaching, since "collaboration of any kind is fraught with challenges" (Stewart, 2001, p. 45). These challenges are predominantly centred on gaps in expectations between teaching partners, and the anxieties or confusion experienced by new students and teachers when faced with the unfamiliar demands of the team-taught classroom. Finally, after declaring that "the interaction of the teaching partners is obviously crucial to the success of the course" (Stewart, 2001, p. 62), the author concludes that interdisciplinary team

teaching cannot succeed unless partners “first develop genuine interest in and respect for each other’s work” (p. 63).

Stewart’s (2001) writing is primarily concerned with the establishment of guidelines for teachers planning to initiate interdisciplinary team-taught programmes, as informed by the literature and Stewart’s (2001) CITT experience. Stewart’s own (2001) teacher consultation and survey procedures are described only in brief (for example, his survey questions are not made explicit), presumably because the primary intent of the article is to provide guidelines of practical application for language teachers, rather than detail any formal research methodology. For this reason, Stewart’s (2001) findings and interpretations cannot be considered rigorous. Yet, as an initial exploratory probe into the perceptions of some CITT practitioners, Stewart’s (2001) survey offers certain informative parallels with the current study.

Stewart’s most recent CITT research project was a team teacher survey conducted over a two-year period, in collaboration with another CITT practitioner at MIC (Perry & Stewart, 2005). The authors first interviewed eight practising CITT practitioners in their teaching pairs, and identified major themes from their responses. A year later, using these data as a baseline for the second stage of their project, the authors interviewed six other CITT practitioners individually. Cumulatively, the respondents comprised a balanced sampling of seven language teachers and seven content teachers, which, as Perry and Stewart (2005) note, constituted over one-third of the existing faculty members at the time. All interviews were

videotaped and transcribed for content analysis to reveal “key elements for effective partnership” (Perry & Stewart, 2005, p. 563).

Perry and Stewart’s (2005) respondents identify a range of benefits from CITT for students, including exposure to multiple perspectives on key concepts, extra individual attention for students, and a synergistic improvement in the instruction of collaborating partners. They also identify benefits for participating teachers, claiming that CITT enhances teachers’ professional growth through increased reflection. Yet they identify drawbacks of CITT from their data, too. Perry and Stewart (2005) note that team teachers are “in a fishbowl” (p. 568) allowing students to easily perceive problems between partners, and that incompatible partners can compromise the benefits of collaboration.

Perry and Stewart (2005) categorise elements of team teaching partnerships into three broad groups: ‘experience’, ‘personality and working style’ and ‘beliefs about learning’. In terms of ‘experience’, respondents revealed anxieties about the challenges of CITT that were unfamiliar to them from previous teaching environments, but the authors suggest that these challenges are ameliorated over time. Perry and Stewart (2005) also suggest that unequal distributions of power between partners tend to ‘level out’ when team teachers gain in experience of CITT. In terms of ‘personality and working style’, respondents expressed the belief that incompatible teacher personalities and ways of working can hinder a partnership, and the authors suggest that such problems are the most difficult to resolve. However, due to the voluntary partner selection process at MIC, they suggest that “teachers are unlikely to seek out partnerships with others where personal incompatibility is an issue” (Perry & Stewart,

2005, p. 572). In terms of ‘beliefs about learning’, Perry and Stewart (2005) indicate that tacit misunderstandings between partners regarding their divergent assumptions about teaching or learning can endanger the partnership. With respect to this category, the authors also note that extra time is required for team teaching, and that open communication between partners is important. In their conclusions, Perry and Stewart (2005) suggest that communication ‘underlies’ a team teaching partnership, and express the belief that a mutual understanding of the partners’ roles and expectations can compensate for personality and working style differences.

Some minor criticism might be levelled at Perry and Stewart’s (2005) procedures. For example, though claiming to be using the first stage interview data to guide a “more in-depth exploration in the second interview set” (Perry & Stewart, 2005, p. 563), the authors re-use essentially the same three basic questions for the second stage interviews, with only minor changes to the wordings. It is difficult to see why these changes in wording were deemed necessary, or how themes emerging from the first stage of the interviews specifically influenced the development of the second stage interviews. It is also hard to gauge the commonality of responses from the authors’ presentation of example data. Although Perry and Stewart (2005) make good use of the respondents’ own voices, one or two selected quotes are typically used to illustrate each of their points, so to what degree these points are representative of respondent consensus is not always made clear.

However, minor criticisms notwithstanding, Perry and Stewart’s (2005) research project is momentous in terms of meeting an important research need in this specific context. The

authors took an unprecedented step by using systematic research methodology to explore the key aspects of team teaching at MIC, employing a representative sampling of CITT practitioners, and making their research procedures very transparent in their report. In a field that had been previously characterised by predominantly anecdotal or self-reported studies, Perry and Stewart's (2005) approach was atypically rigorous, resulting in an invaluable contribution to the body of existing CITT knowledge. For this reason, Perry and Stewart's (2005) study was selected as a point of departure for the current study, in the hope that my research would constitute a useful advancement of the process these researchers had already begun.

### **3.6. Common findings**

Many different aspects of team teaching have emerged in the course of this literature review. Although inevitably reductionistic, this section will present a brief synthesis of major findings from these studies of teacher collaboration.

Many researchers claim that team teaching enhances the professional development of participating teachers by providing them with opportunities to engage in processes of peer- and self-evaluation that would be unavailable to the single teacher. Some assert that the complementary effect of team teaching can result in improvements in the teachers' instructional skills.

In terms of benefits for students, it is widely accepted that team teachers can provide useful role modelling of dialogues in the language classroom, and that team teachers are able to

provide students with more support and attention than their counterparts in the single-teacher classroom. Some researchers claim improved outcomes in student learning from team teaching, though these claims can be difficult to substantiate. Most students are reported to have had very positive impressions of team teaching overall. Some researchers emphasize the importance of not excluding students from collaborative teaching models, since the students are important participants in the collaborative classroom dynamic.

Most researchers emphasize that team teaching requires more scheduling time than single-teacher instruction, primarily because of the need for joint planning, and that administrative support is crucial to the successful implementation of collaborative initiatives. Some researchers suggest that the training of teachers in how to team teach is of key importance to success.

It is considered very important that team teaching partners reach a shared understanding of each other's roles and responsibilities in the partnership. The need for mutual respect and mutual trust between partners is also considered of high importance. Many researchers stress the requirement for teachers to be flexible, with the capability of adapting well to unexpected challenges, if they are to team teach effectively. Good communication between partners and a shared philosophy of teaching are also considered important elements of a successful partnership.

It is commonly believed that personal differences between team teaching partners can play a major role in hindering their ability to team teach effectively together. Unequal distributions



of power between partners, either explicit or implicit, are also believed to be a common cause of team teaching problems.

Finally, these researchers are virtually unanimous in their support for the view that team teaching provides many benefits for its participants, and that those benefits tend to outweigh its disadvantages. In spite of Thomas's disillusionment in the pedagogical value of classroom teamwork in general education (see section 3.2), it would appear that team teaching is in little danger of being completely abandoned in the language classroom at the present time.

In the next chapter, I present the first of my series of linked studies designed to investigate CITT further and contribute to the existing body of knowledge in the field of teacher collaboration.

## CHAPTER 4: FOCUS GROUP STUDY

*NB- As explained in section 1.4, this chapter reproduces a published article from 'Comparative Culture: The Journal of Miyazaki International College' in its entirety, including its accompanying appendix (see Gladman, 2007). Some minor revisions have been made to the text for thesis reference purposes only.*

### 4.1. Introduction

One of the most notable features of Miyazaki International College (MIC) is the unusual mode of instruction implemented across the curriculum for nearly all of its first- and second-year classes. Dubbed 'Collaborative Interdisciplinary Team Teaching' (CITT) by Stewart, et al. (2000), this is a collaborative teaching approach derived from adjunct models of team teaching and grounded in Brinton, et al.'s (1989) 'sheltered instruction model' of Content-Based Language Instruction (CBLI) for second language learners, which the authors describe as "the concurrent study of language and subject matter, with the form and sequence of language presentation dictated by content material" (p.vii). In the CITT approach, two teachers form a partnership comprised of a content teacher (CT), who is a specialist in the content or subject discipline of the class (e.g., psychology, history, economics); and an English language teacher (LT), who is a specialist in TESOL. The two partners team teach both ESOL and the subject discipline together in the same course, engaging the principles of CBLI for meeting parallel learning goals in both disciplines. They are expected to team teach each course jointly as equal partners, being present in the classroom at all lesson times and sharing responsibility for classroom management, lesson planning, materials development, student assessment and course evaluation.

Research into team-teaching is not uncommon in the TESOL literature, particularly with

reference to the JET programme (Miyazato, 2006b). However, it is less common to find studies of interdisciplinary collaborative approaches. Much of this area is comparatively new ground for research, and MIC is unique in being the first tertiary education institution in Japan to implement interdisciplinary team teaching across its entire curriculum (Stewart, 1996). As a field ripe for study, CITT has attracted the research interest of several MIC faculty members in previous years, most notably Tim Stewart, who published findings in *Comparative Culture* (Stewart, 1996), as well as other professional TESOL journals in Asia and Canada (J. Sagliano et al., 1998; M. Sagliano et al., 1998; Stewart, 1999, 2001; Stewart et al., 2000). Stewart explored the theoretical bases for team teaching at MIC, and, with Bill Perry, conducted videotaped interviews of team teachers to describe their perceptions of various aspects of CITT (Perry & Stewart, 2005). Since much of the previously published literature concerning CITT tended to be self-anecdotal in character, Perry and Stewart's (2005) use of more objective research methods provided useful data to help substantiate existing knowledge in this field.

In the first stage of their project in 2001, Perry and Stewart interviewed four separate pairs of team teaching partners at MIC, using questions to elicit the respondents' beliefs and opinions about CITT (described to respondents as "content-based team teaching" (Perry & Stewart, 2005, p. 567)). In the second stage of their project in 2002, the researchers interviewed six different team teaching partners using similar questions, but separated each respondent from his/her partner by conducting interview sessions individually. Data collected from both sets of interviews were collated and content-analysed "in an effort to uncover common categories"

(Perry & Stewart, 2005, p. 566), and the results were used to describe the various aspects of an effective CITT partnership.

By comparison, the research project that forms the focus of this article has been designed as an exploratory, small-scale study to build on the strengths of the Perry and Stewart (2005) project by exploring the beliefs and opinions of CITT practitioners several years later, using interview-based research to allow the practitioners to identify and define features of CITT that are of importance to them. Most of the respondents in the current study were not participants in Perry and Stewart's (2005) interview project, and half of them had yet to be employed as MIC faculty in 2001-2002. Thus, the current study was expected to act as a useful point of comparison with Perry and Stewart's (2005) interviews and perhaps offer some support for their original findings. In addition, the current study was designed to test some of the major categories and concepts arising in the professional team teaching literature, and to provide a baseline dataset for future studies that would allow larger and more representative numbers of team teachers at MIC to participate.

#### **4.2. Methodology**

Since the current study was designed as the first step in a planned programme of interrelated research projects investigating CITT, focus group research methodology (i.e. the use of group interviewing procedures for gathering qualitative survey-based information) was selected as an appropriate tool for generating initial data (Dushku, 2000; Frey & Fontana, 1993). As Ho (2006) observes, focus group methodology is an increasingly common method of collecting qualitative data in the social sciences because of its effectiveness in eliciting a wide range of

relevant ideas and observations with respect to a given research topic. Participants are interviewed in groups, rather than as individuals, on the principle that group interaction stimulates more responses. In other words, “the synergistic effect of the focus group can help to produce data or ideas less forthcoming from a one-on-one interview” (Ho, 2006, p. 05.2). Thus, as an exploratory project, a goal of the current study was to use focus group methodology to identify and define a wide variety of pertinent data concerning CITT directly from its practitioners, and provide directions for follow-up studies within the research programme.

In July 2006, eight faculty members at Miyazaki International College agreed to participate in focus group discussions, drawn from a total population of approximately 30 active CITT practitioners. The participants were divided into two separate groups, with each group comprised of four participants from one of the two primary teacher designations at MIC, i.e., content or language teachers. Although focus groups are typically comprised of 5-12 participants (Fowler, 1995; Krueger & Casey, 2000), they are feasible with as few as four participants, and Krueger and Casey (2000) note that there are distinct advantages in preferring “mini-focus groups” (p. 10) to larger gatherings for ease of accommodation and affording “more opportunity to share ideas” (p.10).

The decision was made to assemble a separate focus group for each teacher designation because the distinction between content and language teachers is institutionally mandated (indeed, each group elects its own ‘facilitator’ from within its ranks to represent its members’ interests within the college), and MIC encourages content teachers and language teachers to

take responsibility for different aspects of CBLI in their shared classrooms, as relevant to their own particular fields of academic specialization (MIC Faculty Council, 2006b). As Krueger and Casey (2000) explain, a focus group is best composed of participants with homogeneous characteristics within the commonality of the group from which they are drawn, and this principle was therefore applied to the group designations that determine the two different professional types of CITT practitioner.

A further selection consideration was that still-current team teaching partners should not both be included in a single focus group, on the grounds that it can be difficult for a team teacher to publicly voice honest opinions about team teaching issues while in the presence of a partner with whom he or she is expected to continue maintaining a working relationship (Dudley-Evans, 2001; Perry & Stewart, 2005). By keeping partners separate, it was hoped that the potential for awkwardness among participants would be lessened. Also, although focus group designs are more effective in achieving their desired aims when the participants do not know each other well, if at all (Anderson, 1990; Krueger & Casey, 2000), it was clearly impossible to meet this requirement for such a small population, and thus it was hoped that the participants' familiarity with each other would be offset by the grouping of participants with no direct experience of each other as team teaching partners, despite the likelihood of their having collegial relationships outside the classroom. In addition, at the beginning of each discussion, participants were asked to respect the confidentiality of other faculty by not identifying specific individuals if mention of actual situations was deemed necessary. In this way, it was hoped that participants would not be tempted to pursue any discussion of what Frazee (2007) describes as the "private animosities [that] distort professional judgement"

(para 3), which can emerge in faculty relations, and which could have been a source of distraction from the interview questions.

Although Perry and Stewart (2005) sought to obtain a representative sampling of the CITT population for their research project, it should be noted that representativeness was not a goal in assembling participants for the current study. As Fowler (1995) explains, the primary goal of focus group research design is “to get a sense of the diversity of experience and perception, rather than to get a representative sample” (p. 107). Therefore, no attempt was made to randomise the selection of eligible participants, and some of the selection decisions were made on the basis of participant availability and researcher convenience, subject to the aforementioned selection criteria.

One of the limitations of the Perry and Stewart (2005) study was that their interview questions tended to confine respondents to the specific aspects of CITT which the researchers deemed to be of value, instead of allowing the respondents to determine which aspects of team teaching were of importance to them. For example, Perry and Stewart’s (2005) interviewees were asked how they distinguished between language and content in their team-taught classes, which assumed that they did so and that the distinction could reveal insights into effective partnerships. By comparison, an important feature of focus group methodology is that, while the researcher dictates the parameters of the discussion by creating “carefully predetermined” (Krueger & Casey, 2000, p. 12) interview questions in a logical sequence to collect data of relevance to the research topic, he/she designs the questions to be as open-ended as possible, to ensure that the participants’ perspectives are allowed to emerge with a minimum of

researcher imposition, while staying within the parameters of the topic itself (Anderson, 1990; Fowler, 1995; Ho, 2006; Krueger & Casey, 2000). To this end, the ‘moderator’ (i.e., group interviewer) “does not offer any viewpoints during the talk-in process session” (Ho, 2006, p. 05.3), but simply allows respondents to address the predetermined questions in their own way. In Grotjahn’s (1987) terms, such interview questions serve an ‘exploratory-interpretative’ function in creating the conditions for data to emerge which the researcher can then analyse to develop theoretical propositions, as is commonly associated with Glaser and Strauss’s (1967) qualitative research tradition of ‘grounded theorising’. Krueger and Casey (2000) note that, in focus group methodology, such a sequence of open-ended questions is typically described as a ‘questioning route’. For the current study, the researcher assumed the role of moderator and designed a series of questions for use in both focus group discussions, to allow participants to discuss what team teaching is to them and how it works (or doesn’t work), as distinct from other ways of teaching (see Appendix A).

A meeting room at MIC was used as the venue for the two focus group discussions. All discussions were audio-taped for transcription and data analysis. Although the suggested time limit was 90 minutes, participants in both focus groups ended the discussions shortly after one hour had elapsed by indicating that they had had sufficient time to fully address all relevant points.

#### **4.3. Results**

Data emerging from the focus group discussions were content-analysed to categorise the types of responses which were of common importance to the respondents. Since the focus group



discussions yielded data concerned with a wide variety of team teaching issues, responses of lesser prominence were filtered out of the final results table, but all major categories of response that emerged from the data were identified and tabulated, without exception. The criteria for defining a category of response as a major category were that it must have emerged independently in the responses of each of the two focus group discussions and be identifiable in quotes from at least two different respondents. In fact, all but one of the categories (category 'K') in the final results table exceeded the minimum terms of these criteria by emerging several times in the responses from different participants or at different points within the discussions. Table 4.1 provides definitions and descriptions of each major category of response, together with example quotes from the respondents to demonstrate how each category was manifested in the data. The categories have also been collocated into general types for purposes of comparison and ease of reference.

In the course of data analysis for this study, a researcher with no past or present association with MIC agreed to perform an inter-coder agreement check on the results by categorising 39 selected respondent quotes from a randomly compiled list (representing at least three examples of each major category of response identified in the data), according to an earlier version of Table 4.1. An inter-coder agreement of 89.7% resulted. Where the coders' judgments diverged, marginal adjustments were made to the table to improve the mutual exclusivity of its category definitions and clarify its descriptions.

The final question in the moderator's question route asked respondents to identify what was to them the single most important point about effective team teaching from everything that had

arisen in the preceding discussion. The initial three categories of Table 4.1 emerged as the three most common types of response to this question. ‘Respect (for one’s team teaching partner)’ was considered important by four respondents (CT1; CT2; CT4; LT2), while ‘openness’ and ‘flexibility’ were each considered important by three respondents (CT4, LT1, LT4 and CT4, LT1, LT2, respectively)<sup>4</sup>.

#### **4.4. Data analysis**

##### **4.4.1. Category types**

The major common categories from the data were collocated into category types which represent various aspects of team teaching, such as common attributes of effective team teachers, or administrative requirements for the institution where team teaching occurs. From these categorisations, Table 4.1 shows that the three most important common categories of response were concerned with team teacher attributes and four of the remaining eight categories were concerned with team teaching partner interactions. It is perhaps unsurprising that these aspects figure so largely in the responses of CITT practitioners when a team teacher is likely to perceive his/her partner, and the attributes and behaviours demonstrated by that person in relation to the perceiver, as the closest and most readily apparent manifestation of team teaching in action. Also, although the pedagogical outcomes of CITT, as with any form of teaching, are expected to be of most direct benefit to the students to whom it is targeted, team teaching is an educational initiative centred on teachers themselves and their collaborative relationships with each other. Therefore, its effects on students, administrators and the wider institution might well be conceptualised as secondary aspects of the team

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<sup>4</sup> Individual respondents are identified by code number within each designation: CT for content teacher or LT for language teacher.

teaching phenomenon, while the relationship between the two team teaching partners constitutes the heart of the phenomenon itself.

#### **4.4.2. Respect for one's partner**

When the respondents were asked to identify the single most important point about effective team teaching from all issues discussed, it is notable that most of them did not provide a single point in response to this question as directed, but tended to offer several points of equal importance. Their lack of compliance is suggestive that the respondents may tend to perceive team teaching variables as highly interdependent and consider the isolation of any single specific feature as an arbitrary distinction. Nevertheless, from all responses offered, respect for one's team teaching partner (category 'A') emerged as the most common response, with four of the eight respondents emphasizing its importance.

The belief that respect between partners is of fundamental importance to the effective team teaching relationship is evident in much of the data, where it commonly emerges in responses to a range of questions about different aspects of team teaching, e.g.,

*“Mutual respect, I think, is an important thing. You and the other person have different abilities, different interests, different approaches, different experiences, all that kind of stuff, but you can respect each other and bring it together in the same classroom” (CT1)*

**Table 4.1. Major categories of response from focus group data, with descriptions and examples**

(Individual respondents are identified by code number within each designation: CT for content teacher or LT for language teacher).

Category type	Category of response	Description	Example quote/s
Team teacher attributes	A. Respect for partner	Team teaching partners show respect for each other as teachers and colleagues, and for what each contributes to their shared course	“In the case where it [my team teaching relationship] didn’t work, I think I didn’t get the respect, and that’s why everything I had planned became undermined or ignored” (LT2)
	B. Openness	Team teaching partners show willingness to communicate openly with each other about their shared course	“When these small conflicts do come up, the willingness to - the feeling that you can talk about it with your, with your partner” (LT1)
	C. Flexibility	Team teaching partners show professional flexibility, adapting well to sudden changes and new ways of doing things	“I think coming planned is good but being flexible is as important” (CT4) “Yeah, being flexible in the classroom is good, too - having plan B or C or D or whatever is good” (CT1)
Team teaching partner interactions	D. Equal power sharing	Team teaching partners share authority equally within their team taught course without arrogating individual power over each other or the course itself	“The thing is, I think, not to assume ownership of the class” (CT3)
	E. Role agreement	Team teaching partners jointly determine their roles within their team teaching relationship to both partners’ satisfaction, even if they share power unequally	“If you have a partnership that’s worked out where you’ve just agreed, okay, I’m going to take an assistant role, regardless of what I’m supposed to do because you’ve taught this forever and it’s useless - letting me take an equal role. I mean that can be okay” (LT4)
	F. Advance joint planning	Team teaching partners meet outside the classroom to jointly plan their lessons in advance of implementation	“Giving a plan of what I’m going to teach or what I’m going to talk about and trying to discuss: What about you? Would you do

			this part? Or, do we include the quiz here or do we - an exercise? And what would you do here? And so, things like this, so in a way we plan the choreography before, and - plan the show” (CT2)
	G. Coordinated student instruction	Team teaching partners are coordinated in their instruction to students, giving them non-conflicting information	<p>“For students, maybe confusion sometimes. If it happens that you have a, as we talked about, you may ...” (CT2)</p> <p>“Get two versions of the same ... [instructions]” (CT1)</p> <p>“Yeah” (CT2)</p> <p>“Two non-complementary versions ... <i>[inaudible]</i> ... he said, she said” (CT1)</p>
Team teaching benefits	H. Awareness of multiple perspectives	By modelling acceptance of each other’s divergent opinions and viewpoints, team teachers promote student awareness of multiple perspectives	“The strength [of team teaching] is that the students will begin to very quickly realize that the teacher is not always right, because there’s another expert opinion” (LT3)
	I. Professional development opportunities	Team teaching offers partners opportunities for professional development by learning from each other	“You can also learn about different teaching techniques that maybe you hadn’t been exposed to” (CT4)
Administrative requirements	J. Preparation time	Team teaching requires more preparation time to implement than single-teacher instruction	“[Team teaching is] time-consuming. Takes time to meet up, talk, talk through the things when you could just simply write it up, write up your, your curriculum, your course, on your own, on your time. So yeah, it takes time to meet up with someone...” (LT3)
Student influences	K. Student needs take priority	A successful partnership is one that meets student needs, regardless of the relationship between the team teaching partners	“The students are the consumers and you’re there to deliver a product and whatever it takes to make that work, that’s good team teaching” (CT3)

Indeed, one respondent defined respect as a first principle underlying other necessary attributes for effective team teaching, as follows:

*“Of the things we have discussed so far, what would you say is the single most important point about effective team teaching?”* (Moderator) ...

*“I would say it’s the respect. I mean, from the respect you get the flexibility and the tolerance”* (LT2)

However, the respondents also identify a number of difficulties in showing respect for one’s partner behaviourally within the constraints of other responsibilities faced by CITT practitioners, as explained below.

#### **4.4.3. Coordinated student instruction**

Although the need to show respect is one example of the responsibilities team teachers have towards their partners, they also bear the responsibilities that any teacher has toward his/her students, such as the responsibility to provide students with accurate and comprehensible information. Category ‘G’ notes that respondents recognise the importance of team teaching partners coordinating their instruction to avoid giving their students conflicting information, as expressed in the following quote:

*“For students, maybe confusion sometimes. If it happens that you have a, as we talked about, you may ...”* (CT2)

*“Get two versions of the same [instructions]”* (CT1)

*“Yeah”* (CT2)

*“Two non-complementary versions ... he said, she said”* (CT1)

The data from this study reveal how these different responsibilities can create tensions when the need for partners to show respect for each other, and coordinate their classroom instruction, conflicts with their responsibility to provide their students with accurate information. These tensions are manifested in the classroom when a team teacher is faced with the dilemma of his/her partner giving students information that the observing teacher believes to be in error, but cannot correct for the students' benefit without publicly undermining the partner's authority and thereby showing disrespect for him/her. The following respondent expresses the dilemma thus:

*“You don't want to stop them [your team teaching partner], you know, midstream and then, and say, no, that's wrong. On the other hand, you don't want the students to be misled on something that needs to be, you know, made clear to them”* (CT3)

Similarly, in the following exchange, a respondent appears to demonstrate some degree of embarrassment at the hypothetical suggestion that he/she would point out his/her partner's mistakes in front of students in a team taught class, and laughs, perhaps nervously, at the idea. As a group, the participants proceed to discuss the issue, and seem to reach an informal consensus that pointing out a partner's errors in front of students is not necessarily damaging

to an effective team teaching relationship, but requires some degree of goodwill between the two teachers:

*“In my experience, I don’t know whether you’ve ever experienced that, but the other teacher will make some mistake – factual errors, but I wouldn’t point it out in front of the students”* (LT3)

*“Oh no, not in front of students, no”* (LT1)

[Some dialogue omitted]

*“No, I’ll keep quiet, of course [laughs]”* (LT3)

[Some dialogue omitted]

*“It depends a great deal on the partnership ...”* (LT4)

*“And neither person minds”* (LT1)

*“Right”* (LT4)

Since the participants identify mutual respect as very important to an effective team teaching partnership, this exchange suggests that partners with little respect for each other run the risk of damaging their (already poor) relationship still further by pointing out each other’s errors in front of students; yet they might be giving students inaccurate or misleading information if they did not. It therefore seems likely that the way team teachers reconcile these potentially conflicting responsibilities is one of the most problematic features of the CITT partnership.

#### **4.4.4. Awareness of multiple perspectives**

The prominence of category ‘H’ in the data, namely the potential for CITT to raise student awareness of multiple perspectives, introduces further complications to the tensions between



the teachers' various responsibilities. While respondents stress the importance of team teaching partners giving their students non-conflicting information in category 'G', they also paradoxically identify disagreement between team teachers as a potential benefit for students in category 'H', as exemplified in the following quote:

*“If a good spirit is maintained, then I think it [disagreement between team teaching partners] contributes to this business of different, differing expert opinions and potentially helping critical thinking” (LT4)*

Here, teacher disagreement is identified as a means of raising student awareness of multiple perspectives, and fostering critical thinking skills. Interestingly, while several of the categories of response emerging from the current study are well represented in the team teaching literature, category 'H' is far less prominent, although, in their CITT research, Perry and Stewart (2005) do note that students benefit from exposure to “multiple perspectives on key issues and concepts in their courses” (p. 568). One possible explanation for the relative lack of prominence of this category beyond the CITT context is that much team teaching research is focussed on unidisciplinary models of collaboration, such as the JET programme. These models are likely to require greater unity of instruction from their practitioners than interdisciplinary collaborations, which rely on experts from separate disciplines to pursue more distinctly different (albeit coordinated) educational goals. Additionally, since critical thinking is emphasized as a key feature in the MIC college mission (MIC Faculty Council, 2006a), and students are routinely expected to seek out and critically evaluate multiple viewpoints to synthesize their own coherent arguments in English across the curriculum, it

seems unsurprising that the potential for using CITT to advance critical thinking skills has emerged as a prominent issue in this context.

Nevertheless, the balance struck between categories ‘G’ and ‘H’ in the data indicates that there is a need for CITT practitioners to make a distinction between the kinds of instruction for which classroom disagreement between the teaching partners may or may not be beneficial. The following quote helps to clarify this distinction:

*“Discussing certain issues, having two different opinions is fine, but when it comes to an assignment, there should be one vision for the assignment, which I’ve had a problem with. It was an assignment I created, it was an assignment I planned out, it was an assignment I delivered to all the students but my partner had a completely different idea of the assignment. So when the students consulted him, you know, with any kind of questions that they had, he gave them a complete - different answer from what I wanted.” (LT2)*

In this example, one might argue that the respondent is expressing frustration at the lack of coordination between team teaching partners when issuing instructions to their students about what they are supposed to know or do to meet the assessable requirements of their course, in contrast with theoretical or philosophical differences of opinion which are likely to model accepted differences between authorities in the wider academic or general community. In short, receiving conflicting information from multiple authorities can be of benefit to the development of students’ critical thinking skills, but will be of no benefit when the

information they require constitutes directions for what their teachers expect them to do. Thus, team teaching partners must make on-the-spot decisions as to when they should present their students with a ‘united front’ in the classroom and when it is acceptable for them to diverge in opinion, but such a decision is dependent on how the teachers interpret the purpose of the classroom event in which they are engaged at any given time. If this purpose is interpreted differently by the individual team teachers, it might be expected to provoke frustration based on the perception that one’s partner is not behaving appropriately, and lead to deterioration in the relationship between the two team teachers.

#### **4.4.5. Equal power sharing and role agreement**

Another potential conflict between categories that can be identified from the results of this study is that of equal power sharing (category ‘D’) and mutually determined role agreements (category ‘E’). While it is possible for team teachers to share power equally and jointly determine their roles within the team teaching relationship to both partners’ satisfaction, thus satisfying the requirements of both criteria, it is also possible for team teachers to jointly determine their roles in such a way that one teacher exercises a disproportionate degree of authority over his/her partner, thus violating the terms of category ‘D’, as is indicated in the description for category ‘E’ in Table 4.1. The respondents identify different versions of team teaching that are defined by the way team teaching partners distribute power between themselves, as expressed in the following quote:

*“It just depends on who I’m working with, what team teaching means. For one class, I feel like it’s more of a team where we decide on what will be taught in the classroom and then we decide who is stronger in that aspect and then that person*

*will take the lead and the other person will provide the support. And in another class, it was more of a senior teacher situation and the other partner would just be there to kind of fill in the gaps whenever something comes up. So I guess it depends on who you ask, or which partner I work with – it becomes a different type of team teaching situation” (LT2)*

This finding is consistent with the team teaching literature, in which it is a common observation that partners in an effective team teaching relationship must negotiate a shared understanding of their roles and responsibilities in relation to each other in order to avoid the unwanted imposition of one partner’s authority into the other’s professional ‘territory’ (Bailey et al., 1992; Brumby & Wada, 1990; Miyazato, 2006b).

In their research into CITT, Perry and Stewart (2005) observe that power sharing problems can arise through disagreements between partners about the territorial boundaries of their roles, particularly with reference to the language/content distinction, and claim that a ‘leader/subordinate’ relationship can emerge which undermines the ideal of the equal CITT partnership. It is important to note here that a team teaching partnership at MIC in which power is shared unequally between partners contravenes the mandate of the institution, since CITT, by definition, is collaboration between equals (Stewart et al., 2000). Yet CITT practitioners themselves recognise circumstances where equality between partners is unrealistic and the teachers assume ‘leader/subordinate’ roles instead. It is notable how, in the following quote, the respondent twice qualifies his/her comments about equal power sharing

at MIC with the word ‘supposed’, to suggest the divergence of reality from the institutional description of CITT:

*“There’s a lot of cases where one person is the main teacher or the senior teacher and then the other teacher or teachers are basically assistants. I think that’s found in many situations elsewhere, though supposedly not here. And then, of course, this, the case that is supposed to be here at MIC, where we have equal partners” (LT1)*

The usefulness of team teaching as a means of matching new teachers with senior mentors for on-the-job teacher training purposes does not go unnoticed by CITT practitioners, and one respondent even advocates a one-semester ‘training’ period of subordination for new team teachers before they assume equal authority with their partners in their team teaching relationships:

*“This is my personal opinion, I think a first semester teacher at MIC, regardless of their credentials, if they don’t have a background in this kind of situation, and almost nobody does, I think it helps that person to allow the partner to take a leading role for a while and to take a supporting role. But then, after a semester, I think that’s enough. It’s just my personal view on it” (LT1)*

*“And then what should happen?” (Moderator)*

*“Then I think they can be, easily be equal partners from then on” (LT1)*

Problems of inequality in power sharing also emerge in the historical context of the college itself. Since the prerequisite qualifications for content teachers hired by MIC have always been Ph.D.-level or equivalent, while those for language teachers have always been Masters degree-level or equivalent, the respondents recount how, in past years, conflict was created by some team teachers' expectations that the more academically qualified partner had the right to assume seniority over the less qualified partner, in violation of the institutional mandate for equal authority between the two teachers. For example:

*“Earlier on, there was a sense that the content faculty owned the class and the language faculty assisted the – you know, there was a sentiment, and that was really very, very damaging and - it was the wrong view and the wrong attitude, and it led to bad feelings very quickly” (CT3)*

Unsurprisingly, the arrogation of power by some team teachers has tended to breed resentment and contributed to the deterioration of relationships between partners. But the respondents make a clear distinction between this unwilling imposition of unequal power between partners and the mutually agreed acceptance of unequal roles by both partners (category ‘E’), and stress that it is possible for an effective team teaching relationship to be maintained in the latter case. As long as both partners voluntarily agree to their roles, the distribution of power between them can become negotiable without necessarily endangering the relationship. For example,

*“It may be that, if ‘Vanna White’ likes to be ‘Vanna White’, then that works<sup>5</sup>.*

*There was one teacher here who actually liked to be ‘Vanna White’ because there was no preparation involved. You just have to stand there and look vaguely glamorous - [inaudible] - so, in terms of complementarity, it worked because they understood, both understood what their roles were in the class and there wasn’t any conflict in those roles. I don’t think it’s a very good model of how team teaching should work, but - it worked” (CT1)*

As suggested here, while the respondent affirms that a team teaching partnership based on a relationship of unequal power between partners is viable, it tends to be perceived by respondents as a ‘weaker’, less preferable version of team teaching than the institutionally mandated version, and is recommended only when, for various reasons, it is unrealistic to expect partners to share their power equally. The key point of these observations is that if both team teachers negotiate a relationship to their mutual satisfaction, they can create a partnership with some degree of effectiveness, even if their relationship falls short of the ideal CITT partnership in other respects. However, if one partner attempts to exercise power arbitrarily over the other, the relationship is under a more fundamental threat, perhaps because it is likely to be interpreted by a team teacher as a lack of respect from the offending partner. Such an interpretation might be inferred from the following quote if it is supposed that one partner repeatedly telling the other that he/she is wrong is an inappropriate assumption of superior authority:

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<sup>5</sup> ‘Vanna White’: A television game show hostess and actress mocked “for her limited acting ability and her position on *Wheel [of Fortune]* as a non-speaking clotheshorse” (A & E Television Networks, 2007).

“[After discussing his/her relationship with a partner that worked well] *The other partner, on the other hand, didn’t give me the same kind of respect and – anything I said was wrong!*” (LT2)

Perry and Stewart (2005) conflate power inequality issues under the category of teacher ‘experience’, noting that they impact mostly on new team teachers and claiming that such issues “tend to dissipate” (p. 569) as the practitioner gains in CITT experience. However, despite some advocacy of leader/subordinate roles for the training of new team teachers, there is little indication of concurrence with Perry and Stewart’s (2005) claim by respondents in the current study.

#### **4.4.6. Openness and flexibility**

Beyond the primary category of respect for one’s partner, two other attribute-related categories have emerged from this data, namely ‘openness’ and ‘flexibility’. The recurrence of these specific terms in the response data, and the identification of these attributes by respondents as the single most important points about effective team teaching from their discussions after ‘respect’, necessitated their inclusion as major categories of response in Table 4.1, yet there seems to be a vagueness of interpretation in the way that the respondents themselves define these terms with reference to team teaching, as demonstrated by the following quotes:

*“Openness is seeing the positive side of the person”* (LT4)



*“What are the requirements of team teaching?” (Moderator)*

*“I was thinking as far as, you know, psychological requirements or sociological requirements, more tolerance on the part of both partners. More, more sensitivity, umm....” (LT1)*

*“Openness” (LT3)*

*“Um-hmm. Willing – willingness to accept other ways of doing things. Willingness to compromise, yeah?” (LT1)*

*“And sometimes learn from other ways ...” (LT4)*

*Um-hmm. Willingness to learn new ways of doing things” (LT1)*

*“And could be more flexible” (LT2)*

*“Flexibility, yeah, yeah” (LT1)*

In the course of data analysis, it became clear that these two categories were closely related to each other in the perceptions of participants, with several instances of respondents merging the two key terms in the same response. For example,

*“Basically, it’s similar to what [LT4] said, the openness and the flexibility, the willingness to change and learn new things” (LT1)*

With reference to openness generally, the general context of the discussion suggests that this might be interpreted most precisely as an openness of attitude, with a corresponding willingness to communicate openly with one’s partner on team teaching matters. Though not

using the word ‘openness’ specifically, one respondent offers an insight into how it might be articulated in this response, which follows on closely from the previous quote:

*“When these small conflicts do come up, the willingness to - the feeling that you can talk about it with your, with your partner and if you do have some sort of conflict you have the confidence that you can work it out and reach some kind of a compromise with them” (LT1)*

In contrast, flexibility might be defined from this data as a willingness to adapt one’s behaviour to meet sudden or unexpected situations, as best expressed in the following exchange:

*“I think coming planned is good but being flexible is as important” (CT4)*

*“Yeah, being flexible in the classroom is good, too - having plan B or C or D or whatever is good” (CT1)*

This distinction between the two terms suggests that, while both categories are concerned with closely-related attributes of the effective team teacher, ‘openness’ might best be considered a willingness to communicate for cooperative purposes, while ‘flexibility’ might best be considered a willingness to adapt one’s behaviour for cooperative purposes.

The need for teacher flexibility emerges commonly in the team teaching literature, predominantly in terms of the partners’ potential differences in how they teach. According to

Perry and Stewart's (2005) respondents, one of the main obstacles to effective team teaching is "incompatible teaching styles" (p. 565). Consequently, a teacher who has the flexibility to adapt well to his/her partner's differences in ways of teaching is likely to team teach more effectively than one who adapts less well, as has been observed by a number of researchers (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Miyazato, 2006b; M. Sagliano & Greenfield, 1998; Stewart, 2001).

#### **4.4.7. Advance joint planning and preparation time**

While the respondents' comments in the previous quote highlight the importance of teacher flexibility, there is also a recognition that a team teacher's ability to make sudden changes and adaptations in the classroom must be balanced against the importance of team teachers jointly planning and structuring various aspects of their shared curriculum outside the classroom. The need for team teachers to engage in advance preparation is well highlighted by CITT practitioners as a whole. Category 'F' indicates that team teaching partners need to jointly engage in the administrative requirements of their course because CITT requires joint commitment from both partners both inside and outside the shared classroom. Partners cannot simply meet in their shared classroom during lesson times to team teach, or they end up wasting lesson time on the planning that should have occurred beforehand, as noted by the following respondent:

*"I have a partner who's not very good about planning ahead of time, and sometimes we do the planning on the spot. When the class starts, we just do our discussion on what we're going to do for that day, and that could eat up 10, 15, 20 minutes of their period. And the students have – don't know what to do,*

*because the teachers also don't know what to do because we hadn't planned anything out for the day" (LT2)*

While this quote identifies the need for team teachers to engage in advance joint planning, it also suggests an implicit need for teachers to be given extra time in their schedules for class preparation, which is a common concern for CITT practitioners, as expressed in category 'J'. The data from this study reveals that there is a close relationship between categories 'F' ('advance joint planning') and 'J' ('preparation time') in the perceptions of several of the respondents. Indeed, most of the inter-coder disagreement of the earlier version of Table 4.1 resulted from the confusion of response items across these two categorisations. Yet despite their similarities, data analysis allowed a distinction to be made between these categories on the basis of the emphasis placed by respondents on specific aspects of the team teachers' interactions. Category 'F', advance joint planning, implies a focus on the importance of team teachers not simply meeting in the classroom at class time and expecting the lesson to unfold without preparation, but to meet outside the classroom beforehand to jointly determine how the lesson is to proceed. The following quote emphasises this aspect of team teaching:

*"Which is what I think, what [CT4]'s talking about, planning outside of the classroom so that the – the other person knows where you're going to and why you're going there and roughly how long it's going to take you to get there, so that they can plan that, or you can plan it" (CT1)*

Category ‘J’, by comparison, is focussed specifically on the amount of time that team teachers require to jointly coordinate the different aspects of their team taught courses overall. This category reflects a common concern arising in the professional literature on team teaching, particularly CITT. Perry and Stewart (2005) quote a respondent’s claim that team teaching takes “twice as long” (p. 571) to implement as single teacher instruction, and conclude that many respondents “emphasized the time-consuming nature of these extensive relationships” (p. 572). Stewart et al. (2000), J. Sagliano et al. (1998), and M. Sagliano and Greenfield (1998) also note the need for extra time to implement CITT, and Nunan (1992) stresses the need for sufficient implementation time for team teaching in general to be successful. While it is true that much of this extra time is needed for the advance joint planning of category ‘F’, it also encompasses other aspects of collaborative teaching that may need to be negotiated and coordinated by both partners, such as summative student assessment or course evaluation. Such aspects are likely to be dealt with more quickly by a single teacher for a comparable non-team taught course, who has little need to take time to coordinate his/her actions with colleagues. The emphasis on the coordination time required by team teaching partners, rather than the specific activities they use to occupy that time, is evident in the following quote:

“[Team teaching is] *time-consuming. Takes time to meet up, talk, talk through the things when you could just simply write it up, write up your, your curriculum, your course, on your own, on your time. So yeah, it takes time to meet up with someone...*” (LT3)

It is notable that there is little in the major categories of response that might be interpreted as a drawback of CITT as an educational approach (as distinct from what teachers must have or

do in order to implement it effectively), while perceived beneficial outcomes of CITT for both teachers and students emerged from the data as aspects of importance (categories 'H' and 'I'). Evidently, CITT practitioners tend to support the widespread belief that the benefits of team teaching outweigh its disadvantages (Bailey et al., 1992; Edmundson & Fitzpatrick, 1997; Gottlieb, 1994; Nunan, 1992). 'Extra preparation time' emerging as a major category (category 'J') is thus conspicuous in this context, yet it might be considered unsurprising if it is remembered that such a requirement impacts directly on teachers' scheduled workloads but is potentially invisible to administrators and other key institutional stakeholders, particularly if they have had little prior experience with team teaching in other institutional contexts. Inevitably, team teachers' meeting times outside the classroom tend not to appear on administrators' schedules, while lesson times do. As Goldstein, Campbell and Clark Cummings (1997) point out with regard to the adjunct model of collaboration, the provision of paid meeting time for teaching partners outside lesson times is very important to the success of their shared venture. Thus, teachers may feel a need to protect their interests by ensuring that the need for extra preparation time for team teachers remains a high-profile concern in the face of potential financial constraints and budget cuts that could result in the encroachment of expanding class contact hours into their team teacher coordination time. Such an encroachment would not only place extra workloads on teachers but, as far as CITT practitioners are concerned, would also hinder their ability to team teach effectively.

