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**INVESTIGATING TEAM TEACHING
THROUGH AN EXPLORATION OF BELIEFS
ABOUT ROLE AND EFFECTIVE TEACHING: A
CASE STUDY OF NEW ZEALAND AND THAI
PRIMARY TEACHERS**

**A thesis submitted for the Degree of Master of Arts
Second Language Teaching**

by

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ABSTRACT

This case study investigates the nature of team teaching relationships from the viewpoint of Thai and New Zealand teachers working in bilingual primary level classrooms. Team relationships were explored through investigating expectations and assumptions teachers had about effective teaching, and how these impacted on classroom roles, relationships and teaching practices.

There were six subjects who participated in the study; three Thai and three New Zealand teachers. Data was collected over a period of five months. Primary data was gathered using classroom observations, guided and informal interviews. Secondary data, gathered from a biodata questionnaire, stimulated recall using a videotaped classroom observation and informal observations, was used to confirm and expand findings from the primary sources.

The study found that team teaching is both a structural arrangement and an emergent process. The way in which teams develop is related to the relationship built by participants. A number of variables were found to influence the direction of team relationships: time, trust and professional respect, communication, personality, and beliefs about teaching and learning. Teams developed either autonomously or collaboratively depending on how participants negotiated these variables.

PREFACE

This study arose from a two-year length of stay in Thailand where I was involved in team teaching in bilingual English/Thai classes at a private primary school. It was an exciting opportunity to teach in this context and I tremendously enjoyed my time living and teaching in Thailand. I also greatly enjoyed working with Thai teachers who are hardworking and dedicated to providing quality learning opportunities for students. I was very grateful and appreciative of the support they provided me both personally and professionally in living in a country and teaching in an environment that is in some ways similar, and in many ways quite different from New Zealand experiences. The attempt to understand and explore some of these similarities and differences provided the background against which this study was written.

Team teaching takes commitment and enthusiasm on the part of teachers and the study was undertaken in order to provide a perspective on the beliefs and practices of team teachers working in cross cultural contexts. This study aimed to provide an understanding of why teachers do what they do in the team context, the nature of team relationships and how teams develop. In building on the collective past experience of teachers, it is hoped that the insights provided can be of benefit when looking to the future.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This research explores the nature of team teaching relationships in bilingual English/Thai primary classes, as teachers view them. The aim is to explore the notion that how teachers define their role in the team context is influenced by what they think, the kinds of pedagogical and experiential knowledge they hold, and their beliefs about effective language teaching.

Teacher's perception of role can be explored through beliefs about the team teaching processes, and factors that influence that process. Variance in beliefs about appropriate role may lead to a modification in team style. The study investigates how differences in belief manifest themselves in the classroom, and how the holders of differing beliefs negotiate those differences in classroom practice.

Richards and Lockhart (1994, p. 36) point out that "individual teachers bring to teaching very different beliefs and assumptions about what constitutes effective teaching". Because many of these beliefs and assumptions are embedded in the learning culture and norms of a society, both New Zealand and Thai teachers' classroom actions and interactions will reflect their particular systems of beliefs and expectations. Consequently there is the potential for misinterpretation over expectations, outcomes, feelings of achievement and teacher satisfaction, if teachers have different perceptions about their own and each other's roles.

Recent research points to the need for inclusion of teacher perspectives, in both general teaching (Cortazzi 1991) and in second language teaching (Richards 1996, Bailey and Nunan 1995, Golombek 1998). This research subscribes to the view that descriptive and/or experimental accounts of events in language classrooms are important but inadequate; they need to be balanced with the viewpoints and insights of teachers themselves.

Team teaching appears to be a recent development in English language teaching in Thailand (Nakamura 1998). The team approach, placing a Thai and a foreign teacher in the same classroom, can have benefits in terms of creativity, peer support and professional development. However, team teaching is not easy, and stress and problems may occur when teachers are placed in classrooms, with no support or guidelines concerning expectations, practices or role (Thomas 1992).

1.1 EDUCATION IN THAILAND

English is taught as a foreign language and is a compulsory subject in Thai state schools for all students from Grade 1 primary to the end of secondary school. There is an emphasis at primary and secondary schools on the grammatical study of English, for a number of reasons. The dominance of an examination system as the primary means of selecting placement at prestigious universities, means the emphasis on learning English at secondary schools, tends to be on knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, rather than speaking and communication skills.

There are a number of other issues impacting on English language teaching in state schools. Classrooms can be large, often with over 40 students, and sometimes up to 60. This, coupled with limited or

inadequate resources, heavy teaching loads and insufficient language skills and knowledge of native speaker culture on the part of teachers, has tended to promote continued teacher fronted styles in the face of government calls for change to a student centred approach.

Education in Thailand is currently going through a period of curriculum innovation and general reform. The edition of the primary school curriculum currently used by the school in which the study occurs, emphasises processes of learning as a goal. The introduction includes the following aim:

developing knowledge, ability, attitude and skills that enable students to acquire analytical and problem-solving skills, to appreciate learning and to apply knowledge to everyday life.

The 1990 Revised Edition of the 1978 Primary School Curriculum

The 2001 Basic Education Curriculum (to be implemented in all schools by 2006) aims to develop life long learners who are able to react to both economic and social change, in Thailand and internationally. A feature of the 2001 Curriculum is the promotion of individual and group skills using child centred learning. There is however, some resistance at parental, classroom and administration levels to the notion of child-centred learning. Bunnag (2002) in analysing education reform in Thailand notes that one of the major problems has been teachers' uncertainty of what child centred learning is. He suggests that:

a major problem has been teachers' ignorance of the new curriculum and their use of the child centred teaching method to teach less and order the pupils to research subjects themselves.

Bunnag (2002, p. 13)

He goes on to note:

(teachers) failure to grasp the essence of child-centred learning and their tendency to demand more activities and reports of their pupils has caused huge problems for many children.

Bunnag (2002, p. 13)

As well as perceived need for change at the government level, there is also a need felt by some parents, businessmen and educators to encourage the learning of English as a means of communication rather than grammar. This is reflected in Wiriyachitra's (2002, p. 4) comment that the skills most focused on in the Thai tertiary system are reading and writing and these skills are not the ones mostly required in the workplace, for example, in tourism, technology and science.

In describing features of curriculum change in Thailand, Wiriyachitra (2002, p. 6) notes elements to be incorporated in English Language teaching and learning, in the new curriculum:

...e.g. focus on learners and for communication. Communicative Approach is still used but with more focus on listening and speaking. Integrated, co-operative, holistic learning, content, task-based and problem-based learning are also applied.

However teachers working in a climate of change and uncertainty may be unsure as to the nature of these concepts and how they translate into practice.

Given the perceived need to change the emphasis in language instruction there is a growing demand for English instructors. Because this demand exceeds the number of local qualified staff, there is a trend in private schools towards recruiting native speaking instructors.

Allied to this trend is the perception that native English speakers will bring with them, what is seen as desirable western methods of instruction e.g. interactive teaching and student centred programmes. However, foreign teachers bringing alternative methods of instruction also bring a set of assumptions and beliefs related to methodology, practice and cultural norms that may be widely different from those held by Thai teachers. Importing foreign methodologies brings its own set of problems (for example see Burnaby & Sun 1989, Ellis 1996, Alptekin & Alptekin 1984), and these difficulties may not always be resolved satisfactorily. As Lewis (1995) points out, what has been written in Britain, the USA Canada and Australasia about language teaching methodology may not be what is practised elsewhere. Lewis claims the answer lies in the influence of the context beyond the classroom, that is, in the influence of political, economic, cultural and social factors of a society.

1.2 THE RESEARCH SETTING

The institution in which this study was carried out is a private bilingual school, situated in the north-east of Thailand. It was established by a group of local businessmen and educators, some of who have lived

overseas, and who recognise the need for an alternative to education provided by the state system. The school was established in 1997, with support from the Thai Ministry of Education in order to address some of the issues outlined in section 1.1.

1.2.1 THE INSTITUTION

The school caters primarily for Thai students from kindergarten through to and including secondary. This study is concerned with staff teaching in the primary area of the school. In each classroom there is a teaching team made up of one Thai and one foreign teacher. The current school policy is to recruit foreign staff from New Zealand, and for the 2001-2002 school year all foreign personnel are New Zealand trained and registered primary teachers. The number of students in each class is limited to 25, and as the school develops, the classes have not yet reached this limit.

Foreign staff are responsible for planning, teaching and assessing the curriculum areas of Math, Computers, English and Theme Studies, including Science, Social Studies and Health, with English as the medium of instruction, and with the assistance of Thai teachers. There is a strong emphasis on the development of English, which is integrated through all curriculum subjects. With 12 foreign teaching staff out of a total of 26, the school has to a certain extent been able to develop and promote an English environment in regard to language use outside the classroom context.

Education programmes are based on the Thai Ministry of Education Curriculum (1990), using what are perceived as international methods of teaching. These would include student centred teaching and learning

methods, problem solving, creative thinking, and holistic learning. However sometimes in cross-cultural contexts there can be a difference between what a concept, idea or method, is called and what it means in Western contexts. Lamb (1995) points out that some Western methods are adapted and labelled, but they do not necessarily correspond with practices or ideas put forward by Western practitioners. (Bunnag's article, section 1.2, about child centred learning illustrates this point).

The school is promoted as a bilingual school, with a focus on 'developing students abilities so they can compete in the international arena'. In Thai eyes, *bilingual schools* tend to be interpreted as *international schools*, and these two terms are used interchangeably. This interpretation appears to be, in part, made on the basis of having a number of foreigners working at the school. However the school itself is not an international school in the official sense that is used in western practice. *Bilingual* is used by the administration to indicate the instruction of programmes uses two languages, but it does not necessarily mean the administrators totally accept overseas models of bilingual education.

