ROUTLEDGE RESEARCH IN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

Team Teaching and Team Learning in the Language Classroom

Collaboration for innovation in ELT

Edited by
Akira Tajino, Tim Stewart and
David Dalsky

Team Teaching and Team Learning in the Language Classroom

This book reignites discussion on the importance of collaboration and innovation in language education. The pivotal difference highlighted in this volume is the concept of team learning through collaborative relationships such as team teaching. It explores ways in which team learning happens in ELT environments and what emerges from these explorations is a more robust concept of team learning in language education. Coupled with this deeper understanding, the value of participant research is emphasised by defining the notion of 'team' to include all participants in the educational experience. Authors in this volume position practice ahead of theory as they struggle to make sense of the complex phenomena of language teaching and learning. The focus of this book is on the nexus between ELT theory and practice as viewed through the lens of collaboration. The volume aims to add to the current knowledge base in order to bridge the theory-practice gap regarding collaboration for innovation in language classrooms.

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Preface

Teamwork involves not only the effort that each individual makes but also the effort that all the individuals together make towards achieving a common goal, with mutual understanding and mutual respect serving as the foundation for a successful collaboration. In language education, the common goal of team teaching may, in actuality, become team learning. I have learnt many things through the production of this book, in particular, because each editor and most of the chapter authors have different cultural backgrounds. Perhaps the most important piece of reflective knowledge I have learnt from this experience is that it is nearly impossible to be productive without the help of a learning team.

As the coordinator of this book project, I wish to thank the following people and groups. I am especially grateful to each of the contributors for their enthusiastic commitment, including Dick, my Lancaster supervisor, and Craig, who are both my mentors and friends. I also thank those who proofread several drafts of the manuscript: Daniel, Kei, Kyoko, and Noriko; and my co-editors: Tim, who wrote the introduction and took a leading role in contacting the authors and revising the chapters, and David, who made useful suggestions for final edits on the chapters and did the final proofreading.

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Akira Tajino
Kyoto, 2015

Foreword

Team teaching, team learning and the development of collegiality

Dick Allwright

A current major threat to education

This book is relevant to anyone who believes that the social endeavour of education, in general, and of language education, in particular, is being badly damaged by the current worldwide emphasis on individual competitiveness and 'objectively' measurable achievement. The chapters in this volume offer an alternative, socially progressive, approach that emphasises collaboration through team teaching and team learning.

Such an approach is not only a matter of offering classroom strategies and techniques, of course, however welcome these may be in themselves. Behind the practical ideas in this volume lies a clear and explicit framework for a more socially aware and productive conception of education.

The necessarily social nature of education

Education is necessarily a social matter, of course, in at least two important ways.

First, state-sponsored education (at least) is explicitly concerned with preparing a new generation for the society in which the learners will be adults. So education plays, inevitably and crucially, a social role and therefore provides a social dimension to its fundamental purpose.

Second, by bringing people together in classroom groups, institutionalised education of any sort is inevitably social. Classes are social enterprises in their own right. That is to say, they are enterprises where the success of a class, in any terms, depends fundamentally on the ability of all concerned to find an acceptable way of spending a lot of time together. (For an analysis directly related to the language classroom, see Allwright, 1998, especially pp. 124–28.) A school class, it has long been noted, is inevitably a social 'accomplishment', and whose success can by no means be taken for granted (see, for example, Mehan, 1979).

In this respect it can also be easily argued that education is already 'necessarily collaborative' to an important extent. As Cortis put it many years ago: 'no teacher teaches except by consent' (1977, p. 66). The learners have to allow themselves to be taught.

The threat to social cohesion

But even this very basic notion of practical collaboration is threatened by the current emphasis on 'measurable' achievement and the competitiveness that education encourages, and even demands. Ultimately, I fear, this competitive pressure inevitably threatens social cohesion itself, within education and beyond. We need instead an approach that builds on all the opportunities education can give us to achieve a more socially cohesive experience for all concerned, and for a more socially cohesive society for our schoolchildren to grow up in and contribute to.

What we are up against is a deeply unattractive conception of education, and of life itself, as a 'zero-sum game', an activity in which any one person's relative success must mean someone else's relative failure. But to maintain open societies full of opportunity, we need education that makes it possible for all to 'win'. We do not want 'win' to mean 'beat others'. Rather, we want it to mean 'gain the maximum possible personal benefit'.

But even this framing risks perpetuating and even exacerbating the current emphasis on an intensely individualistic conception of education, where a school's success is measured in terms of aggregated individual scholastic achievement. Simplifying learning down to quantitative achievement scores means that schools can be compared in 'league tables' by simply quantifying (say) the percentage of individual examination successes across a whole school. This general conception of education as something that must be treated as objectively measurable reflects, perpetuates, and actively encourages (even demands) an over-riding spirit of individualism and competitiveness, both among the learners and among educational institutions, locally, nationally, and even internationally.

What is behind this trend in education? This is no doubt what some people actually want – a society in which individualism and competitiveness rule. Looked at from the current mainstream political and economic perspective, it seems quite understandable since it is based on the assumption that economic success is the ultimate criterion of success for a society, and that economic success depends on individualism, consumerism and competitiveness.

The difficulty of providing education for social cohesion

Fortunately, however, that fundamentally materialistic view of social success is by no means universally accepted. Many prefer a different view of society, in which other, far less 'objectively measurable', values would guide education policy-makers. Cooperation would be emphasised over competition, and collective well-being over individual economic benefit.

Can these two fundamentally different views of society, and of the sort of education most appropriate for them, ever be reconciled? Or are they, as seems initially obvious, totally and irreconcilably incompatible?

As things stand currently in many educational systems around the world, learners and teachers both have reason to feel that they must strive for educational success as described in the state's 'measurable' terms. That is to say, in terms of competing for what is officially accepted as measurable individual educational achievement – scores on national and/or international tests.

One possible response to such a dilemma is to 'drop out' altogether and not accept such problematic values, in the hope and expectation that learners who are not taught to compete in such ways and for such purposes, will nevertheless be able to find a way of living in a society that so strongly prizes competition. Neill's 'Summerhill' in England is perhaps the most famous and celebrated example of such a radical approach to schooling (see Neill, 1960).

The possibility of finding a productive compromise

The alternative to dropping out is to look for a productive educational compromise, that is, a way of teaching and learning that somehow might be able to give learners (and teachers) something closer to 'the best of both worlds'. How might this be achieved?

First, we need a compromise that gives everyone a realistic chance of achieving 'success' in contemporary society's official terms. Second, we also need a compromise that helps *all* students (and teachers) develop as people, and the learners as eventual adult members of the greater society beyond education. Such people (learners and teachers) could be educated as citizens, rather than as mere consumers, that is, concerned community members who know that the 'official' definitions of 'success' do not represent the sort of society they want to live in – a society in which people are encouraged to cooperate rather than simply compete.

Of course, this is what good educators are already doing, against the odds in many cases. But this struggle against strong social currents is clearly not easy. Ideas for increasing the chances of making education and society work more productively for everyone concerned are always going to be welcome. Herein lies the value of this volume's focus on collaboration via team teaching and team learning.

From collaboration to collegiality

I noted above that what is needed is a more pro-actively social conception of education. That is, a conception that promises to positively build upon, rather than threaten, the necessarily social and collaborative nature of all classroom teaching and learning. 'More easily said than done', perhaps, but it may help to start by reconsidering here what we mean by 'collaboration' when we talk of education as already being 'necessarily collaborative'. When I introduced the idea above, it was to draw attention to the practical

fact that 'no teacher teaches except by consent'. Such 'consent' is a passive sort of collaboration, where the participants tacitly agree to occupy the same physical spaces (classrooms) together for much of each day without making life impossible for each other. I now want to argue for a much more active and productive conception of collaboration, a conception that is perhaps better captured by the term 'collegiality'.

'Collegiality', for me, describes a situation where people feel that they are part of a joint endeavour, with all participants working in good faith, not just for themselves but also for all the other people involved.

The following three principles for inclusive practitioner research (Allwright and Hanks, 2009, p. 260) will serve to introduce the particular conception of 'collegiality' that I wish to develop here:

1 Involve *everybody* as practitioners developing their own understandings.
2 Work to bring people *together* in a common enterprise.
3 Work cooperatively for *mutual* development.

These three principles make explicit the combination of individual and mutual development, linked here through the notion of a common enterprise. Taken together, these three, for me, constitute a productive conception of 'collegiality', and I commend them to readers as a set of thoughts to bear in mind while reading the individual chapters of this volume.

Exploratory Practice as a framework for developing collegiality

The above three principles are taken from a set of seven presented as 'desirable design characteristics' for all practitioner research in any field. They have actually been developed, however (and are still developing), in the context of language education, in general, and of English as a foreign language, in particular. The rationale for this approach to research is based on an argument for considering learners as practitioners of learning alongside teachers as practitioners of teaching (for a full account, see Allwright and Hanks, 2009). For a discussion of the specific importance of inclusivity and collegiality within this framework see Hanks (2009). Throughout this current volume, however, the reader will find references to 'Exploratory Practice', the name we have given to this form of inclusive practitioner research as it has been developing over the last 25 or so years. The chapter by Tajino and Smith describes in more detail the Exploratory Practice (EP) framework and its relevance to team teaching and team learning, so I will restrict my discussion in this foreword to what I hope will be three particularly attractive and helpful illustrations of my conception of 'collegiality'.

First, the late Hadara Perpignan, in her doctoral research at Lancaster University and in a subsequent publication in the *Journal of Language Teaching Research* (2003, pp. 259–78), describes her work in trying to find

a productive way of giving English language learners feedback on their writing. Starting from the traditional notion that what was needed were more effective individual feedback techniques to improve the level of practical understanding between learner writers and their writing teachers, she concludes:

> . . . it seems clear to me now that the most telling conclusion to be drawn from this data is that it is not the mutual understanding that has the greatest potential to promote learning, but rather the knowledge by both parties that efforts are being made toward such understanding. It is therefore not the explicitly conveyed messages and their encoding that should be focussed on by teachers and researchers, in order to generate better conditions for feedback effectiveness, but the intentions which inspire them and the means which promote them.
>
> (Perpignan, 2003, pp. 271–72)

In short, she discovered that achieving productive feedback is mainly a matter of all parties acting mutually in good faith, that is, acting 'collegially'. It was Perpignan's important work that reinforced and crystallised the growing realisation among EP practitioners that trust was central to everything they were doing (see the numerous references to trust in Allwright and Hanks, 2009). But these educators were not actively setting out to build trust as a goal in itself. Rather, they found that by working within the general EP framework, they were incidentally establishing trust between themselves and their learners, and among their learners. They were acting 'collegially', and a distinct sense of 'collegiality' within their classrooms was the very welcome outcome.

Perpignan's work was situated in Israel, but her background was in Brazil, where a very different illustration of collegiality comes from. I am referring to the example of the Rio de Janeiro Exploratory Practice Group. They are a group of language teachers, and some learners, who meet regularly in Rio to share and develop their language classroom work as EP practitioners. A collaboratively written description of their group life can be found in full as Chapter 14 in Allwright and Hanks (2009). Their sense of collegiality is summed up in this passage from their chapter:

> Within the development of the Group, trust and collegiality are intrinsically related to this renewed notion of agency. In EP processes in the classroom, teachers and learners become 'learning or understanding practitioners'. We see teachers understanding their students, themselves, their books, their contexts; students understanding their teachers, their classroom lives as well as life outside the classroom; teachers and students understanding together various things at the same time. Within the Group, we also find ourselves constantly learning from

> each other. We have been collegially learning to work for understanding, to disseminate EP ideas, to encourage each other in the pursuit of academic degrees, to take up positions of leadership and representation.
>
> (Miller and Cunha, *et al.*, in Allwright and Hanks, 2009, p. 227)

My third illustration of collegiality is from one of the learners who participated in the Rio EP Group, Mariana Pompilho de Souza, who was 15 years old at the time. She is writing about her class doing a task that involved investigating questions they had formulated for themselves about their learning lives. Mariana's account was translated from the original Portuguese by her teacher, Solange Fish Costa Braga. The clarifications in square brackets are mine.

> Everything was normal: we did the tasks, doing research, filling questionnaires, interviewing students and teachers, preparing posters and presenting them to the class. The teacher started to talk about Exploratory Practice and asked us if we wanted to participate in the EP Event [the annual conference of teachers and learners in Rio]. A few people got interested in that and I was part of this group, thank God. The first time I went to the EP sessions [event planning sessions of the Rio Group] we debated our questions. It was very interesting because I liked to show my opinions. The sensation of being among several teachers is great! We could say what we think about our questions and they heard us without criticising us; they could understand us and explore our opinions, respecting them above all. And the snacks during break time were also great!
>
> (Allwright and Hanks, 2009, pp. 165–66)

'Collaboration for innovation': Working towards a more cohesive society

The subtitle to this volume is 'Collaboration for innovation in ELT'. I have dealt with the 'collaboration' theme by focusing on the highly active (and productive) notion of 'collaboration as collegiality' that I exemplified with three different illustrations of Exploratory Practice at work. It is this conception of collaboration that underlies Tajino and Smith's opening chapter in this volume, and which lays the foundation for all that follows.

But the subtitle also refers to 'innovation'. I suggest that what is being advocated in this book goes well beyond innovation in the narrow technocratic sense of the word. The authors in this volume see team teaching and team learning as an innovative way of working towards a more cohesive society, both within and well beyond education.

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Section 1

Characterising ELT collaboration and innovation

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1 Introduction

Situating collaboration, team teaching, team learning and innovation in ELT practice

Tim Stewart

None of us is as smart as all of us

– Kenneth H. Blanchard

Teachers seem to be held responsible by every segment of society for its very future. We regularly hear calls from diverse stakeholders about the need for educators to innovate and become more creative, while simultaneously listening to complaints that students today do not study enough and lack basic knowledge. Citizens around the world appear to have an expectation that all social problems can be resolved through school reform (e.g. Hunt, 2005). Calls for innovation resonate throughout the contemporary landscape of education; however, the literature is littered with accounts of unsuccessful attempts at innovation (see Hyland and Wong, 2013). It seems clear that how an innovation is implemented has a significant impact on its potential for success. Implementing a new innovation should be based on collaboration that is modelled and backed with adequate support (Kezar and Lester, 2009).

In the English language teaching (ELT) field, growing calls for innovation have increased interest in collaboration (Waters and Vilches, 2013). Since English is overwhelmingly privileged as the language of international commerce and research, pressures are ratcheting up on ELT professionals. To understand what this entails, we first need to consider the entire system. Collaboration has been closely associated with innovation in studies on developing effective organisational responses to innovative pressures. Demands to reassess practice have now spread from business and government to education. The source of this call for change can, in part, be found in U.S. business circles during the 1970s. At that time, competitors in Asia challenged the dominance of American firms in many fields and forced companies to reform. The response of many U.S. corporations was to restructure decision making in order to cultivate a 'collaborative advantage' (Kanter, 1994). This renewed interest in collaboration was quickly picked up by bureaucrats (Cole, 1999), and official definitions of collaboration were framed in terms of market competition. Thirty years later, the jargon of business and bureaucrats is now ubiquitous.

In the general field of education, 'accountability' has become a mantra of administrators. New methods of assessing student learning and measuring institutional effectiveness are constantly being tested in the tireless quest for quantifiable results (see Birnbaum, 2000). Student and community needs have changed dramatically since 2000, while business leaders and other elites continue to advocate training over education and creativity. The same pressures are felt in ELT (Cameron, 2002). Two things delineate the challenges for teachers: the amount of information now available and the speed of change. The contemporary circumstance indicates that learning how to learn, find and assess information, problem solve and collaborate should be central to school curricula.

The collaborative imperative

Collaboration is intuitively a good idea for most people since we live in social communities. We may understandably feel that collaboration is happening all around us, as people constantly work together and today are often continuously communicating through social media. Communication and teamwork do not equal collaboration, however. What characterises collaboration? Collaborative partnerships establish collective goals and require group participation to accomplish those goals. Group members align with goals as they engage in joint planning and power sharing. Collaboration must be an interactive partnership that builds a relationship over time (Kezar and Lester, 2009). In other words, collaborative groups are task focused. Rather than emerging from some utopian vision of the future, collaboration is very much a grounded undertaking. It is a practical response to the common problem of there not being enough: not enough time, not enough resources, not enough information and not enough diverse perspectives. The speed of change today is inducing a cycle of continuous innovation that compels greater collaboration in nearly all fields.

Collaboration can take different forms. Today, multidisciplinary collaborative efforts in research and teaching are spreading in response to the complexity of problems we face and the overwhelming amount of information now available on any topic. Collaborative research is promoted widely at companies and universities. In addition, courses and information are made available through social media and platforms such as the Creative Commons that serve as channels for collaboration. Largely due to the ease of social media, people regularly collaborate in writing today. In ELT, collaborative writing is widely practised (Storch, 2013).

Nunan (1992) introduced various collaborative approaches for ELT professionals, looking for ways to produce learning environments where teachers and students could learn from one another. Nearly 25 years later, interest in collaborative teaching and learning remains high. Why is collaboration so important in language education? Universities worldwide are competing for the brightest students and this generally means privileging

education in English. This contemporary shift towards more English-medium instruction involves significant change for teachers. Since these changes in content, language of instruction and pedagogy are highly complex, teachers struggle to implement innovations imposed by centralised government authorities responsible for education policy. Making sense of curriculum documents and transforming these directives into useful and engaging pedagogy requires a tremendous amount of conventionally learned and practically accumulated knowledge. The chapters in this book focus on the nexus between theory and practice as viewed through the lens of collaboration. The volume aims to bridge the theory–practice gap regarding collaboration for innovation in language classrooms.

Surfing the hyphen

One way to understand the thrust of this volume is to imagine the central ideas linked together as a series of hyphens. Readers become cognitive surfers who ride the varied hyphenated meanings of team, learning and collaboration. In short, this book showcases ELT practice on the hyphen. Surfing the hyphen can be uncomfortable because the reformulation of accepted concepts necessitates a significant degree of uncertainty. The hyphens we surf can position us in unfamiliar waters when they fall between unexpected pairs of ideas. However, exploring new connections between ideas can lead us to reconfigure our conceptualisations. The repositioning of ideas can expose previously unseen possibilities. In other words, the hyphen contains energising conductive properties with the potential to advance theoretical understanding. In this way, the hyphen is often the source of innovation in ELT as the field imports and transforms ideas from other areas.

Terms explored in this volume that can be hyphenated include theory-practice, team-teaching and team-learning. Besides these concepts, it is possible to surf an array of compounds related to collaboration and innovation. The authors in this book seek to ignite renewed discussion among ELT educators on the importance of linking the key concepts of collaboration and innovation in language education. A pivotal difference highlighted in this volume from previous ELT research is the concept of team learning through collaborative relationships such as team teaching. In 2000, Tajino and Tajino outlined their concept of team learning. Their article moved classroom activity beyond the pervasive view of isolated roles in team teaching, wherein teachers 'just teach' and students 'just learn', to that of interaction among all participants to promote communicative competence and shared learning. Chapters in this book elaborate the ways that team learning happens in ELT environments and beyond. Out of these explorations, a more robust concept of ELT team learning emerges.

Team teaching and team learning are both collaborative and innovative. Collaboration necessitates practice and practice is central to this volume. For ELT theory to advance, it needs to be tested in practice and revised

accordingly. Theory informs practice, which, through action and reflection, then washes back to inform theory. The chapters in this volume demonstrate how various forms of collaboration can strengthen the hyphen linking theory with practice. Authors in this book make contributions that help readers skilfully surf the occasionally hostile currents found encircling the theory–practice gap in ELT (Stewart, 2006).

The volume opens with the chapter by Tajino and Smith who stake out their current theoretical understandings of team teaching and team learning, which lead into the book's two main sections: Team Teaching Collaborations and Collaborative Innovations beyond Team Teaching. To conclude this introduction, I will list some of the questions answered in the chapters related to the four key terms in this book's title.

Innovation in ELT

What type of innovation is highlighted in this book?

This volume is filled with descriptions of theorising down (Allwright, 2013) wherein practitioners create new strands of ELT theory out of their daily teaching experiences. The top-down model of centralised reform is critiqued in chapters from Japan (Chapters 3 and 6), Hong Kong (Chapters 4 and 7) and Vietnam (Chapter 12). In the centralised and highly competitive education system of Hong Kong, Fan and Lo (Chapter 7) claim that ELT educators must work more closely with colleagues teaching content courses. They describe a case study of teaching science literacy in an English-medium Hong Kong high school. In Chapter 5, Perry explains how ELT team teaching practice in the U.S. Peace Corps has been enhanced by a new training programme in combination with a streamlined strategy of project implementation. Bolstad and Zenuk-Nishide (Chapter 6) outline a course for practising team teachers that is unusual in Japanese education. Rehorick and Rehorick (Chapter 10) detail how critical extensions of theory and employing multiple tools for enhancing learner autonomy can promote the inclusive team learning approach they call *leregogy*. Edge and Attia (Chapter 8) explain the evolution of Edge's professional development framework, Cooperative Development, from its early practice to the online forum where it is housed today. Nguyen (Chapter 12) describes an innovative near-peer mentorship professional development approach used to guide beginning ELT teachers in Vietnam through the challenging first year of practice as they shape their personal sense of professional identity. Dalsky and Garant (Chapter 11) describe the difficulties of orchestrating the collaboration of course tasks virtually between students in Finland and Japan. Stewart (Chapter 9) describes the creation of a unique learning community from the bottom-up and argues in his conclusion that institution-wide collaboration and mutual learning are imperative for modern universities.

Collaboration in ELT

Why and how do teachers collaborate?

Since collaboration seems natural to many people they simply assume that they know how to do it. However, listening to others, finding value in diverse perspectives and making people feel included are not natural to educators who have individualistic work patterns. Collaboration takes conscious practice and needs to be introduced by modelling values and norms. Edge and Attia (Chapter 8) offer ELT professionals a process for discussing teaching with a set of skills they can work on to enhance *collegiality* (see Allwright's Foreword in this volume) and become good collaborators. Nguyen (Chapter 12) illustrates how collaboration can be guided for beginning ELT instructors. In Vietnam, collaboration among peers is uncommon, but her chapter shows how beginning teachers and peer mentors were able to open up their work culture by considering themselves as 'critical friends' rather than as evaluators. She emphasises the need to create interactive third spaces in schools where teachers can negotiate solutions around their diverse values. Davison (Chapter 4) also talks about the need to create space for teachers to feel secure when experimenting as they develop localised tools and approaches for enhancing collaboration.

Stewart (Chapter 9) describes the difficulties colleagues encountered working within various communities of practice while founding a new university. Based on the struggles with collaboration he describes, Stewart argues that newcomers need access to practice without assuming full responsibility to encourage full participation and fruitful collaboration. The collaboration in Fan and Lo's study (Chapter 7) was in response to the perceived need to assist low-achieving secondary students in an English-medium school in Hong Kong. Similarly, Rehorick and Rehorick (Chapter 10) talk about how they designed a seamless integration of content and language in a course for lower-level English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students in Japan. In a cross-cultural collaboration between Finns and Japanese, Dalsky and Garant (Chapter 11) show the difficulties and benefits of using Internet-based communication tools to teach academic writing and cultural issues.

Team teaching in ELT

What is effective team teaching?

Tajino and Smith (Chapter 2) revisit earlier work by Tajino and Tajino (2000) on the nature of 'team' and move us towards a more inclusive view of the ELT classroom that involves extensive collaboration among all participants. Yoshida (Chapter 3) provides us with a sociocultural description of team teaching and outlines strong and weak versions as conceived by

Tajino and Tajino (2000). He then presents classroom research from Japan using conversation analysis of a team-taught lesson in a Japanese junior high school conducted by a team comprised of a native Japanese teacher and a native English speaker. Yoshida agrees with Bolstad and Zenuk-Nishide (Chapter 6) that teachers need more training and support in order to perform the complex task of team teaching well. The central claim made by Bolstad and Zenuk-Nishide is that team teaching in Japan has not achieved its potential largely because practitioners follow a deficit model of implementation. They recommend resetting the perspective from a focus on teacher dynamics to student learning needs. According to Perry (Chapter 5), the biggest obstacle to effective EFL team teaching in the U.S. Peace Corps is different beliefs about learning that are difficult to articulate. In response, Perry calls for more training to help teachers explore their own underlying values about education. Rehorick and Rehorick (Chapter 10) along with Stewart (Chapter 9) describe success and failure in the practice of interdisciplinary team teaching in teams of ELT educators and discipline-specific faculty members who co-design and co-teach credit-bearing courses at a Japanese liberal arts university. Fan and Lo (Ch. 7) outline inter-disciplinary collaborations in Hong Kong secondary schools that emphasise content-based language instruction to improve science literacy. Their study reveals varied perspectives from subject teachers and language teachers on the necessity of such instruction. Davison (Chapter 4) presents a comparative study of attitudes towards interdisciplinary collaboration at three schools in Hong Kong. She concludes that the school and cultural contexts influence the potential for success of team teaching as much as personal factors. Davison's chapter highlights the complexity of teaching collaborations and the highly variable nature of team teaching effectiveness over time.

Team learning in ELT

What is team learning?

For Tajino and Smith (Chapter 2), ELT team learning is a collaboration that is more about values and essence than it is about form. This view follows Allwright (2005) who encouraged language teachers to shift their focus away from the lesson plan and towards finding learning opportunities in the moment of practice. They further agree with Allwright that classroom activity should not be controlled solely by teachers. Team learning must be a co-production of all the classroom participants and for this to occur Tajino and Smith stress the need for teachers to see lessons as benefiting their own learning, as well as that of their students. The need for creating the appropriate classroom environment seems crucial for enabling the type of open interaction necessary for team learning in language lessons (see Chapters 2, 3, 5 and 10). Yoshida (Chapter 3) puts forth a reconceptu-alisation of team teaching into a more inclusive holistic learning environment

that he links to Tajino's idea of team learning in ELT. His data shows how the active engagement of students is crucial to the success of team learning. He explains how the concept of team learning is strongly supported by the sociocultural theory of language learning and the pivotal role of building a collective, while sharing common goals among all participants. Perry (Chapter 5) emphasises the need for establishing a shared set of values about language learning within Peace Corps teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) projects. He advocates the team learning approach outlined by Tajino and Smith (Chapter 2). Stewart (Chapter 9) attempts to broaden the definition of team learning beyond the language classroom to include higher education groups involved in faculty governance, interdisciplinary team teaching and administrative service. His expanded concept of team learning is described through the framework of communities of practice (Wenger, 1998). Rehorick and Rehorick (Chapter 10) introduce the team-learning concept of 'leregogy' into ELT as they outline their use of Stern's (1983) multi-dimensional curriculum design in a team-taught university course. Dalsky and Garant (Chapter 11) exhibit how team learning in the virtual environment can fail without careful planning, even with the use of digital communication tools. Nguyen (Chapter 12) shows how grouping colleagues who are near peers in ELT with shared sets of experiences can help open up traditional school cultures towards the rich possibilities of inclusive team learning.

Closing thoughts

Even though we may accept the potential benefits offered by increased collaboration, moving schools and teachers towards more collaboration is not so straightforward. Educational innovations are highly complex undertakings. For innovative methods to have a chance of success, commitment is necessary in the form of training and ensuring that enough time and rewards are available. Rather than first looking at how institutional culture needs to change, the focus of innovation has to be on practice. Changes in practice lead changes in culture. Some things remain permanent, however. Earl Stevick informed us over 30 years ago that language learning 'success depends . . . on what goes on inside and between people in the classroom' (1980, p. 4). Modern organisations adore standardisation. Standardised tests in schools are ubiquitous. Correspondingly, technology is changing how we live as it aligns human thinking and cultures ever closer to machine logic. But classrooms are still spaces where humanism is needed much more than technocratic efficiency (see Allwright's Foreword in this volume; Edge, 1996; Johnston, 2003). The lasting thing we take away from memorable courses studied or taught is not the grades we gave or received, it's the memory of enjoyable human contact that makes learning possible and worthwhile. The ELT professionals in this volume who share their experiences of creating collaborative environments through team teaching

and team learning emphasise the need to base practice on the subjective values and essence of deep engagement rather than form, function and the myth of 'objective' evaluation.

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2 Beyond team teaching

An introduction to team learning in language education

Akira Tajino and Craig Smith

Team teaching, a form of co-teaching by two or more teachers, has gradually become a common pedagogical practice in language education over the past few decades. Such team-taught classes can be found from kindergartens to tertiary levels of private and public schools and other educational institutions in many countries. In Asia, for example, team-taught English as a foreign language (EFL) classes are a familiar practice especially in China, Hong Kong, South Korea, Taiwan and Japan. The issue of team teaching has often been discussed in the literature of language education (see, for example, Carless, 2006; Davison, 2006; Gladman, 2015; Johannes, 2012; Liu, 2008; Luo, 2010; Ng, 2015; Park, 2014; Perry and Stewart, 2005; Tajino, 2002; Tajino and Tajino, 2000; Tajino and Walker, 1998).

There are various team-teaching formats including lessons taught by a team composed of a native English-speaking teacher and a non-native English-speaking teacher, and co-teaching by an English teacher and a content- or subject-area teacher. In Japan, for example, the former type of team teaching has long been conducted in EFL classes at secondary schools (see CLAIR, 2010) while the latter type generally takes place at colleges and universities (see, for example, Gladman, 2015; Rehorick and Rehorick in this volume; Stewart and Perry, 2005). In addition, a new type of team teaching conducted by a non-native English-speaking primary school homeroom teacher and an English language teacher has more recently been introduced in Japan (Otani and Tsuido, 2009).

A common challenge that has been reported in team teaching in Japanese secondary schools is the difficulty of creating constructive collaboration between the two teachers: a Japanese teacher of English (JTE) and a native English-speaking assistant language teacher (ALT). On the basis of lessons learned from past experiences in Japan, we argue in this chapter that team teaching should be reconceptualised so that collaboration can be improved by making adjustments in conventional team-teaching pedagogy.

As the term implies, team teaching aims to improve teaching, and thus, learning. However, we know this is not always the case in reality; that is, students do not always learn what teachers teach, but at the same time, they do learn from other students in the classroom (Allwright, 1984, 2005; Slimani, 1987). Allwright explains:

> We all know that we must expect learners to learn less than has been explicitly taught, but we typically pay less attention to the more interesting phenomenon that learners can also learn more than has been explicitly taught . . . because the learners may have learned little from the teaching points and a lot from everything else that happened in the lesson.
>
> (2005, p. 14)

Allwright sums up this teaching–learning puzzle as follows:

> . . . although what learners actually learn from a lesson is going to be less than all the teacher's teaching points, what they can and might learn from a lesson is also potentially, and perhaps normally, much richer than just the sum total of such teaching points.
>
> (2005, p. 15)

What causes this phenomenon? Allwright (2005) is correct in claiming that 'teachers and learners co-construct their lessons' (p. 16). In other words, teachers and students are agents of the teaching and learning that can occur in their classrooms.

In this chapter, we will explore the nature of team teaching, with a specific focus on Japan, given its relatively long history in team-teaching practice and the substantial body of reports and analyses of these team-teaching experiences in the literature. In the typical current practice of team teaching, team membership is restricted to the teachers. Furthermore, collaboration between the JTE and the ALT in lesson planning, teaching and lesson evaluation has been limited. To move towards a better situation for students and teachers in team-taught classes, we will argue that in place of a 'narrow' definition of a 'team', which considers the teachers as the only team members, a 'broad' view of the concept of team, which includes all of the participants in a lesson, should be adopted. We propose moving beyond conventional forms of team teaching to 'team learning', a more collaborative and inclusive approach to classroom language teaching and learning.

To support this proposal, we will describe some team-learning patterns, and present a value-centred team-learning model that can promote collaboration among the students and teachers of a learning community. As will be discussed later, this model shares much in common with Exploratory Practice (EP), an innovative form of practitioner research.

Issues in team teaching in Japan

Among the countries that currently employ EFL team teaching, Japan was likely the first to introduce it as a national educational policy. In 1987, the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Programme, a nation-wide team-teaching programme, was launched (see CLAIR, 2010).

Since 1987, approximately 4,500 ALTs have participated in the programme each year. Many of the ALTs are recent university graduates with little or no teaching experience (CLAIR, 2010). Due to its large scale and relatively long history, the JET Programme is likely the most discussed team-teaching programme in the EFL literature. Thus, problematic issues in team teaching in the JET Programme have been clearly identified.

Team teaching has been defined by Sheila Brumby and her co-author Minoru Wada, who was a principal designer of the JET Programme, as:

> . . . a *concerted endeavour* made jointly by the Japanese teacher of English (JTE) and the assistant English teacher (AET) in an English language classroom in which the students, the JTE and the AET are engaged in communicative activities.
>
> (Brumby and Wada, 1990, Introduction, italics ours)

As an innovative foreign language teaching format, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan expects team teaching to develop students' basic communication skills in listening, speaking, reading, and writing by deepening understandings of language and culture and by fostering positive attitudes towards communication in English and other foreign languages (see MEXT, 2009).

While team teaching has been welcomed in general in Japan, the teachers have faced some daunting challenges. Unresolved issues related to appropriate sharing of teachers' roles, language barriers and differences in educational and cultural values can lead to debilitating tensions in the teachers' relationships (McConnell, 2000; Miyazato, 2009). In addition, there are added complications when the ALT has not completed a programme of teacher education and training, and lacks experience in classroom management (Glasgow, 2013; Mahoney, 2004; Tanabe, 1990). In these circumstances, it may be difficult for the professionally trained and qualified JTEs to share teaching tasks and responsibilities for planning and classroom management (Miyazato, 2009).

As a result of these challenges, a tendency has been reported for the teachers to play separate roles at different times; for example, the JTE teaches grammar while the ALT provides models of correct pronunciation. Consequently, the ALTs may regard themselves as mere 'human tape-recorders' and not as 'real' teachers (Kumabe, 1996). In other cases, a negative impact on the JTE's self-esteem, due to perceptions of inadequate English language skills, may result in most of the teaching tasks being left to the ALT when the two teachers are together in the classroom (Miyazato, 2009). In both situations, the teachers function as two separate individuals, rather than as a united team. When this occurs, it is difficult to justify the necessity of having two teachers in the same classroom at the same time.

A key challenge in the successful implementation of a system-wide team-teaching policy lies in achieving, and then sustaining, effective interpersonal collaboration among a diverse range of co-teachers. Although challenges in teacher collaboration have been accurately identified and described in persuasive detail in the literature, few feasible remedial proposals have been successfully implemented on a large scale for almost three decades of team teaching in Japan (see Kumabe, 1996; Marchesseau, 2014; Tajino and Tajino, 2000; Wada, 1994).

Even though the literature on team teaching reports that challenges related to teachers' interpersonal communication, teaching roles and lesson responsibilities persist year after year, many EFL educators doubt the problems are intractable. Team-teaching experiences in Japan have convinced many team-teaching practitioners that a creative and all-inclusive engagement of the class participants in collaborative ventures will eventually strengthen EFL education (see Perry and Stewart, 2005). Yet, how can our conceptualisation of team learning contribute to the success of team-teaching programmes?

The development of team learning

> [In a team-taught lesson by a Japanese teacher and an ALT in a senior high school Japanese language class] the learners taught the ALT kanji and hiragana (Japanese characters) using simple English. In this lesson, it was the students (typically learners) who taught, while the Japanese language teacher served as a facilitator . . . For Student E, usually lacking in confidence, teaching kanji characters to a foreign teacher was of the greatest reward. He had a triumphant smile on his face, something that never happened in a regular class. At this moment, there was a feeling of pleasure and satisfaction in the role reversal of the learners, teaching a part of Japanese culture to a foreigner.
>
> (Sakuma, 1997, p. 21, English translation ours)

The above reflection is a good example of our concept of team learning. This excerpt describes an activity in a team-taught class in a secondary school. Through the Japanese teacher taking the role of the facilitator, and the ALT becoming the learner, the student was able to use his practical English language skills and his Japanese cultural knowledge in the language classroom. By using English in intercultural communication, Student E gained confidence because he was able to enjoy a meaningful learning experience; one that no doubt heightened his enthusiasm for communication in a foreign language. For the ALT, we can also assume that the experience was beneficial, in that the ALT gained new knowledge about the mother tongue of his or her students; knowledge that may help to deepen communication, and further create a more inclusive learning environment. This type of collaboration encourages the sharing of values that is the essence of team learning.[1]

The shared value in this case is an understanding that 'culture' is the heart of intercultural communication, particularly when one of the participants is using a foreign language; and that communication is enhanced when it is founded on respect for other cultures.

The notion of team learning has been developed as a reconceptualisation of the nature of team teaching and the conventional notion of team-teaching teams (Tajino, 1997; Tajino and Tajino, 2000; Tajino and Walker, 1998). Team learning is based on a belief that classroom interaction should not be seen as something solely in teachers' hands, but as a co-production of all the participants in the classroom (Allwright, 1984).

The full potential of a team-learning environment emerges as the teachers broaden their thinking to include a focus on their own learning as well as on their teaching and their students' learning. In short, once teachers begin to consider themselves as learners, rather than exclusively as teachers, the rigid borders that often separate team teachers from each other, and from their students, disappear.

In this chapter we describe team learning in language education as a collaborative learning experience in which two or more class participants work together as a team towards their development as teachers and students.

The notion of 'team'

In what ways can team teachers work together? Tajino and Tajino (2000) differentiate between a 'weak' version and a 'strong' version of the team when team teaching is based on a narrow definition of the team as just the two teachers.

A weak version: X + Y

This formula refers to cooperation between the team teachers in which each teacher plays a separate individual role. Tajino and Tajino (2000) describe this as a type of collective teaching that can be understood metaphorically as a pianist playing the piano and a singer singing a song on the same stage but at different times.

A strong version: X Y

We must remember that team teaching is supposed to be a 'concerted endeavour' (Brumby and Wada, 1990, p. 3) made jointly by the two teachers. A team dynamic that encourages synergy may achieve this goal. In the strong version of the team, the team teachers collaborate in a joint effort to achieve shared goals. To use Tajino and Tajino's (2000) metaphor again, the synergy of the strong version of the team results in a 'harmonious duet', where the end product is greater than the sum of the individual parts.

Reformulating the team

The notion of the 'team' in a team-learning approach to collaboration may be further clarified by reconsidering who makes up the team: the narrow perspective described above is teacher-centred, while a broad perspective of the team includes both teachers and students.

Teams that create a variety of learning opportunities can be formed according to the needs of specific lesson objectives (Tajino and Tajino, 2000). For example, in team-taught EFL classes in Japan,

1 the JTE and the ALT may be on one team for a role-play activity while all of the students are on another team helping each other to answer a comprehension quiz on the teachers' role play;
2 the JTE may be on a team with all of the students and the ALT may play an independent role such as that of interviewer on a cultural topic;
3 the ALT may team with all of the students and the JTE may play an independent role such as helping students' overcome communication breakdowns with the ALT;
4 the whole class can be divided into two teams with the teachers joining each team alternatively to use the students' native and target languages as they help students to prepare team presentations; or
5 both teachers may team with all of the students to prepare for an activity with outsiders; for example, visitors who come to the class for a special event such as a presentation on their experiences in a foreign country.

Five possible team patterns are illustrated in Figure 2.1. Note that in Figure 2.1 the term NNEST (non-native English-speaking teacher) is used for JTEs; and NEST (native English-speaking teacher) is used for ALTs.

- Pattern A: The teachers as a team.
  This is the typical team pattern in team-teaching practice in Japan. The two teachers work together on-stage in an 'overt' team when they teach together and in an off-stage 'covert' team when they plan lessons together (Tajino and Tajino, 2000). Through this pattern of interaction the teachers working as a team can create situations in which they can learn about their students' culture, learning task development and other lesson concerns.
- Patterns B and C: One teacher and the students as a team.
  These patterns show one teacher and the students working together, so that as a team they can interact with the other co-teacher. For example, the JTE and his or her students can collaborate in preparing for the lesson, and then, they can interact with the ALT during the lesson.
- Pattern D: Two teams (one teacher and a group of students on one team, and the other teacher and the other group of students on the other team).
  One teacher and a particular group of students can team up in order to explore a particular value or belief, while the other teacher and the other

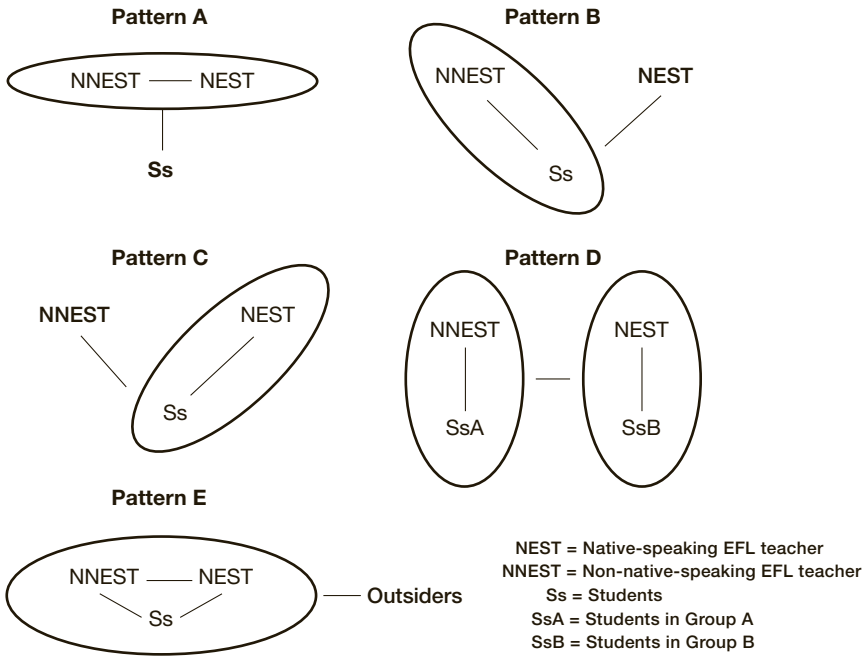

Figure 2.1 Team patterns

Source: Adapted from "Native and non-native: What can they offer? Lessons from team teaching in Japan", by A. Tajino and Y. Tajino, 2000, *ELT Journal*, *54*(1), 3–11. Copyright 2000 by Oxford University Press.

group of students can consider a different value or belief. These two teams can interact with each other. Collaboration and learning are expected within each team and between the two teams.