#### **4.4.8. Professional development opportunities**

One of the most recurrent observations in the team teaching literature that is supported in data from the current study is conceptualised here as category 'I', that team teaching offers

opportunities for improvements in the partners' professional development by learning from each other, e.g.,

*“What are the strengths and benefits of team teaching?”* (Moderator)

*“You could learn from another teacher”* (LT2)

*“Mmm”* (LT1)

Many researchers have claimed that team teaching can act as a useful tool for professional development by raising teachers' awareness of their own strengths and weaknesses and allowing critical reflection on their experiences and assumptions (Edmondson & Fitzpatrick, 1997; Kaufman & Brooks, 1996; J. Sagliano et al., 1998; Sandholtz, 2000; Stewart, 1999), hence its common use in teacher training scenarios, where new teachers are partnered with experienced mentors (Bailey et al., 1992; Kachi & Choon-hwa, 2001; Sandholtz, 2000). Perry and Stewart (2005), specifically, note that most of their respondents make mention of the benefits of having a teaching partner for professional self-reflection. As an example of this process, a respondent notes that having a partner to “bounce ideas off” (Perry & Stewart, 2005: 568) can improve teacher creativity. Perry and Stewart (2005) infer from their findings that team teachers “grow as teachers through effective partnership” and that effective team teaching “can lead to increased reflection and professional growth” (p.568).

#### **4.4.9. Priority of student needs**

Like category ‘H’, category ‘K’ in the current study is largely unrepresentative of common findings from the professional team teaching literature. The claim of category ‘K’ responses is

that student needs take priority over the state of the relationship between the two team teaching partners in terms of how its effectiveness should be evaluated, e.g.,

*“I want my students to learn, even if it’s a horrible [teaching] relationship, or partnership, but students learn something, I’m very happy with that because that’s what matters.” (LT3)*

Although, as has been mentioned, this category met only the minimum requirements for inclusion in Table 4.1 by emerging explicitly from the responses of only one respondent in each focus group, it is notable that, in each case, the teacher was responding specifically to the final prompt of the interview, when asked to identify what they believed to be the single most important point about effective team teaching from the preceding discussion. It might be suggested that category ‘K’ was offered by respondents as a kind of caveat to earlier discussions, which were largely focussed on the attributes and interactions of the team teachers themselves, as has already been noted. But the importance of category ‘K’, even if not widely reflected across the beliefs of most CITT practitioners, should not be overlooked. Although it is largely unrepresentative of findings from the team teaching literature, it might be argued that category ‘K’ is consistent with a recent trend among team teaching researchers to take into consideration the interactions between all participants in the team taught classroom (Dudley-Evans, 2001; Miyazato, 2001; Tajino & Tajino, 2000), in contrast with typical older team teaching studies, which tended to focus primarily on the interpersonal dynamic between the two team teaching partners to the exclusion of their students. It is



possible, then, that category 'K' is indicative of a changing zeitgeist in the field of teacher collaboration amongst researchers and teachers alike.

#### **4.5. Summary**

Eleven major categories of importance to participants were identified in the data analysis of this study. Three team teacher attributes were identified as the most important, with four of the remaining eight categories concerned with team teaching partner interactions. Although the responses suggest that there is a high level of interdependence between the various features of team teaching, 'respect for one's partner' was identified as fundamentally important to an effective partnership, and was observed to underlie other aspects of an effective team teacher's behaviour. 'Openness' and 'flexibility' were also considered of key importance, though some inferences needed to be made as to how the respondents defined these terms.

Despite an acknowledgement of the time-consuming nature of team teaching, the respondents tended to emphasize the beneficial outcomes of CITT as an educational approach. Most of the prominent categories emerging from the current study are commonly represented in the findings of previous research into team teaching literature in general and CITT in particular, especially 'professional development opportunities'; 'equal power sharing'; 'role agreement'; 'need for extra preparation time'; and the importance of teacher 'flexibility'. However, two less common categories have emerged from the current study, namely, 'awareness of multiple perspectives' and 'priority of student needs'.

With regard to the effective implementation of CITT, a number of potential tensions were identified between a team teacher's various responsibilities, including: the need to show respect for one's partner and the need for both team teachers to provide students with non-conflicting instruction; the need to provide students with non-conflicting instruction and the potential for team teachers to develop their students' critical thinking skills by representing divergent perspectives; the importance of teacher flexibility and the need for partners to conform to jointly planned classroom behaviour; and the need for team teachers to negotiate their roles and distribute power within the partnership to the satisfaction of both parties.

The findings of the current study have provided a number of possible directions for further research in this area, particularly with reference to the potential tensions arising between specific categories of response. These tensions suggest a need for further research to provide ordinal data indicating how CITT practitioners rank in importance their various responsibilities in relation to each other, since such data might enhance our understanding of team teacher behaviour that seems paradoxical at face value, when team teachers feel they must fail one of their professional responsibilities to meet another responsibility deemed to be of greater importance. At the time of writing, a questionnaire-based research project is being conducted at MIC which will address these issues in more depth and gather data from a broader sampling of CITT practitioners in order to further our knowledge in this field.

## **CHAPTER 5: TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE STUDY**

### **5.1. Introduction**

This chapter outlines the direction taken for the current research series after the culmination of the initial focus group study. The second study in this series was developed to further explore the beliefs and opinions of CITT practitioners with regard to team teaching, as guided by the findings of the first study. This chapter first provides an introduction to the second study, which will hereafter be referred to as the ‘teacher questionnaire study’. A short literature review follows, derived from the broader review of Chapter 3, but with more specific reference to findings of relevance to this research. Next, the methodology of the teacher questionnaire study is explained, providing details of the creation of the research instrument and how it was applied. After the methodology section, the findings of the study are presented, including qualitative and quantitative data, together with explanations of the results. This presentation of the findings leads to an extended interpretative discussion of major findings from the data, including a problematisation of the study and speculations regarding the possible implications of its findings. Finally, there is a summary of the key points presented in this chapter.

Once the focus group study had been completed, the findings of that baseline study constituted the basis for determining the direction of the research process to follow. By comparison, the second study was conceived as a more extensive research project, designed to reach beyond the small-scale exploratory parameters of a baseline study. The teacher questionnaire study was therefore intended to gather data from a more representative sampling of CITT practitioners, and provide some means of testing how prominently the main

categories of response from the focus group data were reflected in the beliefs and opinions of the population of team teachers at MIC as a whole. It was also seen as an opportunity to investigate in more detail how the specific beliefs and opinions identified from the focus group data were perceived in relation to each other, in terms of their importance to CITT practitioners, and whether any prominent differences might be evident between the data from specific subgroups of respondents (e.g., content teachers vs. language teachers). In short, the teacher questionnaire study was intended to provide data that would support and augment the findings of the first study from the current research series, and allow findings to emerge that might usefully contribute to existing knowledge in the wider context of the professional team teaching literature.

## **5.2 Relevant literature**

As concluded in Chapter 4, many of the categories of response emerging from the focus group study are well represented in the team teaching literature. Major categories of response from Table 4.1 that are highly consistent with findings from the literature are as follows: ‘Respect for partner’ (e.g., Carless, 2006b); ‘Flexibility’ (e.g., Miyazato, 1999); ‘Equal power sharing’ (e.g., Aline & Hosoda, 2006); ‘Role agreement’ (e.g., Murata, 2002); ‘Advance joint planning’ (e.g., Brogan, 1994); ‘Professional development opportunities’ (e.g., Gorsuch, 1991); and ‘Preparation time’ (e.g., Mahoney, 2004) (See also section 3.6).

Though they are less directly evident in the literature, other categories of response, such as ‘Openness’, show a high degree of compatibility with common findings. As noted in section 4.4.6, the meaning of ‘openness’, as expressed by focus group participants, seems vague and

requires some degree of inference. As a working definition for this study, the term has been interpreted as an openness of attitude and the willingness to communicate openly with one's team teaching partner. Focus group participants closely associate openness with the notion of 'flexibility' (see section 4.4.6), which emerged prominently in both the focus group responses and findings from the literature (see above). Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) also closely associate the two concepts when they argue that openness and flexibility between partners are necessary for successful collaboration. In addition, the concept of openness is highly consistent with the common finding from the literature that communication between team teaching partners is an important element of an effective partnership (e.g., Gottlieb, 1994). George and Davis-Wiley (2000) are explicit on this point when they declare that "open, clear communication was critical to the success of our [team teaching] venture" (p. 78).

Another category of response from the focus group study that is less directly evident from the literature is 'Coordinated student instruction'. However, a number of researchers allude to the concept obliquely. Though not a major finding from the literature review (see Chapter 3), some researchers do identify the need for team teachers to negotiate their differences away from their students, implying consistency between partners when they are in their shared classroom (e.g., Shannon & Meath-Lang, 1992). George and Davis-Wiley (2000) are particularly supportive of the focus group category when they recommend to team teachers, "Be consistent with your instructional team member *and with the students* [my italics]" (p. 79). Another recommendation from researchers that is also supportive of the focus group category is that collaborating team teachers share the same goals (e.g., Bailey et al., 1992), implying some degree of consistency in their instruction.

Another category of response from the focus group study that is not directly represented in much of the team teaching literature is ‘Awareness of multiple perspectives’. Although the problems emerging from divergent viewpoints between participating team teaching partners are well explored in much of the team teaching literature (see Chapter 3), the observation that students might benefit from such divergence is less commonly expressed. Exceptions are Perry and Stewart (2005), who make direct reference to this category of response in terms of CITT when they state that “students benefited from an effective partnership because the team teachers offer multiple perspectives on key issues and concepts in their courses” (p. 568). Shannon and Meath-Lang (1992), Miyazato (1999) and Murata (2002) also note that the students’ exploration of diverse issues in class (particularly across disciplines) can be usefully encouraged by exposure to different teachers’ views in a single classroom.

Though emerging as a major category of response from the focus group study, ‘Student needs take priority’ garnered the least support from all participants (see section 4.4.9), and is also the least supported by common findings from the team teaching literature. Of course, it is likely to be difficult to find a researcher who would deny the importance of student needs in any teaching approach, and team teaching is no exception. For example, J. Sagliano, Sagliano and Stewart (1998) claim that “meeting the needs of learners must be the engine that drives any teaching partnership” (p. 80). However, the observation that student needs constitute the only important criterion for evaluating the effectiveness of team teaching, to the exclusion of the relationship between teaching partners, runs counter to many of the consensual claims of team teaching researchers. The team teaching literature in general places a strong emphasis on

the importance of the relationship between team teaching partners in achieving effective collaboration, and the required attributes, beliefs and behaviour of those partners in creating and maintaining that relationship. Good examples include the importance placed on team teacher flexibility (e.g., M. Sagliano & Greenfield, 1998); shared teaching philosophy (e.g., Carless & Walker, 2006); and equal power distributions within the partnership (e.g., Miyazato, 2006b) (see also section 3.6). Another example is Voci-Reed (1994), who considers the relationship between team teaching partners to be of paramount importance to successful team teaching, claiming that “it’s hard to imagine a professional relationship with more potential for misunderstanding and frustration” (p. 70). Voci-Reed’s (1994) advice for achieving better team teaching is to make improvements within that relationship by reducing stress factors.

Though not listed as major common findings in Chapter 3, several other aspects of what team teachers might bring to an effective partnership can be derived from a review of the team teaching literature. For example, Perry and Stewart (2005) assert that team teachers’ beliefs about learning emerged as a major element of their CITT data analysis. Perry and Stewart (2005) observe that “there may often be the tacit assumption that one’s beliefs about the teaching and learning process are shared with others working in the same educational environment” (p. 570), but that problems can occur when these assumptions differ from one partner to another. For the language teacher, the partners’ mismatched assumptions about how students learn languages are likely to be a particular cause for concern. Perry and Stewart (2005) also point to incompatible teaching styles (i.e., ways of working as a teacher) as a potential source of conflict between teaching partners that is closely related to personality.

Miyazato (1999), too, identifies partners' differences in teaching style (alongside teaching philosophies) as a chief source of difficulty.

Another aspect suggested by Perry and Stewart (2005) is that a teacher's degree of prior team teaching experience can substantially influence his or her effectiveness as a team teacher. The authors claim that some of the difficulties team teachers encounter "tend to dissipate" (p. 569) as they accrue more collaborative experience, since those difficulties tend to originate from the new teachers' unfamiliarity with the unique aspects of CITT. Other authors, such as Shannon and Meath-Lang (1992) and Nunan (1992), also suggest that the accrual of team teaching experience can help to minimise problems in a partnership.

One final aspect of the relationship between team teaching partners that has been identified as important by some researchers is whether or not the relationship was imposed upon the participants. For example, Sturman (1992) and Tajino and Tajino (2000) note that JTEs in a 'JET-style' programme of team teaching have been sharply critical of the administrative decision to force them to team teach with AETs, regardless of their state of willingness (or unwillingness) to engage in collaboration. Carless (2006b), too, warns of the dangers of imposing partnerships on teachers who are not enthusiastic about participating. Other researchers, such as Sandholtz (2000), reiterate the point by suggesting that conflicts are reduced if teachers are free to select the partner of their choice. Problems are less likely to arise between team teaching partners who have volunteered to work together because teachers who are personally incompatible with each other are disinclined to seek out each other's company (Perry & Stewart, 2005).



In the next section, I explain in detail how the teacher questionnaire study was designed to extend the investigations of this CITT research series, as informed by the focus group study findings of Chapter 4 and relevant findings from my review of the team teaching literature.

### **5.3. Methodology**

One of the suggested directions for future research arising from the initial focus group study was to investigate potential tensions that could emerge between the different aspects of effective team teaching. For example, it was suggested that in certain situations the need for team teaching partners to be flexible and manage change in the classroom could conflict with the need for partners to conform to jointly planned classroom behaviour. However, a limitation of the focus group data was that, aside from their responses to the final interview question (see section 4.3), there was little indication of how the respondents perceived the importance of the different themes with respect to each other. The only specific inference that could be drawn from most of the data was that each major theme was, to some degree, considered worthy of note by one or more respondents in each of the two focus groups.

#### **5.3.1. Rationale**

The limitations of the focus group study suggested a need for further research to provide ordinal data that were lacking from the initial results, in order to offer a sense of how CITT practitioners rank aspects of the various themes against each other in terms of their importance to an effective team teaching relationship. Clearly, if the requirements of an effective team teaching partnership that were identified as potentially conflicting in the focus group study were shown to be considered equally important by CITT practitioners in a

follow-up study, it could be argued that such a result has implications for a team teacher's professional practice. On the other hand, should one requirement be considered much more or much less important than another requirement with which there may be a potential conflict, it could be argued that serious tensions are unlikely to arise between them. A CITT practitioner would simply give priority to the more important requirement, if he or she needed to make a choice between the two in a given team teaching situation. This second study in this series of linked research projects investigating CITT was designed partly to meet this need for ordinal data across the various themes.

A second study was also needed to follow up research opportunities suggested in the focus group findings by collecting data from a broader sampling of CITT practitioners. Data emerging from such a study might be expected to offer a degree of evidential support for any interpretations drawn from the initial study. It was anticipated that the data would help to substantiate conclusions from the initial study by testing the beliefs and opinions of the focus group participants against a larger and more representative sampling drawn from the CITT population.

An additional purpose of the second study was to explore the general level of consensus of CITT practitioners with common claims regarding team teaching from the professional literature. Many of the subjects' responses from the focus group study were consistent with prominent findings from team teaching research in other contexts (see section 5.2). However, some other common claims from the literature went unrepresented within the major themes from the focus group data. In these cases, there was a need for a second study to investigate

participants' responses to these unrepresented claims, in order to test whether an important aspect of team teaching that may not have emerged as a major theme from the focus group discussions would emerge as an aspect of importance in a larger and more representative CITT practitioner study.

Since a second study designed to fulfil these purposes would encompass a larger and more representative sampling of team teachers, it presented an opportunity to collect more exploratory baseline data for guiding future research into CITT, expanding on the exploratory data that had already been collected from the smaller focus group samplings. For this reason, it was decided to collect biographical data which would allow responses to be associated with specific subgroups of respondents as determined by factors such as age range or gender (though not to breach anonymity by identifying individual respondents). Although definitive conclusions could not be drawn from such data, it was anticipated that analyses of the responses across these various subgroups within the respondent sample could tentatively identify significant collective differences between CITT practitioners in terms of how they perceive an effective partnership. Such differences might be expected to impact on team teaching practice, and therefore it was hoped that the collection of comparative data to test for possible subgroup differences within the respondent sample could suggest potentially useful directions for future research.

In general, the second study was designed to address the following research questions:

- What do team teachers at MIC see as the important aspects of an effective team teaching partnership?
- How do their responses compare with previous data, and the literature?
- According to their responses, how important are these different aspects, relative to each other?
- Are there substantial differences between the opinions of content and language teachers?
- Do team teachers at MIC believe that the only important measure of an effective team teaching partnership is whether or not it meets students' needs?

While most of these questions were derived directly from the limitations of the focus group study, such as the need for ordinal data and the need for a larger sample, others (most notably the final research question) emerged directly from the focus group study findings (see section 5.3.3.2). The research design was guided accordingly by these particular questions.

### **5.3.2. Choice of research instrument**

In order to address all these purposes of a second study of CITT, a questionnaire was selected as the most appropriate research instrument. A questionnaire offered many advantages over other means of data collection. It could easily be distributed to a larger population of potential participants. It also gave participants the chance to respond privately and on their own terms. This was particularly useful in avoiding the potential focus group limitation of respondents feeling uncomfortable about expressing frank opinions in front of their colleagues. Unlike an interview-based survey, respondents had the opportunity to answer the questions in their own time, and think carefully about their responses without interruption. Additionally, since the

initial study had been interview-based, the use of a different type of research instrument in a follow-up study offered a degree of triangulation when comparing responses across studies, thus strengthening the validity of interpretations drawn from the data.

Since the second study was designed to elicit teachers' beliefs and opinions with reference to the focus group findings and the team teaching literature, a questionnaire was deemed to be more appropriate than an observational approach. Though important, observational research investigates the actual behaviour of participants instead of the thinking underlying that behaviour. The observation of specific teacher actions in a classroom may not yield much direct information about the teacher's beliefs regarding the comparative importance of taking those actions. In contrast, a questionnaire allows respondents to express their opinions, thus addressing the need to collect ordinal data showing how CITT practitioners attribute different degrees of importance to the various categories of response emerging from the focus group study, or common findings from the literature.

Another useful feature of the questionnaire that made it particularly suitable for the second study was that it could be developed and distributed electronically. All MIC faculty were equipped with desktop computers in their offices, and made full use of email for professional communications, both off and on campus. Indeed, an in-house listserve had been created for the express purpose of meeting the need to simplify mass communications between faculty, allowing any one member to send emails to all other members using a single email address. The access and familiarity of all faculty with this technology allowed any member to easily distribute a mass email to other faculty, inviting them to participate in a survey, and providing

a link to the website where they could access and respond to that survey. Such a procedure offered respondents a high degree of privacy and convenience that was conducive to encouraging them to participate, and also allowed for easy and accurate data retrieval and manipulation by the researcher. For these reasons, an online questionnaire was selected as the tool for data collection of the second study, and the abovementioned procedure was adopted. See Appendix D for a copy of the invitation email and Appendix E for the final draft of the questionnaire.

### **5.3.3. Questionnaire design**

An early decision in the course of questionnaire development was to combine qualitative and quantitative elements in the design, through the use of both ‘open-ended’ questions (i.e., respondents invited to contribute comments) and ‘closed’ questions (i.e., restricted choice options, such as the Likert scale). It was anticipated that this combination would yield supplementary forms of data that could strengthen the validity of any conclusions drawn from the data, which would be particularly useful in terms of substantiating findings from previous studies. Neuman (1991) is supportive of this approach, claiming that “the disadvantages of a question form can be reduced by mixing open-ended and closed-ended questions” (p. 240). This approach is also well preceded in other studies of teacher collaboration (for example, Sandholtz, 2000).

#### **5.3.3.1. Likert scales**

Since a key purpose of the questionnaire study was to collect ordinal data, the Likert scale was selected as the best tool of quantitative measurement for many of the questionnaire items. The use of such a scale is well supported in the literature. For example, Fowler (1995) notes

that the “fundamental assumption of ordinal measurement .. is very likely to be met” (pp. 50-51) when using an evaluative continuum of scaled options across a single dimension, while Oppenheim (1992) claims that “Likert scales tend to perform very well when it comes to a reliable, rough ordering of people with regard to a particular attitude” (p. 200).

It should be noted that, although Likert scale options indicating degree of agreement with a given statement are most familiar in the context of TESOL survey research (e.g., Bailey et al., 1992; Kessler, 2007; Sakui & Gaies, 1999; Tajino & Walker, 1998), for the purposes of this study, the decision was taken to operationalise the concept of ‘importance’ instead of ‘agreement’ across the Likert scale options. As Dörnyei (2003) notes in his discussion of Likert scales in questionnaire research, “this standard set of responses (i.e., strongly agree – strongly disagree) can be easily replaced by other descriptive terms that are relevant to the target” (p. 38). Munn and Drever (2004), too, demonstrate their process of taking a construct such as ‘goodness’ and operationalising it across Likert scale intervals to create a questionnaire for non-interval measurement. The scale options for the current study were developed accordingly, using ‘importance’ (according to the respondents’ perceptions) as the target construct. Scale options measuring degrees of importance are well-precedented and validated in a number of psychological research studies that measure human beliefs and perceptions, for example Schwartz’s ‘Value Inventory’ (1992) and Fitzsimmons, Macnab and Casserly’s ‘Life Roles Inventory-Value Scales’ (1985).

#### **5.3.3.2. Content specifications**

To collect the data, an online questionnaire was developed using the survey software of SurveyMonkey.com. The questionnaire was devised through a series of multiple draftings, in

an attempt to create a data-collection tool for best meeting the demands of the content specifications of the survey, comprehensibility, accessibility and ease of use. In creating the content specifications of the survey, it was decided to confine the focus of the questionnaire to the question of how team teachers create an effective CITT partnership, as distinct from other questions, such as what are the pedagogical benefits of a partnership, or what are the institutional requirements of CITT implementation. The justification for this decision was that most of the major themes emerging from the focus group participants' discussions were concerned with how CITT practitioners should interact with their partners, or what they should believe or be able to do, in order to team teach effectively. Therefore, for the purposes of exploring these aspects in more depth, major themes from the focus group study that were not of direct relevance to this content specification (for example, *Team teaching offers partners opportunities for professional development by learning from each other*) were not used to devise questionnaire items, albeit with one exception.

The one questionnaire item that did not conform to the abovementioned content specification was appended to the survey specifically to test the respondents' degree of agreement with theme 'K' of the focus group study findings (i.e., *a successful partnership is one that meets student needs, regardless of the relationship between the team teaching partners*). As has been noted, this belief was not shared by the majority of focus group participants, but was considered of prime importance by one respondent in each of the two groups, prompting the speculation that a strongly-held minority opinion had emerged. The justification for operationalising this particular outlier response as a questionnaire item when other themes were omitted was that it represented a belief that was potentially subversive of most of the



other survey responses. In other words, if many CITT practitioners believe that the degree to which a team teaching partnership meets student needs is the only important criterion for measuring that partnership's effectiveness, it could be argued that their responses to the other questionnaire items would be of little value. In such a case, most respondents would consider the attributes, beliefs and behaviour of team teachers to be comparatively irrelevant.

Therefore, it was decided that the importance of this theme warranted its appending as an additional section to the questionnaire. The appended section required respondents to indicate their level of agreement with the claim that the effectiveness of a team teaching relationship can only be evaluated in terms of how it meets student needs, and asked them to provide open-ended commentary to explain their response. It was anticipated that this section would probe the strength of the CITT practitioners' beliefs in the claim within the population as a whole, and determine whether the pursuit of this particular line of inquiry in future research was justifiable.

#### **5.3.3.3. Creating questionnaire items**

In the development of many of the questionnaire items, themes from the focus group study findings constituted the primary source material. Staying mindful of the importance of avoiding ambiguity in questionnaire items (Converse & Presser, 1986; Fowler, 2002), it was possible in some cases to operationalise a focus group theme as a single survey question addressing a unidimensional concept. For example, *A team teacher is willing to communicate openly with his/her partner about their shared course* corresponds directly with the theme of 'openness', as defined in the focus group data analysis. No more questionnaire items were needed to develop this theme further.

Other focus group themes necessitated the generation of multiple questionnaire items that were derived from different manifestations of the underlying theme, as identified by focus group respondents themselves or from other team teaching research findings. For example, most focus group respondents talked of ‘respect’ in terms of showing respect for a partner’s contributions to a shared course. Yet other team teaching researchers have placed different emphases on how respect is manifested in an effective partnership, such as being respectful of a partner’s professionalism (Sturman, 1992). Thematically, it is possible to group these aspects under the single category of respect for one’s partner. However, in terms of how this theme is actually manifested in a team teaching partnership, the literature and focus group data pointed to a need to operationalise such aspects as separate questionnaire items, each serving its own independent function.

Some of the conclusions drawn from the focus group analysis were also instrumental in the operationalisation of corresponding questionnaire items. For example, although *Awareness of multiple perspectives* is categorised as a benefit of team teaching in Table 4.1, rather than an aspect of an effective team teaching partnership *per se*, it was necessary to include a questionnaire item to represent this benefit in terms of the teachers’ classroom behaviour (*Inside their shared classroom, team teachers show students by example that teachers can have different opinions*). This item was required as a point of comparison with the need for partners to coordinate the information they offer students in their shared classroom, which was identified as an important component of effective team teaching by focus group respondents. The potential tension between these two types of behaviour emerged as a prominent feature of the analysis, thus justifying their inclusion as separate questionnaire

items. Similarly, since the data analysis suggested a need to draw a distinction between non-conflicting ‘information’ and non-conflicting ‘instruction’ for students in the team taught classroom, these, too, necessitated the inclusion of separate questionnaire items to represent this distinction, even though both were derived from the single focus group theme, ‘coordinated student instruction’.

In total, 28 questionnaire items were created, with 18 of these derived primarily from major findings of the focus group study. See Table 5.1 for a list of these questionnaire items grouped alongside the themes of Table 4.1 with which they are associated. In some cases, these items were consistent with prominent findings from the professional team teaching literature as well as the focus group findings. For example, the statement that ‘[effective] *team teaching partners mutually agree to their roles within their partnership*’ reflects the consensus of other team teaching authorities, such as Mahoney (2004) or Brumby and Wada (1990) (see also section 3.6).

In contrast, the remaining ten items in the questionnaire were not derived from the focus group findings, but were included to represent important aspects of an effective team teaching partnership suggested by other team teaching authorities, which did not emerge as major themes in the initial focus group study. See Table 5.2 for a list of these items, with selected references to the team teaching literature from which the items were derived.

#### **5.3.3.4. Organisation of questionnaire**

For purposes of face validity and ease of use, the questionnaire items were collocated into three broad areas, namely ‘team teacher attributes’, ‘team teacher beliefs’ and ‘team teacher

behaviour'. Where necessary, these areas were broken into smaller webpage sections to minimise the possibility of respondents feeling overwhelmed by too many questions on a single page. Within the first two areas, questionnaire items were subdivided into those items of relevance to the team teacher as an individual (for example, *A team teacher is willing to learn new ways of teaching*) and those items requiring consideration of team teaching partners with respect to each other (for example, *Team teaching partners have complementary teaching goals*). Within the third area, questionnaire items were subdivided into those items dealing specifically with teacher behaviour with students inside the team taught classroom (for example, *Inside their shared classroom, team teachers give students non-conflicting instructions*), items dealing with a specific aspect of teacher behaviour within the broader institutional confines (for example, *In terms of general behaviour within the MIC community, a team teacher demonstrates respectfulness for his/her partner's expertise*) and all other items not requiring specification (for example, *Team teaching partners have voluntarily selected each other as teaching partners*). These subdivisions allowed all items within a particular group to proceed from a single stem (for example, *Team teaching partners ...*), thus reducing potentially tedious repetition.

Following the decision to combine qualitative and quantitative elements in the questionnaire (see section 5.3.3), open-ended commentary boxes were provided at the end of each page of Likert scale-based questions, to elicit supplementary qualitative data. Respondents were given the means to qualify any of their closed responses, or to disclose pertinent information that could not be expressed on an ordinal scale. Commentary boxes were included to minimise the

**Table 5.1: Questionnaire items derived from focus group themes**

<b>Focus group theme*</b>	<b>Corresponding questionnaire item</b>
A. Respect for partner	<i>In terms of general behaviour within the MIC community, a team teacher demonstrates respectfulness for his/her partner's position as a professional academic;</i> <i>In terms of general behaviour within the MIC community, a team teacher demonstrates respectfulness for his/her partner's expertise;</i> <i>In terms of general behaviour within the MIC community, a team teacher demonstrates respectfulness for his/her partner's contributions to their shared course</i>
B. Openness	<i>A team teacher is willing to communicate openly with his/her partner about their shared course</i>
C. Flexibility	<i>A team teacher can adapt to unexpected challenges;</i> <i>A team teacher can adapt to his/her partner's different ways of teaching;</i> <i>A team teacher is willing to learn new ways of teaching</i>
D. Equal power sharing	<i>Team teaching partners share authority equally within their partnership;</i> <i>Team teaching partners give the teacher with seniority more authority than his/her partner</i>
E. Role agreement	<i>Team teaching partners mutually agree to their roles within their partnership;</i> <i>Team teaching partners mutually agree how authority should be shared within their partnership</i>
F. Advance joint planning	<i>Team teaching partners routinely meet outside class for joint lesson planning</i>
G. Coordinated student instruction	<i>Inside their shared classroom, team teachers support what their partners say in front of their students;</i> <i>Inside their shared classroom, team teachers correct their partners if necessary, to ensure their students receive accurate information;</i> <i>Inside their shared classroom, team teachers give students non-conflicting information;</i> <i>Inside their shared classroom, team teachers give students non-conflicting instructions;</i>
H. Awareness of multiple perspectives	<i>Inside their shared classroom, team teachers show students by example that teachers can have different opinions</i>
K. Student needs take priority	<i>The only important measure of the effectiveness of a team teaching partnership is whether or not it meets student needs</i>

\* As listed in Table 4.1.

**Table 5.2: Questionnaire items derived from the team teaching literature**

<b>Questionnaire item</b>	<b>References</b>
<i>A team teacher has received training in how to team teach</i>	(Carless, 2006b; Kachi & Choon-hwa, 2001; M. Sagliano et al., 1998)
<i>A team teacher has had some prior experience of team teaching</i>	(Nunan, 1992; Perry & Stewart, 2005; Shannon & Meath-Lang, 1992)
<i>Team teaching partners have complementary personalities (i.e., personalities that work together well)</i>	(Carless & Walker, 2006; Perry & Stewart, 2005; Thomas, 1992)
<i>Team teaching partners have complementary teaching philosophies</i>	(Carless & Walker, 2006; Perry & Stewart, 2005; Shannon & Meath-Lang, 1992)
<i>Team teaching partners have complementary teaching goals</i>	(Bailey et al., 1992; Dudley-Evans, 1983, 1984; Miyazato, 1999)
<i>Team teaching partners have complementary beliefs about how people learn second/other languages</i>	(Perry & Stewart, 2005)
<i>Team teaching partners believe they can trust each other</i>	(Bailey et al., 1992; Eisen & Tisdell, 2000; Murata, 2002)
<i>Team teaching partners have voluntarily selected each other as teaching partners</i>	(Carless, 2006b; Sandholtz, 2000; Tajino & Tajino, 2000)
<i>Team teaching partners have complementary teaching styles</i>	(Miyazato, 1999; Perry & Stewart, 2005)
<i>Team teaching partners routinely communicate with each other about their shared course</i>	(Gottlieb, 1994; J. Sagliano et al., 1998; Stewart, 2001)

possibility that participants might be forced to provide what they felt to be inadequate or inappropriate responses, if limited to closed items only. Additionally, on the final page of the survey, respondents were invited to leave open-ended comments about any other aspect of CITT that they believed to merit consideration.

#### **5.3.4. Pilotting and distribution**

Pretesting or ‘pilotting’ a new questionnaire is strongly recommended by many authorities engaged in survey-based research (for example, Brown, 2001; Converse & Presser, 1986; Dörnyei, 2003; Fowler, 1995, 2002; Munn & Drever, 2004; Petrich & Czarl, 2003).

Accordingly, a complete draft of this questionnaire was distributed to ten professional academics from colleges or universities in Japan (excluding MIC), Australia, New Zealand and Oman, with an invitation to assist in the piloting process. Seven of the invitees responded with feedback and suggestions for improvement. The questionnaire was then modified with reference to the pilot respondents' feedback, including the addition of new biographical information, clarification of terms and improved respondent instruction (Appendix E shows the final draft).

After piloting, an email inviting potential participants to follow a link to the questionnaire was distributed to all then-current MIC faculty members (plus any former faculty members who had recently left MIC employment). All MIC faculty or former faculty members who were engaged in team teaching at the time of distribution (Sept, 2007), or who had team taught at MIC no more than two academic years prior to distribution, were considered eligible to participate. Thirty recipients of the email met the criteria for participation (though eligible, to avoid researcher bias, I excluded myself from the pool of potential respondents).

Recipients were given nearly four weeks to respond, and two reminder emails were distributed to potential participants before questionnaire access was closed. During the data collection stage, all communications to potential participants initiated by me on the subject of this research were confined to impersonal mass emailings, and I actively avoided face-to-face communications on the subject with colleagues wherever possible. In cases where potential respondents approached me personally with questions regarding the research, I endeavoured

to keep communications brief and non-specific, to minimise any potential influence I may have exerted over participants as a fellow member of the target population.

## **5.4. Findings**

From the eligible population of 30 CITT practitioners invited to participate in the survey, a total of 29 responses were recorded by the software provider, SurveyMonkey.com. Twenty participants responded by entering the website and completing all or most of the questionnaire items. Of the 9 other responses, 1 invitee declined to proceed to the questionnaire after viewing the ‘information and consent’ page, 7 invitees chose to proceed to the questionnaire but left no responses to any of the items, and 1 invitee chose to proceed to the questionnaire but responded with only a single comment in the final comment box of the survey (see section 5.5.9).

### **5.4.1. Importance rankings**

All questionnaire items requiring participants to indicate the importance of a statement on a Likert scale were ranked from most to least important according to the respondents’ mean scores. See Table 5.3 for a full list of these ranked items. Where a participant chose to leave an item blank, this response was omitted from the calculation of means, rather than interpreted as an indication that the item was considered unimportant, because ‘*not important*’ was made available to all participants as a scale option.

The highest mean score of 4.37 was shared by two questionnaire items, *Team teaching partners believe they can trust each other* and *Inside their shared classroom, team teachers give students non-conflicting instructions*. The distribution of responses was identical for both



**Table 5.3: Respondents' mean scores ranked in importance** (1=Not important; 2=Slightly important; 3=Moderately important; 4=Very important; 5=Essential).

Questionnaire item	Mean score
1. Team teaching partners believe they can trust each other	4.37
1. Inside their shared classroom, team teachers give students non-conflicting instructions	4.37
3. A team teacher can adapt to his/her partner's different ways of teaching	4.26
4. A team teacher can adapt to unexpected challenges	4.21
5. In the MIC community, a team teacher demonstrates respectfulness for his/her partner's contributions to their shared course	4.16
6. A team teacher is willing to communicate openly with his/her partner about their shared course	4.15
7. In the MIC community, a team teacher demonstrates respectfulness for his/her partner's position as a professional academic	4.11
7. In the MIC community, a team teacher demonstrates respectfulness for his/her partner's expertise	4.11
7. Team teaching partners mutually agree how authority should be shared within their partnership	4.11
10. Team teaching partners mutually agree to their roles within their partnership	4.05
11. A team teacher is willing to learn new ways of teaching	3.85
11. Team teaching partners routinely communicate with each other about their shared course	3.85
13. Team teaching partners have complementary personalities (i.e., personalities that work together well)	3.79
14. Inside their shared classroom, team teachers support what their partners say in front of their students	3.68
15. Team teaching partners have complementary teaching goals	3.53
15. Inside their shared classroom, team teachers show students by example that teachers can have different opinions	3.53
17. Team teaching partners share authority equally within their partnership	3.50
18. Team teaching partners routinely meet outside class for joint lesson planning	3.35
19. Inside their shared classroom, team teachers give students non-conflicting information	3.32
20. Team teaching partners have complementary teaching philosophies	3.20
20. Team teaching partners have voluntarily selected each other as teaching partners	3.20
22. Inside their shared classroom, team teachers correct their partners if necessary, to ensure their students receive accurate information	3.16
23. Team teaching partners have complementary teaching styles (i.e., ways of organising their teaching)	3.11
24. Team teaching partners have complementary beliefs about how people learn second/other languages	2.90
25. A team teacher has received training in how to team teach	2.74
26. A team teacher has had some prior experience of team teaching	2.00
27. Team teaching partners give the teacher with seniority more authority than his/her partner	1.60

items. Each item received 19 response counts and was considered ‘*very important*’ by ten respondents and ‘*essential*’ by eight respondents, while the lowest response option was ‘*moderately important*’, selected by one respondent only (see Figure 5.1).

Other highly ranked items were *A team teacher can adapt to his/her partner’s different ways of teaching*, with a mean score of 4.26, and *A team teacher can adapt to unexpected challenges*, with a mean score of 4.21. Both of these items had a modal score of ‘5’ (i.e., ‘*essential*’ was the most common response).

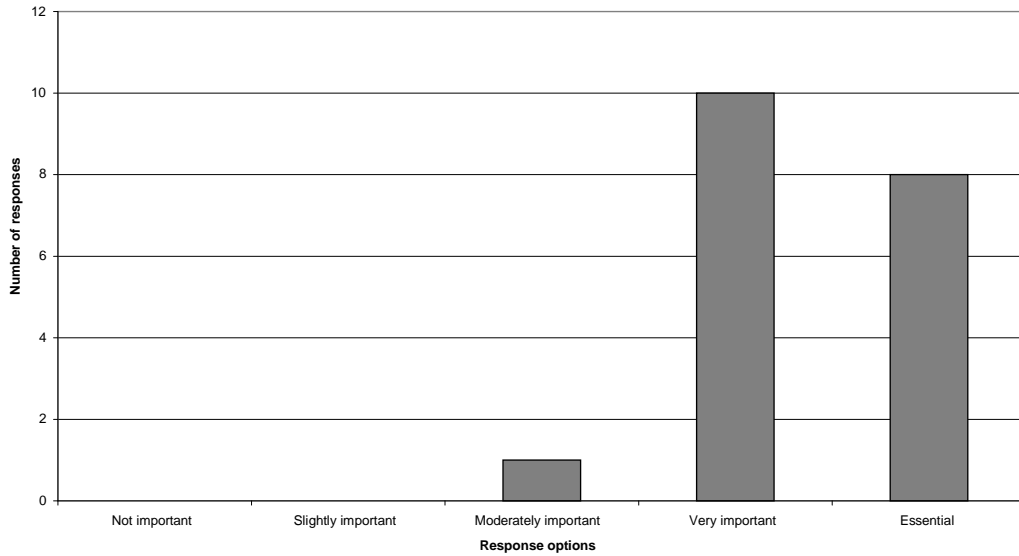
Two questionnaire items had a modal score of ‘1’ (i.e., ‘*not important*’ was the most common response), and they were ranked lowest overall. The first of these items, *A team teacher has had some prior experience of team teaching* received 19 response counts and was considered ‘*not important*’ by eight respondents, ‘*slightly important*’ by five respondents, ‘*moderately important*’ by four respondents, and ‘*very important*’ by two respondents, resulting in a mean score of 2.00 (see Figure 5.2).

The second of these items, *Team teaching partners give the teacher with seniority more authority than his/her partner*, received 20 response counts and was considered ‘*not important*’ by 13 respondents, ‘*slightly important*’ by five respondents, ‘*very important*’ by one respondent and ‘*essential*’ by one respondent, resulting in a mean score of 1.60 (see Figure 5.2).<sup>6</sup>

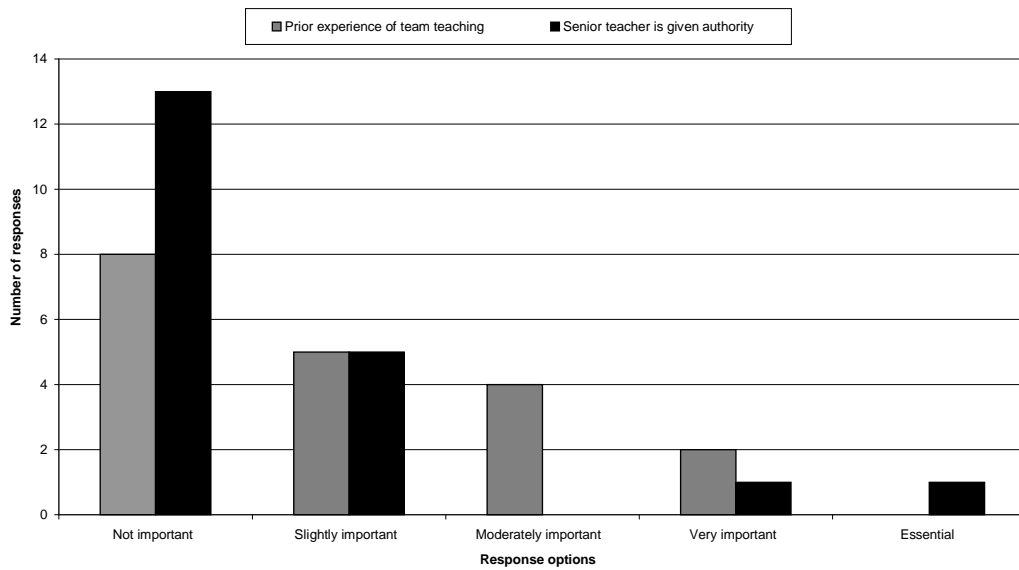
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<sup>6</sup> Further details of score distributions for any of the ranked questionnaire items can be provided on request by contacting Anne Burns at Anne.Burns@ling.mq.edu.au.

**Figure 5.1**  
Distribution of responses for the two highest-ranked items



**Figure 5.2**  
Distribution of responses for the two lowest-ranked items



#### 5.4.2. Open-ended responses

On each webpage of the questionnaire collecting scale-based data, participants were invited to write open-ended comments to supplement their responses. In this section, the major common themes from the open-ended responses to the questionnaire are identified and presented with

example data. Appendix F itemises the open-ended responses in their entirety for reference purposes.

#### **5.4.2.1. Complementary personalities**

The issue of whether complementary personalities are important to an effective team teaching partnership prompted several responses from participants, as follows:

- *Personalities that work together (of course, there is always some sort of accomadation[sic]) are more important in producing a good partnership than prior experience, education, etc.*
- *Characters and personalities create or break team teaching partnerships, I think.*
- *I think the characteristics you identified in the first part of the section are all very important to essential for at least 1 of the partners, but not necessary for both to have. Which makes to[sic] your idea of complementary personalities more important.*
- *Complementary personalities are a huge plus. If there is a personality conflict, the lessons can be severely handicapped. With careful planning and compromise so-so matches can be effective. However, if the personalities are really compatible, the synergy makes the partnership more than the sum of its parts.*

However, some respondents qualified their responses with reference to other aspects of the partnership, as follows:

- *The importance of personality varies according to the level of professionalism of the individuals involved. It would be more accurate to say that personalities that clash in serious ways make team teaching difficult.*
- *I think that when the focus is the material and not egos, all will go well.*

These comments seem to indicate that most CITT practitioners attribute some degree of importance to personality complementarity, particularly in terms of the negative potential of conflicting personalities to damage a team teaching partnership. Yet complementary

personalities are largely perceived as just one aspect of many variables contributing to an effective partnership, rather than a prime aspect upon which an effective relationship might stand or fall.