1.2.2 THE SCHOOL ETHOS

The school has developed some specific aims and an ethos that is in direct contrast to many observed practices in Thai state schools. It promotes itself as an institution catering for students wishing to develop English communication skills for the purpose of career advancement in technology, arts and sciences. Promotional activities target those who have a desire to eventually continue study overseas at the secondary or tertiary level. Internationalism is an ideal the school strives for in its approach to education programmes. Students tend to be homogenous in

their socio-economic background and in attitudes regarding the relative importance of learning English.

There is a strong experiential focus in learning and teaching with the aim being on learning through activity based, hands on experiences and games. Emphasis is given to the affective component of learning especially in regard to the relaxed enjoyment-oriented atmosphere, and that learning first and foremost should be fun. Given the emphasis on affective factors, friendship and sociability plays an important part within the learning culture of the school and this impacts on both students and teachers.

1.2.3 THE NEW ZEALAND CONNECTION

New Zealand teachers are well thought of by the Board of Directors of the school, and the policy for recruitment of foreign personnel has been to advertise in New Zealand. The connection to New Zealand has arisen from the Chairman of the Board's prior work as Director of the Mekong Institute, an organisation sponsored by the New Zealand government. The Mekong Institute is based in North East Thailand and aims to develop training programmes in a variety of fields including education, in countries in South East Asia. Consequently when the school was founded, there was already an existing connection to New Zealand. Currently the aim is to continue to recruit staff from New Zealand as it is felt that a shared background amongst foreign staff in regard to educational training and teaching experience will help provide a common thread in continuity of programmes, teaching practices, and ongoing support for new staff.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter explores a number of key themes associated with team teaching, beliefs and role. Background to team teaching is provided through a number of arrangements designed to illustrate team teaching in various contexts. The applicability of these to the context of the study is assessed. Teams in Thailand are also explored and features specific to the Thai education context are summarised. Strengths of team teaching are noted and factors promoting successful partnerships are outlined.

The literature on teachers' beliefs indicates there are a number of elements influencing the beliefs teachers have, and consequently the roles they take. Beliefs provide the framework that guides action. Consequently teachers' beliefs have a vital impact on classroom and team practice. The notion of role is explored through role expectations, conflict, ambiguity and negotiation. While these areas were explored as separate themes, beliefs, role and the processes of team work are inter-related concepts.

2.1 TEAM TEACHING

There is both a range of definitions and a range of associated terms and allied concepts in the literature about team teaching. Team teaching has been called peer tutoring, peer coaching, team work, co-operative planning, support teaching, collaborative teaching, interactive team teaching, mentoring, and apprenticeship models. Differences in the use of these various terms reflect the focus of the writer, the context, and the institution in which the team is operating. The common thread amongst

all of these is the notion of shared or joint responsibility in a set area for a group of learners and the idea of co-operation between two or more people to achieve a stated aim or aims.

Researchers (e.g. Shannon and Meath-Lang 1992, p. 130) found their participants had quite strong views on what constitutes team teaching, and debate on this tends to be concerned with what, if any, specific instructional techniques are used in the teaching process, and the nature of interaction between teachers.

2.1.1 BACKGROUND

Team teaching as a movement was begun as a co-ordinated programme of instruction, for example The Trump Plan in America and The Warwick Model used in the United Kingdom (details of these can be found in Geen 1985, pp. 30-31). These methods generally involved teams of teachers taking between two to four classes for lead lessons in large groups, on a rota system, and follow-up activities with one teacher. Freeman's (1969, in Geen 1985, p.31) survey of team teaching schemes found the majority to be of this nature. It is evident from Geen's study that what team teaching began as in the 1960's and early 1970's, is not what it has ended up as, in that 'team teaching' is used to describe a range of practices other than those outlined by Freeman, Warwick and Trump.

Since the 1970's there has been a steady decline in both the number of people on teams and the amount of team teaching actually carried out in mainstream classrooms, in general education (Thomas 1992, Geen 1985). Researchers (Thomas 1992, Hatton 1985, Geen 1985) have suggested the decline in team teaching in general education, as a method of organising

instruction, was due to a number of factors: mainly, the amount of co-ordination and communication needed for planning, the reluctance of some teachers to teach before others, the preferred autonomy of teachers in the classroom, and differences in ideology and personality between team members.

Thomas (1992) also notes the emergence of what he calls *new teams*. These teams may be classroom teachers, but also include support staff, such as itinerant teachers, parents, and teacher aides working in partnership with the classroom teacher. The emergence of these teams has been in response to legislation allowing students with special needs to be educated in mainstream classrooms, and the parents as first teachers movement, rather than ideological beliefs of teachers regarding methods of organising instruction.

In EFL contexts, especially in South East Asian countries, studies such as Sturman (1992) and Miyazaki (1994) reflect the increase in the use of team teaching as a method of providing students with access to native speaker English and greater opportunity for communication. This tends to reflect the changing emphasis in Asian countries on the need for English as a means of communication rather than on English structure per se.

2.1.2 TEAMS IN THAILAND

In English language classes in Thai state schools, team teaching is not a common practice, although it exists within some private institutions or government sponsored seminar classes for teachers. There has been some commentary on team work in other fields such as business and

management, and a number of issues raised in these commentaries have relevance to this study.

Niratpattanasai (2001), writing about team work in business management areas suggests participation, commitment and communication are areas of concern and in need of further investigation in the team context. He notes that Thailand has a hierarchical system where seniority and age are *per se* worthy of respect.

Even in school we had to listen silently to the teacher and do as he or she said. This has tended to make us more passive in a meeting or learning environment. Furthermore, many organisations are run by executives senior in age and used to giving commands. So, in a team environment, participation with Thais is not easy.

(Niratpattanasai 2001, p.1)

He goes on to suggest commitment stems from involvement, which in turn comes from participation. He views the issue as a need to create a participatory environment. Allied to this is the nature of communication, which he acknowledges can cause difficulty between Thai and non-Thai speakers. Thais like a harmonious environment and dislike conflict, which is seen as negative by definition. When conflict arises Thais will tend to avoid it.

We think 'straight talking from the hip' is not really appropriate as a means of communication. So what we do is talk in a roundabout, vague way to avoid confrontation. Let the listener interpret or use his own judgement.

(Niratpattanasai 2001, p. 2)

This reflects an intuitive, indirect style of communication, characteristic of Thai culture which emphasises high-context communication, where the content of the message is not necessarily conveyed in words but also through the context and the participants (Samovar & Porter 2001). Johnson, Kawamura & Sower (2000) and Clancy (1986) have noted that maintaining friendly social relationships and preserving group harmony is preferable to giving any response that may be interpreted in a negative way. Johnson et al (2000) and Clancy (1986) discuss this aspect of communication in terms of a response reflecting either an individuals genuine thoughts or intentions, or the diplomatic social principle accepted by the group in order to get along. In reluctance to overtly disagree with others opinions or to refuse a request, Thais will often give a diplomatic response rather than their true opinion. This appears to be one aspect of *face*, (or *saving face*) an element that is crucial in the context of Thai social relationships. One result of this is that members of cultures used to a more direct style of communication find it very difficult to assess when 'yes' really does mean yes. When listeners have to interpret or use their own judgement they do so on the basis of their own social and cultural norms of experience and beliefs. As Niratpattanasai (2001, p. 2) concludes "Many times the message is not specific enough, hence communication sometimes breaks down".

2.1.3 TYPES OF TEAMS

The nature of teams can vary depending on factors such as administration, institution and setting, curriculum objectives, students' needs, teachers' ideas and abilities, teaching experience and the relationship of those involved in the team. Depending on the above factors, teams will favour one model of team teaching over another.

Types or models of team teaching have been identified by Cunningham (1960, cited in Bailey, Dale & Squire 1992), Shimaoka and Yashiro (1990), and Leonard (1994, in Ogino 1997, p. 55) amongst others.

Most models of team teaching can be viewed as falling into two categories: whether they are viewed as an administrative management scheme with little impact on instructional processes, or whether they are defined by the nature of the interactional process between team teaching partners.

Figure 1. Cunningham's classification of team teaching

Type	Characteristics
Team Leader	One team member has a higher status than others. He or she may have a special title such as 'Team Leader' or 'Chief Instructor'.
Associate	In this type there is no designated leader. Leadership emerges as a result of interaction among the members of the team. Decision making power may be shared equally.
Master Teacher / Beginning Teacher	Team teaching in this arrangement, is used to foster the acculturation of new teachers into the school or profession. The beginning teacher may have much less decision making power than the more experienced teacher.
Co-ordinated Team	There is no joint responsibility for a common group of learners, but there is joint planning by two or more teachers who are teaching the same curriculum to separate groups of learners.

Cunningham's model (see Figure 1) has been used to illustrate the nature of team teaching in various language teaching contexts (e.g. Bailey, Dale & Squire 1992, Ogino 1997). This system of classification centres around a number of organisational methods found in team teaching

arrangements. It is based on the degree to which power and responsibility is shared amongst team members or localised in one person.

Variations of these team types can be found in different language contexts, and will depend on the structure of the administration of the institution, the purpose for which team teaching is undertaken, and the inter-social and cultural context. For example the Team Leader arrangement may best describe the arrangements in New Zealand primary schools where parent helpers provide assistance in classrooms, while the Co-ordinated Team seems to be an arrangement that is preferred by university departments as summarised in Buckley (2000). The Co-ordinated Team also describes how some Junior, Middle and Senior syndicates in New Zealand primary schools operate.

The Master / Beginning Teacher and Team Leader types appear to reflect administrative preferences for allocating responsibility, contrasted with the Associate type that is more dependent on how local factors influence individuals in the team. Bailey, Dale and Squire (1992) found the nature of Cunningham's taxonomy to be somewhat rigid in defining team types. They claim that in practice there is more fluidity and dynamics in the collaboration process than this model presents.