- Pattern E: The whole class as a team.
  This pattern views the entire class as a team; that is, the teachers and their students work together. Each member can learn from, and/or with, other members in the classroom community. As suggested by Ushiro (1997), it is possible for all members of the triangle of partners in learning – the JTE, the ALT and the students – to be engaged in active interaction. No member of the learning community should remain separate from class activities.

In order to illustrate the potential of team learning more explicitly, the above patterns will be rearranged (as shown in Figures 2.2 and 2.3) by adapting a framework on communicative relationships between teachers and students from Lindgren (1956).

Team-learning patterns

The two types of team-learning (TL) patterns, in which the communicative relationships among the team members are illustrated by means of arrows, are shown in Figures 2.2 and 2.3: TL pattern A and TL Pattern B, respectively.

TL Pattern A demonstrates that the two teachers working together as a team can learn from each other while they develop two-way communication with individual students. As suggested in the literature on 'teachers as learners' (e.g. Freeman and Johnson, 1998; Freeman and Richards, 1996; Kennedy, 1991), the teachers can learn about teaching methodology and teaching management skills from each other as well as by asking their students about their lives as learners in their classroom. This pattern allows the students to collaborate with one another. The students may build their English language skills as they complete learning tasks by collaborating with their fellow team members (see Kato, Bolstad and Watari, 2015).

Figure 2.3 shows a broader view of team learning in that the whole class functions as a team in which the teachers are no longer the central figures, but rather, team members.

Unlike TL Pattern A, where the focus is on the team teachers, TL Pattern B encourages the whole class, both the teachers and the students, to function as a team in which the teachers are not only presenters of content, but facilitators of learning. This pattern allows the teachers to create collaborative learning opportunities and then, from their special perspective as participants in the learning themselves, they benefit from opportunities

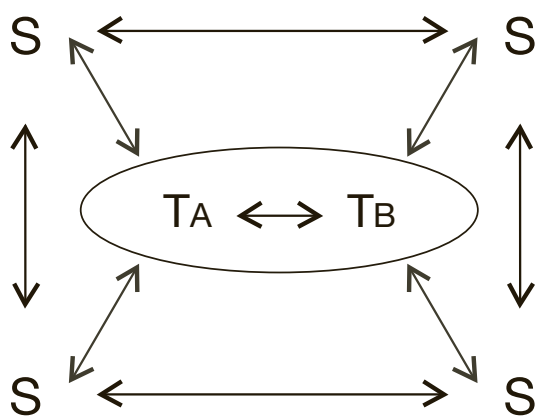

Figure 2.2 TL Pattern A: A narrow view of team learning (i.e. the teachers as a team)

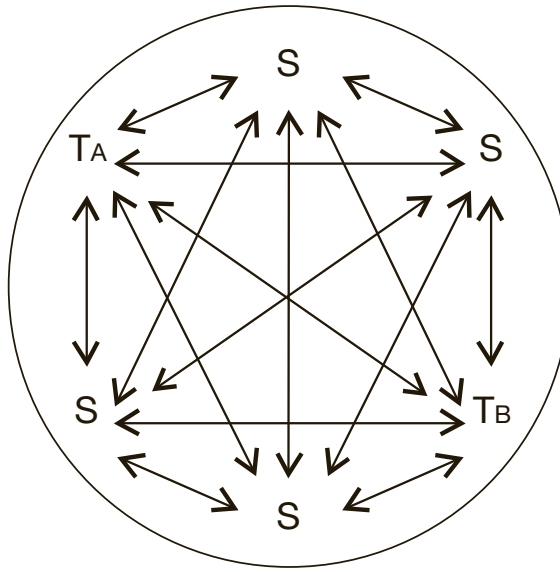

Figure 2.3 TL Pattern B: A broad view of team learning (i.e. the whole class as a team)

to monitor the development of their students' practical communication skills and positive attitudes towards intercultural communication.[2]

A value-centred team-learning model

As noted previously, team teaching in Japan is expected not only to help students to improve their English language skills, but also to foster positive attitudes towards communication in English and other foreign languages. Taking the latter objective into consideration, Tajino and Tajino have argued that:

> . . . team teaching may be most effective when it is 'team learning', in which all the participants, teachers as well as students, are encouraged to learn from one another by exchanging ideas or cultural values.
>
> (2000, p. 3)

In the team-learning context, values include (but perhaps may not be limited to) beliefs about what is important in language learning and teaching. A fundamental value, for example, may be the belief that the acquisition of language skills in order to communicate with people from other cultures will promote the achievement of 'quality of life' through learning.

Value-centered team learning can enhance intercultural understanding and intercultural communication skill development. As the explanation of Team Pattern D in Figure 2.1 suggests, teams can be formulated in ways that promote learning about differences in values. This leads to 'a value-centred team-learning model', which is illustrated in Figure 2.4.

The co-teachers can facilitate a transition to a value-centred team-learning approach in their team-taught lessons by linking team-learning practices with EP principles. As noted earlier, team learning has much in common with EP such that they both involve everybody, teachers and students, as agents of learning or 'practitioners'. It is important to note that team learning refers to any collaborative learning experience that teachers and students can share, whereas EP is a form of practitioner research that engages teachers and students in a collaborative ongoing search to come to better understandings of their own language classrooms (Allwright, 2003, 2009).[3]

EP should be realised by '*using* normal pedagogic practices as investigative tools, so that working for understanding is *part of* the teaching and learning, not extra to it' (Allwright, 2003, p. 127, italics in original). In other words, EP seeks an integration of pedagogy and research (Allwright, 1993). EP provides teachers and students with a vision of how they can become team learners and researchers in their own classroom.

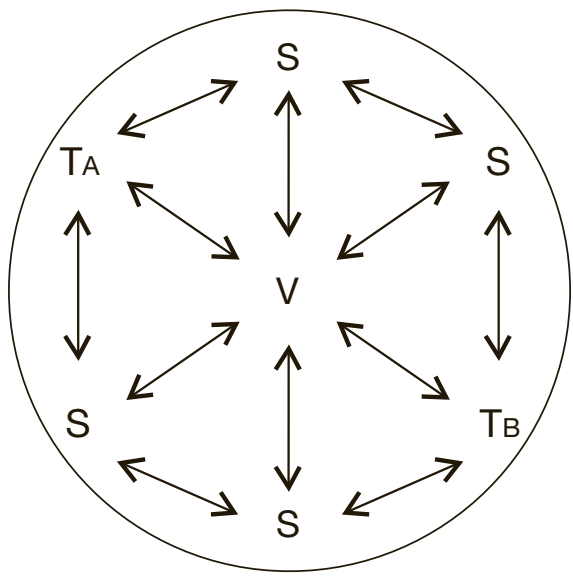

Figure 2.4 A value-centred team-learning model (i.e. the whole class as a team)

Team learning and exploratory practice in the language classroom

Exploratory Practice is based on a framework of seven principles:

Principle 1: Put 'quality of life' first.
Principle 2: Work primarily to understand language classroom life.
Principle 3: Involve everybody.
Principle 4: Work to bring people together.
Principle 5: Work also for mutual development.
Principle 6: Integrate the work for understanding into classroom practice.
Principle 7: Make the work a continuous enterprise.

(Allwright, 2003, pp. 128–130)

The first EP principle, to put 'quality of life' first, has been adopted as the core team-learning value as illustrated in Figure 2.5.

The value-centred team-learning model can help to realise a primary EP aim; that is, the improvement of 'quality of life' in language classrooms for students and their teachers as partners in collaborative learning, teaching and classroom research (see, for example, Allwright, 2005; Allwright and Hanks, 2009; Gieve and Miller, 2006; Hanks, 2009, 2015).

The following outline describes in detail the constructive links between team learning and EP principles.

1 Focus on 'quality of life' in the classroom as the fundamental issue.
   An essential student–teacher negotiation task should define quality of life for all the team-learning participants. If all members are striving towards understanding their classroom lives, then a team-learning discussion activity, for example, could allow the class to negotiate a consensus on how the quality of life may be enhanced. Classroom learning tasks should help to build and maintain comfortable relationships among classmates and teachers.
2 Work to understand 'quality of life' in the classroom before thinking about solving problems.
   In order to facilitate observation of, and reflection on, the team-learning environment, students and teachers can hold small group evaluation sessions by briefly interviewing each other at the mid- and end-points of lessons about their thoughts and feelings related to their learning experiences. These tasks are authentic language-learning activities that improve critical thinking and communicative ability.
3 Involve teachers and learners as practitioners developing their own modes of participation in team-learning tasks.
   Engagement of all of the students and teachers in team learning should be encouraged through flexible approaches to achieving learning goals

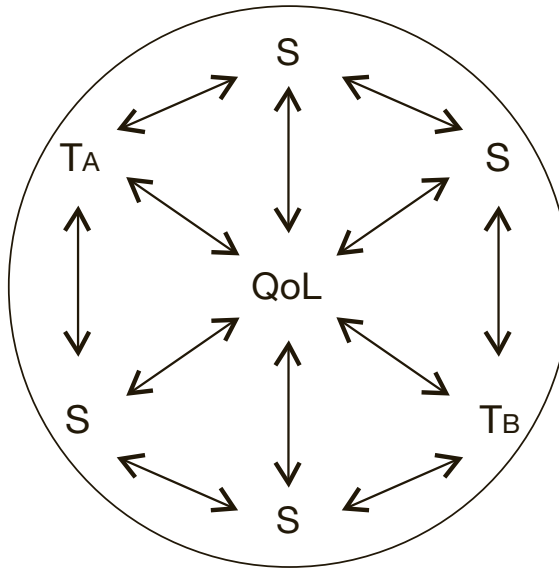

Figure 2.5 An example of value-centred team learning (with 'quality of life' as the value)

and evaluation practices that open up the classroom to a variety of understandings of how learning can be successfully achieved.

4 Work to bring people together in a common enterprise.
Students should have a voice in deciding what language-learning tasks will be the focus of some components of the lessons. A checklist of descriptions of productive collaboration among students and teachers, such as active listening behaviour and evidence of sharing information, can be used to guide team-learning collaboration.

5 Work cooperatively for mutual development.
Training students in the skills and the language of self-assessment and peer advising is a naturally authentic EP task that lends itself to a variety of team-learning applications. Progress towards learning targets should be measured in learning team groups as well as on an individual basis.

6 Make it a continuous sustainable enterprise.
A team-learning environment should generate a 'reflective culture' founded upon curiosity, which does not take learning aims, tasks and outcomes for granted. This means that teachers and students should be constantly questioning whether their learning aims are valid, whether the learning tasks are suited towards those aims and appropriate for their team and individual learning styles and what kinds of outcomes are being achieved.

7 Minimise the burden by integrating the work for understanding into normal pedagogic practice.
The aim of team learning is to accept the constraints of the curriculum (e.g. preparation for entrance examinations) by working towards course goals in ways that also allow students and teachers to focus on 'quality of life' in their classroom.

The application of EP principles to team-learning practices depends upon a constructive use of reflective and analytical observation skills that allow teachers and students to vary the ways in which they carry out learning tasks. Students and teachers will benefit if they are able to develop a capacity to perceive whether their learning behaviours work towards the achievement of their learning aims, or whether their intentions and actions are at cross purposes.

In his address at the Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (KOTESOL) International Conference in 2013, Dr. Dick Allwright provided a practical example of an EP classroom task conducted at a school in Brazil. By encouraging a class of admitted 'problem students' to describe their roles as learners, through completing sentences such as 'a student should . . . or a student must . . .', the students realised that they also had a role in forming a pleasant class. Through hearing student responses, the teacher herself realised that she hadn't been properly listening to the students, preventing the development of a constructive learning environment. According to the teacher, this activity allowed the class to truly become a team, and it improved their lives in the classroom (Allwright, 2013).

In the same address Allwright talked to teachers about the benefits of putting 'practice' first so that theory originates in practice and not the other way around: 'Our practice itself can be . . . an indefinitely sustainable way . . . for classroom language teachers and learners, . . . while getting on with their learning and teaching, to develop their own understandings of life in the language classroom' (Allwright, 2013).

In the same way, the practice of team learning can be a sustainable way to promote improvements in language learning through the growth of better understandings by teachers and students of classroom teaching and learning processes. When teachers and students share the construction of their learning environment in a harmonious team-learning partnership, the full collaborative potential of team teaching may be realised.

Conclusion

From the perspective of the communicative relationships among team members, we have reinterpreted the team-learning patterns offered by Tajino and Tajino (2000), and proposed a model, called the value-centred team-learning model, which would serve to enhance team learning in the language

classroom. This new model of team learning is centred on the creation of a learning environment in which all of the participants in the classroom, teachers and students, share a core value that places priority on collaboration in ways that enhance 'quality of life' in the classroom.

The possibilities of team-teaching initiatives have been poorly understood, and thus, team teaching has been underexploited as a source of innovation. The educational infrastructure used for conventional team-taught classes could also be used to explore the merits of team learning. In situations in which the creation of a heightened degree of collaboration among students and their teachers is unfamiliar, training workshops will be beneficial in helping team-learning members to act in the classroom according to their individual strengths and weaknesses as they relate to individual and whole-class learning goals.

The potential contributions that team learning can make towards language education have been introduced in this chapter, and will be investigated further in the following chapters in this volume. The value-centred team-learning model, while proposed here as a solution to persistently problematic issues in team teaching, may also be creatively applied to solo-teacher language classrooms, as well as to practices in other subject areas that place an emphasis on active classroom learning.

The vivid metaphor which asks us to imagine ourselves as musicians (Tajino and Tajino, 2000) memorably depicts what we are capable of doing in our classrooms. In collaboration, co-teachers go beyond a set of solo performances to compose duets, which enrich the environment for audiences of students. By exploring team learning further, teachers and students become members of an orchestra, as together they create the harmonious sounds of learning.

Acknowledgements

The authors wish to thank Oxford University Press for granting permission for the use of Figure 2.1 from Tajino and Tajino (2000, p. 7).

Notes

1 It should be noted that team learning may also have practical applications at the tertiary level in English for specific purposes (ESP) courses and also in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) contexts (for details about ESP, see Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998; for CLIL, Rehorick and Rehorick in this volume). In such cases, the students may have more subject- or content-area knowledge than the language specialist teacher, and thus, students may take on the role of teachers to share that knowledge with the teacher. In some cases, the students may also have more language skills than the content specialist teacher, and so they may perform the same function in reverse, as part of a team with the language specialist.

2 In this view, team learning may not be restricted to team-taught lessons, but can be applied to solo-teacher lessons (see Chapter 3 in this volume).

3 Given that collaborative action research should be more empowering than individual-based action research (Burns, 1999), EP could have additional educational merits due to its views of classroom 'research as a *social enterprise* and a *collegial process*, leading to *mutual development*' (Perpignan, 2003, p. 264, emphasis in original).

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Section 2

Team teaching collaborations

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3 A sociocultural analysis of effective team teaching in a Japanese language classroom

Tatsuhiro Yoshida

The purpose of this chapter is to analyse a team-taught English lesson at a Japanese junior high school and demonstrate the ways in which a Japanese teacher of English (JTE), a native English teacher and the students collaborated with each other in the classroom. After briefly overviewing the history of team-teaching practice in Japan, I attempt to elaborate the concept of 'team learning' described by Tajino and Tajino (2000) from a sociocultural perspective. Then, I examine a video-recorded team-taught lesson using conversation analysis and illustrate the ways in which the teachers tried to activate students' explicit knowledge of English grammar (i.e. third person '-s') by engaging them in a meaningful activity. The moment-by-moment analysis of the team learning further reveals that the collaboration among the participants in the classroom is socioculturally constructed, involving teachers' scaffolding and students' contribution to the activity within a co-constructed zone of proximal development (ZPD).

The historical background of team teaching in Japan

Team-taught English lessons practically started in Japanese public schools in 1987, when native English speakers were recruited through the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Programme and placed in classrooms as assistant language teachers (ALTs). The JET Programme is administered by the Council of Local Authorities for International Relations (CLAIR), jointly with the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (MIC), Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA), and Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT). Since the programme's inception, more than 60,000 candidates from 63 countries have been invited to participate (CLAIR, 2014). As the name suggests, teachers employed through the JET Programme are supposed to assist with classes led by JTEs. The handbook for ALTs published by CLAIR describes their role as follows:

> Work together to build a comfortable repartee and cooperative structure in order to provide a supportive environment for English communication and serve as a living example of productive international interaction to

> your students. In general, you will be the T2 (assistant teacher), meaning the JTE will serve on point as the lead and you will provide the necessary support.
>
> (CLAIR, 2013, p. 14)

MEXT recently announced an educational reform in language teaching called the 'English Education Reform Plan Corresponding to Globalisation' (MEXT, 2014). Under this reform, it plans to increase the scale of team-taught lessons at the elementary and secondary levels, and more ALTs will be employed, not only through the JET programme, but also through several other routes, including private sectors. The expansion of team-taught lessons is necessary mostly because the reform calls for an earlier start to English language teaching at the elementary school level. Currently, English lessons begin in the fifth grade, but they will be offered starting in the third grade with the new reform plan. To facilitate this change, ALTs will be placed at every elementary school (approximately 20,000 schools in the nation). A new curriculum based on the reform is expected to be implemented in 2020, the same year that the Tokyo Olympics are to be held.

While the administrators are accelerating the educational reform and expanding the scale of team-taught lessons in the name of 'globalisation', researchers in the area of language teaching continue to debate and explore the most effective styles of team teaching even 30 years after its introduction. I argue that it will be difficult to achieve the goals laid out in the reform plan without a deeper understanding of the ways in which two teachers work together and maximise students' learning opportunities in the language classroom.

Although a number of studies have explored effective team teaching in language classrooms over the last decade, much of the research employed questionnaire surveys and interviews to identify similarities and differences in JTEs' and ALTs' perceptions of their team-taught lessons (Butler, 2005; Carless, 2006; Collins, 2012; Gladman, 2015; Johannes, 2012), and only a relatively small number of studies actually explored and analysed the classroom interactions observed in team-taught lessons (cf. Aline and Hosoda, 2006; Carless and Walker, 2006). To better understand how teachers collaborate with each other during team-taught lessons, more research is needed to directly examine the interactions among participants in the classroom. In this regard, I would like to revisit Tajino and Walker (1998) and Tajino and Tajino (2000), which shifted our understanding of team teaching to the concept of team learning, and elaborate this concept based on the sociocultural theory of language learning.

Sociocultural view of team learning

Tajino and Tajino (2000) distinguished two types of team teaching observed in the classroom, namely, weak and strong forms. The weak version emerges

in lessons where each teacher plays a distinctive role, making use of his or her teaching strengths. The division of labour in team teaching has often been recommended in teacher training programmes. For example, the handbook for teachers published by MEXT (2001) clearly states,

> . . . when the division of team-teaching roles is unclear, not only the instructors, but also the students become uncomfortable, and activities do not proceed smoothly. Consequently, it is necessary for instructors to take time before class to thoroughly discuss lesson content and instruction procedures and make the role of each instructor clear.
>
> (p. 138)

Although the handbook is meant for elementary school teachers, the same strategy has been recommended to junior and high school teachers (see CLAIR (2013) cited above). However, depending too much on a division of labour may spoil the dynamics of the interplay between the two teachers and lead to teaching that amounts to just a sum of the two teachers. At worst, 'there is no strong justification (other than the law) for the necessity of the presence of two teachers in the same classroom at the same time' (Tajino and Tajino, 2000, p. 6). Since teachers are obliged to ensure their responsibility and accountability in teaching, it is understandable that they often ask questions like, 'In what percentage of a team-taught lesson should I take a leading role?' As this study later illustrates, however, a possible answer to this question is, 'It depends on the lesson objectives and how teachers respond to the moment-to-moment progress of the lesson'.

The other form of team-taught lesson, that is, the strong form as described by Tajino and Tajino (2000), is called 'team learning'. It is based on the premise that classroom interaction or meaning in classroom learning is co-constructed by all the participants in the classroom. Tajino and Tajino argued that 'team-learning encourages all the participants, teachers as well as students, to interact with one another by creating more opportunities for them to exchange ideas or cultural values and learn from other "team members"' (p. 6). In the classroom, where team learning takes place, 'the two teachers collaborate to produce "XY", not just "X+Y"' (p. 9) together with students. In the reconceptualisation of team learning presented in this chapter, I further add 'students' to this formula to create 'XYSn', where 'Sn' represents *n* number of students in the classroom and it indicates the complex nature of the team learning lessons.

I argue that this reconceptualisation from team teaching to team learning is strongly supported by the recent development of the sociocultural theory of language learning (e.g., Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf and Poehner, 2014; Lantolf and Thorne, 2006). Sociocultural theory generally assumes 'all higher mental functions are internalised social relationships' (Vygotsky, 1981, p. 164). That is, human cognition including thinking, understanding and learning develops through social interactions among people in a meaningful context. The

development of one's higher order mental functions is mediated by other people and cultural artefacts, such as physical and symbolic tools, among which language is the most powerful one.

Given the social nature of human development, recent sociocultural approaches to language learning also assume that collaboration is a powerful concept as well as a method of classroom language learning (e.g. Donato, 2004; Poehner, 2009). In his review of the previous research on collaboration, Donato (2004) stated:

> Sociocultural theory maintains that learning and development emerge and are shaped by the social, cultural, and historical contexts in which individuals engage in meaningful and purposeful joint activity. Moreover, within sociocultural theory, activity is dynamic and not imposed externally on participants.
>
> (pp. 295–296)

The term 'activity' used in the above quote is not used in the everyday sense of 'doing something'. Rather, it refers to a human action that is constrained or facilitated by the rules, culture or material conditions surrounding the actor. When this notion is applied to language lessons, an activity is understood as being oriented by its goal and the students' motives for achieving the goal. However, the relationship between the activity and its outcome is not unidirectional but dialectic; the outcome of the activity, which is often interpreted as the result of the actor's engagement in it, conversely shapes the rules and other institutional factors, and a new goal of activity may emerge, which will be further pursued by the actor with a different motive.

One purpose of the present chapter is to propose that the sociocultural view of collaboration in the classroom enables us to elaborate the concept of team learning (Tajino and Tajino, 2000). From a sociocultural perspective, for example, the patterns of team teaching presented by Tajino and Tajino (2000) emerge as the classroom discourse is shaped by the lesson objectives (see Chapter 2). In addition, the dynamics in an activity, although partly determined by the teachers' agenda, simultaneously shape the outcome of the activity and, further, the form of interaction in the activity. Moreover, the presence of two teachers in the classroom makes the classroom interaction more complex and requires the teachers to be more sensitive to the ongoing interplay among the participants so that they can maximize students' learning opportunities and facilitate negotiated interaction (Kumaravadivelu, 2004).

To demonstrate how sociocultural theory supports the idea of team learning, I analyse an activity that was conducted in a team-taught English lesson at a junior high school in Japan. My intent in presenting this case is to show that when a JTE and an ALT work jointly in a purposefully designed activity and incorporate what emerges among the team members into the language activity, even grammar teaching can become a very good opportunity for team learning.

Background of the lesson

The data for this study were collected from a lesson at a junior high school in October 2014. It was a small school located in a rural area in the western part of Japan. The data presented here are part of a larger classroom research project that I had conducted at the school. The 50-minute lesson was team-taught by a JTE and an ALT. The JTE, Miyuki (pseudonym), was a female teacher with 20 years of experience teaching English at junior high schools. She had completed her master's degree in teaching two years before the research. Since then, we have been cooperating and she has allowed me to observe and record her lessons for analyses.

The ALT, Steve (pseudonym), was an American, who was 29 years old. He had come to Japan for the first time two months before the lesson was taught and was placed at the school through the JET Programme. He had graduated from a four-year college but did not have an educational background as a language teacher. However, he was interested in teaching and had worked as an assistant at a kindergarten in Taiwan before coming to Japan.

Miyuki and Steve taught 24 seventh grade students. The students took English lessons four times a week, and one of the lessons was always team-taught by Miyuki and Steve. Miyuki spoke English most of the time during the lessons whether they were team-taught or taught by her alone, and the students were seemingly accustomed to her teaching style, as they participated enthusiastically in the team-taught lessons.

To provide a better understanding of the lesson to be analysed in this chapter, I explain below how the students had studied English since elementary school and the language item, which was targeted in the lesson.

The students began learning English when they were fifth graders in elementary school. Elementary school English lessons are called Foreign Language Activities (FLA), and they are generally taught once a week by a homeroom teacher alone or with an ALT. The overall objective of FLA is stated in the course of study as follows:

> To form the foundation of pupils' communication abilities through foreign languages while developing their understanding of languages and cultures through various experiences, fostering a positive attitude toward communication, and familiarising pupils with the sounds and basic expressions of foreign languages.
>
> (MEXT, 2010)

The objective above clearly indicates that FLA focuses on learning the communicative functions of language through speaking and listening in a meaningful context. Most of the topics treated in FLA are those familiar to the students (e.g. directions, shopping, school schedule, daily routine) and the dialogues students learn in the lessons are constructed based on the

'I and you' relationship. For example, the students ask each other about their favourite colours, shapes, and animals: 'What colour do you like?' 'I like red'. However, they do not talk about anyone else's favourite colours, shapes or animals, as in 'Ken likes green, rectangles and cats'. In other words, the third person form (i.e. he, she) is not learned until junior high school.

It is typical in English lessons at the junior high school that a grammatical point, such as the third person in present '-s', is explicitly presented to the students, and they practice the form by substituting the subject of the sentence and its verb form from the first to the third until they feel comfortable to use it. Yet the lack of '-s' suffix in the verbs (e.g. He like cats) is persistently observed in their production until later stages of their English learning. This is partly due to a negative influence of their first language. Verbs in Japanese are not morphologically inflected for person or number. In addition, the lack of '-s' often found in the students' utterances does not hinder their intelligibility because of its functional redundancy. Thus, third person '–s' is inherently easy to learn as explicit knowledge but difficult to acquire as implicit knowledge, which involves more the learners' unconscious awareness (Ellis, 2006).

In order to resolve this issue in learning English morphology, Miyuki presented an activity that required the students to activate their explicit knowledge of the third person in present tense and utilise '-s' in a meaningful context. In the previous lesson, she explicitly presented third person '-s' and in the lesson to be analysed in this chapter, she designed the activity to take full advantage of Steve's presence, as the students were required to transmit a message from her to him by changing the person of the verb, and vice versa.

Method of analysis

The 50-minute lesson was video-recorded and later transcribed for conversation analysis (CA). CA, originated in ethnomethodology and sociology, is a method of analysing social interactions in everyday lives or institutional settings such as hospitals, courts and classrooms. It examines both verbal and non-verbal behaviours of the participants in particular settings with a microscopic view and reveals the ways in which their talk shapes and is shaped by the social and institutional factors surrounding them (Seedhouse, 2013). Therefore, CA does not treat language as an autonomous system. Rather, it treats 'grammar and lexical choices as sets of resources which participants deploy, monitor, interpret and manipulate' (Schegloff, Koshik, Jacoby, and Olsher, 2002, p. 15) in order to perform their social acts, namely teaching and learning (Seedhouse, 2006). CA also takes an emic perspective towards the interaction to be analysed. An emic perspective means 'the participants' perspective within the interactional environment in which the talk occurs' and aims to 'determine which elements of context are relevant to the interactants at any point in the interaction' (Seedhouse, 2006, p. 3).

In the remaining sections, I will pursue the following issues to meet the purpose of the present chapter. First, by employing a CA approach, I will demonstrate the ways in which team learning takes place during the interplay between the teachers and the students and 'encourages both learning and the management of learning on the part of all of the participants' (Tajino and Walker, 1998, p. 126). Second, based on the moment-by-moment analysis of interaction, I will provide a sociocultural account for the team learning interaction, which shapes and is shaped by the participation of the teachers and the students in the activity. I will in particular focus on how the ZPD is collectively created among the participants during the language activity.

Analysis

An imaginary wall between the teachers

Miyuki began the activity by explaining its rules (Excerpt 1, Lines 1–4), saying that she and Steve were not able to talk directly with each other because an imaginary wall stood between them. She pantomimed the wall (Figure 3.1) and asked the students to mediate the conversation between the two teachers. One of the students (S2) said the conversation sounded like the one that might take place inside a prison (Line 32). This indicates that

Figure 3.1 The Japanese teacher of English (JTE) asks students to imagine a wall between the two teachers

the students were ready to join the imaginary context and play the role of mediators between the two teachers.

Excerpt 1

1	J:	((stands in front of the blackboard)) Okay. Do *you*
2		remember an activity that (1.0) you, when I'm say
3		something you tell *him* and he says to *you* and you
4		tell *me* something. Do you remember that?
5	S1:	Shabette kocchi ga, shabette kocchi.
6		*You speak to us, and we speak to him.*
7	J:	Oboeteru =
8		*Remember that?*
9	S1:	(pointing to each teacher in turn)=Go on, go on,
10		go on, go on.=
11	J:	=Go on, go on, go on, go on.
12	A:	((raising his right hand to draw students'
13		attention)) I like sushi. ((throwing his arms
14		toward the students and then moving them toward
15		the JTE and asking the students to speak to her))
16		Please tell Ms. Miyuki.
17	SS:	((Turning to the JTE))He likes sushi.
18	A:	((ALT nods, feeling sure that students understood
19		the rule.))
20	J:	Very nice.
21		((pantomiming a wall between the ALT and herself))
22		It's a big wall here, (0.5) wa:ll.(.) Do you know
23		what a <u>wall</u> is?
24		(2.0)
25	S:	(incomprehensible)
26	A:	Wa:ll, what is a wall?
27	S1:	>Kabe<
28		>*Wall*<
29	J:	Yeah, a big wall here.((writing 'wall' on the
30		blackboard))
31		So [so I cannot talk.
32	S2:	[°keimusho no naka mitai°
33		*It's like inside the prison.*
34	S1:	ko mawattara iinchaun
35		*You can bypass it(=the wall), can't you?*
36	SS:	((laughing))
37	J:	Yeah. Okay. Okay, let's try.

One of the students (S1) recalled the activity they had practised the previous week and responded to the JTE (Lines 5–6, 9–10). Steve immediately

took his turn, presented an example of his utterance ('I like sushi' [Line 13]), and invited the students to convey it to Miyuki by changing the utterance from first to third person (Lines 15–16). The students turned away from Steve to Miyuki and relayed the message, saying, 'He likes sushi' (Line 17). Figure 3.2 summarises the relationship among the participants in the classroom and how the conversation was directed over the imaginary wall.

Interplay among the teachers and the students

In the following excerpt (Excerpt 2), the JTE and ALT began the activity and exchanged short messages by way of the students' mediation.

Excerpt 2

1	A:	Me first.
2	J:	>All right<
3	A:	All right, (0.5) um . . . (1.0) I (0.3) go to the
4		store.
5		(0.5)

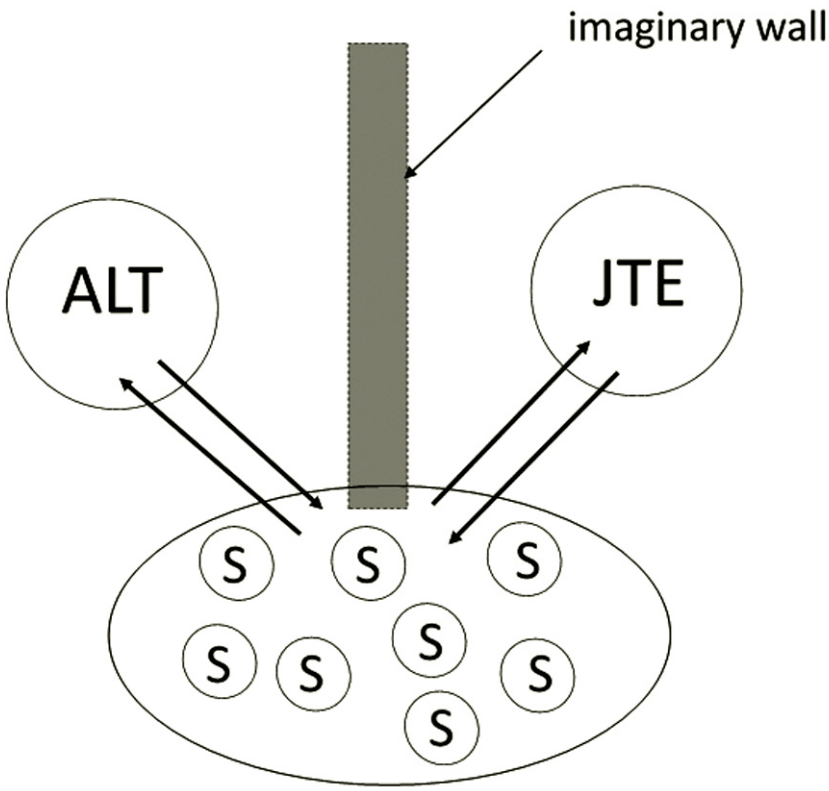

Figure 3.2 The flow of conversation in the activity

6 SS: He goes to . . . (overlapping)
7 A: To the . . .?=
8 S: =store
9 S: (school)
10 A: Schoo:l?
11 SS: (incomprehensible)
12 A: Store.
13 SS: Store.
14 A: Okay, again, I go to the store.
15 SS: He goes to the store.
→16 (1.1)
17 S3: Go, goes, goes =
18 SS: =to . . . the store=
19 J: =Oh, He goes to the store. (1.1) Why?
20 (0.5)°Nande°↑ (wondering, putting her hands up)
→21 (1.8)(The ALT is beckoning students with his
22 palms up)
23 S1: (Turning to ALT) Nandette?
24 *She said why.*
25 SS: hahh hahh hahh
26 SS: (Turning to the ALT in chorus) Why?
27 A: <I want to buy food>.
28 SS: <He wantsuu:::>
29 A: He wants? . . .
30 He: (2.1) wants
31 J: ((JTE writes the word 'want' on the blackboard))
32 Wants
33 A: He (2.5) ((pointing to the sample sentence on
34 the
35 blackboard)) he . . .
36 SS: Wants . . .
37 A: To↑=
38 SS: =To:: . . .
39 (0.9)
40 S: Nante itta?
41 *What was it he said?*
42 S: Oboeteru?
43 *Remember that?*
→44 A: [Ah!
45 S: [Wasureta.
46 *I forgot it.*
47 A: I:: (0.6) I want food. °heh heh°
48 SS: ((Turning to ATE)) He wants food.=
49 J: =Oh, I see. Um . . . (1.4) *I* want a book.
50 SS: ((Turning to ALT)) She wants a book.

51 A: Ah, why?
52 (1.0)
53 SS: ((Turning to the JTE)) Why?
54 J: WHY? (2.3) I like reading.
55 SS: ((Turning to the ALT)) She likes reading.
56 A: Okay, 0.5 very good.

In responding to the ALT's statement 'I go to the store', the students were able to change the person from 'I' to 'he', but they were not confident enough to complete the sentence (Line 5). After the ALT helped them, they were able to say the whole sentence. However, one student (S3), who was not confident, repeated the verb a few times (Line 16), and the rest of the students followed him and completed the sentence. Miyuki immediately recast the sentence, placing stress on 'goes', and asked the students 'Why?', adding the Japanese translation *Nande*, meaning 'Why?'. S1, answering the question, turned to the ALT and directly repeated the Japanese word *Nandette* (Line 21). The particle *-tte* attached to *Nande* represents a reported speech (i.e. 'She said why'). The way S1 used the reported form in Japanese sounded funny probably because it was said to Steve so smoothly and naturally in the sense of turn taking, although it violated the activity rule. This made the rest of the students laugh (Line 23).

In answering the question 'Why?' from Miyuki, Steve replied, 'I want to buy food', and the students tried to change the person from 'I want' to 'he wants', which they did successfully (Line 27). However, they hesitated to continue the rest of the sentence. Steve helped them by pointing to the model sentence written on the blackboard (Lines 31–32) and began to have them repeat the sentence word for word after him, but the students failed to recall the original sentence (Lines 37–40). Steve gave up having them say 'He wants to buy food' and instead shortened his answer to 'I want food' (Line 44). The students were able to change this sentence to 'He wants food'.

The students struggled with the previous sentence because they had not learned the syntactic structure 'verb + *to*-infinitive', which they are supposed to learn as eighth graders. Steve presented a simplified sentence ('I want food' in Line 44) probably because he noticed the students' lack of knowledge of the structure. As I argue later in more detail, teachers need to have sensitivity to their students' current proficiency level by observing their actual performance and, based on that assessment, provide learners with assistance appropriate for the development of their proficiency.

Breaking the routinisation of the activity

Excerpt 3

1 J: Oh, he doesn't like music. Mmm, I like soccer.
2 S: He . . .
3 SS: She likes soccer.

4 S: She . . .
5 SS: hahh <She likes>, she likes soccer.=
6 A: =Ah, I *love* soccer.
7 (1.0)
8 SS: He loves soccer.
9 J: Oh! He *loves* soccer. Okay. Um (0.5) Please ask
→10 him, 'Does he play soccer?'
11 (1.0)
12 S: Does he . . .?
13 SS: hahh hahh
14 S: Do . . .
15 J: Do you . . . =
16 SS: =Do you play (soccer)?
→17 A: No, I don't. I watch(0.9)soccer.
18 SS: No=
19 J: =No=
20 SS: =[he doesn't.
J: [he doesn't.
21 S: <He plays> . . .
22 SS: hahh hahh. <He watches>= . . .
23 A: =Watches . . .
24 S: TV . . .
25 A: TV↑
26 SS: hahh hahh
27 A: I watch what? "He watches"
28 SS: Soccer.
29 A: Okay.

As the students became more confident about the use of verb forms, the activity gradually became routinised (Excerpt 3). The JTE Miyuki, attempting to break the routine, presented an interrogative sentence, 'Does he play soccer?' (Lines 9–10). One of the students addressed it to Steve, simply repeating the sentence, but the other students immediately noticed it was not a correct form to use to address the ALT. Another student then began a new sentence with 'Do . . .', and the JTE shadowed him, saying, 'Do you . . .' (Line 15), which helped other students say the whole sentence in chorus (Line 16). After this, a couple of students mistakenly said 'play soccer' instead of 'watch soccer' and 'watch TV' instead of 'watch soccer', which provoked laughter from the class.

Excerpt 4

1 J: Um . . . how about (1.2) <I study English very hard>.
2 SS: She studies English very much.
3 J: Very much? ↑

4 SS: Very hard.
→5 A: Very good. ((moving his hands to the students))
6 Do *you* study English very hard?
7 S1: Yes, I do.
8 SS: hahh hahh
9 J: Oh, yes. S1 studies English very hard.=
10 S1: =Yes.
11 J: Yeah. He studies very hard. Okay.
12 (1.0)
13 A: I study Japanese, >°I don't know about very
14 hard°<, but I study Japanese.
15 SS: He studies Japanese.
→16 J: Oh, I see. Is (0.4) is Japanese difficult?
17 (1.3)
18 S: That
19 A: Is . . .
20 S: (Is Japanese difficult?)
21 (4.4)
22 A: . . . same thing . . . Is
23 J: 'is' wa tsuyoi kara kawaranakute iine.
24 *'Is' is strong. So it does not have to be*
25 *changed.*
26 Is Japanese difficult?
27 SS: Is Japanese difficult?
28 A: Yes, it is.
29 SS: Yes, he does. Janakute.
30 *Yes, he does. No, it's wrong.*
31 J: Yes . . .
32 S: Yes, he . . .
33 J: He . . .
34 A: Is Japanese difficult? Yes, IT (0.6) IS.
35 (4.0)
36 SS: Yes, he is difficult.
→37 A: He is – I am difficult?
38 Yes, he is difficult.=
39 J: =Ima nihongo no hanashi shiteiru desho.
40 *We are talking about 'Japanese'.*
41 Nihongotte kare kajo ni wakareru?
42 *Does 'Japanese' become 'he' or 'she'?*
43 (1.4)
44 Nihongo wa. 'It . . .'
45 *'Japanese' should be 'It . . .'*
46 (0.8)
47 S: Is . . .
48 (1.0)

49 J: . . . so [yes it is
50 SS: [yes it is.

In Excerpt 4, the teachers gave more challenging messages by altering the subjects of the sentences. Steve directly addressed his message to the students saying, 'Do you study English very hard?' S1 responded without delay and correctly said, 'Yes, I do' (Line 7). Miyuki immediately intervened in the conversation with the comment, 'S1 studies very hard' (Lines 9–11). The response by S1 indicates that he did not mechanically convert the sentences, but he was trying to understand to whom the utterances were addressed.