#### **5.4.2.2. Complementary teaching philosophies**

Another common category of response concerns the complementarity of teaching philosophies between partners, as follows:

- *Apart from styles and methods of teaching, philosophies of teaching are important too: such as student-centred or teacher-centred approaches.*
- *Teachers can have the same or different teaching philosophies and/or methods. It's not really important to a successful partnership, as long as they respect each other's beliefs, communicate and share power.*
- *For the teaching philosophies, goals, and beliefs about learning, I rated these things as being very important, but not essential. The reason is that, while we may not always agree with each other, if we are willing to try new things and compromise, partnerships can still work well.*
- *In items 3-5, I'm presuming 'complementary' means something like 'making up for weak points of the other'. If the intended meaning was more like 'compatible', my answers would be towards 'very important'. (In this case, the respondent had rated 'complementary teaching philosophies', 'complementary teaching goals' and 'complementary beliefs about how people learn second/other languages' as *slightly important*.)*

These responses suggest that the respondents do not share a clear consensus of belief about the importance of complementary teaching philosophies. As evidenced by the last comment, a potential for confusion of the meaning of 'complementary' may have caused some divergence of responses, in spite of the appearance of a clarification of the term on the previous page,

where it first appeared.<sup>7</sup> In addition, most respondents seem disinclined to single out complementary teaching philosophies from related items in this section of the questionnaire, such as complementary teaching goals or complementary beliefs about learning. Instead, they show a tendency to comment on them collectively, suggesting a common perception of high interdependency between these aspects.

#### **5.4.2.3. Supporting or correcting a partner**

The issue of whether to support or correct a partner in front of students in the team taught classroom elicited many open-ended responses from participants, as follows:

- *Teachers should see that information and instructions are correct by planning and negotiation with their partner outside of class or in a manner that does not embarrass the partner.*
- *If there is a conflict of opinion between partners, that should not be dealt with in front of the students. This can be taken care of during planning and preparation time.*
- *In my opinion, it IS important to support your team teaching partner in front of the students (i.e., not demeaning them or arguing with them), however it is OK to correct them if they give misinformation that might be confusing to students, so long as it is done in a kind way. Those are very different things.*
- *Correcting a partner, if necessary, should occur in private, not in front of students, and then only if the error being corrected is in the other partner's professional domain. Pedagogical disagreements should not be approached as errors but as issues to be negotiated, again in private.*

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<sup>7</sup> The questionnaire item 'Team teaching partners have complementary personalities' was clarified with the addition of the following text in the final draft: '(i.e. personalities that work together well)'. The need for clarification of this item was identified at the piloting stage, and the intention was to provide clarification that was as unambiguous as possible for NS and NNS respondents from diverse cultural backgrounds (see also section 7.4).

- *If one teacher makes a mistake, that mistake should be corrected in a respectful, constructive manner. Everyone makes mistakes from time to time. Most of the time errors occur, they are the equivalent of typos on the whiteboard. Calling my partner's attention to them, generally clears things up right away. ... One thing I try to avoid is undermining my partner's authority in class.*

In these responses, respondents unreservedly emphasize the importance of one partner supporting the other in front of students, and managing any conflicts or negotiations outside the shared classroom. The respondents evidently recognise an important distinction between team teaching partners' in-classroom and out-of-classroom behaviour in the negotiation of differences. Those who do advocate in-classroom correction qualify and limit such actions. Firstly, they advise that correction should only occur in response to 'errors' or 'misinformation' that could negatively impact on students, rather than differences of opinion between the partners. Secondly, they advise that the corrector should behave in a 'kind' or 'respectful' manner and avoid embarrassing the recipient.

#### **5.4.2.4. Different teacher opinions**

Several respondents commented on the statement that effective team teachers show students by example that teachers can have different opinions, as follows:

- *Teachers should see that information and instructions are correct by planning and negotiation with their partner outside of class or in a manner that does not embarrass the partner. This can include showing students that there are varying viewpoints on a subject. However, the students should not be put in a position of managing conflicts between teachers. (In other words, showing that there are various opinions is different from presenting conflicting information).*
- *The partners work together as a team in order to impart information, but I think that there should be freedom within a classroom to allow for differing opinions,*

*thoughts, etc., be it from the teachers or the students. The key point is the manner how these differences are presented and the reason for presenting a differing opinion. Differing means something different than conflicting.*

- *Demonstrating that teachers can have different opinions is important too, but only when it is appropriate for us to have differing opinions. Subjective topics, belief in this or that theory, ideas about which of two options is preferred, etc.*
- *I would go so far as to say that sometimes differing viewpoints can help me to think of things in new ways. If my partner always thinks the same way I do, there will be less variation, and less challenge.*

Here, two respondents emphasize the importance of recognising a distinction between the terms ‘differing’, as in differences of opinion, and ‘conflicting’ as in conflicting information or the conflict between team teaching partners that should be negotiated outside the shared classroom. If the distinction is made, there seems to be a consensus that differing teacher viewpoints can be displayed in the team taught classroom beneficially, though there seems to be variation in their assessment of the importance of doing so.

#### **5.4.2.5. Respect for one’s partner**

Some comments emerged with reference to the questionnaire items dealing with the way a team teacher shows respect for the partner in the college community, as follows:

- *I believe respecting each other's area of expertise is at least as important as any of these [section D questionnaire items]. Teaching partnerships can succeed as long as both partners respect the position of the other partner, even if the partners are not perfectly compatible.*
- *Certainly those who have given it thought attach major importance to personality. I have a different model based on holistic pedagogy and professional respect ...regardless. My view is not shared by the powers that be.*



- *Teachers can have the same or different teaching philosophies and/or methods. It's not really important to a successful partnership, as long as they respect each other's beliefs, communicate and share power.*
- *If one teacher makes a mistake, that mistake should be corrected in a respectful, constructive manner. Everyone makes mistakes from time to time.*

It is notable that these respondents do not focus on a single aspect of how team teachers show respectfulness in a partnership. Rather, they attribute importance to team teachers showing respectfulness in a variety of ways, including respect for a partner's expertise, position, professional status, beliefs and fallibility. Evidently, respect is perceived to impact broadly on a range of team teaching factors, which is consistent with the focus group findings.

#### **5.4.2.6. Criticism of questionnaire**

Some respondents left comments that were critical of certain aspects of the questionnaire itself. The first group of these responses concerns the difficulty of ensuring complete anonymity in a survey of members of a single, small college community:

- *The guarantees of anonymity you promise in the description of your study are vitiated in this small community by the specificity of the demographic information you require.*
- *If one answers the demographic questions on the first page, then anonymity cannot be preserved given the small number of potential respondents.*
- *With biographical data provided, the questionnaire is hardly 'completely anonymous', but here you go.*

Other responses were critical of the efficacy of the questionnaire items to elicit useful information, as follows:

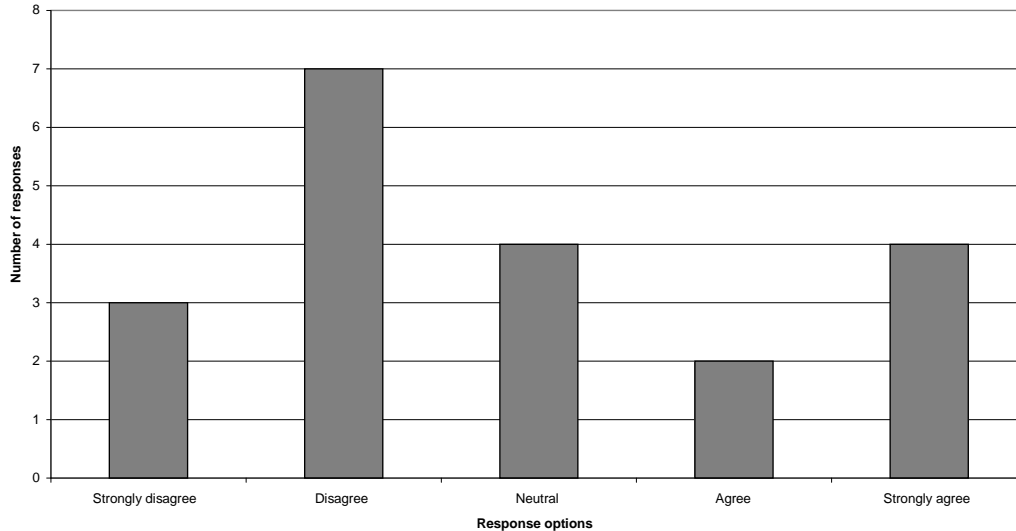
- *Questions such as sharing authority are power issues touching the deep psyche. It is unrealistic to expect MIC teachers to explicitly discuss them.*
- *Depending on the particular partner involved, the answers [to section A questionnaire items] would vary. Maybe wildly.*
- *Again, case by case depending on who the partner is and what you are teaching.*

These responses illustrate some of the difficulties that were experienced in surveying CITT practitioners. These difficulties are addressed in more depth in section 5.5.

#### **5.4.3. Student needs**

In the final section of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the following statement: *The only important measure of the effectiveness of a team teaching partnership is whether or not it meets student needs.* Results demonstrate some degree of polarisation, though with a weak tendency toward disagreement. This questionnaire item received 20 response counts on the Likert scale, with a modal score of ‘2’ (i.e., ‘disagree’ was the most common response to this item, selected by seven respondents). Of the remaining responses, four respondents chose ‘strongly agree’, four respondents chose ‘neutral’, three respondents chose ‘strongly disagree’ and two respondents chose ‘agree’, resulting in a mean score of 2.85 (where ‘2’ indicates ‘disagree’ and ‘3’ indicates ‘neutral’; see Figure 5.3).

**Figure 5.3**  
**Distribution of responses to student needs statement**



Participants were asked to comment on their reasons for responding to the statement as they had, and 19 did so. From the six respondents in agreement with the statement, the following are typical comments:

- *It's crystal clear, the purpose of team or any other teaching is to help the students to learn the best possible way.*
- *There can be other measures of how good the partnership is, but I think most people teaching today would say that effectiveness and meeting student needs are the same thing.*
- *The job of a teacher is to give students what they need in order to get their diploma, certificate, whatever.*
- *Team teaching - like any other teaching - ought to serve the needs of the students. If students learn from the partnership I would consider it a successful one.*

Although, inevitably, no respondent declared that student needs were unimportant, many indicated that it was necessary to take other factors into account to measure the effectiveness

of a team teaching partnership. From the ten respondents in disagreement with the statement, the following are typical comments:

- *Students' needs are not the only measure, other goals need to be met: institutional; course; teachers; stakeholders, etc.*
- *If students learn but the teachers are miserable in the process, this is not successful, in my opinion.*
- *The end product to the students cannot accurately reflect the effectiveness of a partnership.*
- *It is the main criterion but not the only one.*
- *Learning outcomes are very important, but there are other qualitative dimensions of both the learning and the teaching experience that ideally also should be attended to in the partnership.*
- *The goal of teaching is to meet student needs. However, simply meeting that goal is not sufficient if the teachers are at each other's throats all the time.*

One of the disagreeing respondents even addressed the polarising nature of this issue directly with the following comment:

- *Teachers often disagree on this very point--what students' most important needs are and how best to meet them.*

Despite the evident polarisation, four respondents chose neutral responses to the statement on the Likert scale, and left such comments as:

- *I am not sure that I agree or disagree with this statement. Although meeting students needs is the point of our jobs, we do have to work together, and if the partnership is miserable, even if the students' needs are being met, I would not consider that an effective partnership, merely a passable one.*
- *Picking 'neutral' is the only reasonable option in the case of an "all or nothing" question like this.*

- *Not the "only" measure, certainly not of "effectiveness". Not just student "needs" but also some tangible results in terms of learning for students PLUS a willingness (or even enthusiasm) to teach together again.*

Such comments are suggestive that these respondents were actually in disagreement with the statement, despite their choice of 'neutral' on the Likert scale, since they evidently believed that other variables of relevance had been excluded from the statement. It is possible that these respondents were uncomfortable with the deliberate absolutism in the wording of the statement, and so sought to express their opinions through qualifying commentary rather than through use of the scale options.

Although the data from this questionnaire item demonstrate that most respondents tended to disagree with the statement, the strong agreement of a significant minority is consistent with the focus group findings.

#### **5.4.4. Biographical results**

As has been mentioned, some respondents expressed concern over anonymity issues.

Certainly, there are difficulties inherent in conducting survey research of a single, small college faculty population when the researcher is a member of that population. In this situation, any survey response inevitably carries a degree of potential identity disclosure to a researcher who is a colleague to the respondent. This is particularly true of biographical information from any respondent who might be defined by biographical criteria that are under-represented within the CITT population as a whole.

In response to these concerns, an email was distributed to all potential respondents part-way through the data collection process to reiterate that all parts of the questionnaire were voluntary (with the sole exception of the initial ‘gateway’ question asking whether or not the reader wished to proceed to the questionnaire), including questions requesting biographical information. Recipients of the email were reminded that they were under no obligation to provide responses to all prompts, but were at liberty to refrain from responding to any questionnaire item or items that they did not wish to answer, for any reason. After this reminder was distributed, one respondent submitted his/her questionnaire with most of the items completed but the entire biographical section left blank.

The issue of potential identity disclosure was reexamined at the data analysis stage of the research process, once all respondents had submitted their questionnaires. While there would have been no difficulty in organising and presenting the data to preclude any respondent identification by readers of the published results, it was clear that the concerns of CITT practitioners regarding this issue needed to be taken into consideration. Results suggested that a comparative analysis across groups defined by biographical criteria may have allowed readers who were familiar with the college community, by a process of elimination, to identify limited groups of potential respondents from whom data was likely to have been drawn. Given the particular sensitivity expressed by respondents to this issue, such a narrowing of possibilities could have led to feelings of discomfort among certain members of the faculty and even discouraged them from participating in future research. Therefore, as an ethical consideration, the decision was taken to omit from the results of this study all personal data collected from the biographical section of the questionnaire. Since the biographical

questions were included solely to gather exploratory baseline data for future studies, and were not part of the main purpose of the survey, nor dependent upon responses to other sections of the questionnaire, the research was not unduly compromised by this decision.

Nevertheless, although personal data have been omitted from these results, the responses to one questionnaire item in the biographical section of the questionnaire have been included. The questionnaire item required respondents to indicate whether their primary designation at MIC was content teacher or language teacher. This designation is not personal or private, but institutionally mandated, and a prime feature of the CITT partnership. Furthermore, the data for this item revealed that ten of the respondents were content teachers and nine were language teachers. These numbers produced a highly proportionate ratio between the two groups of teacher-types, allowing for a high degree of effectiveness in the testing of significant differences in their responses, while offering a minimum of potential identity disclosure. For these reasons, data derived from the content-language teacher distinction are presented here as the sole exception to the omission of data from the biographical section of the questionnaire.

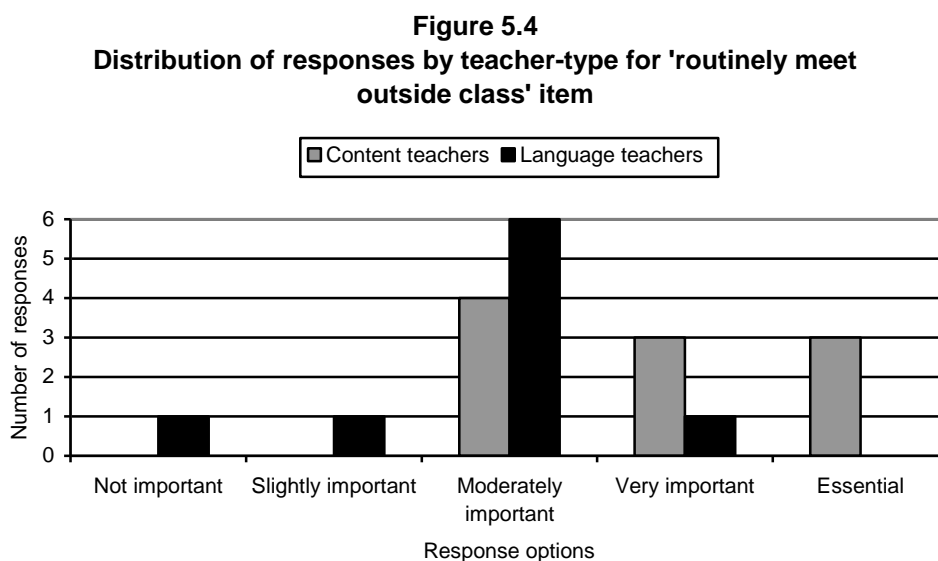
Data from this questionnaire item were used to test for significant differences between the importance rankings of content and language teachers. The Mann-Whitney U test was selected as an appropriate instrument for this purpose. Where the parametric *t* test assumes the data to be interval or ratio-based, the Mann-Whitney U, as an equivalent non-parametric test, is designed to measure ordinal data that are not necessarily distributed normally in each group (Burns, 1997). Though less powerful, it is therefore more robust when analysing responses

from small samples of ranked responses, allowing meaningful comparisons to be made. The Mann-Whitney U test results for the questionnaire revealed no significant differences at a significance value of  $p < 0.05$  between the two groups of teacher designations for all but three of the questionnaire items, as listed in Table 5.4.

**Table 5.4: Questionnaire items showing significant differences between content and language teachers.**

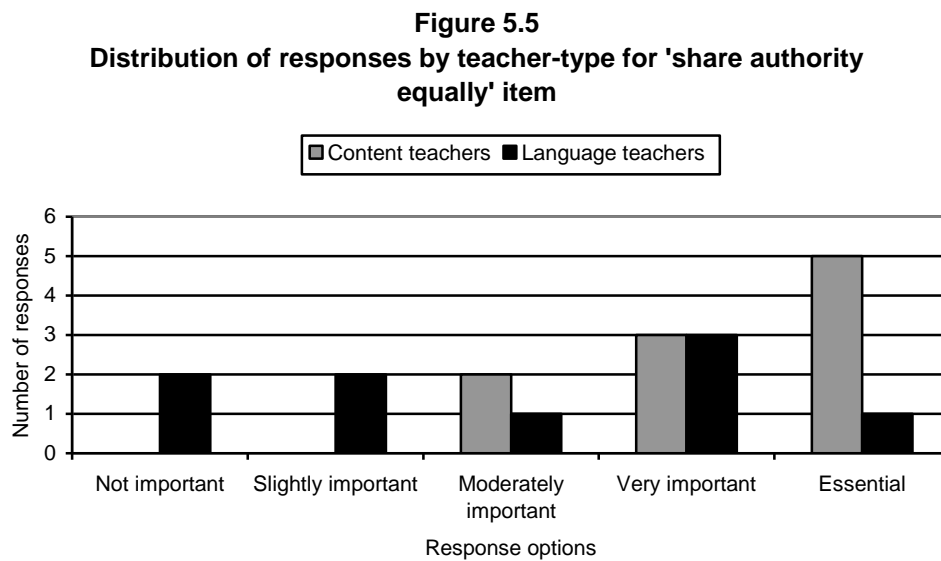
Questionnaire item	Significance value
<i>Team teaching partners routinely meet outside class for joint lesson planning</i>	0.007
<i>Team teaching partners share authority equally within their partnership</i>	0.028
<i>Team teaching partners routinely communicate with each other about their shared course</i>	0.046

The questionnaire item *Team teaching partners routinely meet outside class for joint lesson planning* showed the greatest degree of difference, with content teachers rating the item significantly higher in importance than the language teachers (See Figure 5.4).



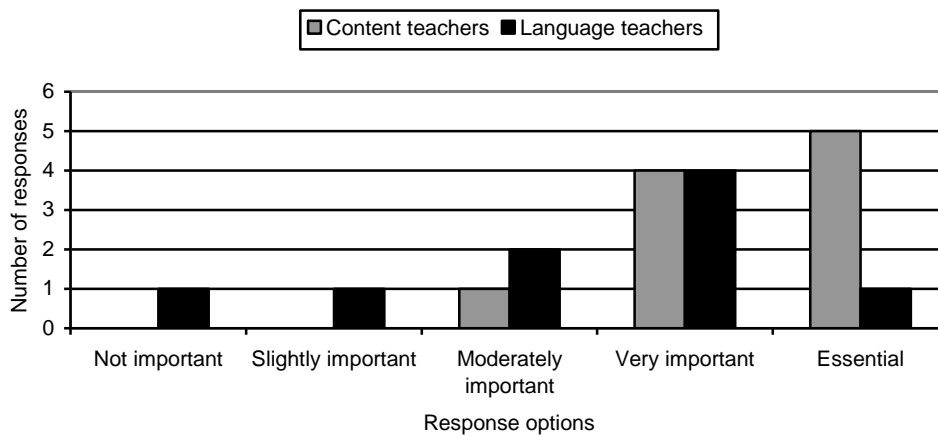


The questionnaire item *Team teaching partners share authority equally within their partnership* was rated 'very important' or 'essential' by eight of the ten content teachers, while the language teachers rated this item far less consistently, with a wide distribution of responses from 'not important' to 'essential' (See Figure 5.5).



Finally, the questionnaire item *Team teaching partners routinely communicate with each other about their shared course* tended to be rated lower in importance by language teachers than content teachers (although most language teachers rated the item at moderate importance or higher; See Figure 5.6).

**Figure 5.6**  
**Distribution of responses by teacher-type for 'routinely  
communicate with each other' item**



Overall, no significant statistical difference emerged between content and language teachers for 24 of the 27 importance-ranked questionnaire items at  $p < 0.05$ . Sample sizes are relatively small when drawn from such a limited population, necessarily limiting the effectiveness of statistical testing, so caution must be exercised in the interpretation of results. Nevertheless, the high degree of correspondence between content and language teachers in these results is noteworthy.

## **5.5. Discussion**

In this section, the different types of findings from the teacher questionnaire study are drawn together and discussed, with reference to major themes emerging from the responses.

Although it is more traditional for the problems and limitations of a study to be included at the end of such a discussion, they are presented here at the beginning, in section 5.5.1., because some of the issues arising in the course of data interpretation will be more readily understood with prior reference to this information (see particularly section 5.5.9). In addition to coverage of the high importance rankings of the responses and major themes drawn from both quantitative and qualitative data, there is a discussion of the ‘student needs’ question (see section 5.4.3) and the content/language teacher differences identified from biographical data (see section 5.4.4).

### **5.5.1. Problems and limitations**

Although the questionnaire was a useful instrument for collecting cross-sectional data from a substantial proportion of the CITT practitioner population, it has a number of fundamental limitations. First, it offers only a single ‘snapshot’ of teacher opinions at the time of survey distribution, rather than a recurrent study of teacher opinions that may change over time, particularly when faculty members leave and are replaced. Second, it collects data based on the perceptions and opinions of CITT practitioners that may not adequately represent the actual behaviour of those practitioners in the team-taught classroom, or elsewhere in the workplace. Follow-up observational studies would be required to test whether team teachers’ actions are consistent with their beliefs and opinions. Third, it is confined to responses from teachers only, not their students. Although a study of team teaching might be expected to focus primarily on the classroom participants who initiate the teaching process, it is important

to recognise that most of the participants in the team taught classroom are students, not CITT practitioners. Follow-up studies of the beliefs and opinions of student participants would help to supplement findings from this questionnaire, and provide a more comprehensive perspective on CITT from those who are involved in its implementation (see Chapter 6).

The chief causes of difficulty in the administration of the questionnaire have been the small size of the population to be investigated, and the fact that I, the researcher, am a working member of the target population.

As has been noted, with a sample size of only 20 participants providing substantial sets of responses, the potential for effective statistical testing of resulting data is low, and it is problematic to generalise from such findings. There is also a danger that atypical or outlying participants could skew the data to a disproportionate degree, when measured against the responses of a reduced number of participants who are more representative of the population as a whole. However, since the quantitative data were designed to be ordinal, they are less vulnerable to such statistical error as other types of data, such as interval-based or ratio-based. Also, an appropriately non-parametric test for statistical difference was used in the analysis of responses, helping to address this limitation. Yet the most pertinent justification for the small sample size of respondents in this survey is that a study of a much larger group of CITT practitioners is simply impossible at the present time. As a long-term teaching initiative applied across an entire college curriculum for lower-division students, CITT is a rarity confined to the single, small institution where it originated. The entire population of active CITT practitioners seldom exceeds 32 at any given time, as constrained by the size of the

faculty body. Therefore, a questionnaire that has elicited full responses from 20 of those practitioners presents data from over 60% of the CITT practitioner population. Proportionally, such a sample group is an excellent size in terms of representing the responses of that population as a whole (indeed, it would be an unrealistically large percentage for more substantial populations), and could not easily have been bettered under the circumstances (see also section 5.5.9).

In terms of my closeness to the participants as a member of the target population, measures were taken to minimise any potential threat to researcher objectivity in the collection of data, as described in the methodology section of this chapter. Yet a more prominent difficulty relating to my membership of the target population arose from the respondents' expressions of their particular sensitivity to issues of anonymity in data collection. As has been listed in the results section, steps were taken to address these issues as they emerged during the data collection and analysis stages.

In retrospect, one of the ways that the survey design could have been improved is to have refrained from collecting any biographical data from the outset. A more productive alternative, perhaps, would have been to adopt the same procedures for maintaining anonymity that were implemented, but to advise potential respondents that the survey was confidential, rather than anonymous. In this way, any respondents who were particularly sensitive to the degree of potential identity disclosure implicit in the biographical questions might have felt more reassured by survey information that explicitly recognised the possibility that the researcher

may have accurately guessed the identity of one or more respondents, yet was duty-bound not to publicise such information.

### **5.5.2. Critical aspects of CITT**

The analysis of Likert scale-based data from the questionnaire allowed different items to be ranked in order of importance, as attributed by the cumulative responses of participating team teachers. The two questionnaire items ranked at the highest level of importance by respondents, each with a mean score of 4.37, were *Team teaching partners believe they can trust each other* and *Inside their shared classroom, team teachers give students non-conflicting instructions*. One of these items is specifically concerned with a team teacher's professional responsibilities to his/her partner, while the other is specifically concerned with a team teacher's professional responsibilities to his/her students. Yet both items are believed to be of equally critical importance to an effective partnership. Therefore, this finding is suggestive that team teachers may face potential conflicts of interest if these responsibilities become mutually exclusive. For example, if it is critically important for team teaching partners to trust each other, but one partner is prepared to contradict the other partner in the classroom out of the belief that his/her responsibility to the students necessitates such action, this could be interpreted by the latter as a betrayal of trust in the former's supportiveness. Such an interpretation seems particularly likely if there is not a high level of mutual respect in the relationship to begin with. One respondent in the initial focus group study alluded to such a situation when defining a disrespectful team teaching partner as someone who, in the shared classroom, repeatedly asserted that what the respondent was saying was wrong.

The respondents' open-ended comments on these aspects suggest that CITT practitioners recognise an important distinction between teachers' in-classroom and out-of-classroom behaviour in their negotiation of differences, and broadly condemn in-classroom contradiction of one partner by another. Yet they also indicate recognition of the need to do so should the contradicting teacher believe that he/she is acting in response to a perceived 'error' or 'misinformation'. If the contradicting team teacher believes that the partner is erroneously giving students instructions that conflict with prior instructions, or with the teachers' expectation of what they require of their students, then the contradicter is likely to believe that his/her action is justifiable in terms of the responsibility to give students non-conflicting instructions.

In this context, it is perhaps not surprising that the questionnaire item specifically addressing inter-partner support (*Inside their shared classroom, team teachers support what their partners say in front of their students*) falls in the very middle of the importance rankings, as the 14<sup>th</sup> most important item out of 27, since respondents would consider such support to be important, yet be aware of possible extenuating circumstances which could justify its withdrawal. The concern with a potential conflict of these responsibilities is well expressed in the following words of one respondent from the initial focus group study (as noted in section 4.4.3):

*"You don't want to stop them [your team teaching partner], you know, midstream and then, and say, no, that's wrong. On the other hand, you don't want the students to be misled on something that needs to be, you know, made clear to them."* (CT3)

Since the two highest-ranked questionnaire items are considered by respondents to be equally important, it is evident that any potential conflict between them would be a key factor in any study of CITT, and that further research into how team teachers effectively resolve such conflicts could be beneficial to future collaborative classroom practice.

### **5.5.3. Conflicting information and teacher disagreement**

One of the inferences from the findings of the initial focus group study was that team teachers must make a distinction between classroom instruction and classroom information, in the sense that the former tells students what they must do to meet course requirements, while the latter is concerned with the dissemination of knowledge. Focus group respondents expressed a belief that there are potential benefits in team teaching partners giving students conflicting information to help them develop their critical thinking skills, where the divergence of information is likely to model accepted differences of opinion between authorities in the wider academic or general community. However, giving students conflicting instructions is likely to create problems for students and teachers alike, and constitute a threat to effective team teaching.

The data from the questionnaire study are highly supportive of this inference, with respondents demonstrating a clear recognition of a distinction between the terms by responding very differently to their corresponding questionnaire items and showing much more acceptance of ‘conflicting information’ than ‘conflicting instructions’ in the team-taught classroom. *Inside their shared classroom, team teachers give students non-conflicting instructions* was ranked equal first in the importance rankings by respondents, compared with



*Inside their shared classroom, team teachers give students non-conflicting information* ranked at only 19<sup>th</sup> in importance, with a mean value of 3.32, and *Inside their shared classroom, team teachers correct their partners if necessary, to ensure their students receive accurate information* ranked 22<sup>nd</sup> in importance, with a mean value of 3.16.

The respondents' open-ended comments were also largely supportive of the focus group study findings and consistent with the Likert scale rankings. Respondents seem to accept differing teacher viewpoints in the team taught classroom with respect to information or opinions, while cautioning that classroom instruction should be consistent. For example, although one respondent notes that 'conflicting instructions' and 'conflicting information' are "not always discernable", he/she believes that attempting to discern the difference between them is important; while another respondent states that "instructions and facts ... should be accurate and consistent" but "demonstrating that teachers can have different opinions is important, too".

The respondents' acceptance of the expression of different partner viewpoints in the shared classroom is particularly prominent when viewed in the context of the prime importance they attach to avoiding instructional conflict. Though only ranking moderately highly with respondents in terms of importance (equal 15<sup>th</sup>, with a mean score of 3.53), *Inside their shared classroom, team teachers show students by example that teachers can have different opinions* emerged as a major theme of the open-ended response data in terms of its potential benefits to students and teachers alike. The idea that the team taught classroom is an appropriate forum for partners to express differing opinions is expressed in the comments of multiple respondents, as shown in the results section. Two respondents even expressed a

preference for a redefinition of terms to avoid the word ‘conflicting’ altogether for the description of differing partner opinions. These respondents interpret ‘conflicting’ as a condition of dispute that, by definition, should be negotiated by teaching partners outside the shared classroom. The clear implication of these responses is that it is considered acceptable, even desirable, for teaching partners to diverge from the ‘united front’ mode of behaviour expected for classroom instruction when they are presenting information to their students on which they hold different points of view. Yet how they do so is another issue, into which other themes such as adaptability and respect are likely to play a part.

#### **5.5.4. Adaptability in team teaching**

In the initial focus group study, the question was raised of how respondents balance the need for flexible, adaptive behaviour with the need for more predetermined behaviour from practising team teachers. For this aspect of CITT, the questionnaire respondents clearly place an emphasis on the importance of team teacher adaptability. The third- and fourth-highest ranked questionnaire items are concerned with a team teacher’s adaptability to different ways of teaching and unexpected challenges, with a modal score of 5 for each, and mean scores exceeding 4.20. Predetermined or pre-guided classroom behaviour, by comparison, seems much less important to respondents. The need for joint lesson planning outside the classroom is ranked only 18<sup>th</sup> in importance, and the need for prior training and experience in team teaching are ranked 25<sup>th</sup> and 26<sup>th</sup>.

These responses are consistent with findings from the initial focus group study, where the need for teacher flexibility was identified as one of the most important aspects of effective team teaching. It is possible that team teachers place a strong emphasis on adaptability

because, in comparison with the control available to a single teacher in a non-collaborative classroom environment, the events that occur in a team-taught classroom are further beyond the control of either of the two teachers in charge. Each CITT practitioner is obliged to share his/her privileged classroom position with a colleague of (typically) equal authority who is capable of changing the procedures at any time, and he/she must therefore have the ability to handle sudden change in the normal course of events.

Though not a major theme, the emphasis on teacher adaptability over predetermined behaviour is expressed in some of the open-ended response data. For example, one respondent asserts that “being flexible and willing to try new things is more important (*sic*) than having done [team teaching] somewhere else”. Another respondent, in criticising the questionnaire items, argues that team teachers’ responses could “vary wildly” from one partnership to another and that team teaching could only be understood on a “case by case” basis. These comments demonstrate the respondent’s evident conviction that team teaching dynamics are so unpredictable that they defy the implicit generalities of the questionnaire itself. Although atypical, this conviction is perhaps representative in the sense that it reflects CITT practitioners’ widespread belief that a teacher who cannot adapt to new or unexpected situations cannot team teach effectively.

If a team teacher has a tendency to conform to predetermined classroom behaviour, as guided by his/her prior training or experience, or indeed by both partner’s predetermined lesson planning decisions, it is likely to place certain constraints on what the teachers do. It might be argued that a team teacher’s tendency to act ‘on the fly’ in response to unexpected classroom

events would be limited by these constraints. Such a limitation could be counter-productive to effective team teaching. Therefore, the respondents' low importance rankings of the more 'structured behaviour' questionnaire items might well be explicable in these terms. It might also be argued that a high degree of adaptive ability could better aid team teachers in finding new ways to resolve the potential conflicts inherent in the two highest-ranked questionnaire items than could a tendency to conform to more predetermined behaviour. This fact could further enhance a CITT practitioner's perceived value of a teacher's adaptive ability.

#### **5.5.5. Openness**

Alongside 'flexibility', 'openness' was identified by the initial focus group participants as one of the most important aspects of team teaching. If it is inferred that openness is a willingness to communicate for cooperative purposes, as was argued in the focus group data analysis, the questionnaire findings offer some support for the focus group responses. *A team teacher is willing to communicate openly with his/her partner about their shared course* ranked highly in sixth place, with a mean score of 4.15. Other, related items were considered less important, with *Team teaching partners routinely communicate with each other about their shared course* ranked in joint 11<sup>th</sup> place, and *Team teaching partners routinely meet outside class for joint lesson planning* in 18<sup>th</sup> place. It is evident from these data that respondents were less concerned with the specific arrangements team teaching partners make to ensure that joint communications occur than with their willingness to initiate open communications in some form or another in the first instance. With respect to the respondents' emphasis on the importance of adaptability to different ways of teaching and unexpected challenges, it might be inferred from these findings that CITT practitioners believe effective team teachers are best left free to develop communications between each other about their shared course as adapted

to the needs of their specific situations, instead of conforming to any routinised arrangement, as long as both partners are willing to communicate openly in the course of those communications.

#### **5.5.6. Respect and trust**

In the initial focus group study, respondents indicated that ‘respect’ was the most important aspect arising from their discussions of team teaching. By comparison, the questionnaire data do not support this finding directly, in that the four highest-ranked items do not include the concept of team teacher ‘respect’. However, there is strong support for the finding to be found in the questionnaire responses overall.

In the open-ended responses, the concept of respect emerged as a major theme, impacting on many different aspects of team teaching. These responses are consistent with the focus group findings, which suggest that respect is perceived to underlie different components of an effective CITT partnership. In the importance rankings, all questionnaire items concerned with team teachers’ respect for their partners as manifested in their behaviour scored consistently highly, at a mean score level of 4.11 or more. *In the MIC community, a team teacher demonstrates respectfulness for his/her partner’s contributions to their shared course* ranked 5<sup>th</sup> in importance, while *In the MIC community, a team teacher demonstrates respectfulness for his/her partner’s position as a professional academic* and *In the MIC community, a team teacher demonstrates respectfulness for his/her partner’s expertise* ranked equal 7<sup>th</sup>.

It is notable that a team teacher's contributions to his/her team-taught course ranks as the most important of these particular items, considering that such contributions are more tangible and visible to all classroom participants than the potentialities of a teacher's expertise or professional standing within the institution. As has been suggested, if the public demonstration of disrespect by a team teacher for what his/her partner is bringing to the shared course is perceived by the partner as a betrayal of trust, such an action is likely to constitute a critical threat to the team teachers' relationship, and feature prominently in the concerns of respondents.

Yet the identification of 'trust' as a feature of effective team teaching from the literature review, together with its emergence as a theme of critical importance in the questionnaire data, makes the relative absence of any specific mention of the term by the focus group participants a notable omission. One possibility is that relationships of trust in a partnership, though not discussed directly, are alluded to in some of the focus group discussions through use of related terminology. For example, one focus group participant identified the single most important point about effective team teaching in the following terms:

*"When these small conflicts do come up, the willingness to, the feeling that you can talk about it with your, with your partner and if, if you do have some sort of conflict, you have the confidence that you can work it out and reach some kind of a compromise with them."*

It might be argued that this “feeling that you can talk about it” or “confidence that you can work it out”, suggesting that an effective teaching partner is receptive to compromise and open negotiation, implies a spirit of trust between the two team teachers.

The question now arises as to what kind of relationship might exist between ‘trust’ and ‘respect’, as the two most important features of an effective CITT partnership, identified by participants of the focus group and questionnaire studies. If one accepts that it is easier to maintain trust in a partnership when participants publicly demonstrate respectfulness for their partners, the high importance attached to respectful behaviour by questionnaire respondents is consistent. It is also suggestive that CITT practitioners may perceive a direct and positive association between these two key features of a team teaching partnership. Further research into how team teachers conceptualise their notions of ‘trust’ and ‘respect’ might prove helpful in identifying and understanding such an association, which would clearly be of major relevance to CITT practitioners themselves.

#### **5.5.7. Role and power sharing**

Another questionnaire finding that is consistent with data from the initial focus group study is concerned with role sharing and power sharing within the team teaching partnership. As shown in the results, the questionnaire item ranked of lowest importance by respondents was *Team teaching partners give the teacher with seniority more authority than his/her partner*, ranked 27<sup>th</sup> in importance with a modal score of 1 (*‘not important’*) and a mean score of 1.6. By comparison, respondents attached a high degree of importance to *Team teaching partners mutually agree how authority should be shared within their partnership*, ranked equal seventh in importance, and *Team teaching partners mutually agree to their roles within their*

*partnership*, ranked tenth in importance, both with mean scores exceeding 4.0 (‘*very important*’). From these data, it might be argued that a team teaching partnership is more likely to function effectively if the two partners negotiate and mutually agree how to distribute authority and role responsibilities between themselves than if one team teacher assumes control without his/her partner’s consent.

Furthermore, as was concluded from the focus group analysis, the need for team teaching partners to ensure that they share authority equally within their relationship, though institutionally mandated, is considered less important by respondents than the need for team teaching partners to mutually agree how they distribute authority between themselves, whether it is an equal distribution or not. This is evident in such open-ended responses as: “Authority should be equal initially, but if the partners agree to shift in some way that's fine”, and the fact that the questionnaire item *Team teaching partners share authority equally within their partnership* ranked only 17<sup>th</sup> in importance, with a mean score of 3.5. Evidently, there is a consensual belief among CITT practitioners that unequal partnerships can work (though it has been noted that they are not as effective as equal partnerships), but only if both partners agree to the arrangement. The arrogation of power by one partner over another, however, even if the offending partner has institutional seniority, is perceived as a critical threat to an effective partnership.

#### **5.5.8. Complementary personalities**

An overview of the questionnaire findings reveals that the Likert scale-based responses are largely consistent with the respondents’ open-ended comments. However, in one case, the results suggest that respondents attach a high degree of importance to one particular aspect of



team teaching, despite not ranking it highly on the Likert scale. Although the questionnaire item *Team teaching partners have complementary personalities (i.e., personalities that work together well)* was ranked at a comparatively low 13<sup>th</sup> place, with a mean score of 3.79, its importance is highlighted by the emergence of a disproportionately large number of open-ended responses concerned with this aspect of CITT. Examples include: “complementary personalities are a huge plus” and “personalities that work together are more important in producing a good partnership than prior experience, education, etc”.

It is possible that the ‘complementary personalities’ questionnaire item ranked comparatively low on the Likert scale because some respondents believe the need for complementary personalities is lessened if the partners exhibit a higher degree of professionalism, as is evidenced by such comments as: “[some people] attach major importance to personality. I have a different model based on ... professional respect” and “the importance of personality varies according to the level of professionalism of the individuals involved”. If, then, ‘professional behaviour’ encompasses respect (as the former respondent seems to indicate), and a positive association does indeed exist between ‘respect’ and ‘trust’ in the perceptions of CITT practitioners, the scale ranking of complementary personalities becomes more explicable in terms of these respondents’ qualifying comments. One might infer that trust and respect are of greater importance than personality, but that complementarity in the personalities of the two team teachers is perceived to have a strong supplementary power to maintain an effective partnership.

#### **5.5.9. Question avoidance**

The respondents' particular sensitivity to issues of anonymity, which was revealed during the survey process, has raised some interesting and unexpected questions about teachers' attitudes to critical investigations into CITT. While it is acknowledged that an amendment of terms in the survey information page from 'anonymous' to 'confidential' is likely to have improved the design, the fact remains that the conditions under which the data collection for this study occurred conformed to rigorous ethical standards. The questionnaire software did not require compulsory responses to any of the item prompts (with the sole exception of the initial 'gateway' question to access the questionnaire itself; see section 5.4.4), and data were collected under conditions of anonymity that were approved by the Macquarie Ethics Review Committee and MIC's own Testing and Research Assessment Committee (TRAC). This information was made explicit to all invitees. Also, the questionnaire items themselves were worded in objective and hypothetical language (i.e., making no reference to specific individuals or events relating to CITT) that was deemed acceptable by pilot respondents from five other institutions of tertiary education across four countries. In the final analysis, the majority of potential respondents for the study were willing to participate under these conditions, including most of those who expressed concern about anonymity issues.

Nevertheless, other evidence from the questionnaire data suggests a degree of resistance from some CITT practitioners to answer questions about CITT, even under these conditions.

Certainly, some measure of caution from team teachers in providing critically honest responses to questions might be expected, since the respondents themselves indicate that effective team teaching requires a high level of trust between partners. It therefore seems reasonable that respondents would avoid voicing critical comments that might be perceived to

jeopardise that trust. As other researchers, such as Perry and Stewart (2005), have pointed out, complete candour cannot reasonably be expected from interviewees if they know their responses can be traced back to them by partners with whom they must continue to maintain working relationships afterwards.

Yet it might be argued that the degree of resistance demonstrated by some CITT practitioners to the questionnaire exceeded reasonable caution. For example, one respondent stated directly that it was unrealistic to expect respondents to explicitly discuss such questions as how effective team teachers share authority in their partnerships, even though the questions to which they were responding were impersonal and hypothetical. Yet a counter-argument to this assertion would be that people of any professional discipline should, and usually do, discuss their work and ideas objectively with peers as part of their ongoing professional development, in order to evaluate and improve upon existing practice. In another example, one respondent left only a single comment in the final comment box of the survey, in which he/she criticised the claim of anonymity, and left all other items blank, suggesting that he/she believed the criticism to be sufficient justification for not answering the questions at all. Yet another invitee chose 'no' when asked if he/she wished to proceed with the survey, and seven more invitees left no response of any kind, even though they actively chose to enter the questionnaire after following the website link (as was recorded by the survey software) and, presumably, viewed the questionnaire items.<sup>8</sup>

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<sup>8</sup> When considering these data, it is important to understand that the survey software was designed to identify individual computer terminals used by invitees following links to the website, even though this information was kept hidden from the researcher for purposes of anonymity. Since the software was able to differentiate the respondents' access terminals, respondents could complete the survey at multiple access times without the software misinterpreting these events as different access attempts from multiple respondents. Although it must be admitted that a single respondent could have chosen to access the survey from different terminals (such as a work computer and a home computer), in which case the software would have recorded these events as access

The interpretation of this evidence to suggest that CITT practitioners might be resistant to discussing CITT is far from conclusive, and also likely to be controversial. Any research finding that challenges the claim that team teaching is uniformly beneficial to a practitioner's professional development would run counter to accepted wisdom. Many researchers have concluded from their findings that team teaching offers substantial benefits to a teacher's professional development by requiring practitioners to reflect on their own beliefs and classroom practices and repeatedly open themselves to the critical scrutiny of their peers (Edmundson & Fitzpatrick, 1997; Kaufman & Brooks, 1996; Perry & Stewart, 2005; J. Sagliano et al., 1998; Sandholtz, 2000; Stewart, 1999). Furthermore, this interpretation must be balanced against the fact that the majority of potential participants were, in fact, willing to complete the survey. Yet it is also evident that a significant minority of potential respondents displayed active resistance to the invitation to answer the survey questions, even under rigorous research conditions. From this finding, there is justification in raising the question of whether there is a tendency among some CITT practitioners to exercise excessive caution in discussing CITT, thus creating a condition of professional opaqueness that is likely to be disadvantageous to their professional development as teachers.