Shimaoka and Yashiro's (1990, in Ogino 1997) classification of team relationships is more specific to second language teaching (see Figure 2). They consider the relationship between teachers in a team to be one of the major factors influencing classroom activities, and their categories of types of team teaching are a reflection of this. While the categories within the model were developed to describe ESL teaching in Japan, the model

can be seen to be highly relevant to team teaching ESL situations in other countries.

In this classification, roles within each type may be more flexible than those defined by Cunningham. Over the course of a semester, a unit of work, or even one lesson, the type of team teaching that is carried out may reflect a combination of these types.

Figure 2. Shimaoka and Yashiro's classification of team teaching

Type	Characteristics
Native English teacher or Assistant Teacher of English takes the lead role	Native English teacher or Assistant Teacher takes the lead role, the Japanese teacher of English takes the secondary role
Japanese teacher of English takes the lead role	Japanese teacher of English takes the lead role, the Native English teacher or assistant Teacher takes the secondary role
Distinct roles for each	Each has his or her own distinct role
Equal roles	Each teach together on completely equal terms

Ogino (1997, p. 55) cites Brogan (1994) in claiming that the relationship in which teachers share equal roles is difficult to achieve, due to a perceived need for both team members to perform equally and be equally capable in all areas of language teaching, including proficiency level. While it is true that equal roles for each is difficult to achieve, definitions of equality need to be clear. This type of team teaching arrangement could be interpreted as having equal responsibility for planning, conducting and evaluating lessons, or equal power and decision making in the team, or both.

Leonard's (1994, cited in Ogino 1997, p. 55) taxonomy of team teaching styles, is based on the JTE/AET (Japanese Teacher of English/Assistant English Teacher) English language assistance programme operating in Japan and includes co-operative teaching, in addition to the lead and secondary role type of team teaching mentioned by Shimaoka and Yashiro (see Figure 3).

His Co-operative team type shares the characteristics of Shimaoka and Yashiro's Equal Roles Team, and he suggests that this type is the best configuration for successful team teaching. In this arrangement both teachers share the classroom, teaching responsibilities and workload, and teachers constantly interact with each other and with the students in English. This type of team teaching has also been *called interactive teaming or collaborative teaming* in the literature.

Figure 3. Leonard's' Taxonomy of Types of Teams

Type	Characteristics
JTE (Japanese Teacher of English) centred	The non-native speaker of English takes the lead role
AET (Assistant English Teacher) centred	The native English speaker takes the lead role
Co-operative Teams	Both share the classroom and teaching responsibilities and workload

Leonard takes a negative view of leader centred types maintaining they are the result of lack of joint pre-class planning. However, it must be noted there is no one 'best' way to team teach, or only one 'right' way to team teach. Other factors such as personalities of team members, the values and philosophies held, beliefs about effective teaching, and

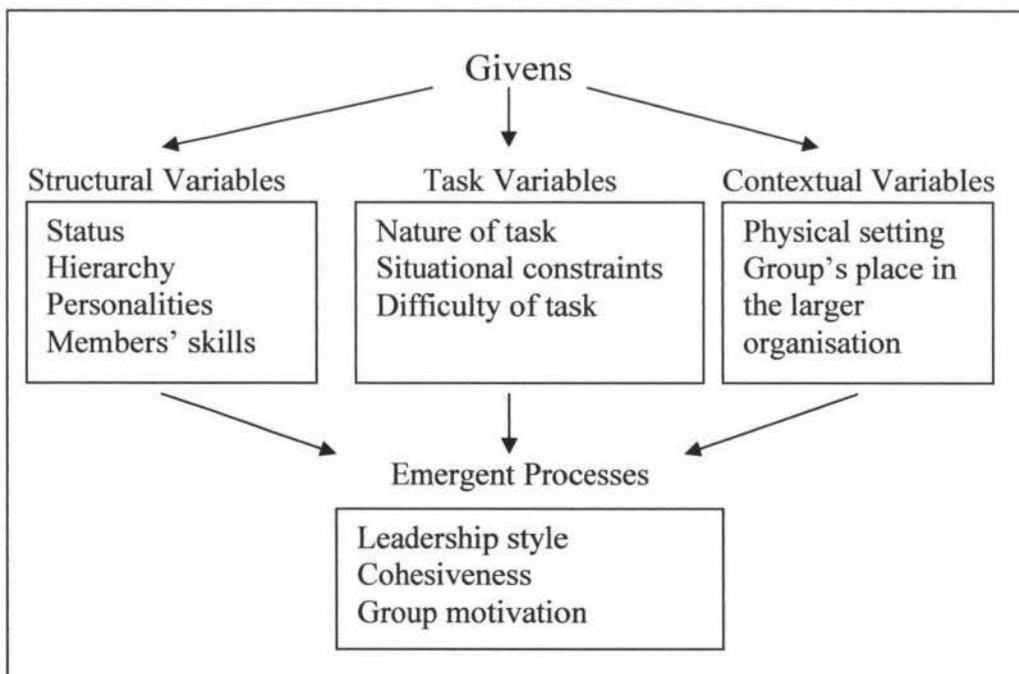
differences in culture, play an important role in defining the team teaching relationship. Team members favour different types for a variety of reasons.

2.1.4 GROUP DYNAMICS

There is a large body of literature documenting research into teams in different environments that can be applied to teamwork in both general education and in second language classrooms. A recurring number of themes predominate in this research: leadership, role, the nature of the task, personality and communication. These themes are also emerging as key factors in teams working in second language classrooms.

Thomas (1992, p. 10) provides a useful framework for analysing groups based on a model developed originally by Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey (1962, in Thomas 1992).

Figure 4. A framework for analysing groups

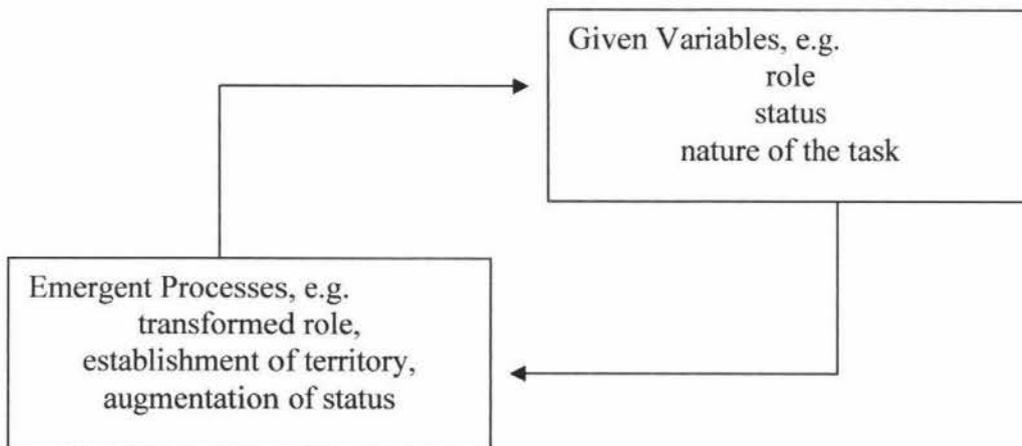


From Krech, Crutchfield & Ballachey 1962

Krech, Crutchfield and Ballacheys' Model (see Figure 4) suggests that a group of situational features exist when a team is established which they call 'given' variables. These independent variables are subdivided into structural, task and contextual variables.

The effectiveness of a group is not solely determined by these, but also by the 'emergent processes' that are dependent on the interrelationship of these 'givens'. These emergent processes will involve variation in role, motivation and cohesiveness to determine the team's effectiveness and methods of operation. Thomas (1992, p. 12) uses his model (see Figure 5) to show how team behaviour develops.

Figure 5. Thomas' framework derived from the Krech Model



Thomas (1992, p. 11)

2.1.5 STRENGTHS OF TEAM TEACHING

Armstrong (1977, p. 66) notes a number of strengths of team teaching aimed at general education, but also applicable to ESL environments.

- Teachers are able to take advantage of individual strengths in planning for instruction and working with students.
- Team teaching promotes creativity because teachers know they must teach for their partner as well as for the students.
- It can provide better sequencing and pacing of instruction, since a team member must verify teacher perceptions.
- It facilitates individualised instruction because it is able to provide environments involving close personal contact between teachers and students.
- Builds programme continuity over time.

These strengths have also been noted by others. In the language context in Japan, the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (cited in Ogino 1997, p. 47) suggest the following five merits of team teaching in EFL classes.

- Motivation for communication
- Cross-cultural understanding
- Student participation
- Materials development
- On the job training

Underlying all these strengths is the assumption that team teaching results in better learner achievement. However Armstrong found no research to support team teaching as a facilitator of academic achievement and suggests that support for team teaching has been validated through affirmation rather than through empirical evidence. He goes on to note that studies in this area may have been conducted before teachers have become operationally comfortable with the innovation. Other researchers (Hall and Rutherford 1975, Kennamer and Hall 1975, cited in Armstrong 1977, p. 80) report a minimum of three years may be needed. While three years may not be needed by many teachers to become accustomed to the

practice of team teaching, the studies on which Armstrong based his findings were typically of no more than one year. As Armstrong suggests, this is probably too short a time in which to become familiar with team partners, administrative management and instructional practices.

Ability to take advantage of purported strengths will be apparent in a team teaching situation, to a greater or lesser degree, depending on how inter-relationships develop amongst members of a team. Shannon and Meath-Lang (1992, p. 131) note the importance of the ability to develop trust, mutual respect and the ability to “recognise each others’ gifts, skills and expertise without feeling denigrated or less skilful”. Sturman (1992, p. 146) also mentions these factors as well as the ability to compromise and the confidence to discuss their own feelings honestly and openly. However it should be noted that the cultural context is crucial and the ability to compromise, and open discussion of feelings may not necessarily be key factors in the Thai context. More appropriate may be the ability to focus on positive rather than negative experiences or feelings, and to avoid expressing dissatisfaction in an open or direct manner.