Miyuki then asked another question, 'Is Japanese difficult?' (Line 16), which was a little confusing to the students because it did not contain a personal pronoun. Although one student correctly uttered 'Is Japanese difficult?' in a very small voice, it was not heard by the teachers or other students (Line 20). Watching the students struggle, Miyuki instructed them that the sentence could be used without changing any parts, and finally, she presented the correct sentence (Lines 23–25). When the students repeated the sentence and Steve answered 'Yes, it is' (Line 28), the students were again confused in sending the message back to Miyuki. One of the students mistakenly said, 'Yes, he does', although he quickly noticed it was not correct. Steve amused the students by countering, 'I am difficult?' (Line 37). Miyuki added a further explanation of the person and gender system in English, reminding them that a noun such as 'Japanese' is gender neutral and thus cannot become 'he' or 'she', meaning that the 'is' stays as it is (Lines 39–45).

As observed above, the teachers jointly tried to make the exchange a little challenging for the students. Without this adjustment, the activity could become routinised and might diminish the interest of students if continued as a mechanical grammar drill. Of particular interest is the students' active response to the teachers' challenge. Here, the teachers and students jointly created a ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978), where the teachers mediated students' language development and the students also contributed to the creation of the zone (Lantolf and Poehner, 2011; Poehner, 2008). I will discuss the significance of ZPD to the facilitation of team learning in the following section.

Discussion and conclusion

In the activity, the teachers established an imaginary context, taking full advantage of the presence of the two teachers in the classroom. Although the activity focused on activating students' explicit knowledge of English grammar (i.e. third person singular verb form in the present tense), the two teachers ensured that it did not remain as a mere mechanical grammar exercise but enabled and enticed the students to engage in the task in a meaningful way. Next, I discuss the findings of the analysis.

First, I argue that the activity in the lesson nicely demonstrated a combination of the team-learning patterns, which were presented by Tajino and Tajino (2000) (also see Chapter 2, this volume). More specifically, Patterns B and C emerged in the activity in an interchangeable manner. Tajino and Tajino (2000) explained, 'Pattern B, with the team of "the non-NEST [non-native-English-speaking teacher] and the students", can give the students time to decide on a topic and prepare for it' (p. 8) and 'Pattern C demonstrates a situation where the NEST [=native-English-speaking teacher] and the students work together as a team . . . [The] students and the NEST could help each other as members of the same team' (p. 8). The combination of the two patterns observed in the lesson probably embodies slightly more complex interactions among the participants than the case where only one pattern appears (see Figure 3.3). In this activity, the students played roles of transmitting the messages between the JTE and the ALT. In transmitting the messages from one teacher to the other, they learned how to change the person and gender of verbs and simultaneously they learned that they needed to shift their viewpoints from the 'I – you' to 'I – you – he/she' relationships. They may have begun to realise how shifting speaker's viewpoints affect the forms of language, which I assume is necessary to elaborate their explicit knowledge of third person '-s' as well as their understanding of the relationship between its form and use; that is when and why it is used (Larsen-Freeman, 2003).

Second, as the students increased their confidence about the use of the form and the activity in turn became partially routinised, the teachers gave a

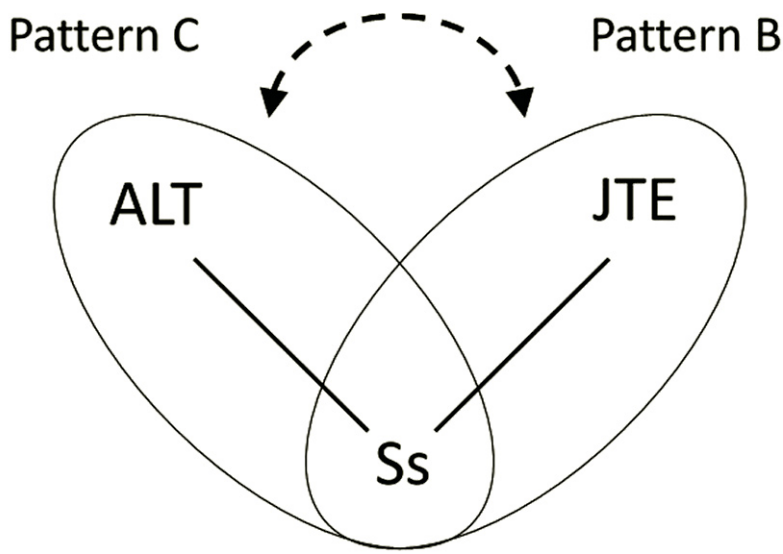

Figure 3.3 A combination of two team-learning patterns

slightly different level of challenge to the students ('Does he like soccer?', 'Do YOU study English hard?', 'Is Japanese difficult?'), which confused them. However, this sort of 'designed' confusion or challenge provided by teachers helps the learners reorganise their previously acquired explicit knowledge and leads to the development of their implicit knowledge.

From the viewpoint of sociocultural theory, it is observed that pedagogical scaffolding (van Lier, 2004) emerged in the interplay between the teachers and the students. While continuity and coherence were maintained in the activity, the teachers gradually provided slightly more difficult prompts, which were contingent upon the students' action. Also, '[feeling] safe, trusted, and 'in tune,' students engage in collaborative action that makes them want to work together toward a common goal' (Walqui and van Lier, 2010, p. 34).

I further argue that such interaction between the teachers and students can be seen to have the potential to create a ZPD in the classroom. The ZPD is defined as

> the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.
>
> (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86)

Thus, the teachers' deliberate adjustment of the challenge to the students' responses is considered as guidance provided in the ZPD. This interpretation conforms to an interpretation of ZPD commonly made by researchers following the Vygotskian theory of human development, which confines ZPD to a dyadic relationship between a novice and an expert or an adult, who provides assistance to the novice. However, as Holzman (2009) argued, this interpretation fails to recognise another important aspect of ZPD, which Vygotsky emphasised with the phrase 'in collaboration with more capable peers'. 'Peers', the plural form, implies that ZPD is collective in nature, and its establishment is not necessarily reduced to the relationship between a learner and an expert (i.e. a teacher). As observed in the data, the students cooperated with each other by helping a student complete his utterance (e.g. Excerpt 2, Lines 16 and 17) and transmitted messages to the teachers in chorus. Without their active contributions to the activity, the teachers would not have been able to provide more challenging prompts and simultaneously co-construct the ZPD with them.

The collective nature of ZPD resonates in some way with the idea of team learning, which aims to 'give students more opportunities to involve themselves in authentic language use' (Tajino and Tajino, 2000, p. 6). In this regard, Poehner (2009) reappraised the teachers' role, stating:

> Teachers take the leading role not because they can simply transform groups of learners into collectives. Rather, by engaging learners in tasks

> that are challenging to all and providing support to benefit all, teachers may foster a more cohesive orientation to classroom activities on the part of students, an orientation in which learners share a common goal of solving the problems at hand and appreciate the contributions of others for the realisation of both this common goal as well as more individualistic goals, such as demonstrating proficiency to earn grades. (pp. 476–477)

The quote above clearly explains the ways in which the two teachers in this study jointly worked together with the students by providing them with guidance and challenges, which were contingent to the ongoing process of the activity.

Third, these observations above were made possible because the interaction in the activity was examined moment-by-moment with a CA approach. As demonstrated in the analysis, 'pedagogy and interaction are intertwined in a mutually dependent relationship' (Seedhouse, 2013, p. 2). Since the main point of the activity in the present study was to enable the students to use a certain point of English grammar, the interaction pattern was relatively fixed; in other words, it was rule-bound. Thus, it was difficult to say that the students were engaged in a genuinely communicative activity. Nonetheless, the microanalysis of the interaction revealed what actually took place in the team-learning lesson and demonstrated how the teachers and students collaboratively created a learning opportunity.

In concluding this chapter, I would like to mention some issues for future research on team learning. First, since this study examined only a part of a lesson, it is necessary to conduct a longitudinal study to observe the development of team learning in the classroom. It will be interesting to examine how the interplay between teachers and students changes as the students' proficiency increases. In addition, a comparison of the interaction in team-taught lessons with lessons taught by a JTE alone will further illuminate interesting aspects of team learning. Given that team learning is understood as collaboration among all the classroom participants, as claimed by Tajino and Tajino (2000), it is possible to view solo teaching as located on a continuum of team-learning lessons in which the JTE and students collaborate. Finally, as I argued in the beginning of this chapter, given that MEXT is planning to implement the reform plan and promote the expansion of team-taught lessons throughout the nation, it is imperative for researchers and teachers to deepen their understanding of how collaboration in team learning is shaped by lesson objectives and how it simultaneously shapes students' contributions to the lesson. For this, microanalyses of classroom conversations may provide teachers with insights into lessons involving team learning (Walsh, 2013). Without incorporating such research findings into the practice of team teaching, it would be difficult for the top-down educational reform to facilitate fruitful pedagogy in the language classroom.

Acknowledgement

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Appendix

The notation of the conversation analysis in the present study follows the Jefferson system (see Antaki, 2011; For further details, see Schegloff, 2007).

(.)	Just noticeable pause
(.3), (2.6)	Examples of timed pauses
↑word, ↓word	Onset of noticeable pitch rise or fall (can be difficult to use reliably)
A: word [word B: [word	Square brackets aligned across adjacent lines denote the start of overlapping talk. Some transcribers also use "]" brackets to show where the overlap stops
.hh, hh in-breath	in-breath (note the preceding full stop) and out-breath respectively
wo:rd	Colons show that the speaker has stretched the preceding sound
(words)	A guess at what might have been said if unclear
( )	Unclear talk
A: word= B: =word	The equals sign shows that there is no discernable pause between two speakers' turns or, if out between two sounds within a single speaker's turn, shows that they run together
word, WORD	Underlined sounds are louder, capitals louder still
°word°	Material between 'degree signs' is quiet
>word word<	Inwards arrows show faster speech
<word word>	Outwards arrows show slower speech
wor-	A dash shows a sharp cut-off
→	Analyst's signal of a significant line
((sniff))	Transcriber's effort at representing something hard, or impossible, to write phonetically

J	Japanese Teacher of English (Miyuki)
A	Assistant Language Teacher (Steve)
S	Student (unidentified who he/she was)
S1	Student identified as '1'
SS	Several student or the whole class

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4 Collaboration between English language and content teachers

Breaking the boundaries

Chris Davison

In English language teaching (ELT), the number of content-based language teaching, bilingual education, and language immersion programmes worldwide continues to rise. In this context, it is important to recognise that simply immersing English as second or foreign language students in English content classrooms is not adequate for their language or cognitive and academic development (Gibbons, 2009; Mohan, Leung, and Davison, 2001; Walqui and Van Lier, 2010). One reason is that learning to use English for academic purposes requires much more time, scaffolding and support than is the case for conversational or social English (Cummins, 2000). Another reason for this is that the language demands of 'content' classrooms become increasingly more complex, abstract and varied as students advance in school (Brinton and Master, 1997; Mohan *et al.*, 2001; Mohan and Low, 1995). Research shows that language development and content learning can be developed concurrently, but only when there are clear and comprehensive school-level policies, support structures, systematic planning, intervention and assessment and appropriate professional development to support the work of both the content-area and English-language specialists (Hurst and Davison, 2005). Placing students in English-medium mainstream classes is often beneficial, but not necessarily sufficient to provide optimal language learning opportunities, hence there is a 'critical need for collaboration across disciplines (especially by language and content specialists)' (Crandall and Kaufman, 2002, p. 1).

Drawing on questionnaire and interview data, this chapter presents the findings of research into collaboration between secondary EFL and content teachers as part of K-12 professional development initiatives in three culturally and linguistically diverse English-medium schools in Hong Kong. The chapter compares each school's approach to language and content integration using a multidimensional framework to describe and evaluate stages of collaboration and levels of effectiveness (Davison, 2006). The implications for evaluating collaboration and for professional development and institutional change are also explored.

The need for collaboration

The development of greater alignment and collaboration between the teaching of English as a second or additional language (ESL/EAL) and the other content-areas and disciplines in schools has been promoted by the English-language teaching profession for many years (Creese, 2002; Davison, 2006; Dove and Honigsfeld, 2010; Gibbons, 2009; Peercy and Martin-Beltran, 2011). English-medium schools around the world have now adopted some form of partnership or collaborative teaching to enhance the integration of EAL students into the mainstream. For example, in the United Kingdom and Australia, in response to state government policy emphasising inclusion and student needs, a major thrust of ESL programmes is support for team teaching in mainstream classrooms (Davison, 2001; Leung and Creese, 2008; Rushton, 2008). In Hong Kong awareness of the need to address these issues has been reflected in government-sponsored initiatives such as 'Improving Language and Learning in Public Sector Schools' and 'Ensuring Enhancement of English Language across the Curriculum through Professional Teacher Development'. These projects demonstrate the importance of fostering classroom practices in which English language teachers and content teachers share an understanding of language development and collaborate to ensure successful learning and teaching outcomes. Increasingly, such collaborative models are also being widely promoted in international schools (Hurst and Davison, 2005), as well as in the tertiary sector (Stoller, 2008).

The rise of such collaborative teaching models has been supported by a small but growing number of in-service education initiatives and research studies in this area (Bourne and McPake, 1991; Coady, Harper, and De Jong, 2015; Martin-Beltran and Peercy, 2012, 2014; Stewart, Sagliano, and Sagliano, 2002). One very influential Australian in-service programme, widely used in many countries, including Hong Kong, is the 'ESL in the Mainstream' course (Education Department of South Australia, 1991). The course aims

> [t]o develop teacher's understandings of the language needs of (LOTE background) students and ways of meeting their needs, an awareness of materials and teaching approaches which take account of the diverse cultural backgrounds and experiences of students in all classes, to further develop the collaborative working relationships between classroom/subject teachers and ESL teachers in their schools and to increase teachers' awareness of the need for ESL programs.
>
> (pp. 3–4)

It is a 10-week course of 20–30 contact hours conducted by a teacher-tutor. This course is deliberately structured to ensure the commitment of the whole school to the in-service activity, including the active participation of

administrators, as well as ESL and content-area or generalist classroom teachers. However, the course deals mainly with second language acquisition, the need for an inclusive curriculum, and various strategies for teaching the four skills; the collaborative process of working across disciplinary boundaries is only one small component of one module. This gap is a potential problem for teachers who are left to sort out how to implement all the components collaboratively.

Barriers to effective collaboration

Research in the area of language and content integration reveals a number of barriers to effective collaboration between language and content teachers. First, research at the secondary school level shows that to achieve systematic integration of content-based English language teaching and language-conscious content teaching it is imperative to have a focus on curriculum development, not just methodology or materials (Davison and Williams, 2001; Hurst and Davison, 2005). However, incorporating language objectives into the disciplines is not easy. For example, in Hong Kong content specialists immersed in the discourse of their discipline find it difficult to identify the language demands of curriculum, let alone the language learning needs and opportunities (Lo, 2014; Walker, 2011), while English-language teachers feel that the content curriculum dominates at the expense of language development (Man, 2008; Trent, 2010).

Davison (2006) and Arkoudis (2006, 2007) have identified many of the tensions and misunderstandings that can occur in collaborative work due to different teaching philosophies and the dominance of subject content over language needs. This research builds on earlier work by Siskin (1994) and Hargreaves and Macmillan (1994) highlighting the sub-communities within each subject discipline, which play a critical role in shaping and supporting teachers' identities. Arkoudis argues that each community has distinct views about the canons of knowledge within the subject discipline, a sense of the importance of their discipline within the institution, and shared assumptions of what needs to be taught and when. This explains one of the main barriers to integrating language development into disciplinary areas in schools, that is, subject knowledge is viewed as belonging to the teachers in that discipline. Thus, most content specialists see teaching skills such as speaking or grammar as the work of English teachers, not their responsibility. Yet the entrenched nature of such assumptions about learning and teaching within subject disciplines is often underestimated in proposals for greater collaboration between English language teaching and the content areas.

Other significant barriers exist to the implementation of effective collaborative partnerships between content and English language teachers at the policy or school level. Administrators may, for example, be unclear as to what integration and collaboration mean in practice. This confusion can result in content and English language classes continuing to function

quite separately. For instance, if content-area teachers view their curriculum as a distinct domain, thus pushing responsibility for language development onto English teachers, the two teachers might only have minimal discussion of language-related problems within the subject area. In such situations, English teachers are usually not aware of the language demands of the content areas. There may also be a lack of alignment of the English and content curricula so that some areas of the English language are never developed, nor is learning in one area reinforced in the other.

For these reasons researchers highlight the necessity of an initial orientation for new team teachers and on-going professional learning to help them in their understanding of the dynamics of collaborative teaching (Stewart *et al.*, 2002). However, this raises the question of how educators know what they are aiming for – in other words, what does success look like?

A conceptual framework for describing effective collaboration between language and content teachers

Many models of stages of development have been explored in the literature to describe the variable nature of teacher development and expertise. Berliner (1986), one of the pioneers in this area, proposed a five-stage model for the development of teacher expertise, which combined teachers' observable instructional performances and underlying teacher cognition. The first two stages are characterised by deliberation in action and thinking, as well as by a reluctance to take full responsibility for actions. In contrast the third stage, competence, is marked by more deliberate and conscious actions and rational goals. The two highest stages, proficient and expert, are marked by increasing intuition, fluidity, and 'knowing-in action'. Berliner's research also showed that teachers develop at different rates and do not necessarily attain proficiency, let alone expertise.

Davison (2006), influenced by Berliner's model, and the work of Lave and Wenger (1991) on learning communities, as well as Halliday's (1985) view of language as a social resource for meaning-making, analysed the discourse of collaborating teachers to understand their key concerns. She identified the patterns in the concerns of more or less successful partnerships, in order to develop a multidimensional framework to describe and evaluate the different stages of collaboration between ESL and classroom teachers. The framework consists of five stages of increasing effectiveness in teacher collaboration. At the lowest level is pseudo-compliance or passive resistance where there is distinct preference for a return to the old style pull-out program and 'one teacher-one classroom'. The next level is compliance, exemplified by a generally positive attitude and expressions of good intent, with efforts made to implement collaborative roles and responsibilities, albeit with only limited understanding of the implications. The next stages are more positive, moving from accommodation, with its strong emphasis on practical implementation

to convergence (and some co-option of the other teacher's beliefs and practices) to creative co-construction where co-teaching is highly intuitive and creative, and the parameters of the partnership are very fluid (Berliner, 1986). Four distinct areas of teacher concern were identified as indicators of each stage, roughly grouped under the following categories: attitude, effort, achievements, and expectations of support.

In a case study of an international K-5 school in Asia, Davison (2006) found that partnership between ESL and classroom teachers was neither easy nor unproblematic. This was true even in a well-resourced school in which ESL student needs were seen as paramount and teachers appeared to have a relatively loose identification with their teaching areas. Teacher attitudes and effort also varied dramatically depending on the level of collaboration, with distinct stages, from survival self-concerns, where teachers struggled to adapt to routines and were reluctant to change, to a gradual awareness of the impact of collaboration on students, to a readiness to respond to feedback on teaching. This was also reflected in the teachers' perceptions of their achievements, with a clear move from teacher emphasis on relatively superficial strategies to a growing concern with curriculum. The nature of the institutional and professional development support expected also seemed be very different at different stages of collaboration, with preferences shifting from very concrete, externally constructed support to more internally directed activity as the collaborations were perceived to be more successful.

Perhaps not surprisingly, Davison (2006) also found that English language teachers were generally more positive than classroom teachers about collaboration. They did not demonstrate any overt resistance to partnership, but they were guarded in their responses to success. This might have been because they had higher expectations than the classroom teachers of the whole enterprise, or perhaps because they were still coming to terms with the more challenging shift in their role and responsibilities, and the consequent greater loss of ownership and control. As in Berliner's (1986) model of teacher development, despite a common starting point and common input, the partnerships appeared to develop at different speeds with only a few perceived as successful. The first two stages seemed characterised by deliberation in action and thinking, as well as by a reluctance to take full responsibility for actions. In contrast, the third stage, accommodation, was marked by more deliberate and conscious actions and rational goals. The two highest stages of collaboration were marked by increasing levels of intuition, fluidity and 'knowing-in action'. Perhaps surprisingly, there were no clear correlations with teacher demographic factors. Davison (2006), like Gardner (2006), found that two highly competent teachers did not necessarily make a successful partnership, suggesting that we need to look not just at teachers' own attitudes, ideologies and practices, but also at their professional and political context, to understand better why some collaborations work well and others do not.

This previous work provided the stimulus for this comparative study of collaborative partnerships in Hong Kong. I now describe the setting, informants and research design of the study.

Context, informants and methodological approach

The need for greater collaboration between English-language and content-area teachers in English-medium schools in Hong Kong is clearly recognised (Man, 2008; Trent, 2010). However, distinct and competing ideologies and discourses about English language learning and collaboration exert a powerful influence on teacher practices (Tsui, 2004). The Hong Kong context provides educational researchers with a rich lens through which to examine the ways collaborative approaches are shaped and constrained by the institutional, sociocultural and political practices of the society in which the teacher operates, and by the complex interactions between teachers and between teachers and learners

The context

Hong Kong, a special administrative region of the People's Republic of China since 1997, has an official policy of trilingualism (Putonghua, Cantonese and English) and bi-literacy (Chinese and English).[1] English-medium schooling is in the minority, limited by the government to the 60-plus international schools and about 25 per cent of local secondary schools in the city (Tsui, 2004). Although English and Cantonese[2] have always been the two main languages of instruction in local Hong Kong schools, the languages are not equal in status. English-medium schools have traditionally enrolled the children of the more elite members of the Cantonese-speaking community as well as those of more socially advantaged ethnic minorities (e.g. South Asian), English-speaking expatriates, and the children of the increasingly high number of returnees to Hong Kong, many of whom have completed their primary school in an English-speaking country.[3] The preoccupation with an English-medium education by parents at all levels of society reflects the continuing high status of English in Hong Kong, a community with particular sensitivity to 'the global techno-culture of which English appears to be the chief language' (Joseph, 2004, p. 151).

The schools

School A

School A is a very traditional large K-12 English-medium school established by Protestant missionaries in the early nineteenth century, now in the process of reinventing itself as an international school. It has adopted the International Baccalaureate (IB) alongside the local Hong Kong curriculum

in its senior secondary programme and is introducing the IB into the middle school. Although an English-medium school, almost all of its staff are Chinese-speaking local teachers, with only a couple of Australian-trained native English teachers (NETs). The school has participated in several Hong Kong government projects on language across the curriculum and a number of teachers had completed the 'ESL in the Mainstream' course run by the Education Bureau.

School B

School B has a similar size and was established in the 1970s as an English-medium school for the children of British expatriates, but is now much more diverse in its enrolment. It has over 1,400 students of many different nationalities aged 4–18 years. Over two-thirds of the students are ethnically Chinese, with many returnees, children of mixed marriages and about a third locally born Cantonese-speaking students, albeit from socioeconomically advantaged backgrounds. For most of its history the school had been strongly influenced by educational development in the United Kingdom, but recently replaced its GCE A and O levels with the IB in pursuit of a more international and competitive identity. However, school staff were still recruited predominantly from the United Kingdom and most of its professional development practice was derived from British models. About one-third of the teachers had done the international version of the 'ESL in the Mainstream' course.

School C

School C is an international school established in the early 1980s of a similar size with students from more than 50 different nationalities. The majority of the students were Chinese-speaking with strong links to the local American expatriate community, either returnees or locally born children of American passport holders. The teachers were even more diverse with many recruited from the United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand or other international schools in the region. They were highly qualified and generally very experienced working in EFL contexts. The curriculum adopted was American in origin, but with many local adaptations, and again at the senior level the IB is offered in tandem with an American-accredited curriculum. Teachers share joint responsibility for planning and evaluating the curriculum using a collaborative teaching model based on the work of Davison (2001, 2006), but many staff had also worked with collaborative teaching models in other international schools.

Data collection and analysis

The methodological approach to the study was primarily qualitative and interpretive, although a simple survey based on one developed at the

International School Bangkok (ISB) as part of its professional development activities[4] provided comparative quantitative data. Thirty volunteer teachers from the lower-secondary levels in each school were selected on the assumption that volunteers would give the best possible 'reading' of the schools' collaborative index, and that in the lower-secondary school (Forms 1–5) there would be fewer structural barriers to collaboration and less external pressures such as exams. As there were more content-area teachers (e.g. maths, science, social science) than English-language teachers, informants were drawn from across the three core content areas and from English language in a ratio that represented their actual numbers in the school. To make for easier comparisons between schools, the total number of teachers recruited per school was restricted to 30.

The teachers were given a one-page briefing note about the project and asked to complete the short questionnaire, including some demographic information. They were then asked to reflect on their score and to add any additional comments in an open-ended comment box following the questions. They were also asked to indicate if they were willing to participate in a follow-up interview. In addition to the questionnaire, the heads of all four departments were interviewed, i.e. ESL, maths, science and social science (or its equivalent, usually history and geography), as well as the curriculum coordinator or their equivalent in each school. The more specialist areas of the curriculum such as art, physical education, commerce, languages, music and so on were not included in the survey due to the small-scale and exploratory nature of the study and the fact that these areas are far less likely to have courses in which ESL and content-area teachers regularly collaborate. Language arts/mainstream English teachers were also specifically excluded in School B and C as their area of responsibility was seen as quite different to the specialist English language teachers, called EAL or support teachers in School B, and ESL teachers in School C.

The directions for the questionnaire were as follows: *If the opportunity to co-teach or have in-class support were available to you, select the statement that best represents your preferences at this point in time*. Each statement was ranked 1–5 with the maximum score the most 'cooperative' teachers could achieve being 20, and the least 5. The scores were then aggregated according to the four domains and then the means for each domain was added together to generate a school score out of 20. The questionnaire results were analysed using SPSS and the means and standard deviations of the teachers' views on the various sections of the questionnaires tabulated. The open-ended comments were also analysed with the number of written comments for each item tallied, and the comment itself recorded. Where comments were essentially identical, this was represented by a multiplier against it (e.g. 'not enough time × 3' represented three comments that there was insufficient time to collaborate). The interviews were also transcribed and analysed, and both sets of qualitative data were grouped into preliminary categories suggested by the themes that arose during the

course of data collection. In keeping with the methodological orientation of this study, this process was ongoing, recursive and iterative, a process of 'systematic inquiry into the data' (Miles and Huberman, 1984), with continual member checking and peer debriefing to enhance trustworthiness. The findings of this exploratory study will now be briefly summarised, and their significance discussed.

Findings and discussion

In this section, I first present an analysis of the quantitative data including each school's collaborative score or index. Next, I explain the patterns in the data by examining some of the approaches to language and content integration developed in the three schools, and the underlying assumptions in the schools' conceptualisations of effective collaboration between EFL and mainstream/content-area teachers.

Not surprisingly, the results of the questionnaire in Table 4.1 show a clear difference between the three schools across all domains of collaboration. School C is where collaboration is most entrenched as an accepted component of school policy and practice. This school demonstrated the highest overall collaborative index. School A, where collaboration is part of the new school rhetoric but rarely implemented in any consistent fashion, demonstrated the lowest score for collaboration. What is perhaps less expected is the variability in individual teacher scores as the overall collaborative index increases, as demonstrated by the rise in standard deviation. This suggests that as teachers adopt more collaborative approaches this creates an atmosphere in which some teachers feel increasingly uncomfortable or disenfranchised. In fact, some of the individual scores of teachers in School A were higher than some of the individual scores of teachers in School C. One interpretation of this finding is to conclude that no matter how effective and teacher-friendly a school's collaborative policy is, there will always be pockets of resistance. In some cases the lower-scoring teachers were also relatively new to the school or to the profession, so they may have lacked confidence or understanding of the school policy. However, others were much more experienced, which suggests

Table 4.1 Overall scores for collaboration by school and domain

	School A			*School B*			*School C*		
	N	*Mean*	*SD*	*N*	*Mean*	*SD*	*N*	*Mean*	*SD*
Attitude	30	1.40	.498	30	2.00	.830	30	3.37	1.377
Effort	30	1.27	.450	30	1.80	.610	30	3.27	1.530
Achievement	30	1.20	.407	30	2.00	.587	30	3.00	1.486
Expectations of support	30	1.30	.535	30	1.90	.403	30	3.00	1.462
Total	30	5.17		30	7.70		30	12.64	

a possible alternative explanation: that after some experience of the inevitable experimentation with different partners and different subject areas – some more negative, some more positive – teachers find it increasingly difficult to generalise about collaboration on a simplistic survey. This possibility was actually confirmed by the views of a number of the teachers from School C who volunteered for the post-survey interview, exemplified in the following quote:

> If you had asked me last week I would have rated our partnership very highly because everything seemed to be going so well, but this week, I don't know what is it is, but nothing is going right. We can't seem to get ourselves on the same page and connect properly – I don't know what is it – maybe she (the co-teacher) is tired or she's gone off the idea of partnership, I am not sure. Actually I am a bit scared to broach the subject 'cos it might make things worse!
>
> (ESL teacher, C12)

The fluidity, even uncertainty, in some established but still developing partnerships found in this study has been reported elsewhere. For example, Peercy and Martin-Beltran (2011) also found considerable instability in terms of teacher discourses at the lower- to mid-range of collaborative development. Perhaps this instability reflects the inevitable ups and downs of partnerships and their inherently context-dependant nature, but it could also suggest that partnerships are subject to implementation dips. Patterns within and across the four domains of partnership at the three schools will now be briefly examined.

Attitudes

The first and perhaps most interesting aspect of the analysis of the stages of development in partnership teaching are the findings on teacher attitudes. Even in a well-resourced school, where the leadership in the school is strongly supportive of collaborative teaching with infrastructure, guidance and support made available, and teachers are encouraged to continually reflect on and discuss their roles, distinct differences in attitudes towards the whole idea of partnership can still appear (Davison, 2006). In the present study, this was exemplified in the comparatively low scores at School C, although those scores are still higher than School A and B. In School A, not surprisingly given its traditional orientation, most teachers demonstrate a lack of compliance, or at best, passive resistance with an implicit or explicit rejection of collaboration and a preference for the status quo: 'I am too busy covering the English curriculum, so we have little time to work with other teachers' (ESL, A2); 'The idea of having another teacher to help in Maths is not really necessary, I can explain the vocabulary in Cantonese if the students don't understand' (Maths, A4). Without any explicit or direct

support for collaboration in the Hong Kong curriculum documents this attitude is unlikely to change (see also Chapter 7 in this volume).

Effort

In terms of effort, similar results were found. The lowest stage of development of partnership is marked by little or no real investment of time or understanding: 'Just give us some bilingual material, no more is need – or really wanted' (Maths, A6). This comment by a teacher at School A signals a marked degree of distance and a negative sentiment. However, many teachers in School B and C were more accommodating, making an effort to adjust and adapt to a co-teacher's perceived needs, although often without a shared understanding of the task: 'It's always me who has to get the ball rolling . . . It makes me feel like just another pair of hands, rather than a teacher in my own right' (ESL, C 2). There were clearly more positive statements by teachers at School C than those at School B or A. The reasons that were reported for the problems in partnerships tended to be more related to issues external to the partnership, such as lack of time, or too many competing priorities.

Achievement

In terms of achievement, again a similar pattern across the three schools can be seen, albeit with individual variability. In School A, most teachers either saw no useful positive outcomes of the attempts to implement partnership, or the outcomes were restricted to vocabulary worksheets, and adaptations of teacher or textbook material for what were perceived to be 'the lazier or less motivated students' (English, A 7). At this level of collaborative development many teachers seemed to construct the students as the ones with the problems or as needing support, not the teachers, and never the curriculum itself. In School B and C there were more comments about the positive achievements of the partnership, but mainly at the level of strategies and techniques. Only in School C did teachers report achievements which could be seen as impacting on the curriculum as a whole: 'In our joint planning we look at both sets of curriculum planning documents and we see how they can line up and support each other' (Social Science, C23). The use of the inclusive pronoun 'we' shows the teacher actively co-constructing the partnership as a joint endeavour.

Expectations of support

In terms of expectations of support, again there are similar patterns in the indicators of partnership effectiveness across the three schools. In School A, many teachers talked about partnership as if it was a one-off short-term experiment with no requirement for any ongoing support: 'The partnership

has been an interesting experiment, we may try it again some day when we have more time' (Science, A2). The reference to a general class (the partnership) rather than talking specifically about a teaching partner indicates a lack of interest in taking responsibility for the partnership. In School B, teachers seemed more aware of partnership as a serious initiative, while expecting a high degree of practical and teacher-specific external professional development, as well as strong top-down direction and lots of time for instruction: 'The school has to provide more trainings, and more time to digest the materials' (History, B 14). In contrast, the teachers in School C seemed to be emphasising a need for more opportunities for peer interaction and discussion: 'We need more chances to share things and to discuss, more time for discussion and to try things out, more chances to talk to each other' (Science, C 21), demonstrating a growing preference for classroom-based experimentation and peer-directed professional development.

Conclusions

This study shows that, not surprisingly, even in schools with similar populations, very different policies and expectations regarding partnerships between content-area and English-language teachers result in different levels of partnership effectiveness. These differences are also reflected in different kinds of comments and concerns reported by individual teachers. This variation suggests that in any evaluation of partnerships we need to look not just at the teachers for explanations of success or failure, but also at the school itself and its institutional goals, communicative effectiveness and support structures. The results of this comparative study also suggest that even in high-achieving schools, setting realistic goals for professional development and institutional change is difficult as teacher motivations and investment are likely to be quite fluid and dynamic. It may take a long time to develop a certain level of confidence for working in such close and collaborative ways. As Peercy and Martin-Beltran (2011) demonstrate, helping teachers collaborate effectively will mean thinking creatively about opportunities for professional learning for both teachers and teacher educators. In addition, space needs to be created in which these groups can experiment and develop localised tools and approaches to establishing and enhancing collaboration.

Further research is obviously needed to evaluate whether this mixed-method approach to analysing collaborative partnerships between English-language and content-area teachers is valid for different schools and different stages of schooling. The data collection and analysis is also, by design, fairly simplistic; more observational and discourse-based studies of collaborative classrooms (Chapter 3 in this volume) and of team planning conversations need to be undertaken. The impact of different forms of partnership and the effects over time on students is also an area that is rarely addressed, but is the ultimate test of the efficacy of any collaborative approach.

Notes

1 Chinese is written using mainly non-phonic characters, either traditional Chinese characters, used in Taiwan and Hong Kong, or simplified characters, introduced by the PRC government in the 1950s to develop universal literacy. In 1955 the traditional phonic system *zhuyin fuhao*, still taught in Taiwan, was replaced with *hanyu pinyin*, which used the Romanised alphabet. Hanyu pinyin is the official pronunciation system in PRC, Singapore as well as in the United Nations and most other parts of the world. The system of vocabulary and syntax is known as Standard Modern Chinese (SMC).

2 When Hong Kong became a British colony in 1842, English was adopted as the official language but Cantonese remained the primary spoken language.

3 However, perhaps because of the long history of political senstivities around medium of instruction in Hong Kong and/or a deeply entrenched determination to treat all students and contexts as if they were the same, very few curriculum documents published in Hong Kong mention medium of instruction at all, let alone problematise it as a pedagogic issue.

4 The questionnaire developed by ISB is outlined below, and consisted of four domains which matched Davison's (2006) original conceptual framework:

   A To meet the needs of the ESL students in the mainstream classroom,
      1) I would prefer to have the sole responsibility for all students in my class whether they are ESL or non-ESL.
      2) I would be willing to be involved in co-teaching or in-class support in the future.
      3) I would be willing to experiment with support/co-teaching to see how it affects student learning.
      4) I would welcome the opportunity to learn from my peers through a support/co-teaching experience.
      5) I would prefer to be in a support/co-teaching situation.

   B To meet the needs of the ESL students in the mainstream classroom,
      1) I would prefer not to spend additional time planning with a support/co-teacher.
      2) I would prefer to try to support/co-teach following specified roles and responsibilities though this can be frustrating and stressful.
      3) I would make an effort to meet the needs of the co-teacher or the in-class support teacher, but feel a clarifying roles and responsibilities would avoid conflict and uncertainty.
      4) I would prefer to exchange ideas and engage professional dialogue with the support/co-teacher to reach agreements about instruction.
      5) I would prefer to co-construct instructional opportunities and materials where roles and responsibilities are more interchangeable based on a high degree of trust. I see conflicts as opportunities to develop greater understanding.

   C To meet the needs of the ESL students in the mainstream classroom,
      1) The advantages of a support/co-teaching situation seem unclear.
      2) The advantage of a support/co-teaching situation would appear to be primarily materials adapted or modified for language.
      3) The greatest advantages of a support/co-teaching situation seem to be effective strategies and techniques.
      4) The advantages of a support/co-teaching situation appear to extend to both language and content learning.
      5) The advantages of a support/co-teaching situation appear to extend across the curriculum.

D To meet the needs of the ESL students in the mainstream classroom,
   1) I will not need to co-teach or be involved in an in-class support situation.
   2) Practical teacher in-service and continuous feedback is most helpful for effective co-teaching or working with an in-class support teacher.
   3) Professional development about the ESL program and a rewarding partnership are the most helpful to effectively co-teach or work with an in-class support teacher.
   4) Co-teaching or an in-class support situation allows for action research and partnerships in learning.
   5) Co-teaching or an in-class support situation allows for a review of literature to deepen conceptual understandings, action research in the classroom, and critical reflection to improve teaching and learning.

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5 Doing international development through team teaching

Bill Perry

Readers may be surprised to learn that the Peace Corps most likely has the largest number of English teachers practicing team teaching in the world.* There are roughly 7,000 U.S. Americans serving in the Peace Corps in approximately 65 developing countries. About 40 per cent of the Peace Corps volunteers are working in education projects around the world. Many of these projects are focused on teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) and many require team teaching.

Generally, TEFL volunteers help local teachers and students become more proficient in English; help local teachers gain confidence in a learner-centered, communicative teaching environment; open professional leadership opportunities for their co-teachers; and help develop the English-language teaching capacity in each of the countries in a sustainable manner. Over the past five years, significant changes have been made in the way Peace Corps approaches development. These changes can be clearly seen in the agency's new strategy of limiting the number of projects in each country and in the re-design of the three-month pre-service training for volunteers. Since approximately 85 per cent of the volunteers are young (The Peace Corps, 2011, p. 19), the new approach to training assumes limited experience in the profession (in this case, TEFL) and addresses the key areas required to have an impact during two years of service. In this chapter, I provide a brief introduction to the history of the Peace Corps and its mission and goals, and then describe the dynamics of team teaching in the Peace Corps context, evaluating the strengths and challenges of their current approach.

About the Peace Corps

The United States Peace Corps was created in 1961 by President John F. Kennedy in an effort to help less fortunate people in the world learn to build better lives for themselves. President Kennedy envisioned a volunteer organization that would

> . . . promote world peace and friendship through a Peace Corps, which shall make available to interested countries and areas men and women

> of the United States qualified for service abroad and willing to serve, under conditions of hardship if necessary, to help the peoples of such countries and areas in meeting their needs for trained manpower, particularly in meeting the basic needs of those living in the poorest areas of such countries, and to help promote a better understanding of the American people on the part of the peoples served and a better understanding of other peoples on the part of the American people.
>
> (The Peace Corps, 1961, pp. 1–2)

In 1961 the Peace Corps was established as an independent government agency with no direct connections to the Department of State and with no explicit political agenda. The agency sends volunteers to countries worldwide that request support in specific areas including education, community development, economic development and environmental planning.

The mission of the Peace Corps as stated in The Peace Corps Act is to promote world peace and friendship through three comprehensive goals:

1 To help the people of interested countries in meeting their need for trained men and women
2 To help promote a better understanding of Americans on the part of the peoples served
3 To help promote a better understanding of other peoples on the part of Americans. (The Peace Corps, *n.d.* 'The Peace Corps Mission')

These three goals and this process of sharing skills, experience and cultural values have been in place since the inception of the Peace Corps. Each new group of volunteers in countries throughout the world is dedicated to fulfilling these goals. The volunteers are committed to both capacity building and ensuring the sustainability of their work. They further commit to striving to meet an elaboration of the goals in the 'Core Expectations for Peace Corps Volunteers' (see the Appendix).

Recruiting Peace Corps volunteers

The basic principles of the Peace Corps recruitment process include recruiting across the entire United States and seeking a diverse balance of ethnic groups, race, social status, age and sex. To become a Peace Corps volunteer, applicants must be U.S. citizens, college graduates, and at least 19 years of age. The recruitment process takes between nine months and a year. Recent changes to the recruitment system make it possible to choose both the country you would like to serve in and the job you would like to do. The choices, however, are subject to availability of positions in the countries and the individual applicant's qualifications. Volunteers typically have three months of training for their jobs and then serve for two years in the country where they were trained (The Peace Corps, *n.d.* 'Volunteer Opportunities').