If some CITT practitioners are indeed demonstrating excessive caution in discussing team teaching questions, one possible reason is that the implementation of team teaching at MIC is not a short-term experiment, as is more typical of collaborative initiatives for teachers, but an initiative of unlimited duration. Even long-term implementations of teacher collaboration in

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attempts by two different respondents, it is assumed that this would not have been a typical case and that most, if not all, of the cases of individual respondents identified by the survey software are accurate.

other contexts typically impose limitations on individual teacher partnerships. For example, the JET programme limits the contract renewal terms of its individual AETs to a term not exceeding three years (or five, in exceptional circumstances) (CLAIR, 2008). The working contracts of CITT practitioners, by comparison, may be renewed indefinitely (subject to institutional approval), and consequently it is not uncommon for the same team teaching partners to maintain a relationship over many consecutive semesters, and even many years. Since 'trust' has been clearly identified by respondents in this context as critical to an effective partnership, and the voluntary selection process of MIC allows practitioners to leave their partners and make new selections whenever they feel so inclined, it may be inferred that CITT practitioners have a particularly strong vested interest in maintaining the trust of partners they wish to keep. Partnerships are likely to become entrenched over time as they become more comfortable for the participants, so that the effort required to change partners becomes increasingly prohibitive in terms of cost-benefit to the participants.

In such a situation, it would be understandable if team teachers tended to avoid any action that might conceivably prompt their partners to imagine that they are being criticised in their absence. Also, since it could be argued that teachers in long-term, closely collaborative partnerships might well become privy to sensitive or personal information about their partners, it is feasible that they would become increasingly cautious of taking any action that their partners might interpret as the covert disclosure of that information to others without their consent. Both partners in a long-term partnership have a long-term personal investment in maintaining it, and it is not unreasonable to suppose that the more important that investment, the more excessive would be the caution to avoid endangering it. It could be speculated that

any tendency among a substantial number of CITT practitioners toward excessive caution in responding to questions about CITT might be explicable in these terms. More research is needed to test this speculation and explore alternative explanations. Yet such research would prove problematic if a substantial proportion of the population to be investigated is, indeed, actively resistant to being questioned on the very subject of that investigation.

#### **5.5.10. Student needs**

In the final question of the survey, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the statement: *The only important measure of the effectiveness of a team teaching partnership is whether or not it meets student needs*. Although the results demonstrate that most respondents tend to disagree with the questionnaire statement, the strong agreement of a considerable minority is consistent with the findings of the initial focus group study, in which a minority of participants expressed the belief implicit in the statement, and strongly emphasized its importance. Similarly, respondents in agreement with the questionnaire statement seem to firmly believe that their responses are self-evidently true and that other teachers are very likely to share their opinions, as indicated through such wordings as: “it’s crystal clear” and “I think most people teaching today would say that...”. However, this belief is largely unsupported by the data. It is worth noting that the two respondents who left open-ended comments criticising the efficacy of the questionnaire were both part of the minority group expressing agreement or strong agreement with the ‘student needs’ questionnaire item. This finding is supportive of the speculation that respondents in agreement with this item are likely to hold beliefs about team teaching that lead them to perceive team teachers’ attributes, beliefs and behaviours to be of little direct relevance to the determination of a partnership’s effectiveness.

One possibility is that these minority respondents are making no provision to evaluate team teaching as an educational phenomenon in its own right, but equate it with teaching in general, as is evident in such comments as “team teaching ... like any other teaching” or “the purpose of team or any other teaching is to...”. Thus, it might be argued that they are tending to downplay the relevance of the relationship between the two team teaching partners, which is not applicable to most teaching situations. Although problematic, these respondents’ opinions are consistent with recent tendencies within the team teaching literature to shift the focus of research back to those stakeholders for whom teaching is provided in the first place, as is more typical of studies of non-collaborative education. Some researchers have argued that the students of team teaching partners have been neglected as relevant participants in the collaborative classroom dynamic and subjects as deserving of investigation as the team teachers themselves (e.g., Dudley-Evans, 2001; Tajino & Tajino, 2000). The question of how students fit into the team-taught classroom is a complex one, and has not been widely addressed by researchers as a whole. The diffuseness of teacher opinions on this questionnaire item, and the evident polarisation of beliefs that it elicits, is perhaps symptomatic of the need for further research and theoretical explication of team teaching as a holistic classroom process involving all participants, not just those who initiate it. This need is addressed at greater length in the third study of the current research series (see Chapter 6).

#### **5.5.11. Content/Language teacher differences**

Statistical testing showed significant differences between the responses of content and language teachers for three of the questionnaire items. Two of these items, *Team teaching partners routinely communicate with each other about their shared course* and *Team teaching*

*partners routinely meet outside class for joint lesson planning* are closely allied, a point that was highlighted during the initial focus group study. The latter item produced the most extreme difference for all items. In both cases, the content teachers rated the items significantly more important than did the language teachers.

While no conclusion can be drawn from these data on the subject of how CITT practitioners actually interact with each other outside the classroom, the MIC academic policies and procedures may offer insight into the abovementioned findings. Although there is some emphasis on the importance of partner collaboration and joint development of materials for class use, article 4.12 of the MIC faculty handbook recommends that the content teaching partner “suggests possible texts to use in the course”, while the language teaching partner, initially at least, “suggests the tasks [for students, derived from the planned input]” (MIC Faculty Council, 2006b). If team teaching partners observe such guidelines, it is not difficult to imagine a situation where, under working time constraints, actual meetings between partners become neglected and a process is established where a content teacher finds a suitable text and simply sends it to his/her partner,<sup>9</sup> while the language teacher adjusts the text for student use and uses it as a basis for designing classroom tasks. Although not an ideal collaboration, such a partnership could function within institutional requirements, but is likely to result in reduced collaborative communication and fewer face-to-face meetings between team teachers.

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<sup>9</sup> Email is a common medium of exchange between MIC faculty and, as one respondent comments, “Communcation (*sic*) about a course does not need to be face-to-face.”



Though conjectural, a scenario where there is a tendency for the content teachers to pass texts to language teachers for task development might explain the different responses between content and language teachers revealed in the findings. Such a process is largely one-way and initiated by the content teacher. It would not be surprising for content teachers to feel a stronger need to meet and communicate routinely with their partners outside class to gain the input that they lack, than language teachers might feel, who are already receiving a degree of input and sense of direction from their partners in the form of the texts which are being sent to them. If true, this dissimilarity in needs might be reflected in the team teachers' responses with regard to their perceived importance of partner interactions outside the classroom, as is the case with these findings. Clearly, though, this explanation is speculative, and further research is required for verification and to explore alternatives.

The third significant difference between content and language teachers emerging from the statistical testing deals with power sharing between team teaching partners. Although there was strong agreement among all respondents that team teachers should not assume authority over their partners on the basis of seniority, and no significant difference was found between content and language teachers in their responses to *Team teaching partners mutually agree how authority should be shared within their partnership*, the two groups diverged on the item *Team teaching partners share authority equally within their partnership*. Yet for this item, only one group, the content teachers, showed a strong consensus in their responses towards the higher end of the importance scale, while the responses of the language teachers were scattered diffusely across all scale options.

Such a pattern of responses is perhaps explicable in terms of the historical context of the institution where CITT is practised. As was pointed out by respondents in the initial focus group study, MIC experienced some conflict soon after its inception, when a number of content teachers attempted to assume authority over their language teacher partners on the basis of their more advanced academic qualifications.<sup>10</sup> This action was an arrogation of power, since CITT, by institutional definition, was intended to constitute collaboration between partners sharing equal authority (Stewart et al., 2000). At the time of the current study, very few of the founding faculty members remained at MIC, and most of the faculty had not been involved in these particular conflicts. Nevertheless, this aspect of institutional history is communicated among MIC teachers. It might be conjectured that, due to this history, content teachers are particularly sensitive to any accusations of inequality within team teaching partnerships today, and that this is reflected in the questionnaire data. Further evidence for this explanation is that a content teacher respondent (CT3) in the initial focus group study (see Chapter 4) was emphatic in his/her condemnation of imposed inequalities in a way that was not reflected in the responses from his/her counterparts in the language teacher focus group (see also Appendix C). By comparison, the diffuseness of the language teacher responses in the questionnaire may demonstrate their lack of collective sensitivity to this issue.

One final point remains to be stated with regard to the differences between content and language teachers. Although statistical testing demonstrated divergence on three questionnaire items, it is important to note that no statistically significant difference emerged between content and language teachers for the other 24 of the 27 importance-ranked questionnaire

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<sup>10</sup> Prerequisite qualifications for content teachers are doctoral-level, while prerequisite qualifications for language teachers are masters-level.

items at  $p < 0.05$ . In other words, there was a high degree of correspondence between almost 89% of the responses of content and language teachers. These results seem to indicate that the content/language teacher distinction, while necessary for institutional purposes, is largely irrelevant to CITT practitioners' beliefs and opinions about what constitutes effective team teaching.

A strong correspondence between the two teacher-types is also consistent with certain studies in which researchers have suggested that too much emphasis may have been placed on the differences between teaching partners in terms of their designated roles. For example, Tajino and Walker (1998) suggest that the institutional demarcation of teacher roles may hold less importance for students in the team-taught classroom than was previously supposed. Some of the respondents of the teacher questionnaire study offer comments to support this position, such as: "I don't see the need to split content and language" and "the notion that one partner is in charge of content, the other of TESOL is an intrinsic dychotomy (*sic*). We have to get round it as best we can".

## **5.6. Summary**

Two questionnaire items were attributed with the highest degree of importance to an effective team teaching partnership by respondents. These items were: *Team teaching partners believe they can trust each other* and *Inside their shared classroom, team teachers give students non-conflicting instructions*. It is suggested that conflicts may arise between partners if these responsibilities become mutually exclusive.

Respondents attributed some importance to complementary personalities between team teaching partners, though it is evident that this aspect is perceived as supplementary, rather than a prime aspect of an effective partnership. Respondents do not appear to share a clear consensual belief in the importance of complementary teaching philosophies between partners, but are emphatic in recognising the importance of one partner supporting the other in front of students. This support requires team teaching partners to negotiate their differences and resolve conflicts away from the students. Team teachers may correct their partners' errors and express differences of opinion in the classroom, as long as this does not apply to the issuing of classroom 'instruction', which requires agreement between partners, but only to classroom 'information'. A respectful relationship is also required to support the expression of differing teacher viewpoints in the classroom. Respect and trust between partners are perceived to be of key importance, impacting on a range of team teaching factors.

Other responses ranked high in importance were concerned with a team teacher's ability to adapt to unexpected classroom events. The data also suggest that respondents attribute a high degree of importance to team teachers engaging in open communications, as suited to their specific situations. It is recommended that these communications include the negotiation of mutual agreement as to how authority and role responsibilities should be distributed between the partners, since the arrogation of power by one partner over another is perceived as a critical threat. The item considered of least importance was *Team teaching partners give the teacher with seniority more authority than his/her partner*.

Evidence from the data raises the question of whether some CITT practitioners are creating a condition of professional opaqueness that may be disadvantageous to their professional development, perhaps as a consequence of their vested interest in maintaining the long-term trust of a preferred partner. Such a speculation is highly inconsistent with common findings from the team teaching literature, however, and would require a substantial degree of verification.

The question of whether student needs are the only important criterion for determining the effectiveness of a team teaching partnership seemed to polarise respondents of the teacher questionnaire study, with the data supporting the focus group findings that a small but substantial minority of CITT practitioners support this viewpoint. It is suggested that proponents of such a view may equate team teaching with teaching in general, rather than perceiving it as a distinct educational initiative.

Some statistical differences were discovered between the responses of the content teacher and language teachers subgroups within the respondent sample, and possible explanations are offered for these differences. However, a high degree of correspondence was noted between these subgroups for almost 89% of their responses, suggesting that the content/language teacher distinction is largely irrelevant to the respondents' beliefs about what constitutes effective team teaching.

In the next chapter, I present the third study in this research series, which opens up the investigation to a new population of potential respondents. The third study explores the

beliefs and opinions of the students of CITT practitioners. Though students are easily overlooked by researchers investigating the team teaching process, they themselves are participants in that process, so their perspectives offer a useful point of comparison for the teacher-focussed findings of the two studies presented thus far.

## **CHAPTER 6: STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE STUDY**

### **6.1. Introduction**

This chapter details the implementation of the third and final study in this research series, which will hereafter be referred to as the ‘student questionnaire study’. First, an introduction to the study is presented, with reference to the findings of the previous studies in this series. Second, there is a short literature review, specific to the student questionnaire study and derived from the broader review of Chapter 3. The methodology for the student questionnaire study follows, and the findings of the study are then presented, followed by data analysis. There is a discussion of changes over time in the respondents’ opinions and data interpretation issues. Finally, there is a summary of the key points presented in this chapter.

One of the unexpected findings of the initial focus group study reported in Chapter 4 was a strongly-held minority view among CITT practitioners that the effectiveness of a team teaching partnership can only be evaluated in terms of how well it meets student needs, and that an investigation of the relationship between the two team teachers is not of direct relevance to such an evaluation. The findings of the subsequent teacher questionnaire study reported in Chapter 5 also demonstrate such a viewpoint among a small but substantial minority of CITT practitioners. The practitioners holding this viewpoint adopt a stance that shifts the focus of team teaching back to the stakeholders for whom teaching is provided in the first place, thus broadening the definition of team teaching to include all classroom participants, not just those involved in initiating the teaching process. As has been mentioned, this stance is consistent with the call of recent team teaching researchers to reemphasize the importance of students in the team-taught classroom (see section 6.2). However, the issue has

been identified as one that tends to polarise CITT practitioners. Many of the respondents of the teacher questionnaire study demonstrated an unwillingness to discount the importance of the relationship between two CITT partners in evaluating the effectiveness of their joint teaching, even while recognising that the degree to which that teaching meets student needs is also important.

With the views of CITT practitioners conflicting on this point, these questionnaire findings suggested a need to heed the call of recent researchers by surveying the students of the team-taught classroom directly, since it was the students themselves who were central to the disagreement. It was anticipated that such a study could fulfil an exploratory function by investigating student responses for the first time in this series of research studies. Also, student-focussed data were expected to supplement the data from the teacher-focussed studies, and allow comparisons to be made between students' and teachers' perceptions of CITT. It was hoped that data from all classroom participants, not just teachers, would reveal a broader perspective of CITT overall. For these reasons, the student questionnaire was designed to integrate CITT students' perspectives into the accumulated findings from this research series.

At the design stage of the student questionnaire study, a particularly valuable research opportunity arose from the fortunate timing of the MIC curriculum. Since I was assigned to teach two first-year classes in the incoming students' first semester at MIC, I was given access to a pool of potential subjects at the initial stage of their introduction to CITT, and at a range of different periods throughout the 15-week academic term, as they gained experience of a variety of CITT classes across the MIC curriculum. For the preceding studies in this



research series, one limitation was that the data were collected cross-sectionally in each case, offering no insight into changes in the respondents' opinions over time. However, for the student questionnaire study, it was possible to collect data repeatedly from a consistent cohort of respondents over a 15-week period, thus allowing for a 'fuller picture' of data to emerge, reflecting any changes in the respondents' opinions in the course of the academic term. I took advantage of this opportunity, and developed the study accordingly. The student questionnaire study was designed to collect pre- and post-term data, to track possible changes in the subjects' opinions from their first week experiencing CITT in a classroom setting, to their final week after experiencing a term of team teaching at MIC. Additional responses were also collected at monthly intervals to amass further exploratory and recurrent data, and to assist in the triangulation of the results.

## **6.2. Relevant literature**

As has been noted in Chapters 4 and 5, much of the data emerging from the focus group and teacher questionnaire studies have focussed on the relationship between team teaching partners, and the attributes, beliefs and behaviour that they must bring to that relationship in order to team teach effectively. It is hardly surprising that the teachers themselves constitute the focus of most team teaching literature, given that teachers are primarily responsible for initiating and maintaining the teaching process. Yet students are also participants of the team-taught classroom, and as such, they have not gone unnoticed as a source of data in team teaching research. For example, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005), Bynom (2000), George and Davis-Wiley (2000) and Katsura and Matsune (1994) surveyed team-taught students to gather data regarding student perceptions of various aspects of teacher collaboration. Student surveys

were also one component of a range of different methods used to evaluate the success of the Koto-ku project (Sturman, 1992), and Miyazato (2001; 2006b) collected interview data from team-taught students for her analyses. Miyazato (1999) and Shannon and Meath-Lang (1992) explicitly recognise the need for more research into team teaching from the student perspective, and identify such an approach as a useful direction for future research.

Some researchers identify a potential benefit of team teaching for students as the teachers' role modelling of cooperation within the classroom. For example, Shannon and Meath-Lang (1992) and Edmundson and Fitzpatrick (1997) claim that such a role model encourages team-taught students to behave more cooperatively themselves. From the language teaching perspective, a number of researchers have alluded to this point by claiming that team teachers who role model authentic dialogues in the target language encourage their students to work communicatively with each other to produce their own dialogues, instead of treating the target language like a static object of study (e.g., Aline & Hosoda, 2006; Katsura & Matsune, 1994). Yet these claims are still predicated on a distinction being made between teachers and students as givers and receivers of team teaching, even if they all receive certain benefits from the collaboration.

Over the last ten or twelve years, an increasing number of team teaching researchers have called into question this distinction between teachers and students in the team-taught classroom, and recommended a higher degree of student involvement in the collaborative dynamic. For example, from her case study, Murata (2002) reports that team teaching had changed the teachers and students' individualistic viewpoints into a more beneficial 'team

consciousness', in which "a climate of shared values" (p. 73) had been created. Eisen and Tisdell (2000), too, suggest that collaboration subverts the idea that the teacher is invariably the classroom 'expert', and declare that "teaming honors the multidirectionality of learning – the fact that no one person can be an expert on everything" (p. 1). From this, the authors argue that "team teachers and learners have the capacity to create new knowledge collaboratively" (Eisen & Tisdell, 2000, p. 1).

In Japan, Akira Tajino has been the most prominent advocate of more 'student-inclusive' approaches to team teaching. As noted in Chapter 3, Tajino and Walker (1998) draw on their data from a student survey project to propose a reformulation of classroom collaboration. The authors suggest that an ideal way to approach team teaching might be "to start with the view that classroom interaction in a team-taught class is not something unilaterally in the teachers' hands but a co-production of all the participants" (Tajino & Walker, 1998, p. 124). From this position, the authors redefine 'team teaching' as 'team learning', arguing that the "fixed idea" that the JTE and AET make up the team in the team taught classroom needs to be reconsidered, and that "it seems time to refocus on who team-taught lessons are meant to serve ... [and] reconsider what is meant by 'team' in this context" (p. 126).

Later, Tajino and Tajino (2000) extend this concept of 'team learning' further by developing multiple models of interaction in the collaborative classroom for teachers and students, which they describe as 'team patterns'. Team patterns are used to recognise that learners benefit from active involvement in activities more traditionally reserved for the teachers' collaboration, such as syllabus topic selection, and that, as members of the same "local

community” (Tajino & Tajino, 2000, p. 9), team teachers and their students may adopt similar roles. For example, in one pattern, the non-NEST teacher might facilitate a project of study regarding Japanese culture, while the NEST teacher (assuming he/she is not expert in the culture), as a learner, adopts the same role as the students, and works collaboratively with them to complete the project. Although the authors’ models were created for NEST and non-NEST team teaching environments, it is feasible that teachers in an interdisciplinary partnership, functioning as experts in separate fields, could adapt Tajino and Tajino’s (2000) team patterns for their own use. The authors themselves point out that their list of team patterns is “not exhaustive, and that other patterns may be better suited to other tasks, contexts and purposes” (Tajino & Tajino, 2000, p. 10).

It is evident, then, from the team teaching literature, that students are becoming more prominent as key participants in collaborative educational initiatives. To exclude team-taught students from a research series investigating team teaching would be to ignore the voices of those participants and restrict the research to a one-sided view of team teaching in action. In the next section, I will explain how my third study was designed to extend the scope of this research series beyond the perspectives of CITT practitioners to include the perceptions and beliefs of their students.

### **6.3. Methodology**

In order to fulfil the different purposes of the student questionnaire study, two different types of questionnaire were created. For purposes of eliciting exploratory data regarding the students’ perceptions of CITT to compare with the teachers’ perceptions, the interview

questions used in the initial focus group study of this research series (see Chapter 4) were used as the starting-point. A questionnaire document was created comprising a set of open-ended questionnaire items which were derived from the focus group interview questions (see section 6.3.1 for details). To track changes in the respondents' opinions after a full 15-week term of classroom experience of CITT, this questionnaire document was duplicated for distribution at the beginning and end of term. These versions of the questionnaire document are hereafter referred to as the pre-term and post-term questionnaires.

Additionally, another questionnaire document was created comprising a smaller set of open-ended questionnaire items. These questions were intended to explore the students' perspectives as they engaged with the ongoing process of CITT, and track any periodic changes in their opinions during the term (see section 6.3.2 for details). This questionnaire document was duplicated for distribution at monthly intervals, constituting three separate distributions throughout the term. These questionnaire documents are hereafter referred to as the periodic questionnaires.

Appendices G and H present copies of all documents distributed to students in the student questionnaire study.

### **6.3.1. Rationale**

Essentially, the student questionnaire study was designed to address the following research questions:

- What are team-taught MIC students' perceptions of team teaching?

- What do they think makes team teaching effective or ineffective?
- What do they see as the benefits or limitations of team teaching?
- Did their opinions of team teaching change over the term?
- Do they equate an effective teacher with an effective team teacher?
- What do they think is important about team teaching?

The research questions used to design the student questionnaire study were modelled directly on the research questions of the focus group study (see sections 1.4 and 6.3.2).

It should be noted that the primary purpose of the student questionnaire study also, inevitably, dictated its limitations. While the focus group study was originally conceived as an exploratory study using data from teachers, the student questionnaire study was intended to fulfil a parallel function in eliciting similar data from students. In this respect, the student questionnaire study was expected to provide what Denzin (1978) describes as ‘data triangulation’ for previous findings from this research series, allowing clear comparisons to be drawn between the findings of the teacher and student respondent groups. Also, just as the focus group study findings indicated the direction for further research, which led to the development of the teacher questionnaire study, it was anticipated that the findings of the student questionnaire study would provide similar indications. Such a study was expected to provide clear direction for what type of successive studies might prove most valuable, and what research methods would best fulfil the purposes for which they would be developed. It was therefore decided that the third study of this research series should constitute the initial exploratory step of an open-ended research process that was expected to progress beyond the

requirements of this thesis, and shape the course of further research into the team-taught student, in parallel with the teacher-oriented studies of this series. For these reasons, the student questionnaire study was designed as a single exploratory survey (see also section 6.3.2).

For a discussion of the broader strengths and limitations of all three studies in this research series, see section 7.4.

### **6.3.2. Questionnaire design**

Since the student questionnaire study was the first in this research series to investigate students instead of teachers, one of its purposes was exploratory. Much as the focus group study of Chapter 4 had done with teachers, the student study was intended to make initial explorations of the students' perspectives and elicit a rich sample of their opinions.

It was decided to use bilingual questionnaires rather than focus groups to collect this data, however, for several reasons. As incoming students, the participants were likely to be experiencing the shock of transition in moving from high school to college life, and having to orient themselves to a very different kind of learning environment, surrounded by new people. The use of English as the language of communication in most classrooms and many other college interactions, and the atypically high proportion of non-Japanese faculty, could also have been compounding the shock. For students to participate in focus group research at such a time, surrounded by strangers and expected to share diverse opinions frankly in a second language (since I, as researcher, have limited fluency in Japanese), would have been intimidating and culturally insensitive. By comparison, and as noted in Chapter 5,

questionnaires allowed respondents to answer questions privately and on their own terms, as well as having the choice to read and respond to the questions in their first or second languages. These features of the questionnaires reduced the intimidation factor and encouraged more honest responses.

Nevertheless, since the student questionnaire study shared the same exploratory purpose as the focus group study of Chapter 4, it was decided to use the interview questions from the focus group study (see Appendix A) as the basis for devising the pre- and post-term questionnaires. It was anticipated that using the same questions that were first put to the teachers would elicit a rich sample of student perspectives. It was also expected that use of the same questions would facilitate comparisons across the teachers' and students' responses.

Six open-ended questions about team teaching were devised for use in the pre- and post-term questionnaires. While attempting to conform to the original focus group interview questions as much as possible, some modifications were considered necessary, since the original questions had been designed for use in English-only verbal interactions with professional academics. As Brown (2001) advises, an important factor of survey design is to consider the level of language used and ensure it is appropriate for the respondents involved. Since the students could not reasonably be expected to have first-hand knowledge of the requirements of teaching, the original question, 'What are the requirements of team teaching that are different from the requirements of traditional teaching?' was omitted. Similarly, since the students were new to college education and had little or no experience of CITT in the early stages of data collection, they were not required to speculate beyond their own frames of



reference to answer such questions as, ‘What are the strengths and benefits of team teaching for participating teachers?’, but were instead presented with the same questions with no specification of which type of classroom participant it concerned (e.g., ‘What do you see as the strengths and benefits of team teaching?’). This modification reduced two questions to one in two instances (i.e., focus group interview questions #3 & #4 were reduced to question #2 in the student version; focus group interview questions #6 & #7 were reduced to question #4 in the student version: see Appendices A and H). Though the sense of the remaining questions was not altered, the language of the student version was adapted to better suit its respondents and the circumstances of the study. For example, the original question, ‘Of the things we have discussed so far, what would you say is the single most important point about effective team teaching?’ was changed to ‘What do you think is the single most important point about effective team teaching?’. Overall, these modifications were intended to minimise the number of questions and to better align those questions with the knowledge and experience of first-year college students, thus improving the questionnaire’s suitability and face validity for its potential respondents.

The periodic questionnaire was created to supplement the pre- and post-term questionnaires by collecting data from respondents while they were engaged with the ongoing process of CITT. As well as triangulating pre- and post-term findings, it was hoped that the periodic questionnaires would elicit any of the students’ momentary opinions and perceptions of team teaching that may have been forgotten by the end of the term. In addition, the periodic questionnaire was designed to allow respondents the freedom to express any changes in their opinions regarding CITT over the academic term. Therefore, the questions were devised to be

as broad and open-ended as practicable. Respondents were asked to provide their views about team teaching in general, and give reasons for those views. They were also asked explicitly to identify and explain any perceived changes in their opinions of team teaching since they had last completed questionnaire documents.

Another question included in the periodic questionnaire was derived from the teacher questionnaire study of Chapter 5. In the discussion of student needs (see Chapter 5), evidence was presented to show that teachers advocating the minority view (i.e., believing student needs to be the only important measure of CITT effectiveness) may tend to perceive team teaching as just one manifestation of teaching in general, instead of a unique educational phenomenon in its own right. It seems likely, therefore, that the proponent of such a view would make no distinction between an effective teacher and an effective team teacher. The periodic questionnaire of this study was seen as an opportunity to investigate how students engaged in ongoing CITT would stand on this issue. Respondents were asked whether they equated an effective teacher with an effective team teacher, and were encouraged to provide reasons for their answer. It was anticipated that this type of data would provide more detailed insights into the students' degree of concurrence with their teachers' different viewpoints on the student needs question, and whether or not the students demonstrated a tendency to support any particular view.

Appendix H presents all questionnaire items used in the different stages of this study.

Bilingual versions of all questionnaire documents were created to allow full accessibility for researcher and participants. Respondents were given the choice to respond to all questionnaire items in Japanese or English. In addition to Japanese versions of the questionnaire items, translation into Japanese was also required for the specific written instructions to respondents on how to complete all questionnaire documents, including information and consent forms. A Japanese professor at MIC agreed to translate these documents, while a second Japanese professor independently checked and confirmed the consistency of the translations.

Unfortunately, because of time constraints to start the research project in time for the new academic year, and the lack of availability of students in the period immediately preceding the pre-term stage of data collection, conditions did not allow for a full piloting of the questionnaires before use. In an attempt to offset this limitation, the two Japanese professors who translated the documents were encouraged to provide feedback about any aspect of the questionnaires they felt might need amendment, assessing their suitability for use with students. As a result of these checks, several small adjustments were made to the Japanese translations, but the English versions were deemed to require no alterations, and both professors pronounced them ready for use.

Appendices G and H present final drafts of all bilingual documents distributed to students for the student questionnaire study.

### **6.3.3. Data collection**

In our first lesson together (April, 2008), all students in my two first-year team-taught classes were invited to participate in the study and given verbal instructions to explain the research and the participation procedures. All data were collected under conditions of strict

confidentiality. Questionnaire documents were provided for students to collect upon leaving the classroom, which they could complete in their own time, and they were asked to submit completed documents via a locked collection box outside my office. Information and consent forms were provided at the pre-term stage of data collection and students were told they were required to submit them if they chose to participate.

Later, students were invited to complete periodic questionnaires at monthly intervals on three occasions during the term, and post-term questionnaire documents were made available to students in their final lesson of the 15<sup>th</sup> week of class. For all stages of data collection except the post-term stage, verbal reminders to submit completed documents were issued in class one week after each questionnaire distribution, for the benefit of those students who had elected to participate. All students of both classes were provided with snacks and drinks in their final lessons as a gesture of my appreciation to those who had chosen to participate in the study.

After all student grades for the term had been assigned, the data were collated and examined. The students' institutional student numbers were used to match the various returned documents to specific respondents. Under strict conditions of respondent anonymity, copies of all responses written in Japanese were sent to a professional translation company (Japan Retrieval, Tokyo) for translation into English. The returned English translations were integrated with the respondents' English-language responses for data analysis.

#### **6.3.4. Data grouping**

From a potential pool of 32 students, a total of 23 students completed and returned one or more questionnaire documents at some time during the term. Of the 23 respondents, two

returned completed information and consent forms but no questionnaire forms, and one returned a completed questionnaire form but did not complete the information and consent form. These three respondents' documents were excluded from the research data. In addition, one respondent returned partial data, but requested that his/her quotes not be used in publication. This respondent's data are excluded from this thesis.

Of the remaining 19 respondents, a 'core group' of respondents was identified as those who had consistently returned completed survey documents throughout the course of the study, thus providing sufficient data for full analysis. The criteria for inclusion into the core group were that respondents must have completed, at minimum, both of the pre- and post-term questionnaires distributed at the beginning and end of term. In fact, all of the respondents meeting these criteria had also completed at least one periodic questionnaire. Seven respondents met the criteria for inclusion in the core group, and their responses are presented in full in Appendix I, with individual respondents coded alphabetically from 'Student A' to 'Student G'. The remaining twelve respondents were designated the 'supplemental group', since they had provided relevant but incomplete data. Supplemental group data are presented in full in Appendix J, with individual respondents coded alphabetically from 'Student H' to 'Student S'.

For the purposes of this study, the core group respondents constitute the central focus of the analysis and discussion. Where relevant, data from the supplemental group responses are used to supplement and support the analysis of the core group data.

## 6.4. Findings

In this section, the research findings will be presented in the form of summative profiles of each subject from the core group, developed from an overview of that subject's responses across all questions. Appendix I presents a full listing of all responses from core group respondents. See section 6.5 for a description of the data analysis process.

### 6.4.1. Student A.

Student A provided the lengthiest and most detailed responses to the questions. He/she emphasizes the English learning benefits of CITT, particularly through the integration of content and language instruction. For example, “by learning a specialized subject<sup>11</sup> and English at the same time, students can learn more practical and accurate grammar and pronunciation”. The respondent points out the benefits of pursuing parallel content and language learning goals in the team-taught classroom. For example, “team teaching enabled me to understand both the lectures and English fully.” Student A notes that the pursuit of these two goals can slow down classroom procedures, but concedes the inevitability of the time required to reap the benefits, as follows:

*Lectures in a specialized subject in team teaching need time for grammar, words and other language details, so that one can say that the lectures in the specialized subject slows [sic] down. However, this promotes the English proficiency of the students. I therefore think that there is nothing that one can do about the slowdown of the lectures. (Student A; translated from the Japanese, see section 6.3.3)*

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<sup>11</sup> ‘Specialized subject’ is the term translated from the Japanese to refer to the content of the course (the non-English language teaching component of the course for which the content teaching partner is responsible).

Student A suggests that active student involvement, not just the teachers' contributions, is important to effective team teaching. For example, "I think that team teaching can work more effectively when the students themselves ask their team teachers questions actively when they do not understand something".

The students' understanding of what is occurring in the classroom is mentioned repeatedly throughout student A's responses, and is considered the most important point of his/her pre-term questionnaire responses. Examples include: "The point is to see clearly whether the students have got a real understanding" and "With team teaching, I was able to understand what was taught in class". He/she evidently evaluates the effectiveness of CITT in terms of how the teachers can make their teaching more understandable to their students.

Student A consistently equates an effective teacher with an effective team teacher, indicating that "a good teacher is a teacher able to give effective team teaching as well".

Student A places an emphasis on affective factors towards the end of the term that was not evident in his/her earlier responses, and that encompasses all classroom participants. For example, at the end of the term, the respondent claims that the "mutual motivation and enthusiasm of teachers and students" is most important and that team teaching is better if it is "an enjoyable time"

#### **6.4.2. Student B.**

Student B's responses are not very extensive. A key feature throughout Student B's responses is that students in the CITT classroom "can learn a lot of things by two teachers" that they could not learn from one. Student B identifies this feature as the most important point in his/her post-term questionnaire responses. The respondent refers to the effectiveness of CITT in terms of student understanding. For example, "Team teaching ... gives a deeper understanding when done by two teachers than by one".

Student B equates an effective teacher with an effective team teacher after one month of term, but provides no other data regarding this question.

Towards the end of the term, student B indicates that a benefit of team teaching is that "Students can hear various views and absorb a lot". He/she also claims that the "mutual cooperativeness of the teachers" makes team teaching work effectively. These points were not expressed in student B's earlier responses.

#### **6.4.3. Student C.**

Student C notes the increased personalised attention that team teachers can offer students, particularly in terms of the teachers' greater availability to answer students' questions. For example, "When we want to ask a question, and when we find two teachers, one of them can come to us right away". The respondent believes that students are "less hesitant" to ask questions in a team-taught environment.



Student C did not respond to the question of whether an effective teacher is the same as an effective team teacher.

Student C's post-term questionnaire responses show that he/she considers the "personal chemistry" between the team teachers to be the most important point, and states that, "If the teachers quarrel, their class will turn out to be a fiasco". These concerns were not evident in student C's earlier responses.

#### **6.4.4. Student D.**

Student D describes team teaching as "very effective" and emphasizes that team teachers are better able to "take care of each student" than single teachers, providing support and helping students to understand their lessons. The increased personalised attention from two teachers in a classroom is perceived as instrumental in assisting students, which student D identifies as the most important point. For example, he/she states, "I think that the point is that teaching by more than one teacher increases their rate of direct guidance (or instruction) per student..." The benefit of team teaching for helping students improve their academic performance is a recurring theme in student D's responses. Examples include: "[Team teaching] helps improve student's study skill" and "Just like before, I think that team teaching is very effective in helping the students improve their academic performance".

Student D initially does not equate an effective teacher with an effective team teacher, but indicates that they are the same after two months of term and again after three months of term. Though not addressing the question directly, student D's responses demonstrate a change of mind with regard to the benefits to students of having an additional teacher in the classroom.

After one month, student D is critical of the “negative effect” caused by one team teacher answering a student’s question while the other continues to teach the rest of the class. Yet after three months, student D indicates that such a situation is likely to be beneficial, stating that “While one teacher is giving a lesson, the other can give instructions to students unable to get an understanding, thereby increasing the understanding of each one without taking too much time.”

In most other respects, student D’s responses demonstrate little change in opinion over time, and student D consistently states that his/her opinions remain “unchanged”, or show “no change in particular”.

#### **6.4.5. Student E.**

Student E talks of the “good suport [sic]” of team teaching, which he/she clarifies by example to mean helping students who “don’t understand something”. He/she notes, “When I don’t know what an expression given by one teacher means, the expression given by the other teacher sometimes lets me get an understanding”. The respondent maintains that a benefit of team teaching is having two teachers to provide “two opinions, views and so on”, resulting in a “high quality class”, but he/she also notes that having two opinions can be a weakness or limitation. Student E emphasizes the importance of “good team work” and “good communication” between team teaching partners in terms of influencing the effectiveness of their team teaching. Yet student E also makes the highly unusual comment, “I think that teaching by a single teacher may be better” after writing about team teaching’s potential for failure (see section 6.5.2 for more details). Finally, student E notes the importance of “personal chemistry”, communications between teachers and students, and a good “feeling of

class”. Communication between teaching partners, and between teachers and students, is identified as the most important point.

Student E’s meaning is difficult to interpret when he/she writes in English that, as a weakness or limitation of team teaching,

*I think it happened. Students fawn [sic]. Teachers too. (Student E)*

Since student E uses the same term, “fawn”, alongside “lazy” to indicate what could prevent team teaching from working effectively, it is possible that he/she means “yawn”, and has misspelled the word. If so, student E may be suggesting that fatigue is a limiting factor of team teaching.

Student E consistently equates an effective teacher with an effective team teacher. The respondent tends to express this belief in negative terms by saying, “I don’t think that a teacher unable to teach well all alone can do good team work when working with another”.

Student E’s responses demonstrate little change in opinion over time. After two months, he/she explicitly states that there was “not a big change” in his/her opinions.

#### **6.4.6. Student F.**

Student F repeatedly notes “that team teaching is advantageous in that the presence of two teachers allows them to take care of all the students”. The respondent believes that students “can ask questions without hesitation” in a team-taught environment. Although he/she

considers “how efficiently the two teachers give their lesson” to be of prime importance in his/her post-term questionnaire, the respondent also notes the need for students to “participate actively in the class and ask questions” for effective team teaching to occur.

In response to the question of whether an effective teacher is the same as an effective team teacher, student F answers “yes” after one month and “no” after three months (with no questionnaire form returned after two months). Commenting on the “no” response, student F explicitly indicates a change in opinion over time by saying that, “Recently, I have come to feel that only one of the teachers speaks instead of the two teachers speaking”. In other respects, student F’s responses demonstrate little change over time.

#### **6.4.7. Student G.**

Student G emphasizes the importance of “Good communications between the teachers” in team teaching, and “good communications” is identified as the most important point in his/her post-term questionnaire responses. The respondent notes that team teachers can “give lessons with better reassurance” and that team teaching can compensate for deficiencies in single-teacher instruction, as follows: “Teaching by two persons enables them to manage things that they fail to do when doing it all alone”.

Student G does not equate an effective teacher with an effective team teacher, consistently answering “no” to this question throughout the term. The respondent notes that a good teacher may be handicapped by the presence of a partner, by saying that “A person good at teaching all alone is not necessarily able to display their full potential in two-person teaching”.

Of all core group respondents, student G left the most questions unanswered in the beginning of term questionnaire, but became more forthcoming later on. It is therefore difficult to analyse much of his/her data in terms of recurrence. However, student G repeatedly affirms that his/her opinion of team teaching remains “unchanged” over time.

## **6.5. Data analysis**

In the following section, I present the major common themes emerging from the data with some explanatory commentary. I also identify prominent outlier responses and examine how the students responded to the question of whether an effective teacher is the same as an effective team teacher.

### **6.5.1. Common categories**

Data from the student questionnaire study were content-analysed. Each response was coded thematically to identify and group common themes, or categories of response. Common categories were identified as having recurred in data from multiple core group respondents, as supported by further recurrences in data drawn from the supplemental group responses. For purposes of data analysis, the major categories of response were tabulated, while responses of lesser prominence were filtered out. Responses corresponding to each category needed to recur in data from at least four respondents to meet the criteria for inclusion in the table as major categories of response.

When an early version of the table had been completed, a researcher with no past or present association with MIC agreed to perform an inter-coder agreement check on the analysis by using the table to categorise randomly-compiled example quotes from the data. An inter-coder

agreement of 79% resulted. An examination of the categorisations revealed that there had been some difficulty for the inter-coder to distinguish two closely associated categories of response labelled ‘Partner relationship’ and ‘Complementarity’. Since one category was concerned with how the relationship between team teaching partners influences the effectiveness of their team teaching, while the other was concerned with how the complementarity of that relationship leads to teaching improvements in general, it was difficult for the coder to consistently distinguish these types of responses for some of the respondents’ quotes. Consequently, some adjustments were made to the table to improve the mutual exclusivity of the category definitions and clarify their descriptions. A second inter-coder agreement check was then performed using the updated table. Two researchers with no past or present association with MIC performed the checks of randomly-compiled example quotes, resulting in improved inter-coder agreements of 89% and 100%, and little evidence that they had experienced the same difficulty as the original coder. This updated version of the table was then deemed the final version.

In the final version of the table, the major categories of response fall broadly into two groups. The first is team teaching as it relates to students (including ‘Understanding’, ‘Questions’ and ‘Participation’). These categories are presented in Table 6.1, with example quotes and descriptions. The second is team teaching as it relates to teachers (including ‘Partner relationship’, ‘Caretaking’ and ‘Complementary improvement’). These categories are presented in Table 6.2, with example quotes and descriptions. Appendix K presents the complete table with a fuller list of supporting example quotes, for reference purposes.

### 6.5.1.1. Team teaching for students

Table 6.1 presents the three major categories of response as related to the students of the CITT classroom.

**Table 6.1: Major categories of response as related to students, with descriptions and example quotes.**

Category	Description	Example respondent quotes*
Understanding	The students' understanding of classroom instruction is improved by team teaching	[Teaching] gives a deeper understanding when done by two teachers than by one (Student B).
Questions	Team teaching increases students' willingness to ask questions in class	[A strength or benefit of team teaching is that] we feel less hesitant to ask questions (Student C).
Participation	The students' participation contributes to the effective (or ineffective) implementation of team teaching	I think that team teaching can work more effectively when the students themselves ask their team teachers questions actively when they do not understand something (Student A).

*\* All quotes translated from Japanese.*

As might be expected, many of the student perspectives of team teaching are centred on issues of most immediate relevance to the respondents themselves. In much the same way that responses from the focus group study were largely focussed on team teachers' partners and their attributes and behaviours within the partnership (see Chapter 4), responses from this study demonstrate a similar concern with how team teaching impacts on the students directly, particularly in terms of how well the student can understand what is occurring in the team-taught classroom.

Results show that CITT tends to be perceived by respondents as a beneficial process for improving student understanding. For example, student A claims that "Team teaching enabled me to understand both the lectures and English fully", and a supplemental group respondent notes that "[Team teaching is] something that helps deepen the students' understanding"

(student N). It is evident from the data that this benefit is associated with the increased personalised attention team teaching offers, where one partner can offer students assistance if the other cannot (see also section 6.5.1.2). For example, “While one teacher is giving a lesson, the other can give instructions to students unable to get an understanding, thereby increasing the understanding of each one” (student D).

There is some evidence that students perceive the language teaching partner, specifically, to have a key interpretative role in helping students understand lesson content. For example, student A notes that “[Team teaching] can work effectively when an English teacher gives instructions during their lesson (or lecture), when they relate the details of the specialized subject”<sup>12</sup> However, this perception is not widely evident across the data, and most students refer to the two teachers nonspecifically on this issue. Respondents appear to be advocating the simple principle that ‘two heads are better than one’ in improving student understanding of the information they are given.