2.1.6 FACTORS PROMOTING SUCCESSFUL PARTNERSHIPS

There are a recurring number of factors evident from the literature influencing the degree of success teams experience. Successful partnerships mean different things to different people, and how success is defined depends on the aims and purposes of team participants, and the extent to which individual’s aims and goals are realised. Success may be defined in terms of developing friendships, enjoyment of the process of

teaching together as a team, professional development, or a combination of these. Nunan (1992, p. 1) suggests that:

In language education, teachers, learners, researchers and curriculum specialists can collaborate for a number of reasons. They may wish to experiment with alternative ways of organising teaching and learning; they may be concerned with promoting a philosophy of co-operation rather than competition; they may wish to create an environment in which learners, teachers and researchers are teaching and learning from each other in an equitable way ... or they may wish to experiment with way of incorporating principles of learner-centredness into their programmes.

In the second language context, compatible personalities and shared philosophy were consistently found to be key factors regulating the degree of success in team teaching (Sturman 1992, Shannon & Meath-Lang 1992, Buckley 2000). Sturman (1992), Ogino (1997), and Miller (1995) found the availability of time for planning and organisation to be related to successful team teaching. Mutual professional respect between partners was also found to be a key factor (Sturman 1992, Ogino 1997).

2.2 BELIEFS

In attempting to define strategies and techniques of effective teachers, there is a body of research (e.g. Erikson 1984, Brophy and Good 1986, Bennett 1987) that has attempted to identify 'good' teachers by focusing on the characteristics that such teachers possessed, (e.g. approachability, enthusiasm, and fairness), or that has described desirable behaviours of teachers in the classroom (e.g. Merrett and Wheldall 1990). These studies have had limited influence on teaching practices because there is little that teachers could effectively use to improve their practice from this

body of research. Qualities such as *fairness*, and *approachability* are open to a variety of interpretations by individuals, depending on context, teachers' own experiential knowledge and personal beliefs. Sturman (1992, p. 147) also points out that:

There may be universal qualities to a 'good' teacher, but teachers working in different institutions, with different types of students and different pedagogical assumptions may find that the definition of a 'good' teacher varies with the institution's philosophy and aims.

Breen (1991, p. 213) comments "the mere description of effective teaching is partial. We need to explain good teaching – to uncover the reasons that motivate and sustain it".

An alternative view proposed by researchers (Elbaz 1983, Louden 1991, McDonald 1992, Olsen 1992, Connelly and Clandinin 1988, in Ulichny, 1996) moves beyond description of desirable behaviours to one that examines the perceptions on which teacher actions or behaviour is based. This view proposes a focus on teachers' beliefs and suggests teaching is a complex system that is contextually determined and personally constructed. In this perspective teaching is seen as mediation between planned activities and addressing factors arising from the context. How teaching practice is constructed in this framework depends on teachers' past learning and teaching experiences, personality, and beliefs about teaching and learning gained from both teacher training and personal experience (Ulichny 1996).

Agne, Greenwood and Miller (1994 p141) suggest that the emphasis on higher quality thinking skills and equal-quality education for all students

has led to a new set of criteria for judging teacher effectiveness. Teacher effectiveness was traditionally assessed in terms of ability of teachers to “produce higher than predicted gains on standardised achievement tests” (Good 1979, p. 53). The current research into teacher beliefs is allied to changes in how effective teaching is perceived and to the aims of teacher education programmes in helping teachers realise effective teaching in practice.

2.2.1 THE NATURE OF BELIEFS

There is a body of research (see Pajares 1992, for a comprehensive review of the literature on teachers’ beliefs) that has investigated beliefs and belief systems of teachers themselves. This area of research focuses on an inner search of beliefs, rather than a search for outward characteristic of effective teachers, and suggests that teachers’ beliefs about what learning and teaching is, and their ways of thinking have a vital impact on their practice.

Richards and Lockhart (1994, p. 30) suggest there is both an objective and subjective dimension to beliefs and that some beliefs are relatively simple, for example whether one believes errors should be corrected immediately, while other beliefs are more complex, such as beliefs over the benefits of collaborative group learning versus competitiveness.

Researchers (e.g. Deaux and Wrightsman 1988) have also investigated belief systems such as attribution theory and locus of control. Findings from these studies in the education context suggest that there is a tendency in western culture to attribute causes to personal or dispositional factors. Thomas (1992, p. 117) suggests that people who attribute causes

to situational factors (e.g. the nature of the task, school policy) are more likely to seek team solutions, whereas those attributing events to dispositional factors will look for autonomy solutions. How teachers make attributions and their locus of control about a situation will influence their motivation to make changes. These aspects of beliefs and actions may be particularly important in the team teaching context.

There are some consistent findings in the research on teachers' beliefs. Beliefs have been found to be culturally bound (Pajares 1992, Williams & Burden 1997), formed early in life (Richards and Lockhart 1994), and resistant to change (Pajares 1992). The earlier a belief is formed, the harder it is to alter, while more recently acquired beliefs are more readily open to change (Lewis 1990, Munby 1982, Nespor 1987, Clark 1988). Lortie (1975, cited in Richards and Lockhart 1994) mentions the notion of 'apprenticeship of observation' in respect to this resistance to changing beliefs, which Kennedy (1990, p. 4) describes in the following terms:

By the time we receive our bachelor's degree, we have observed teachers and participated in their work for up to 3,060 days. In contrast, the teacher preparation programs (at the master's level) usually require (about) 75 days of classroom experience. What could possibly happen during these 75 days to significantly alter the practices learned during the preceding 3,060 days?

Freeman (1992, p. 4) claims "the memories of instruction gained through their 'apprenticeship of observation' function as de facto guides for teachers as they approach what they do in the classroom". Given the notion that early beliefs are difficult to alter, it follows that beliefs about teaching and education are well established by the time students enrol at university. Although beliefs are difficult to modify or change, they may

be altered over time, through experiences involving new knowledge, teaching and reflection (Cabello and Burstein 1995).

Researchers have found beliefs are derived from a number of sources: previous experience as learners (Pennington 1990, Barnes 1989, Holt-Reynolds 1992, Johnston 1994) and practical experience of what works best in the classroom (Brousseau, Book & Byers 1988, Shulman 1986, Calderhead & Miller 1985, cited in Almarza 1996).

Freeman (1989) stresses that teacher change is subject to the attitudes and awareness of individual teachers towards their teaching context. As a consequence attempts to influence teachers' behaviour will have an impact only in areas where input is valued, relevant, and where it is allied to teachers existing beliefs (Pennington 1996). This was found to be the case in Lamb's (1995) research, where new ideas presented by tutors at an in-service course did not have the intended effects, mainly due to the mediating effects of participants' existing beliefs about learning and teaching.

Williams and Burden (1997, p. 57) note that when teachers behave automatically or respond to a situation from habit or without thought about the action, those actions are prompted by deeply rooted beliefs that may never have been made explicit or articulated. Because beliefs are not directly observable they are difficult to define, measure and evaluate. Consequently they need to be inferred from how people behave. However people's stated beliefs and their actions are not necessarily consistent (Agyris and Schon 1974).

Pajares' (1992) review of the literature on teachers' beliefs concluded that beliefs had a greater impact than knowledge on how planning, decision making and general practice was carried out, and were better predictors of teacher behaviour in the classroom.

2.2.2 BELIEFS AND CULTURAL/SOCIAL NORMS

Our beliefs as teachers are constructed as personal representations of the world. These draw on traditional images and episodes of what we experienced as students within our own cultural and social context. Culture shapes how individuals perceive, relate to, and interpret their environment. It is collectively created by a group of people and shapes their patterns of interaction, communication, socialisation and education (Collier 1988, in Cabello and Burstein 1995). Our personal theories change as they are either affirmed or challenged by others. Roberts (1998, p. 308) claims it is for this reason that beliefs are oriented by social norms. Thus the social norms operating within the school culture structure the role expectations and norms of interaction between teachers, teachers and students, and teachers and non-teaching personnel.

2.2.3 THE SCHOOL CONTEXT AS A MEDIATOR OF BELIEFS

Context plays an important part in mediating teacher beliefs. Research into teacher socialisation has examined how individual teachers are shaped by the institutions in which they work (Levine 1990, Ross 1987, Crow 1986, Etheridge 1988, cited in Freeman 1996). Beliefs are affected depending on the congruence between school culture and teachers' own values. Roberts (1998) illustrates this interaction between personal theory and school culture at three interdependent levels. Teachers interact with students who either affirm certain strategies or veto others,

implicitly confirming or denying certain values. Duff and Uchida's (1997) study found that teachers were the ones who had to 'give' in this process of interaction. At the institutional level, beliefs are affected through the enactment of social norms i.e. implicit rules of teacher behaviour and social influences. Contexts outside the school itself, such as the impact of material resources (e.g. Uvin 1996, in Tudor 2001) can also have an impact in mediating beliefs. Roberts also notes the response taken by teachers who have different expectations/beliefs from those held by the school ethos. Where there is a mismatch between the institution's policy and teachers' beliefs, teachers may covertly maintain beliefs with an overt playing-along with the school system, or fit in with the school system and rethink their own values, or persist in their own practice.

2.2.4 BELIEFS AND LEARNING

Good teaching must ultimately be concerned with beliefs about what learning is, how it is done, and what it is for, in order to know what learning outcomes students are to achieve. What learning is conceived to be, how best to teach it, and how learners are construed, are elements in defining teacher role. Gow and Kember's 1993 review of the literature suggest that most learning conceptions can be categorised under the following headings:

- A quantitative increase in knowledge
- Memorisation
- The acquisition of facts, procedures etc. which can be retained and/or used in practice
- The abstraction of meaning
- An interpretative process aimed at understanding of reality
- Some form of personal change

These include both reproductive and meaning based elements. Purdie's (1995) comparative study of Japanese and Australian secondary students' conceptions of language learning, were found to comprise the following elements, and include an affective dimension not made explicit in Gow and Kembers' taxonomy.