In-country training

Once the volunteers are recruited and placed in one of the countries hosting a Peace Corps program, they receive information about the country and learn as much as they can about their assignment before they leave the United States. For some countries, the recruits begin 'pre-departure' language learning and if they are going to serve in a TEFL project, they begin basic online teacher education coursework. After the recruits arrive in the new country, they have approximately 10 weeks of intensive training covering language, culture, safety and security, personal health maintenance, and, for potential English teachers, the core educational training required to be a teacher in the particular country. They typically study the local language and culture on a daily basis in villages where they live with local families. During a training week, the recruits meet as a group at a central location for training sessions to study topics other than language and culture.

Classroom English teaching is one of the critical areas in which the recruits receive training. The Peace Corps TEFL training curriculum sets standards that are comparable to the minimal global standards expected of internationally recognised TEFL certificate programmes. According to the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL), Peace Corps is in the process of developing a TEFL training plan that includes the most critical elements for certification (Center for Applied Linguistics, *n.d.*). Approximately 40 hours of the pre-service training are devoted to TEFL sessions, including needs analysis, English grammar, vocabulary, the four skills, classroom management (especially with large classes), error correction and feedback, working with limited resources, and creating a learner-centred classroom.

Near the end of the pre-service training, the recruits participate in a 15-hour practicum where they gain hands-on teaching experience with local students under the close observation of their trainers, staff and other experienced teachers. They also receive written feedback on their teaching skills.

A TEFL volunteer's life after training

After pre-service training, Peace Corps English teachers are placed in schools that have applied for a volunteer and have also designated a local counterpart teacher to work with the volunteer. The schools are often in rural, more needy communities. In the spirit of capacity building and sustainability mentioned above, the volunteers team teach with local teachers. Each volunteer is placed in a public school with a local counterpart who is motivated to take advantage of having a volunteer who is a native speaker of English, who has received training in TEFL, and who committed to the goals of the Peace Corps.

The volunteers live with local families and are expected to become a part of the community in which they are serving. Their housing and food expenses

are covered by the Peace Corps, and they are given a modest living allowance that is on par with the salary of their local counterpart. The volunteers are required, in most cases, to do the majority of their teaching with a co-teacher in order to ensure the capacity-building component of the Peace Corps mission. They teach with their counterparts during the normal school day and often offer extra classes for students after school on their own time.

TEFL training and the Focus In/Train Up strategy

In 2011 the Peace Corps committed to a new strategy of 'Focus In/Train Up' through which the overall number of volunteer projects in each country was reduced to a manageable number. In the past, some countries had three or four other projects running concurrently with the TEFL project. The Peace Corps felt that the strategy of reducing and focusing projects would lead to more measureable impact of the volunteers' work. The new strategy also entailed revising in-country pre-service training programs in such a way that the large pool of 'generalists' who apply to serve as English teacher volunteers for the Peace Corps could be more effective in their work (Tarnoff, 2014).

According to the Peace Corps (2011):

> Peace Corps is working aggressively to focus on key development sectors and train our Volunteers for excellence. A limited number of the most highly effective projects will be scaled up to maximize the skills and enthusiasm of the Volunteers, the larger percentage of whom are young professionals. In support of this initiative, Peace Corps is designing world-class training and comprehensive support to prepare its Volunteers in these sectors. Measurement of the outcomes will be increasingly rigorous as the standard indicators for each sector, based on the state-of-the art in the field, are finalized and put into place.
>
> (p. 19)

The changes resulting from the Focus In/Train Up strategy accompanied by the TEFL certification initiative guided by CAL have brought a new level of professionalism to the Peace Corps TEFL projects. In addition, new monitoring and evaluation efforts by the agency have helped to create a fertile ground for successful collaboration in team teaching and for an increased impact of the volunteers' work as English teachers.

Team teaching and Peace Corps volunteers

Over the past 10 years, the Peace Corps, as the world's largest volunteer-providing organisation, has begun to reap the benefits of team teaching in its English education (TEFL) projects. The gradual shift from the volunteers teaching 'solo' in English classes to deliberate classroom collaboration with their host country teaching counterparts has moved the organisation closer

to its fundamental aims of building local capacity and increasing sustainability in its programs across the globe.

The benefits of adopting a team-teaching approach in Peace Corps' TEFL projects are apparent; however, numerous challenges including cross-cultural misunderstandings, issues of leadership within the team and the need for training the teaching team complicate the process. Some cultures expect the young and inexperienced volunteer teachers to confidently step into the classroom and lead the local teacher in helping the students achieve communicative competence in English. The fact that they are often unable to do this suggests that further thought should be given to the dynamics of the team-teaching relationship.

The strengths of Peace Corps' team-teaching approach

Team teaching is arguably an excellent tool for improving the skills of local teachers and their students as well as for meeting Peace Corps' worldwide goals. In this environment, team teaching evolves into what Tajino and Tajino (2000) refer to as 'team learning' where the interaction among the TEFL volunteer, the local teacher and the students leads to cross-cultural insights and critical thinking, as well as increased proficiency in English. It is from this team learning perspective that the Peace Corps' approach to the TEFL classroom can be re-examined.

Given the Focus In/Train Up strategy for TEFL training, even inexperienced volunteers arrive in the local English classroom with a positive attitude and with confidence that the tools they have gained from their training will allow them to collaborate effectively with their counterpart teachers. A team that plans, teaches and assesses student performance together has the basics needed for effective classroom learning. This combination of a local teacher paired with a native-speaking volunteer teacher also offers an effective means of dealing with cross-cultural issues in classroom management.

The local English teachers see the potential for learning new techniques and methods, and for creating a learner-centred, communicative classroom. The team has the opportunity to develop new teaching materials to increase student motivation and hopefully to build a foundation for continued language learning. The teachers also have an opportunity to explore leadership options in local teachers' organisations and in exchange programmes. Generally, the TEFL volunteers can inspire their co-teachers to engage in opportunities beyond the English classroom.

Both the Focus In/Train Up strategy and the new approach to monitoring and evaluation can clearly improve the effectiveness of Peace Corps teaching teams in English classrooms around the world (The Peace Corps, 2013, pp. 77–79). In the past, Peace Corps has measured impact primarily in two ways: (1) counting the number of people (students, teachers and other community members) volunteers worldwide have worked with in some capacity and (2) publicising individual volunteer success stories. Recently there has

been a serious effort by the Agency to go beyond these two ways as it develops 'tools' that volunteers can use to actually measure the outcomes of their work. Currently the volunteers and counterparts are required to report on progress using specific indicators regarding English language teaching. The reports are collected locally and then uploaded to the monitoring and evaluation system at Peace Corps headquarters. The reports include quantitative data, as well as qualitative information concerning the volunteers' experience in the local community and school.

This on-going, worldwide effort is accompanied by a requirement for opening new Peace Corps programmes stipulating that baseline data be collected whenever a new project is started. In the case of TEFL programmes, it means that baseline information must be gathered on student English proficiency, and on both the English proficiency and classroom skills of local counterpart teachers. Baseline data collection that can provide a fairly clear picture of the starting point of a new TEFL project, in addition to the systematic reporting of progress on indicators in TEFL project frameworks will help the volunteers and counterpart teachers understand the overall impact that their cooperative teaching has.

Challenges facing the Peace Corps' team-teaching approach

While Peace Corps' approach to team teaching incorporating new training and evaluation strategies is theoretically sound and appropriate in a development context, there are, however, numerous obstacles to be overcome if the team-teaching relationship is to be successful. Drawing on the three categories developed by Perry and Stewart (2005), these obstacles can be viewed as core challenges faced in any team-teaching context: 'experience', 'personality and working style', and 'beliefs about learning'. Conflicts in the first two categories can typically be identified without extensive analysis, but those in the third category, 'beliefs about learning', are often difficult to identify because they are embedded in individual sets of cultural values. The potential challenges for Peace Corps teaching teams in each of these categories are discussed below.

Teaching experience

Some national ministries of education request highly qualified volunteer teachers, but over time, most ministries come to understand the fact that the volunteers generally tend to be young and inexperienced because of the available pool in the United States (The Peace Corps, 2012, p. 21). Although Peace Corps volunteer English teachers are typically inexperienced in the classroom, local teachers are more interested in pairing with enthusiastic and flexible partners than with volunteers who have more teaching experience. More experienced volunteer teachers have different expectations based on their previous work and often are less flexible in the team-teaching

partnerships. In cases where the volunteer and the local teacher are both inexperienced, they have to recognise the effects of this combination and work together to make up for the lack of experience.

Personality and working style

Regardless of cultural background, personality conflicts are inevitable in a cross-cultural team-teaching environment. When this type of conflict occurs in Peace Corps TEFL projects, Peace Corps staff provide counselling support for both the volunteer and the counterpart. In some cases it is necessary for the agency to intervene and move the volunteer to a different school to work with another local counterpart.

There are also challenges around 'working style'. Volunteers are usually very focused on their work in the school, while their counterpart teachers may have second or third jobs because of economic hardship. They may also have families to take care of on a daily basis. Because of these obligations outside of the team-taught TEFL classes, there is less time for collaborative lesson planning and reflection on the lessons. Given the complexity of team teaching in intercultural environments, frustration often results from the limited time that a counterpart has to work with the volunteer English teacher outside of the actual class periods.

Beliefs about learning

Perhaps the most challenging aspect of cross-cultural team teaching in a Peace Corps context is the role that cultural beliefs about teaching and learning play in the classroom interaction. Each of the teachers, one local and one volunteer, comes to the task of team teaching with a set of beliefs about what should happen in the classroom. These beliefs about learning are often subconscious and difficult to articulate.

The list of possible differences is a long one. Below, I describe several. A local teacher may believe that students should stand up when the teacher enters the classroom, while a Peace Corps English teacher may be embarrassed by this show of respect. A volunteer may sit on furniture at the side of the room during class, while a teacher from the local culture may find this offensive because teachers are supposed to stand in front of the class to command respect and maintain order. A local English teacher may have a low tolerance for student noise and movement in the classroom, while a volunteer teacher may be very comfortable with both. A volunteer may believe that student performance in some type of evaluation should be considered separately from other behaviours exhibited by the student, while a local teacher may want to look holistically at the student's performance and include behaviours outside of the specific evaluation when assigning grades.

Little by little, mismatches in values about learning can lead a teaching team towards conflict that may not be understood for what it really is. The team may attribute the conflicting beliefs about learning to personality or other external factors without looking more deeply into their own cultural values. It is likely that if this 'mismatch' is not addressed early in the partnership, the conflict will persist and continue to diminish the effectiveness of the team.

Although the Peace Corps has put considerable effort into raising the classroom teaching skills of volunteers and into a shared strategy for measuring the impact of team teaching in the countries where TEFL projects are operating, only limited attention has been paid to perhaps the most challenging issue in Peace Corps' approach to team teaching: establishing a shared set of values about classroom learning. Without question, Peace Corps is among the most effective training organisations in the area of cross-cultural learning, but that training is typically focused on the volunteer's local community life. Through the three-month language and cross-cultural training provided before their service begins, volunteers learn how to live in a host family and how to effectively communicate with community members. However, up to this point, very little effort has been put into negotiating roles, responsibilities and values in the team-teaching relationship between a U.S. volunteer, a local teacher and their students. Tajino and Tajino's (2000) 'pattern E' (see Chapter 2 in this volume) for classroom interaction in a team-teaching setting provides a useful model for the Peace Corps' approach. The single-most challenging aspect of their team-teaching model is the hidden dimension of beliefs about learning. By embracing the dynamics of 'pattern E' where both teachers and the students work together to create an interactive community, it would be possible to learn about each others' hidden values concerning the classroom learning process.

Culture Matters (1997), Peace Corps' cross-cultural workbook, has been used for training since the late 1990s. This workbook is designed to help volunteers learn about differences in values and the cultural realities of their host country through a combination of theoretical and practical exercises. The use of this tool to also explore classroom learning values could lead to more open and effective communication among students and co-teachers. Many of the theoretical and practical points in the workbook are as valid for the volunteer's workplace as they are for community integration. Addressing this major challenge in Peace Corps' approach to team teaching by emphasising values clarification in the classroom context might be a prudent next step in the agency's efforts to increase the effectiveness and impact of volunteers serving around the world.

Conclusion

Over the past 50-plus years, the Peace Corps has been true to the three original goals in the 'Peace Corps Act'. Volunteers have consistently worked

to build capacity in a sustainable manner. In these 50 years, the world has changed, as has the pool of applicants the Peace Corps has to draw from. Dealing with change has always been a challenge for the Peace Corps, and has led to new initiatives and strategies over their 50-year history. Currently, the applicant pool can be described as young generalists (Tarnoff, 2014, p. 4) with limited professional experience. In an effort to accommodate this change in demographics to 'young' and 'generalist', the agency has piloted the Focus In/Train Up initiative under which the number of Peace Corps projects in a given country is reduced to a small number of 'focused' projects with clear impact indicators.

In the case of TEFL education projects, this has meant focusing on building local teacher skills and on the development of English language proficiency for local teachers as well as for students. The local teachers use English on a daily basis, are invited to in-service trainings that are conducted in English and often have the opportunity to participate in national and international conferences for English teachers.

A natural step in this process has been to increase the importance of team teaching rather than solo teaching in TEFL projects. Through team teaching, volunteers help develop teaching capacity without replacing local teachers. The benefits of this shift for both English teachers and students have been immediately evident, but the issue of credibility for the young generalist volunteers remains. The 'Train up' dimension of the initiative has entailed re-designing training to 'specialise' the volunteers to carry out specific tasks in the TEFL projects. According to CAL, this process is leading to a TEFL certificate programme for Peace Corps volunteers based on the content of the pre-service and in-service trainings.

The second key initiative in the changes currently underway in Peace Corps TEFL education projects entails a new approach to measurement of impact. By reporting against specific globally shared performance indicators, volunteers around the world who are teaching English can document progress made in areas such as the use of English in the classroom and the percentage of time spent conducting communicative activities in class. Data gathered from all of the TEFL projects globally can potentially demonstrate the effectiveness of the efforts of volunteers.

The Peace Corps is to be congratulated on the essential steps documented in this chapter regarding the development of key tools and trainings to meet the challenges of a changing world and the new demographics of the volunteer applicant pool. However, if the agency expects these initiatives to have a sustainable impact on teacher and student learning in the TEFL projects, it makes sense to look more closely at the dynamics of the team-teaching relationship. This relationship involves two teachers and a group of students, and in the Peace Corps context, also involves at least two cultures. Although it is clear that the team-teaching context is an excellent fit for Peace Corps' two principles in international development, capacity building and sustainability, it is an important next step to examine the

classroom relationships among the co-teachers and their students. The most challenging aspect of these relationships is the respective beliefs about teaching and learning (Perry and Stewart, 2005). Given Peace Corps' long and highly respected tradition of training volunteers to cross cultures with the goal of community integration, the agency would clearly benefit from applying the same basic cross-cultural learning principles to the culture of the team-teaching classroom. As co-teachers and their students consciously increase their awareness of the values concerning what is 'good' or 'bad' practice in the classroom, all parties would benefit, and the overall impact of the TEFL volunteer's work in the schools would be more substantial. In this way, the Peace Corps can further improve its effectiveness in TEFL team-teaching projects throughout the world, making a good thing even better.

Appendix

Core expectations for Peace Corps volunteers

In working toward fulfilling the Peace Corps Mission, as a trainee and Volunteer you are expected to:

1 Prepare your personal and professional life to make a commitment to serve abroad for a full term of 27 months
2 Commit to improving the quality of life of the people with whom you live and work; and, in doing so, share your skills, adapt them, and learn new skills as needed
3 Serve where Peace Corps asks you to go, under conditions of hardship if necessary, and with the flexibility needed for effective service
4 Recognize that your successful and sustainable development work is based on the local trust and confidence you build by living in, and respectfully integrating yourself into, your host community and culture
5 Recognize that you are responsible 24 hours a day, 7 days a week for your personal conduct and professional performance
6 Engage with host country partners in a spirit of cooperation, mutual learning and respect
7 Work within the rules and regulations of Peace Corps and the local and national laws of the country where you serve
8 Exercise judgment and personal responsibility to protect your health, safety and well-being and that of others
9 Recognize that you will be perceived, in your host country and community, as a representative of the people, culture, values and traditions of the United States of America
10 Represent responsibly the people, cultures, values and traditions of your host country and community to people in the United States both during and following your service

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6 Beyond the deficit model

Co-constructing team teaching to address learner goals and needs

Francesco Bolstad and
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Collaboration between native and non-native speakers can be viewed as an essential part of modern language education. When team teaching involves native and non-native speakers however, it is not uncommon for both native and non-native English-speaking teachers (NESTs and NNESTs) frequently to report that team teaching is one of the most difficult aspects of their roles as language educators (Inoi, Yoshida, Mahoney, and Itagaki, 2001; Mahoney, 2004; Tajino and Tajino, 2000; Tajino and Walker, 1998). Looked at from the Japanese context, this is perhaps unsurprising. In Japan team teaching was never intended to be an independent approach to language education, but was instead born out of a desire to facilitate a more communicative approach than was at the time standard in Japan (Wada, 1994). Unfortunately, team teaching was introduced in a top-down manner without regard for proper teacher training about its purpose, potential, knowledge, skills and capacity. In our opinion, this has led to its current de facto status as the key approach to language education in Japanese K-12 classrooms. Since its early start in Japan, team teaching for language instruction has spread to a number of Asian nations. At present, Japan, Korea, Hong Kong (China) and Taiwan have developed substantial state-funded team-teaching programmes (Yi, 2012). Increasing internationalisation will likely continue this trend into neighbouring countries. China's policy of introducing English as a compulsory subject in primary schools, which commenced in 2001, seems likely to expedite the introduction of team teaching, in one form or another, in the world's most populous country (Liu, 2008).

Unfortunately, the expansion of team teaching throughout Asia follows Japan's top-down model of implementation, which has led to an over-simplified lay definition of team teaching. In Japan, the definition of team teaching is basically any time two, or more, teachers are present in the classroom; anything else is not classified as team teaching. This myopic view of team teaching encourages a teacher-centred approach to team teaching practice often based on a stereotypical view of native and non-native speakers' linguistic and cultural weaknesses. This narrow definition overlooks the true potential of team teaching to create synergy both inside

and outside the classroom. By limiting the scope of what constitutes team teaching, what takes hold instead of adaptive and dynamic synergy is a 'deficit model' of teachers' roles in the team-taught classroom.

As the popularity of team teaching expands, teachers and policy-makers alike need to move beyond this simplistic model of team teaching towards a nuanced understanding of both the potential and the pitfalls inherent in teacher collaboration. It is important to carefully consider when and where team teaching can best be employed to achieve specific educational goals. To advance this agenda, our chapter examines team teaching from the perspectives of practicing teachers and in-service training. First, we expand upon the current practice of team teaching in the Japanese language classroom, by elucidating some of the many issues faced on a daily basis by those engaged in the practice of team teaching. We draw on the first author's (Francesco) personal experiences as a team teacher and learner to interpret comments from a questionnaire (Bolstad, 2014) completed by over 60 practicing team teachers (50 NESTs and 16 NNESTs). The survey data suggests the need for specific training in team teaching in order to encourage a thoughtful approach rather than an over-simplified deficit interpretation of the roles of NESTs and NNESTs. Second, we describe an on-going post-graduate teacher education programme developed in Japan by the second author (Lori), which has been designed to allow teachers to explore team teaching issues as team learners.

The deficit hypothesis and the need for training

In recent years team teaching has almost become an implicit part of any discussion regarding English education in Japanese schools. However, Minoru Wada (sometimes referred to as 'the father of Japanese team teaching') reminds us 'that team teaching began [in Japan] without any form of pedagogic research to validate it as an effective educational innovation' (Wada, 1994, p. 15). Indeed, while team teaching was at that time new to mainstream ESL education, its use had already been documented by several English for specific purposes researchers (Johns and Dudley-Evans, 1980; Selinker, 1979). Also team teaching had been used in special needs classrooms for several decades. In a systematic review of the published research on team teaching Armstrong (1977, p. 83) concluded that:

> [O]ne is struck by the very basic nature of the question for which research has failed, after fifteen or more years of team teaching, to supply at least tentative answers. Team teaching, it is evident, represents one of those educational practices that have not been subjected to truly intensive and systematic investigation. Support for team teaching has been more of a validation through affirmation than a validation based on empirical evidence. At this juncture, little in the research literature provides solace either for team teaching's critics or its most ardent supporters.

With so little empirical support for team teaching, one has to wonder how its rapid uptake throughout Asia can be explained. While it is important to recognise that not all such major policy decisions are made along purely pedagogic lines (McConnell, 2000), the most consistent explanation is that of a deficit hypothesis; that is, NESTs are seen to bring cultural and linguistic knowledge to classrooms, which NNESTs lack. Conversely, NNESTs are seen as providing educational credentials and knowledge of the local culture and language, which NESTs cannot provide (Brumby and Wada, 1990). While discussions of this topic are usually prefaced in a positive manner, the underlying assumption must be that if one teacher were able to supply all of these skills the other teacher would be superfluous. This deficit mind-set is directly supported by Tajino and Walker's (1998, p. 124) investigation of students' attitudes to team teaching, which found that 'nearly two-thirds of the students reported they would not need a NNEST Japanese Teacher of English (JTE) if the NEST Assistant English Teacher (AET) spoke Japanese well'.

This view of team teaching was the common operational assumption in effect throughout both of our team teaching experiences. It is also echoed in the anecdotal evidence provided from responses to Bolstad's (2014) questionnaire administered to practicing team teachers in a local (prefectural) board of education's educational seminar. In that survey, 43 per cent of the NNEST stated that in their opinion their lack of English ability was one of the reasons team teaching was instituted at their schools. While NESTs were generally more optimistic in their responses, tending to focus on the positive aspects of having a native speaker in the classroom, several comments suggested that at least in some classrooms teachers' roles were clearly defined by a deficit model mind-set. One NEST succinctly represented this view as follows: 'Unfortunately, many JTE's [Japanese English Teachers] use NEST's as living CD players and/or sit in the back of the class and only help the NEST when directly asked to. In the latter example, the NEST would be better off teaching the class solo'.

Viewed through the lens of the deficit mind-set this reaction to team teaching is not out of place. If the only rationale for team teaching were that of making up for deficits that individual teachers are thought to have, it would be not illogical for linguistically challenged NNESTs to use NESTs as human tape recorders or to hand over their classrooms to capable NESTs. Herein lies the crux of the problem; while the team-taught classroom may have the potential to become the ideal EFL environment envisioned by Medgyes (1992, p. 349) 'where NESTs and NNESTs complement each other's strengths and weaknesses through various forms of collaboration', the reality in Japan is that a deficit-based rationale for team teaching in the minds of practitioners has frequently led to less than desirable, over-simplified forms of collaboration.

In our experience, successful team teaching is achieved when team members focus more on student learning and less on stereotypical

preconceptions of the roles of NESTs and NNESTs. Next, we illustrate this shift in perspective with two examples of team teaching from Francesco's (first author) classroom.

Moving from deficit to benefit

Team teaching beyond the classroom (Eichi)

> I (Francesco) have often been paired with teachers who for various reasons were more than proficient in English. One such teacher (Eichi) had completed a double major in university and was in fact qualified as both a primary school classroom teacher and as a junior high school English teacher. Eichi was excited by the chance to teach English after years of primary school classroom teaching and took every opportunity to be involved not only in the teaching process, but also in the preparation and evaluation of classes. He often prepared teaching plans and realia and even instigated teaching patterns like integrating our lessons with television English language education programmes that he knew were popular with the students (due to his immersion within the Japanese culture). While I often took the lead in class this was by no means because of Eichi's lack of English ability. In fact Eichi was one of the few primary school teachers I knew who taught their class in English even when I was not there. While I was not able to attend and support Eichi's extra classes I endeavoured to do what I could when I was in the school. This mainly took the form of behind the scenes encouragement and advice; speaking with him in English in the staff room to keep him in practice, speaking with him in English in front of his students to support his position as a near peer role model (Murphey and Arao, 2001), working through his lesson plans, giving ideas, and opinions and supporting his curriculum negotiations with senior teachers.

Juxtaposed with my experiences working with Eichi, who became a model teacher, one other teacher I worked with became a model learner.

Team teaching as team learning (Naoki)

> Naoki sat with the students and interacted with me as if he was just another student there to learn English, for most of the class only breaking from this role to assist with technical issues or deal with problematic students on a one to one level. While Naoki often made mistakes, based on his performance in class I would rate his English language ability as slightly lower than the average student in his class of 10-year-olds, he was always attentive and genuinely appeared to be interested in what I was teaching. He asked questions freely when he did not understand, or perhaps when he felt that members of his class

> were not following my point, and he took notes about points that seemed important to him without any prompting from me. Due to his constant, almost comical, questions and mistakes it was common for me to ask members of the class to help him. By the end of the school year, I no longer had to ask as a simple pause from me after his question would initiate students clambering to tell him the answer. It is a well-known fact in education that the teacher learns more than the students. Did Naoki really have such a low level of English? Probably not, but as is so often the case in team teaching I had almost no time outside the class to talk with Naoki, therefore I cannot answer this question. I do know that Naoki's style created a very effective learning environment for the students. In team teaching, like any teaching, the key is not what the teachers do or do not know, but what the students learn.

Both of these examples illustrate successful cases of team teaching and team learning even though the form of the collaboration and the role of the teachers involved were very different. What is even more important is that in both of these examples teachers were able to adjust their practice based on students' needs in such a way that both students and teachers were not only able to enjoy the class, but were also empowered to take risks and succeed in the future (see Chapter 2 in this volume for an expanded explanation of the team learning concept).

If we accept, as argued above, that team teaching is not a simple case of doing what comes naturally, but a complex harmonising 'dance', as described in Stewart and Perry (2005), then we must also accept the need for properly trained and experienced teachers. As anyone who has tried to learn how to dance knows, professional dance partnerships don't just happen; they are the result of hours of practice and effort. Below, we describe one example of how team teachers can learn to collaborate in professional learning.

Shifting the team teaching mind-set through in-service training

With over 26 years of personal team teaching experience, Lori is a professor in a graduate school of education. She developed a 15-hour credit-bearing course on 'Team Teaching' in response to the ongoing lack of guidance provided to team teachers in Japan. Participants in the course all have team-teaching experience. The majority work in a team-teaching context, but almost none of the participants have had any opportunities for professional development, especially concerning team teaching issues. Our position is that boards of education and universities have a responsibility to offer training to correct this deficit mindset. The team teaching course outlined here integrates one graduate school's goals to empower teachers to become better practitioners through reflection.

Throughout the course, teacher educators support teacher-learners to acquire practical skills and knowledge in team teaching while also exploring the underlying principles of classroom practice. These principles, when arrived at through experience and reflection, aim to provide the foundation for classroom decision making and future development, by focusing teachers on educational goals and student needs rather than the kind of deficit thinking outlined above. The goal is to shift the focus away from the interaction of the team teachers toward a more student-centred practice.

Course description

Overview

The objectives of the team-teaching classes seek to address the deficit thinking common to both NESTs and NNESTs in Japan. In line with these objectives the required textbook for the course is *A Guide to Co-teaching: Practical Tips for Facilitating Student Learning* (Villa, Thousand, and Nevin, 2008). This text was chosen due to my (Lori) shared belief with the authors that team teachers:

> . . . need training, guided practice, feedback, and opportunities to problem solve with colleagues and clarify the nuances of co-teaching. Furthermore, for innovation to become the new culture, people must come to understand its significance for their personal and professional growth and for the growth of their students.
>
> (pp. 114–116)

Teachers in the course are specifically trained in collaborative planning, various team teaching models and familiarity with the set communication framework outlined below. They also have an opportunity to reflect on their past team-teaching experiences through recall, peer teaching observation and reading research on team teaching (see Appendix A). A significant part of the course of study focuses on reflection. Rodgers (2002) explains reflection is a meaning-making process wherein teachers can gain understanding from previous experiences. Reflective practice requires teacher-learners to be focused on students and how their decisions as team teachers can help or hinder student learning.

Training and development in the course

A communication framework for facilitating inter-team communication

Team teaching, by its very nature, requires teachers to be skilled at communicating and regularly giving colleagues feedback. However, these are

not natural skills for teachers, who are often used to working autonomously in classrooms. To overcome this obstacle at the beginning of the course, teacher-learners are introduced to a feedback framework to facilitate communication and awareness of the effect that their communication has on their team teaching partner. After this, teacher-learners are given ongoing opportunities in the course to listen and give feedback using this framework.

While almost all teacher-learners indicate that there are interpersonal issues that need attention in their teaching partnership, these issues can be difficult to address and are often ignored. Some examples of issues that NNESTs raised were that their partner

- sometimes did not show up for lessons;
- was too busy to do everything he or she was supposed to do;
- did not listen to others' ideas;
- did not follow the lesson plan; and
- was not willing to become involved in classroom activities they did not initiate.

In order to facilitate communication around these and other issues I introduce Underhill's (2007) facilitative feedback model and authoritative model. Whenever teacher-learners in the course listen to other participants' reflections or give feedback on observations, they use these formulaic speech patterns. The facilitative model lets the 'partner tell themselves' through supportive, catalytic and cathartic feedback. In contrast, the authoritative model is 'telling the partner' by challenging, informing and prescribing (also see Chapter 12 in this volume). For example, formulaic language for facilitative supportive feedback includes: 'I care about the way you . . . , I care about . . . , I notice . . ., I like . . . , I appreciate the way . . .'. This type of formulaic speech aims to raise self-esteem and reaffirm the team teaching partner's fundamental value. Authoritative feedback is meant to be informative, giving the partner information for their benefit. The information could be theoretical, or practical, but is not confrontational: 'Here is my feedback to you . . . It seems what you need to do is . . . I think . . . It may be useful for you to know what I think . . .'.

While formulaic speech patterns may seem simplistic to some native speakers, they often provide the sense of security that is needed for a more direct communication between native and non-native team members. For example, one teacher-learner at the end of the course stated, 'What I will take away is how I should communicate with my co-teachers. How to suggest, support and give feedback was helpful'.

Team-teaching elements

Villa *et al.* (2008, pp. 5–8) have outlined team teaching elements that need to be present and aligned for a team to function well. They include: 'Publicly

agreed on goals, a shared belief system, parity, distributing functions and tasks, and a cooperative process (face-to-face interactions, positive interdependence, interpersonal skills, monitoring co-teacher progress, and individual accountability)'. Teacher-learners analyse their own team-teaching practices to see if the elements are aligned. The commentary below is from one NNEST participant who realised that his classroom leadership with the NEST was not evenly distributed and that as a team they failed to engage in face-to-face interaction.

> To be honest, I was not so enthusiastic about the development of team teaching materials. I left it to the ALTs, and talked a little about what we would teach just before the lessons. Though students didn't complain about the lack of our preparation, I was sure some of them thought we were not doing enough to improve their skills . . . In the students' evaluation of my class, one student wrote that he saw us talking about the lesson plans during the lesson . . . I would like to participate in the development of materials for my future team teaching.

This Japanese NNEST acknowledged that his lack of co-planning with the NEST potentially had a negative impact on student learning and he expressed a willingness to change his behaviour. In another example, an elementary school NNEST reflected that as a team teacher, she must move from '*Gyakyo o kokufukusuru* (self-improvement) to improving and planning with others'. By engaging in the process of aligning the elements outlined by Villa *et al.* (2008) with their actual practice, teachers can form the basis of action plans that guide them in future teaching.

Regarding the element of face-to-face interaction and not having enough time to plan and reflect on lessons, one teacher-learner offered a solution that her school practiced. The teacher stated that the school administrators acknowledged that planning time for team teaching was critical for success, so they reserved a meeting time in the timetable instead of expecting teachers to find time on their own. Even for part-time teachers, meeting time was built into their contract.

Capacity and willingness

It is important for co-teachers to examine their own capacity and willingness to strategically build a partnership. Some team teachers need more support than others. One benefit of team teaching is that there is a resource of diversity in talents, skills and strengths that through collaboration can enhance student learning.

There are many factors that affect willingness to collaborate, and it takes time and scaffolding to build capacity. Vygotsky's (1978) zone of proximal development offers a framework to describe how teachers learn from each other when they are co-teaching. For instance, we can imagine a continuum

of capacity to describe how teachers learn from each other when co-teaching: teachers can be willing and capable, willing and not so capable, not willing but capable and not willing and not capable.

During my course, a teacher-learner shared her feeling of powerlessness when working with her team-teaching partner. Although the partner was both willing and capable, they struggled to team-teach well together because some of the other basic elements were not aligned. The NEST had been teaching at the school for years, but this was his first time to teach with this NNEST co-teacher. Basically, he wanted to team-teach the class by recycling his former lesson plans and simply instruct his partner as to what to do. This stance led the NNEST partner to feel left out of the decision-making process and undervalued. In addition, they had not agreed upon common goals for the class and the NNEST realised they had different belief systems. The result was that the NNEST felt miserable having to work with her partner. Through analysing her challenges in my course with reference to the team-teaching elements outlined above, she was able to clearly state what the issues were. She had to try to make the situation better as she would have to team teach with this partner for the remainder of the year. Her next challenge was to decide what to do for her action, and plan what she wanted to say to her partner. She decided to ask her partner the following question: 'How can I become more involved in the decision making process for our class?'

Models of team teaching

At the beginning of the course, many participants tell me that they are most interested in learning about various approaches to team teaching. Many teachers in my course have been team teaching for years without an understanding of the different possible approaches.

To help the teachers gain a deeper theoretical understanding of team teaching, I introduce several models: supportive (one teacher leads and the other supports students), parallel (each teacher has their own group of students) and complementary (one teacher leads while the other supports). In Japan, we have found that teacher-learners are unaware of all the possibilities or strengths of parallel teaching or complementary teaching (Tajino and Tajino, 2000). Targeted parallel teaching in separate groups we would argue can make the whole stronger. For example, if students in the same class are preparing for a debate, one teacher can facilitate the affirmative team and the other the negative team.

Class goals and objectives will determine the model that can be used and its variations, and what role each teacher will play. During a class and between classes, teachers may be required to shift between models as dictated by the goals and objectives. To facilitate a smooth transition it is important that teachers have an awareness about what they are doing and are able to articulate their understanding to their teaching partner. As a teacher trainer,

I (Lori) am always trying to facilitate teacher-learners to realise that instead of having lessons planned around fixed team teacher roles and models (which are often dictated by a deficit view of the roles of team members), they should make a conscious shift to plan the tasks they want to scaffold for student learning first, then determine the appropriate team-teaching models, followed by the roles of the teachers.

Peer team learning

During the course, the teacher-learners bring a government-approved textbook they are currently using in their schools to do peer team planning, teaching, observation and play the roles of students. After the peer teaching, feedback is given using the concepts and formulaic language that have been studied earlier in the course (Appendix B). One participant reflected on peer team teaching that 'seeing my peers team teaching is something I could never do studying on my own . . . I realised I have to be more flexible . . . I became aware of the different styles . . . I could understand how students might feel

Figure 6.1 Peer team teaching

more [engaged]'. This activity is empowering because during peer preparation and teaching the co-teachers are forced to put aside their deficit mindset and focus on student needs and learning objectives.

Team learning

One former NNEST graduate student reported in his thesis how he and his NEST partner were able to break the deficit model mindset and create a community of learning in a Japanese high school. Initially, they were teaching learners with low English language proficiency and motivation through a knowledge transmission model by simply using a required textbook according to the steps the teacher's manual prescribed. Activities for speaking included repetition of scripted dialogues to reinforce grammar or vocabulary. The team teachers found students were not learning and became disinterested in the class. After reflecting on their class, they made a collective decision to give the students autonomy to communication authentically and increase their motivation through more of a project-based approach. Through this action, the teachers were also able to observe what topics students chose when given more freedom. Their co-constructed lesson plan resulted in team learning with increased communicative competence and student motivation (Murata, 2015). During the last project of the school year, they experienced the most critical change when they decided to let the students have complete autonomy about the topic and planning. The students as leaders decided by consensus after brainstorming various ideas that they would have a Christmas party. The teachers explained to the students that the party '. . . was not just for fun, but part of the English lesson' (Murata, p. 40).

The NNEST was worried, but wanted to take a risk and in an e-mail to the NEST before the next lesson expressed his feelings: 'So shall we give them time tomorrow to think about and arrange the party? I know this might be kind of an adventure and be risky. My goal is to let them use English in a meaningful situation'. The NEST replied in an e-mail '. . . It sounds fine to me to embark on a new adventure and be risky' (Murata, 2015, pp. 39–40). This NEST clearly supported his partner.

The NNEST reported that the students made their own rules concerning when they would use English during the party. One rule was that everyone had to ask for food and drinks in English. While the students were eating, playing games, exchanging gifts and taking pictures the teachers were also part of the group. In this way, the class formed one unified 'team' (see Chapter 2 in this volume), which is crucial for team learning in lessons. They did this by dropping their controlling role as teachers and authentically communicating with students about their lives in English.

The NNEST reported that many students had not wanted to use English with him before he and his team teaching partner made the shift to more authentic student-centred learning. They thought it was strange because he could speak Japanese like them and there was no need to use English.

The party was viewed by the students as an authentic task for communicating in English and the party atmosphere opened the way for team learning to proceed.

Other teachers in the school were amazed at the way the students took ownership of the class and were enjoying themselves learning and using English. The team teachers learned that changes in their planning and action could bring about a change in the learning environment. The teachers also realised that in the past they had not given enough opportunity to students 'to think and act on their own' (Murata, 2015, p. 51). By relaxing their control of lessons, they found that student's motivation and learning improved, while their own attitudes toward the students changed.

In short, to 'promote authentic communication', these co-teachers followed Tajino and Tajino's (2000, p. 9) proposal for team learning. The team teachers realised that by giving students more learner autonomy during lessons and authentic opportunities to communicate using English, students interacted more in English between themselves and their teachers, they learned more about intercultural diversity, and gained a positive attitude towards communicating with both teachers in English. This more dynamic teaching collaboration made them better teachers. These team teachers demonstrated that 'teachers and students can move from a feeling of isolation and alienation to feelings of community and collaboration' (Villa *et al*., 2008, p. 18).

Conclusion

After participating in team teaching professional development the participants in the course acknowledge that it is possible to change the deficit mindset. Once this reset occurs, they are better able to change the way they teach by re-examining the basic beliefs they have about teaching and learning (Head and Taylor, 1997). A NNEST and homeroom teacher in a Japanese elementary school at the end of the team teaching course stated:

> I wish to have a cooperative teaching environment. I wish to have a relationship with my partner (NEST or Japanese support teacher who is good at English) where we can learn from each other, share the responsibility and purpose of the lesson. I wish to create a class of team learning with the students, the NEST and the homeroom teacher.

For this NNEST, professional development in team teaching was empowering and helped her break free from the deficit model mind-set.

Educational reform does not necessarily lead to progress, especially in the initial phase. The introduction of team teaching represents a major educational reform. Through specific training for team teaching, teacher-learners can develop greater awareness of their options and potential as they receive feedback from peers. In Japan, all primary school teachers, and all

English teachers in secondary school will team teach at some point in their career so our position is that training and professional development need to be a part of teacher education programmes.

For team teaching to become a successful part of school culture, teachers need to make it significant to their personal and professional growth, and to the growth of the students. More value needs to be placed on improved outcomes in teacher learning, student learning and motivation in order to move away from a model of teacher roles based on deficit towards models designed to meet students' learning needs. Action planning is an important part of this learning process together with resources, incentives and skill building. Every team teaching context is unique and filled with learning opportunities. Therefore, teachers need training in order to recognise the potential of different models of team teaching to fit each unique context.

While team teaching, teachers are often focused on their own actions rather than on the impact their decisions have on student learning (Kurzweil, 2007). If teachers are able to change this focus through reflective practice of the kind described here, team teachers in Japan and elsewhere will gain the confidence to examine the impact of their decisions on student learning while simultaneously breaking out of the confines of the deficit model mind-set.

Appendix A

Intensive Team Teaching Class Schedule

Day 1	• Introduction • Team teaching survey • What are you bringing? • What about team teaching would you like to explore? • What is team teaching? • Why team teach? Upsides and downsides • Elements of team teaching • Communication: helping and feedback skills • Co-teaching approaches • Co-teaching issues to resolve in lesson planning • Time and schedules • Research on team teaching in Japan • Guidelines for peer team teaching • Prepare for team teaching • Reflection on Day 1
Tasks for Day 2	• Prepare for team teaching. • Prepare to tell team teaching stories. • Prepare to share about a research article on team teaching.
Day 2	• Share research article on team teaching • Share team teaching stories

	• Exploring leadership • What does a good team sound like, look like, feel like? • Peer team teaching and feedback process • Action planning • Reflection in the whole group using council on "What I can do to become a better team teacher" • Reflection Day 2
Final Assignment	• Self-Assessment: Are We Really Co-Teachers (Villa *et al.*, 2008, p. 193–194) • Describe the process of making one action plan from your self-assessment, the action you took, and your next intelligent action

Appendix B

Peer Team Teaching and Observation Activity

Guidelines for Peer Team Teaching

> The peer team teaching experience is an opportunity to open to the vulnerability of not knowing and to see what happens. It is also a rare opportunity to receive useful feedback from peers. The peer team teaching process is only as successful as feedback from the learners and observers is honest and delivered with the intention of helping the teaching team members to learn from their experience. Please be honest yet kind with one another – speaking with and from the heart using the Facilitative Feedback Model and Authoritative Model.