Another major category of response seems to suggest a shared belief that team teaching allows students to “feel less hesitant to ask questions” (students C, J & P). Student F, too, notes that, “[With two teachers] I think the way has been paved for an environment where we can ask questions without hesitation.” If one accepts that student questions are integral to any active learning environment such as that of MIC’s, and are just as likely to be encouraged in single-teacher classrooms than the team-taught environment, this type of response might seem puzzling. Yet it appears from the data that an unexpected benefit of team teaching in the

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<sup>12</sup> ‘Specialized subject’ is the term translated from the Japanese to refer to the content of the course (the non-English language teaching component of the course for which the content teaching partner is responsible).



perceptions of the respondents is that it encompasses an enabling function which allows them to adopt a more proactive questioning role. As one respondent explains:

*When we want to ask a question, a team of two teachers lets one of them available [sic]. So we feel less hesitant to ask (Student C).*

One possible explanation is that it is not uncommon for new college students in Japan to come from traditional school backgrounds where students are often encouraged to behave passively in the classroom, listening to a single teacher's discourse, 'lecture-style'. In these types of lessons, it might be considered unacceptable (or at least discourteous) to interrupt the flow of the teacher's discourse to ask questions. However, in the MIC team-taught classroom, the presence of two teachers evidently allows students to confine their traditional role expectations to only one of them. If one team teacher addresses the class, he/she is presumably fulfilling the traditional teacher's role, as far as the students are concerned. In which case, his/her partner is not bound by the constraints of that role and is seen to be free to answer the students' questions. Therefore, should a student ask a question of the non-speaking teacher, his/her behaviour is not likely to be perceived as inappropriate by other classroom participants.

Another unexpected finding from the student questionnaire study is the common belief among respondents that student behaviour can be a determinant of the effectiveness of team teaching. For example, student F declares that "[Team teaching] works when the students participate actively in the class and ask questions", while student S from the supplemental group

reiterates the point with, “[What makes team teaching work effectively] depends on how actively the student participates in the class.” Although the importance of student needs emerged in previous findings in this series of research studies (see Chapter 4), CITT practitioners perceived the effectiveness of team teaching in terms that were restricted to how the team teachers met those needs. In contrast, the respondents of the student questionnaire study evidently perceive themselves as active classroom participants, with the power to influence how well CITT is implemented.

It is noteworthy that respondents of the student questionnaire study show an awareness of student influence on CITT in both positive and negative terms, recognising that the students’ input can help or hinder its implementation. For example, while student A expresses a belief that team teaching becomes more effective “when the students themselves ask their team teachers questions actively”, student D warns that “negative attitude” or lack of motivation from students could prevent CITT from working well. Data from the supplemental group also demonstrate this awareness, with student S stating after one month that he/she “came to think that team teaching cannot be done if the teachers alone strive”. In addition, other respondents across both groups (e.g., student E, student R) directly identify the relationship between teachers and students of CITT as a contributing factor to its effective implementation. From these results it might be argued that the respondents conceive of themselves as co-developers of the CITT process alongside their teachers. Such a perspective is not represented in previous CITT research findings.

### 6.5.1.2. Team teaching for teachers

Table 6.2 presents the three major categories of response as related to the teachers of the CITT classroom.

As mentioned in section 6.5.1.1, the respondents of this study show a common awareness of the increased personalised attention for students that team teaching offers by improving the teacher-to-student ratio. There is a belief that two teachers in a classroom (assuming they are effectively coordinated) can better assist students and manage class procedures than one teacher alone. One of the most prominent aspects of this advantage from the respondents' perspective is the potential for improved teacher 'care' that such personal attention makes

**Table 6.2: Major categories of response as related to teachers, with descriptions and example quotes.**

Category	Description	Example respondent quotes*
Caretaking	Team teaching enables teachers to take better care of their students	I think that team teaching is advantageous in that the presence of two teachers allows them to take care of all the students.(Student F)
Partner relationship	The kind of relationship between the two team teaching partners contributes to the effectiveness (or ineffectiveness) of their team teaching.	When the team teachers are on good terms, we can enjoy their lessons very much (Student E).
Complementary improvement	The complementarity of two teachers working together will result in improved teaching (e.g., one teacher can make up for a deficiency in the other teacher; one teacher can improve from the influence of the other teacher).	Teaching by two persons enables them to manage things that they fail to do when doing it all alone. (Student G)

\* All quotes translated from Japanese.

possible. For example, student D states, “I think that teaching by two teachers enables them to take better care of each student”, while student G declares that, “since the number of students that each teacher must take care of declines, the teachers will become able to take better care of each student”. Student K, from the supplemental group, adds the comment that “Each teacher has only to take care of a few students, resulting in the class becoming high-quality”. As with the ‘Understanding’ category of response (see Table 6.1), this aspect of CITT is clearly of direct and immediate concern to respondents in terms of their most basic needs.

For non-Japanese readers, the notion of teachers ‘taking care’ of college students might seem surprising, and of questionable appropriateness at the tertiary level of education. However, to best interpret the respondents’ use of the term ‘to take care’ in these data, it is necessary to take the students’ cultural context into account. Although ‘to take care’ is an acceptable translation into English, it should be noted that the respondents used several different Japanese terms to express the concept (i.e., 深く相手する, みんなに手がまわる,

生徒と先生の関係が近く感じられるので、安心感がある and

生徒一人一人を気にかけることが出来る). The different meanings or nuances of these terms might be paraphrased as ‘close and personal interaction’, ‘attentiveness to all’, ‘spiritual closeness’ and ‘concern for students’ needs’ (J. Maeda, personal communication, February 9, 2009). Clearly, the English term ‘take care’ can only convey an approximation of these meanings.

However, one might justify the grouping of the ‘Caretaking’ quotes into a single category with the observation that a consistent theme remains in evidence when the nuances of the equivalent Japanese terms are taken into account. An operational explication of this category might follow thus: the respondents appear to be expressing the belief that team teaching enables teachers to provide all their students with closer and more personal attention to meet their particular needs than single-teacher instruction. The emphasis respondents place on team teachers meeting the needs of “each student” (e.g., students D & G), suggesting an individualised concern for students in the classroom, are consistent with such an explication. Other supporting evidence can be found in the supplemental group responses, where respondents make use of the equivalent Japanese term for ‘reassured’ to describe the sense of security arising from a closer relationship between team teacher and student. For example, “Two teachers teach me, so I feel reassured” (student J); “the relations between students and teachers come to feel closer, thereby reassuring the students” (student K).

In short, respondents believe that CITT offers an enabling function for teachers (as it does for students in enabling them to ask questions), by allowing them to establish closer and more personalised relationships with their students. Such relationships are reassuring to students because they can better meet their individual needs than would be the case with single-teacher instruction.

In contrast to the ‘Caretaking’ type of response, which focusses on the teacher-student relationship, another common type of response from the data demonstrates the respondents’ direct concern with the relationship between team teaching partners. There is a belief that the

effectiveness of team teaching is to some degree determined by the way the teaching partners behave in relation to each other. Some respondents describe this relationship in broad and explicit terms. For example, student E speaks of partners being on “good terms”, while a respondent from the supplemental group asserts (in English) that a “good relationship between teachers” makes for effective team teaching (student R). Student C, by comparison, suggests an inverse approach by saying, “If the teachers quarrel, their class will turn out to be a fiasco”.

In other examples, respondents allude to the teaching partner relationship in more specific terms. Several respondents identify “good communication/s” between teaching partners as an important feature of effective team teaching (students E & G), while a respondent from the supplemental group declares that “mutual communication” between partners can improve the quality of their team teaching (student I). In related examples, some respondents emphasize the importance of personality factors (i.e., “chemistry”) of the teaching partners (students C & E), while others point to more behavioural-oriented factors such as their “mutual cooperativeness” (student B) or “teamwork” (student E).

Cumulatively, these data are highly suggestive that students in the CITT classroom do not deem the teacher-to-teacher relationship to be of little relevance in the evaluation of effective team teaching, but instead consider it to be an important factor. Indeed, three of the seven core group respondents, in their post-term questionnaires, indicated a belief that aspects of the teacher-to-teacher relationship were of prime importance. In answer to the questionnaire item, ‘What do you think is the single most important point about effective team teaching?’, student

E responded, “To have good communication between teacher and teacher”, while student C responded with “personal chemistry”, and student G, “good communications”. Although neither student C nor student G specifies that they are referring to the relationship between the teaching partners in these responses, a consideration of their comments in context supports this inference. Both students made such specifications in their answers to an earlier question in the same questionnaire, ‘What makes team teaching work effectively, in your view?’, by responding with, “the chemistry *between the teachers*” (student C) and “good communications *between the teachers*” (student G) [my italics]. It is therefore unlikely that they are making reference to any other relationship in their similar responses to a related question in the same document.

Another major category of response that focusses on the relationship between teaching partners is shown in the ‘Complementary improvement’ section of Table 6.2. In this category, respondents appear to be advocating the principle that, in an effective team teaching partnership, a weakness of one teacher can be compensated for by the presence of a partner. In Shaw’s (1997) terms, the partnership ‘maximizes’ learning opportunities “by utilizing to the full the combined knowledge and talents of the teaching team” (p. 264). For example, student E states, “I think [team teaching] is a good system because the team teachers can each make up for what the other is lacking in”, while student G claims that “teaching by two teachers enables them to complement each other”.

Data from the supplemental group is particularly informative on this point. For example, student O describes teacher complementarity in terms of one partner providing support when

the latter's instruction is somehow inadequate: "When one of the teachers cannot come up with a good example, the other can give advice". It is also noteworthy that respondents from the supplemental group demonstrate an awareness of CITT's teacher-training potential, suggesting that teachers can not only provide improved teaching through collaboration, but that the benefits of collaboration can extend still further by helping them to become better teachers in general. For example, student O claims that "a good teacher can show their partner how to teach", while student M maintains that if one partner "is a good teacher, their team teaching partner will become a good teacher as well".

Bailey, Curtis and Nunan (2001) note that "advocates of team teaching often comment on the synergy that develops in effective teaching teams in which the partners are able to capitalize on one another's strengths" (p. 190). Yet the data from the student questionnaire study suggest that effective collaboration cannot reasonably be expected to occur if the teaching partners' relationship is conflicting or compromised (see also section 6.6.1). For example, student E, who describes this type of improved teaching in terms of teacher synergy, claims that "team teaching by teachers failing in good teamwork will fail in achieving synergic effect". The respondents' concept of improved teaching through complementarity is likely to be predicated on the development of a good partner relationship. Certainly, the close association of these two concepts is evident from the fact that most of the inter-coder disagreement from the initial inter-coder agreement check resulted from the confusion of responses across the 'Partner relationship' and 'Complementary improvement' categories (see section 6.5.1). Such an association between a good relationship between partners and the



synergistically improved teaching of those partners can only heighten the importance of the teacher-to-teacher relationship in achieving fully effective CITT for all classroom participants.

### 6.5.2. Outlier responses

Although there appears to be a high degree of correspondence between respondents' opinions in much of the data, it is important to identify not only commonalities, but also examples of what Dörnyei (2007) describes as “outlier” or “extreme” responses (p. 272), which seem to run counter to common belief or even contradict it. As has been argued in Chapters 4 and 5, CITT is a complex phenomenon encompassing many stakeholders with different roles and conflicting views, as well as potential tensions between the different responsibilities that CITT practitioners must assume. In order to allow the fullest possible picture to emerge of CITT from the students' points of view, the most prominent outlier responses from the student questionnaire study are identified in Table 6.3, and this section presents discussion about what they might signify.

**Table 6.3: Prominent outlier responses, listed in context of the complete response.**

Respondent	Outlier response*
Student E	The point is with whom to make a team. I think that the teamwork (that is, the division of work and dialog for better teaching) in a specific team will affect the quality of the team teaching. I therefore think that team teaching by teachers failing in good teamwork will fail in achieving synergic effect. <b>I think that teaching by a single teacher may be better.</b>
Student A	[MIC team teachers] teach English and a specialized subject at the same time, <b>which slows down the progress of the lecture in the specialized subject.</b>
Student G	Since there are two teachers at the same time, that is, one teacher of a specialized subject and a teacher of English, <b>the lesson may become too technical or, conversely, may become low-level.</b>

\* Outlier responses highlighted in bold font; All quotes translated from Japanese.

The respondents' favourable impressions of CITT are evident throughout the data. For example, such comments as, "I have a good impression of team teaching" (student A), "team teaching is very good" (student B), or "I think that team teaching is very effective" (student D) are typical. Where the scarcity of negative commentary is perhaps most evident is in the responses to question 4 of the pre- and post-term questionnaires, which asks, 'What are the weaknesses and limitations of team teaching, in your view?'. In the pre-term questionnaire, five of the seven core group respondents chose to leave this section blank, while two responded to the post-term questionnaire with the comments, "I do not know yet" (student B), or "I have no idea" (student D). The supplemental group respondents, too, demonstrated a lack of negative commentary by providing no response to question 4 in four of the eight cases where pre- or post-term questionnaires were returned, or by making such statements as, "nothing in particular" (student H) or "I think, a weak point by [sic] team teaching is nothing" (student R).

In emphasizing the benefits and strengths of team teaching, and having comparatively little to say about its negative aspects, the responses from the student questionnaire study are broadly consistent with findings from the previous studies in this research series (see Chapter 7), and with the responses of students from research into team teaching in other educational contexts (e.g., Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; McConnell, 2000). Even when respondents in this study express criticism of CITT, they tend to confine their criticisms to what they perceive as teachers' incorrect implementation of team teaching, rather than criticising CITT per se. For example, Student I from the supplemental group states, "Some teachers assert their personal selfish ways in proceeding with their lessons, resulting in ineffective teaching" (see also

section 6.6.1). Student E, therefore, expresses a very atypical viewpoint after one month of CITT experience, when he/she writes, “I think that teaching by a single teacher may be better”.

It is difficult to know how to interpret such a singularly unusual outlier response. It does not recur elsewhere in student E’s data. Indeed, after three months, student E declares, “I think [team teaching is] a good system”, though he/she does not explicitly retract the earlier statement. However, student E’s responses overall do reveal that he/she has a particular concern with the contribution to the class of the two teaching partners, and believes that their interactions can be either beneficial or detrimental to team teaching. For example, “The chemistry and combination between the two teachers may make [team teaching] even more effective, while, conversely, it can make it less effective”. This emphasis contrasts with other respondents who are forthcoming about the benefits of effective team teaching but have less to say about the problems of ineffective team teaching. In the case of student E, it is noteworthy that he/she immediately precedes his/her outlier response by saying (as has been noted in section 6.5.1.2), “I therefore think that team teaching by teachers failing in good teamwork will fail in achieving synergic effect” (student E). Against such a context, student E’s outlier response may be explicable as an expression of concern about the teachers’ potential for failure in implementing CITT satisfactorily (see also section 6.6.1), and whether the incidences of such failure might be sufficient to argue a case against doing team teaching at all. If so, the respondent is raising a controversial question that, if pursued, would impact on many stakeholders across a range of different institutions that implement team teaching in one form or another, and is likely to provoke arguments. Yet a single outlier response questioning whether team teaching is worth doing at all must, of course, be weighed against

the broad consensus of opinion from respondents in many different team teaching studies from the literature, which claims that effective team teaching offers considerable benefits to classroom participants overall (see Chapter 3).

Although the data do not reveal any other response as contradictory of the majority view as student E's, other outlier responses, which are concerned with the content teacher-language teacher relationship, are present. In general, findings from this research series and other team teaching research tend to support the belief that an interdisciplinary pairing of content and language teacher has many benefits and is facilitative of CBLI instruction, particularly in terms of the two partners' abilities to complement each other in the classroom (e.g., Dudley-Evans, 1983; Stewart, 1996). However, as Table 6.3 shows, two respondents atypically express reservations about the capability of content and language teachers to achieve an effective pedagogical balance in a single classroom by saying that the content-language division of CITT "slows down progress" (student A) or results in the class becoming either "too technical" or "low-level" (student G). These responses demonstrate a concern with the distinction between the roles of content partner and language partner that is atypical from students of a team-taught class. It has been argued that the institutional demarcation of teacher roles is of less interest to students than was previously supposed (see section 5.5), yet these outlier responses constitute a degree of disconfirming evidence for such an argument.

However, these responses do not represent a shared concern regarding the type of difficulty emerging from the content-language teacher pairing, since student A speaks specifically of slow class progress, while student G speaks of mismatched levels of course difficulty. Also,

both responses appear in the respondents' pre-term questionnaire data, collected when they had very little experience of CITT. Neither respondent reiterates these particular concerns at a later stage, and, for their post-term questionnaires, both respondents answer the same questions differently, emphasizing the positive aspects of team teaching. As noted earlier, student G responds with,

*Teaching by two persons enables them to manage things that they fail to do when doing it all along. And they can give lessons with better reassurance.* (Student G)

While student A explicitly revises his/her earlier opinion after experiencing CITT for a full term (see also section 6.6.1), conceding the inevitability of slower class progress, and advocating the benefits of CITT as sufficient justification for it, as follows:

*...one can say that the lectures in the specialized subject slows [sic] down. However, this promotes the English proficiency of the students. I therefore think that there is nothing that one can do about the slowdown of the lectures.*  
(Student A)

In short, the responses presented in Table 6.3 are relatively isolated comments that do not appear to be representative of the respondents' views in general.

After consideration of the points raised, it is evident that the outlier responses identified in this section do not seem to signify any kind of cogent theme or minority view that is likely to

play a prominent role in an interpretation of the findings overall. They are included because they are instructive in constituting a reminder that team teaching is a complex phenomenon not easily reduced to simple components. It inevitably elicits a range of contrasting and conflicting viewpoints from its participants.

### 6.5.3. Effective teacher/team teacher perceptions

Question 2 of the periodic questionnaire asked respondents to indicate ‘yes’ or ‘no’ in answer to the question “Is an effective teacher the same as an effective team teacher?”, and invited open-ended comments. Table 6.4 shows the core group respondents’ answers to this question. A full listing of responses with open-ended comments is presented in Appendix I.

**Table 6.4: Core group respondents’ answers to the question, “Is an effective teacher the same as an effective team teacher?”**

Distribution stage	Responses			
	Forms returned	Yes	No	No response
After 1 month	7	4	2	1
After 2 months	4	3	1	0
After 3 months	5	3	2	0
<b>Totals =</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>1</b>

Five of the core group respondents answered ‘yes’ in ten responses to the question, “Is an effective teacher the same as an effective team teacher?” over the three different distributions of the periodic questionnaire (see Appendix I for details). However, three of the core group respondents answered ‘no’ in the five other responses, constituting a sizeable minority opinion (see Appendix I for details). It is noteworthy that the data across all responses to this question show no clear consensus of opinion emerging over time, since one respondent

changed his/her answer from 'no' to 'yes' after two months of term, while two others changed their answers from 'yes' to 'no' after three months of term.

The supplemental group data reveal a similar profile, with five respondents answering 'yes' in eight different responses and three respondents answering 'no' in three responses, plus one 'no response', from a total of 13 forms returned from eight respondents (see Appendix J for details).

The respondents' open-ended comments demonstrate the range of conflicting viewpoints on this question. For example:

*Yes. I think that teachers able to give an effective lesson or lecture on their own know how to proceed well with a lecture or lesson, so that they can give support for realizing a good lecture or lesson in team teaching as well. (Student A)*

*No. A person good at teaching all alone is not necessarily able to display their full potential in two-person teaching. And vice versa. (Student G)*

*Yes. If one teacher can give good lessons, they can give advice and guidance to the others, thereby allowing the lessons to proceed efficiently. That's why. (Student O)*

*No. Because I think that, if a good teacher is negative, and when they get into team teaching, they may be unable to display their strengths. (Student S)*

It is evident from these data that there is some tendency for the respondents to equate an effective teacher with an effective team teacher. However, a substantial minority of respondents provides disconfirming responses, and there is also conflicting evidence of variability in opinions over time. Results are therefore inconclusive on this question.

## **6.6. Discussion**

In this section, I identify and discuss evident changes in the respondents' opinions over time. I also discuss some of the issues emerging from the interpretation of data from this study.

### **6.6.1. Changes over time**

The student questionnaire study was conducted over a comparatively short period, a single academic term of 15 weeks. Yet data were collected at pre- and post-term stages, and at periodic intervals throughout the term, to allow for some measure of tracking of changes over time. Within these limits, the study produced findings of a periodic type that were absent from previous studies in this CITT research series. Evident changes in individual respondents' opinions over the term are discussed in this section, with reference to what these changes might signify.

In some cases, the respondents explicitly indicate that their opinions changed for the better over the course of the term. As mentioned in section 6.5.1.1, student D reversed his/her opinion in answer to the question of whether an effective teacher was the same as an effective team teacher. After one month, he/she called CITT's potential for encouraging student questioning of one partner while the other is addressing the class a "negative effect", but then



advocated the benefits of the same effect after three months, claiming that it improves student understanding “without taking too much time” (student D). Similarly, as mentioned in section 6.5.2, another respondent expressed concern with the slow progress of the team-taught lesson in his/her pre-term responses, but at the end of the term conceded the inevitability of slow progress when content and language are being taught simultaneously, concluding, “I therefore think that there is nothing that one can do about the slowdown of the lectures” (student A). Evidently, these responses demonstrate that the respondents’ initial concerns were allayed by their ongoing classroom experiences, leading them to revise their perceptions of CITT more positively, or at least come to accept a particular limitation of CITT because of the perceived benefits it bestows.

Other changes in responses over time are less positive. In fact, most of the responses that run counter to the generally favourable impressions of CITT expressed by the respondents did not emerge until later in the term. Yet, as indicated in section 6.5.2, the responses indicating altered opinions do not appear to direct criticism at CITT per se, but rather its perceived incorrect implementation by teachers. For example, “If the teachers quarrel, their class will turn out to be a fiasco” (student C); and “Recently, I have come to feel that only one of the teachers speaks instead of the two teachers speaking” (student F).

In both these cases, the responses occurred after at least three months of term had elapsed, and they were not pre-empted by similar responses from the same respondent at any earlier stage of data collection.

The supplemental group data also demonstrate these kinds of cases. For example,

*A teacher sometimes speaks alone. They do not let their fellow teacher speak.*

*They seem to be controlling the place all alone* (student L, after 3 months).

These respondents are starting to refer specifically to cases of the teachers' perceived incorrect implementation of CITT (as distinct from a limitation of CITT itself, such as the 'slowdown effect' noted by student A). Thus it might be inferred that they personally experienced such cases during the term (either directly or indirectly). If so, their experiences are likely to have heightened their awareness of the teachers' potential for failure to implement CITT satisfactorily, and thus their observations impacted negatively on their perceptions of CITT overall. It is also noteworthy that student L seems to be condemning imbalances in the power relationship of the teaching partnership, as realised by one partner 'over-controlling' the teacher-talk. This criticism relates closely to CITT teachers' warnings about the problems of one partner arrogating power over the other, as discussed in Chapter 5.

In short, where periodic findings of the student questionnaire study identify changes in respondents' opinions over time, it is evident that some students' classroom experiences lead them to positively revise their views of CITT in general. Where students negatively revise their opinions over time, their concerns tend to be confined to their perceptions of teachers implementing CITT incorrectly, instead of negative criticisms of CITT as an educational initiative in its own right.

### **6.6.2. Data interpretation**

As has been noted, the major concerns of the respondents in this study tend to be focussed on issues of most immediate relevance to students' needs. For example, the 'Understanding' and 'Caretaking' common categories (see Tables 6.1 & 6.2) seem to address fundamental principles for an incoming student establishing him/herself in a new classroom. Such a student's first questions might well be: 'Will the teacher give me the attention I need?' and 'Will I be able to understand what happens in this classroom?'

The immediacy of these concerns needs to be interpreted with reference to the students' context of experience. As noted in section 6.3.2, the potential respondents were recent high school graduates entering a college environment that was very different from the school system with which they had been familiar. MIC requires its students to take nearly all lessons in English, interact with a faculty body comprised primarily of non-Japanese, and engage with the principles of 'Western-style' active learning (Greenfield, 2005), making the college a highly atypical educational institution in the Japanese context (Otsubo, 1995). Transition to such a new environment requires a high degree of adjustment for many, and the confusion and uncertainty of this adjustment may be evident in some of the students' responses.

While the respondents were asked to comment on team teaching specifically, it might be conjectured that some were showing a tendency to generalise the concept of 'team teaching' at MIC to the uniqueness of their college environment as a whole, in a way that is difficult to distinguish. For example, some of the respondents' comments about team teaching might equally be applied to the improved teacher-to-student ratio they had begun to encounter with

MIC class sizes that were typically much smaller than those of their high school experience. For example, student D identifies small classes as one advantage of a team teaching “system”, while a respondent from the supplemental group simply writes “small class” (student L) in response to the question of what makes team teaching work effectively.

Similarly, the ‘Questions’ and ‘Participation’ categories (see Table 6.1), may reveal as much about the respondents’ adjustments to the novelty of their active learning environment as their assessment of CITT per se. One student alludes to this ‘novelty effect’ by responding to the question of what makes team teaching work effectively with the comment, “getting used to it” (student C). Another response from the supplemental data also alludes to this point as follows:

*In lessons given in Japanese, we can learn something almost unconsciously even when we don't make conscious efforts. In attending lessons given in English, that won't work that easily (Student S).*

If one accepts that student questions and active participation are integral to most ‘Western-style’ classrooms, and are just as likely to be encouraged in single-teacher classrooms than the team-taught environment, it might be conjectured that students would provide the same type of responses to questions about their English-only MIC lessons, whether they were team-taught or not. Likewise, the students’ responses regarding ‘Understanding’ may represent to some degree their concerns at having to overcome the language barrier and engage with English-only teaching, whether that teaching comes from one teacher or two.

Nevertheless, CITT cannot simply be divorced from the social and institutional context of its implementation in a qualitative study, and the ‘novelty effect’ of MIC for new students must be recognised as an inevitable limitation of research into the perceptions of students who are initially inexperienced with regard to CITT. Yet the repeated aspect of this study is helpful in offsetting this limitation. It is important to note that much of the data from this study were collected after the first week of term, at periodic intervals and in the post-term stage, when respondents had gained some familiarity with their new college environment and experienced CITT across multiple classes. By which point, it could be argued that the respondents were already at some distance from their high school experience of previous years.

Furthermore, the data show that team teaching is predominantly cited as instrumental in helping students achieve success in understanding their lessons. For example, “I think that team teaching is good because ... [it] gives a deeper understanding when done by two teachers than by one” (student B). In this case, it would be difficult to argue that such opinions represent the incoming students’ expressions of latent concern regarding the challenges of an English-only class environment. It would also be difficult to argue that it is only the ‘active learning’ component of MIC education that is prompting students to report that they are more able to ask questions in class than before. A scrutiny of the data reveals that it is specifically the presence of two teachers in the same classroom that allows students to ask such questions, according to respondents. For example,

*When we want to ask a question, a team of two teachers lets one of them available [sic]. So we feel less hesitant to ask (Student C);*

*While one of the teachers is answering a question raised by a student, the other can teach the other students ... (Student D)*

Though it might seem generally inadvisable for students to be asking questions of one teacher while another is in the process of addressing the class, the respondents evidently believe it to be a useful and efficient process for improving student understanding and class efficiency. It is possible that students tend to lose this belief when they gain more familiarity with education at MIC and become further removed from their prior schooling experience. However, it should be noted that one respondent (student D), over time, actually expressed an increased conviction in the usefulness of this kind of questioning process (see section 6.6.1). Such evidence makes it difficult to argue that this conviction is limited to the respondents' prior school experience. In this respect, the findings suggest that the students' experience of CITT may simply lead them to perceive the roles of participants in the CITT classroom somewhat differently from CITT practitioners, as is evidenced by a comparison with previous findings in this research series (see Chapter 7).

After consideration of the points raised, it seems that the data generally support the assumption that the respondents are capable of distinguishing CITT from the 'novelty effect' of first entering MIC. My conclusions are therefore based on that assumption.

In cases of individual responses, though, it is important to recognise the respondents' limitations when interpreting the data. The relative immaturity of incoming first-year students

to the college community, and the fact that most are likely to be unfamiliar with survey research documents of the type used in tertiary education, may have placed constraints on how they responded to the questionnaires. This is evident in the lack of sophistication of some of the responses. For example, in answer to the question, ‘What do you see as the strengths and benefits of team teaching?’, student B responded with “School life can more enjoy” (in English); while student N from the supplemental group, in answer to the question, ‘What do you think is the single most important point about effective team teaching?’ responds, “It is that each student can learn things securely”. Unsurprisingly, the most sophisticated responses were written in the students’ first language, Japanese, while responses written in English tended to be brief. The difficulty experienced in translating the term ‘to take care’ into appropriate English (see section 6.5.1.2), highlights the inevitable limitation of the research design, which is that most of the raw data needed to be translated into English for analysis, and any resulting interpretations are, to some degree, vulnerable to cross-linguistic and cross-cultural differences in meaning.

Despite the presence of a carefully-worded information and consent form, it is possible that the complexity of the survey documents was daunting to some respondents, even though the text was clarified and simplified as much as practicable in the planning stages. For example, student G wrote about what he/she perceived as a possible weakness of CITT (“the lesson may become too technical or, conversely, may become low-level”) in answer to the question, ‘What do you see as the strengths and benefits of team teaching?’ Student D’s open-ended comment in response to the question, ‘Is an effective teacher the same as an effective team teacher?’ was as follows:

*Yes. Team teaching allows the teachers to take care of each student. I therefore think that this system achieves the advantages of a small class at the same time.*

(Student D)

Though useful information in other respects, it is difficult to see how this response addresses the question that has been put to the respondent, and thus it is of limited value to any interpretation of the respondent's opinion on this particular question. Sometimes, even when a respondent answered a question directly, new questions conspicuously emerge from what remains unspoken, as a consequence of the simplicity of the response. For example, in answer to the question, 'Is an effective teacher the same as an effective team teacher?', student E comments, "I don't think that a teacher unable to teach well all alone can do good team work when working with another", which immediately raises the question of whether he/she believes that a teacher who is able to teach well in a single-teacher classroom could fail to be an effective teacher in a team. Additional research would help to provide the extra data needed to fill these gaps in the students' responses.

On the basis of the evidence presented in this section, a range of follow-up studies using varied research instruments to extend these preliminary findings would be particularly useful for further study of students of CITT (see also chapter 8).

## **6.7. Summary**

Respondents tended to agree that team teaching is beneficial for participants. In particular, the respondents advocate team teaching's potential for improving student understanding.



Respondents also claim that team teaching increases students' willingness to ask questions in class, and that the active participation of students in the classroom is a contributing factor to the effectiveness of team teaching, in addition to the teachers' contributions.

Students appear to consider the team teaching partners' relationship to be a key contributing factor to the effectiveness of team teaching. Respondents indicate that a good relationship between partners, particularly in terms of cooperation, effective communications and interpersonal 'chemistry', is of high importance. Another common opinion is that the teaching of two partners is improved by the complementarity of their relationship. In addition, respondents claim that team teaching enables teachers to take better care of their students by giving them closer and more personalised attention to meet their needs.

The data show some tendency for students to equate an effective teacher with an effective team teacher. However, a substantial minority of respondents provided disconfirming responses, and there is conflicting evidence of variability in opinions over time. Results are therefore inconclusive on this question.

Some respondents revised their opinions of team teaching both positively and negatively over the course of the term. However, the data suggest that the respondents' positive revisions tend to apply to team teaching in general, while negative revisions tend to be limited to criticisms of teachers perceived to be implementing team teaching incorrectly.

In the next chapter, I draw together the different findings from the three studies of this research series to compare and contrast them. Drawing upon these cumulative findings, I then present a conceptual model for good CITT practice. I also discuss the strengths and limitations of this research series.

## **CHAPTER 7: RESEARCH SERIES DISCUSSION**

### **7.1. Introduction**

In this chapter, I draw together the findings of the three different studies in this research series. First, I present the prominent findings of the studies with reference to each other, and compare and contrast them. In particular, I focus on whether major themes emerging from the data are reflected across studies, or whether new insights are revealed that are not repeated from one study to another. Second, I draw on the data from the studies to inform the development of a model for how CITT might best be conceptualised by its practitioners, in order to guide the effective practice of team teaching for all CITT classroom participants. The three distinct modes of the model are explained individually, and a summary of the complete model and its key features are presented. This is followed by a discussion of how the model was designed for application in the CITT context. Finally, I present a discussion of the strengths of the studies in this research series, while also acknowledging their limitations. The scope of this chapter is primarily confined to the present research series as it is situated in its immediate institutional context, rather than exploring the broader implications of these findings against the context of other team teaching studies and applications beyond MIC (see Chapter 8).

### **7.2. Comparison of findings**

The first two studies of this research series were closely aligned, in the sense that they were both used to investigate the beliefs and opinions of team teachers and the second study was designed specifically to extend the findings of the first. The third study, however, adopted a different lens, in the sense that it investigated the beliefs and opinions of respondents from a complementary population, the team-taught students. For this reason, a comparative summary

of the findings of the initial two teacher-focussed studies are presented first, followed by an examination of how the respondents' beliefs and opinions from the third student-focussed study compare with those of their teachers.

The first study of this research series revealed a range of major categories of response that were mostly concerned with how team teachers create an effective CITT partnership (see Chapter 4). These responses were centred on the CITT practitioners' attributes or interactions with their team teaching partners. The need for team teachers to show respect for each other, and for each other's contributions to their shared course, was considered by respondents to be of prime importance. The findings of the second study were largely consistent with this view, suggesting that respect underlies a range of different aspects of the CITT partnership (see Chapter 5). Also, it was observed from the data that respect seemed to be closely associated with the need for team teaching partners to be able to trust one another; showing mutual support for each other within the classroom; and feeling able to enter into open negotiations in relation to conflicts and differences outside the classroom without endangering the relationship. The need for trust was identified by the respondents of the second study to be of prime importance to an effective CITT partnership.

Another theme of importance to respondents of the first study was that team teachers give their students non-conflicting instructions. This theme was strongly supported by respondents of the second study, who deemed it to be of prime importance, and a clear distinction emerged between classroom 'instruction' and classroom 'information'. Where 'instruction' signified what students needed to do, it was considered crucial that team teachers were coordinated,

and that one partner would not contradict the other in front of the students. Where ‘information’ signified what students needed to learn, it was considered beneficial for team teachers to model divergent viewpoints and opinions for their students in the team-taught classroom, as long as this behaviour was supported by a partnership based on mutual trust and respect.

Respondents from both of the teacher-focussed studies showed a strong belief in the importance of team teacher adaptability. The ability of team teachers to be flexible, adapting well to changes and their partners’ different ways of teaching, was considered much more important than their conformity to predetermined behaviour (even though advance joint planning had emerged as an important theme in the first study). Similarly, respondents attributed high importance to openness in a teaching partnership, with partners showing willingness to communicate with each other for cooperative purposes.

Respondents from both teacher-focussed studies stressed the importance of team teaching partners negotiating their respective roles with each other, and agreeing to the distribution of power within their relationship. Such negotiation is expected to take place outside the classroom, and although equal distributions are preferred, any arrangement to which both partners agree is considered workable.

Though not evident in the first study, respondents of the second study attributed some importance to team teaching partners having complementary personalities. It was inferred that this aspect was a useful supplementary feature for teaching partners, but some respondents

suggested that professionalism in the behaviour of the teachers could adequately compensate for low complementarity of personalities between partners.

In both teacher-focussed studies, a minority of respondents expressed the view that the only important measure of the effectiveness of CITT was how well the partnership met its students' needs. Most respondents, however, appeared to believe that the relationship between the teaching partners needed also to be taken into account.

Though emerging as major themes in the first study, the 'Professional development opportunities' and 'Preparation time' findings were excluded from the content specification of the questionnaire used in the second study, which confined the focus of the research to the question of how team teachers create an effective CITT partnership (see section 5.3.3.2). Therefore, these aspects cannot be included in a comparison of study findings. Nevertheless, it is important to acknowledge the key importance that focus group respondents attribute to these themes and to note that they represent the answers to other questions that were not addressed directly in the second study (see also section 8.3). Namely, in answer to the question of what the benefits of CITT are, respondents identify the potential of team teaching to enhance the teachers' professional development; while in answer to the question of what the administrative requirements of implementing CITT are, respondents indicate that there is an important need for teachers to be given extra preparation time.

Individual respondents of the student questionnaire study (see Chapter 6) provide a number of specific responses that reflect similar concerns to those expressed by team teachers in the

previous two studies. For example, student L refers to role and power sharing issues by criticising team teachers who seem to be “controlling the place all alone”; Student C refers to complementary personality factors when expressing a concern with the “chemistry between the teachers”; and student B refers to the modelling of divergent teacher opinions by noting that a strength of CITT is that “students can hear various views”. In this respect, the findings demonstrate that teachers and students in the CITT classroom have a range of shared views and concerns regarding team teaching.

In terms of common responses and broader themes reflected in the student data, a comparison with the teachers’ responses reveals a mix of consistent and inconsistent findings. Although the data are inconclusive on the question of whether students equate effective teachers and effective team teachers, the prominence of the relationship between the teaching partners as an important aspect of CITT is evident from the students’ responses overall. The interactions between teaching partners seem to constitute a basis on which students tend to perceive and evaluate CITT, as is suggested by the fact that two of the six most common response types, ‘Partner relationship’ and ‘Complementary improvement’, are concerned with those interactions (see Table 6.2). As might be expected, the respondents’ perceptions of the teacher-teacher relationship are generally expressed in less sophisticated terms than those of CITT practitioners. For example, the respondents have little to say about such intangibles as ‘trust’ or ‘teaching philosophy’ (see section 5.5). However, in terms of teacher behaviour that is discernible to all classroom participants, the respondents clearly value teachers being on “good terms” (student E), as realised through their “mutual cooperativeness” (student B) and complementary actions. It could be argued that such behaviour represents the manifestation of

what CITT practitioners define as effective in-classroom support between partners (see section 5.4.2.3). For this aspect of team teaching, then, there appears to be a broad consistency between the responses of CITT students and their teachers.

In contrast, where teacher respondents defined ‘student needs’ predominantly in terms of student learning, or what students need to know to pass their exams (see section 5.4.3), the data from the third study are helpful in broadening the scope of what is meant by ‘student needs’. The student respondents prominently identify student ‘understanding’ in terms that might be considered synonymous with the teachers’ notions of student learning, and they identify the heightened potential of CITT over single-teacher instruction to fulfil that understanding (see section 6.5.1.1). They also contribute a further concept, which is that of team teachers’ ability to better ‘take care’ of student needs than single teachers. By this concept, they mean the sense of creating a teacher-student relationship that allows teachers to offer their students more personalised attention, resulting in student feelings of greater reassurance (see section 6.5.1.2). Although the improved teacher-to-student ratio implicit in team teaching was not wholly overlooked by CITT practitioners, this ‘caretaking’ function of CITT in better meeting student needs did not emerge fully in the teachers’ data. The cultural differences between the Japanese students and their predominantly non-Japanese teachers are likely to have contributed to this distinction in their perspectives (see also section 8.2).

The final two common response types from the student data, ‘Questions’ and ‘Participation’ (see Table 6.1) are unexpected findings that did not emerge in the teachers’ data at all. Evidently, students value the potential of CITT to increase their willingness to ask questions



in class, but CITT practitioners show little awareness of this potential. One possible explanation for this difference in teacher-student perceptions is that, since the promotion of active learning is a feature of the MIC mission (Greenfield, 2005), teachers consequently encourage students to ask questions using a range of eliciting activities and actions. When students respond, teachers are perhaps more likely to attribute the higher incidence of questions to their efforts to encourage active learning, rather than team teaching per se. However, the students appear to draw a clear association between the increased potential for student questions and the presence of two teachers in the team-taught classroom. These differences are possibly explained in terms of inconsistencies in how teachers and students interpret their classroom roles in relation to each other (see also section 6.5.1.1).

The 'Participation' category of Table 6.1 reveals another way in which students demonstrate an interpretation of their classroom role which is not evident from the teachers' data. Teachers appear to limit their attribution of contributing factors for the effective implementation of CITT to their own beliefs and behaviour. Yet students appear to perceive themselves as co-contributors to the team teaching process, with equal power to cause CITT to succeed or fail (see 6.5.1.1). Again, such an inconsistency in teacher-student perceptions seems to originate from differences in how CITT classroom participants interpret their roles.

### **7.3. Three-mode CITT model**

In this section, the accumulated findings from all three studies of the current research series are drawn upon to develop a model that might be considered a conceptual basis for CITT.

This model represents the basic processes of what participants believe to be effective CITT implementation. It has been designed primarily for application by CITT practitioners, since they are the initiators of the team teaching process. Yet it also attempts to integrate the participation of team-taught students, who appear to perceive themselves as co-contributors to the process. In this sense, the model might be considered an idealisation of good practice for team-taught classroom participants, as reflected from the data of this series. The aim of the model is to help to provide the best conditions for effective CITT to occur in a way that meets the needs of both teachers and students.

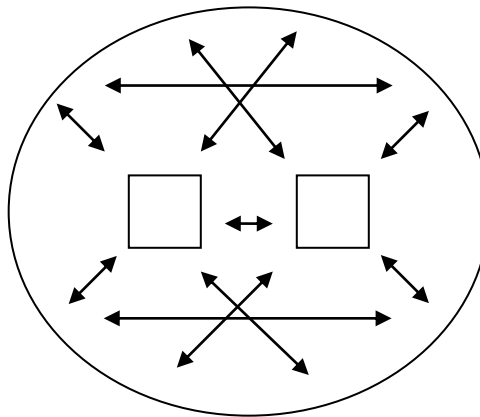
The point of departure for the model is the need for CITT practitioners to make a clear distinction between ‘information’ and ‘instruction’ for students (see section 7.2). Since these two types of discourse require two distinct sets of behaviour from the team teachers, they are represented in the model as two interactional modes, which have been labelled the ‘information mode’ and the ‘instruction mode’. In addition to these modes, a third mode is required to represent the team teachers’ interactions outside the classroom, where preparations and negotiations can take place that are not considered appropriate for student involvement. The third mode has been labelled the ‘management mode’. Taken together, the three modes constitute what is hereafter referred to as the ‘Three-mode CITT model’. The operations of the model, presenting the information mode first, are now explained.

### **7.3.1. Information mode**

The information mode is likely to be a commonly-applied mode of behaviour inside the CITT classroom. Figure 7.1 presents a visual representation of the interactions of CITT classroom participants in information mode. In Figure 7.1, the two team teachers are represented by the

two central squares, while the students are represented by the outer circle (since the number of students in any given team-taught class is indeterminate, there is no attempt to depict individual students in this representation). The behavioural interactions of the participants are represented by lines and arrows.

**Figure 7.1: The information mode (inside the CITT classroom)**



In information mode, the classroom participants share information for learning. Teachers and students are free to share and discuss differing viewpoints and to learn from each other.

Tajino and Walker (1998) might describe this mode as a ‘team learning’ environment, in the sense that all participants, teachers and students alike, can benefit from its potential learning opportunities. In this mode, the team teachers’ adaptive skills are likely to be most beneficial, since the discourse may progress in unexpected directions, and spontaneous shifts in classroom events could occur. Teachers need to be flexible to handle the unpredictability of

interactions in information mode and make best use of the learning opportunities and challenges that emerge.

In information mode, CITT students become co-contributors with their teachers in the implementation of the team-taught lesson. Students are encouraged to behave actively in the classroom, asking questions as much as possible and challenging claims when they believe it is appropriate to do so. In information mode, the teacher-student distinction is reduced to a minimum, since all classroom participants are behaving in similar ways. Team teachers may question each other and disagree with each other, while students may question either of their teachers, or each other. Any classroom participant may voice his/her disagreement (or agreement) with claims expressed by any other classroom participant if they think it is appropriate to do so. All participants interact in an environment where they are encouraged to support their arguments and think critically about the information with which they are presented.