- Increasing knowledge
- Memorising and reproducing
- Using knowledge
- Seeing something in a different way
- Personal fulfilment
- A duty
- A process not bound by time or context
- Developing social competence

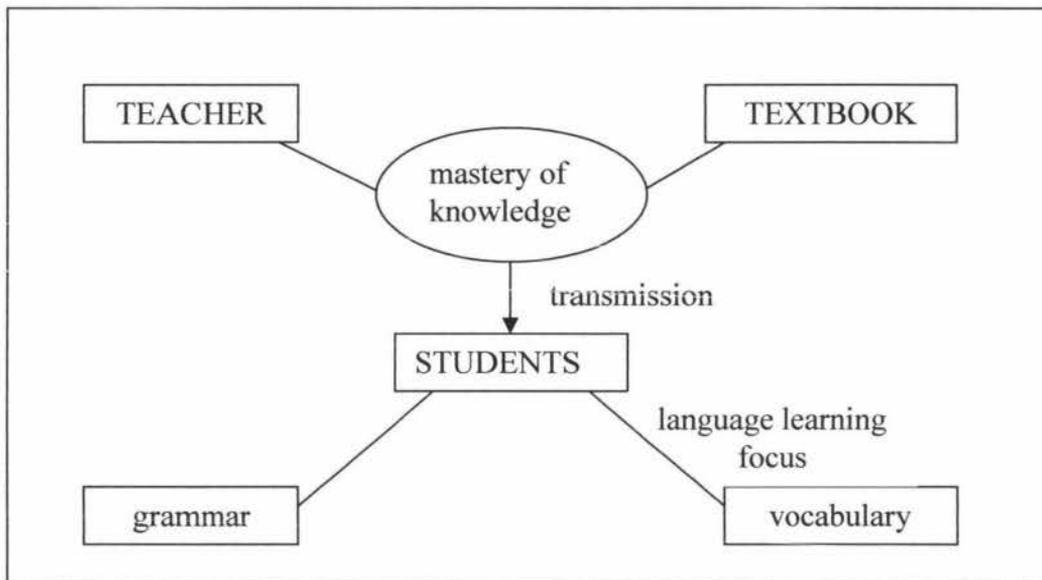
Australian students focused (in order of frequency) on memorising and reproducing, understanding, increasing knowledge, and using knowledge. Japanese students' conception of learning focused on increasing knowledge, personal fulfilment and using knowledge. That Australian students had a higher frequency of surface preferences to learning than their Japanese counterparts is interesting, in the light of Western stereotypical beliefs about Asian learners as rote memorisers.

Purdie also found Japanese students' conception of learning to include an affective element that was not apparent in Australian perceptions. She claims this may reflect the "Japanese emphasis of social competence as the most important identifier of intelligence" (Purdie 1995, p. 2).

Jin and Cortazzi (1998) discuss concepts about learning from a cultural perspective, that is, learning involves culturally specific ways of defining appropriate content, participating in the learning situation, and use of

methods and approaches. They present a transmission model (see Figure 6) of a Chinese culture of learning that is “fundamentally concerned with mastery of knowledge (including knowledge of skills) which is focused on achieving knowledge of grammar and vocabulary mainly from two sources, the teacher and the textbook” (1998, p. 102).

Figure 6. A Chinese cultural model of learning English



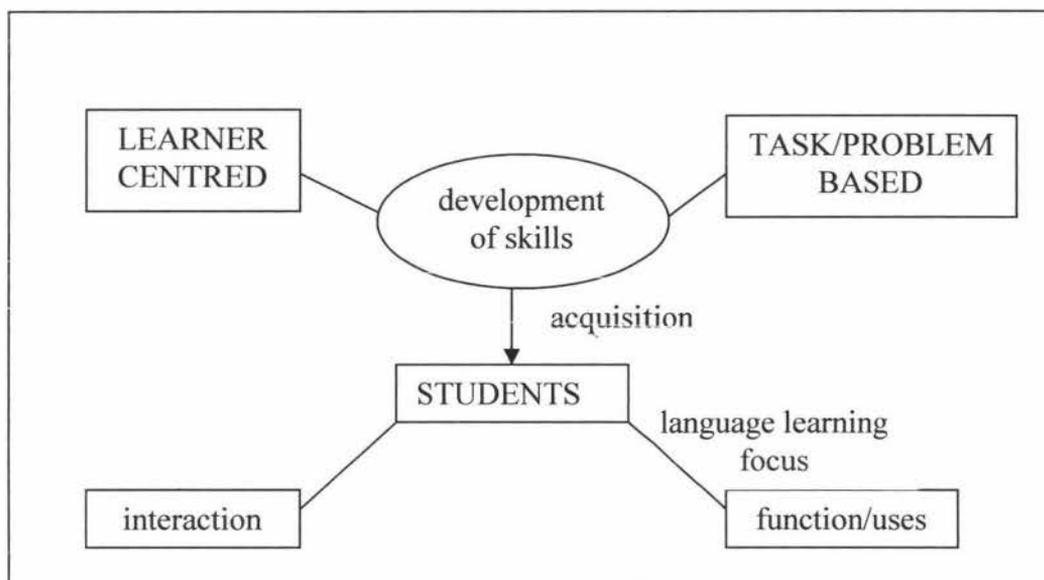
From Jin & Cortazzi (1998, p. 102)

This contrasts with a western culture of learning language, which has as its main focus the development of skills for communication. In the Western view (see Figure 7) attention is paid to learning contexts and student needs. Classroom environments are characterised by learner centred notions and problem solving approaches. There is a strong focus on classroom interaction and active student participation as ways of developing skills related to functions and uses of language.

Hird (1996, p. 30) suggests the most that can be said about cultural predispositions in learning, is that ‘dominant tendencies’, and

‘permissible generalisations’ can be discerned in discussing educational practices in countries and cultures. These cultural representations of language learning need to be viewed in the light of dominant tendencies rather than a culture’s complete compliance with one or other of the models.

Figure 7. A Western cultural model of foreign language learning



From Jin & Cortazzi (1998, p. 103)

Cortazzi (1990, cited in Hird 1996, p. 29)) argues that “most cross-cultural differences turn out to be differences in context and/or frequency of occurrence” rather than reflections of the complete absence or presence of phenomena within cultures. Therefore there is a need to look at individual as well as cultural practices in discussing concepts about learning, as individuals experience learning in different ways. These cultural models of learning language can best be viewed as endpoints on a continuum, with the degree of emphasis on each element falling either at the ends or somewhere in between.

2.2.5 TEACHING AND LEARNING STYLES

There appears to be a complex set of inter-related factors, for example, beliefs about teaching, beliefs about learners, role, context, and culture that influence the approaches taken to teaching and learning.

Strategies used to regulate learning have been found to vary between cultures (Purdie 1995, Tinkham 1989, Rees-Miller, 1993, Politzer & McGroarty 1985). Much has been written about the preferred learning and teaching styles of Asian students and teachers, particularly in regard to Asian students as rote memorisers and their teachers as dispensers of information. Ballard and Clanchy (1991, p. 23) argue that

it remains true that the reproductive approach to learning, favouring strategies of memorisation and rote learning and positively discouraging critical questioning of either the teacher or the text, is the dominant tendency in formal education in much of Southeast Asia and other Asian countries.

Teachers adopting strategies that encourage rote learning as a technique may be doing so as much through personal belief as by contextual factors. In the Thai context, Wiriyachitra (2002) notes a number of factors operating on teachers and students, which influence the approach to learning and teaching. Others (e.g. Tinkham 1989) found that while Japanese learners had a more positive attitude to rote learning, it is not necessarily the most preferred strategy (Purdie 1995). Rather, it appears to be as much a feature of context as teaching style. Zubir's (1988) study of Malaysian students, and Kember & Gow's (1991) study of Hong Kong and Australian students at the university level, show that the strategies students adopt are influenced by contextual features such as surface

reason for differences noted in what is stated as belief and what is observed to happen in practice.

2.3 ROLE

In an organisational context 'role' can be defined as the expected behaviours associated with a particular context or in a given setting, and includes the expectations from both the receiver and sender.

2.3.1 ROLE EXPECTATIONS

McCargar (1993, p. 193) notes that role expectations may also be viewed as "sets of interrelated schemata" which exist for generalised concepts underlying events, actions and situations. Haworth (1996, p. 9) adds that they are linked to "stereotyped" perceptions. Role expectations vary across cultures. While members of a culture share core schemata, such as expectations of teacher and student roles, they have differing subsets of the total culture. The difference in those subsets leads to regional, social and personal variation within a common framework.

Gudykunst and Kim (1984, pp. 68-74) note cultural variations in factors such as hierarchy, personalness, expected degree of formality and the degree to which deviation from the perceived role norm is allowable or tolerated. They comment that in cultures with a tight role structure such as Japan it is more difficult to accept deviation from the perceived ideal. Hofstede (1980, in Samovar & Porter 2001) indicates role structures in Thailand are formal and hierarchical, and markedly different than they are in New Zealand, in regard to hierarchy, personalness and formality.

Hofstede's study rated countries out of 40, with lower scores indicating a high preference for formal hierarchical relationships. The distance between Thailand and New Zealand is notable with Thailand rated 14, New Zealand 37.

2.3.2 ROLE CONFLICT

Role conflict arises when a person's expected behaviours regarding role, conflict with their value system or when someone has to play multiple roles which conflict with each other. Hargreaves (1972, in Thomas 1992) identifies six basic varieties of role conflict or strain:

- Occupancy of two or more positions whose roles are incompatible
- Disagreement among occupants of a position about the content of a role
- Disagreement among occupants of a complementary position about the content of someone's role.
- Disagreement between partners about the definition of one or other role.
- Partners have conflicting expectations of a third party
- A single role partner has conflicting expectations of another.