Steps in the Peer Team Teaching and Feedback Process:

1 Assign a time-keeper for peer team teaching
When time is up move to the next section.
2 One team teaches their lesson **for no more than 10 minutes.**
Remember you are trying to teach something you know how to teach with a partner, paying attention to communicating with each other. You are also observing the people who are your 'students'.
3 The teachers begin the feedback by reflecting aloud on the following questions:
   - How did I feel about the team teaching lesson in general?
   - How did I communicate with my partner?
   - What was the impact of the teachers on the students?
4 The students respond to the lesson by reflecting aloud on the following questions:
   - How did you feel to be a learner in this team taught lesson?
   - What was the impact of the teachers on you?
   - What feedback might you offer the teachers?

5 The observers respond to the lesson by reflecting aloud on the following questions:
   - What could I observe about the teacher's experience?
   - What could I observe about the student's experience?
   - What feedback might you offer the teachers?

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7 Interdisciplinary collaboration to promote L2 science literacy in Hong Kong

Chaoqi Fan and Yuen Yi Lo

Teaching has long been regarded as an individualistic profession, in part, due to the fact that teachers can preserve a significant degree of autonomy and privacy within their own classroom (see Lortie, 1975; Pounder, 1998). However, teacher collaboration, co-teaching or team teaching has been strongly advocated by researchers and teacher educators for its potential benefits for teachers' professional development and student learning (DelliCarpini, 2009; Musanti and Pence, 2010). For instance, in English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts (e.g. Japan and Hong Kong), team teaching between native-speaking English teachers and non-native-speaking English teachers has been encouraged so as to combine the merits of the two groups of teachers to facilitate students' learning of English (cf. Carless and Walker, 2006; Tajino and Tajino, 2000). This chapter is concerned with English language learning with a focus on content-based instruction (CBI) for learning academic subjects in English.

CBI can be generally characterised as using the target language that students are learning as the medium of instruction when teaching non-language content subjects (e.g. science, history). It can be treated as an umbrella term encompassing various programmes in different parts of the world (e.g. immersion programmes in Canada, Content and Language Integrated Learning in Europe, English-medium education in Asia), which may differ regarding the languages involved, teacher and student profiles, instructional practices and so forth (Lyster and Ballinger, 2011; Stoller, 2008). Nonetheless, the common underlying principle is that the integration of content and language learning can facilitate second language (L2) learning through more exposure to L2 input, more opportunities for interaction and output in authentic communicative contexts and stronger motivation among students (Coyle, Hood, and Marsh, 2010; Snow, Met, and Genesee, 1989).

However, it has been observed that simultaneous learning of content knowledge and the target language, especially more challenging academic language, poses tremendous difficulties for L2 learners (Gibbons, 2009; Llinares, Morton, and Whittaker, 2012). This type of programme calls for collaboration between L2 teachers and content-area teachers in CBI (Davison, 2006; Snow *et al.*, 1989). The rationale for this shift is that L2

teachers can equip students with the language required to access content knowledge whereas content-area teachers can better understand students' difficulties in learning content subjects in L2 and scaffold their learning (Hoare, Kong, and Evans, 1997). To be sure, the particulars of how such collaboration can actually be implemented in a school setting and whether it is effective in facilitating student learning is still under-explored (Trent, 2010).

This chapter reports a small-scale quasi-experimental study evaluating the collaboration between an English and science teacher in an English-medium secondary school in Hong Kong. Owing to an array of political, socio-economic and educational considerations, some secondary schools in Hong Kong use English as the medium of instruction for some or all content subjects (i.e. CBI in practice), and these English-medium schools are popular with parents and students (Tsui, 2004). Students in these schools have to sit for high-stakes public examinations in English, and it has been shown that this group of students may be disadvantaged in terms of their academic achievement because of the language barrier (Lo and Lo, 2014). Therefore, interdisciplinary collaboration has been encouraged by the government to enhance the effectiveness of English-medium teaching (Education Bureau, 2010), but such collaboration has not become popular yet (Trent, 2010). Thus, Hong Kong provides an interesting context for the study of interdisciplinary team teaching. The findings of our study will shed light on the potential of interdisciplinary collaboration for ELT practitioners in other contexts.

Literature review

Conceptualisation of collaboration, team teaching and co-teaching

The concept of 'teacher collaboration' is ambiguous in meaning and fluid in nature (Hargreaves, 1994; Little, 1990), as teachers can collaborate in many different ways and there are different forms of collaboration, which may yield different results. For instance, Little (1990) classifies four major types of collaboration, namely, storytelling, aid and assistance, sharing and joint work, depending on the intensity of teachers' interaction, interdependence and probability of mutual influence. More recent attempts at defining such an ambivalent concept tend to focus on a specific domain.

With regards to team-teaching collaborations between native-speaking English teachers and non-native English teachers, which has become more common in EFL contexts, Tajino and Tajino (2000) first distinguish between the weak version and the strong version. The main difference between the two is that the former simply brings together two teachers who execute their distinctive roles separately, without any genuine communication or collaboration. Tajino and Tajino (2000) also propose covert and overt team teaching, depending on whether the collaboration takes place in public (e.g.

teaching in the same classroom) or mainly during pre-class planning and post-class evaluation. They further summarise five patterns of team teaching. Their discussion yields significant insights into different possibilities for team teaching, which may take us beyond the common perception of co-teaching that implies two teachers have to teach together in the same lesson.

Interdisciplinary collaboration between language and content-area teachers in CBI

In CBI, students learn non-language content subjects through L2. The language needed to access these subject areas is academic language, which is distinct from conversational language in register, lexico-grammar, sentence patterns and text structure (Schleppegrell, 2004). Students also need to master certain subject-specific genres (e.g. descriptive reports, procedures, explanatory texts) for academic success (Gibbons, 2009). These requirements make it challenging for L2 learners to acquire content knowledge, while expanding their language proficiency simultaneously. This obstacle indicates the need for interdisciplinary collaboration between L2 (very often English) teachers and content-area teachers. This kind of collaboration has been advocated in Anglophone countries, where English is the default medium of instruction, with an increasing number of immigrant children now admitted into mainstream education (Creese, 2005; DelliCarpini, 2009). Again, the rationale is that language teachers better understand the linguistic needs of L2 learners whereas content-area teachers are experts in content teaching. When the two parties collaborate to design a content and language integrated curriculum, student learning will be facilitated (Davison, 2006; Snow *et al.*, 1989). For students in EFL contexts who lack regular exposure to the target language outside classrooms, such interdisciplinary collaboration has strong appeal.

A small, but growing, body of literature has investigated interdisciplinary collaboration between language and content-area teachers. Some studies describe how it is implemented in secondary and tertiary education. On a superficial level, L2 teachers may simply proofread the language used in the teaching materials (e.g. notes and test papers) for content subjects (Davison, 2006; Tan, 2011). More in-depth collaboration may include cross-curricular planning or even co-teaching (Kong, 2014; Stewart, Sagliano, and Sagliano, 2000). These collaborative practices have been summarised in Davison's five-level framework (2006), including 'pseudocompliance', 'compliance', 'accommodation', 'convergence' and 'creative co-construction'. These levels represent the range of teachers' attitudes towards collaboration and the effort they put into such practices. Dove and Honigsfeld (2010) propose seven models of co-teaching with descriptions of the target students and the respective roles of language and content-area teachers. These frameworks and models can inform further investigations into interdisciplinary collaboration.

Other studies have identified certain obstacles to the implementation of interdisciplinary collaboration in CBI contexts. Obstacles include teachers' divergent beliefs about knowledge and learning (Arkoudis, 2003; Trent, 2010), pedagogical foci (Creese, 2010; Tan, 2011), beliefs about their roles in the programme (Lo, 2014a; Man, 2008) and power relations in schools (DelliCarpini, 2009; Lo, 2014a). Studies also identify some general conditions necessary for successful collaboration such as time allocation, workload distribution, administrative support, school culture, interpersonal communication and professional development (Achinstein, 2002; Crow and Pounder, 2000; Dove and Honigsfeld, 2010).

A couple of recent studies have evaluated the effectiveness of interdisciplinary collaboration. For instance, Kong (2014) and Lo (2014b) investigate such collaboration in the context of English-medium schools in Hong Kong. They both report its effectiveness in helping students learn how to write subject-specific genres (e.g. history essays in Kong's study and science lab reports in Lo's study). However, in both studies, the researchers themselves acted as the language specialists or consultants, who were actively involved in the process of interdisciplinary collaboration. The researchers' expertise in this area may have influenced the implementation and effectiveness of the interdisciplinary collaborations. Thus, Kong (2014) calls for more action research to explore feasible modes of collaboration between busy content-area and language teachers.

The current study attempts to contribute to this under-explored area, especially regarding CBI implementation in Asia. In this chapter, we investigate the effectiveness of a CBI collaboration between a science specialist and an English teacher in Hong Kong. The study aims at evaluating the effectiveness of interdisciplinary collaboration in facilitating students' academic literacy development. The research questions are:

1 To what extent does interdisciplinary collaboration enhance student performance in writing academic texts in science?
2 What are teachers' perceptions of the implementation of interdisciplinary collaboration?

Methodology

Overall research design

This is a quasi-experimental study involving pre-test, intervention and post-test. The intervention was the interdisciplinary collaboration in the form of adjunct afterschool classes, and the dependent variable was students' performance in writing two scientific texts. The first author (Fan) performed the role as the English language teacher teaching both the experimental and comparison groups. The experimental group attended afterschool lessons teaching how to write academic texts in science (more details below),

whereas the comparison group attended the same number of afterschool lessons teaching general English grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension strategies.

There were two cycles of intervention implemented between February and May 2014. Each cycle consisted of five 40-minute lessons and focused on one particular science genre. The first target genre was classifying reports, which classify and describe different types of phenomena (e.g. plants). The second target genre was consequential explanation texts, which explain multiple effects of one cause (e.g. impact of acid rain) (Rose and Martin, 2012). Students' performance writing the target genres was evaluated before and after the intervention with the same writing test.

Research setting and participants

This study was conducted in a girls' secondary school in Hong Kong, where most content subjects were taught through English, and English was also taught as an isolated subject. As the school admitted mainly Band 1[1] students, their overall English proficiency should be higher than that of average Hong Kong students.

Student participants in this study were 20 Grade 7 students (aged 12–13) in the experimental group and 10 Grade 8 students in the comparison group. All of them voluntarily participated in the afterschool classes to enhance their English proficiency and informed consents were secured from them and their parents. As the students were studying in the same school and they were mainly living in the local neighbourhood, they should share similar demographic characteristics (e.g. socioeconomic background). One problematic aspect of our study design is that it was not ideal to recruit participants from two grade levels, as those in Grade 8 should be more academically advanced than their counterparts in Grade 7. This constitutes a limitation of the study. However, all the students took the pre-tests so that any prior differences in their science academic literacy would be controlled. Also, to the best of our knowledge, the science teachers in this school did not explicitly teach how to write scientific texts, so the student participants of two grade levels may not differ that much concerning academic literacy.

Teacher participants were also involved. First, the science teacher (identified as Teacher A) teaching the Grade 7 students was involved in designing and commenting on the materials together with Fan, the first author, who was an English teacher in the school when the study was conducted. Second, Teacher A and seven other teachers were invited to observe one lesson conducted with the experimental group. Two of the observers were English-language teachers, two taught history, two were science teachers (including Teacher A) and the other two taught geography. Afterwards, they were interviewed to express their opinions about the lessons.

The intervention

Designing the materials via collaboration

As mentioned above, the intervention represented interdisciplinary collaboration between the science teacher (Teacher A) and the English teacher (the first author). Teacher A has been teaching science in English for 18 years, whereas the English teacher had been teaching for three years. The two teachers were good friends and Teacher A expressed concerns over the students' English proficiency, especially the less able students. The English teacher had received some training in teaching academic literacy with genre-based pedagogy (Rose and Martin, 2012) and hence offered to help. With support from the school principal, the English teacher began to teach how to write scientific texts in the afterschool lessons. Teacher A shared with the English teacher the science subject syllabus, teaching schedule, and teaching materials (including textbooks, worksheets and vocabulary list). The English teacher used these references to design the teaching scheme of the two intervention cycles and developed relevant teaching materials. During the material design process, the English teacher consulted Teacher A whenever she felt uncertain about the subject content.

The genre-based pedagogy

The implementation of the intervention was similar to the adjunct English-language courses in tertiary institutes where students learn the content in normal major classes, and then attend English for Specific/Academic Purposes lessons. It also resembled the co-teaching model between mainstream content teachers and English teachers suggested by Dove and Honigsfeld (2010) where two teachers teach two student groups, but with different foci to suit the needs of students at different English proficiency levels. In this study, Teacher A taught the content or concepts in her normal science lessons, while during afterschool lessons the English teacher focused on teaching a group of less proficient students specific academic language and skills related to writing scientific texts.

Each cycle of intervention followed roughly the same flow: In the first lesson, the English teacher explained the outline of the unit to students and carried out the pre-test (more details below). In the second and third lesson, the English teacher analysed the target genre for students with a sample text. In the fourth lesson, the English teacher wrote the text of the target genre together with students. In the fifth (last) lesson, the teacher recapped the characteristics of the target genre and had students complete the post-test.

Data collection and instruments

Pre-test and post-test

The pre-test and post-test were designed to evaluate students' ability to write the target genres. The pre-test and post-test for each cycle were the same so as to track any improvement in students' writing after the intervention. The tests were basically writing tasks. Students were given a diagram (e.g. a flow chart), which provided the key concepts and vocabulary items (e.g. flowering plants, perennials) so as to ensure all students knew the content of the writing. Students were then required to write a text of around 120 words within 20 minutes (see the pre-test and post-test of the first cycle in Appendix 1). To minimise the learning effect, the teacher did not review student pre-tests. Also, the text used to teach the target genre during the intervention cycle was different from the one that students were asked to write in the tests.

Interviews

The eight English and content-area teachers, who had observed the lessons conducted with the experimental group, were interviewed and asked to share their opinions about the lessons and its potential implications for their own teaching. The interviews were conducted in Chinese with content-area teachers and in English with English-language teachers. They lasted between 15 and 30 minutes.

Data analysis

Test scores

Pre-tests and post-tests collected in the first and second cycle of intervention were analysed. Drawing on the features of academic texts or genres (Lin, forthcoming; Rose and Martin, 2012), a marking scheme in the form of an analytic rubric was designed, focusing on four aspects: (i) use of subject-specific and general academic vocabulary (apart from those given in the tests); (ii) use of signalling words (e.g. connectives) to enhance the coherence of the text; (iii) use of various sentence patterns to realise academic functions (e.g. defining, classifying, explaining) and (iv) organisation of the text according to different stages of the genre (e.g. in classifying reports, classification is followed by description of the different class types). Each aspect accounted for 10 marks and so the maximum score for each piece of writing would be 40. Spelling mistakes and minor grammar mistakes (e.g. third person singular) were not deducted, because it was assumed that students were able to correct those mistakes if they were given enough time to proofread their writings. The English teacher (the first author) marked

the pre-tests and post-tests twice with a one-month interval, yielding an intra-rater reliability of 0.96 ($p < .01$).

The mean scores of the experimental and comparison groups were then compared to see (i) whether students had improved between pre-tests and post-tests in writing academic texts and (ii) whether the interdisciplinary collaboration in the form of the adjunct afterschool course was effective. As the two groups of students were not randomly assigned, ANCOVA was performed to control any prior differences between the groups.

Students' writing in the pre- and post-tests

In addition to the test scores, students' writing in the pre- and post-tests was also analysed in detail to identify any changes in their academic writing. The foci of analysis again corresponded to the characteristics of academic language (i.e. vocabulary, sentence patterns and text organisation).

Interview data

Teachers' responses during the interviews were transcribed verbatim and analysed to identify any patterns or themes related to the research questions (e.g. their opinions about the effectiveness of the afterschool class and about interdisciplinary collaboration).

Results

The statistics of students' scores of the tests and analysis of their writing will first be presented to address the first research question, which concerns whether interdisciplinary collaboration enhances student performance in writing academic texts in science. This is then followed by teachers' interview data in response to the second research question about teachers' perceptions of the implementation of interdisciplinary collaboration.

Analysis of test scores

Table 7.1 and Figure 7.1 summarise and compare the performance of the two groups of students on the pre-tests and post-tests of the two intervention cycles.

As Table 7.1 and Figure 7.1 reveal, when the study started, the comparison group outperformed the experimental group in writing the first genre (classifying reports). This is perhaps not surprising, as the comparison group were Grade 8 students, one year ahead of the experimental group. Although both groups of students showed improvement in the post-test, the experimental group had greater improvement and even outperformed the comparison group. When it came to the second cycle using consequential explanation texts, the gap between the two groups in the pre-test was

Table 7.1 Students' performance in the two cycles

	Experimental group (N=20) Mean score (SD)		*Comparison group (N=10) Mean score (SD)*	
	Pre-test	*Post-test*	*Pre-test*	*Post-test*
First cycle	12.3 (5.3)	23.9 (7.9)	16.2 (3.5)	21.6 (6.6)
Second cycle	18.0 (3.5)	26.3 (4.8)	18.5 (4.9)	23.2 (4.8)

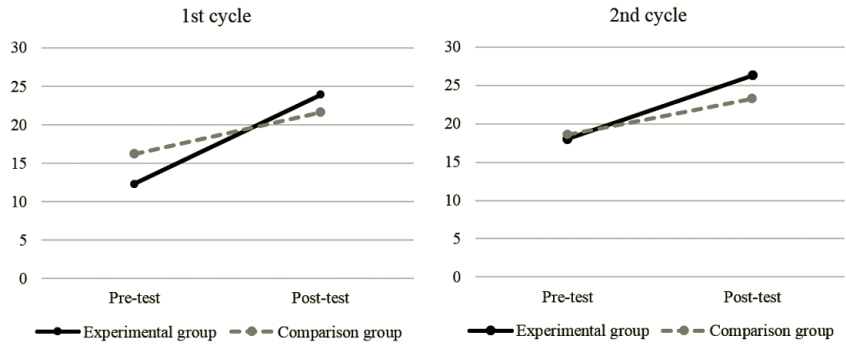


Figure 7.1 Students' performance in the two cycles

narrowed, and again, the experimental group scored higher in the post-test. These results seem to show the effectiveness of the interdisciplinary collaboration. This is further confirmed by ANCOVA, which shows that the experimental group significantly outperformed the comparison group even after controlling for their differences in the pre-tests ($F(1, 57)= 5.30$, $p<.05$).

Analysis of students' sample work

While the test scores presented above show that students in the experimental group improved when writing the target genres, the detailed analysis of students' writing in this section further demonstrates how students made the improvement. The sample work of some students in the experimental group is extracted for illustration, with the names being pseudonyms.

Students' understanding of the register of academic writing

In the pre-tests, some students were not aware of the appropriate register for academic writing, and hence they simply wrote in the style of their general English compositions. For example, excerpt 1 shows that Cathy wrote something like a speech or narrative in the pre-test.

Excerpt 1 (Cathy, Grade 7, pre-test, 1st cycle):

> We have a topic about scientists classify plant. Let me tell something about this to you.
> First, let me describe the flowering plants to you. In flowering plants, we have roses, sunflowers and cherry trees. Many familiar like to put them in their garden because they are lovely and beautiful and it is also easy to plant. A lot of lady and children like rose and sunflower . . .

It can be seen that Cathy wrote in the first person, which remains unusual in impersonal and scientific texts. After the intervention cycle, she seemed to have gained an understanding of the register and attempted to express her ideas more formally. Excerpt 2 shows what she wrote in the post-test:

Excerpt 2 (Cathy, Grade 7, post-test, 1st cycle):

> Scientists classify plants have two groups. One is flowering plant. One is non-flowering plants. Flowering plants have three groups.
> First, annuals is one of the group. It is about many familiar garden flowers are annuals. For example sunflower and moonflower. Second, biennials, in the first year, they produce stems and leaves; in the second year, they produce blossoms and seeds and then die. For example hollyhock and English Daisies. Thirdly, perennial is one of the group. Wildflowers are perennial plants. For example, peonies and phlox were developed from wild species . . .

In the post-test, Cathy did not use any first person pronouns and the classifying report looked more appropriate, though some grammatical mistakes could still be found.

Students' use of typical sentence patterns and signalling words

Second, students' academic writing also improved in terms of the use of some typical sentence patterns expressing particular academic functions and the use of signalling words (e.g. connectives) to achieve better coherence. For example, what Pinky wrote in excerpt 3 in the pre-test was largely incomprehensible:

Excerpt 3 (Pinky, Grade 7, pre-test, 1st cycle):

> In flowering plants, scientists are classifying. They use the length and pattern of their life cycles. For annuals, complete their life cycle in a single year. Many familiar garden flowers are annuals. e.g. sunflower and moonflower . . .

In this excerpt, it seems that Pinky was simply copying the key words or phrases given in the diagram and so some sentences (e.g. the first one '*In*

flowering plants, scientists are classifying') do not make sense. After the intervention cycle, Pinky seemed to have improved, as evident in excerpt 4.

Excerpt 4 (Pinky, Grade 7, post-test, 1st cycle):

> Scientists classify flowering plants into annuals, biennials and perennials based on the length and pattern of their life cycles. First, annuals complete their life cycle in a single year, such as sunflower and moonflower . . .

In the post-test, it was obvious that Pinky wrote a topic sentence with a typical classification pattern: '. . . classify . . . into . . . based on . . .' (Hoare *et al*., 1997). Moreover, she used some signalling words like 'first' and 'such as' to make the paragraph more logical and coherent.

Students' use of academic vocabulary

Further, students were found to use more academic vocabulary that was appropriate for the target topic and genres. For example, excerpt 5 was what Valerie wrote in the pre-test in the second cycle, which targeted a consequential explanation text:

Excerpt 5 (Valerie, Grade 7, pre-test, 2nd cycle):

> Effect 3: acid rain leave acid in the soil. Many plants die . . .

In the post-test, Valerie wrote the same paragraph as follows:

Excerpt 6 (Valerie, Grade 7, post-test, 2nd cycle):

> Thirdly, acid rain washes away the nutrition of the soil and increase the acidity of the soil. It also destroys the leaves directly, and thus many plants die.

Comparing the two pieces, Valerie included subject-specific vocabulary such as 'nutrition' and 'acidity'. She also made good use of some general academic vocabulary, such as 'increase' and 'destroy'. Moreover, she replaced 'effect 3' with a signalling word 'thirdly'. Finally, she linked the few sentences up with connectives 'thus' and 'and'. Therefore, the writing in the post-test demonstrates better understanding of academic language and that particular genre.

The content-area teachers' perceptions of the intervention and collaboration

Six out of the eight teachers interviewed felt that the interdisciplinary collaboration in the form of adjunct afterschool lessons adopting genre-based pedagogy helped students to develop their academic literacy. Those

six teachers also felt that the activities used during the lessons focusing on various characteristics of academic texts were meaningful, though only three of them thought those activities were interesting to students. Similarly, six out of the eight teachers believed that the same format of adjunct afterschool classes and pedagogy could be applied to other content subjects. Interestingly, they expressed reservations about applying them in their own content subject lessons, mainly because of the need for content coverage and the professional skills required for teaching academic language and subject-specific genres. In order to gain deeper insight into interdisciplinary collaboration, the perceptions of Teacher A, who collaborated with the English teacher in developing the materials and teaching the content in her normal science lessons, will be discussed further below.

While appreciating the English teacher's efforts in helping the lower achievers in the experimental group, Teacher A did not really agree with the pedagogy adopted in the lessons. When they were discussing the design of teaching materials, Teacher A, as reflected in the post-lesson interview, was expecting that the English teacher would help her to pre-teach some key vocabulary (summarised in a vocabulary list) so as to prepare the students for the normal science lessons. However, after she observed the afterschool lessons, she thought the English teacher 'simply repeated the knowledge they (students) have learned' and so Teacher A wondered about student interest in, as well as overall effectiveness of the activities. Also, she questioned the need to explicitly teach students the characteristics of academic texts (e.g. text structure, sentence patterns), mainly because she believed that 'students just need to know how to answer the questions (in exams)'. It seems that to Teacher A, students needed no more than vocabulary and some sentence patterns to do so. She also thought that students themselves should put more efforts into learning English after school, saying 'they cannot just depend on the teacher'. Taking herself as an example, Teacher A reflected that she had not received any help like this with learning scientific texts when she was studying in an English-medium school, but she still survived and succeeded. She considered this struggling period experience as indispensable for every student studying in English-medium (CBI) schools.

Discussion

This chapter investigates interdisciplinary collaboration in a particular context of English language teaching – content-based instruction (CBI) programmes – in which L2 learners are expected to learn content knowledge and L2 (e.g. English) at the same time. In CBI, the special characteristics of academic language or subject-specific genres pose huge challenges for L2 learners. Given their training as subject specialists only (Mehisto, 2008), most content-area teachers in CBI programmes may find it difficult to help their students to overcome linguistic challenges on their own. This indicates

an urgent need for collaboration between L2 teachers and content-area teachers in CBI contexts. The study reported in this chapter adds to the scant empirical evidence on the effectiveness of interdisciplinary collaboration.

This study evaluates a collaboration or co-teaching model (Dove and Honigsfeld, 2010), with the science teacher teaching the content in the timetabled science lessons, and the L2 (English) teacher conducting afterschool classes for a group of lower achievers to provide assistance in academic writing. When designing the course, the two teachers planned together. The science teacher also observed the afterschool lessons to comment on the pedagogy, materials and activities. With the quasi-experimental design and the presence of the comparison group (which also attended afterschool lessons focused on general English), our conclusion is that this model of interdisciplinary collaboration was effective in facilitating the development of students' academic literacy in terms of using appropriate vocabulary, sentence patterns, text structure and register. Such effectiveness could partly be attributed to the genre-based pedagogy especially designed to teach academic literacy, and partly to the collaboration between the two teachers.

Due to the extensive syllabus and tight teaching schedule, content-area teachers often struggle to cover all of the content. In CBI programmes, this fact obviously leaves very limited time to teach academic language or subject-specific genres (Lo, 2014a). This lack of instruction is especially pronounced in examination-oriented contexts such as those in Asia, where content-area teachers have to prepare students for high-stakes public examinations (Tan, 2011). Further, content-area teachers may not be aware of students' needs regarding language (Lo, 2014a). Therefore, most of them may simply adopt the 'language bath' approach, in which students are expected to gradually 'pick up' the necessary language (Dalton-Puffer, 2007). This attitude was evident when the science teacher in this study mentioned that she did not think the explicit instruction of language in the afterschool classes was necessary. This leads us to conclude that if English language teachers could collaborate with content-area teachers to pre-teach or consolidate some relevant academic language features (e.g. the use of signalling words, useful sentence patterns), students will benefit in learning both content and language. A further possible advantage of a team approach can be found during the planning and evaluation stages, where content-area teachers and L2 teachers may also develop a better understanding of the curriculum requirement and pedagogical foci of other subjects. They may then reflect on their own teaching and make adjustments as they see appropriate (Lo, 2014b).

While the benefits of interdisciplinary collaboration were demonstrated, some tension also emerged. First, there seemed to be differences in the teachers' beliefs about language teaching. The English teacher, inspired by the genre-based pedagogy, believed in the need to highlight the various

characteristics of academic language for the students. The science teacher, however, did not hold such a belief. The latter only put emphasis on pre-teaching or consolidating subject-specific terms, which echoes previous observation in Hong Kong schools that content-area teachers did not pay much attention to language teaching, and that they were worried about putting too much focus on language teaching (Kong, 2014; Lo, 2014a). Second, in line with what Trent (2010) and Kong (2014) have found, the two teachers did not share beliefs about pedagogy or pedagogical foci. The English teacher adopted the genre-based pedagogy, with step-by-step guidance, whereas the science teacher challenged the repetition of content teaching and explicit instruction of language. Third, content-area teachers and L2 teachers might have different beliefs about their roles in CBI. While the content-area teachers who had observed the adjunct classes agreed about the usefulness of the classes, they cast doubts about whether such pedagogy could be incorporated into their own lessons. They elaborated their doubts with reasons such as tight teaching schedule and lack of necessary professional training (Kong, 2014). This attitude is probably due to their lack of training and knowledge in language teaching pedagogy (Koopman, Skeet, and de Graaff, 2014). However, there might also be a possibility that they did not strongly recognise their roles as language teachers (Lo, 2014a; Tan, 2011).

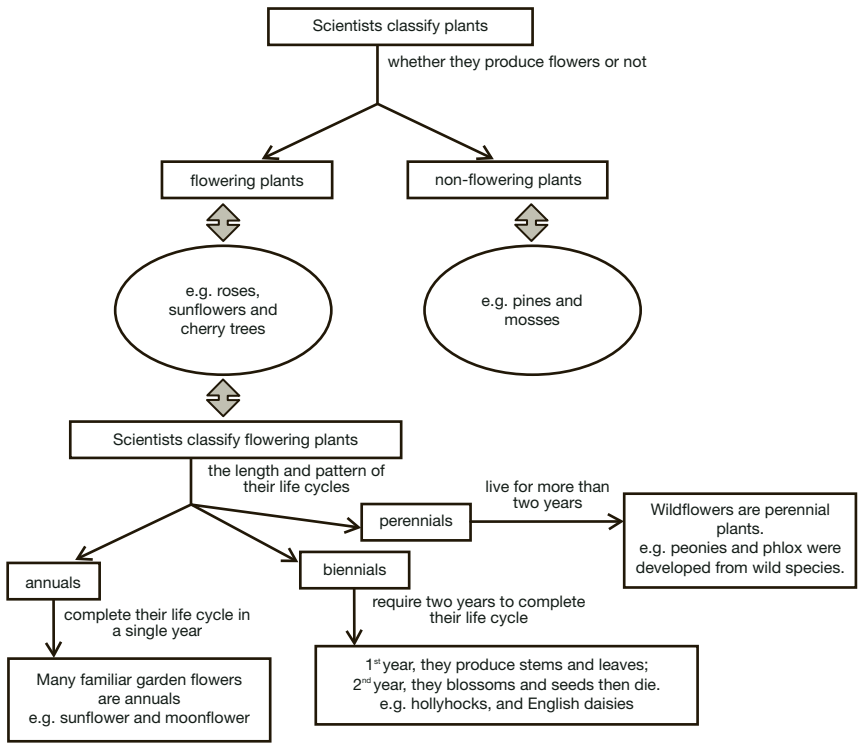
Conclusions

It has never been easy to implement teacher collaboration or team teaching in school settings (Carless and Walker, 2006; Crow and Pounder, 2000). It may be even more difficult for teachers from different disciplines to engage in collaboration. This chapter shows how the CBI collaboration between a science and English teacher worked to facilitate students' development of scientific academic literacy. Yet, it also uncovers some tensions involved during the collaboration, especially regarding teachers' different beliefs and expectations. Therefore, this study has significant implications for fostering interdisciplinary collaboration in CBI (and perhaps for other kinds of collaboration). While contextual factors and administrative support may seem indispensable or might serve as the prerequisite for effective teacher collaboration, intra-personal factors (e.g. the underlying beliefs and ideologies of teachers involved) cannot be ignored (Kong, 2014). Corroborating what Cammarata and Tedick (2012) have suggested, we believe that in order to promote successful interdisciplinary collaboration, professional development programmes should enable all teachers to understand the aims and theoretical underpinnings of CBI so that they may change their beliefs about their roles and become more aware of the inseparable relationship between content and language.

Appendix 1

Pre-test/Post-test for Cycle 1

Task: Using the flowchart below, write an article of about 120 words to describe different types of plants.



Note

1 Band 1 is the highest band in the three-tier categorisation system of Primary 6 school-leavers in Hong Kong.

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Section 3

Collaborative innovations beyond team teaching

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8 Communication, technology and collaboration for innovation

Julian Edge and Mariam Attia

We offer this chapter as both an argument for, and an example of, collegial collaboration in the service of innovation. Our initial approach is autobiographical, because this allows us to ballast our proposals with the weight of our specific personal experiences. Julian's story begins with his discovery of non-judgemental communication and moves towards the use of information and communications technology (ICT). Mariam's story begins in the context of ICT and leads towards her discovery of non-judgemental communication. Their two narratives meet in the on-line facilitation of Cooperative Development, in which we see a powerful, collaborative response to a challenge that we believe to be widespread and pressing.

This challenge arises from the everyday pressure on classroom teachers, who will frequently be less ICT-literate than their students, to devise and implement convincing pedagogic experiences that exploit the affordances of the new technologies. This pressure can only increase. In-service updating at a skills level (along the traditional lines of, 'How to use the tape recorder/interactive whiteboard/ RSS feeds') will not be able to keep pace.

As Ertmer and Ottenbreit-Leftwich (2010) put it:

> Unfortunately, learning about technology is equivalent to asking teachers to hit a moving target. Teachers will never have 'complete' knowledge about the tools available, as they are always in a state of flux. This often results, then, in teachers being perpetual novices in the process of technology integration (Mueller *et al*., 2008), which suggests the need for teachers to have strong self-efficacy for teaching with technology.
>
> (pp. 260–261)

In line with this observation, we suggest that the teacher development of the future will be at least as much a question of evolving a 'way of being' as it will of learning lists of competencies. It is in this area that we hope to make our contribution, in the shape of Cooperative Development, an approach to collegial communication that engages the personal as well as the professional, calls for action as well as self-expression, requires and builds

empathy and interpersonal trust and facilitates community-building as well as individual growth.

Finally, we extend to you an invitation to use the static, print-based chapter that you are now reading as a key to wider collaboration in a digital future.

Julian's story

As a teacher trainer in the 1980s, I spent a certain amount of time sitting at the back of classes, making notes and then giving feedback. On some occasions, I found it difficult to get my points across to the teacher concerned. And on some of those occasions, I started to glimpse the fact that what I had 'observed' was not what the teacher had seen herself as 'doing'. At its most obvious, the difference between 'failing to correct' and 'encouraging fluency' lies in awareness and purpose, not in behaviour. In similar fashion, 'failure to achieve the aims of the lesson' and 'excellent use of unplanned teaching opportunity' might equally well describe what happened in a class. And in less easily definable ways, I began to feel that since comments of mine did not arise from a full understanding of the teacher's experience of the lesson, they might well be frustratingly meaningless at worst and perhaps only tangentially interesting at best. So I started to listen and check more, and talk less. This, in turn, led to a realisation that, as some teachers talked, especially when they were not feeling defensive, they came to realisations that had nothing at all to do with my notes – they produced their own self-constructed realisations of possibilities that they were keen to follow up on.

At the same time, my reading of the inspirational Earl Stevick (1980) had introduced me to what were then called humanistic approaches to language teaching. This led me to the writings of Carl Rogers, a connection made more concrete by the publication of Rogers' (1983) *Freedom to Learn for the 80's*. What I take to be central to Rogers' work is, first, the conviction that each individual has what he called a self-actualising tendency – an inclination to develop into the best person that they can be. Many circumstances can, and do, get in the way of this tendency. By the same token, however, circumstances can be influenced in order to facilitate the workings of this same tendency. That is a major role of the teacher and, by extension, of the teacher educator. Second, Rogers saw learning not only as a set of intellectual procedures or behavioural skills for the individual, but as a whole-person experience, engaging the emotions, imagination and activity embedded in social interaction. Once again, the extension to teacher education seems to follow naturally.

And in parallel with these developments (as I initially thought), I found myself becoming ever more impatient with what Clarke (1994) was later to call the 'dysfunctions of the theory/practice discourse,' and increasingly interested in the potential of what Schön (1983) called reflective practice, as well as the tradition established in general education (e.g. Carr and Kemmis, 1986) of action research. Both these latter seemed to offer ways of changing

what was generally meant by 'theory' in teacher education: a change away from the sense of abstract rules that were handed down from on high, and towards the sense of located statements, painstakingly worked out, that actually accounted for authentic teaching experience. Such an approach also required the reconceptualisation of the role of teachers away from the idea of technicians who applied other people's schemes and towards the idea of explorers and articulators of what had been learned during and from classroom practice.

By this point, the above lines of thinking were no longer running in parallel, but feeding each other in ways that led to Edge and Richards (1993), the first of several conference collections under the series heading of *Teachers Develop Teachers Research*. They had also led me to devise a collegial way of working with a fellow teacher that I called Cooperative Development (Edge, 1992). Cooperative Development sets out to harness Rogers' self-actualising tendency with regard to personal and professional development. It does so by providing the kind of interpersonal context in which a person can pursue the kind of non-defensive exploration of their ideas that leads them, when all goes well, to discoveries of their own on which they can base their own plans of action. In terms of human relations and communication, it enables a way of being (Rogers, 1980) that is facilitative of the goals of reflective practice (continuing professional development) and of action research (the theorising of authentic experience).

Cooperative Development, in its earliest forms, involved two people who met as equals, determined to dispel the sense of isolation that the classroom teacher can sometimes experience (Park, Oliver, Johnson, Graham, and Oppong, 2007). They discuss the roles and the procedures involved and they commit to keeping to them, or to developing them. They agree on a time to meet and they offer each other complete confidentiality regarding what is said. At each meeting, one person takes on the role of the Speaker, the person who brings an issue to work on, and one person the Understander, the colleague who will work to co-construct the environment in which non-defensive exploration can take place. In other words, both Speaker and Understander are working on the self-development of the Speaker, thus recognising that self-development is well-mediated in social process.

The Speaker, then, is committed to exploring the issue that he or she has nominated, to search for new insights, to make discoveries and to plan future action. In addition to the usefulness of each exploration, the Speaker is adding to the construction of a new trajectory of discourse in professional development. Rather than bemoaning the disparity between what he or she may have been taught 'in theory' and 'what works' in the classroom, the Speaker is faced with the challenge of asking, 'OK, I know what I have learned, intellectually and experientially. Now, how do I make of all this the best sense that I can?'

In support of this effort, the Understander offers a complete and respectful acceptance of what the Speaker has to say, with no agreement, nor

disagreement, just positive acceptance. More than that, the Understander offers empathy, a genuine attempt to see things from the Speaker's perspective. The Understander also offers complete sincerity with regard to acceptance and empathy – there is no attempt to influence the Speaker's thinking or feeling or planning. There is no exchange of ideas.

It becomes immediately apparent that the rules of interaction are unusual. As such, they produce unusual pressures on both Speaker and Understander.

When we speak, we expect an evaluative response to what we have said. We expect to be told what the person we are talking to thinks about the subject. When these responses are deliberately avoided, we are left to assess the value of what we have said ourselves. We are also called upon to continue, to dig deeper, to work out what follows, logically, perhaps, or in recognition of how we are feeling, or in terms of plausible action. One element of the situation that makes it easier for us to respond to these unusual pressures is the agreement that we have with our Understander: we are not being evaluated. We can let our ideas run free, we can take risks, there is nothing that we will have to defend. This is what we mean by speaking in the context of Cooperative Development.

When we listen to someone, we also expect to have our say. Indeed, some of the time we don't even let them finish before telling them what we think. Or we listen to the beginning of what they have to say and then spend the rest of their talking time preparing our response. It can be very difficult (more for some people than others) to clear one's head of one's own opinions, to put aside one's own experience, to repress the urge to agree or disagree, to add one's own examples and arguments. Instead of an exchange of ideas, teachers engaged in Cooperative Development dedicate their intelligence, sensitivity and energy to helping a colleague create their own, self-designed way forward. This is what we mean by Understanding in the context of Cooperative Development.

One element of the situation that makes it easier for participants to respond to these unusual pressures is that Understanding is, in itself, an active role that brings its own satisfactions in multiple ways. First, there is the satisfaction of seeing a colleague achieve self-development that would not have been possible without your involvement. Second, there is the sense of increased collegiality that comes more broadly from getting to know a person better and learning to trust them and be trusted by them. Third, Understanders get to hear ideas and possibilities that would not have been heard in the give-and-take (or cut-and-thrust) of normal discussion. Fourth, and as a result of the previous three points, the truth of the observation that there is no one best way of teaching becomes manifest. Cooperative Development offers a way of building community that emphasises diversity and plurality, rather than imposed uniformity (Klette, 1997). Finally, there is the excitement of building a new skill set in an extended communicative repertoire. As with any conscious language-learning experience, the way forward involves understanding supported by practice-in-use.

So, let us look more closely at that skill-set and the active role of the Understander. (Later, we refer you to a source of practice materials and of potential partners.) I list below the set of moves on which the Understander can draw. 'List', of course, carries its own danger signal. A list is necessarily sequential, but I do not mean to suggest that these moves are carried out sequentially; they are available to be used, and while the first one is essential at all times, the second is perhaps the most central of all – master that and the rest follows.

Attending, with eyes and face and body and gesture and heart and mind and spirit. You pay attention and let the Speaker know that you are doing so.

Reflecting, by which you show that you have been paying attention by reflecting back to the Speaker what you have understood. You might say something like: 'Let me see if I've got this right. You are saying . . .' Speakers who feel well understood will be motivated to continue. If something has been misunderstood (or perhaps was not clear in the first place), the Speaker can clarify – perhaps also for themselves. And most exciting of all is the time when the Speaker recognises an accurate reflection of what they have said and simultaneously sees the new idea that follows from it.

Thematising, in order to raise the possibility that points raised separately by the Speaker might have some common theme underlying them. You might say: 'I hear you saying xxxxx now, and earlier you were saying yyyyy. Is that right? Are those ideas connected at all?'