While team teaching partners are free to disagree with each other in information mode, they should not engage in what CITT practitioners have described as ‘conflicts’ in front of the students (see section 5.4.2.4), or attempt to arrogate power over their partners. The behaviour of the team teachers in information mode must be guided by a relationship based on trust and respect, as developed through the management mode (see section 7.3.3), enabling them to make compromises to accommodate each other if necessary. Ideally, partners should behave as equals in terms of showing professional respect for each other’s status and contributions, just as the viewpoints of the students should be treated with respect, even if arguments are

presented to challenge those viewpoints. Criticism should be constructive, not disparaging, with all participants given the freedom to express and criticise different opinions. Of course, as the more qualified and experienced participants in the classroom in terms of the class curriculum, the teachers are most likely to facilitate and guide the interactions, addressing students both collectively and individually, and using classroom discourse to access and explore the different aspects and arguments of any given issue. As some researchers have noted, team teachers are in a particularly good position to role-model critical dialogue for their students (e.g., Murata, 2002), and the information mode is ideal for doing so. Yet the teacher-talk to students should not be prescriptive. The teachers' claims can be questioned and criticised, and a student can become a 'teacher' also, contributing his/her experience and knowledge to the interactions.

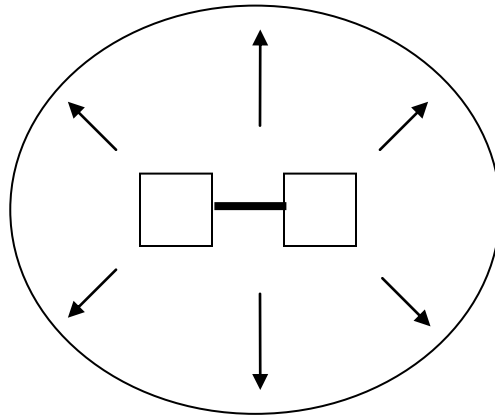
Figure 7.1 represents these types of interactions with double-headed arrows linking all participants to all other participants in the class. These arrows signify the two-way interactions available to all participants for sharing different viewpoints and questioning different claims, so that the lesson becomes a joint venture constructed cooperatively by teachers and students alike.

### **7.3.2. Instruction mode**

The instruction mode is another mode of behaviour for participants inside the CITT classroom. Figure 7.2 presents a visual representation of the interactions of CITT classroom participants in instruction mode. Again, the two team teachers are represented by the two central squares,

the students are represented by the outer circle, and the behavioural interactions of the participants are represented by lines and arrows.

**Figure 7.2: The instruction mode (inside the CITT classroom)**



In instruction mode, the two team teachers provide students with instructions for what they need to do to meet class requirements (e.g., completing a class activity, participating in a group project, doing a homework task). Teachers adopt a more traditional role in relation to their students in this mode, since the interaction is primarily one-way, from teacher to student (though other types of interaction may occur; see section 7.3.4). In this case, the teachers constitute the ‘authority figure’ with regard to the instructional information being conveyed, while the students constitute the receivers of that information. Typically, the students would not challenge the teachers’ instructions .

In the case of CITT, the instruction mode requires both team teaching partners to achieve what George and Davis-Wiley (2000) are likely to describe as ‘consistent’ instruction. In other words, team teaching partners must be coordinated with each other in terms of the

messages they pass to their students. This coordination requires advance negotiation and planning between the partners as conducted through the management mode (see section 7.3.3). In contrast with the information mode, the two team teachers should not disagree with each other, but should present a ‘united front’ in providing students with non-conflicting instructions. In this way, students should not become confused by what Goldstein et al. (1997) describe as “conflicting messages” (p. 333) that arise from the different expectations of the teaching partners. It is not necessary that both teachers provide students with the instructional information together, but it is crucial that the instructional information issued by either teacher at any time be consistent with what was agreed between them. If instruction-giving is implemented effectively, the students should have no concerns about which partner gives them instructions, but should perceive both team teachers as interchangeable in this regard.

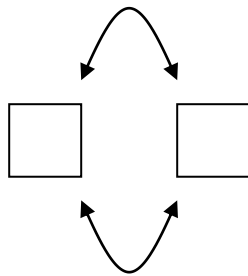
Figure 7.2 represents these types of interactions by depicting the two teaching partners as a single unit, linked by a solid line to show their unanimity of purpose. Arrows lead from the teachers to the students of the classroom to signify the one-way flow of instructional information from givers to receivers (see section 7.3.4. for qualifications of this exchange). In contrast to the informational mode, the substance of non-conflicting instructional information should be communicated uniformly to all students, as shown by the depiction of all arrows originating outward from a single central source.

### **7.3.3. Management mode**

The management mode encompasses the interactions between the two team teaching partners outside their shared classroom and away from their students, typically in an office meeting

situation (but possibly not conducted face-to-face). Figure 7.3 presents a visual representation of the interactions between the two participants in management mode. Again, the two team teachers are represented by the two central squares, and the behavioural interactions of the participants are depicted as curved arrows, representing the dynamic flow of exchange back and forth between both teachers.

**Figure 7.3: The management mode (outside the CITT classroom)**



In management mode, the teaching partners communicate with each other to take care of all the business of their shared course that needs to be handled outside the classroom. Tajino and Tajino (2000) might describe this mode in terms of partners acting as a ‘covert team’, which “is largely invisible to students” (p. 7), and which can be distinguished from the work of the ‘overt team’ that operates inside the partners’ shared classroom. The management mode encompasses lesson planning, student assessments and class evaluations to be conducted jointly by the partners. It is particularly important in allowing for advance planning of the instructions to be issued to students in instruction mode, since the coordination necessary for partners to agree on the instructions should occur outside the classroom.



However, management mode constitutes more than just ‘lesson planning meetings’, since it is a suitable forum for partners to negotiate differences and resolve any conflicts that may impede the partners’ effective coordination inside the classroom. It serves a useful ‘reflect and repair’ function, by allowing the partners to solve any problems that might arise in the other modes of CITT implementation. It also acts in a preventative capacity. Team teaching partners should use the management mode to engage in pre-term negotiation of their respective roles and power distributions within their partnerships, reaching an agreement that is mutually acceptable to both partners before classes begin. Such negotiation is likely to forestall misunderstandings and conflicts that could impede effective team teaching. In effect, the management mode represents the partners’ ‘behind the scenes’ work that allows the teachers to team teach effectively together later in the presence of the students.

As noted in section 5.5.5, it is not necessary for team teaching partners to conform to any institutionally prescribed routine for their out-of-class meetings, but partnerships are more likely to fail if the partners do not maintain open channels of communication with each other in one form or another. In the words of Goldstein et al. (1997), partners cannot simply rely on “a handful of meetings before the term begins” (p. 338), but must maintain communications consistently throughout the duration of their collaboration. It is important that partners use these communications in management mode to build and develop a professional relationship based on mutual trust and respect, which can then extend to all interactions of their partnership. If each team teacher feels that he/she has a forum for speaking openly to his/her partner, honestly voicing concerns and grievances with a view to negotiating differences and

reaching mutually acceptable agreements, it will prove easier for both teachers to provide mutual support for each other when in the classroom.

Figure 7.3 represents the management mode as a jointly constructed circular exchange of different types of interaction between both partners. The circular aspect of the arrows represents the movement of the dialogue back and forth between the teachers as they jointly develop their lessons and negotiate various aspects of their shared course. The arrows are balanced in a stable, symmetrical configuration to represent the mutually acceptable agreements and resolutions reached by the negotiating partners. Once coordinated, the partners are ready to implement CITT inside the classroom.

For purposes of comparison, the complete three-mode CITT model is presented in Figure 7.4, together with a summary of key points for each separate mode. Management mode is presented first in this summary, since it encompasses many of the initial processes that prepare CITT practitioners to apply the other two modes in the classroom.

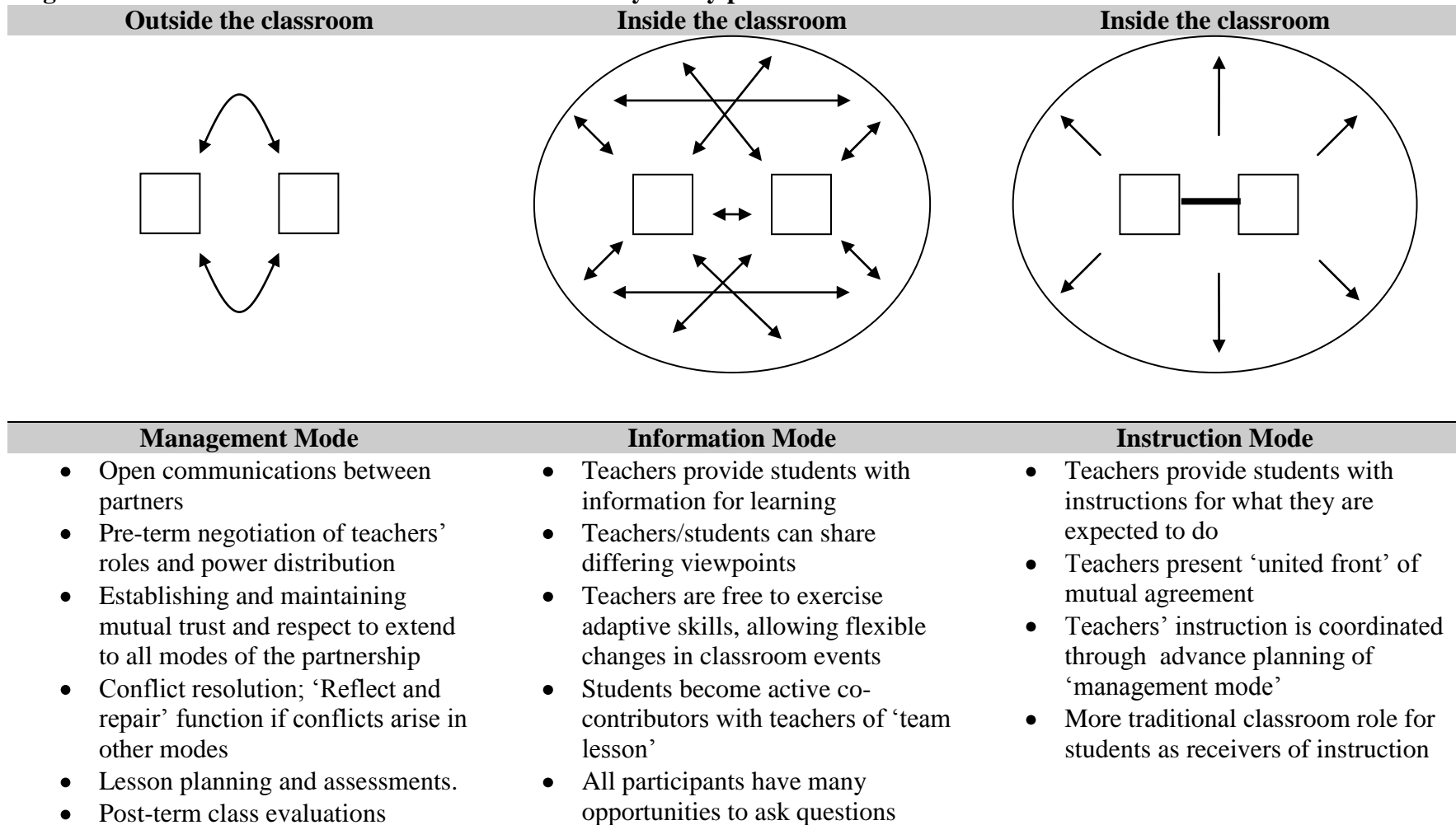
A point worth noting about the three-mode CITT model is that some consideration was given to the possibility of combining its three components to produce an integrated representation of the different processes involved. However, this idea was rejected in the final version because of the intended practical application of the model's use. A fundamental principle of the concept embodied by the model is that team teaching partners must draw clear distinctions for themselves and each other between the different sets of behaviour represented by each mode. As noted in section 5.5.3, problems arise when team teachers confuse their expectations of

how they, and other participants, are supposed to be behaving at any given time within the collaboration. The different modes of the model were developed to help CITT practitioners keep the three sets of suggested behaviour clearly separate from each other. With this in mind, it was decided that an integrated model may have confused the message by visually integrating elements that were intended to function disparately. Therefore, the three-mode CITT model is presented in its current non-integrated version. However, it seems reasonable to suppose that the current version could prove useful as a basis for the development of an integrated model by future team teaching researchers, as informed by their collection of new data to extend these findings (see also section 8.3).

#### **7.3.4. Application of model**

The three-mode CITT model is not designed for prescriptive application in the CITT classroom. Certainly, it is not a comprehensive depiction of all possible social interactions between the participants of CITT. It is easy to imagine interactions occurring that are not well represented by this model. For example, students could ask clarification questions of their teachers during instruction mode (or challenge the instruction if they think it is unacceptable), or teachers may present a 'united front' of agreement during information mode, or one teaching partner may be required to issue instructions to a student outside the classroom. These interactions are not invalidated simply because they are atypical of the key interactions identified within the model. Also, it is worth noting that the model is of limited value if team teaching partners cannot negotiate mutually acceptable agreements in management mode and reach an impasse. In such a case, the partners can make use of faculty mediation services, where area facilitators from outside the partnership act as mediators to assist in the resolution

**Figure 7.4: The three-mode CITT model with summary of key points**



of disputes (MIC Faculty Council, 2006c), but clearly this course of action transcends the parameters of the model by relating back to faculty arrangements within the institutional context rather than to what could be drawn from the research data.

Instead, the model was designed as an idealised representation of the most common types of interactions within CITT when it is considered by the respondents of the study to be implemented effectively. It is offered here as a potential way to assist CITT practitioners and as a frame of reference for guiding behaviour to improve the effectiveness of their own team teaching. The purpose of the three-mode CITT model is to give team teachers a foundational means of conceptualising CITT in action, in order to help them avoid the conflicts that can arise from misunderstandings of each other's assumptions or behaviour across modes. For example, teaching partners might experience conflict if one partner tries to problematise what the other is saying in the classroom while the other is trying to issue non-conflicting instructions to students. The teachers can make reference to the model to clarify their differences and correct this misunderstanding. As another example, if one teaching partner tries to resolve conflicts with his/her partner inside the classroom, the latter can refer to the model to justify his/her claim that such interactions are best applied in management mode, away from the students.

It is also important to note that the modes are not intended to represent equal periods of shared time between team teaching partners. For example, CITT participants may be engaged in information mode for most of a lesson, and change to instruction mode only for the final few minutes before the participants depart. It is, of course, possible for participants to shift back and forth between information and instruction modes over a short

space of time, as required. One can also imagine a situation where the two teaching partners are in different modes inside the classroom at any given time. For example, one teacher may be assisting a group of students to think through a problem-solving task (information mode) while the other is providing clarification for another student who experienced difficulty in understanding previously issued instructions (instruction mode). Such a situation does not transgress the guidelines of the model if the teachers' actions are agreeable to both partners and consistent with the relationship of mutual trust and respect that they have built between them, and if both partners are united on the instructions being issued by the latter (i.e., if the partner in information mode were to join the partner issuing instructions, he/she would be in agreement with what was being said because it was previously negotiated by both partners in management mode).

In short, it is hoped that the three-mode CITT model will provide CITT practitioners with a conceptual tool to guide their implementation of CITT. The model is intended to encourage good team teaching practice, as defined by teachers and students who are most involved in the process of making CITT work.

#### **7.4. Strengths and limitations of the studies**

The three studies constituting the current series were developed with the goal of maximising the strengths of the research design as much as possible. This section presents an overview of the measures that were taken to achieve this goal, and how the development of the research design was intended to heighten the rigour of the findings. Yet it is also important to strive for an impartial perspective and acknowledge that potential limitations are inevitable in any research design. Therefore, limitations of the three studies are also noted.

As indicated in section 4.2, one of the particular limitations of Perry and Stewart's (2005) study is that their interview questions confined respondents to those aspects of CITT that the researchers themselves deemed to be of importance. Also, chapter 3 provides a number of examples of team teaching studies in which researchers used self-reporting to explore team teaching. Under such circumstances, it is inevitable that data from such studies are presented through the lenses of the researchers' own particular subjective judgements, and that distortions may emerge in terms of the researchers' tendency to undervalue or overvalue specific aspects of team teaching when collecting data and interpreting their findings. For this reason, the decision was taken to improve the trustworthiness of the findings of the present series by inviting CITT participants themselves, as the respondents of the studies, to identify and define those aspects of CITT that they considered to be important, and using those data to guide the direction of the research. Since team teaching is actualised as human social interaction, the intention was to apply the qualitative research tradition of exploring the social world through what Burns (1997) describes as the interpretations and meaning ascribed to it by its participants. The participants themselves, as those who are closest to the social processes under investigation, are considered authoritative sources of information about those processes. For the current research series, the definition of participants was not limited to team teachers, but to their students also, as CITT participants with equally valid and valuable perspectives on the processes that take place in their classrooms. It should be noted, too, that since no prior researcher at MIC had adopted such a strictly qualitative approach to the study of CITT by allowing the study respondents to define what the important aspects of team teaching were (see section 3.5), the present series filled a gap in existing knowledge.

In line with the primarily qualitative nature of this research series, all three studies incorporated open-ended questions, and respondents were given general encouragement to provide any responses that they believed to be worthy of note. For example, at the end of the teacher questionnaire, respondents were prompted by: “Please use this space if you would like to comment on anything you think is relevant to team teaching at MIC that has not been covered in this questionnaire.” The intention was that these types of questions would provide ample opportunity for the widest practicable range of issues within the parameters of CITT to emerge from the participants’ data. It was expected that this diversity of responses would yield a rich illustration of CITT, as dictated by its participants rather than the research designer, and that this illustration would encompass all of those aspects that the participants deemed to be of consequence.

At this point, it must be acknowledged that an inevitable limitation of this type of research design is that it explores its subject indirectly. Any conclusions drawn from the data rely upon the accuracy and frankness of the information provided by respondents. If respondents had hidden agendas that tempted them to distort or conceal certain aspects of CITT, or were simply unaware of them, those aspects are unlikely to have emerged clearly in the data. In addition, participants’ perceptions of what occurs between CITT participants may not accurately represent the reality of those interactions. In this respect, follow-up research using observational methodologies to explore CITT participants’ actual behaviour could provide a useful supplement to the findings of the current series (see also section 8.3).

In addition to open-ended questions, the teacher questionnaire study (Chapter 5) made use of quantitative Likert scale-based questionnaire items to elicit ordinal data. It was intended



that the resultant quantitative data would be cross-checked against data from the respondents' commentary, and that both types of data could be compared with findings from the initial focus group study (Chapter 4). This process allowed for the use of multiple lenses to explore the research subject, with the aim of triangulating the data and enhancing the trustworthiness of the findings. In this way, it was considered that a fuller picture of the respondents' perceptions of CITT could emerge. In addition, piloting and inter-coder agreement checks were employed where possible, with the aim of enhancing the robustness of the research tools used.

One of the advantages of the fact that I, as primary researcher for the current series, was also a practising team teacher at MIC, is that certain benefits emerged from my insider status. For example, I had access to personal communications and internal documents that would not have been easily available to researchers from outside the college community. It also seems likely that my insider's depth of institutional knowledge and experience produced insights in the interpretation of the data that might not have been readily accessible to external observers.

Nevertheless, it must be recognised that my insider status also constituted a potential weakness of the research design, since I was unable to assume the disinterested perspective of an external researcher, and was therefore subject to possible personal bias. For this reason, measures were taken to minimise the potential for such a bias to contaminate the data. For example, a 'questioning route' was created to minimise the imposition of researcher bias when moderating the focus group discussions. I was excluded from the pool of potential respondents for both the focus group study and teacher questionnaire study. Where possible, I avoided communication with potential respondents

of both questionnaire studies until they had submitted their completed documents, and in cases where I was required to make contact with potential respondents for institutional purposes, no communication was initiated by me on the subject of questionnaire content. In no case was I present while the respondents completed their questionnaires (see sections 5.3.4 and 6.3.3). Anonymity concerns that were expressed by some respondents of the teacher questionnaire study, and were of relevance to my insider status, were promptly addressed during data collection, and the decision was taken at the analysis stage to omit certain non-critical types of data as a consequence (see section 5.4.4). Inter-coder agreement checks were performed for both questionnaire studies at the data analysis stages, and disconfirming evidence was included in the presentation of findings when available, in challenge to more widespread claims derived from the data (for examples, see sections 5.4.3 and 6.5.2). All of these measures were applied with the intention of minimising the potential weaknesses of my insider status, while allowing the potential benefits of that status to remain in place.

Another intention of the current research series was that it would provide a balance of survey-based approaches designed to complement each other's strengths and offer a triangulation of different perspectives from different participants. The initial study (Chapter 4) used focus group methods to elicit a diverse range of responses from respondents and guide the direction of further study. Focus group approaches allow for group synergy to be created to broaden the range of responses. The follow-up study, in contrast, used a larger sampling of respondents (two-thirds of the eligible population) to extend the findings of the first study. The second study was designed to focus on specific findings of the first study and examine them with more precision, using quantitative and qualitative research tools to gather confirming or disconfirming evidence for specific

claims from a more representative sampling of CITT practitioners. By use of an on-line questionnaire, respondents were able to provide their responses anonymously and individually on their own terms, perhaps encouraging more frank and considered responses than those likely to emerge from the first study. The third study, though designed with an exploratory purpose as was the first study, gathered data from student participants of the CITT classroom who had not been included in the first two studies. By integrating student data with teacher data, the third study broadened the scope of the research and served a comparative function, helping to explore prior claims drawn from previous findings and opening up new perspectives on CITT that were not evident beforehand. Collectively, these various aspects of the three studies provided what Denzin (1978) would describe as ‘methods triangulation’, through the use of both interviews and questionnaires to collect data; and ‘data triangulation’, through the use of both teacher and student groups as different sources of data contributing to the findings overall. Since CITT can only be researched within the confines of the single institution where it was developed, it was expected that the complementary effect of the three studies in this series would help to offset the limitations of scale implicit in that institution. For example, a researcher cannot draw large representative samplings of participants from a range of schools where CITT is practised, as can researchers of more widespread team teaching initiatives, such as the JET programme.

As noted in section 6.3.2, another attempt to apply multiple lenses to the subject of the present series is represented by the collection of periodic data in the student questionnaire study, which contrasts with the cross-sectional data that had been collected up to that point. These two types of complementary data allowed a degree of triangulation across findings. Though the periodic aspect of the present series is limited, new research is currently

underway to extend this aspect further (see section 8.3). In addition, since faculty members at MIC are typically hired on a two-year contractual basis (see Chapter 2), rapid changes in personnel are not unusual, and new CITT practitioners are appointed to the college at regular intervals. For these reasons, future replications of the teacher questionnaire survey at MIC might prove a useful means of collecting more recurrent data to complement findings from the current series, as they would provide a way of examining whether the trends and themes in the series are repeated in further research.

It should be acknowledged that one of the inevitable constraints under which the present series was conducted was that language-based and culture-based barriers existed between researcher and respondents. For example, the respondents of the student questionnaire study could not have been expected to provide adequate responses in their second language at their level of language proficiency, and indeed, when their data were collected, it was found that most had responded in Japanese. Yet, faced with a bilingual response option, some respondents had chosen to respond in English, and some code-switched languages between response items. Respondents were invited to do so because, in the questionnaire design stage of the study, it was considered that producing bilingual versions of all questionnaire documents and inviting respondents to use the language of their choice for any questionnaire item would constitute the best means of addressing the language barrier constraint.

Although translation to Japanese was unnecessary for the teacher-focussed studies, since all respondents were highly proficient in English, it should be acknowledged that the respondents were drawn from a range of different cultural backgrounds, comprising a mix of L1 and L2 users of English. Respondents may have expressed some differences in the

culturally-bound sociolinguistic assumptions of their responses to the survey questions, which could have affected the data. While attempts were made to address this potential limitation in the development of the interview questions of Chapter 4 and the questionnaire items of Chapter 5, certain compromises were unavoidable. For example, following the recommendations of pilot respondents, a concise paraphrase of the term ‘complementary’ was written explicitly into the teacher questionnaire, in an attempt to reduce its potential for misunderstanding among respondents from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds (see section 5.4.2.2). However, by attempting to paraphrase the term concisely, the lack of complexity in the paraphrase opened the term up to other interpretations. As one respondent indicates in his/her responses, the paraphrase could have encompassed the concept of ‘compatibility’ between partners as well as complementarity, and thus it is possible that different respondents interpreted the term in slightly different ways. This example is a useful illustration of the inevitable tension between the need to achieve clarity and the need to achieve precision when writing questionnaire items designed for respondents from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. It serves to highlight an implicit limitation on this type of research design, which, it might be argued, is impossible to eradicate fully, but can best be addressed through use of careful drafting of questionnaire items and piloting with test respondents, as was implemented for this research series.

## **7.5. Summary**

In summary, the findings of the three studies in this series were compared and contrasted. Though the findings of the two teacher-focussed studies were broadly consistent with each other, the student questionnaire study findings were found to diverge more noticeably and yield a number of new insights. Using findings from all three studies, an idealised model

of good CITT practice was presented, separating suggested team teacher behaviour into three distinct modes. The suggested application of this model by CITT practitioners was discussed.

A number of measures were taken with the intention of maximising the strengths of the current research design. CITT participants were invited to define the important aspects of team teaching, and the survey questions were designed to be as open-ended as possible, to allow a full picture of CITT to emerge. Quantitative data were collected for the teacher questionnaire study, allowing cross-checking against qualitative data. The researcher's status, as community insider, is likely to have yielded certain insights into data interpretation, and steps were taken in all studies to minimise the potential researcher bias of that status. A balance of survey-based approaches was employed to triangulate responses from different participants and help offset the scale limitation of CITT's implementation in a single institution. Also, periodic responses were collected to triangulate findings from cross-sectional data, and measures were taken to address the language and culture barriers between researcher and respondents, including use of bilingual surveys and piloting.

In the next chapter, I broaden the discussion of findings from this research series to contextualise them against the findings of other researchers. I also explore future directions for research into CITT arising from the current studies. Finally, I present possible implications of these findings for team teachers in other contexts.

## **CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION**

### **8.1. Introduction**

This chapter begins by presenting an overview of how the findings from the current research series compare with common findings from the team teaching literature, as identified in Chapter 3 and other specific literature reviews in this thesis. By making these comparisons, I attempt to show how my research is situated in the context of established knowledge, with particular emphasis placed on fresh insights or unexpected results pointing in new directions. I also provide guidelines for further research into team teaching that have been suggested by the findings of the present series. In particular, it is hoped that future researchers of CITT will have the opportunity to further the work of the current research series, in the same way that my work was originally intended to revitalise and expand upon the team teaching research of prior MIC faculty members (see section 3.5), for the potential benefit of all teachers engaged in collaborative initiatives. At the end of the chapter, I show how the findings of this research series might usefully inform teacher collaboration in general. While the development of the three-mode CITT model from this research data (see Chapter 7) was intended primarily for application by CITT practitioners, I suggest that this model also carries wider implications for practice, which team teachers in a variety of contexts might adapt to improve their own teaching and create more effective collaborative dynamics.

### **8.2. Research comparisons**

As a continuation of the history of team teaching research at MIC, the present research series produced findings that were broadly consistent with what had come before. For example, Perry and Stewart's (2005) conclusion that CITT enhances the professional development of participating teachers is strongly supported by data from teacher

respondents in the current studies. Other examples of major findings common to Perry and Stewart's (2005) work and this research series include: CITT participants' shared belief in the importance of role agreement and personal compatibility between teaching partners; the need for open communication to be maintained between teaching partners; and benefits of CITT including the role modelling of multiple perspectives and more individualised attention for students. Other findings consistent with the present research are evident from prior CITT studies, such as the importance of flexibility and openness between teaching partners (J. Sagliano et al., 1998; M. Sagliano et al., 1998); equal power sharing between partners (M. Sagliano et al., 1998; Stewart, 2001); mutual respect between partners (Stewart, 2001); and the need for extra preparation time to implement team teaching (J. Sagliano et al., 1998).

One of Perry and Stewart's (2005) claims that is not directly supported by findings from the current series of studies is that a teacher's degree of experience of CITT helps to reduce the potential for certain problems, such as unequal distributions of power, to arise within partnerships (see section 3.5). It should be noted, however, that the findings of the present series do not explicitly contradict Perry and Stewart's (2005) claim, and that data for the two teacher-focussed studies of the present series were collected cross-sectionally, which is not likely to have revealed evidence for such a claim as effectively as a recurrent data collecting approach might have done (see also section 8.3).

If the current research series is contextualised against the team teaching literature in general, it can be seen to show broad consistency with common findings in a number of ways. CITT respondents in the current series place a strong emphasis on the benefits of team teaching, reflecting the near-unanimous consensus of opinion from the literature that



team teaching's benefits outweigh its disadvantages (see Chapter 3). Criticisms of CITT tend to be confined to teachers who are perceived to be implementing it incorrectly, particularly in responses from team-taught students (see Chapter 6). Other findings from this research series that are consistent with common findings from the general team teaching literature include: the importance of mutual trust and respect between teaching partners; the need for team teachers to be flexible and adaptive to unexpected situations; the importance of openness between teaching partners (i.e., willingness to maintain open communications between partners); the importance of maintaining equal power distributions between partners; and the usefulness of compatible personalities between partners in achieving an effective team teaching relationship (see section 3.6).

In one respect, the findings from this research series have highlighted a pertinent distinction between a team teacher's in-classroom and out-of-classroom behaviour that is rarely clarified in the team teaching literature. Some researchers, such as George and Davis-Wiley (2000), emphasize that teacher disagreements need to be kept outside the team-taught classroom, implying the need for cooperative behaviour in front of students. Other researchers, such as Perry and Stewart (2005), point out the benefits of teaching partners openly expressing disagreement in their classroom, in order to encourage students to explore diversity of opinion on particular issues. Findings from the present research series have led to the need to resolve this seeming contradiction by redefining teacher discourse in terms of distinguishing 'instruction' from 'information' (see Chapter 5). Though atypical, it is worth noting that Shannon and Meath-Lang (1992), like respondents from this research series, also make explicit reference to potential tensions emerging between team teachers wanting to either express or avoid in-classroom disagreement (see section 3.2). It seems likely that the interdisciplinary nature of team teaching, both at MIC

and in Shannon and Meath-Lang's (1992) educational context, is particularly relevant to this issue. Divergence of opinion is more common (and even desirable) between team teaching partners representing separate disciplines than between team teachers in a unidisciplinary teaching partnership, where divergence is perhaps more likely to be perceived to signify teacher error. From this evidence, it might be argued that teacher discourse to students is usefully categorised as 'instruction' or 'information' (see Chapter 7) not only for CITT purposes, but for interdisciplinary team teaching in general.

Data from the student questionnaire study (see Chapter 6) offer an interesting congruency with the trend toward greater 'student-inclusiveness' in team teaching among recent researchers such as Murata (2002) and Tajino and Tajino (2000) (see section 6.2). While such researchers argue that students, like team teachers, are also participants in the team-taught classroom, and ought not to be excluded from research into the collaborative dynamic, CITT students have similarly voiced the belief that they, in addition to their teachers, are active contributors to the effective implementation of CITT in their classes (see section 6.5.1.1). The timeliness of such a finding is notable if it is considered that, before the mid-1990s, the literature revealed little evidence of the notion that team-taught students might hold the power to help or hinder the effective implementation of team teaching in the classroom, as distinct from what their teachers do. This finding also contrasts with responses from teacher respondents in the first two studies, from which it is not evident that CITT practitioners consider their students to be fellow developers of effective classroom collaboration. In this respect, researchers and team-taught students alike appear to be advancing a new perspective on what actually occurs in classroom collaborations, which has yet to gather similar momentum in the common perceptions of the collaborating teachers.

Other student responses from the third study have opened up fresh aspects of team teaching insights from the literature. For example, though George and Davis-Wiley (2000) note the potential for team teaching to encourage students to ask more questions, since greater opportunities exist for student-teacher rapport in classrooms with multiple instructors (see section 3.2), the observation that team teaching encourages more questions from students than single-teacher instruction is not a major theme of the literature. Student respondents from the current CITT study, however, have contributed to this aspect of existing knowledge by expressing the belief that team teaching reduces students' hesitation to ask questions in class (see section 6.5.1.1). Such responses suggest the possibility that an increase in student questions may result from heightened willingness on the part of a student entering a team-taught class dynamic to initiate such questions, instead of simply the extra chances for questioning made available by the presence of multiple instructors. As has been noted, it is possible that this willingness emerges from the specific cultural context of the respondents, as Japanese college students newly departed from more traditional high school environments (see section 6.5.1.1). Further research into CITT in classes of non-Japanese students is likely to prove revealing on this point, though, as of the time of writing, it must remain hypothetical until CITT is exported beyond the confines of MIC. However, similar research into interdisciplinary team teaching contexts beyond Japan could potentially hold interesting insights for the focus on students in the team teaching literature.

Another example of a fresh insight emerging from the current research series is concerned with the potential for team teachers to provide students with more support and attention than single instructors. Though not, in itself, a new observation, since researchers such as

Carless and Walker (2006) and Perry and Stewart (2005) have explicitly identified this particular benefit of team teaching, student respondents from the current CITT study enhance the finding by focussing on its 'caretaking' aspect. As noted in Chapter 6, the respondents identify not only the extra attention team teachers can offer their students, but the closer relationship developing between teachers and students as a consequence of that attention, and the personal feelings of reassurance it engenders in the students. Again, it seems likely that any interpretation of this type of response requires careful reference to the students' specific cultural context, so it raises the question of whether comparable responses might be typical for groups of team-taught students in other cultural or institutional environments.

A notable point about common findings from the present research series is that they show a particularly high degree of consistency with team teaching findings from education in general. For example, the key prominence attributed to mutual trust between team teaching partners by respondents of the teacher questionnaire study finds most congruency with the conclusions of Eisen and Tisdell (2000), Murata (2002) and Shannon and Meath-Lang (1992), all of whom are working beyond the specific field of language education. Similarly, the key prominence attributed to mutual respect between team teaching partners by respondents of the focus group study finds almost as much support from researchers outside the language education context (i.e., Eisen & Tisdell, 2000; George & Davis-Wiley, 2000; Murata, 2002; Shannon & Meath-Lang, 1992) as from within it. The conclusions of Shannon and Meath-Lang (1992) and Sandholtz (2000), in particular, recur frequently when compared with a number of different findings from the current research series, including professional development opportunities, need for joint planning and unequal distributions of power between partners (see section 3.6). George and Davis-

Wiley's (2000) conclusions, too, are highly consistent with findings from the present series, for example: improved support and attention for students from team teaching; open communication between partners; and the need for partners to coordinate student instruction (see section 5.2).

It is possible that the high degree of congruency of the findings of this research series with team teaching research from outside language education is indicative of its interdisciplinary aspect. Though CITT occurs in Japan, and sometimes parallels the unidisciplinary type of team teaching so prevalent in large-scale collaborative initiatives in Japanese education, such as the JET programme (see section 3.4), it differs by integrating content and language teaching across a broad range of content disciplines. CITT straddles many fields of education beyond the ESOL classroom, such as anthropology, psychology, history, and more. It is perhaps not surprising, therefore, that team teaching literature from outside the field of language education seems to inform what is known about CITT as readily as literature focussing on the unidisciplinary team teaching of English. From these findings, it might be argued that future investigators of CITT should continue to draw from a broad interdisciplinary review of team teaching literature to inform their research, and not be tempted to limit their scope to the field of applied linguistics research, even if they are approaching CITT as language teachers themselves.

While showing congruency with interdisciplinary team teaching research findings, the findings of the current research series also contrast with common research perspectives from unidisciplinary team teaching. For example, studies such as those of Katsura and Matsune (1994) or Kachi and Choon-hwa (2001) tend to focus on the relationship between team teaching partners in terms of the NS/NNS distinction between partners, or their

cultural differences as representatives from distinct national groups. However, these distinctions are largely invalid for CITT, since at MIC both types of teachers (language and content) are paired indiscriminately from a pool of mixed-nationality English speaking faculty according to their academic qualifications and expertise (see Chapter 2). Their status as native speakers or native culture experts for a specific national group is not relevant to their classification as content or language teachers. Against such a context, Katsura and Matsune's (1994) conclusion that team teaching stimulates students' interest in intercultural differences (see section 3.4) finds little direct relevance.

Another comparatively common finding from the team teaching literature that finds little consistency with this research series is concerned with the importance of teachers being able to volunteer to team teach together, and not having collaborative partnerships imposed upon them. For researchers such as Carless (2006b), Murata (2002) or Sandholtz (2000), this aspect features prominently as a source of team teaching difficulty in the educational contexts of their studies. However, since the establishment of voluntary partnerships is a precondition of CITT for all of its teaching participants (see Chapter 2), it is perhaps unsurprising that respondents in the current series of research studies show a tendency to attribute low importance to this aspect of team teaching, when compared against other aspects (see section 5.4.1). Voluntary partnerships are accepted as a given by CITT practitioners, within the practical constraints of teacher availability across classes. It might also be argued that CITT practitioners cannot claim to have had team teaching as an educational initiative imposed upon them unwillingly, since team teaching is a highly-publicised feature of MIC's educational programmes, and at no time in the history of the college has team teaching not been implemented across its entire curriculum for lower-division students (see Chapter 2). It would be difficult for potential new applicants for

faculty positions at MIC to claim ignorance of the fact that they are likely to be required to team teach for at least some of their classes. In this context, the problems of imposed collaboration on unwilling teaching participants evidently carry little relevance for CITT participants. Also, as suggested by Perry and Stewart (2005), it seems likely that certain other common sources of difficulty between team teaching partners, such as personal incompatibilities, are reduced by CITT's voluntary partner selection process (see section 5.2), so that it would be unreasonable to expect these features of team teaching to figure prominently in responses from CITT practitioners.

Another common aspect of team teaching from the literature that bears little relevance to the CITT context is that of the disparity in professional skills or institutional status between two partners, where one is a qualified teacher (e.g., JTE) and the other a less-qualified assistant (e.g., AET). For prominent unidisciplinary team teaching initiatives, such as the JET programme in Japan or EPIK scheme in South Korea, this disparity is central to the team teaching partnership, in which (typically) young adults are imported from outside the country into local schools to collaborate with working teachers, usually on a short-term basis. The work of researchers such as Aline and Hosoda (2006) or Miyazato (2006a) is predicated on partnerships of this type, so it is perhaps not surprising for their conclusions to reflect issues emerging from inequalities between team teaching partners that are implicit to the schemes bringing them together.

The CITT partnership, by comparison, does not reflect an institutional inequality between its two participating team teachers, since both partners are expected to share power and authority equally within their working relationship (see section 5.5.11). Nevertheless, it might be argued that equality between partners is difficult to achieve in real conditions,

even under an institutional mandate to exercise it. As noted in Chapter 5, CITT partners are equal in the eyes of their institution, but unequal in terms of their academic qualifications, since content teachers are typically required to hold Ph.D.-level qualifications, while language teachers require only Masters-level qualifications. Though institutionally irrelevant to power distribution within the CITT partnership, this source of inequality between language and content teachers, and how it might impact on the distribution of power between them, was identified as an issue of some importance by participants in the focus group study (see Chapter 4). In fact, the problem of unequal power distribution between partners emerged as a pertinent issue in the data of all three studies, suggesting the possibility that it is a key factor in any team teaching relationship, regardless of whether a disparity in institutional status exists between the partners or not. The claims of researchers such as Miyazato (2006a) and Aline and Hosoda (2006) are supportive of this interpretation, in the sense that they identify the exercise of ‘hidden power’ between team teaching partners that runs counter to the institutional expectations of power distribution that have been placed upon them.

As discussed in Chapter 4, the potential for team teaching to enhance the professional development of participating teachers emerged as a major theme in this research (see Chapter 4). This theme was consistent with a broad consensus of opinion from the team teaching literature. As noted in section 3.6, many researchers, such as Stewart et al. (2000) or Gorsuch (2002), identify the professional learning opportunities implicit in a collaborative partnership, where one partner can act as a role model for the other, and a partner is able to critically evaluate the work of his/her peer through the close scrutiny that a collaborative partnership allows. In addition, researchers such as Shannon and Meath-Lang (1992) highlight the opportunities for team teachers to engage in professional self-



reflection, individually or collaboratively, through their awareness that their work is under the close scrutiny of their partner. As Burton (2009) observes, the act of being reflective can, in itself, help teachers improve their professional practice, and “there is general recognition that reflective processes are more likely to be sustained when carried out collaboratively with other teachers” (p. 308). The collaborative partnerships of CITT clearly lend themselves to such an exercise.

Nevertheless, as noted in Chapter 5, although the findings of the current research series explicitly support the common view that team teaching benefits teachers’ professional development, there is also some evidence to prompt the speculation that some CITT practitioners are resisting critical scrutiny from third parties (see section 5.5.9). Such opaque professional behaviour is likely to counteract the benefits to professional development that CITT is believed to offer. Certainly, such an interpretation contrasts sharply with widespread findings from the team teaching literature and could represent a new insight into the long-term effects of sustained teacher collaborations. However, a substantial degree of confirming evidence would be required to support such a radical claim.

Another unexpected finding from this research that contrasts sharply with the accepted wisdom of the team teaching literature is the view of some CITT practitioners that student needs provide the only important measure of effective team teaching, irrespective of the relationship between the two teaching partners (see section 5.4.3). Though representing a minority view throughout the two teacher-focussed studies of this series, this idea appeared to persist as a strongly-held belief among a fraction of CITT practitioners, providing some degree of counter-evidence for the more common views of teacher

respondents regarding this aspect of CITT (see section 5.5.10). However, it must be noted that the student respondents of the student questionnaire study did not share this minority view, and indeed the importance of the relationship between team teaching partners emerged in the student data as a major contributing factor to the effectiveness of CITT (see section 6.5.1.2). Also, the team teaching literature is strongly supportive of the contention that the relationship between partners plays a key role in determining the effectiveness of their team teaching, as is evident from the conclusions of such a diverse range of researchers as George and Davis-Wiley (2000), M. Sagliano and Greenfield (1998) and Voci-Reed (1994) (see section 5.2).

Cumulatively, this evidence suggests that, despite the contrary conviction of some CITT practitioners, any evaluation of the effectiveness of team teaching cannot usefully exclude the different aspects of the relationship between the two team teaching partners, regardless of its perceived success in meeting student needs. Indeed, as has been noted, the recent tendency of team teaching researchers has been to adjust the commonly-held conception of the team teaching dynamic to include a wider range of participants than just the teachers themselves (see section 6.2). Although this tendency is consistent with the minority view of CITT practitioners in the sense that it represents a movement toward more student-focussed models, it does not represent an attempt to create a more exclusive model of team teaching. Indeed, just the opposite is true, in the sense that it represents a redefinition of the team teaching dynamic to encompass a broader and more inclusive concept of greater complexity than was previously supposed. Against this trend, it might well be argued that accompanying a shift of focus towards team-taught students with a corresponding shift of focus away from their teachers is unlikely to serve any useful purpose in better understanding how team teaching works.

### **8.3 Further research**

The student questionnaire study from this research was of limited scope in the sense that it was an exploratory study conducted with a small respondent group of first-year CITT students (see section 7.4). Just as the second study in this series was conducted to extend the findings from the initial focus group study, more research is needed to broaden the scope of the student questionnaire study and add to its findings. This purpose might be achieved by collecting supplementary interview data from respondents of the student questionnaire study. Also, the research design of the student questionnaire study could be re-employed in surveys of first-year students from other classes. In fact, at the time of writing, I am in the process of repeating the study. I am now surveying the first-year students of my current team-taught classes at MIC using the same questionnaire that was designed for the student questionnaire study of Chapter 6, with a view to comparing and contrasting their responses against the original data. It is anticipated that this replication of research with new students will provide some measure of testing out the original findings.

As noted in section 7.4, it would also be instructive to broaden the scope of the student questionnaire study by surveying higher-division students at MIC, who have experienced CITT for longer periods of time, and who are further removed from their transition to college life from high school than first-year students. The elicitation of second-year student data is likely to yield useful information in this regard. Although third and fourth year students at MIC no longer participate in team-taught classes (see Chapter 2), it may also be useful to elicit their retrospective views of CITT to contribute to the student data. It is possible that such respondents are likely to evaluate CITT more objectively, as ex-CITT participants at some remove from the team-taught classroom than lower-division students who are still undergoing the stresses and challenges of their team-taught lessons. It might

also be argued that such respondents would have achieved a greater depth of maturity and world experience than their younger counterparts, due to ageing and the study abroad experiences of their second year (see Chapter 2), which could enhance their critical evaluations of their CITT experience.