Van Sell, Brief & Schuler (1981) define role conflict as an incongruity of the expectations associated with a role, and identify several types of role conflict, which share some of the characteristics Hargreaves identifies. They note a) inter-sender role conflict b) intra – sender role conflict c) person – role conflict d) inter role conflict and e) role overload.

Van Sell et al use Kahn's (1964) 'role episode' model to examine research on role conflict and ambiguity. This model depicts a two – way relationship between the person being sent expectations (the focal person) and those sending the expectations (role senders) set against a background of organisational, personal and interpersonal factors that

affect the role episode. The inter-relationship between the role sender and the focal person should be noted; research that focuses on the focal person's perception of conflict and only indirectly investigates the perceptions of role senders, are incomplete.

2.3.3 ROLE AMBIGUITY

Generally role ambiguity has been defined as the degree to which clear information is lacking regarding a) expectations b) methods for fulfilling known role expectations and c) the consequences of role performance (Van Sell et al 1981, p. 44). Studies on the effects of role ambiguity indicate that lack of clarity about expectations causes concern with performance, group involvement, job satisfaction, attitudes, and increased tension, anxiety, depression and resentment (Caplan and Jones 1975, in Van Sell, Brief & Schuler 1981), and a causal link to turnover (Johnson and Graen 1973).

Van Sell et al (1981) in a review of the literature found numerous conflicting and unresolved findings about role ambiguity, regarding the relationship between the effects of ambiguity, its causes and the impact of variables such as organisational, personal and interpersonal factors. They suggest personality characteristics, particularly individual differences in perception and adaptability can moderate the association between objective and experienced levels of role ambiguity.

2.3.4 ROLE NEGOTIATION

Negotiation can be viewed from two perspectives: an outward explicit exchange of ideas, thoughts and opinions concerning a topic, plan or a course of action, or as a subconscious give-and-take process occurring

when people interact. Both of these perspectives rely on effective communication skills.

Research consistently finds effective communication is essential to successful team collaboration (Friend and Cook 1996, Pugach and Johnson 1995). Price (1991) suggests effective team communication grows out of an understanding of the reciprocal roles of the communicants, clarity of content and presentation, and appropriate responses to the exchange.

Gable, Lee & Manning (1999) suggest a number of strategies for effective communication in collaborating teams, for example, clarifying the roles of participants, being reflective, avoiding judgements, listening for non-verbal cues, avoiding jargon, and giving credit for team members' contributions. They go on to suggest that 'active listening' is a critical skill in communication, involving: a clear understanding of the purpose of the discussion, rephrasing key points to ensure common understanding, body language that connotes acceptance and support, and use of pauses in conversation to reflect on and synthesise information. In the light of Thai communication strategies (see section 2.1.2) active listening would appear to be a key requirement in effective communication between Thai and New Zealand team members.

Thomas (1992) discusses role negotiation in terms of explicit definition of tasks. He notes in place of role definitions, team members have tacit understandings of what should or should not happen in classrooms. These understandings are framed and constrained by professional and affective concerns such as personality, experience, culture and beliefs. He goes on

to suggest explicit definition of tasks leads to improved clarity of role which he claims is an essential ingredient in effective team work. Improving role definition has been addressed by allocating specific roles and procedures to team members, a process McBrien and Weightman (1980, in Thomas 1992, p. 184) calls *room management*. Room management, which was developed in relation to special needs and teams in mainstream classroom organisation, specifies which activities members of the team undertake, and aims to overcome potential problems arising in team teaching.

Thomas (1992, p. 179) claims both the problems and opportunities arising from team teaching can be negotiated if appropriate processes or role solutions such as communication, differentiation, integration and involvement can be facilitated. The ability to facilitate teamwork depends on the attributions team members make about the situation, which in turn depend on personality, ability to communicate and the time available to negotiate workable solutions.

Sturman (1992) has a slightly different approach in terms of negotiating role, initiative and responsibility in classrooms. In the context of the Japanese EFL classroom, he uses the notion of *flexible equality*, which emphasise the skills and abilities of team members, as well as the tasks and context of the situation. The underlying principles include: using materials and methods acceptable and appropriate to both teachers, explicitly defining roles for each stage of the lesson, and being prepared to adapt materials and methodology according to the Japanese teachers' ideas. He notes the importance of foreign teachers being sensitive to the professional position and pedagogic beliefs of others and appreciative of

the relationship between the Japanese teacher and students, as the Japanese teachers will know the students the best since they have a common cultural and educational background. Sturman summarises by commenting:

The principle of 'flexible equality' has enabled teachers with differing personalities and ideas about how to team teach to define roles and responsibilities that are suitable for their own situation.

Other researchers (e.g. Bailey, Dale and Squire 1992) also recommend focusing on goals rather than personalities of team members to be a more useful strategy in negotiating roles.

2.4 SUMMARY

This chapter has explored some of the key themes associated with team teaching, beliefs and role. Models of team teaching arrangements can be viewed as both a structural arrangement and an emergent process. The process of interaction between team teaching partners influences the kind of team that develops. Interactions between team members are influenced by the beliefs they hold which in turn influences the roles they both make and take for themselves and their partner. Both the problems and opportunities arising from team teaching can be negotiated. The ability to do this depends on personality, communication skills and the time available to arrange workable solutions.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

The chapter begins with a section detailing the selection of participants and the criteria for selection. The biographical details and characteristics of participants and a vignette of each team participating in the study are given. Section two describes the research design and presents the research questions. It includes an examination of the data collection techniques and instruments used in the study. The chapter concludes with a summary of the key points.

3.1 SELECTION OF PARTICIPANTS

Originally it was intended that the study would involve three team pairs, consisting of one Thai and one New Zealander per team. While this was perceived as the ideal, it was recognised that this may not be feasible due to the small number of total possible participants. In the event that one member of a team pair declined to participate, or withdrew from the study for any reason, the other member of that team may still have been selected for inclusion in the study. In that case there would have been a mixture consisting of:

- i) A team pair who work together in the same classroom – one Thai and one New Zealander
- ii) Individuals involved in team teaching but who were not teaching in the same classroom.

The study aimed to select three Thai and three New Zealand participants: a total of six altogether.

3.1.1 CRITERIA FOR SELECTION

Three Thai staff and three New Zealand teachers were selected from a possible total of 10 teachers working at the primary level, with preference given to those working as a team in one classroom.

The following factors were considered in the selection of participants:

- Range of grades taught
- Range of age and gender
- Range of teaching experience

It was found in the process of data collection and analysis that it was not possible to use one team as a case, for ethical reasons involving identifiability. Therefore it was decided to use the pilot study for one case with the participants' agreement.

3.1.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS

There is a range in participants' ages, gender and length of teaching experience. Ages vary from 25 to 47 and length of teaching experience from 3 to 25 years. Teams are teaching at different grade levels: one team from each of grades 1, 4, and 6. All participants hold relevant teaching qualifications. At the time of the study all participants had at least 6 months experience in their current bilingual team context, and with the same teaching partner at the time of this study. Four of the participants have worked with a number of different team partners while employed at this school, prior to the study. Two of the participants have worked for 18 months with the same teaching partner. While it would have been interesting to have explored age and gender as variables affecting beliefs

about teaching and teaching practices, this has not been done due to ethical considerations regarding protection of participants' identity.

Participants' biographical information is summarised in Table 1.

New Zealand Participants

There is a wider range of teaching experience and age amongst the New Zealand participants in this study. Prior to working at this school, one teacher has had previous experience in team teaching, when taking the reading recovery programme at a New Zealand school. This was for a half day each week over a period of one year. Team teaching for the other two has consisted solely of experience gained while at this school. None of the teachers has previously taught in a bilingual school or in a similar context, although all New Zealand teachers have taught either bilingual, or ESL students in New Zealand classrooms. None has had previous training, or professional development in teaching English as a second or foreign language. There were a number of reasons given as to why New Zealand participants chose to teach at this school, including opportunity to travel and work abroad for a number of years, and the need for a change of scene. Dissatisfaction with perceived lack of support regarding discipline and management of students in New Zealand, and the administration requirements in New Zealand schools were factors that were also mentioned.

Thai Participants

Thai participants are younger and with fewer years teaching experience than their New Zealand partners. For two of them, teaching at this school has been their only teaching experience. Thai teachers have had no previous experience in bilingual or team teaching, or in teaching or

working with foreigners, prior to starting work at this school. However, all Thai participants were, to varying degrees bilingual themselves in English and Thai, at the time this study was carried out. Reported comments regarding teamwork, characteristics of their New Zealand counterparts and role in teams are based on employment in this one teaching context. Thai participants' reasons for teaching at this school included: the opportunity for improving their English, a method of accessing professional development, and the perceived prestige in working in an international/bilingual school.

Table 1. Participants' Biographical Data

Participant	Age	Sex	Qualifications	No. of Years Teaching Experience	Previous * Bilingual Teaching Experience	Previous * Team Teaching Experience	No. of Years at this School
I	32	M	Dip.Teaching	11	0	0	3
II	47	M	Dip.Teaching Higher Dip. Teaching	25	0	0	1.5
III	28	F	Dip.Teaching	7	0	1 (part time)	2
IV	28	F	B.Ed	4	0	0	4
V	26	F	B.Ed	4	0	0	3
VI	25	F	B.Ed	4	0	0	4

- Note: This indicates number of years bilingual and team teaching experience prior to employment at this school.

From this point, in order to protect participants' anonymity, two ethical procedures will be followed, (as suggested in Haworth 1996). Teams are designated as A, B, or C, with each team member allocated a pseudonym when referred to specifically by name. This differs from the referencing used in Table 1. Secondly, all participants will be referred to as she/her regardless of gender.