Challenging, in order to suggest the possibility that points raised separately by the Speaker might not be coherent with each other. You might say: 'I hear you saying xxxxx at this point. I'm not sure how that fits with what I understood before, when you were saying yyyyy. Have I got those two points right?' Note that thematising and challenging are two sides of the same coin and both arise from points raised by the Speaker. The Understander must be working sincerely to understand, not to suggest or dispute. Speakers do not have to satisfy Understanders, they have to satisfy themselves.

Focusing, with which you encourage the Speaker to keep in mind that talk can be general, but that action needs to be specific. So you might say, 'Is there anything in what you've said so far that you think you'd like to go into in more depth?'

Goal-setting, with which you invite the Speaker to establish a goal for themselves. You might say, 'So, coming out of what you've said so far, can you see a clear goal that you'd like to set yourself?'

Trialling, with which you invite the Speaker to think through carefully how they intend to work in practical terms towards the goal that they have set. You might say, 'OK, if that is the goal, do you want to work on how you're going to get there – what you're actually going to do?'

At this point, the Speaker will be ready to go off and implement their ideas, or will perhaps want to come back and work to clarify them some more. Not all sessions will follow through from issue-raised to plan-of-

detailed-action (although Edge 2003 exemplifies one such), but that is the overall trajectory that participants are aiming for. The process is helped if participants agree to regular meetings, changing roles as appropriate.

Having attempted to describe the style, the demands, the pressures and the potential of non-judgemental discourse in Cooperative Development, it is now essential to make very clear that this is not intended as an attack on critical thinking, argument, debate, giving advice, making suggestions or any of the other essential styles of interaction that we use all the time to fuel our relationships and further our development. The point at issue is not that we should replace these forms of interaction, but that we need not allow ourselves to be limited by them. We can add to our communicative repertoire and thereby extend our potential for a style of self-development that also enhances the experience of collegiality. Just giving advice or just making suggestions is relatively easy – after all, we do indeed do it all the time. To provide the kind of understanding evoked above is not at all easy. But they are attitudes that can be adopted and skills that can be learned, starting from where one is with a colleague interested in giving it a try.

From those one-to-one and face-to-face beginnings, cooperative development has evolved. For instance, it has been used in a team-oriented approach to curriculum change (Butorac, 2008), and has developed group formats that take the explicit goal of community-building further (Edge, 2002, Chapter 9). There are also online versions using instant messenger Cooperative Development (IMCD) (Boon, 2007), e-mail (EMCD) (Edge, 2011, Chapter 8) and Skype. In my own current situation, EMCD has become the mode of Cooperative Development that is most engaging my efforts and interests. I miss the in-the-moment, face-to-face energy of the original version, but find the reflective space allowed to both Speaker and Understander by the exchange of e-mails to be at least an adequate compensation.

This technologically low-level integration of the use of non-judgemental discourse with ICT brings my story up to date. More recently, Mariam has established a Web presence for Cooperative Development that we hope can make it more available and accessible for a greater number of people. Moreover, in aligning the potential of non-judgemental discourse with the need to integrate the use of ICT into the mainstream of language pedagogy, I believe that she is addressing one of the most pressing challenges facing early twenty-first century teachers. But all that is her story.

Mariam's story

I completed my master's degree in teaching Arabic as foreign language (TAFL) in 1997 at The American University in Cairo, Egypt. By then, I had concluded over 100 hours of classroom observations, and had my first in-class teaching experience. At that time, teacher education was primarily based on the 'craft model' (Wallace, 1991, pp. 6–7) whereby a student-teacher was 'adopted' by one or more 'master' practitioners and taught the 'secrets of

the craft' through close apprenticeship (Stones and Morris, 1972, p. 7). Mentors not only facilitated professional learning but also offered moral support and rich insight into institutional culture. Beliefs about the profession were therefore socially constructed through the novices' engagement with their community. With the passing of time, they themselves became mentors, responsible for a younger generation of practitioners.

Unsurprisingly, one of the merits of the craft model is the strong affective bond, which develops over the years through shared lived experiences. On the other hand, one of the drawbacks of the model is the slow uptake of innovations. In contexts where the majority of veteran teachers employ minimal, if any, ICT in their classes, newer ones rarely observe the use of these resources in authentic teaching settings. There were, however, a couple of 'early adopters' (Rogers, 2010) in my department whose contributions, as well as that of other colleagues at the university, inspired my trajectory in instructional technologies.

Early collegial collaboration involved computer-based material development for classroom use, most of which took place inside the computer-assisted language learning (CALL) unit. Established by the late Waheed Samy, a teacher with a personal interest in educational technologies, the small room at the end of the corridor was a hub for collaborative activity among motivated teachers. Another late colleague, Sanaa Ghanem, who had just started a private online programme for teaching Arabic to speakers of other languages (TASOL), invited me to contribute to the development of instructional material. This was a significant experience that introduced me to the world of virtual learning. Both Waheed and Sanaa placed much confidence in me as a newly qualified teacher, and from their example, I learned that failure is acceptable, risk is necessary and embracing uncertainly is essential when working with technology.

In 2001, our department received a large innovation grant, under which it was transformed into an environment of ubiquitous computing and networking. The technology base opened up new possibilities for teaching and learning, but posed a significant challenge to many teachers as they underwent what Zhao, Pugh, Sheldon, and Byers (2002) describe as 'the messy process through which teachers struggle to negotiate a foreign and potentially disruptive innovation into their familiar environment' (p. 483).

During this start-up phase, I was given time release to explore further the use of digital media in Arabic language teaching. This facilitated collaboration with Marwa Mansour, a colleague from the university's academic IT services, which resulted in the development of the first Arabic language blended learning course in the institution. A handful of other teachers were taking steps towards incorporating digital media into their practice but, despite strong interpersonal ties, forays into technology largely remained an individual undertaking. Nevertheless, one year several of us got together and decided to showcase aspects of teaching Arabic with technology at an international conference (MESA, 2005). This was the first public

presence of our technology-focused group of practitioners. Most importantly, collaborating for this presentation allowed us to have thoughtful discussions about our individual use of digital media and to reflect on many taken-for-granted elements of our practice. Sharing experiences in this manner introduced us to a wealth of situated practitioner experience, thereby opening up new vistas for utilising ICT in Arabic language teaching.

Despite such progress, one fact remained: the overall uptake of technology in the department was minimal. This motivated me to consider conducting large-scale research with the aim of understanding ICT integration within this ecology.

In 2006, I left teaching to start a PhD in the UK. Initially, I explored factors for adoption of technology by teachers, which resulted in an investigation of teachers' beliefs and attitudes, or what is collectively known as 'teacher cognition' (e.g. Borg, 2003, 2006), as a widely recognised factor for ICT integration (e.g. Ertmer, 2005; Ertmer, Ottenbreit-Leftwich, Sadik, Sendurur, and Sendurur, 2012). My research focused on examining the relationship between teacher cognition and technology use in the context of TASOL. Before long I returned to my small group of technology users in Egypt to conduct fieldwork, and chose three colleagues to work closely with. Their contribution to the research was remarkable, as documented in my thesis.

> With the passing of time, the project developed into a kind of collaborative research. Theoretically speaking, I was the researcher and they were the participants; however, at times the demarcation line would disappear, and we would perceive the fieldwork experience as ours rather than mine.
>
> (Attia, 2011, p. 99)

Interestingly, the accounts of the three participants called attention to the value of peer collaboration for technology integration, thereby corroborating earlier research in this area: 'the importance of collaboration cannot be overestimated: teachers need each other – for team teaching and planning, technical problem solving assistance and learning' (Granger, Morbey, Lotherington, Owston, and Wideman, 2002, p. 486). The teachers identified collegial interaction as a key source of motivation, confidence, support and learning. In describing the significance of interactions with colleagues to her ICT professional development, Dalal Abo El Seoud, one of the teachers who participated in my study, explained:

> Colleagues are of major importance because I always turn to them when I want to learn something, and they ask me too. Everyone knows bits and pieces that we assist each other with, particularly, [in relation] to matters that are not complicated, nor require lengthy explanations.
>
> (Attia, 2011, p. 126)

While working on my research, I also audited modules at the university, one of which was Julian's *The Education of Language Teachers*. There, I was introduced to Cooperative Development as a framework for teacher professional growth, and was particularly drawn to the approach's underlying principles of sincerity, respect and empathy. However, coming from an educational context where peer collaboration was conventionally forged through close conversations, I found Cooperative Development, grounded in non-defensive, non-judgmental communication, quite atypical. It was only after exploring the approach in further depth, and engaging with it for several months that I came to appreciate the rich potential it holds both for myself and for fellow professionals. This insight was reflected in a webinar (Attia, 2012) I conducted for teachers worldwide on the use of cooperative development for teacher self-development through the use of educational technologies.

As an approach to teacher collaboration, Cooperative Development can facilitate teacher integration of ICT, especially given the current speed of technological change, and the increasing pressure on many teachers to keep pace. First, being an internal growth model, the approach is based on self-directed exploration, discovery and action, thereby empowering teachers to take responsibility for their own learning. This is of particular importance in educational settings where technology integration is primarily a personal endeavor.

Second, because Cooperative Development foregrounds discourse that is non-defensive and non-judgmental, it opens up avenues for addressing sensitive realities of technology adoption, such as time pressure, institutional culture, insecurity (Attia, 2011), uncertainly and risk-aversion (Howard, 2013). These are matters of shared experience that teachers may prefer to work through with trusted colleagues rather than with other members of their professional community.

Third, the disciplined use of non-judgmental communication advocates working together on a regular basis over a period of time. This scheduled interaction helps teachers to develop their teaching with ICT in incremental steps, and become more familiar with the different digital tools and less anxious about using them, which is pivotal to boosting confidence and facilitating adoption (Ertmer, 2005; Howard, 2013). In this respect, the approach offers teachers safe spaces to experiment with ICT, to take risks, and to accept both success and failure as integral to technology adoption.

Fourth, Cooperative Development is not only founded on a collegial relationship of trust and interdependence but is likely to strengthen such relationships over time. This element is essential for continuous teacher development in ICT, and the expansion of communities of technology-using practitioners, within institutions and beyond.

I continued exploring the potential of Cooperative Development, and with the expansion of the approach geographically and professionally, I felt it was time to establish a virtual home for it. In 2014, I set up the website

(www.cooperative-development.com) to gain deeper understanding of the area, and promote closer interaction between interested professionals.

The online space comprises resources of various kinds, including introductory practice materials for pairs and groups, along with commentaries and further explanation of ideas. There are also theses and dissertations, presentations and workshops archived, in addition to a designated section for authentic Cooperative Development exchanges. As such, the space constitutes a portal for all the work that has been completed in this area to date, and a reference for anyone who may wish to carry it forward.

At a more interpersonal level, the website hosts a growing international network of professionals interested in the use of Cooperative Development. My aim is to see it evolve as a place for sharing experiences, exchanging ideas and collaborating on various areas (e.g. training, research, public engagement). The community space also constitutes a meeting point for potential Speakers and Understanders to find partners as needed, which should prove to be particularly beneficial to professionals who may feel isolated due to geography or institutional structure. Considering the global influence of the English language, we are aware of the dangers of possible linguistic isolation, and therefore welcome contributions in other languages.

Conclusion

In this collaborative chapter, we have combined our individual biographies in order to bring together a number of interacting themes regarding communication, technology, innovation and collaboration as they contribute to continuing personal and professional development for teachers as individuals, colleagues and communities:

- Communication lies at the heart of community. Furthermore, a shared, conscious effort to extend communicative repertoire can enhance that sense of community.
- The demands of ICT in education will grow at an accelerating rate, placing increasing pressure on teachers to engage in on-going experimentation and risk-taking.
- Innovation is facilitated when colleagues feel supported by a sense of mutual regard and encouraged to develop their strengths.
- Cooperative Development offers a form of collaboration based on a respect for plurality, in which interdependence supersedes individual isolation and group conformity.

In sum, we consider our proposal for communicative innovation as the central message of this chapter. We have focused on technology, because we see the need to innovate in the area of ICT becoming an ever more pressing requirement for teachers. The communicative innovation we propose can

provide a way to respond to the need for technological innovation, as well as to other needs that the community comes to perceive.

As we know, this text will grow old. That is the nature of the products of the print revolution in communication technology. By the time you read this chapter, however, the website described above will have further developed to serve the purposes of its users. That is the nature of the digital revolution in communication technology. The challenge before us is to harness the potential of this latter revolution in order to give a new dimension to what Rogers (1983) meant by 'freedom to learn'. Wherever you see your own trajectory leading you with regard to collaboration, innovation, and ICT we hope that this chapter might encourage you to join us in the exploration of the usefulness of non-defensive, non-judgmental communication.

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9 The dynamics of team learning in the creation of a higher education learning community

A narrative inquiry

Tim Stewart

When we first join an institution, normally we learn about the institutional culture from colleagues who have been there for some time. This chapter describes an unusual situation where 'experienced' faculty, in terms of years of service, lacked experience in a particular circumstance. They were involved in founding a new 'international' university in Japan that, uncharacteristically, was not merely international in name. The faculty members came from around the world and were situated in rural Japan. For some Japanese faculty members, the problematic aspect was the university's mission, rather than the setting. However, for the Westernised faculty, the setting magnified the potential for culture shock. The university was organised based on the U.S. liberal arts college model, but administrative practice was an intercultural mix. Finally, interdisciplinary team teaching was a pivotal part of the design of the new institution's curriculum. The liberal arts curriculum was taught in English to second language learners and required an unusual degree of interdisciplinary collaboration between English language teaching (ELT) educators and subject-area specialists. While exhilarating for some, these elements combined into a volatile mix for other teaching teams.

This chapter is a self-reflective inquiry that seeks to broaden understanding of team learning in higher education by emphasising the importance of practice and collaboration for meaning making and community building. Central to my conceptualisation of team learning are groupings of shared activity called communities of practice (Wenger, 1998). Faculty members belong to a number of communities of practice (CoP) that can be characterised as learning networks or teams. Ideally, we share our passions for learning, teaching, community service and scholarship by interacting with likeminded individuals as we endeavour to do them better. The practice of a community is dynamic and involves learning by everyone. This dynamic is thrown into stark relief in my chapter by the unusual circumstance of starting a new international university in rural Japan.

For Tajino and Smith (Chapter 2 in this volume), ELT team learning involves collaborative inquiry with students to form a kind of community of practice for classroom research where the roles of student and teacher are fluid. Their concept of team learning follows Allwright's (2005) Exploratory

Practice wherein teachers bring their students into the work of teaching by giving them a voice in things such as choosing what to learn, how to learn it, and how it should be evaluated. Furthermore, teachers do not linger on the periphery as wise mentors while students engage in tasks, but they take on more active learning roles during class activities. The benefits of team learning collaboration in lessons are highlighted in Gladman's study (2015). He found that Japanese students who were team taught in classrooms that integrated language and content instruction (see Chapter 10 in this volume) saw no distinction in roles between the subject-area teacher and the language teacher, and felt 'liberated' to ask questions. Students' consciousness of team learning dynamics was evident: 'team teaching cannot be done if the teachers alone strive' (p. 140).

The narrative in this chapter reflects the above definition of team learning, and elaborates it beyond the ELT classroom by emphasising learning opportunities within the array of CoP typically found in higher education communities. I see team learning as anchored within the theories of practice, situated experience and identity that conceptualise a social theory of learning. My chapter describes the emergence of team learning in various CoP that formed in order to create a new institution. I argue that, despite considerable turmoil, learning within constituent CoP at the newly founded university facilitated the creation of organisational memory and identity that are vital to building a vibrant learning community.

According to Wenger's (1998) theory of identity, interactions in diverse CoP generate authentic practice that produces understanding and leads to the development of professional identities. CoPs and team learning must not be idealised as somehow intrinsically beneficial. These activity groupings do not have inherently positive or negative characteristics. What an individual learns could be viewed as harmful or beneficial, and this view can change over time. Below, I explore aspects of my own learning and how my professional identity was shaped during the tumultuous first year of a small liberal arts college where I taught for 10 years. While I am an ELT specialist, I have trained in other disciplines and have co-taught courses with colleagues across the disciplines. My chapter showcases the process of team learning in areas such as faculty governance, interdisciplinary team teaching and administrative service.

The school

The new institution was the first in Japan to offer a degree accredited by Japan's Ministry of Education for a liberal arts programme taught in English. At the time of its founding, barely 2 per cent of full-time faculty members in Japan's system of higher education were non-Japanese. Miyazaki International College (MIC) employed a faculty composed of 80 per cent non-Japanese professors (Miyazaki International College, 2003). Very briefly, the goals and philosophy of the university are as follows:

> MIC is a liberal arts college, international in scope, grounded in the social sciences and humanities, and emphasizing the study of world-wide human problems and issues in a spirit of collaboration, inquiry, and multicultural understanding . . . At the core of the academic program is a philosophy of active learning . . . MIC prepares students to employ critical thinking skills with equal facility in Japanese and English . . .
>
> (Miyazaki International College, 2003, p. 2)

Pedagogical concepts outlined in this mission statement, such as collaborative inquiry, multicultural learning, active learning, critical thinking and the promotion of bilingualism, have not been emphasised broadly at higher education institutions in Japan until very recently. In addition, students complete the fourth semester at universities in English-speaking countries. Thus, in many respects the new institution was a generation ahead of the current trends in Japanese higher education. In a 1996 external evaluation review of the university, Dr. Akira Arimoto of Hiroshima University described the programme of English education at MIC as 'of such a revolutionary nature as to make it incomparable to that of standard Japanese universities' (as cited in Miyazaki International College, 2003, p. 22).

Narrative as method

To contextualise this story, I will concentrate on the influence of team-learning dynamics within various CoP on the development of my identity as a young academic. The development of professional identity necessitates an understanding of the relationships between self and identity, and the role of context. Narrative inquiry allows me to assume the insider's perspective and begin from my lived experience before positioning this experiential knowledge in theory that relates learning with CoPs. The focus in this chapter is ultimately on my personal shifts along trajectories of participation in various CoPs. The accuracy of my reflections has been confirmed by former colleagues and was supported by an array of written artifacts: institutional reports, articles by colleagues at the college, my own writing, a detailed self-evaluation portfolio and a variety of other reference materials.

The narrative in this chapter is a product of autoethnographic research. This is a postmodern orientation that values context and situatedness. '[A]utoethnography is the study of culture through the lens of the self' (Adams, Jones, and Ellis, 2015, p. 83). This research method has a number of possible definitions. For this chapter, I have adopted the definition of Chang (2008) who prefers to combine descriptive storytelling with analysis and interpretation. For anthropologist Chang, autoethnography as method requires: an ethnographic methodological orientation, a cultural interpretive orientation and a content orientation that is autobiographical. She stresses that 'autoethnography is not about focusing on self alone, but about

searching for understanding of others (culture/society) through self' (pp. 48–49). The personal narrative in this chapter is an ethnography that interprets the multi-layered meanings of professional identity as it was realised through team learning in higher education.

Autoethnographic research can be represented in various ways. With the understanding that the diverse representational forms often overlap, I describe my approach below as one written in the mode of realism. This is because 'realist texts include story *and* analysis, showing *and* interpretation' (Adams, Jones, and Ellis, 2015, p. 85). For the most part, my text separates the narrative of experience from the subsequent analysis, as is typical of many realist autoethnographies.

Canagarajah (2012) elegantly makes the case for autoethnographic research in SLA and ELT. I see it, at least in part, as a means of making scholarly ideas more accessible in a world filled with academic writing that seems intent on keeping readers out, rather than inviting them in (see Pinker, 2014; Sword, 2012). Rachel Toor's claim rings true: There are 'a whole lot of academic essays that seem to be written neither by nor for humans, that lack a sense of narrative . . .' (2012, p. 19). Narrative inquiry necessarily positions the researcher as part of the story (Barkhuizen, 2011), and this is precisely where I wish to position myself in this chapter.

What is meant by 'belonging' to an organisation such as a university? Members engaged in constituent practices develop their own sense of institutional identity and perspective on how they belong to the organization. 'When it concerns practice and identity, design inevitably confronts fundamental issues of meaning, time, space, and power' (Wenger, 1998, p. 231). I came to the university filled with ambitions while enamoured with the prospects for this new school. My retrospective account depicts somewhat strained scenes of learning, as meanings were negotiated and professional identities formed and clashed. Before interpreting my learning path as a young academic, let me tell you a story of team learning.

Reflections on creating a learning community

Team learning dynamics in faculty governance

I arrived at the campus before the bookshelves in the gleaming new library building contained books. In fact, most of the details about this new university had yet to be created. A broad plan had been drawn up for the consumption of government bureaucrats and little else. The 32 newly arrived faculty members were charged with creating the university. What an amazing opportunity it was. The rush of excitement filled me. We had 10 weeks to organise the details of this new school before the start of classes.

The vice-president and dean of faculty was a well-respected academic from the United States with a very impressive background in administration. In January 1994, the institution had no committee structure, no administrative

processes and no rules of conduct. The decision was made by the dean to get down to work immediately on creating a *Faculty Handbook* that would contain details for all of these items.

The process of writing policies involved the entire faculty. We gathered together three or four days a week for several hours. As a young faculty member, I recall feeling out of my depth. Around the table were professors from major universities in Europe, the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom and Japan. They joined this new university because they were excited by the unique opportunity of starting up an institution. At the same time, however, they relied on the practices most familiar to them while constructing the governance structure of the new hybrid (Japanese American) school. There were members of the faculty who wanted to implement a very streamlined governance structure free of details. Others argued for the need to have things spelt out and fixed in detailed paragraphs. The latter group won out.

The result was that we sat daily in the same meeting room arguing about process, punctuation and wording. As our days became consumed by the stretch of lengthy meetings, I discovered the drudgery of committee work. The sense of fatigue mushroomed as we re-examined clause after clause of tedious bureaucratic text. We all knew that a governance structure had to be created, but this extensive activity quickly became an obstacle to tackling issues more pressing and central to the school's mission. In short, these meetings leeched our collaborative energy.

The language of faculty meetings was English and this resulted in some Japanese faculty members feeling that they lacked a voice in decision making. Paradoxically, these professors were geographically in their home culture, but institutionally situated in an American environment. On top of the language barrier, the dean of faculty imposed a procedural barrier by insisting on the use of *Robert's Rules of Order* at regular monthly meetings (Robert, Honemann, and Balch, 2011). This decision to use highly structured parliamentary procedure intimidated all but the most experienced American professors, not just Japanese colleagues. Procedural formality in meetings is necessary, but this framework seemed to be a culturally insensitive choice. Excessive formality left little space for collegiality during meetings. For such a small institution, the wisdom of this decision seems questionable.

Of the initial 32 faculty members, 12 were ELT specialists. We were working with subject-area faculty to co-develop team-taught credit courses in the liberal arts, as well as separate courses in English for General Academic Purposes. Within the ELT faculty group, there was no clear leader since the person originally hired as associate dean abruptly resigned due to a family crisis. This lack of leadership was felt especially during faculty meetings that became dominated by subject-area faculty with governance experience. Over time, the feeling developed among the ELT group that we were looked down upon since none of us had doctoral degrees. Thus, a PhD–MA split emerged. The dean of faculty asked one of the most experienced of the ELT staff to

become the coordinator of the group. Although an experienced teacher, the new coordinator was not up to the task of leading the development of the curriculum and providing guidance to co-teachers when appropriate. She soon resigned and in the second semester I became the first elected language-area coordinator.

We struggled and learned, and the first academic year came to an end. In an attempt to heal wounds that had festered within the faculty throughout the first turbulent year, the dean broke the rules of the Faculty Council. At the final council meeting in December 1994, cases of beer were stacked in the corner of the room and we were told that we could freely drink during the meeting. It was highly unorthodox, but the result was the creation of an entirely different atmosphere in the room from previous meetings. It even managed to satisfy one of the most combative and opinionated faculty members. I vividly recall his comment to me as he walked past my seat cracking open his second beer: 'This is more like it!' he beamed. There was hope that the second year would be smoother than the first.

Team learning dynamics in committee work

The challenge of attracting enough capable Japanese high-school graduates to study in a rural area of Japan (Kyushu) was significant. Not only was the school new, it was innovative to an unusual degree. This international liberal arts university was something completely different on the Japanese educational landscape, with the possible exception of International Christian University in Tokyo. Classes would be small, and active learning, collaborative learning and project-based learning would be implemented. Most of the first- and second-year courses would be taught in English, including team-taught liberal arts subjects. Communicative bilingual proficiency was the goal for students. They would learn subjects actively in classes and develop critical thinking skills while studying content areas in English. In addition, all students would study abroad during the fourth semester.

The recruitment goal was to attract 150 students per year with Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) scores of 500 plus on the old paper-based test (approximately 61 on the new iBT). I happened to be a member of the first committee on admissions. During the first round of applications we turned down nearly everyone. However, students were encouraged to reapply in later rounds. Tensions spiked on the committee during the second round of admission screening. A schism developed between Japanese faculty members, who were busy contacting local schools to attract applicants, and experienced ELT faculty members. The latter group understood the challenges of the curriculum, even for students who had achieved a high-intermediate score of 500 on the TOEFL. That number took on the status of a fortress gate for the ELT committee members. The problem was that very few applicants had achieved that test score. Bitter and impassioned arguments filled the committee room as each side sincerely felt they were

looking out for the institution's future. Japanese committee members understood that if the university rejected nearly all of the applicants put forward by a high school, the chances for future recruitment would be slim. In the end, the 500 hurdle was lowered and 52 students with mean TOEFL scores of 430 were admitted.

Predictably, some faculty members complained that this was not the student body they had expected. In fact, many of the subject-area professors had already ordered for their courses the standard introductory texts used at their home universities. As course planning progressed, the ELT faculty discovered that they needed to do a good deal of orientation on student needs and abilities for their subject-area colleagues. Teaching students like these was new to most content professors. The goal many of them had set was to have students learn a prescribed base of information by the end of the course. Naturally, considerable ego was invested as colleagues co-designed courses for this body of students.

Team learning dynamics in team teaching

I was hired as a founding faculty member of this new institution largely because I had four years of experience in Canada with interdisciplinary team teaching in a content-based language program (Stewart, 2013). Six months before the establishment of the new institution, most of the faculty gathered in California for a weekend of workshops. Weeks before this orientation, I was asked to meet with a professor of art history in Washington State in order to create a course outline for presentation to the entire faculty. We called our joint session 'Syllabus/course planning in team-taught language and content courses'.

Once I was at the campus in Japan, I assisted ELT colleagues who had never co-developed courses with subject specialists. For some, the learning curve proved to be quite steep partly because they had previously only worked in intensive English programmes that specified textbooks, a teaching environment that does not provide many opportunities for developing original materials. Beyond enhancing the skill of materials development, learning how to educate subject specialists about the needs of Japanese EFL students became a central concern for most of us. Unfortunately, many content professors entered the university with the attitude that they would 'teach' the course and their ELT partner would somehow magically help the students to understand the material. In some cases, professors in the humanities and social sciences handed their lecture notes to their ELT partner shortly before class, gave the order to 'Do something with this' and then walked away.

For me, team learning about teaching seemed to start off reasonably well with my partner. This turned out to be an overly optimistic impression, however. In one meeting my partner confidently showed me material he had prepared. I remember my shock as I read the text and encouraged him to

show it to other faculty members. This peer review resulted in the idea of recording the lecture and presenting it to the entire faculty at a workshop on teaching (for more on peer coaching see, Sagliano, Sagliano, and Stewart, 1998a). After viewing this lecture titled 'The Paleolithic Mind and the Mainstream View of Human History as the Rise of Civilisation', the critique was raised that this style of teaching did not reflect the underlying pedagogical philosophy of the institution. Perhaps the experience of hearing his own words startled my teaching partner as he quickly realised the inappropriate nature of the material and put it to rest. This experience shifted my relative position within the team teaching CoP and elevated my status in the negotiation of meaning about teaching the course.

Many other teaching teams had similar issues to work through. Some content professors showed whole movies or documentaries in English. Others turned out the lights and projected scores of slides, while pontificating on the fine points of artwork. The most common problems revolved around materials assigned from standard introductory texts written for advanced native readers of English. Of course, there are ways to teach language and content using such materials, however, time is needed to rework it (Stewart, 1997). During the start-up year of the university, I heard many professors from the subject areas denigrate teaching techniques introduced by their ELT teaching partners as being mere 'tricks'. Lecturing in lengthy monologues, on the other hand, was held in high esteem as somehow 'serious' pedagogy. It truly is hard to teach faculty members vested in the old model of the academy new tricks.

There were just two general requirements about team teaching for founding faculty of the university to follow: first, both the content teacher and the language teacher had to be in the classroom during the entire class, whether teaching or not; second, final grades had to be evenly calculated for achievement related to language skills and content mastery. In the first year of operation, many teams opted for the classic adjunct model wherein each teacher would teach in distinct time blocks with little interaction. It seems that many faculty felt 'that teaching independently could lessen the possibility of conflicts between team partners' (Stewart, Sagliano, and Sagliano, 2000, p. 215). There were also situations where the ELT instructor re-taught material previously presented by the subject-area specialist. Other teams interacted during lessons along a continuum from intermittent to nearly seamless.

Faculty members arrived at the new university expecting a student body with lower-advanced English proficiency. Once the reality of recruitment became the reality in classes, teachers looked to the administration for guidance. The ELT coordinator at that time suggested inviting John Fanselow from the Teachers College of Columbia University to provide some workshops. During the first semester of operation, Dr. Fanselow spent a week on the campus. After learning what he could about the programme and difficulties encountered in classrooms, Fanselow collected a variety of

classroom research data for two extensive workshops. In the first workshop, he set up several stations with authentic classroom discourse recorded on audio and videotapes, as well as a station displaying written student work. The entire faculty attended, including the dean. The direction given by Dr. Fanselow was to visit each station and 'observe'.

As I circulated through the stations 'observing', I felt uncertain. An hour or so into the workshop, several content-area professors asked what the point of the exercise was. What were we supposed to do? Fanselow responded in the same way, 'Observe what is happening and make notes'. After a while, questions turned to loud grumbling. Our content-area colleagues were not content. Finally, they stormed out of the workshop en masse with arms flailing as they shouted that this was an example of 'bad teaching'. However, it turned out to be an example of a lack of tolerance for learner autonomy. Ironically, professors who professed to value critical thinking, active engagement, collaboration and autonomous learning were too fixated on the teacher-centred pedagogical model of knowledge transmission to accept this highly autonomous workshop structure. As it turned out, their narrow expectations about what constitutes 'good teaching' caused them to miss the point entirely. At the end of the workshop, Dr. Fanselow skilfully summed up the point he was trying to make: Our students feel the same sense of confusion about what they are supposed to do in our classes. He wanted the faculty to experience this feeling of confusion in a classroom setting in order to build empathy. Fanselow's concluding remarks stunned me. My own sense of the point of this workshop had been completely different. His point deeply resonated with the ELT faculty. Most content-area professors boycotted the second workshop. Apparently, they felt no need to work on their teaching skills. This passive-aggressive reaction by content-area colleagues marked the nadir of the university's first year.

Of course, there is no silver bullet for improving faculty relations and helping teaching teams work together more effectively. In the end, it comes down to trial and error, and the degree of openness displayed by colleagues. For teachers who took advantage of the collaborative possibilities, classroom and office doors were always open. I learned a tremendous amount from my colleagues about teaching, materials development and assessment. I was also learning about team learning as teachers collaborated in many unique ways to implement the educational philosophy of the school. The great range of highly collaborative opportunities made many of us feel that, despite considerable turmoil, this was an ideal teaching and learning situation.

Besides a deep satisfaction about opportunities to develop teaching practice, many of my ELT colleagues looked for ways to engage more in academic CoP. Committee work was one avenue for making contributions within the university community. To go beyond the walls of the institution, ELT faculty members needed to engage in research. Scholarship was an avenue that promised increased respect from content-area professors because it was the thing that many of them valued most highly. During the early

years of the university, the scholarly production of ELT faculty members was very impressive for a small institution. At international and domestic conferences, people began asking about the school since we blanketed the programme book with presentations. The innovative programme was truly an incubator for faculty development.

Learning in communities of practice: An interpretive commentary

As we know, teachers draw on stories to make sense of their professional lives (see Clandinin and Connelly, 2000; Johnson and Golombek, 2002). The narrative presented above is my own descriptive account of a very complex situation; namely, team learning dynamics within a newly established learning community. While the narrative account provides a contextual base for my discussion, in this section I will further analyse my own learning within various CoP, using Wenger's (1998) identity formation framework. In this framework, learning centres on participation and the ways that newcomers progressively take on a more central role.

The new institution began as a plan (*designed structure* in Wenger's terminology) built using the template of specifications required by Japan's Ministry of Education. This founding structure provides a convenient springboard for my analysis. That is, how was the designed structure realised through collaborative practice? Wenger defines an organisation as the space where an institution's designed structure meets the emergent structure of practice (1998, p. 244). Simply put, 'Organisations are social designs directed at practice'. A two-dimensional design can only take on life through practice. This is why CoP are the 'key to an organization's competence and to the evolution of that competence' (Wenger, p. 241). So to understand team learning dynamics in higher education CoP, it seems necessary to contrast the design of an organisation with the constellation of practices that emerge on a daily basis, often as a response to the designed structure.

I entered the new university with considerable theoretical and experiential knowledge about content-based language instruction and interdisciplinary team teaching. However, I only had one publication and had never been a full-time member of faculty at a liberal arts university before. To gain bona fide membership in the larger community and more capacity to negotiate meanings within CoP, I had to display competence. Wenger (1998) defines competence as knowing how to engage with others in CoP. Surrounded by faculty members who possessed PhDs from top schools, I began the year with a stance of peripheral participation. Naturally, other ELT faculty members did the same. The reified stature of the PhD credential led some subject-area faculty to marginalise the membership of ELT colleagues with MAs, as they vocally questioned the value of the ELT knowledge base. Lack of experience with content-based language instruction clearly affected the ability of several ELT teachers to display competence to teaching partners.

The extent of culture shock for some content faculty inside classrooms, in school administration and in the community outside likely affected their collegiality within teaching teams. Some of my beleaguered colleagues eventually developed an 'identity of marginality' because their experience was not recognised as a form of competence. While these colleagues largely dropped out of participating in college affairs, I was able to become more active in the process of negotiating meaning about the activity of establishing a new university.

Perhaps my presentation at the California workshops served to reify my expertise in interdisciplinary team teaching. My co-presenter had given me very generous praise during this workshop. However, when it came to understanding committee work and leadership, I felt that I had much to learn. Gaining recognition required me to think beyond the concerns of ELT practitioners and align myself more with the norms and expectations of the broader academic community. To do so, I often exercised legitimate peripheral participation, which is access to practice without assuming full responsibility (Lave and Wenger, 1991). This participation on the margins was crucial for me since, in Lave and Wenger's terminology, 'peripherality' leads to full participation, but marginality does not.

In areas of faculty governance, many of the subject-area professors possessed recognised competence. Therefore, within the governance CoP, these faculty members gained positions of leadership and so claimed ownership of meaning about university policy. These power relations were not appreciated by some ELT faculty members who believed that ownership of meaning in some areas needed to be challenged. Clearly, some subject-area teachers thought that their own fluency in English automatically made them experts concerning how it should be taught. The actual case in the classroom was that most ELT faculty had more knowledge about student needs. The goals of the programme, and the nature of the student body (i.e. Japanese high-school graduates with intermediate-level English proficiency) conflicted with the previous teaching competence of subject-area professors. On the other side, many ELT educators initially lacked competence in interdisciplinary team teaching and content-based language instruction. This lack of experience likely damaged their ability to negotiate meanings within the co-teaching partnership.

For some subject-area faculty, engagement with students and teaching partners caused identity conflicts when their previous competence was challenged. A number of these professors were on two-year sabbatical leave so their investment might have been limited. For many subject-area faculty, content coverage is the ultimate aim of a course and this often implies a teacher-fronted lecture pedagogical format. The response by many content faculty to John Fanselow's workshop is illustrative of their degree of investment in the institution's mission. They attempted to appropriate the meaning of 'good teaching' by storming out of the room. To them, the concept was non-negotiable since their own meanings were self-reified.

Their walkout was a defiant act releasing pent-up frustrations and displaying an unwillingness to align with the goals of the institution. While this action led, at least temporarily, to alienation for some content teachers, the workshop and reaction to the walkout cultivated a stronger group identity among the ELT faculty.

When the students at the university entered classrooms they stepped into a new cultural context. Classes were small with two teachers who were friendly to the point of being on a first-name basis with students. A process of socialisation took place in all classes. The sense of newness was true for the faculty as well. I recall one striking image of an extremely tall Indian professor walking down the hallways during the first week of classes with a *wakaba* symbol[1] attached to his jacket. Though a seasoned college professor in the United States, through this act he publicised his novice status in this context. It was necessary to learn from the students and from faculty colleagues. Thus, the concept of legitimate peripheral participation (Lave and Wenger, 1991) was crucial in the learning process for both students and teachers during the start-up of the new school. Acceptance of role fluidity in CoP is crucial for team learning.

Some teachers identified themselves as being part of an integrated teaching team and fully engaged in that relationship, while others saw co-teaching as a hindrance to their own performance. The most successful teams were somehow able to break down imagined boundaries between language (ELT faculty) and content (subject-area faculty). For my partner and me, alignment as co-teachers was brought about by engagement once we became invested in the work of teaching the course, and this led to a deepening investment in our team teaching relationship. This team learning process allowed us to imagine ourselves as a teaching team. The shared vision enabled my partner and me to negotiate the meaning of 'team teaching' as we engaged in a process of team learning.

Since the community lacked a recognised ELT leader and I had the most experience both with content-based language instruction and interdisciplinary team teaching, my own meaning of team teaching became reified (see Stewart, 1997; Stewart, Sagliano, and Sagliano, 2000). I counselled many of my ELT colleagues in the best way I could through their first-year struggles. After conflicts became acute within some partnerships, it was clear that more coordinated communication channels were needed.

As the language-area coordinator, I worked with the dean and my content-area colleague to match teaching partners for the following year. We developed a confidential ranking request process for this task. With a new cohort of faculty members due to join the college in January, we devised a set of orientations (see Sagliano, Stewart, and Sagliano, 1998b; Stewart, Sagliano, and Sagliano, 2002 for details about these two orientations). The personal orientation was a buddy system wherein colleagues began communicating through email about housing, banking, schools and so forth. This social orientation continued officially for two weeks after new faculty

arrived on campus. A three-week professional orientation was organised as well and I was the only ELT faculty member to volunteer for this duty. Much to my surprise, I was made the committee chair. Through this move, my colleagues nudged me into a more central role in the negotiation of meaning about teaching and learning in our context.

Lave and Wenger (1991) introduced the concept of legitimate peripheral participation as 'a way to speak about the relations between newcomers and old-timers' (p. 29). An interesting aspect of my retrospective story is the fluidity of 'newcomer' and 'old-timer' roles. Role positioning shifted depending on the situation and the amount of relevant experience an individual had. As other researchers have noted, peripheral participation in CoP is fluid and modifies according to relations of power within groups (Jacoby and Gonzalez, 1991; Rogoff, 1994). For newcomers, legitimate peripherality that provides access toward fuller participation is empowering.

I had that access and took advantage of the array of learning opportunities available to me during the start-up of the school. Being a part of this community was transformational for me.

> Once something has become negotiable, it expands our identities because it enters the realm of what we can do something about. As a transformation of identity, the learning involved in such changes is profound and cannot easily be undone.
>
> (Wenger, 1998, p. 248)

Conclusion

The work of Jean Lave and Etienne Wenger provides a framework for understanding the abstract concepts of collaboration, team teaching and team learning. Their claim, building on Vygotsky's (1978) scholarship, that learning is situated as social practice, is a main pillar supporting the sociocultural view of second language learning theory. The practices and processes followed in a community frame how meaning emerges and gets used. In other words, collaborative groupings promote authentic practices that situate knowledge-in-use.

The new university started as an idea. The abstract mission was later turned into a plan with a structure. The word 'structure' connotes rigidity and a sense of defined shape. However, my narrative of practice within the new institution, and the related descriptions of team collaboration and learning, illustrates the adaptive nature of structures. For example, teaching teams structured their practice in various ways suggesting that structure is variable, rather than determined by preconditions. It was through the collaboration between the co-teachers that any pre-existing team teaching structure was reconfigured to fit their particular situation. This is an example of the reflexive process of team learning.

Organisational design 'connects communities of practice into an organisation by crossing boundaries' (Wenger, 1998, p. 247). Therefore, the design needs to create channels of communication. Of course, there were organisational structures that became effective channels of communication. One physical structure probably did more to help connect faculty early on, however. Most faculty offices were located in blocks off of main corridors. While each faculty member had an individual office space, these spaces had no doors and were also open at the window end. This allowed people to easily wander into your office and start up a conversation. Laser printers were shared as well with two per floor. My first office was just next to a laser printer so while colleagues waited for their jobs to print, they would frequently pop in for a chat. As we know, too often university teachers work in silos of autonomy and rarely discuss their teaching. By chance, the design of the offices and sharing of printers brought colleagues into contact more often. Since everyone at the university was newly hired, having these physical channels encouraged communication and enriched collaboration. While it might seem obvious, this experience illustrates the need for colleagues to talk outside of formal situations, and socialise – the social dimension of team learning.