As suggested in section 7.4, future replications of the teacher questionnaire study could prove useful. It was also noted that a periodic approach was adopted in this research series, but only for student respondents. Further research to adopt a periodic approach with teacher respondents, in order to supplement the cross-sectional data from the present series, could yield instructive contributions to existing knowledge. One way of doing so would be to collect further data from a sampling of CITT practitioners over time. Of particular interest might be the collection of data relating to team teachers' perspectives on CITT from their first experiences of team teaching at MIC, followed by periodic data collection from the same respondents after multiple terms of practice with a range of different students and teaching partners. The periodic influx of new CITT practitioners into MIC as a result of the lack of tenure-track positions being offered to faculty (see Chapter 2) would allow such a study to be conducted with relative ease. This study is likely to track changes in the respondents' opinions of CITT as they gain in the experience of implementing it, and would benefit from respondents using research tools to reflect on their own practices, such as keeping journals or being interviewed about team teaching immediately after leaving the CITT classroom. Such a research design might also help to test Perry and Stewart's (2005) claim that certain team teaching problems tend to be reduced as teachers gain in CITT experience, since the current research series did not provide confirming evidence for this claim (see section 8.2).

Other research opportunities emerging from this research series include the need for more detailed explications of how CITT participants define and conceptualise key aspects of team teaching. For example, as noted in section 5.5.6, if respondents consider ‘trust’ and ‘respect’ to be of prime importance to effective team teaching, research is needed to explore more precisely what these terms mean to CITT practitioners. If, as was speculated in section 5.5.6, team teachers perceive a direct association between these key terms as they are demonstrated in practitioner behaviour, detailed investigations of how they are perceived to intersect or conflict with each other are likely to reveal further team teaching findings of importance. For example, the use of focussed interview techniques with CITT practitioners to elicit clear examples of these key terms, as realised through teacher attitudes and actions, might shed more light on these crucial aspects of team teaching.

Another potentially useful area for further research is evident from the differences between teacher and student perceptions of CITT in the data. In keeping with the growing tendency for researchers to broaden the common conception of the team teaching dynamic to include team-taught students (see section 6.2), it would be useful to explore how teachers and students perceive each other’s roles in CITT. By eliciting from all participants detailed data relating to how they define and interpret their own roles as CITT participants and the roles of other types of participants (e.g., how a content teacher perceives his/her language teaching partner’s role; how a student perceives his/her teacher’s role), it might be possible to cross-reference these data for purposes of comparison. Such a research design is likely to reveal any prominent differences between the interpretations and expectations of different participant roles, and identify potential sources of misunderstanding which may result in conflict. For example, if one team teacher expects his/her partner to assume what Brumby and Wada (1990) describe as the

‘modeller role’, to model dialogue or behaviour for students, while the latter believes that this role is not appropriate to his/her responsibilities, there is potential for conflict. Or, in another example, if students believe that their team teacher’s role is to take care of the students’ needs to a greater degree than would be expected in a single-teacher classroom, but the team teacher is unaware that the students have such an expectation, there is potential for frustration for all parties. The practical implications of research into participants’ role expectations are that these types of misunderstandings could be identified and resolved before conflict escalates.

Finally, as noted in section 7.4.2, a logical progression from research into respondents’ beliefs and attitudes regarding CITT would be to investigate their behaviour when implementing it. Further research using observational techniques to explore what teachers and students actually do in the CITT classroom (or even outside the classroom) is likely to prove fruitful in revealing how the respondents’ intentions and actions compare. For example, videotaping and field notes could be used to record CITT participant behaviour and interactions, while asking participants to retrospectively examine and explain their actions as monitored, in order to triangulate the data and strengthen the researcher’s interpretations of them.

These suggestions for follow-up study are just some of the possibilities implicit in the findings from the current research series. As an example of a stronger type of collaboration from the collaborative continuum (see section 3.1), CITT requires its practitioners to enter into particularly close cooperative relationships with colleagues over extended periods of time, as well as drawing students into an unusually collaborative dynamic. These kinds of relationships are rare in educational contexts, and are therefore

particularly deserving of researcher attention. At the present time, the CITT-based curriculum at MIC continues to offer future researchers plenty of scope for further study that is likely to yield useful contributions to the team teaching literature, both inside and outside the field of language education.

#### **8.4. Implications for practice beyond MIC**

As has been mentioned in this chapter, a number of common findings from the literature, such as the importance of team teachers volunteering to collaborate together, are not of direct relevance to the institutional context of CITT (see section 8.2). However, in contrast, a review of the combined findings of the studies in the present research series reveals a range of issues that are likely to prove relevant for team teachers across a broad range of different kinds of collaboration. This relevance is evident from the fact that much of the data from respondents of this series, representing common concerns of CITT participants, touches upon fundamental aspects of social relationships between people in collaborative arrangements, rather than details of any administrative or logistical rules for how those people are brought together. For example, the respondents of the teacher questionnaire study show comparatively little interest overall in how they differ from each other in terms of institutional role differences (i.e., content or language teacher), but instead appear relatively united by their prominent interest in more basic social aspects of collaboration, such as trust between partners (see section 5.5.11). Also, they appear to attach more importance to the need for team teachers to establish open communications with each other, than with the development of any collective guideline for how those communications ought to be established and maintained (see section 5.5.5). In addition, while the importance of advance planning does not go unacknowledged by respondents (see section 4.4.7), it seems to be eclipsed by the respondents' common belief that a team

teacher's basic ability to adapt to change is a major contributing factor to his/her collaborative effectiveness. In fact, prominent themes emerging from these studies, such as 'respect', 'trust', 'adaptability', 'caretaking' or 'partner relationship', are so basic to the essential properties of close social relationships between people that they invite analogies with marital relationships, a point which has not gone unnoticed by team teaching researchers in the past (e.g., Perry & Stewart, 2005; Shannon & Meath-Lang, 1992).

Since so many of the findings of the current series are indicative of these kinds of fundamental relationships between people, it might be argued that any arrangement whereby two (or more) teachers come together collaboratively in a classroom is likely to benefit from the insights they offer. Such collaborators must create a social dynamic in which each must personally accommodate the other, regardless of whether they are participating in an interdisciplinary partnership, a JTE/AET pairing, a 'co-teaching' collaboration of special and general educator, or any other combination across the collaborative continuum (see section 3.1). Any team teaching class, CITT or otherwise, is founded on the relationship between the partners, and so, as has been suggested by the majority of respondents in the present research series, any attempt to downplay the importance of that relationship in the broader context of the collaborative classroom is likely to prove counter-productive. As with any successful marriage, team teaching partners with well-matched personalities might be expected to enjoy an advantage in creating an effective collaboration. However, as some respondents have pointed out (see section 5.5.8), when the personalities of partners tend to conflict with each other, the professionalism of their behaviour may compensate sufficiently to offset this disadvantage, and allow the partners to sustain an effective relationship anyway. Since the three-mode CITT model of Chapter 7 offers an idealised conceptualisation of professional behaviour



for team teaching partners, derived from themes such as trust and respect that are fundamental to any form of social collaboration, it is likely that this conceptualisation illustrates good practice principles for many different kinds of team teaching.

It should be acknowledged that the three-mode model was developed to suit team teaching for the CITT context, and encompasses teaching assumptions that are specific to that context. However, the foundational and non-prescriptive principles of good practice embodied in the model (see section 7.3.4) suggest that it is also adaptable to other collaborative arrangements. For example, although the ‘management mode’ of the model assumes symmetry between two team teachers sharing equal authority, as pertaining to the CITT partnership, there is no reason why it could not be used to represent the negotiation of stability in achieving joint agreement regarding roles and responsibilities between two partners who are institutionally unequal, such as in the JTE/AET relationship. Since the crucial threat to an effective partnership is considered to be the arrogation of power by one partner over another in contravention of what had been agreed between them, whether or not that agreement constitutes a 50/50 distribution of power (see section 5.5.7), the management mode can still function in an unequal partnership as a forum for reaching agreement and building a collaborative relationship based on trust and respect. The management mode also represents a forum for engaging in lesson planning or resolving misunderstandings. Thus, it may be argued that the establishment of a forum for these kinds of actions is the key to effective collaboration for any kind of partnership, equal or otherwise.

As another example of how the three-mode model might be applied to non-CITT contexts, it is worth noting that the ‘information mode’ is particularly applicable to interdisciplinary

team teaching in general, since team teachers from diverging disciplines are likely to present the kind of differing viewpoints that the mode was designed to encompass. Yet differing viewpoints may arise between partners in unidisciplinary partnerships too, just as experts from a single discipline may disagree with each other, and in any collaborative classroom where students are encouraged to think critically and raise questions, the information mode is likely to have a place. If, as respondents from the student questionnaire study claim, the simple presence of two teachers in a classroom is likely to elicit more questions from the students, then the information mode of the model might be usefully applied to deal with such interactions, regardless of the type of team teaching being practised. Since the information mode does not legislate against disagreement between classroom participants, but only provides a supported forum for allowing it to occur for pedagogical purposes, team teachers are free to adapt and apply the guidelines of the mode to the degree that will suit the requirements of their own classrooms. The critical distinction between the two classroom modes is that the information mode allows more fluid interactions to occur for learning purposes than the instruction mode, which requires structured coordination between teachers to provide students with the instruction they need to complete class requirements. If this distinction is accepted as a foundational principle, the three-mode model is widely adaptable for different team teachers.

Taken as a whole, the three-mode model is likely to prove a useful tool for many kinds of team teacher training situations. As an ideal model of good practice, it could be integrated into orientation sessions for new team teachers. For example, simulated demonstrations of poorly implemented team teaching might be explained to trainees in terms of contraventions of the principles made explicit through the model. It may also be employed as a reference guide for practising team teachers seeking to sustain effective partnerships

by pre-empting potential misunderstandings and conflicts. Since team teachers may be called upon to collaborate with a range of different partners at different times, and engage in a highly varied range of social interactions arising from such collaborations, a conceptual model of good practice is likely to provide a useful and consistent framework for applying those interactions most effectively.

## **8.5. Conclusion**

In essence, the three-mode model serves as a focal point for drawing together the various strands of the major findings from the present research series and actualising those strands into good team teaching practice. This process might be summed up as follows.

Teaching partners with complementary personalities have some advantage, but other aspects are of more critical importance to effective team teaching, and the three-mode model provides an idealised conception of how these aspects can be realised. Teaching partners should develop a relationship of mutual trust and respect that extends throughout the different manifestations of their collaboration. The management mode of the three-mode model provides a forum for this development, encouraging participants to maintain open communications with each other. The management mode also allows teaching partners to negotiate power distributions and reach agreement on their shared roles and responsibilities, as well as engaging in advance joint planning for their lessons. Since the respondents recognise a need for team teachers to be given more preparation time than single instructors, the management mode represents the actualisation of this time as a component of the model. The management mode allows partners to coordinate the instruction they must give their students in the classroom. The ‘reflect and repair’

character of the mode helps teachers maintain a supportive partner relationship which, as respondents indicate, contributes to the effectiveness of their collaboration.

In the classroom, teaching partners should engage in one of two distinct modes of behaviour, as realised by the distinction between ‘instruction’ and ‘information’ that emerged in data from the current series. In information mode, teachers allow multiple perspectives and different opinions to emerge in the classroom, supported by the mutual trust and respect they have developed in management mode. The information mode also encourages students to participate as co-contributors to the collaborative process, and accommodates the students’ increased willingness to ask questions in a team-taught environment. These interactions help to enhance student understanding, which student respondents identify as an important aspect of team teaching. The flexibility of the team teachers is critical to the information mode, allowing them to adapt to other participants’ behaviour and unexpected challenges, and make best use of the learning opportunities that arise. When switching to instruction mode, teachers become united in providing students with non-conflicting instructions for what they are expected to do (as negotiated in the management mode) to ensure clarity of direction. In this respect, the teachers are working to meet their student needs. Since student respondents tend to criticise team teachers for implementing team teaching incorrectly, rather than criticising team teaching in and of itself, applying a model of good team teaching practice derived from the data can also be interpreted as an act of meeting student needs.

Some major findings from the present research series are not directly represented in the guidelines of the three-mode model, since they are not as concerned with the relationship between the team teaching partners as with the benefits that collaboration offers. Although

it must be acknowledged that some questions were raised about possible negative effects of team teaching for CITT practitioners in long-term partnerships (see section 5.5.9), these data were limited. In contrast, the benefits of team teaching are prominently endorsed by respondents of the present series. The complementarity of collaboration is perceived to result in improved teaching for students, while also offering opportunities for professional development to participating teachers. In addition, team teaching is perceived by respondents to enhance student understanding and improve the caretaking of student needs. The comparative lack of data from the present research series that identify any drawbacks of team teaching is also consistent with the consensus that team teaching is beneficial for teachers and students alike. Since this consensus of opinion is also reflected strongly in the team teaching literature (see section 3.6), it provides evidential support for the contention that CITT should not to be discarded lightly by college authorities when weighed against financial considerations, even in the current global financial downturn (see section 2.5). Such findings are encouraging for stakeholders at MIC who believe that Collaborative Interdisciplinary Team Teaching is not just one of the more unusual features of the MIC curriculum, but also one of its most valuable.

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## **APPENDICES**

### **Appendix A: Moderator's questions for focus group study**

The following “questioning route” (Krueger & Casey, 2000, p. 47) was used by the moderator to guide the focus group discussions:

1. What does the term 'team teaching' mean to you?
2. What are the requirements of team teaching that are different from the requirements of traditional teaching?
3. What are the strengths and benefits of team teaching for participating teachers?
4. What are the strengths and benefits of team teaching for participating students?
5. What makes a team teaching partnership work effectively?
6. What are the weaknesses and limitations of team teaching for participating teachers?
7. What are the weaknesses and limitations of team teaching for participating students?
8. What prevents a team teaching partnership from working effectively?
9. Of the things we have discussed so far, what would you say is the single most important point about effective team teaching?

## **Appendix B: Information and consent form for focus group study**

The following information and consent form was used with all participants in the focus group discussions (see Chapter 4).

### **Macquarie University, Sydney: Doctor of Applied Linguistics Programme**

#### **Information and consent form**

Name of Project: Group interview for team teaching survey.

You are invited to participate in a study of team teaching at Miyazaki International College (MIC). The purpose of this study is to elicit the opinions and beliefs of practising team teachers about team teaching at MIC, in order to guide the researcher in developing questionnaire items for an online team teaching survey to be administered later in the year.

This study is being conducted by Andrew Gladman, Fellow of Comparative Culture at Miyazaki International College (extn. 729; email: [agladman@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp](mailto:agladman@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp)). The research is being conducted to meet the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Applied Linguistics at Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia, under the supervision of Professor Anne Burns (Division of Linguistics and Psychology, tel: 61 2 9850 9294, email: [Anne.Burns@ling.mq.edu.au](mailto:Anne.Burns@ling.mq.edu.au)). In addition, the findings may be included in articles submitted for publication in the TESOL professional literature.

If you decide to participate, you will be asked to contribute to a moderated discussion about team teaching at MIC, discussing such topics as how you define team teaching; what are your opinions and beliefs regarding its essential elements, strengths, weaknesses, benefits and limitations; and what contributes to the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of the team teaching approach. Your fellow participants will all be content/language teachers like yourself, so you will not be asked to make comments in front of faculty members with whom you may personally be required to team teach now or in the future (with the possible exception of the researcher himself).

The discussion will not exceed 90 minutes in duration, and you will be provided with food and drink at the conclusion of the discussion. The discussion will be audiotaped throughout, and the content of the tapes will be used by the researcher to assist in remembering the points that were raised, and to guide the development of appropriate questionnaire items for the online team teaching survey.

Any information or personal details gathered in the course of this study are confidential. No individual will be identified in any publication of the results. The contents of the tapes will be kept secure and used for research purposes only. Only the researcher and his doctoral adviser will have access to the tapes used to record the discussion.

If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without having to give a reason and without consequence.

On completion, the researcher will be happy to provide you with summaries of the findings of the research, or copies of any articles submitted for publication that arise from this project. Please request this information by email at [agladman@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp](mailto:agladman@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp).

I, (*participant's name*) have read and understand the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this research, knowing that I can withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without consequence. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

Participant's Name:

(block letters)

Participant's Signature: Date:

Investigator's Name:

(block letters)

Investigator's Signature: Date:

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Ethics Review Committee (Human Research). If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Ethics Review Committee through its Secretary (telephone 61 2 9850 7854; email [ethics@mq.edu.au](mailto:ethics@mq.edu.au)). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

**(INVESTIGATOR'S [OR PARTICIPANT'S] COPY)**

## Appendix C: Common responses from focus group study participants

The following appendix presents an extended listing of major common responses from the focus group study (see Chapter 4). For an abbreviated version of this table, with category types and descriptions, see Table 4.1.

*(Individual respondents are identified by code number within each designation: CT for content teacher or LT for language teacher).*

Category of response	Example quote/s
A. Respect for partner	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “In the case where it [my team teaching relationship] didn’t work, I think I didn’t get the respect, and that’s why everything I had planned became undermined or ignored” (LT2)</li> <li>• [In answer to the final question] “I would say it’s the respect. I mean, from the respect you get the flexibility and the tolerance” (LT2)</li> <li>• “When problems come up [in team teaching], one good way of handling it is to remember what it is you do respect about the other partner’s teaching or knowledge, or that kind of thing” (LT4)</li> <li>• “Mutual respect, I think, is an important thing. You and the other person have different abilities, different interests, different approaches, different experiences, all that kind of stuff, but you can respect each other and bring it together in the same classroom” (CT1)</li> <li>• “I think mutual respect is very important” (CT3)</li> </ul>
B. Openness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “When these small conflicts do come up, the willingness to - the feeling that you can talk about it with your, with your partner” (LT1)</li> <li>• [In answer to the final question] “Openness” (CT4)</li> <li>• “What are the requirements of team teaching?” (Moderator) “I was thinking as far as, you know, psychological requirements or sociological requirements, more tolerance on the part of both partners. More, more sensitivity, umm....” (LT1) “Openness” (LT3) “Um-hmm” (LT1)</li> </ul>



	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• [In answer to the final question] “Openness, because...” (LT4) “Between the teachers?” (Moderator) “Yeah, and also especially when things are kind of rocky.” (LT4)</li> </ul>
C. Flexibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “I think coming planned is good but being flexible is as important” (CT4) “Yeah, being flexible in the classroom is good, too - having plan B or C or D or whatever is good” (CT1)</li> <li>• [In answer to the final question] “Flexibility” (CT4)</li> <li>• “What are the requirements of team teaching?” (Moderator) ... “Willingness to learn new ways of doing things” (LT1) “And could be more flexible” (LT2) “Flexibility, yeah, yeah” (LT1)</li> <li>• “What prevents a team teaching partnership from working effectively?” (Moderator) “It’s a lack of flexibility ...” (LT1)</li> </ul>
D. Equal power sharing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “The thing is, I think, not to assume ownership of the class” (CT3)</li> <li>• “There’s a lot of cases where one person is the main teacher or the senior teacher and then the other teacher or teachers are basically assistants. I think that’s found in many situations elsewhere, though supposedly not here. And then, of course, this, the case that is supposed to be here at MIC, where we have equal partners” (LT1)</li> <li>• “Earlier on, there was a sense that the content faculty owned the class and the language faculty assisted the, you know, there was a sentiment, and that was really very, very damaging and - it was the wrong view and the wrong attitude, and it led to bad feelings very quickly ... there was really a nasty situation here. I remember one or two cases, and that was bad. That wasn’t team teaching, that was something else. That was a problem” (CT3)</li> </ul>
E. Role agreement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “If you have a partnership that’s worked out where you’ve just agreed, okay, I’m going to take an assistant role, regardless of what I’m supposed to do because you’ve taught this forever and it’s useless - letting me take an equal role. I mean that can be okay” (LT4)</li> <li>• “It may be that, if ‘Vanna White’ likes to be ‘Vanna White’, then that works. There was one teacher here who actually liked to be ‘Vanna White’ because there was no preparation involved. You just have to stand there and look vaguely glamorous -[inaudible] - so, in terms of complementarity, it worked because both understood what their roles were in the class and there wasn’t any conflict in those roles. I</li> </ul>

	<p>don't think it's a very good model of how team teaching should work, but - it worked" (CT1)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• "It just depends on who I'm working with, what team teaching means. For one class, I feel like it's more of a team where we decide on what will be taught in the classroom and then we decide who is stronger in that aspect and then that person will take the lead and the other person will provide the support. And in another class, it was more of a senior teacher situation and the other partner would just be there to kind of fill in the gaps whenever something comes up. So I guess it depends on who you ask, or which partner I work with – it becomes a different type of team teaching situation" (LT2)</li> </ul>
F. Advance joint planning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• "Giving a plan of what I'm going to teach or what I'm going to talk about and trying to discuss: What about you? Would you do this part? Or, do we include the quiz here or do we - an exercise? And what would you do here? And so, things like this, so in a way we plan the choreography before, and - plan the show" (CT2)</li> <li>• "I have a partner who's not very good about planning ahead of time, and sometimes we do the planning on the spot ... The students have – don't know what to do because the teachers also don't know what to do because we haven't planned anything out for the day ... what's necessary is preparation" (LT2)</li> <li>• "Which is what I think, what [CT4]'s talking about, planning outside of the classroom so that the – the other person knows where you're going to and why you're going there and roughly how long it's going to take you to get there, so that they can plan that, or you can plan it" (CT1)</li> <li>• "When it fails to – you know, just kind of impromptu, have a lesson, then, you know, then I start, you know, throwing blame to my partner because I thought .. if we had planned, if we had met, the lesson would have gone fine, but because we didn't, then it's all your fault!" (LT2)</li> </ul>
G. Coordinated student instruction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• "For students, maybe confusion sometimes. If it happens that you have a, as we talked about, you may ..." (CT2)        "Get two versions of the same ... [instructions]" (CT1)        "Yeah" (CT2)        "Two non-complementary versions ... <i>[inaudible]</i> ... he said, she said" (CT1)</li> <li>• "Discussing certain issues, having two different opinions is fine, but when it comes to an assignment, there should be one vision for the assignment, which I've had a problem with. It was an assignment I created, it was an assignment I planned out, it was an assignment I delivered to all the students but my partner had a completely different idea of the assignment. So when the students consulted him, you know, with any kind of questions that they had, he gave them a complete - different answer from what I wanted." (LT2)</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “You don’t want to stop them [your team teaching partner], you know, midstream and then, and say, no, that’s wrong. On the other hand, you don’t want the students to be misled on something that needs to be, you know, made clear to them” (CT3)</li> </ul>
H. Awareness of multiple perspectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “The strength [of team teaching] is that the students will begin to very quickly realize that the teacher is not always right, because there’s another expert opinion” (LT3)</li> <li>• “Sometimes I used to have kind of polite argument with my teaching partner but at that time, they [the students] can listen, what is happening, and they have a kind of real English conversation going on” (CT2)</li> <li>• “[Teachers] representing a couple of different points of view to the students ... it can be a big bonus for the students. They can see that there are different points of view out there ... I think it’s good modelling for these students, Japanese students, a different sort of debate style that’s possible... how disagreement doesn’t always have to mean, you know, destruction of harmony” (LT4)</li> <li>• If a good spirit is maintained, then I think it [disagreement between team teaching partners] contributes to this business of different, differing expert opinions and potentially helping critical thinking” (LT4)</li> </ul>
I. Professional development opportunities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “You can also learn about different teaching techniques that maybe you hadn’t been exposed to” (CT4)</li> <li>• “What are the strengths and benefits of team teaching?” (Moderator) “You could learn from another teacher” (LT2) “Mmm” (LT1)</li> <li>• “One of the benefits [of team teaching] being that you can learn from other teachers and things... you might learn additional things” (CT4)</li> <li>• “The other [strength/benefit of team teaching] is learning from the other person” (CT3)</li> </ul>
J. Preparation time	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “[Team teaching is] time-consuming. Takes time to meet up, talk, talk through the things when you could just simply write it up, write up your, your curriculum, your course, on your own, on your time. So yeah, it takes time to meet up with someone...” (LT3)</li> <li>• “What are the requirements of team teaching?” (Moderator) “Preparation. Definitely more than if you work on your own because you’re working with someone else, then you must be able to coordinate with the other person” (LT2)</li> <li>• “I think it actually takes sometimes more time because you have to coordinate ideas and things. It can be a lot of work” (CT4)</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “I kind of look negative [at team teaching] because of the time... time consuming for the preparation” (CT2)</li> </ul>
K. Student needs take priority	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “The students are the consumers and you’re there to deliver a product and whatever it takes to make that work, that’s good team teaching” (CT3)</li> <li>• “I want my students to learn, even if it’s a horrible [teaching] relationship, or partnership, but students learn something, I’m very happy with that because that’s what matters” (LT3)</li> </ul>

## Appendix D: Invitation to participate in teacher questionnaire study

The following invitation email was sent to potential respondents of the teacher questionnaire study (see Chapter 5) to invite them to participate:

Dear MIC faculty,

I am writing to invite you to participate in a questionnaire-based survey relating to team teaching at MIC. As you may know, I am currently studying for a Doctorate in Applied Linguistics (DAppLing) by distance education with Macquarie University in Sydney, and this questionnaire is part of a series of linked research projects that will form the basis of my doctoral dissertation.

The aim of this questionnaire is to explore the beliefs and opinions of MIC team teachers about what constitutes important features of an effective relationship between two team teaching partners at this institution. All current faculty members who have team taught at MIC after 2004 are eligible to participate (even if you haven't done it very much or for very long). Currently, I am planning to present my findings at the JALT2007 conference in Tokyo in November, as well as writing up the study in my dissertation at a later date.

This questionnaire is voluntary, and you have the right to end your participation at any time with no further consequences. If you decide to proceed, please click on the following link, which will take you directly to the survey:

[https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=a9UmF2y9N0sT0EIUGGxmHg\\_3d\\_3d](https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=a9UmF2y9N0sT0EIUGGxmHg_3d_3d)

Completing the questionnaire should take no more than 20-25 minutes of your time. Data gathered may be used in publication, but you will not be required to identify yourself individually, since the questionnaire is completely anonymous. All returns will be securely stored and accessible only to me, the researcher, via a password-protected system. It would be appreciated if you could submit your responses by **Friday October 5, 2007** to give me sufficient time to analyse all responses.

I will not be able to thank you personally for your contribution to this study because of its anonymous design, so please accept my grateful thanks for taking time out from your busy schedule to assist me with my research.

Should you have any questions, or wish to give or receive feedback about this study, please feel free to contact me at [agladman@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp](mailto:agladman@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp). My supervisor at Macquarie University is Professor Anne Burns, who can be contacted at [Anne.Burns@ling.mq.edu.au](mailto:Anne.Burns@ling.mq.edu.au).

This study has been approved by TRAC, and the ethical aspects have been approved by the Macquarie University Ethics Review Committee (Human Subjects). If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Macquarie University Committee through its Secretary (telephone 61 2 9850 7854; email [ethics@mq.edu.au](mailto:ethics@mq.edu.au)). Any complaint you make will be treated in

confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome. Return of the questionnaire will be regarded as consent to use the information for research purposes.

Regards,  
Andrew Gladman.

## Appendix E: Questionnaire text for teacher questionnaire study

The following appendix presents the text of the final version of the questionnaire used in the teacher questionnaire study (see Chapter 5).

### Page #1: What makes an effective team teaching partnership at MIC?

#### Introduction

This questionnaire asks you to respond to questions about various aspects of team teaching at MIC, and provide some information about your background. Current MIC faculty members who are now team teaching at MIC, or who have team taught at MIC at any time after 2004, are eligible to participate. It should take about 20-25 minutes to complete. All responses are anonymous.

Participation in this study is voluntary. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw from further participation in the research without having to give a reason and without consequence.

Please note that you are free to move back and forth across the pages of this questionnaire as you provide your responses, and the information you have already recorded will not be lost as you do so.

Would you like to proceed?<sup>13</sup> (*Yes/No*)

### Page #2: Biographical data

What is your nationality? (*comment box*)

Are you male or female? (*Male/Female*)

What is your age range? (*20-29/30-39/40-49/50-59/60 or above*)

Do you consider English to be your first language? (*Yes/No*)

Please provide a brief explanation if necessary (*comment box*)

What is your PRIMARY designation at MIC, content teacher or language teacher?

(*Content teacher/Language teacher*)

Do you sometime fulfil the roles of both content teacher and language teacher?

Please provide a brief description if necessary (*comment box*)

How many years of total teaching experience do you have? Please provide a brief description if necessary (*comment box*)

How many years of team teaching experience at MIC do you have? Please provide a brief description if necessary (*comment box*)

How many years of team teaching experience outside MIC do you have? Please provide a brief description if necessary (*comment box*)

### Page #3: Section A

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<sup>13</sup> Compulsory field

What makes an effective team teaching partnership? Please rate the importance of the following aspects of team teaching at MIC. (*Not important/Slightly important/Moderately important/Very important/Essential*)

A team teacher...

- has received training in how to team teach
- has had some prior experience of team teaching
- can adapt to unexpected challenges
- can adapt to his/her partner's different ways of teaching

Team teaching partners...

- have complementary personalities (i.e., personalities that work together well)

Please write any comments you have on the questions in section A. (*comment box*)

#### **Page #4: Section B**

What makes an effective team teaching partnership? Please rate the importance of the following aspects of team teaching at MIC. (*Not important/Slightly important/Moderately important/Very important/Essential*)

A team teacher ...

- is willing to learn new ways of teaching
- is willing to communicate openly with his/her partner about their shared course

Team teaching partners ...

- have complementary teaching philosophies
- have complementary teaching goals
- have complementary beliefs about how people learn second/other languages
- believe they can trust each other

Please write any comments you have on the questions in section B. (*comment box*)

#### **Page #5: Section C**

What makes an effective team teaching partnership? Please rate the importance of the following aspects of team teaching at MIC. (*Not important/Slightly important/Moderately important/Very important/Essential*)

Inside their shared classroom, team teachers ...

- support what their partners say in front of their students
- correct their partners if necessary, to ensure their students receive accurate information
- show students by example that teachers can have different opinions
- give students non-conflicting information
- give students non-conflicting instructions



In terms of general behaviour within the MIC community, a team teacher demonstrates respectfulness for his/her partner's ...

position as a professional academic  
expertise  
contributions to their shared course

Please write any comments you have on the questions in section C. (*comment box*)

#### **Page #6: Section D**

What makes an effective team teaching partnership? Please rate the importance of the following aspects of team teaching at MIC. (*Not important/Slightly important/Moderately important/Very important/Essential*)

Team teaching partners ...

have voluntarily selected each other as teaching partners  
have complementary teaching styles (i.e., ways of organising their teaching)  
routinely communicate with each other about their shared course  
routinely meet outside class for joint lesson planning  
mutually agree to their roles within their partnership  
share authority equally within their partnership  
mutually agree how authority should be shared within their partnership  
give the teacher with seniority more authority than his/her partner

Please write any comments you have on the questions in section D. (*comment box*)

#### **Page #7: Section E**

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement? (*Strongly disagree/Disagree/Neutral/Agree/Strongly agree*)

"The only important measure of the effectiveness of a team teaching partnership is whether or not it meets student needs"

Please provide a reason for your response to the above statement (*comment box*)

You have now completed all questions. Please use this space if you would like to comment on anything you think is relevant to team teaching at MIC that has not been covered in this questionnaire. (*comment box*)

#### **Page #8: End of questionnaire**

Thank you for your time.

## **Appendix F: Open-ended responses from teacher questionnaire study**

The following appendix presents all open-ended responses from respondents of the teacher questionnaire study (see Chapter 5).

### **Section A.**

1. Prior team-teaching experience is nice, but everyone needs to build experience somewhere. Being flexible and willing to try new things is more important than having done it somewhere else in a situation that may, or may not, be relevant to THIS situation. Complementary personalities are a huge plus. If there is a personality conflict, the lessons can be severely handicapped. With careful planning and compromise so-so matches can be effective. However, if the personalities are really compatible, the synergy makes the partnership more than the sum of its parts. As with anything, there are probably teams that have found a way to make less-than-ideal partnerships work, but this is my impression based on my experiences so far.
2. Depending on the particular partner involved, the answers would vary. Maybe wildly.
3. I think the characteristics you identified in the first part of the section are all very important to essential for at least 1 of the partners, but not necessary for both to have. Which makes to your idea of complementary personalities more important.
4. These results I have learned from trying experiences! Personalities that work together (of course, there is always some sort of accommodation) are more important in producing a good partnership than prior experience, education, etc.
5. Complementarity proves to be key in any long term partnership. A semester seems survivable without it, but not much longer.
6. The phrase "dancing the dance" has been widely used to describe teamteaching at MIC. Certainly those who have given it thought attach major importance to personality. I have a different model based on holistic pedagogy and professional respect ...regardless. My view is not shared by the powers that be.
7. Apart from styles and methods of teaching, philosophies of teaching are important too: such as student-centred or teacher-centred approaches. The other is the rules of engagement such as turn taking and whether to interfere or augment each other's domains. Finally, inter-cultural skills may be pertinent for two teachers coming from different backgrounds.
8. I think training in team-teaching is somewhat important, and wonder why it has been stopped at MIC.
9. The importance of personality varies according to the level of professionalism of the individuals involved. It would be more accurate to say that personalities that clash in serious ways make team teaching difficult.

## **Section B.**

1. For the teaching philosophies, goals, and beliefs about learning, I rated these things as being very important, but not essential. The reason is that, while we may not always agree with each other, if we are willing to try new things and compromise, partnerships can still work well. In fact, I would go so far as to say that sometimes differing viewpoints can help me to think of things in new ways. If my partner always thinks the same way I do, there will be less variation, and less challenge.
2. 'believe they can trust each other' as far as what?!?
3. In items 3-5, I'm presuming 'complementary' means something like 'making up for weak points of the other'. If the intended meaning was more like 'compatible', my answers would be towards 'very important'.
4. Teachers can have the same or different teaching philosophies and/or methods. It's not really important to a successful partnership, as long as they respect each other's beliefs, communicate and share power.
5. Characters and personalities create or break team teaching partnerships, I think. Philosophies about teaching, language learning, etc, can differ, but fundamentally both partners have to get along with each other in order to create an atmosphere in which students can learn.
6. In a sheltered content /immersion based programme such as MIC the notion that one partner is in charge of content, the other of TESOL is an intrinsic dichotomy. We have to get round it as best we can. Politics and group dynamics play important roles in partnerships.

## **Section C.**

1. Instructions & Facts It is very, very important not to confuse students. If one teacher says that a paper should be 2 pages, and the other says it should be 4 pages, you're heading for trouble. Partners need to check such things with each other carefully to avoid confusion. Likewise, factual information should be accurate and consistent. The priority is, after all, student learning. Conflicting information causes a breakdown in student confidence in the lesson and the faculty. If one teacher makes a mistake, that mistake should be corrected in a respectful, constructive manner. Everyone makes mistakes from time to time. Most of the time errors occur, they are the equivalent of typos on the whiteboard. Calling my partner's attention to them, generally clears things up right away. Demonstrating that teachers can have different opinions is important too, but only when it is appropriate for us to have differing opinions. Subjective topics, belief in this or that theory, ideas about which of two options is preferred, etc. One thing I try to avoid is undermining my partner's authority in class. Extreme anecdote: Once, many years ago, a teacher at MIC went to observe another teacher's class. At the end of the class, she thanked the class for letting her visit, then proceeded to tell the students all the things she thought the teacher had done wrong. Needless to say, that was not well received.

2. The questions seem a bit leading. I need specific examples of explicit behaviors to answer any of these questions.
3. Correcting a partner, if necessary, should occur in private, not in front of students, and then only if the error being corrected is in the other partner's professional domain. Pedagogical disagreements should not be approached as errors but as issues to be negotiated, again in private.
4. The partners work together as a team in order to impart information, but I think that there should be freedom within a classroom to allow for differing opinions, thoughts, etc., be it from the teachers or the students. The key point is the manner how these differences are presented and the reason for presenting a differing opinion. Differing means something different than conflicting. If there is a conflict of opinion between partners, that should not be dealt with in front of the students. This can be taken care of during planning and preparation time.
5. Unfortunately, "conflicting information" is not always discernable as distinct from "conflicting instructions," but attempting to discern these and give each other leeway in ideas and methods while staying roughly on the same page in terms of what students should do next is important.
6. Regrettably, my teaching partners have not necessarily demonstrated respect. It may not be intentional. It may be because of the hierarchical structure of the college, according to which those with superior qualifications are more involved in decision making, need to maintain their places, etc. In orientation for new faculty a former professor said (seriously) that the best way to create an equitable partnership was to go drinking. MIC is male-biased and there is a significant "locker-room culture" in which the lads support one another. It isn't related to good teaching practices, rather to being able to get home early etc. In fact I have been seriously bullied for focusing on good teaching practices. It has been seen as seriously threatening.
7. Teachers should see that information and instructions are correct by planning and negotiation with their partner outside of class or in a manner that does not embarrass the partner. This can include showing students that there are varying viewpoints on a subject. However, the students should not be put in a position of managing conflicts between teachers. (In other words, showing that there are various opinions is different from presenting conflicting information.

#### **Section D.**

1. Communication about a course does not need to be face-to-face. It depends on the individuals involved and their personal preferences. Authority should be equal initially, but if the partners agree to shift in some way that's fine. The point is to prevent one partner from being stifled by the other. Being overbearing, domineering, or egotistical puts unnecessary stress on the relationship. Don't do it. Who has more seniority is really irrelevant. Clearly, the person with more experience in that course will have a lot to say, and that should be respected, but the new person may also have good ideas and different ways of doing things. There is something to be said for a fresh approach.

2. Again, case by case depending on who the partner is and what you are teaching.
3. A partnership should be based on the aim of teaching the students; all else is of lesser importance. I think that when the focus is the material and not egos, all will go well.
4. note: joint lesson planning can be informal and creative and in some of my partnerships happens in conjunction with other kinds of socializing and meetings (lunch, tea, research collaboration)
5. questions such as sharing authority are power issues touching the deep psyche. It is unrealistic to expect MIC teachers to explicitly discuss them. My first thought on the subject was triggered by a colleague saying "We have no hierarchy at MIC". I reacted and said Oh yes we do! We were in a car after a beer and [name withheld] was there!
6. I believe respecting each other's area of expertise is at least as important as any of these. Teaching partnerships can succeed as long as both partners respect the position of the other partner, even if the partners are not perfectly compatible. In other words, I do not think that roles should be negotiated ("agreed" to) except within specified boundaries.

## **Section E.**

1. The goal of teaching is to meet student needs. However, simply meeting that goal is not sufficient if the teachers are at each other's throats all the time. In order for team-teaching to be the powerful educational tool that it CAN be, the system must acknowledge that teachers are not simply tools to be placed in this or that classroom based on administrative convenience. If the experience is unsatisfying for the people staffing the courses, then the cost (emotional and eventually financial due to faculty turnover) of maintaining the system rapidly becomes too high.
2. Student needs are the reason we teach classes. Teaching classes is the reason MEI pays us.
3. Learning outcomes are very important, but there are other qualitative dimensions of both the learning and the teaching experience that ideally also should be attended to in the partnership. For example, students can learn in an uncomfortable environment, but it is certainly not best for that to happen. If such dimensions are included in what is meant by meeting student needs, then my answer would change to "strongly agree".
4. Student needs can be met without an effective team teaching partnership.
5. Teachers often disagree on this very point--what students' most important needs are and how best to meet them.
6. The end product to the students cannot accurately reflect the effectiveness of a partnership. An effective class could have been the result of only one of the two partner's efforts. One partner could have taken over the class and forced the other to play assistant. One partner could have taken over the class because the other wanted to be play supervisor or consultant. One partner could have just done a great job with damage control while the other just runs around like a lunatic and/or idiot. In all of these scenarios, the students did

okay, but one of the partners suffered. Perhaps a different match up would have made everyone happy or one or both partners needs to learn how to be a better partner.

**7.** It is the main criterion but not the only one. It's also important that both of the teachers are comfortable with their roles in the class. Of course, there are other stakeholders too (e.g., other faculty, the administration, parents of students) and it's possible to imagine situations in which they are disadvantaged by partnerships that are beneficial for the teaching partners and their students. For example, having two teachers teaching a class of 10 students is not very cost-effective for the college and those who pay the students' tuition fees.

**8.** Teachers' experience and their partnership are also important for good education.

**9.** Team teaching - like any other teaching - ought to serve the needs of the students. If students learn from the partnership I would consider it a successful one. Of course, it helps if partners get along and have common interests etc, but the crucial measure of effectiveness is how students respond and learn.

**10.** Not the "only" measure, certainly not of "effectiveness". Not just student "needs" but also some tangible results in terms of learning for students PLUS a willingness (or even enthusiasm) to teach together again.

**11.** The job of a teacher is to give students what they need in order to get their diploma, certificate, whatever. Of course, there is learning for learning, which some students want and appreciate. In any case, teachers must impart what they know, and this they must do with the students' needs and capabilities in mind.

**12.** Picking 'neutral' is the only reasonable option in the case of an "all or nothing" question like this.

**13.** Presuming that "student needs" is an uncontested, measurable matter is highly suspect, in my opinion. The college mission, the hidden curriculum, the teacher's goals, cultural values, both explicit and implicit, and individual student short term and long term beliefs and development are only some of the contributors to what "student needs" might be considered to be. Moreover, how one might best meet such needs is contested and contestable. Nevertheless, I still believe a consideration of student needs should be part of a working partnership as well as any assessment of whether a partnership is working.

**14.** Team teaching should benefit the students. Yet, teachers do best when they enjoy what they are doing and when they feel intellectually stimulated. If students learn but the teachers are miserable in the process, this is not successful, in my opinion.

**15.** Sorry, but isn't it a bit tautological? There can be other measures of how good the partnership is, but I think most people teaching today would say that effectiveness and meeting student needs are the same thing.

**16.** It's crystal clear, the purpose of team or any other teaching is to help the students to learn the best possible way. A propitious learning environment is sine qua non. In order to achieve it, there needs to be a good rapport between teaching partners. Many of us work at this or at least of showing it to our students.

17. students' needs are not the only measure, other goals need to be met: institutional; course; teachers; stakeholders, etc.

18. Obviously teaching partnerships must meet student needs. However, they must also meet faculty needs. That is, they are unlikely to be sustainable if faculty members do not perceive them as effective. In particular, faculty who find that they are unable to function effectively within partnerships may find them frustrating. The acceptability of a team-teaching system requires that team-taught courses be perceived as effective in achieving the educational objectives of faculty. One can easily imagine a setting in which students like team-taught courses and feel they learn a lot in them, but faculty find them constraining and a source of contention. Although the team teaching system works very well at MIC, not all faculty and not all teams have done so. Probably both the unusual need for language assistance in the content classroom and the ability of faculty to participate in the selection of partners have contributed significantly to the success of team teaching at MIC.

19. I am not sure that I agree or disagree with this statement. Although meeting students needs is the point of our jobs, we do have to work together, and if the partnership is miserable, even if the students' needs are being met, I would not consider that an effective partnership, merely a passable one.

#### **[Final question]**

1. Best of luck with this! Sorry to be so slow in responding.

2. With biographical data provided, the questionnaire is hardly 'completely anonymous', but here you go.

3. if one answers the demographic questions on the first page, then anonymity cannot be preserved given the small number of potential respondents. it's surprising that your advisors haven't pointed out the inherent problem with this.

4. One question asked about not confronting another teacher in the classroom. It may be important to parse out what is meant by that. In my opinion, it IS important to support your team teaching partner in front of the students (i.e., not demeaning them or arguing with them), however it is OK to correct them if they give misinformation that might be confusing to students, so long as it is done in a kind way. Those are very different things.