3.2 TEAM VIGNETTES

This section outlines the characteristics of each team. A description of the physical setting is given as well as some information from formal and informal observations characterising how the team members operate in the classroom.

3.2.1 TEAM A

The layout of the room includes student desks arranged in small groups, a mat area, a library corner, construction area, paint table, science and book display areas. Walls are displayed with student work and are colourful, and it is immediately apparent what the current theme work is about. The classroom has been set up in such a way that there is no fixed 'front' to the room. The front of the room is where the mobile teaching trolley is positioned at any one time. When it is moved what is perceived as the front of the room also changes. The teachers' desks are situated together, facing each other which enables easier communication.

These two teachers have worked together as a team for a total of 18 months. They were very familiar with the methods of teaching and personalities of each other when this study was carried out. The teachers are working at the Junior level of the primary school, with approximately 15 students in the class and consequently there are a lot more elements of 'play' in the choice and availability of activities than is characterised by the other two classroom teams. This is partly due to the developmental nature of student learning at this level and partly to encourage the development of academic, social and co-operative skills through play.

Both teachers have expectations of students regarding routines and discipline, (e.g. about keeping the room tidy). Students are expected and encouraged to return equipment to its correct place, to keep their tables tidy, put books back on the shelf when they are finished etc. As these expectations appear to be similar, reinforcement of routines is consistent. Both teachers like to have tidy classrooms and have similar expectations of students carrying this out, as shown in the reminders that students are given. That this reminder occurs from one teacher during the other's lesson indicates ease in working with each other and a very efficient management and reinforcement of class routines.

Some subjects are taught together, (e.g. maths) with alternate turns being taken as to who leads the lesson. Thus the Thai teacher with the N.Z. teacher supporting, and including the English language components will lead one lesson, the next lesson will be led by the N.Z. teacher and roles will be reversed. In the class there is an explicit focus on vocabulary and concept development for both English and Thai. Students are obviously comfortable with the working relationship and roles carried out by this team as they choose to discuss work, ideas and/or problems with both team members equally. There is a similar style or approach to teaching subjects in this class, regardless of whether the team is operating in conjunction or solo, and regardless of what subject is taught. For example English and Thai language are taken by one teacher (the native speaker of that language), and the teaching partner may or may not be in the room at the same time. At both times, whether the lesson is team or solo taught, the teaching approach is characterised by a student-needs based programme with group-work, pair work and one-to-one teaching predominating.

The New Zealand teacher in this class has spent some time in Thailand and is able to use Thai language to back up requests, commands, and vocabulary, which is initially given in English and used often with new students. While a Thai language or culture lesson is being taught the New Zealander may be in the room, either planning work, preparing resources, displaying work for presentation or any of the many routine jobs carried out in classrooms, (cutting up paper, mixing paint, tidying up the playdough etc.) Jobs are shared equally amongst both teachers and the Thai teacher may be doing this during an English lesson. In this room roles and power in this sense appear to be evenly distributed between both team members.

3.2.2 TEAM B

The layout of the room in this team includes desks arranged in small groups, with a large area left free in one area of the room. The free area is close to a fixed white board mounted on the wall, used for board work by the teachers. There are display areas e.g. book displays, arranged around the edge of the room. The physical layout of the room seems well designed to accommodate two very different teaching styles depending on the subjects taught, who is teaching them, and whether they are team taught or solo. There are approximately 15 students in this class, some of whom have lived overseas for a number of years. Consequently the range of English ability varies from beginner to fluent. In this team, some theme work and a little maths work are team-taught but in the words of the NZ teacher “not as much as I’d like”. In any team taught lesson, lessons are planned and led by the NZ teacher and supported by the Thai teacher (when asked). If the Thai teacher comes into the room, she will be

included in the lesson that is being taken by the New Zealander (interpretation of language, translation, checks for understanding etc.) so there is an atmosphere of interaction in the classroom. In these lessons there is a lot of group work, individual instruction and one-to-one teaching. Thai language and culture lessons are teacher-fronted and characterised by question/answer routines, rote replies, choral group answers. While some lessons are reported to be taught by the team, the class observations and responses from the interview, indicate this is not the norm.

3.2.3 TEAM C

This team is interesting in that its members interpret the idea of team teaching in very different ways. While one member perceives the team relationship as a good working team the other does not see them as a team at all, either in planning, relationship, work in class, or areas of responsibility.

The physical layout of the classroom includes desks arranged in rows with a mat area separated from the desk and seating arrangement by bookcases and a mobile teaching trolley. The layout of the room may reflect the more formal style of learning and teaching which is a feature of upper primary grades. Subjects are taught solo, with the team partner generally not in the room at the same time as their partner. One exception to this is for Computers, which is taught as a team with the New Zealander planning and leading the lesson, and supported by the Thai teacher as asked. There are 25 students in this class, with a range of ability in English from beginner to fully bilingual. There is also one native English speaking student, who learns Thai as a second language.

When the New Zealander is teaching and translation from English to Thai is needed or wanted, bilingual students undertake this task. Translation from English to Thai and vice versa is the Thai teacher's role when she is taking the lesson.

3.3 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

This section outlines the rationale for the research approach and introduces the research questions.

3.3.1 RESEARCH APPROACH

A case study approach was chosen in undertaking this research for a number of reasons. Firstly, a case study approach has distinct advantages when investigating phenomena where the investigator has no control over events or ability to manipulate the variables being investigated (Yin 1994, p. 9). Given the exploratory nature of this research, the real-life context of the phenomenon being investigated, and the pertinence of contextual conditions the case study method is the most appropriate research strategy.

Secondly, the research aimed to examine not only the actions of teachers, but more importantly, the perceptions on which those actions are based. Marton (1981, p. 171) defines this distinction in research perspective in the following way:

In the *first*, and by far most commonly adopted research perspective, we orient ourselves towards the world and make statements about it. In the *second* perspective, we orient ourselves towards people's ideas about the world (or their experiences of it.) Let us call

the former a *first-order* and the latter a *second-order* perspective.

A case approach lends itself to investigating team teachers' beliefs about role and teaching from a second-order perspective, where the research focuses on more than a description of events.

Thirdly, it was felt a case study approach would be the most culturally appropriate method of research. Haworth (1996, p. 37) notes disadvantages to certain research methodology (e.g. surveys and questionnaires, especially Likert scales) being used with Asian subjects. It was felt that a research approach that allowed a focus on a tangible and specific context was most appropriate given the cross-cultural nature of the study.

Finally, it was felt an in depth study using qualitative research methods and focusing on a small number of participants, would yield more valuable and comprehensive data, than any other method. The cyclical nature of gathering data for the case approach, would also provide opportunity to confirm analysis of initial responses, as well as being a method of identifying and minimising the effect of unusual or out-of-the-ordinary responses. Depth is also added to the study, as initial analysis of data generates further areas for study.

3.3.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions for this study are as follows:

1. What expectations and beliefs do teachers have about their role as a team teacher?

2. What do Thai and New Zealand teachers believe and assume constitutes effective language teaching practice?
3. How do expectations and assumptions impact on classroom roles, relationships and teaching practices?

3.3.3 DATA COLLECTION

Data collection for this study occurred over a period of 5 months from November 2001 to March 2002. The primary sources of data included classroom observations, a scheduled interview and informal interviews. Secondary data included the biodata questionnaire, stimulated recall using a videotaped classroom observation and informal observations. The cases use information from the primary sources of data with secondary data used to support, provide depth and for purposes of triangulation.

Approval for the research proposal and instrumentation was obtained from Massey University Human Ethics Committee. Advice concerning procedures, which would be appropriate in the Thai context, was obtained from the Director of the school in which the research was carried out. Ongoing support for the study was also provided by the School Director.

3.4 INSTRUMENTATION

This section outlines the instruments used in the study, how they were developed, piloted and administered. It details the appropriateness of each instrument, noting any disadvantages and how these were minimised.

3.4.1 BIODATA QUESTIONNAIRE

The biodata questionnaire (see Appendix 2) aimed to gather background information relevant to the study. It was developed and piloted and a number of details were changed as a result of the pilot. Originally, the second part of the questionnaire had included items that required a detailed written response. It was decided, during the pilot stage, after consultation with the Thai staff member, that these would be better included in the interview, as an oral response would possibly be preferred by Thai participants. One of the original items was left in order to provide me with some awareness of the written skills of Thai participants. Participants were given the questionnaire at the beginning of the data collection cycle, after consent forms had been returned. Routines were established for giving information, returning completed forms, and the processes used if any area needed clarification. The details of the questionnaire were discussed with participants at the time of distribution. Data gathered from the questionnaire are summarised in Table 1 (see section 3.2.2). It provides information on personal details, teaching history and educational qualifications, and previous and current experience in bilingual and team teaching.

3.4.2 CLASSROOM OBSERVATION

The classroom observations aimed to gather information on teaching episodes, which reflected general practices, carried out by team members. The data gathered from the observations were illustrative of teaching practices used by participants, and provided a context for the guided interviews.

In order to cover events in real time, and the context of events, a non-participant stance was adopted for the classroom observations. Lynch (1996, p. 23) notes a number of advantages to a passive participant approach that are applicable to this research context. Firstly, it gives the observer maximum time and flexibility in deciding what to observe and how to observe it. Secondly, a non-participatory stance is appropriate in naturalistic research, as a holistic sense of the context and setting can be obtained prior to focusing on particular behaviours suggested as critical by the preliminary observation.