I do not wish to romanticise the experience of founding this university – severe conflicts among colleagues erupted. However, through trial and error we were learning as a community. When things did not work well the obstacles often were personal fear of losing face, the egotistical need to display superior knowledge or the territorial impulse encouraged by narrow discipline specialisation. For team learning to take root, teachers need to transcend disciplines and the confining roles of teacher/student while re-imagining themselves as part of learning teams. Encouraging people to take risks and promoting a philosophy of mutual learning is vital to nurturing learning communities. Universities are coping with tremendous social, professional and organisational change. The related concepts of learning communities and team learning are valuable in the current environment because they recognise the need for teachers, students and administrators to actively collaborate in the co-construction of meaning. The urge to control urgently needs to become a yearning to collaborate.

In this chapter, I explored the concept of 'team' broadly from institutional, disciplinary and classroom learning perspectives. Teams are communities. We cannot be a community of one. As learning communities, universities can no longer thrive by depending on the old knowledge-base model of all-knowing professors shuttered in labs and offices. Access to digital tools and the speed of information transfer challenge the very foundation of expert knowledge. What are the pathways for us to 'know' and 'learn' when every field of study now truly is too big to know in its entirety? The way forward is connective: mutual learning and knowledge sharing in collaborative networks, communities, and teams.

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Note

1 This mark is a green and yellow V-shaped symbol that new Japanese drivers must display on their car for one year to indicate that they are novice drivers.

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10 The leregogy of curriculum design

Teaching and learning as relational endeavours

David Rehorick and Sally Rehorick

The shift towards simultaneous learning of subject matter and language in secondary school and university classrooms demands fresh approaches to curriculum design. A multi-dimensional curriculum design is an attractive option for practitioners. Its blend of content and language objectives with experiential and cooperative activities lays the foundation for both students and teachers to be active participants in generating the purpose and momentum for a course. In such a shared educational environment, students and teachers are partners, learning from and teaching each other in an organic and evolving way.

In this chapter, we describe a two-person teaching team, one a subject matter expert (first author, David) and the other a language specialist (second author, Sally), who worked together in the same classroom in a university in Miyazaki, Japan. A primary aim of our collaboration was to motivate Japanese students to become more autonomous learners, conscious of what they 'can-do' vis-à-vis the subject matter and target language. A key ingredient in our approach is the inclusion of self-assessment tools encouraging greater student responsibility for their individual learning. *The Common European Framework of Reference* (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001), together with its companion for self-assessment, *The European Language Portfolio* (ELP) (Council of Europe, 2011), provides a pathway to forge a new model based on learner autonomy. Our course was organised using a modified version of the multi-dimensional curriculum design (Stern, 1983). When combined and delivered together with the CEFR and the ELP, the multi-dimensional curriculum design (MCD) framework offers ELT practitioners a new vision for content and language integrated learning (CLIL).

Scaffolding our experiences in Japan with more recent writing and research, this chapter describes our curricular vision and its theoretical underpinnings. We further display how to bring our integrated conceptual vision into practice through examples from the course that we team taught in Japan. While the impetus for our approach arose within a Japanese higher educational context, the ideas developed in this chapter are relevant for contemporary educators who seek to build an integrated curriculum.

Our novel CLIL approach calls for a fresh theoretical conception that advances thinking beyond the established tradition of andragogy. We introduce 'leregogy' as a new umbrella conception that expresses the relational nature of teaching and learning together (Rehorick, 2014; Rehorick and Taylor, 1995).

The context: New visions for Japanese higher education

Miyazaki International College (MIC) has created a unique environment for its students with the goal of producing international citizens with superb Japanese and English ability, problem-solving and critical thinking skills, and the ability to contribute to society. MIC offers a truly multi-disciplinary liberal arts curriculum taught by a capable international faculty (Miyazaki International College, n.d.).

By departing from traditional Japanese pedagogical models, such as lecture and rote memorisation, MIC represents an experiment within Japanese higher education. At the core of the academic program is a philosophy of active learning that aims to develop higher-order thinking skills that enable students to analyse, synthesise, evaluate and create. At the time we taught at MIC, the targeted English language-level for incoming students was 450 on the old paper-based Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) scale. However, the average TOEFL score was closer to 380, which placed the first-year students at the A2 level on the CEFR scale of global descriptors (see Appendix A and Council of Europe, 2001, p. 24; see also equivalency chart for TOEFL and CEFR at Eurocentres, n.d., p. 1). The generally accepted level for university study is C1 on the CEFR scale (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 24; Eurocentres, n.d.). This gap between the actual incoming language level of many students and the level required to undertake academic studies was the single biggest challenge for us as faculty members at MIC: teaching students with a language proficiency substantially lower than that generally required to study academic content (Met, 1999).

In the model we describe in this chapter, academic content and language learning are combined in such a way that students learn both simultaneously, the one supporting the other. The basic assumption of CLIL is that people learn a language more successfully when they use the language as a means of acquiring information in order to perform some type of task (Brinton, Snow, and Wesche, 1989; Coyle, Hood, and Marsh, 2010; Krueger and Ryan, 1993; Met, 1999; Sherris, 2008). In the CLIL framework, successful language learning requires that the information students are acquiring be perceived as interesting, useful and leading to a desired goal. Furthermore, students learn best when instruction addresses their needs with authentic language/texts that they will encounter in life and at work. This suggests that courses should build upon the knowledge that students bring to the classroom; thus the starting point for a course module is what the students

already know about the topic. In this way, students' previous experience is valued and student-centred learning can take place.

The model at MIC is a hybrid designation labelled sheltered immersion in which the English teacher works in a classroom side by side with the subject matter teacher for a total of six hours per week (Miyazaki International College, n.d.). This model could suggest entirely separate and distinct roles for the content and language teachers. However, in our experience co-teaching a first-year course called 'Sociology and Environmental Issues', the lines between our faculty roles blurred so that a casual classroom observer could not distinguish the language specialist from the content specialist. Tajino and Tajino (2000, p. 6) have likened this kind of team teaching to a musical performance by a 'harmonious duet' rather than a performance by two soloists. For us as co-teachers, the key objective was to orchestrate our classes into a seamless blend of content and language objectives shaped by the principles of task-based and active learning. The effectiveness of this kind of teaching partnership is captured by Gladman (2015), who claims that MIC students seem to make no distinction between the language and content specialists in a collaborative classroom (pp. 138–139).

From andragogy to team learning and leregogy

Over the past two decades, the emergence of active and cooperative learning strategies has fuelled new thinking about best practices in pedagogy and andragogy. The repertoire of learning approaches has continued to expand, including developments such as collaborative learning, team-based learning (Haidet, Kubitz, and McCormack, 2014) and various co-teaching models that link ELT specialists with content-area teachers (Butler, 2011; Dove and Honigsfeld, 2010). Tajino and Tajino (2000) extend the conceptual boundaries by proposing that team-teaching be re-interpreted as team-learning (p. 9). In their view, teachers and students are all participants in a learning community. By fostering the view of learning as a relational endeavour, old dualisms such as student–teacher, and mentor-mentee are transcended, making way for a revitalised conceptualisation of learning theory. In this vein, the term 'leregogy' provides a framework to capture thinking that has reached the liminal edge of the pedagogical and andragogical traditions.

David Rehorick and Gail Taylor (1995) explored the relevance of 'thoughtful incoherence', and during the course of their inquiry, they asked, 'How do separate individuals with varying experience come into collaborative being' (p. 389)? Their neologism 'leregogy' captured what they experienced within their learning adventure:

> *Leregogy* is a term coined to try and bridge the indomitable severing of roles between teacher and learner. It implies a transactional and shifting

> set of 'roles' wherein both people are, at various times and sometimes synchronously, both teachers and learners. It also gets by the accepted term for adult learning (*andragogy*) which has its linguistic roots in maleness; and the authoritarian role-sets implied by the term *pedagogy*. (p. 411)

In a leregogical relationship, participants are open and mindful to learning from and within the relationship. Leregogy is a conception suited to describing the nature of learning interactions in which it is possible to tolerate periods of personal incoherence while moving towards a mutual goal of enhancing understanding. With roots in the English verb 'to learn', *lere* is derived from an obsolete English verb originating in Old German, meaning 'to teach', 'to guide, lead' and 'to learn, study' (Rehorick, 2014, p. 82). As leregogues, teachers must learn to accept more tolerance for incoherence as an essential part of learning. For instance, the gap between the low-level English abilities of young Japanese students and their struggles to express their understanding of complex, abstract ideas can be too easily interpreted as muddled, incoherent thinking. Speaking of their own experience of the uncertainty that arose within their project, Rehorick and Taylor (1995, p. 397) warn of the folly of premature judgements by outsiders. The point is that thinking that can appear confused or unformed to outsiders might in fact be a thoughtful incoherence that is a necessary part of cognitive processing.

The challenge we faced in our course was how to help students, whose language competency was at the basic level or 'waystage' (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 23), understand complex and abstract academic concepts. The umbrella concept of leregogy informed our practice as team teachers in this context. We understood that while students' expression of ideas may have seemed muddled, we should never assume that their underlying thinking was incoherent. In the next section, we offer practical directives for developing and delivering a CLIL curriculum. We show how our conceptual vision can be put into practice by offering a detailed account of how our team-taught course unfolded.

The multi-dimensional curriculum design: How does it work?

The MCD arose out of efforts to shift from a situational and structural language syllabus, which focused on the acquisition of vocabulary and grammar, to a more holistic and integrative curriculum (Rehorick and Edwards, 1990; Stern, 1983). The MCD is a communicative-experiential approach in which the focus of learning is the purposeful use of language to perform real-life tasks through listening, speaking, reading, viewing and writing with an awareness of what is culturally and linguistically appropriate. The following principles guide this approach.

- The goal of language learning is using the language rather than knowing about the language.
- Language learning is enhanced when the learner takes an active role in planning, monitoring and assessing his/her own learning; thus learner autonomy is supported.
- Language learning is not additively sequential but recursive and paced differently at various stages of acquisition.
- Language learning is not the accumulation of perfectly mastered elements of grammar and vocabulary; thus learner errors are to be expected.
- Language learning is complex; instruction takes into account individual learning styles and rates, and also attends to teaching process strategies for successful learning.
- The ability to perform with language is facilitated when students actively engage in meaningful, authentic, and purposeful language-learning tasks.
- Textbook materials play support roles for language-learning goals; they should not determine the curriculum (Adapted from Ministry of Education, Province of British Columbia, 2011).

Next, we display how our adapted and extended rendering of the MCD framework can be put into practice (Rehorick and Rehorick, 2001).

Implementing the MCD: A course-specific illustration

'Sociology and Environmental Issues' was a first-year course organised into three integrated modules, each five weeks in duration: Module 1 (Self and Environment: Multiple Perspectives), Module 2 (Environmental Health Issues: Personal and Social) and Module 3 (Environment as a Source of Fear). The academic content for the entire course was driven by the following overarching questions:

- How does the environment shape one's sense of self and one's sense of others?
- How do people try to control their environment? How do they react when other people or natural forces control the environment?
- What effects do changes in the environment have on individuals and groups?
- Who makes decisions about how the environment is structured? How are these decisions made? What values are privileged, and whose interests are served by these decisions?

The following table is the schematic representation for course Module 3 (Environment as a Source of Fear), viewed as a whole within the MCD framework.

Table 10.1 The MCD framework: a conceptual and illustrative application

Component	*Description*	*Examples*
1. Academic theme (content)	Broad areas of academic study	Sociology and the environment
2. Fields of experience	Topics within the theme	Environment as a source of fear Human response to natural disasters Experiencing earthquakes (individual responses) Individual and social perceptions
3. Final project/task (or interim tasks for a module or course)	Academic paper, poster, multimedia presentation, webpage, etc., which develops a thesis or summarises a point of view, or a series of facts and opinions	Write an essay that addresses this question: 'Who has ultimate responsibility for restoration after a major earthquake: the individual/family; the local community; the national government'?
4. Experiential/ communicative objectives	Defines the authentic communicative situations for using the language	Compare and contrast (oral and written) live experiences of tremors with others Compare and contrast written perspectives from inside and outside the country Articulate your own experience relative to newspaper accounts
5. Content objectives	The main learning outcomes from the syllabus of a content course	Understand the impact of the media in shaping one's perspectives Examine how belief in scientific authority influences our lives Take an informed position based on critical review of multiple sources
6. Language objectives, expressed as 'can do' statements from *The Common European Framework of Reference* (CEFR) as shown in the next two columns	Selected from the CEFR bank of descriptors for academic language. The skills in the next column are representative examples only. (Council of Europe, 2001, pp. 58–97)	A2 (spoken production): Can give a short, rehearsed presentation on an topic pertinent to his/her everyday life, briefly give reasons for and explanations for opinions, plans and actions A2 (note-taking): Can pick out and reproduce key words and phrases or short sentences from a short within the learner's limited competence and experience B1 (writing): Can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions, plans and actions

		B1 (reading for information): Can recognise significant points in straightforward newspaper articles on familiar subjects B1 (spoken interaction: information exchange): Can summarise and give his or her opinion about a short story, article, talk, discussion, interview or documentary and answer further questions in detail B1 (listening as a member of a live audience): Can follow a lecture or talk within his/her own field, provided the subject matter is familiar and the presentation straightforward and clearly structured
7. Language specifications and strategies	The grammar, vocabulary, structures, syntax and procedures required to achieve the language objectives	Use a process writing approach Scan for key information Use present verb tenses to express what happens generally and past tenses to narrate events Use appropriate connectors (conjunctions, etc.) to link ideas
8. Teaching strategies	Methods and techniques for student-centred classes	Team-based learning: think/pair/share; jigsaw; peer conferencing Whole class: 15-minute mini-lectures, brainstorming Individual-based (learner autonomy): process writing of an essay; portfolio management and upkeep
9. Assessment	Includes formative, summative and self-assessment. Based on the CEFR levels and the *The European Language Portfolio* (ELP)	Process writing: drafts and progress tracked in dossier of portfolio Observations of individual, pair and group work Final essay Self-assessment: reflections on can-do statements for language portfolio; building of dossier with samples of work

Classroom snapshots: Sampling daily lessons, activities and learning strategies

Below, we display how imaginative curriculum design can capture the interest of A2 level language learners and help them grasp abstract academic concepts. Entering our classroom during a lesson, an observer might be forgiven for not understanding just what was happening at a given moment. There was no front-of-the-classroom as the arrangement of tables, chairs, computers and whiteboards was fluid and changeable during a single class session. Students were working individually and in teams of two, three or four (see Rehorick, 1997). They alternated between using English and Japanese when working in groups. Students used bilingual dictionaries to build their vocabulary, understand text and express themselves. There were periods of silence, even during interactive segments, as David and Sally allowed sufficient wait time for processing. To an observer, our classroom might have appeared disorganised, but the fluid approach we used was a thoughtful and deliberate response to the situational and individual needs of the students, and geared to help them manage in an autonomous way.

Autonomous learning does not mean learning alone and the role of the teacher in this kind of classroom is central to student success. Little (2007) notes that:

> Learners cannot construct their knowledge out of nothing, neither can they know by instinct how to conduct focused and purposeful learning conversations that shape themselves to the ways of thinking characteristic of the subject in question. Teachers remain indispensable, both as pedagogues and as discipline experts.
>
> (p. 20)

A key characteristic of a curriculum designed to support language learner autonomy is that it is not a lock-step design. Rather it shows a clear progression of the development of academic language skills along with academic themes and topics, while giving the teachers the latitude to create the actual materials and lesson plans according to the unique needs of the students and the dynamic context around them.

An important component of our curriculum design is the explicit inclusion of learner self-assessment, monitoring and planning for language learning. As an expression of learner autonomy, this kind of involvement by the students promotes independent learning skills and helps them to create an awareness of their own progress. The tools we recommend using include a language portfolio (modelled after the European Language Portfolio [ELP]) in which the student monitors, assesses and plans for their own learning using the CEFR for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001, 2011; Little, 2009a, 2009b; Rehorick, 2005). These two instruments use 'can-do' statements that encapsulate what the students are capable of in each of five language skills:

spoken production, spoken interaction, reading, writing and listening. Examples of 'can-do' statements are embedded in the MCD curriculum (see Table 10.1).

Illustration 1: Experiencing oneself in a micro-environment

Our opening course module in 'Sociology and Environmental Issues' started with real-world experiences of students, in a micro-environment where understanding was immediate, and revolved around one's self. Nature music was playing as our students entered our classroom for the first time. A blank sheet of paper was on each student desk and after a few minutes, we asked students to write as many English words as they could about what they were thinking and feeling. Then, using a think-pair-share strategy (Rehorick and Rehorick, 2001), students told each other what they had experienced.

Following this, we wrote two words on a whiteboard: 'music' and 'environment'. We directed students to write one full English sentence connecting these two words, and then share it with their learning partner. Next, we wrote on the whiteboard: 'music and my environment' and asked students to write two statements beginning with 'I'. Using a round-robin style of sharing, students in groups chose one sentence from each of the two they had created. To make their selection visible to all class groups, a group scribe wrote the group list on the whiteboard. Next, one of the teachers led a group correction of the sentences, inviting students to suggest corrections. Oral reading of the sentences provided some simple practice in Spoken Production, one of the five skills on the CEFR grid (see Appendix A).

This opening class event displays the efficacy of team-based learning principles that start with low-stake, naïve tasks, building from students' active individual experience, and focusing on a micro-perspective, in this instance the classroom that they had entered for the first time (Haidet *et al.*, 2014; Roberson and Franchini, 2014). This seemingly innocuous exercise also reflects our broader course objectives and thrust to ground learning experientially, and for understanding to move from the concrete, to the abstract, and then to the applied. At the end of the opening class experience, the students are introduced to the European Language Portfolio (ELP) and in particular the self-assessment grid and the Language Biography (Council of Europe, 2011). This implementation is done gradually as the students come to understand their role in planning and assessing their own learning. The ELP is written in both the target language and the home language of the students, making the language descriptors and components more accessible.

Illustration 2: Moving from the concrete to the abstract to the applied

We needed a way to teach the abstract notions of 'perspective', and 'taking multiple perspectives', starting from a concrete, experiential situation. Below,

we illustrate how this was accomplished, reflecting the team-based learning principles of sustaining a micro-macro perspective, and of encouraging students to construct their own conceptual understanding (Roberson and Franchini, 2014, pp. 277–280).

STEP 1: VISUAL REPRESENTATION OF ONE'S IMMEDIATE ENVIRONMENT (CONCRETE LEVEL)

On a bright sunny day, we announced at the start of class that we were going on a field trip to a place where a narrow road cut through a field of rice paddies surrounded by urban housing and local businesses. From the open horizon on the road, we said: 'Just sketch whatever you see'. David and Sally shaped the next class session by analysing what the students had 'told' us through their drawings, which revealed both micro and macro perspectives. We didn't know in advance whether the time expended on the field trip would lay the experiential basis for the academic content we sought to teach. This activity is an illustration of what Tajino and Tajino (2000) mean by the importance of teachers' willingness to take risks for team learning to occur.

STEP 2: BUILDING FROM SHARED VISUAL REPRESENTATIONS (ABSTRACT LEVEL)

Displaying a selection of sketches, David led students in an activity where they described the differences and similarities. Some drawings captured the immediacy of the rice fields and the texture of the grasses, while others looked to the horizon beyond the fields and the houses on a far hillside. Using the drawings, we carefully unpacked the meaning of the abstract concepts 'perspectives', 'my perspective' and 'taking the perspective of others'. A key language-based goal was to have the students develop a descriptive vocabulary to compare and contrast the sketches of all classmates. And a key academic content goal was that different perspectives can be all 'correct' and that there is no single 'right answer'.

STEP 3: TAKING ONE'S LEARNING TO A HYPOTHETICAL, IMAGINED FUTURE SCENARIO (APPLIED LEVEL)

At the time this learning sequence was conceived, there was international media coverage of the announcement of an extraordinary home to be built by Microsoft billionaire, Bill Gates. Drawing from a short magazine article that described Gates' 'Dream House', we introduced the scenario following this learning sequence:

1 Showing the magazine cover drawing of the Gates' house.
2 Generating a list of characteristics that each student thought (predicted) the house would have.

3 Reporting out orally their individual lists with one teacher writing this on the whiteboard.
4 Comparing orally what each student had predicted, using structured sentence formats (e.g. 'Hiroshi thinks that Gates' house would have many computers, while Yukiko predicts a swimming pool'.).
5 Scanning the article, using two highlighter pens, one to mark items that matched their predictions and the other to mark items not predicted.
6 Creating a summary table (in pairs) of the predicted and the actual house design.
7 Drafting a paragraph to describe the findings and to indicate what surprised them the most.

At the start of the next class, we surprised students by announcing that Bill Gates would be moving to the local area of Kiyotake, Japan, to build his dream house on the hillside above the rice paddies. As instructors, we took a leap of faith that our students would embrace our playful claim. We then called on them to consider the impact on the area residents, the city and local environment. Who would be the stakeholders affected by the Gates' decision? What would their different perspectives look like?

As the students transitioned from the impromptu field trip to the announcement of Bill Gates' hypothetical move to Kiyotake, the concept of perspectives shifted from implicit, experiential to explicit, abstract. One of the language-learning objectives was to continue expanding the descriptive vocabulary relevant to the students' views at each step in this learning process. We did not provide predetermined vocabulary lists or grammar worksheets. Rather, we responded to what emerged in our classroom. Students developed their own vocabulary based on what they wanted to communicate. While we helped them expand the language components, and ensure correct usage, they were encouraged to take responsibility for their own message-making. The individual use of bilingual dictionaries, grammar resource texts and other students' knowledge helped to create the learner autonomy and team-learning environment that we sought.

Since the students had to address potentially conflicting attitudes among different area stakeholders, it helped them to hone their critical thinking skills. The Japanese students were required to move away from their comfort zone of 'negotiating for consensus' since there would not be a clear agreement (see Rehorick and Perry, 2001). Expressed in team-based learning principle terms: 'Students' passive familiarity with abstract concepts will be converted to active understanding only when it is applied and tested at the level of concrete, specific scenarios that evoke the abstractions without necessarily citing them' (Roberson and Franchini, 2014, p. 295).

While Illustrations 1 and 2 above might give the impression that the course development and delivery was 'top down' and directed by the two course instructors, this was not the case. Rather, we scrambled class-

to-class to respond to what our students had learned, and figure out what the next best learning activity could be. This scenario illustrates how the concept of leregogy takes shape in a classroom. Within the overarching structure of the course, we were constantly responding to what our students were teaching us.

Jumping ahead: Sampling the culminating course learning module

Table 10.1 displays the schematics of our MCD framework. The content illustration ('Examples' column) was drawn from the closing course module – Environment as a source of fear – where we explored the phenomenon of earthquakes. By the start of this module, students in the course were approaching many of the language descriptors at Level B1 of the CEFR (see Appendix A). Therefore, we were able to increase the academic content volume, build in a research component and shift responsibility for learning increasingly to the students.

Illustration 3: Reflecting on the Great Hanshin Earthquake (Kobe 1995)

Prior to leaving for their teaching appointments in Japan, David and Sally anticipated the potential to develop the topic of the Kobe earthquake somewhere in the curriculum. Hence, we gathered a wide sampling of media reports from outside Japan, immediately after the quake and continuing for approximately one year. Below, we outline the academic content and language learning sequence of Module 3 without a detailed specification of daily classroom practices.

STEP 1: RECALLING INDIVIDUAL EXPERIENCES OF THE KOBE EARTHQUAKE (CONCRETE LEVEL)

Since this powerful event had occurred just one year before our arrival in Japan, we knew that each student would have vivid personal images on which we could build. In the communicative-experiential approach of the MCD, it is essential to incorporate the students' experiences, either real, as in the case of the Kobe earthquake, or created, as in the case of Bill Gates move to Kiyotake. We asked students to recall where they were, whom they were with, what they were doing and what they felt when they first heard about the Kobe earthquake. Each student shared their account with the class as a whole, and generated a written summary to place in their individual portfolios. Everyone was eager to tell their story, and the topic created academic engagement and a curiosity to learn more. At this point the students' writing and spoken interaction capability matched a typical B1 level (see Appendix A).

STEP 2: INTRODUCING PERSPECTIVES FROM OUTSIDE JAPAN (ABSTRACT LEVEL)

In this research phase, student teams read short newspaper articles, generated a written précis and reported to the class what they had learned from their assigned articles. All groups were given different readings, thus increasing the stakes and making them more responsible to ensure that other class members understood what they had discovered. This step gave them a more abstract, outsider's view of how the world saw and reported on the Kobe quake.

STEP 3: COMPARING OUTSIDE VIEWS TO JAPANESE REPORTING ON THE KOBE QUAKE (ABSTRACT LEVEL)

Each student located Japanese-language media stories on the earthquake. Working in newly formed three-person groups, students reapplied the tasks in Step 2 above creating their reports in English. This task challenged them to identify the essence of the Japanese stories, and then use the academic content vocabulary created in Step 2 to generate a comparison and contrast between Canadian, international and Japanese accounts. Students had started the module with the unchallenged assumption that life in Kobe was back to normal. They were surprised to learn about the ongoing dissatisfaction of Kobe residents to the slow pace of reconstruction, and about the protests launched by many citizens against the national government. The learning sequence and research conducted in the final module shattered their uncritical perspectives and assumptions.

STEP 4: FINAL SYNTHESIS OF CONTENT AND LANGUAGE LEARNING (APPLIED LEVEL)

For their closing course project, each student prepared a written essay in response to a broad, open-ended question: 'Who has ultimate responsibility for restoration after a major earthquake: the individual/family; the local community; the national government?'

This task called for a review of everything done during the module, and all documents stored in their portfolios. The learning path from the opening experiential exercise to the discovery that life in Kobe was anything but normal, forced each student to take an informed position. To write their own response in their final essays students drew on all of the learning they had experienced throughout the course. As an assessment tool, the module and course closed with a written task that ensured that every student reflected on and was accountable for their own learning. This self-assessment was added to the Language Biography section of the language portfolios while the essay itself was added to the Dossier, the place where students kept samples of their work.

This module moved students beyond understanding multiple perspectives (inside and outside Japan). They were obligated to apply their learning in a

reflective turn, which required that they examine their preliminary beliefs, assumptions, and understandings about the Great Hanshin Earthquake. Their reflections were informed by a research process that generated varying, and sometimes conflicting, sources of information. Through this final project, we nudged our Japanese students to a higher-level order of thinking. Beyond the specific topic of earthquakes, they had become better, and more self-assured critical thinkers. Roberson and Franchini (2014, p. 287) say that critical thinking arises when students find their individual resources insufficient to answer a question. This lack of knowledge forces students to consider things in different ways, and become more receptive to what other members of a learning team might contribute.

In this respect, our CLIL approach served to enhance academic content, language and intellectual thinking skills. At the course end, students were working at about a B2 level for many of the can-do statements (see Appendix A). In our course, students shifted from passive familiarity to active understanding of abstract concepts and accepted more responsibility for their own learning. This learning experience helped students advance towards becoming more self-assured and confident thinkers.

New horizons for relational learning: a closing note

In this chapter we have introduced our integrated approach to teaching and learning as relational endeavours. By locating our practice of teaching first-year university students in Japan within the conceptual and theoretical roots that support our approach, we wish to demonstrate the need for ELT practitioners to define and use a comprehensive framework for curriculum design.

The six-week (90 hours) module on societal responsibility for restoration after a major earthquake drew on the direct experiences of Japanese students. This made their engagement with the topic profound. Their motivation to understand and express their opinions about the perspectives of the various stakeholders involved with the Kobe earthquake restoration produced rich discussions and coherent final essays. Our role as teachers was to shape each course task into a comprehensive framework of meaningful daily and weekly activities. At first glance these tasks may have appeared unrelated; however, each was in fact a catalyst for and response to our students' explorations of the main topic. By structuring the tasks to be open-ended with no clear 'right answer', we opened the pathway for our Japanese students to feel more at ease with taking and expressing a personal position. Indeed, they became skilful at analysing ambiguous accounts and coming to independent conclusions with their own informed perspective.

In this chapter, we anchor ELT practitioner interests and needs within a new theoretical learning approach. While the principles of team-based learning (TBL) and content and language integrated learning (CLIL) are widely known and applied, our contribution has been to integrate these with

the multi-dimensional curriculum design (MCD), the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) and the European Language Portfolio (ELP). When blended together, MCD, CLIL and TBL yield a more holistic approach to curriculum design and delivery. When merged with the CEFR and ELP, our holistic approach cultivates the value of learner autonomy.[1]

Our theoretical and practical descriptions in this chapter embody a new umbrella conception – leregogy – which captures the innovative sentiments and strands emerging within language education. These strands challenge the established learning theory traditions of pedagogy, and andragogy in particular. The next horizon for relational learning has to be more than a critical extension of prior theoretical frameworks. It will move educators to the boundaries of prior knowledge bases, and press us to search for what lies beyond (Rehorick, Jeddeloh, and Lau-Kwong, 2014).

Note

1 It is beyond the scope of this chapter to explicate in detail the utility and expanding applications of the CEFR and ELP. Nevertheless, we would like to point out a few recent examples of the CEFR and ELP in practice. Hermans-Nymark (2013), Hermans-Nymark and Piccardo (2012) and Ware, Robertson, and Paydon (2011) provide guides to creating teaching resources based on the CEFR. As an example of how the CEFR can be applied beyond the school system, Rehorick (2011) evaluates the proficiency of volunteers at the 2010 Vancouver Olympic Games who provided services in eight foreign languages. The utility of the Portfolio to the secondary school system is addressed by Kristmanson and Lafargue (2008), and Lafargue (2014) speaks to shifting the portfolio to the Internet cloud. Finally, Turnbull (2011) has created a portfolio specifically for language teachers developing their own foreign language proficiency.

Appendix A

CEFR common reference levels: self-assessment grid (© Council of Europe, 2001)

		A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
UNDERSTANDING	**Listening**	I can understand familiar words and very basic phrases concerning myself, my family and immediate concrete surroundings when people speak slowly and clearly.	I can understand phrases and the highest frequency vocabulary related to areas of most immediate personal relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local area, employment). I can catch the main point in short, clear, simple messages and announcements.	I can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. I can understand the main point of many radio or TV programmes on current affairs or topics of personal or professional interest when the delivery is relatively slow and clear.	I can understand extended speech and lectures and follow even complex lines of argument provided the topic is reasonably familiar. I can understand most TV news and current affairs programmes. I can understand the majority of films in standard dialect.	I can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly. I can understand television programmes and films without too much effort.	I have no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken language, whether live or broadcast, even when delivered at fast native speed, provided I have some time to get familiar with the accent.
	Reading	I can understand familiar names, words and very simple sentences, for example on notices and posters or in catalogues.	I can read very short, simple texts. I can find specific, predictable information in simple everyday material such as advertisements, prospectuses, menus and timetables and I can understand short simple personal letters.	I can understand texts that consist mainly of high frequency everyday or job-related language. I can understand the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters.	I can read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular attitudes or viewpoints. I can understand contemporary literary prose.	I can understand long and complex factual and literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style. I can understand specialised articles and longer technical instructions, even when they do not relate to my field.	I can read with ease virtually all forms of the written language, including abstract, structurally or linguistically complex texts such as manuals, specialised articles and literary works.

S P E A K I N G	**Spoken interaction**	I can interact in a simple way provided the other person is prepared to repeat or rephrase things at a slower rate of speech and help me formulate what I'm trying to say. I can ask and answer simple questions in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.	I can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar topics and activities. I can handle very short social exchanges, even though I can't usually understand enough to keep the conversation going myself.	I can deal with most situations likely to arise while travelling in an area where the language is spoken. I can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g. family, hobbies, work, travel and current events).	I can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible. I can take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for and sustaining my views.	I can express myself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. I can use language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. I can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate my contribution skilfully to those of other speakers.	I can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion and have a good familiarity with idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms. I can express myself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely. If I do have a problem I can backtrack and restructure around the difficulty so smoothly that other people are hardly aware of it.
	Spoken production	I can use simple phrases and sentences to describe where I live and people I know.	I can use a series of phrases and sentences to describe in simple terms my family and other people, living conditions, my educational background and my present or most recent job.	I can connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe experiences and events, my dreams, hopes and ambitions. I can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. I can narrate a story or relate the plot of a book or film and describe my reactions.	I can present clear, detailed descriptions on a wide range of subjects related to my field of interest. I can explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.	I can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion.	I can present a clear, smoothly-flowing description or argument in a style appropriate to the context and with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points.

Appendix A

Continued

		A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
WRITING	**Writing**	I can write a short, simple postcard, for example sending holiday greetings. I can fill in forms with personal details, for example entering my name, nationality and address on a hotel registration form.	I can write short, simple notes and messages. I can write a very simple personal letter, for example thanking someone for something.	I can write simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. I can write personal letters describing experiences and impressions.	I can write clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects related to my interests. I can write an essay or report, passing on information or giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view. I can write letters highlighting the personal significance of events and experiences.	I can express myself in clear, well-structured text, expressing points of view at some length. I can write about complex subjects in a letter, an essay or a report, underlining what I consider to be the salient issues. I can select a style appropriate to the reader in mind.	I can write clear, smoothly-flowing text in an appropriate style. I can write complex letters, reports or articles which present a case with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points. I can write summaries and reviews of professional or literary works.

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11 A 5,000-mile virtual collaboration of team teaching and team learning

David Dalsky and Mikel Garant

> After mutual respect and understanding are achieved, it is possible to establish real, sincere relationships, which is the foundation of a solid long-term collaboration.
>
> – Astronaut Ron Garan (2015)

Certainly life on an international space station puts a fresh 'orbital perspective' on mutual understanding and international collaboration, but how about human interaction on Earth where people are divided by geographic and cultural barriers? Social science theory suggests that people from different areas of the world may differ in terms of what they value on dimensions such as individualism/collectivism (Triandis, 1995) and power distance (Hofstede, 1986, 2001). For example, a person living in Finland may value independence and autonomous learning, whereas a person in Japan may value interdependence and learning directly from teachers. That said, regional differences and those within the same culture exist as well. For example, Japanese have been found to adopt an individualistic stance after being primed with a prompt to think about how they are different from other people (Dalsky, 2010). Other research suggests that college students living in the northernmost island of Japan, Hokkaido, have an independent frontier spirit compared to their counterparts in Kyoto (Kitayama, Ishii, Imada, Takemura, and Ramaswamy, 2006).

This chapter describes an international project that involved collaboration with students and teachers on nearly opposite sides of the globe with potentially different value systems. Specifically, the current project involved two university classes with 22 students and two teachers collaborating in two countries separated by nearly 5,000 miles; namely, Finland and Japan. Obviously, the World Wide Web makes this possible as the Internet has changed many aspects of people's lives including the way we communicate (e.g. Skype, e-mail and instant messaging), the way that information is found and shared (e.g. blogs, YouTube and collaborative encyclopedias such as Wikipedia), and the way we interact with information in a social context (e.g. Facebook). This project elaborated on how students and teachers used these Internet tools to collaborate internationally.

Background

With the rise and the expanding influence of social media in the workplace (see Tapscott and Williams, 2008), and the mass amount of information on the Internet, educators have argued that instead of memorising, recalling and knowing information, it is more important for students to be able to analyse, share, discuss, find, sort and create information (Bonk, 2009; Tapscott, 2009; Wesch, 2009). As Wesch (2009) nicely puts it: 'Students need to move from being simply knowledgeable to being knowledge-able'.

A research paper can be one assignment where student-centred instruction and critical thinking play an integral role in the learning and teaching process (see Elbow, 2000). For students to produce high-quality papers, the teacher's role should be that of a facilitator of critical thinking skills and writing skills rather than a purveyor of factual knowledge (Bean, 2001). This pedagogic stance suggests that the quality of academic writing can be improved through searching for information, careful reading, evaluating information and collaborating with teachers and students using the Internet in order to find credible sources (see Bazerman, 2011).

In addition, through this project we also hoped to instil pride in learners' personal knowledge of English language learning, their understanding of themselves as individuals within the language learning process, and how this relates to the world outside of the classroom based on Rowland (2011). From an applied standpoint, in many sectors people cooperate internationally with people whom they have never met – this project gave learners such an experience.

Theoretical approach

Besides fostering more effective writing, a goal of this activity was for the students and teachers to gain insights into subjective cultural differences such as values, since the purpose of the writing assignment was to learn about contrasting features of Japanese and Finnish cultures. Among the methods for researching collaboration are traditional classroom research (CR), action research (AR), and Exploratory Practice (EP). In the present project, we adopted the EP practitioner research approach for two reasons: (1) For both teachers and students, collaborative learning, teaching and research leading to understanding cultural differences was the essential aim of this international project; and (2) it was our first attempt at such an international team teaching, learning and research effort, so we were interested in learning from the students' intercultural communication in order to understand how quality of life issues might emerge. To further these aims we set out to use modern collaboration-based technology to see if it could be integrated into a joint project through a team-teaching and team-learning project with students situated in Finland and Japan.

The principles of EP highlight collaboration among all participants in a teaching/learning environment to work towards a mutual understanding of

the puzzling features of classroom life (Allwright and Hanks, 2009). EP aims to be a sustainable and completely inclusive approach to researching practice. In EP, all members of the classroom become co-researchers in a collaborative community (Allwright, 2003, 2005). In fact, collaboration among participants plus mutual understanding is part of the formula to achieve the overarching aim of EP; namely, putting the understanding of 'quality of life' above everything. As Wu (2006) sees it, EP is an ontological venture that should make a difference in teachers' and learners' classroom lives, rather than a technocratic method for improving efficiency and effectiveness. Authenticity is at the heart of the notion of quality of life in EP. For this reason, we organised this project around authentic cooperation between Japanese and Finnish learners. That is, rather than learning about intercultural differences in books, the students collaborated with each other using Skype, MSN messenger, e-mail and instant messaging.

In contrast to traditional educational research, practitioners of EP should organise their regular day-to-day teaching to collect data and make research a normal part of the everyday classroom routine (Allwright, 2003, 2005). According to Tajino and Smith (2005, p. 468), 'Exploratory Practice, in contrast to reductionist research, accepts that it is worthwhile for the practitioners to try to understand the inherently complex world of language classrooms'. Following this lead, the project described in this chapter can indeed be showcased as a complex transnational intercultural endeavour. Our broad aim was to establish some sort of international research cooperation. Based on this aim, we devised a collaborative team teaching and learning plan. The major goal of this project was for the students to produce a quality research paper while working with a partner or several partners in another country (i.e. Finland and Japan).

Team teaching in Japan is discussed extensively in junior and senior high school contexts related to the Japan Exchange Teaching (JET) Programme (see for example, Brumby and Wada, 1990; Garant, 1997; Johannes, 2012; Tajino and Walker, 1998; Wada and Cominos, 1994). In contrast, there are relatively few published papers on team teaching at the tertiary level in Japan (Gladman, 2015; Perry and Stewart, 2005; Stewart and Perry, 2005). In Finland, little is available on the topic. A literature review, including a search of the thesis data banks of the University of Helsinki (E-Thesis, 2014) and University of Jyväskylä (JYX, 2014), yielded no research on team teaching. Team-taught classes at the university level are common in many disciplines in Finland, but it does not seem to be a significant research topic; indeed, the team formation aspect of this project is unique for Finland.

This chapter will present the details of a descriptive study of a transnational collaboration between students and teachers in Finland and Japan who engaged with the principles of EP in an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) setting via the Internet. Specifically, it will address the following points: How do learners use forms of technology for classroom collaboration? How can teachers attend to the EP concept of 'quality of life' in classrooms? What

sorts of activities and instructions are needed in order to conduct such an intercultural project?

Methods

Two classes collaborated in the first attempt of this international project. In Kyoto, Japan, the students were members of an academic English writing class of second-year students at a leading university. There were 15 students in the elective class and all of them were Japanese. The course emphasised writing for general academic purposes, and the content focused on topics related to Japanese culture. Each week students were assigned to read an academic essay from a book called *The Japanese Mind* (Davies and Ikeno, 2002). The essays all had a keyword title in Japanese related to a particular cultural feature (e.g. *sempai-kohai*, the seniority system; *aimai*, ambiguity; *amae*, passive love). The students were also asked to write their reaction to five discussion questions about these features of Japanese culture in five paragraphs (at least 25 sentences total).

In Helsinki, participants were 15 students enrolled in a cross-cultural communication class at a leading university, which included two Russian students. This course focused on theories of intercultural and cross-cultural communication. In addition, the content of the course covered works such as Hofstede (2001), Garant (1997), and Trompenaars and Woolliams (2003). The course in Finland also included an applied element where the learners were required to do online collaboration with their Japanese counterparts in order to write a research paper. In both countries, four students dropped out of the course, so in the end, 11 papers were submitted in each country.

Instructions for the project were given as follows. The students were asked to collaborate with an international partner on a research paper to be submitted at the end of the semester. Instructions for the paper were to compare and contrast one aspect of Japanese culture with one from Finnish culture in at least 1,500 words. Student pairs negotiated their paper topic. The online word processor, Google Docs, was used as the tool for this writing collaboration.

Puzzling results: A first attempt failure?

At the end of the semester, the teachers met to reflect on the project. After independently assessing the papers for general academic quality on a scale of 1 (poor quality) to 10 (high quality), we concluded that only three of the 11 teams successfully collaborated to produce quality papers. However, we also agreed that four out of the 11 pairs produced acceptable papers and the other four pairs failed to collaborate, submitting papers independently or not at all. Overall, the project appeared to be a relative failure because the majority of the student pairs either submitted collaborative papers

that were of mediocre to low quality, or papers that were not written collaboratively.