5. There is a strong tendency to judge MIC by Western standards. The reality is that regardless of what is said, and even of what students have said (which I researched for a publication) most MIC students are skillful at adapting to the environment, getting from it what they want and fulfilling requirements. We teachers should learn from our students. More research is needed! Unfortunately there is actually more to MIC than successful teaching. If only it were that simple. Most researchers don't WANT to be teaching (Lee Shulman has written about this), but 65 percent at least consider themselves researchers, more are would be ones. There is much dissatisfaction, jealousy, viciousness, the content faculty explicitly hating team-teaching, seen as demeaning. It is recognized far and wide as a poisonous environment. The president was in some ways a visionary when he created

the MIC programme, but the divide between content teachers and language teachers is a human failure. The price is too high.

**6.** Team teaching is considered a luxury especially in general and public education. As such, while the dynamics of what makes good team teaching is significant, the purpose needs to be explored. Why team teach? When the values of team teaching are considered, than the motivational aspect to teach in a team may influence the dynamics

**7.** The guarantees of anonymity you promise in the description of your study are vitiated in this small community by the specificity of the demographic information you require.



## **Appendix G: Information and consent form for student questionnaire study**

The following information and consent form was used with all participants in the student questionnaire study (see Chapter 6).

### **Information and Consent Form**

Name of Project: A questionnaire-based survey of teacher and student perceptions and beliefs concerning the collaborative interdisciplinary team teaching approach at Miyazaki International College, Japan.

You are invited to participate in a research study at Miyazaki International College (MIC). The purpose of this study is to investigate the opinions and beliefs of MIC students about teaching and team teaching.

This study is being conducted by Andrew Gladman, English language teacher at Miyazaki International College (extn. 729; email: [agladman@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp](mailto:agladman@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp)). The research is being conducted to meet the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Applied Linguistics at Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia, under the supervision of Professor Anne Burns (Division of Linguistics and Psychology, tel: 61 2 9850 9294, email: [Anne.Burns@ling.mq.edu.au](mailto:Anne.Burns@ling.mq.edu.au)). In addition, the findings may be included in articles submitted for publication in the TESOL professional literature.

If you decide to participate, you will be asked to write your answers to questions about your opinions of teaching and team teaching at various times over the course of the semester, for no more than 15 minutes at a time. You will not be asked any questions about particular events or people at MIC, only your opinions in general. All questions in this study will be given to you in English and Japanese to make them easy for you to understand. You may choose to answer in Japanese if you cannot respond in English. Please answer honestly. Your responses have no effect on your grade for this class and they will not be analysed until after the semester is over and your grade has already been assigned.

Any information gathered in the course of this study is strictly confidential. You will be asked to provide your student number when you write your opinions for this study but this number will be used only for research coding purposes to collate the different forms that you, as an individual participant, have chosen to complete for this study over the course of the semester, and to analyse how your responses may have changed over time. Your student number will not be used to identify your name or any other aspect of your personal information. No individual will be identified in any publication of the results. All of the responses you submit for this study will be kept secure and used for research purposes only. Only the researcher and his doctoral adviser will have access to the collected responses.

The researcher may choose to publish direct quotes from the written responses you provide in this study if you give your consent for this to be done. Please say whether or not you consent for direct quotes from your responses to be published, by indicating 'yes' or 'no' in the space provided on the next page. If you indicate 'no', direct quotes from your responses will not be used in publication. If you indicate 'yes', direct quotes from your responses may be used in publication, but you will not be identified personally.

If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without having to give a reason and without consequence.

On completion, the researcher will be happy to provide you with summaries of the findings of the research, or copies of any articles submitted for publication that arise from this project. Please request this information by email at [agladman@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp](mailto:agladman@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp) or by visiting Andrew Gladman in person.

I, (*participant's name*) have read and understand the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this research, knowing that I can withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without consequence. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

私、\_\_\_\_、は上記の情報を読み、理解し、質問事項についても了解しました。私は、この研究に参加することに同意し、また、参加のいかなる段階でも途中退場できること認識しています。私は、この同意書のコピーを一枚保持しています。

Participant's Name/参加者氏名: \_\_\_\_\_

(block letters/ブロック体)

Do you give your consent for direct quotes from your survey responses to be used in publication? (*Please tick one*)

あなたは、この調査書におけるあなたの発言が、出版目的に使用されることに同意しますか？

Yes/はい \_\_\_\_\_ No/いいえ \_\_\_\_\_

Participant's Signature/参加者サイン（筆記体）: \_\_\_\_\_

Date/日付: \_\_\_\_\_

Investigator's Name/調査員氏名:

(block letters/ブロック体)

Investigator's Signature 調査員サイン（筆記体）:

Date/日付:

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Ethics Review Committee (Human Research). If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Ethics Review Committee through its Secretary (telephone 61 2 9850 7854; email [ethics@mq.edu.au](mailto:ethics@mq.edu.au)). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome. For local enquiries about the ethical aspects of research, you may contact the Testing and Research Assessment Committee (TRAC) at Miyazaki International College (extn 735; email [tgladman@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp](mailto:tgladman@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp)).

本研究の倫理的側面は、マクオリー大学の倫理評議会（人間研究）にて承認されています。もしもあなたが、この調査の参加に関して何か不満や不審があるようでしたら、同大学の倫理審議会に秘書を通じて連絡をしてください（電話 61 2 9850 7854; Eメール [ethics@mq.edu.au](mailto:ethics@mq.edu.au)）。いかなる苦情も秘密厳守で取り扱われ、調査され、結果報告がなされます。また、宮崎国際大学においては、テスト・研究調査評議委員会（内線 735 ; Eメール [tgladman@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp](mailto:tgladman@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp)）に連絡してください。

(INVESTIGATOR'S COPY/調査者用のコピー)

## 研究情報・同意書

研究題目：日本国の宮崎国際大学における、共同・学際的なチーム・ティーチングに関する、教員と学生のそれぞれの認識と信条に関する質問事項

あなたは、宮崎国際大学における研究作業への参加に招待されています。この研究の目的は、M I Cの学生の授業とチーム・ティーチングに関する認識と信条を調査することです。

この研究の主事は、宮崎国際大学英語教員アンドリュー・グラッドマン（内線：729；Eメール：[agladman@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp](mailto:agladman@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp)）です。この研究は、オーストラリア、シドニーにあるマクオリー大学における言語学の博士号修得の為のものです。研究の指導教授は、アン・バーンズ教授（言語学及び心理学部局・ディヴィジョン, 電話: 61 2 9850 9294, Eメール: [Anne.Burns@ling.mq.edu.au](mailto:Anne.Burns@ling.mq.edu.au))です。

もしも、調査に参加してくださるのでしたら、本大学における授業とチーム・ティーチングに関するあなたのご意見を、このセメスターの間に何度かの機会に分けて、アンケート形式で回答していただくことをお願いすることになります。毎回のアンケートは、15分ぐらい以内のものです。特定の出来事や個人に関する質問がなされることはありません。あくまでも一般的な質問事項です。すべての質問事項は、あなたの理解を手助けするために英語と日本語の両方で提示されます。もしも、英語での回答が難しいと感じる場合は、日本語で回答してください。そして、どうか正直に回答してください。あなたの回答がこの授業における成績に影響することは決してありません。解答用紙は、このセメスターが終了し、あなたのすべての成績が最終評価される後まで、研究用の分析に使用されることはありません。

この研究に関して集められた情報は、秘密厳守扱いです。アンケートでは、あなたの学籍番号の記入を求められますが、それは、あくまでもあなたが記入したアンケート用紙を集計する際に順番にアンケート用紙を整理して、その後、あなたの個人としての意見が、このセメスターの間にもどのように変化したかを分析するためのものです。ですから、あなたの学籍番号から、あなたの氏名や個人情報調べたりすることは決してありません。将来、この研究を基にした出版物において個人が特定されるようなことは決してありません。回答されたアンケートは、厳密に保管され、研究の目的のみに使用されます。本研究（アンドリュー・グラッドマン）とその指導教授（アン・バーンズ）のみが、回答された情報を閲覧することになります。

本研究者は、あなたが直接引用に「はい」と回答して下さった場合には、将来における研究出版物において、あなたの回答を直接引用するかもしれません。ですから、次のページで、あなたの回答が、将来の研究に直接引用されてもいいかどうか、「はい」あるいは「いいえ」の質問に答えてください。もしもあなたの回答が「いいえ」だった場合は、あなたの回答を研究出版で直接引用することはありません。もしもあなたの回答が「はい」だった場合は、あなたの回答を研究出版で直接引用することがあるかもしれませんが、氏名や個人情報は厳守されます。

また、もしもあなたがアンケートの回答を途中で中止する決定をした場合には、いかなるときも、理由の説明義務もなく、またいかなる結果・影響もなく、そのまま途中退場することができます。

本計画の完成後には、本研究者は、その結果（例えば調査の結果の要約や学術論文など）を参加者に対して喜んで提供したいと思います。Eメール（[agladman@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp](mailto:agladman@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp)）によるリクエスト、または、私、アンドリュー・グラッドマン本人に直接連絡してください。

I, (*participant's name*) have read and understand the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this research, knowing that I can withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without consequence. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

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Participant's Name/参加者氏名: \_\_\_\_\_

(block letters/ブロック体)

Do you give your consent for direct quotes from your survey responses to be used in publication? (*Please tick one*)

あなたは、この調査書におけるあなたの発言が、出版目的に使用されることに同意しますか？

Yes/はい \_\_\_\_\_ No/いいえ \_\_\_\_\_

Participant's Signature/参加者サイン（筆記体）: \_\_\_\_\_

Date/日付: \_\_\_\_\_

Investigator's Name/調査員氏名:

(block letters/ブロック体)

Investigator's Signature 調査員サイン（筆記体）:

Date/日付:

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Ethics Review Committee (Human Research). If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Ethics Review Committee through its Secretary (telephone 61 2 9850 7854; email [ethics@mq.edu.au](mailto:ethics@mq.edu.au)). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome. For local enquiries about the ethical aspects of research, you may contact the Testing and Research Assessment Committee (TRAC) at Miyazaki International College (extn 735; email [tgladman@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp](mailto:tgladman@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp)).

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(PARTICIPANT'S COPY/参加者 用のコピー )

## Appendix H: Questionnaires for student questionnaire study

The following appendix presents the text of the final versions of all questionnaires distributed to respondents for the student questionnaire study (see Chapter 6).

**Student CITT Survey**  
**‘Team teaching questions – beginning of term’**  
**Andrew Gladman, Miyazaki International College**  
**学生対象の授業及びチーム・ティーチングに関する認識調査**  
**「教員の教え方に関するチェックリスト - セメスター開始時期」**  
**宮崎国際大学 アンドリュー・グラッドマン**

Your student number/学籍番号: \_\_\_\_\_ Date/日付: \_\_\_\_\_

*As a new student at MIC, you know that most of your classes will be team-taught, with an English teacher and a content teacher teaching together in one classroom. Although this is a new way of teaching for you now, I would like you to think ahead and imagine what team teaching might be like.*

宮崎国際大学の新入生として、あなたは、ほぼすべての授業では、教室内に二人の先生がいることは既にご存知だと思います。一人は、英語の先生で、もう一人は、専門教科の先生です。そして、二人がチームとして授業を担当します。これは、あなたにとっては、新しい教授法だと思いますが、まずは、あなたに、これから先のこと予測しながら、チーム・ティーチングとはどのようなものと思うかを考えていただきたいと思います。

*Please write your answers to the following questions. You may write your answers in English or Japanese. If you need more paper, ask your teacher. Remember, all your responses are voluntary and confidential, and you can write as much or as little as you like. Thank you for your co-operation.*

下記の質問事項にお答えください。記入は、英語でも日本語でもいいです。もっと用紙が必要な場合は、担当教員に申し出てください。質問への回答は、行うも行わないも自由です。回答の分量も自由です。ご協力ありがとうございます。

**1. What does the term ‘team teaching’ mean to you?/**

あなたにとってチーム・ティーチングとは、何を意味しますか？

**2. What do you see as the strengths and benefits of team teaching?/**

あなたは、チーム・ティーチングにどのような強みや利点を見出しますか？

**3. What makes team teaching work effectively, in your view?/**

**あなたにとって、何がチーム・ティーチングをより効率的なものとするのでしょうか？**

**4. What are the weaknesses and limitations of team teaching, in your view?/**

**あなたにとって、何がチーム・ティーチングの弱点・制限ですか？**

**5. What could prevent team teaching from working effectively?/**

**何が、チーム・ティーチングをより効果的なものとするのを制限するのでしょうか？**

**6. What do you think is the single most important point about effective team teaching?/**

**あなたにとって、効率的なチーム・ティーチングの最も重要な点は何ですか？**

**Student CITT Survey**  
**‘Team teaching questions – end of term’**  
**Andrew Gladman, Miyazaki International College**  
**学生対象の授業及びティーム・ティーチングに関する認識調査**  
**「教員の教え方に関するチェックリスト - セメスター終了時期」**  
**宮崎国際大学 アンドリュー・グラッドマン**

**Your student number/学籍番号:** \_\_\_\_\_ **Date/日付:** \_\_\_\_\_

*Now that you have experienced one term as a student of this college, I would again like to hear your opinions about team teaching at MIC.*

あなたは宮崎国際大学の一年生として最初の学期

を終えました。その結果、あなたが今どのようにティーム・ティーチングを見ているかに関して質問をしたいと思います。

*Please write your answers to the following questions. You may write your answers in English or Japanese. If you need more paper, ask your teacher. Remember, all your responses are voluntary and confidential, and you can write as much or as little as you like. Thank you for your co-operation.*

下記の質問事項にお答えください。記入は、英語でも日本語でもいいです。もっと用紙が必要な場合は、担当教員に申し出てください。質問への回答は、行うも行わないも自由です。回答の分量も自由です。ご協力ありがとうございます。

**1. What does the term ‘team teaching’ mean to you?/**

あなたにとってティーム・ティーチングとは、何を意味しますか？

**2. What do you see as the strengths and benefits of team teaching?/**

あなたは、ティーム・ティーチングにどのような強みや利点を見出しますか？

**3. What makes team teaching work effectively, in your view?/**

あなたにとって、何がチーム・ティーチングをより効率的なものとするでしょうか？

**4. What are the weaknesses and limitations of team teaching, in your view?/**

あなたにとって、何がチーム・ティーチングの弱点・制限ですか？

**5. What could prevent team teaching from working effectively?/**

何が、チーム・ティーチングをより効果的なものとするのを制限するのでしょうか？

**6. What do you think is the single most important point about effective team teaching?/**

あなたにとって、効率的なチーム・ティーチングの最も重要な点は何ですか？



Student CITT Survey  
‘Team teaching questions - periodic’  
Andrew Gladman, Miyazaki International College  
学生対象の授業及びティーム・ティーチングに関する認識調査  
「教員の教え方に関するチェックリスト - セメスター最中」  
宮崎国際大学 アンドリュー・グラッドマン

Your student number/学籍番号: \_\_\_\_\_ Date/日付: \_\_\_\_\_

*Please write your answers to the following questions about team teaching at MIC. You may write your answers in English or Japanese. If you need more paper, ask your teacher. Remember, all your responses are voluntary and confidential, and you can write as much or as little as you like. I will ask you these same questions at different times during the term. Thank you for your co-operation.*

宮崎国際大学におけるティーム・ティーチングに関する下記の質問事項にお答えください。記入は、英語でも日本語でもいいです。もっと用紙が必要な場合は、担当教員に申し出てください。質問への回答は、行うも行わないも自由です。回答の分量も自由です。私は、今学期中に何度か、このアンケートを行いたいと思います。ご協力ありがとうございます。

**1. What are your views about team teaching? Please give some reasons for your opinions /**

あなたのティーム・ティーチングに対するご意見・印象をお願いいたします。例も紹介してください。

**2. Is an effective teacher the same as an effective team teacher? /**

ある一人のいい先生は、同時に効果的なティーム・ティーチングを行う先生でもあるのでしょうか？

Yes/はい      No/いいえ      (*Please circle one answer/どちらに丸をしてください*)

If you answer yes, give some reasons why they are the same

/もしも答えが「はい」ならば、個人での授業あるいはティーム・ティーチングのパートナーとしての両方の役割の効果が同じであると思う理由をお答えください。

If you answer no, indicate what you see as the differences /

もしも答えが「いいえ」ならば、なぜ個人での授業あるいはティーム・ティーチングのパートナーとしての役割の効果が違うと思う理由をお答えください。

**3. Has your opinion of team teaching changed since you last answered these survey questions? If so, please explain /**

前回のアンケートに回答して以来、あなたのティーム・ティーチングに対する意見・印象は変化したでしょうか？もしそうでしたら、具体的に説明をしてください。

*Thank you!*

## Appendix I: Core group responses from student questionnaire study

The following appendix presents all responses from the core group respondents of the student questionnaire study (see Chapter 6).

### Pre- and Post-term questionnaires:

#### 1. What does the term ‘team teaching’ mean to you?

	Beginning of term	End of term
Student A	It enables me to learn not only a specialized subject but also correct English. (At the same time as students learn a specialized subject, they learn English as well. They can therefore learn English while getting impressions better than when learning English only.)	Team teaching is quite effective in helping me to learn English. During the spring semester, team teaching enabled me to understand both the lectures and English fully.
Student B	<i>I think ‘Team teaching’ is very good system.</i>	It is an opportunity to get a wide range of knowledge in large quantities.
Student C	[No response]	When we want to ask a question, and when we find two teachers, one of them can come to us right away.
Student D	[No response]	<i>It’s helps improve student’s study skill</i>
Student E	<i>Good suport</i>	<i>Good way of taking class</i>
Student F	It's an environment good to study and understand things.	[No response]
Student G	[No response]	A form of teaching.

Plain font – Translated from the Japanese; *Italicised font* – *Original response in English*

## 2. What do you see as the strengths and benefits of team teaching?

	Beginning of term	End of term
Student A	As I stated above, by learning a specialized subject and English at the same time, students can learn more practical and accurate grammar and pronunciation. They can even learn technical terms easily with the help of an English teacher.	I think that the strength of team teaching is that it gives lessons that underachievers can understand more easily and that students can both learn the specialized subject and English.
Student B	<i>School life can more enjoy</i>	Students can hear various views and absorb a lot.
Student C	We feel less hesitant to ask questions.	When we want to ask a question, and when we find two teachers, one of them can come to us right away. [The respondent marked 'ditto' to his/her response to question 1.]
Student D	Teaching by more than one teacher enables them to take care of even the details and to meet the students' requirements appropriately, resulting in the students becoming more motivated to learn and perform better academically.	I think that team teaching is very effective in helping the students improve their academic performance because it allows the teachers to take care of each student better than when they give their lesson all alone.
Student E	<i>Good support, for example: Someone don't understand something. teacher suport she or he. And We cand taking 2 way teaching</i>	<i>I can take two opinions, views and so on, so I can take high quality class.</i>
Student F	I think that, if a teacher gives a lesson all alone, they may sometimes be unable to take care of the whole class. I think that team teaching is advantageous in that the presence of two teachers allows them to take care of all the students.	I think that the presence of two teachers allows them to take better care of everybody than when a single teacher teaches and that this is more advantageous in teaching.
Student G	Since there are two teachers at the same time, that is, one teacher of a specialized subject and a teacher of English, the lesson may become too technical or, conversely, may become low-level.	Teaching by two persons enables them to manage things that they fail to do when doing it all alone. And they can give lessons with better reassurance.

Plain font – Translated from the Japanese; *Italicised font* – Original response in English

### 3. What makes team teaching work effectively, in your view?

	Beginning of term	End of term
Student A	It can work effectively when an English teacher gives instructions during their lesson (or lecture), when they relate the details of the specialized subject instead of teaching them separately, and when students work to use more accurate English on their own.	I think that team teaching can work more effectively when the students themselves ask their team teachers questions actively when they do not understand something.
Student B	<i>We can learn a lot of things by two teachers</i>	The mutual cooperativeness of the teachers.
Student C	Getting used to it.	The chemistry between the teachers.
Student D	It will work better if each teacher observes each student carefully, understands them better, and gives a support that matches each student.	It works when the teachers can pay better attention to each student.
Student E	<i>2 teacher's team work</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>feeling of class (good)</i></li> <li>• <i>good team work of teachers</i></li> <li>• <i>good relationship with teachers and students</i></li> </ul>
Student F	It works when the students participate actively in the class and ask questions.	[No response]
Student G	[No response]	Good communications between the teachers.

Plain font – Translated from the Japanese; *Italicised font* – Original response in English

**4. What are the weaknesses and limitations of team teaching, in your view?**

	<b>Beginning of term</b>	<b>End of term</b>
Student A	They teach English and a specialized subject at the same time, which slows down the progress of the lecture in the specialized subject.	Lectures in a specialized subject in team teaching need time for grammar, words, and other language details, so that one can say that the lectures in the specialized subject slows down. However, this promotes the English proficiency of the students. I therefore think that there is nothing that one can do about the slowdown of the lectures.
Student B	[No response]	I do not know yet. I hope that I will find them later on.
Student C	[No response]	If the teachers quarrel, their class will turn out to be a fiasco.
Student D	[No response]	<i>I have no idea</i>
Student E	<i>I think it happened. Students fawn. teachers too.</i>	<i>There are two opinions.</i>
Student F	[No response]	It is that sometimes only one of the teachers does the teaching.
Student G	[No response]	There are cases where the teachers fail to display their advantages.

Plain font – Translated from the Japanese; *Italicised font* – *Original response in English*

### 5. What could prevent team teaching from working effectively?

	Beginning of term	End of term
Student A	Students vary in the degree of knowledge of English that they have. Differences arise between those with a knowledge of English and those without, so that those with it find the progress of the lecture too slow.	I think that team teaching is not effective when done in a way unrelated to the specialized subject taught. However, I have never felt it in any lecture or lesson.
Student B	[No response]	I do not know yet. I hope that I will find them later on.
Student C	[No response]	It could fail if both teachers give the wrong answers.
Student D	The students' negative attitude.	Unmotivated students?
Student E	<i>fawn and lazy</i>	<i>reverse of No. 3</i>
Student F	[No response]	[No response]
Student G	[No response]	Failure for the teachers to communicate well with each other.

Plain font – Translated from the Japanese; *Italicised font* – *Original response in English*

**6. What do you think is the single most important point about effective team teaching?**

	<b>Beginning of term</b>	<b>End of term</b>
Student A	The point is to see clearly whether the students have got a real understanding. If they do not understand something, the teachers should pursue it deeply. If the students do understand, the lecture should go on and on. The students will then express themselves and engage actively in the lesson (or lecture).	<p>I think that, after all, the most important point is the mutual motivation and enthusiasm of teachers and students.</p> <p>I think that to make team teaching an enjoyable time is another thing that promotes the English proficiency of the students.</p> <p>* The listening practice using "Moodle" was quite effective for me. Now I know that teaching can be made more effective by using PCs and other tools instead of teaching in class alone.</p>
Student B	[No response]	It is that students can learn from the two teachers.
Student C	[No response]	Personal chemistry.
Student D	I think that the point is that teaching by more than one teacher increases their rate of direct guidance (or instruction) per student, thereby encouraging the students to understand their lessons better and to participate more actively.	I think that teaching by two teachers enables them to take better care of each student, so that team teaching is very effective in helping the students improve their academic performance.
Student E	<i>good team work; togher comunication; active leaning teacher ↕ comunication student</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><i>To have good communication between teacher and teacher, teachers and students.</i></li> <li><i>To do class by good points each other</i></li> </ul>
Student F	[No response]	It is how efficiently the two teachers give their lesson.
Student G	[No response]	Good communications.

Plain font – Translated from the Japanese; *Italicised font* – Original response in English



**Periodic questionnaires:**

**1. What are your views about team teaching? Please give some reasons for your opinions.**

	After 1 month	After 2 months	After 3 months
Student A	I have a good impression of team teaching. For example, listening and dictation during a lecture in a specialized subject enables students to improve their English proficiency while learning the specialized subject. Moreover, the students can ask the teachers questions about English grammar, the meanings of the words, and other details without hesitation during the lecture.	I think that team teaching is an effective method of teaching. When attending a lecture or lesson given in English, students are supposed to understand technical terms and other unknown details in English. Team teaching provides a teacher ready to give detailed information to the students in plain language. The students can then grasp the contents smoothly. I also think that the students can learn grammar, vocabulary, and other details consciously.	Through the first semester, I felt that, after all, team teaching is very effective for me and I am lucky to have received the team teaching. I think that, with team teaching, I was able to understand what was taught in class, and in a wide range.
Student B	<i>Team teaching is very good</i>	[No survey form returned]	[No survey form returned]
Student C	When we want to ask a question, a team of two teachers lets one of them available. So we feel less hesitant to ask.	[No survey form returned]	[No survey form returned]
Student D	I think that team teaching is very effective in helping students to improve their academic performance. For example, while one of the teachers is answering a question raised by a student, the other can teach the other students, so that they	<i>I think it's interesting. For example, one teacher teach us, another teacher gives us the example.</i>	Just like before, I think that team teaching is very effective in helping the students improve their academic performance.

	can use the time efficiently.		
Student E	I think it's very effective. When I don't know what an expression given by one teacher means, the expression given by the other teacher sometimes lets me get an understanding.	I think that a good team of teachers increases efficiency.	I think it's a good system because the team teachers can each make up for what the other is lacking in.
Student F	<i>Team teaching is very good.</i>	[No survey form returned]	I think that the presence of two teachers is better because it allows them to take better care of all the students than when a single teacher teaches. I think that the way has been paved for an environment where we can ask questions without hesitation.
Student G	I think that teaching by two teachers enables them to complement each other and that, since the number of students that each teacher must take care of declines, the teachers will become able to take better care of each student.	Teaching by two teachers enables them to complement each other, while they sometimes interfere with each other because of their personalities.	I think it has both advantages and disadvantages. It's only that it is presumably hard to correct the disadvantages.

Plain font – Translated from the Japanese; *Italicised font* – *Original response in English*

**2. Is an effective teacher the same as an effective team teacher? If you answer yes, give some reasons why they are the same. If you answer no, indicate what you see as the differences.**

	After 1 month	After 2 months	After 3 months
Student A	Yes. I think that teachers able to give an effective lecture or lesson on their own know how to proceed well with a lecture or lesson, so that they can give support for realizing a good lecture or lesson in team teaching as well. Single teaching and team teaching are the same in that they are to teach students in plain language. I think that a good teacher is a teacher able to give effective team teaching as well.	Yes. I think that a good teacher knows how to improve the students' English proficiency and how much they have understood the things taught in their single teaching. I therefore think that, in team teaching, they will become able to be of help to the students in class.	Yes. Team teachers teach in ways that the students can learn more easily. I therefore think that they are able to give lectures or lessons that the students find easy to understand. I think that a good teacher is someone who thinks of the way the students feel and proceed with their lectures or lessons in an easy-to-understand manner and smoothly. I therefore think that team teachers are good teachers.
Student B	Yes.	[No survey form returned]	[No survey form returned]
Student C	[No response]	[No survey form returned]	[No survey form returned]
Student D	No. Because I think that, if a teacher goes on with the lesson while the other is answering a question raised by a student, that student will be unable to hear the lesson that proceeds in the meantime, resulting in a negative effect.	Yes. Team teaching allows the teachers to take care of each student. I therefore think that this system achieves the advantages of a small class at the same time.	Yes. Because I think that, for example, while one teacher is giving a lesson, the other can give instructions to students unable to get an understanding, thereby increasing the understanding of each one without taking too much time.
Student E	Yes. I think that the presence of two teachers widens the range of the approach, so that their roles will change necessarily.	Yes. I don't think that a teacher unable to teach well all alone can do good team work when working with another.	Yes. I think that they are different, but I don't think that a person unable to give an effective lesson all alone can do so when teaching with another teacher.
Student F	Yes.	[No survey form returned]	No. Recently I have come to feel that

			only one of the teachers speaks instead of the two teachers speaking.
Student G	No. Stimulation from a second teacher does not necessarily give a good effect. I think that it might make the first teacher feel pressured or find it bothersome, becoming unable to display their real ability.	No. However good a teacher may be, they will not necessarily do well when working together. A person good at doing things all alone may not be good at doing things with another.	No. A person good at teaching all alone is not necessarily able to display their full potential in two-person teaching. And vice versa.

Plain font – Translated from the Japanese; *Italicised font – Original response in English*

**3. Has your opinion of team teaching changed since you last answered these survey questions?\* If so, please explain.**

	After 1 month	After 2 months	After 3 months
Student A	[No response]	[No response]	[No response]
Student B	I think that team teaching is good because teaching can be made more concrete and gives a deeper understanding when done by two teachers than by one.	[No survey form returned]	[No survey form returned]
Student C	[No response]	[No survey form returned]	[No survey form returned]
Student D	My opinion remains unchanged since the last time. I think that team teaching is a very effective system of teaching. When attending a class given by team teaching, it helps me a lot. I hope that this style will be continued to increase the students' awareness.	No change in particular. Like the last time, I think that team teaching is very effective in helping the students improve their academic performance.	Unchanged. I still think that team teaching is very effective.
Student E	The point is with whom to make a team. I think that the teamwork (that is, the division of work and dialog for better teaching) in a specific team will affect the quality of the team teaching. I therefore think that team teaching by teachers failing in good teamwork will fail in achieving synergic effect. I think that teaching by a single teacher may be better.	Not a big change.	The chemistry and combination between the two teachers may make it even more effective, while, conversely, it can make it less effective.
Student F	The class contains only a few students. So I think that teaching by a single teacher will allow us to learn	[No survey form returned]	[No response]

	easily. But I think that the presence of two teachers enables them to take care of the whole class, so that we can learn effectively.		
Student G	Not changed greatly.	Unchanged.	Unchanged.

Plain font – Translated from the Japanese; *Italicised font – Original response in English*

\* When respondents were first given this particular question, they had already been asked to respond to the ‘Beginning of Term’ survey questions.

## Appendix J: Supplemental group responses from student questionnaire study

The following appendix presents all responses from the supplemental group respondents of the student questionnaire study (see Chapter 6).

### Pre- and Post-term questionnaires:

#### 1. What does the term ‘team teaching’ mean to you?

	Beginning of term	End of term
Student H	[No survey form returned]	I think that team teaching is a form of teaching where two or more specialist teachers give their lesson while exchanging views with their students.
Student I	I think that it is necessary for giving a lesson with even more substance.	[No survey form returned]
Student J	Two teachers teach me, so I feel reassured.	[No survey form returned]
Student K	<i>On the studying by all English, we absolutely need much help, ‘Team teaching’ is meaning “more smoothly do a class.”</i>	[No survey form returned]
Student L	<i>Good relationship</i>	[No survey form returned]
Student N	Something that helps deepen the students' understanding.	[No survey form returned]
Student R	<i>I feel relieved so much.</i>	[No survey form returned]
Student S	(We can learn English and a specialized subject efficiently.) <i>We are able to learn English and special field with great efficiency.</i>	[No survey form returned]

Plain font – Translated from the Japanese; *Italicised font* – Original response in English

## 2. What do you see as the strengths and benefits of team teaching?

	Beginning of term	End of term
Student H	[No survey form returned]	I think that team teaching allows teachers to exchange views with their students while giving their lesson. The students can therefore express their opinions. They can also hear the views of other students and their teachers, and this enables the students to notice the errors in their opinions. I therefore think that this form of teaching is very good.
Student I	With this system, students who have failed to understand some words and other details when listening to the first teacher can now get the help of the second teacher, thereby getting an understanding successfully.	[No survey form returned]
Student J	- I feel less hesitant to ask questions. - Teachers can be more observant of the whole class. When a student feels at a loss, therefore, one of the teachers will talk to them to offer advice. This is a great help.	[No survey form returned]
Student K	When a student does not understand what their teacher said in English, not only what is said in the contents of the specialized subject, they can ask their teacher.	[No survey form returned]
Student L	<i>Teachers can remember all students (name, their skills...)</i>	[No survey form returned]
Student N	A secure understanding, lessons easier to understand.	[No survey form returned]
Student R	<i>I think, my English skill will be brushed up.</i>	[No survey form returned]
Student S	Same as above. [i.e., (We can learn English and a specialized subject efficiently.) <i>We are able to learn English and special field with great efficiency.</i> ]	[No survey form returned]

Plain font – Translated from the Japanese; *Italicised font* – Original response in English



### 3. What makes team teaching work effectively, in your view?

	Beginning of term	End of term
Student H	[No survey form returned]	I think that team teaching can work when students assert many of their views and exchange their opinions actively with their students and other students.
Student I	Students' own motivation to learn.	[No survey form returned]
Student J	[No response]	[No survey form returned]
Student K	It works when each teacher interacts with their students while playing their respective roles.	[No survey form returned]
Student L	<i>Small class</i>	[No survey form returned]
Student N	[No response]	[No survey form returned]
Student R	<i>Good relationship between teachers.</i>	[No survey form returned]
Student S	It depends on how actively the student participates in the class.	[No survey form returned]

Plain font – Translated from the Japanese; *Italicised font* – Original response in English

**4. What are the weaknesses and limitations of team teaching, in your view?**

	<b>Beginning of term</b>	<b>End of term</b>
Student H	[No survey form returned]	Nothing in particular.
Student I	Nothing for now.	[No survey form returned]
Student J	[No response]	[No survey form returned]
Student K	[No response]	[No survey form returned]
Student L	[No response]	[No survey form returned]
Student N	[No response]	[No survey form returned]
Student R	<i>I think, a weak point by team teaching is nothing.</i>	[No survey form returned]
Student S	It seems difficult to learn the specialized subject deeply. <i>I think it difficult to learn particular special knowledge.</i>	[No survey form returned]

Plain font – Translated from the Japanese; *Italicised font* – Original response in English

**5. What could prevent team teaching from working effectively?**

	<b>Beginning of term</b>	<b>End of term</b>
Student H	[No survey form returned]	Nothing in particular.
Student I	Each student's lack of motivation to learn.	[No survey form returned]
Student J	[No response]	[No survey form returned]
Student K	[No response]	[No survey form returned]
Student L	[No response]	[No survey form returned]
Student N	[No response]	[No survey form returned]
Student R	<i>No confidence between teachers.</i>	[No survey form returned]
Student S	A poor attitude in teaching. <i>attitude of class</i>	[No survey form returned]

Plain font – Translated from the Japanese; *Italicised font* – *Original response in English*

**6. What do you think is the single most important point about effective team teaching?**

	<b>Beginning of term</b>	<b>End of term</b>
Student H	[No survey form returned]	I think that the point is to assert your own views effectively.
Student I	Improvement of each student's motivation to learn.	[No survey form returned]
Student J	[No response]	[No survey form returned]
Student K	Each teacher has only to take care of a few students, resulting in the class becoming high-quality. Moreover, the relations between students and teachers come to feel closer, thereby reassuring the students.	[No survey form returned]
Student L	<i>teaching are carefully</i>	[No survey form returned]
Student N	It is that each student can learn things securely.	[No survey form returned]
Student R	<i>Good relationships and confidence between teachers and between teachers and students.</i>	[No survey form returned]
Student S	It is that both students and teachers strive. When students fail to understand something, they ask a question right away and get an understanding. They will not leave unclear things unattended. The teachers, too, should create an environment where the students feel little hesitant to ask questions. I think that it is important for both of the parties to strive in such areas.	[No survey form returned]

Plain font – Translated from the Japanese; *Italicised font* – Original response in English

**Periodic questionnaires:**

**1. What are your views about team teaching? Please give some reasons for your opinions.**

	After 1 month	After 2 months	After 3 months
Student I	[No survey form returned]	Some sessions of team teaching are good, and others bad. If the two teachers are considerate of each other and take care to make their lessons good, their team teaching will become better. However, some teachers assert their personal selfish ways in proceeding with their lessons, resulting in ineffective teaching.	[No survey form returned]
Student L	<i>That is good. They are intimate for me.</i>	[No survey form returned]	I think that it provides an environment that makes the lessons easy to understand and makes the students feel it easy to ask questions. (A team of teachers may not be in good terms, which bothers me. They give me a little trouble.)
Student M	We can ask one of the team teachers a lot of questions about the things that we don't understand.	[No survey form returned]	I think that, with team teaching, we can hear various things and it makes it quite easy to understand the contents. I think that we can feel less hesitant to ask questions.
Student N	[No survey form returned]	[No survey form returned]	When the team teachers are on good terms, we can enjoy their lessons very much.

Student O	I think that a team of two or more teachers is better because they can help us increase our vocabulary better.	I think that team teaching can give very good lessons because, for example, when one of the teachers cannot come up with a good example, the other can give advice.	I think that team teaching is good because explanations given by one teacher can be added to by the other.
Student P	[No survey form returned]	I think that team teaching allows students to feel less hesitant to ask questions and to ask about the things they don't understand. I therefore think that it provides an environment where the students can learn more efficiently than when a teacher teaches all alone.	[No survey form returned]
Student Q	[No survey form returned]	[No survey form returned]	I think that it is good because the students can feel less hesitant to ask questions about the things they fail to understand some explanations given by one of the teachers, because they know there is another teacher.
Student S	I think that it is greatly in that it allows us to learn both English and a specialized subject at the same time. However, I think that the students need to make efforts on their own too. For example, they should make preparations for the lessons they receive and should recapitulate the things they have learned in the lessons.	[No survey form returned]	[No survey form returned]

Plain font – Translated from the Japanese; *Italicised font – Original response in English*

**2. Is an effective teacher the same as an effective team teacher? If you answer yes, give some reasons why they are the same. If you answer no, indicate what you see as the differences.**

	After 1 month	After 2 months	After 3 months
Student I	[No survey form returned]	No. Lessons by one teacher and lessons by two teachers are naturally given differently. A good teacher may be able to give a good lesson involving two teachers. But I think that there are cases where they can be more <u>efficient</u> when doing it alone.	[No survey form returned]
Student L	Yes. <i>class is small</i>	[No survey form returned]	<del>Yes</del> No. A teacher sometimes speaks alone. They do not let their fellow teacher speak. They seem to be controlling the place all alone.
Student M	Yes. Because I think that a good teacher can give advice to their team teaching partner, thereby making their class even better.	[No survey form returned]	Yes. I think that the team teachers can talk to each other and, if one of them is a good teacher, their team teaching partner will become a good teacher as well.
Student N	[No survey form returned]	[No survey form returned]	Yes. I think that, if one of the teachers is a good person, the other one is a good person too.
Student O	Yes. Because I think that a good teacher can show their partner how to teach.	Yes. If one teacher can give good lessons, they can give advice and guidance to the others, thereby allowing the lessons to proceed efficiently. That's why.	Yes. Because I think that a teacher able to teach their students well can teach other teachers and vice versa.
Student P	[No survey form returned]	[No response]	[No survey form returned]
Student Q	[No survey form returned]	[No survey form returned]	Yes.

Student S	No. Because I think that, if a good teacher is negative, and when they get into team teaching, they may be unable to display their strengths.	[No survey form returned]	[No survey form returned]
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Plain font – Translated from the Japanese; *Italicised font – Original response in English*



**3. Has your opinion of team teaching changed since you last answered these survey questions?\* If so, please explain.**

	After 1 month	After 2 months	After 3 months
Student I	[No survey form returned]	Team teachers who are unskillful at first can become good later on. And vice versa. Mutual communication can make such a change.	[No survey form returned]
Student L	Unchanged. I think it is very good.	[No survey form returned]	[No response]
Student M	[No response]	[No survey form returned]	[No response]
Student N	[No survey form returned]	[No survey form returned]	Nothing in particular.
Student O	I have come to think that it might be a good idea to provide team teaching throughout the whole curriculums of elementary, junior high, and senior high schools as well.	My opinion has changed for what I think is better. I hope that the teachers will continue to give their lessons by team teaching.	My opinion is unchanged. I think that team teaching is good.
Student P	[No survey form returned]	[No response]	[No survey form returned]
Student Q	[No survey form returned]	[No survey form returned]	[No response]
Student S	Since I came to think that team teaching cannot be done if the teachers alone strive. I have therefore come to do the preparations and recapitulation as much as possible. In lessons given in Japanese, we can learn something almost unconsciously even when we don't make conscious efforts. In attending lessons given in English, that won't work that easily. I find it hard because the students have to hear and understand things with care. But team teaching, I think, can be awfully efficient teaching	[No survey form returned]	[No survey form returned]

	depending on the efforts made by each student. So I think I will do the preparations and recapitulation as much as possible while asking questions. Sorry to have written this in Japanese.		
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Plain font – Translated from the Japanese; *Italicised font* – *Original response in English*

\* When respondents were first given this particular question, they had already been asked to respond to the ‘Beginning of term’ survey questions.

### Appendix K: Common response types in student questionnaire study

The following appendix presents an extended list of common response types from the student questionnaire study (see Chapter 6), with descriptions and example quotes, as presented in abbreviated form in section 6.5.1.

Team teaching for students		
Category	Description	Example respondent quotes*
Understanding	The students' understanding of classroom instruction is improved by team teaching	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Team teaching enabled me to understand both the lectures and English fully. (Student A)</li> <li>• [Teaching] gives a deeper understanding when done by two teachers than by one. (Student B)</li> <li>• While one teacher is giving a lesson, the other can give instructions to students unable to get an understanding, thereby increasing the understanding of each one... (Student D)</li> <li>• [Team teaching is] something that helps deepen the students' understanding. (Student N)</li> </ul>
Questions	Team teaching increases students' willingness to ask questions in class	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• [A strength or benefit of team teaching is that] we feel less hesitant to ask questions. (Student C)</li> <li>• [With two teachers] I think that the way has been paved for an environment where we can ask questions without hesitation. (Student F)</li> <li>• I feel less hesitant to ask questions. (Student J)</li> <li>• I think that team teaching allows students to feel less hesitant to ask questions... (Student P)</li> </ul>
Participation	The students' participation contributes to the effective (or ineffective) implementation of team teaching	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I think that team teaching can work more effectively when the students themselves ask their team teachers questions actively when they do not understand something (Student A)</li> </ul>

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The students' negative attitude [could prevent team teaching from working effectively]. (Student D)</li> <li>• [Team teaching] works when the students participate actively in the class and ask questions. (Student F)</li> <li>• [What makes team teaching work effectively] depends on how actively the student participates in the class. (Student S)</li> </ul>
<b>Team teaching for teachers</b>		
<b>Category</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Example respondent quotes*</b>
Caretaking	Team teaching enables teachers to take better care of their students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I think that teaching by two teachers enables them to take better care of each student ... (Student D)</li> <li>• I think that team teaching is advantageous in that the presence of two teachers allows them to take care of all the students.(Student F)</li> <li>• ...since the number of students that each teacher must take care of declines, the teachers will become able to take better care of each student. (Student G)</li> <li>• Each teacher has only to take care of a few students, resulting in the class becoming high-quality. (Student K)</li> </ul>
Partner relationship	The kind of relationship between the two team teaching partners contributes to the effectiveness (or ineffectiveness) of their team teaching.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The mutual cooperativeness of the teachers [makes team teaching work effectively] (Student B)</li> <li>• If the teachers quarrel, their class will turn out to be a fiasco (Student C)</li> <li>• When the team teachers are on good terms, we can enjoy their lessons very much (Student E)</li> </ul> <p>[A] <i>good relationship between teachers</i> [makes team teaching work effectively] (Student R)</p>
Complementary improvement	The complementarity of two teachers working together will result in improved teaching (e.g., one teacher can make up	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I think [team teaching is] a good system because the team teachers can each make up for what the other is lacking in. (Student E)</li> <li>• Teaching by two persons enables them to manage things that they fail to do when doing it all alone. (Student G)</li> </ul>

	for a deficiency in the other teacher; one teacher can improve from the influence of the other teacher).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I think that the team teachers can talk to each other and, if one of them is a good teacher, their team teaching partner will become a good teacher as well (Student M)</li> <li>• I think that team teaching can give very good lessons because, for example, when one of the teachers cannot come up with a good example, the other can give advice. (Student O)</li> </ul>
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\* Plain font – Translated from Japanese; *Italicised font* – *Original response in English*