Unravelling the puzzle of the first attempt: Why the low quality?

One of the original reasons we decided to undertake this project was that we hoped it would inspire the students. Basically, we hypothesised that communication with students on the other side of the world would be fun. In EP terms, the project should have led to a high quality of classroom life for all those involved because the students took a leading role in deciding their topics and choosing their international partner. Did it lead to a high quality of life in the classroom? For the students who submitted very good and acceptable papers, the experience probably was enjoyable; for the others, probably not, and we present evidence of this from students' e-mail correspondence below. One-third of the group did not complete the task of writing a paper with their international partner. This led us to reconsider the reasons for the failure, as it appeared that these students were unwilling to or unable to cooperate across cultures.

As this was the first time for us to conduct this type of an international collaboration, we were interested in collecting the reactions and communications of the students. Therefore, during the final class, we asked the students to copy and paste their e-mail correspondence with their partner on the learning management system (LMS) of their class; Edmodo in Japan and Moodle in Finland. This proved to be a very important piece of the puzzle for our understanding of the students' experience. For instance, some students were unclear about the assignment as demonstrated by the following e-mail piece from a Finn to her Japanese partner:

> Thank you for replying so soon. I have talked to some friends of mine who are taking this cultural studies course, and judging by our experiences with this whole project it seems that there are some communication problems between our teachers. It seems that people have received very different instructions in Finland and Japan . . . So I thought it would probably be good if we both told each other which instructions we've received. I think I'll also send an e-mail to my teacher and ask him what we should do.

Garant (1997) found that learners from large power distance cultures like Japan expect the teacher to outline the path to follow, whereas in low power distance cultures like Finland, teachers expect students to discover their own paths. This is an example of how cultures may collide when Japanese and Finnish learners cooperate. As instructions were given verbally by the respective teachers, they reflected the cultural norms in their respective countries and were therefore worded differently. Another characteristic of small power distance societies such as in Finland is that student-centred

education puts a premium on learner initiative, whereas in a large power distance cultures like Japan, teacher-centred education puts a premium on order. The student e-mail message above is also an example of how these cultural norms caused misunderstandings among the students and teachers.

It should be pointed out that this did not affect all the groups. Indeed, some students seemed to have no problems with the instructions and immediately began to discuss the contents of the paper. For example, in the following e-mail from a Finnish student to her Japanese partner, there was some discussion about clarifying the style and content of the paper:

> Before we settle on a specific topic shouldn't we think about the composition of the paper? Our teacher suggested that we make a comparative paper that states the views on a selected issue from both Japanese and Finnish viewpoints.

This message suggests that some students are better at cross-cultural cooperation than others. Moreover, e-mail correspondence from other students revealed that some attempted to communicate through other electronic means such as instant messenger applications. For example, one Finnish student wrote to her Japanese partner:

> I hope you'll find the time to answer me soon so that we could get started with working on the paper. In the meantime, I thought I would ask if you have MSN Messenger. If you do, we could perhaps arrange some time so that we could talk about the paper in real time, which would probably be more efficient than just sending e-mails to each other. If you are a Messenger user, you can add me to your contact list.

It became apparent that for most of the pairs, the Finns helped the Japanese with their academic writing. For example, in one case, a Finn wrote to a Japanese the following:

> On the whole this essay looks ok, but it has some small issues that you could consider. I've understood that in this course you're practising to write academic texts, and I've already done a course like that, so I can give you some hints, if you don't mind.

In the excerpts of communication above, useful and constructive cooperation between the course participants are apparent. This was not always the case, however, as one Finnish student explained:

> My partner was not very co-operative either; we both just pretty much wrote our parts and then just glued them together. He had written the whole thing before he even contacted me! But, no excuses, I guess I just should have been a bit firmer with him/her.

Here the student says that there was not really any cooperation between students in Finland and Japan in the true sense. Another interesting feature of this message is that the Finnish student was not sure if her partner was a male or a female because of unfamiliarity with Japanese names, suggesting they did not get to know each other. Lack of communication and personal familiarity certainly was a variable in both quality of papers and awareness of the experience.

In another pair, a Finn gave evidence of intercultural understanding and advice about particular features of the paper, for example:

> One thing I noticed has to do with references. I don't know how you've been taught to write down Internet sources, but we were told we should also include the date we read the web page in the source information. As for the effect two-way communication has on education, I'd say you're probably right. If students don't get the opportunity to express their opinions, it could cause motivational issues. Lately, there's been a lot of discussion in Finland about how school children, especially boys, have problems in class, partly because they feel that they aren't allowed to express themselves. Even though the Finnish education system is described as student-centered, I think it could be made even more so, and one possible way to do this would be through increasing two-way communication in class. There are no references, though. Where did you get all that information? Then we need to come up with a title and also do something about the structure, come up with sub-titles or something, just list like 1) [block of text] 2) [block of text] and 3) [block of text] isn't really very academic style.

In the end, the students in this successful group expressed their enthusiasm, which suggested a high quality of educational life from the experience as seen in this e-mail from a Japanese to a Finn:

> We finished the paper! Thank you for pointing out the problems in my paper. It is difficult for me to write an academic paper since there are many rules. Thank you for teaching me.

Four out of the 11 pairs collaborated to produce acceptable papers and the following is a telling piece of e-mail correspondence from a Finn to a Japanese:

> I decided to write my text after yours instead of combining my text and yours into one entity, because I didn't agree with everything you said and because there were also some parts I didn't understand. For example, I don't know where you've gotten your examples about Finnish education . . . Also, you don't have any references in your text (I did my part rather informally too, but at least I marked the references in the

> text), you just had a list of references at the end. Usually you mark them in the text, like this: According to another student, this is the correct way to reference to a previous study.

This message again reflects what Garant (1997) found; namely, learners from large power distance cultures like Japan expect the teacher to outline the path to follow, whereas in low power distance cultures like Finland, teachers expect students to find their own paths. The Finnish student cites another student's opinion about correct citation. This might have been confusing for the Japanese students who would have tended to rely on the teacher's instruction. Finally, four of the 11 final papers were done independently and the following comment by a Finnish student describes one situation:

> Please note that in spite of my attempts, my Japanese partner hasn't contributed to this essay at all. I have no idea what happened to him. This is my part only, as my partner has done his part also separately a long time ago.

Perhaps some of the Finns in this test group had the type of personalities where they do not work very well with other people inside Finland, much less with Japanese students from Kyoto. Two of the students who had non-cooperative Japanese partners turned in the assignments long after the due date because they were waiting for their Japanese partners to contribute. Others said that they understood the concept and the difficulties encountered while communicating was what the task was about. They learned the theory of Japanese–Finnish educational communication styles and the paper-writing task was a way of putting theory into practice.

Overall, the first attempt to incorporate EP into the classroom was somewhat unsuccessful. It was not a way to bring enjoyment into the classroom for many of the learners. This presented us with the challenge of how we could develop the idea so that it would actually lead to a high quality of life for all those involved.

Preparing for the next project attempt: Challenging the puzzle

How could the relatively disappointing results described above be improved in another attempt at international collaboration? Ideally, initial contact with partners should be accomplished during class time, but this may be problematic because of time zone differences and issues related to real-time communication applications. In many Finnish universities, for instance, there are regulations that forbid Skype and instant messenger applications from being installed on university computers. One solution would be to have the students bring their own laptops and use them via the university wireless

system. Another option would be to have the students make e-mail contact during class time (and we explain this method in the second attempt).

The lack of communication in the first attempt at this project revealed another puzzling issue. The Finnish students complained a lot initially that the Japanese students did not respond to their e-mails. Why? The Japanese students were told to contact their Finnish partner before the following class and it is possible that they waited until the last minute. What was most troubling was that some students claimed they never actually made contact with their assigned partner.

After reflecting on the correspondence between students and their lacklustre performance on the research papers, the teachers agreed that a second attempt was needed. In EP terms, all of us, teachers and students, needed to do better in order to understand and thereby enhance the quality of life in our classrooms. Bearing the experience of our first attempt in mind, we set out to implement the fundamental principles of EP (i.e. collaboration and mutual understanding leading to a high quality of life) in our second attempt. Our aim was to try to understand the primary puzzle of the first attempt: Why did only one-third of the student pairs collaborate successfully to produce high quality papers?

The second project attempt: Mutual understanding for a better quality of educational life

Our understanding of the students' correspondence and their feedback to us from the first project design inspired us to improve the collaboration. In our second attempt, we made sure to give specific detailed instructions and prompts for the students related to the structure of the assignment, communication frequency between partners and goals related to academic writing and intercultural understanding. What's more, following one of the principles of EP, we also tried to open doors for collaboration between teachers and students by asking for student feedback on their collaboration experience at various points in time during the term. Collecting these data was intended to help us achieve a primary goal of this project, which was to promote mutual intercultural understanding.

Based on the students' e-mail correspondence in the first attempt, we understood that a more structured approach would probably lead to a higher quality of life for the students. Therefore, we took a more active role by delivering instructions, setting deadlines and collecting e-mail correspondence with LMSs to gauge the reactions and needs of students and discuss how their experiences were related to intercultural understanding. Immediately after introducing the project at the beginning of the term, students in Japan were given the following instructions:

> In-class Activity: Make e-mail contact with your partner in Finland. After choosing your partner from the list on the Google Doc, I would like you

> to send an e-mail to the partner during this class, right now. Here is a template for your e-mail:
>
> Dear _____,
>
> I'm a second-year student in Japan majoring in _____.
> I understand that you are student in a culture class in Finland and we are to work together on a project that involves writing a research paper. I'm interested in the topic of_____ because _____. Let's plan how we can work together to write this paper! I look forward to hearing from you.
>
> Best wishes,

We also gave instructions for deadlines for specific sections of the paper such as the following (see ProDAIT, n.d.):

> Deadline 1: Agree on a specific topic
> Deadline 2: Finish anecdotes (i.e. stories) about students' own experiences in their own country related to the topic (this will be the main body section of your paper and each person should write 500 to 750 words or more).
> Deadline 3: Create a Google Doc and merge anecdotes to create a large body section for the paper.
> Deadline 4: Finish the introduction and conclusion section and list of references and add them to the Google Doc (each section should be about 500 words).
> Final Deadline: Finish final version of the paper on the Google Doc.

Then, we let time take its course and right from the start, we encountered a difficult situation. Due to differences in class sizes, an initial issue we faced was the number of classmates in each group. Because we allowed students to choose their own topics freely from a list, in some cases there were more than two members in each group. This led to some initial confusion among the students. We solved this issue by giving them the choice to work in groups of two, three, or four.

At around mid-term, we asked the students for feedback on their experience and how it might be leading to intercultural understanding. Some of the Japanese students replied positively that they were learning about aspects of Finland related to the education system. For example, one Japanese student wrote:

> I had known that Finland's education style is different from Japanese education style. However, my partner and my conclusion corresponded. I think that this is interesting.

When asked about their experience, many of the Japanese students expressed their difficulty with communicating with their partners in English. For example, some of the Japanese students reported as follows:

- I felt the collaboration difficult and fun. English is the second language. So I hung on to understand words from our Finnish partner. But her thoughts that are different from our Japanese thoughts sounded interesting.
- It was very difficult for me because a mutual schedule did not suit. But it was very fun. I think that it became a very good experience.
- First of all, I felt the gap of ability to using [sic] English between us and Finnish partner. And I felt that her motivation of study is very high. She told me that we should study English in order to communicate to [sic] foreign people.
- I felt that my English skill is still insufficient and it is difficult to communicate with foreigners. And my partners have very academic ideas. I could learn many things about Finland.

There is also some indication above of intercultural understanding and enjoyment in the collaboration as the students seemed to recognise diversity in thoughts and how such differences are interesting. Another Japanese student reflected on the unique learning opportunity afforded by this project:

> This theme of paper is related to my major subject. So I can learn not only English but also about my major. Moreover, I was surprised to hear the story about this theme from my partner. I have already known about Finnish nature a little because of geography, but to listen to her story, I can know the details which we cannot learn by school study. Also I can realise again the beauty of Japanese seasons.

Most of the Finns also responded more positively to this more structured approach, but the Japanese showed more telling evidence of this. It seems that the more detailed instructions gave students a better understanding of the expected results. Several of the students in the second Finnish group enjoyed the assignment. However, it should be noted that one of the Finnish translation students withdrew from the course. He stated, 'This is not for me' and simply withdrew.

Discussion

Experiential learning or learning-by-doing (see Dewey, 1938; Gibbs, 1988; Kolb and Kolb, 2005) is a fundamental concept in education that is especially useful to describe the experience of the students and teachers discussed in this paper. Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle, for example, is based on cycles of learning in which students begin with a concrete experience,

move on to reflective observation, then abstract conceptualisation, and finally, active experimentation.

In the present project, students from Finland and Japan had the concrete experience of transnational communication with English as a lingua franca through e-mail, Skype, instant messenger applications and an online word processor. We discovered that the students tended to prefer MSN messenger to Skype according to feedback provided during classroom discussions.

In the best cases, the students were able to reflect on their intercultural experiences. Based on these experiences, they formed abstract conceptualisations that helped them to broaden and deepen their understanding of the differing cultural values, such as individualism/collectivism (Triandis, 1995) and power distance (Hofstede, 1986, 2001), which may have been responsible for any difficulties in cross-cultural communication. They were then able to produce short academic papers together, demonstrating their learning. In the worst cases, communication broke down or never started between some participants. One result of the project is that it became apparent that a great deal of scaffolding and encouragement was required for some of the students in order to get them to initiate communication. One of the fundamental principles of EP is to strive to create a high quality of life in the classroom; however, in some cases, this failed. Indeed, some Finnish students quit the course because they did not wish to engage in online communication with their Japanese counterparts. It turned out that what the teachers thought would be enjoyable for the learners was in fact the opposite for some.

A key element in the greater success of the second implementation was to define the goals of the course in advance and issue explicit instructions so that the learners had a clear understanding of the project. Also, checking up on them regularly in both Japan and Finland helped identify and solve problematic issues early on. It was also important to prod students into answering their e-mails and following up with their counterpart on the other side of the world.

Student e-mail documentation varied from very detailed documents including all (or virtually all) of the learner e-mail correspondence, including reflections, to no submissions or sparse documentation. Gunn (2010, p. 221) pointed out in her research on introducing reflective practice in teacher training that 'the students' and my classroom quality of life was being compromised because the students were getting frustrated that they did not completely understand what reflection is nor did they completely see the benefits of it'. The teachers in her study attributed this to how much the learners bought into the project or how much time the students had to write. In our project again, the results varied greatly between collaborative groups.

It was our intention to promote quality of life among the students so they were not required to compile extensive reflective learner diaries; some learners enjoy writing detailed learner diaries and others do not. Learners who are forced to write extensive learner diaries when that is not part of

their learning style tend to do a poor job and may exhibit a negative attitude or, in extreme cases, quit the course.

We opted for free form in-class feedback with the intention of minimising the somewhat parasitic nature of classroom research. Our goal was to focus attention on understanding life in the classroom and collect data through the activity of student communication, rather than using a conventional classroom research approach (ProDAIT, n.d.). This is one example of the difference between EP and traditional classroom research approaches. Conventional research would include, for example, discourse analysis focusing on classroom interaction data. This study, instead, examined student e-mail communication that was a regular course activity. In addition, extensive classroom diaries were not used in this project. Instead, student reflection was more free form because, following EP principles, we hoped the reflections would add to, rather than detract from, the learning.

In this virtual collaboration, the different academic year schedules were difficult to deal with because the Finnish course ended at the end of December and the course in Japan finished at the end of January. So, the Finnish deadline was extended until January 20, which is when the Japanese were supposed to turn in their final papers. This caused some confusion among the Finnish students who were used to ending their courses in mid-December. As previously stated, time zones can be a problem for real-time in-class online meetings. In addition, planning such international courses can be problematic because of different curricula and educational traditions. In our project, similar courses were matched rather than attempting to teach exactly the same course in the two countries.

A major problem with the first implementation of this project was that some of the learners failed to communicate. We addressed this in the second implementation by issuing a set of more explicit instructions. In addition, we monitored the learners to make sure they were answering their e-mails and working together on the project. This required regular contact between the teachers to produce better results. In this case, the teachers used Facebook chat as their main channel of communication. By scrolling up and down on the chat dialogue box, both teachers were able to keep account of what had been said in the on-going discussion about the project. Still, some students did not like this type of project and more experimentation is required in order to improve the project design.

Conclusion

In all likelihood, both Finns and Japanese will be working in international environments where concrete transnational interaction is required, and communication technologies will continue to flourish. In ELT environments, Exploratory Practice projects using real-life global communication is one way to build these skills. Therefore, we encourage further exploration, building on the project described in this chapter, to encourage the work of

international collaboration and team learning that is essential to building intercultural understanding in an increasingly globalised world.

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12 Peer mentoring for beginning teachers

Factors contributing to professional identity development

Hoa Thi Mai Nguyen

Language education in Asian English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts, including Vietnam, over the past decade has been dominated by concerns associated with the issue of quality. This concern often focuses on teacher education and professional development. The support provided to English language teachers in general, and beginning English language teachers in particular, is critical to the quality of their immediate professional experiences as well as to their long-term professional learning. Moreover, teacher professional development is considered the key mechanism for improving student outcomes (e.g. Cohen and Hill, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 2006).

In Vietnam, the significance of teacher professional development is particularly emphasised in language teaching. The Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training has implemented its Project 2020, which aims to improve the English language proficiency of Vietnamese citizens. This project is considered as a key element for elevating Vietnam's competitive position in international economic and political arenas. However, the quality and quantity of English teachers in Vietnam is widely seen as problematic (e.g. Kirkpatrick, 2011; Le, 2007b; Nguyen, 2012). According to Nunan (2003), EFL teacher education in many countries in Asia, including Vietnam, is inadequate. This situation signals the need for a drastic restructuring of Vietnam's English language education in general and English teacher professional development in particular.

The beginning of a teaching career is well recognised as a critical stage of teacher learning. The first entry into the profession can be a daunting experience for beginning practitioners who are often defined as teachers with less than three years of teaching experience (Troutman, 2002). Novice teachers typically struggle to survive early in their career. These difficult first-year teaching experiences imprint an indelible mark on a teacher's practice and attitudes throughout the remainder of their careers (Farrell, 2003; Feiman-Nemser, 2001). According to Murshidi, Konting, Elias, and Fooi (2006), 'when beginning teachers enter the teaching force, they often encounter a reality shock as they confront the complexity of the teaching task' (p. 266). Thus, it is not surprising to find that without adequate support, first-year teachers often 'lose their enthusiasm, ambition, and idealism and

start getting lost in the flurry of a challenging beginning' (Saban, 2002, p. 33). Inadequate socialisation support structure is considered as one of the causes of the beginning teachers' major struggles.

Mentoring is seen as an important strategy to support beginning teachers. The benefits of mentoring for novice teachers have been widely recognised in the literature (e.g. Hobson, Ashby, Malderez, and Tomlinson, 2009; Hudson, 2012). Most of the studies focus on the relationship between beginning teachers as mentees and experienced teachers as mentors. While the research literature has generally concentrated on hierarchical mentor–protégé relationships, interest in peer mentoring and group mentoring is growing. Currently, there is rising support for a move from hierarchical mentoring relationships to a more equal and mutually supportive one. Following this trend, my chapter describes a peer-mentoring model organised to ensure that there are relatively few significant differences in age, experience and expertise between the participants. In Vietnam with quite a traditional Confucian Heritage Culture (CHC), respect for age and seniority is deeply embedded into the social fabric. This context presents a challenge for peer mentoring among educators. In this chapter, I report on part of a research project that explored how beginning English teachers' professional identity developed as a result of working with a peer mentor in a Vietnamese context. The chapter will focus particularly on factors contributing to beginning teachers' professional identity development from a sociocultural perspective.

Identity and activity theory

The development of teacher identity is a critically important component of learning to teach as it is linked to teacher growth and performance processes (Atkinson, 2004; Beauchamp and Thomas, 2009). This is also true for beginning teachers during their first years of practice since struggles as novices lay the foundation for their professional identity as teachers. Bullough (1997) explains that, 'teacher identity – what beginning teachers believe about teaching and learning and self-as-a-teacher – is a vital concern to teacher education; it is the basis for meaning making and decision making' (p. 21).

In a review of identity studies, Beijaard, Meijer, and Verloop (2004) expressed a concern that in most of the studies, the concept of professional identity was defined differently or not defined at all. They called for studies that provide methodological implications of research on teachers' professional identity. The present study used activity theory (Engeström, 2001) to shed light on further exploration of beginning teachers' identity development through a peer-mentoring program.

Mentoring provides one of the most difficult contexts in which to develop identity because the beginning teachers interact with their peer mentors who may have different views and assumptions about teaching practice and

teaching careers. According to Grossman, Smagorinsky, and Valencia (1999), 'activity theory also focuses on the ways in which individuals begin to adopt particular practices and ways of thinking to solve specific problems or challenges within a setting' (p. 12). From this perspective, teacher identity is developed through the process of understanding, encountering and solving variations of problems emerging in relation to the interactions with others within a certain setting. The study described in this chapter was an investigation of beginning teachers' identity development through a peer-mentoring program in which the different activity systems of novice teachers and their peer mentors interacted. Specifically, Engeström's (2001) third generation of cultural historical activity theory was employed as the method of analysis for the present study.

Engeström (2001) notes that cultural historical activity theory, which originated from Vygotsky's work, is marked by three generations of development. The first generation is based on Vygotsky's (1981) idea of mediation and focus on individual persons. Second generation activity theory, influenced significantly by Alexei Leont'ev (1978), emphasised the contextualisation of learning, as well as situated individual and group activity within a collective activity system. It expands the subject–mediation–object triad with three added elements: rules, community and division of labour (Engeström, 1987). In his proposal for a third generation of the theory, Engeström (2001) advocates a conceptual tool 'to understand dialogue, multiple perspectives, and networks of interacting activity systems' (p. 135). The third generation of activity theory uses a joint activity system, which includes at least two interacting activity systems as the unit of analysis (Figure 12.1). The third generation highlights the role of contradictions within and between activity systems as sources of change and innovation in development and learning.

This study draws on the methodology offered by the third generation of activity theory. In practice, this means that it conceptualises the peer mentoring activity system through the joint activity systems of beginning

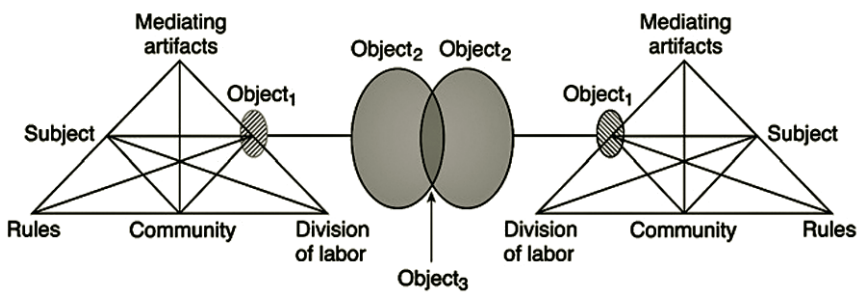

Figure 12.1 Two interacting activity systems as a minimal model for the third generation of activity theory

teachers and their peer mentors. The research context was a peer-mentoring program for beginning EFL teachers in Vietnam. Despite a growing body of research on the beginning teacher's identity development, relatively little work has explored what factors contribute to beginning teachers' identity development through peer mentoring.

The study

This study followed a case study research design. Yin (2003) defined a case study as an investigation of a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life setting. The case study approach is appropriate when investigating what is happening within a social context. This chapter derives from a larger research project, which explored how pre-service teachers develop their identity when participating in a peer-mentoring program. My aim in this chapter is to identify the contributing factors to the identity development of beginning EFL teachers' who participated in a peer-mentoring program in Vietnam.

Four EFL beginning teachers (Trang, Van, Huong and Thanh) volunteered to participate in the research. All of them had been newly recruited as lecturers in EFL teacher education programs at an EFL teacher training institution. They had recently graduated with high academic records. The four peer mentors were also beginning teachers who had been teaching at the university for less than three years (Hang, Hai, Trang and LanAnh).

The research was conducted at a leading university in training foreign language teachers in Hanoi, Vietnam. Every year, the university recruits a number of beginning EFL teachers who were outstanding graduates from its EFL pre-service teacher education programme. These beginning teachers attend a number of professional development activities in their first year including a peer-mentoring programme.

The peer-mentoring programme was initiated for newly employed beginning EFL teachers. Unlike traditional mentoring where there normally is a significant gap in rank or status, experience and expertise between the mentors and the mentees, the peer-mentoring model described in my study employed mentors who had from two to three years' teaching experience. These mentors were paired with newly recruited beginning teachers in the department. For this model, the first-year teachers were assigned to second-year or third-year teachers in a peer mentoring relationship. Although the mentors were in their second or third year of teaching, they all had a similar level of teaching ability and teaching experience. Underlying this model is the assumption that since the mentors themselves are beginning teachers, they can better address the issues of the novices because they have dealt with the same or similar issues recently. The recruitment of second- and third-year beginning teachers as peer mentors for this program aimed to avoid a number of issues related to the lack of power balance typically found in the traditional mentoring relationship between a novice and a senior teacher.

This study was carried out over one semester and involved four pairs of mentors–mentees. The four mentor teachers were asked by the departmental manager to assume an ongoing mentoring relationship with four newly recruited teachers. Both mentors and mentees were provided with basic procedures and requirements needed to implement the program. The major activities centred around modelling, observation, feedback on lesson plans and lessons and reflection. An orientation was conducted for both mentors (second- and third-year teachers) and mentees (first-year beginning teachers). A peer-mentoring package that included materials on the mentoring cycle and mentoring tasks was given to all the participants. The program lasted for one semester during which both peer mentors and beginning teachers agreed to observe each other's lessons and provide feedback. The mentees were required to write a reflection about each lesson as well as about their mentoring experience every week.

Data collection and analysis

A qualitative approach was used to analyse data derived from several sources: individual interviews with the four mentees; peer mentoring conversations; reflective journals; lesson plans and mentoring evaluation reflection forms. Four individual 45-minute interviews were conducted after the conclusion of the program, one with each of the mentees. The peer mentors' mentoring conversations, written feedback, classroom observation feedback forms, self-reflective journal and mentoring reflective journal reports were used as additional sources of data. After each lesson, peer mentors were required to complete the observation feedback form and noted other comments about the first-year teachers. Apart from that, mentoring reflective journal reports were collected every week. In each mentees' peer mentoring reflective journal report entry, the first-year teachers were asked to report on their concerns, and describe any support they had received from their peer mentors. Beginning teachers' reflective journals were also collected as a source of data.

Data analysis follows Yamagata-Lynch's (2010) methods in activity systems analysis. All interviews were audio taped and transcribed verbatim. I used the interview transcripts as primary data sources and conducted a thematic analysis using the constant comparative method (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). The transcriptions were analysed to identify the main themes expressed by the mentees concerning their professional identity development. The themes were then compared with supporting evidence from other data. Drawing on the activity theoretical framework, I grouped individual themes into elements of activity theory (i.e. the subject, tool, object, rule, community and division of labour related to the study) during selective coding. I continued sketching these modes until I felt ready to write the thick descriptions of the data in narrative format. Within the scope of this chapter, I only report on the data related to the factors contributing to the beginning

teachers' identity development. To analyse the data, I employed codes matching the data with different aspects of the activity theory conceptual model. Below, I present in detail the most salient features in response to the research question: What are the critical factors contributing to beginning teachers' professional identity development as a result of working with peer mentors in the Vietnamese context?

Findings and discussion

Compatibility between mentors and mentees

The interplay of subjects is at the heart of activity theory and, in this study, beginning teachers and peer mentors engaged in a variety of contexts to create learning challenges for both. All four beginning teachers said that the mutual understanding between them and their mentors was an important foundation for interaction and greatly contributed to their fruitful collaboration and effective mentorships. This observation reflects the empathy of the peer mentors who recently experienced similar problems during the first year of teaching practice. In a comment on the relevance of mentor support, Hai, one of the peer mentors said:

> I think the peer-mentoring program is beneficial to the beginning teachers. I wish I could have participated in a similar program when I was first recruited here. I remembered my first year here. I was panicked because I did not know how to teach the Insight Out book, I did not know where to have more activities. I swam by myself . . . Now I can help them by telling them about the objectives of the book, students' level, supplementary resources, supplementary activities. I believe that I can guide them better.

Another mentor, Hang, expressed a similar opinion. She said that the way the first-year teachers designed a lesson was similar to her approach a few years ago as 'they prepared too many activities for a lesson without thinking about the objective of the lesson'.

The beginning teachers said that they felt their peer mentors were very supportive and did not sense any power hierarchy in their relationship. They noted that they felt comfortable to express their ideas and thoughts with their peer mentors, and did not feel stressed by their peer mentors' comments. In short, it appears that this compatibility in terms of relative experience and age created the potential for learning to occur. One beginning teacher recounted in her reflective journal: 'My peer mentor was very supportive when I taught. This helps me to be more confident in my teaching. I don't have a feeling of being observed and evaluated'. This perception is consistent with her peer mentor's reflections:

- I am afraid that she (her mentee) felt demotivated, so I try to encourage and motivate her when I give her feedback. I try to avoid criticism.
- I think the most importance is to support them emotionally.

Mutual understanding between the two teachers in this peer mentorship was identified as a key element in fostering a fruitful relationship. The design of this peer-mentoring programme, centred on a non-hierarchical relationship, fostered a supportive and collaborative learning environment for the beginning teachers. All the participants were willing to share and work together and this activity led to the formation of an enabling environment for mutual learning. These findings support arguments made by a number of scholars (e.g., Friend and Cook, 2010; Honigsfeld and Dove, 2012) who emphasise the importance of the role of the participants in terms of their commitment and compatibility in facilitating collaboration.

Tools that mediated mentorship

Two-way conversations

From the perspective of activity theory, a tool is considered a mediating artefact that a participant uses to transform some object, which then becomes an outcome for the participant. In this chapter, I am concerned with identifying the tools in the peer-mentoring program that facilitated the beginning teachers' identity development. For Vygotsky (1981), language is considered a psychological tool. In this study, language used by peer mentors in the mentoring feedback session was identified as a mediating tool to guide the teaching practices of the beginning teachers. All of the peer mentors said that they tried to avoid criticism and initiated reflections from the beginning teachers before giving their feedback because this opened the flow of the two-way conversations. This strategy is evident in the feedback conversations in which two of the peer mentors always asked the beginning teachers questions such as: 'What do you think about your lesson?'; 'If you could do it again, what changes would you like to make?'; 'Why did you organise this activity?' or, 'What do you think are the strengths and limitations of your lesson today?'. Regarding this approach, Van, one of the beginning teachers who had worked with two peer mentors stated:

> Miss T always praised what I did well first. I have opportunities to explain myself then she gives feedback on the good point and weak point of my lesson with reasons while other peer mentor, Miss V, she always criticised me and did not allow me to explain why I taught that way. She did not even give the reasons why she came up with such comments. I did not feel comfortable about that.

It is clear that tension surfaced when one of the peer mentors used less encouraging language to give feedback. Most of the beginning teachers valued the reflective language that peer mentors used to guide their teaching practice. In the case of Van above, the use of reflective language facilitated the co-construction of knowledge between the beginning teacher and peer mentor. The peer mentors generally used feedback language as a mediating tool to foster the beginning teachers' reflection, thus simultaneously helping the beginners to reconceptualise their teaching practice and become more reflective practitioners.

The language the mentors used aimed to ignite the beginning teachers' positive emotions. A number of studies (Hodgen and Askew, 2011; Lee and Yin, 2011) have identified the relationship between emotions and teacher identity development. Pillen, Beijaard, and Den Brok (2013) found that the negative feelings resulting from traditional hierarchical mentorships inhibit the beginning teachers' autonomy in applying what they had learnt. This finding is supportive of the results from others studies (Nguyen, 2014; Pillen *et al.*, 2013; Xu, 2013; Zembylas, 2003) that highlight the importance of understanding teacher emotions in improving their professional relationships, and facilitating teacher learning. This finding stresses the need to better understand the appropriation of the feedback language as a tool for facilitating the beginning teachers' identity. According to Grossman *et al.* (1999), 'appropriation refers to the process through which a person adopts the pedagogical tools available for use in a particular social environment' (p. 15). What I want to highlight is the role of adaptations, and modifications of feedback language (Newell and Connors, 2011) in developing the beginning teachers' learning. I argue that the extent of appropriation in this case can be facilitated by the design of the peer-mentoring program and the training of peer mentors.

Lesson plans and feedback forms

Other tools used in the peer-mentoring programme are lesson plans and feedback forms. According to Grossman *et al.* (1999), the written feedback form can be considered as a practical tool to 'guide an array of decisions' and has 'immediate utility' (p. 14). All the participants said that they used lesson plans and the distributed feedback forms to construct the feedback after the lesson. However, most of the participants agreed that the use of these tools was not really effective in facilitating their mentoring interaction. Most of them claimed that they did not have enough time to comment on the lesson plans before the lesson. For example, one of the mentors complained, 'Trang sent me her lesson plan a night before her class, so I actually did not have enough time to have a discussion with her'.

The feedback form was also felt to be less dialogical as it did not give the beginning teachers opportunities to raise their concerns. This was reflected in the following comment made by a peer mentor:

> I always wrote on the given feedback forms for submission (laugh) but I always commented on the procedures of the lesson after giving the opportunities to reflect on the lesson. I think it is fairer as both sides can share their thoughts. I think the written feedback is one-way communication only.

This finding echoes the need for modification and adaptation of appropriate tools to mediate the beginning teachers' learning more effectively. While lesson plans and feedback forms were perceived as important artefacts in the peer mentoring activity system, their value in promoting fuller communication might have been limited. From a Vygotskian view, the mediation primarily involved helping the learners to use culturally valued tools to change the environment. However, it seems that the use of these artefacts was not really effective and could have hindered peer interaction. This way of using lesson plans and feedback forms would be characterised by Engeström (2007) as *what* and *when* tools, not as *why* or *where to* tools to orient the beginning teachers' learning.

Teacher educators and program designers, therefore, should consider how tools such as lesson plans and feedback forms could be structured to have more impact on the beginning teachers' learning process. Engeström (2007) suggests that to use tools like a lesson plan in future oriented why or where to ways, the users should aim at achieving objects that go beyond the curriculum delivery. Designing the feedback form so that it is specifically geared to supporting the teachers' learning would surely enhance the beginning teachers' learning.

Collaborative community of learning as a third space for negotiating expertise

The peer mentoring created new procedures in the participants' activity system such as feedback on each other's lesson plans, mutual observation and lesson feedback, mutual engagement in teaching related activities and more social interaction. Among these activities, the most highly valued by the participants was observation and feedback. Simply changing the roles of the observed and observer in the peer-mentoring program created opportunities for the beginning teachers and their mentors to develop their reflective abilities. The quotes below illustrate how reflection and observation allowed them to challenge their thoughts about their teaching practice.

- I realised the characteristics in some classes (not my classes). They just seemed so passive in their own learning. Also, I came to the realisation that these teachers were so good at keeping their motivation and energy. I think in my own case, teaching these students in several years could wear me out (both physically and mentally).

- I observed Trang's lesson. She is very cheerful and motivating. I think it is very good for creating a friendly atmosphere in the class. I think my lesson is a little bit boring. I should smile more.
- When I teach, I am not aware of my own teaching . . . when someone observed and gave feedback on my lesson, I could learn from the strength and limitations of my teaching . . . I could improve my teaching practice, I could teach better . . .
- I have learned a lot from our peer mentor. We always teach similarly to the book. We like to conduct games as warm-up activities. However, these activities may not be appropriate. Observing her, I realise that I need to do a search on what my students need. Different class has different needs. She always reminded me of designing appropriate activities for each class.

Activities like observation and reflection were seen by participants as fundamental to develop a new collaborative community of practice for the beginning teachers and their mentors. That is, the beginning teachers' identities shifted as they participated in the third space in which they needed to negotiate their expertise to reach the common agreements with their peer mentors.

The peer mentoring activity system helped create a learning community for the beginning teachers to develop their conception of teaching. This process contributed to the identities that participants developed as teachers as they encountered different teaching styles and expertise. In other words, the peer-mentoring program created a space for team learning (Tajino and Tajino, 2000) as participants exchanged ideas and learnt from each other. From the perspective of activity theory, it also facilitated the acquisition of 'expansive learning' (Engeström, 1987). According to Engeström and Sannino (2010), 'in expansive learning, learners . . . construct a new object and concept for their collective activity, and implement this new object and concept in practice' (p. 2). The data shows that the beginning teachers developed a new knowledge about teaching while working with their peer mentors. In other words, the peer-mentoring program created the 'third space' (Zeichner, 2010) for the beginning teachers to shift their identities and influence their practice. This was accomplished through negotiation and compromise about the objects and the rules of their teaching practice.

The third space has been referred to as an interactive space where participants compromise the diverse values of their different communities (Rose, 1999; Zeichner, 2010). Ultimately, this study has demonstrated that peer mentoring activities created a third space for learning to occur when the object of the activity system became that of peer collaboration rather than individual performance. This collaborative inquiry allowed space for the beginning teachers to comfortably transform their identities as teachers. They explored their concepts of teaching while simultaneously engaging and

struggling with ideas and practices related to their learning in the mentoring relationship.

The fact that the peer-mentoring program aimed to develop collaboration and support, and was based on non-hierarchical relationships, contributed to fostering participant engagement and to creating a non-judgemental and supportive environment for the beginning teachers. Most of the beginning teachers reported that they felt comfortable working with their peer mentors. This led to the creation of a new collaborative working culture at their institution.

- I am familiar with feedback and don't have a feeling that I teach for others to comment.
- We both have sharing and don't have any feeling of senior or junior. We both learn a lot of things from each other. I see they sometimes solved the teaching problems more effectively than me. I need to reflect on my own teaching and see whether I can change something.
- After participating in the peer mentoring program I want to observe and be observed. Honestly, in the past, I did not really like it . . . now I have a different opinions. Not only do I learn from others' lessons, but also share with them about the problems I face and ask them to observe my lesson and help me out. I don't have to deal with my problems by myself.

Peer mentoring activities carried out for the purpose of teacher evaluation and judgement are often seen as potentially threatening (Cosh, 1999). Therefore, the peer mentoring process, including peer observation, should not be used as a tool for evaluating teacher performance. Rather, observation in the peer mentoring process should be merely a source of data that can feed into professional discussion and reflection on teaching improvement. Effective peer mentoring begins with an open, non-threatening and non-evaluative environment. Participants in my study were able to create a new learning community of practice in which all of the teachers became more reflective and collaborative.

Conclusion

This study illustrates the process of constructing teacher professional identity through relations between beginning teachers and their peer mentors. From a theoretical perspective, when participating in the peer-mentoring program, the beginning teachers were part of multiple systems of relations. This chapter examined a new landscape of factors contributing to beginning teacher identity development in Vietnam's traditional CHC environment. The findings of this study challenge the core tenet of CHC, which values the opinions of learned seniors who pass on their knowledge to newcomers. In contrast to this hierarchical learning approach, the participants in this study created groups for peer learning. Furthermore, findings from this study were

not aligned with findings from a number of studies (Nguyen, 2008; Pham, 2014) in Vietnam that claim that Vietnamese students are not interested in assessing their peers' work, that students do not value peer feedback and that sharing, reflection and collaboration among peers are uncommon for most EFL teachers in Vietnam due to the pervasive influence of CHC (Ha, 2003; Le, 2007a; Pham, 2001). My study shows that the creation of collaborative learning environments such as the peer-mentoring program can open up the work culture of Vietnamese teachers. The study has implications for teacher professional development practice as it points to the need to structure professional support mechanisms for facilitating teacher learning and identity, especially in the type of context that was investigated.

A number of mentoring studies (Liu, 2005; McGuire and Reger, 2003; Smagorinsky, Cook, Moore, Jackson, and Fry, 2004) report numerous cases where the mentees had to change their teaching styles to comply with the mentors. In contrast, the current study on peer mentoring shows that assimilation happened naturally as the result of mutual respect for ideas and practice that emerged from shared experience. The crucial point is that the beginning teachers and their peer mentors considered each other as critical friends, not evaluators. There was little sense of hierarchy in the peer mentoring activities. The mutual understanding of the beginning teachers and peer mentors created an effective learning environment for the beginning teachers to develop their professional identity. These findings stress the choice of selecting peer mentors in the peer-mentoring program. Peer-mentoring advocates reciprocal learning between partners, joint reflection and collaboration. The findings from this study support the position of a number of scholars (e.g. Eisen, 2001; Saltiel, 1998) that peer learning should be based on the mutuality, trust, non-evaluative feedback and non-hierarchical status of partners.

The shared language in the feedback session was a facilitator of meaningful interaction and knowledge sharing while the written feedback form was a hindrance of interaction and mutual understanding. This finding highlights the role of designing mediating artefacts to foster teacher development in the peer-mentoring program. It suggests further that two-way communication in the feedback sessions was valued and recognised as a critical factor to foster the supportive environment for the beginning teachers. This point champions the need for providing training in mentoring skills including giving feedback to those who are involved in the peer mentoring process.

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