Spradley (1980) points out that an insider's knowledge of the setting may pose problems for naturalistic research because the observer may be overly influenced by prior knowledge and understanding of the setting and consequently fail to observe aspects that do not conform to that understanding. As I had been in two of the three of these classrooms on numerous previous occasions (usually as a learner of Thai language) I had not only developed a rapport with the teachers but had also developed a holistic conception of the class background – routines, working operations, interactions etc. In order to note events from a perspective other than that of learner role, a non-participatory stance, with a tight descriptive observational focus was seen as desirable. The goal was to initially confirm or deny data representative of the overall setting and context, and secondly to focus on behaviours suggested as critical from the preliminary stages of observation. These observations then led into the guidelines for the interview.

A disadvantage of observation as a data gathering tool, is that events may proceed differently because they are being observed (Yin 1994, p. 80). It

was felt this could, to a large extent, be minimised by the researcher's prior knowledge of participants and previous informal in-class interactions, which would serve as a basis for identifying possible discrepancies between usual classroom events and those happening because of the observation.

3.4.3 INTERVIEW

The main aim of the scheduled interviews was to gather data on participants' beliefs about role, effective teaching, and programmes, in an informal situation. Part Two of the guided interview form asked participants to rank a number of items in order of perceived importance. This was used as a means of providing an added perspective on beliefs about teaching, and to confirm analysis of data. Items in Part Three were generated from issues arising in the literature, and from comments made by other teachers not participating in the study, and at other schools. From the interviews, an extensive amount of rich, in-depth data was obtained.

Individual interviews were held as soon as possible after the classroom observation, at a time and place agreed to by both the participant and researcher, and audio-taped with the participants' consent. Patton (1987) discusses three kinds of interview: informal conversation, the interview guide, and the standardised open - ended interview. It was felt that providing some guidelines about what would be covered would provide more useful data, and also provide the flexibility to cover any issues arising in the course of the interview. The interview questions (see Appendix 3) were developed from items of interest arising in the literature review, and further areas that were targeted arose from the

observation. These were trialled in the pilot case, and minor changes made regarding the wording of some items. The classroom observations also had influenced the restructuring of some questions for reasons of clarity. A copy of the guidelines for the interview was given to participants prior to the interview. The degree of competence in English was a factor that may have had an effect on what teachers felt they were able to say with consequent threats to the validity of the results. **Giving** participants a copy of the guidelines minimised this likelihood. The final items on the interview required a written response to a number of statements made about team teaching by others. During the pilot stage, the Thai participant requested another interview in order to complete these verbally. This was agreed to and responses transcribed. This option was made available to other participants, who chose however to complete the written forms.

Yin (1994) notes a number of weaknesses inherent in interviews as a data-gathering tool: biases arising from the quality of question construction, and reflexivity. Care was taken to minimise any bias by phrasing the questions for the guided interview in such a way that allowed the participant freedom to choose her own terms and/or categories in communicating experiences. A guided format also allowed the interviewer to follow responses up with more specific probes and clarifications on statements made by participants or further questions aimed at gathering finer detail. Regarding reflexivity, as a feeling of mutual trust had been developed, a relatively natural conversational tone in the interviews was achieved. This reduced the potential for participants to say only what they felt I would want to hear. Using multiple sources to collect data would highlight this, if it were a problem.

3.4.4 STIMULATED RECALL

The main purpose of the stimulated recall session was to provide a visual stimulus to discussion between both members of the team. The stimulated recall as a technique aimed to elicit discussion about not just what was happening during the teaching session, but reasons behind the actions. It was felt that this technique would provide a relevant context for the discussion.

A classroom teaching session of the participants' choice was videotaped, and a time suited to both researcher and participants was agreed on for the stimulated recall. The purpose of the stimulated recall was explained and participants asked to reflect on their actions, noting anything they wished to comment on, in other words, to 'think aloud'. Originally a sheet had been planned to go with this, with participants being asked to write any comments on what they were doing. However this was not used in the stimulated recall as it emerged from the pilot that the writing became too restrictive to participants commenting on their actions. The stimulated recall was also the only time in which participants were interviewed as a team. It was decided that a joint commentary on classroom interactions could provide an added perspective to data. This did in fact emerge as participants commented on whatever they noticed, and would ask for their partners' interpretation of an event that was noticed.

The stimulated recall did provide one participant with an initial concern that "... I'm not going to say anything that might jeopardise the relationship with my partner..." A check was made later with individuals, privately, whether in fact there was any issue that participants felt unable to comment on, for any reason, and in fact there wasn't.

3.4.5 FINAL INTERVIEW

The final interviews were held informally with each participant, after the initial analysis of data. The main purpose of this interview was to clarify, add depth to, and confirm responses and analyses from the initial interviews and observations. There was also opportunity for participants to comment on any area they wished to add to or clarify.

3.5 DATA PROCESSING AND ANALYSIS

This section outlines the approaches used to data collection, processing and analysis.

3.5.1 DATA PROCESSING

There were two methods for processing data. Data from the taped interviews were transcribed and then coded as a preliminary system for identifying themes. Coding was approached as an iterative process, and repeated analysis back and forth between the codes and data allowed the emerging categories to be refined and confirmed. This grounded approach to research analysis is described by Lynch (1996, p. 142) as a non-linear iterative process, and expressed by Strauss (1987, p. 22-23) “the focus of analysis is not merely on collecting or ordering a mass of data, but on organising many ideas which have emerged from the analysis of the data”. Analysis of this data aimed to adhere to this principle. The Biodata Questionnaire and Interview Questions Part 2 used a linear process of analysis, as the clarity of responses allowed a more direct approach to analysis.

3.5.2 DATA ANALYSIS

All interviews from the primary data were transcribed and comments sorted. Key word analysis was used to categorise responses. While it would have been beneficial to have key words rated by an external source, this was not possible due to external factors. As this study was carried out while working at the same school in which the research was conducted, it was not possible to find a suitable external rater. Instead, the New Zealander participating in the pilot study agreed to rate her own responses for categories using the guidelines that emerged from the analysis. An accuracy rate of 85% was achieved. Responses were also re-rated by the researcher after a two month period of time, as a method of validating results. A high level of agreement was reached. Figure 9 shows examples of comments using key word analysis.

From the key word analysis, categories were labelled. Responses were then re-read and sorted and emerging sub-categories labelled.

Figure 9. Examples of Key Word Analysis

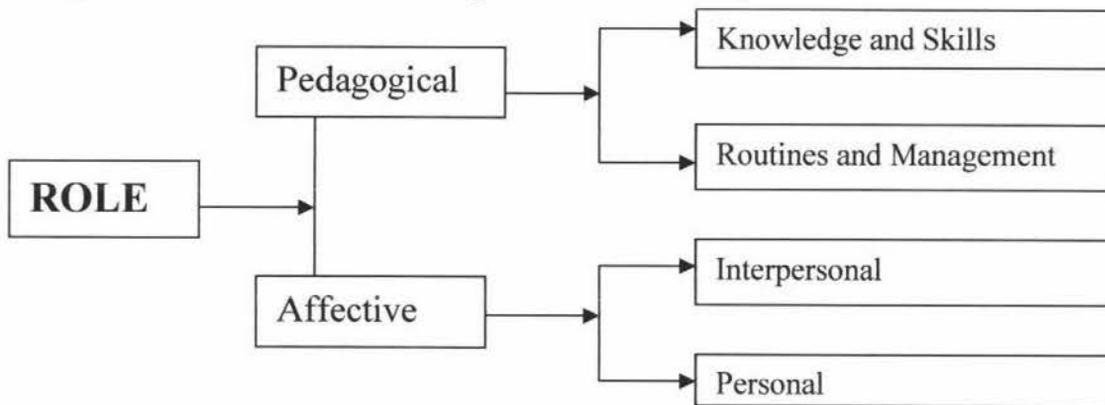
"I see myself more as a facilitator."	
Discussion = Role	Key word = facilitator
Category = Pedagogy	Sub-Category = Knowledge / Skills

"I spend a lot of my time preparing."	
Discussion = Role	Key word = preparing
Category = Pedagogy	Sub-Category = Management / Routines

"Try to stop students with other problems from being picked on"	
Discussion = Role	Key word = picked on
Category = Affective	Sub-Category = Interpersonal

The method of analysis for the interview data is based on methods of network analysis mentioned by Bliss, Monk and Ogborn (1983,) and Cohen and Manion (1985, in Thomas 1992). This procedure aims to classify qualitative data while preserving the wholeness of the material being classified. The individual network analyses for each participant are used to clarify ideas about role in varying contexts: role as a teacher of English, teaching curriculum subjects through the medium of English, and teaching as part of a team. Figure 10 shows the network of categories that was established on the basis of analysis of all interviews.

Figure 10. Network of Categories



Categories are defined as follows. *Affective* category reflects concern with feelings and emotions, and includes what we feel comfortable in doing. This category is subdivided into two further sub-categories: *interpersonal* and *personal*. *Interpersonal* concerns reflect the interactions with others, while *personal* concerns include any comment regarding personality characteristics, and qualities of an individual. *Pedagogy* includes comments about what is known about teaching skills and methods. The subdivision into *knowledge and skills* reflects the professional aspects of

teacher knowledge and *routines and management* reflect day to day practices that enable a classroom to operate effectively and efficiently.

3.5.3 CONSTRAINTS

There were a number of cultural factors constraining the data collection process. Language as a constraint for Thai participants was minimised by offering the use of a translator, if participants so wished. This offer was not taken up during the oral interviews but written responses included comments written in both English and Thai. Someone not involved or connected with the school or participants translated these. If Thai participants felt they needed to use a Thai word to adequately and precisely express meaning in written answers, then it is possible this was a factor constraining oral responses; that is the degree to which their thoughts can be sufficiently expressed in English. While care was taken to minimise this constraint, it is acknowledged that ability to express ideas in English may have affected the results, in that concepts difficult to explain in English may not have been mentioned.

There is also the potential for misinterpretation to arise when responses from Thais are interpreted from a westerner's perspective. The possibility of this is lessened, I hope, in that I have lived and worked closely with Thais over a period of time.

3.6 SUMMARY

This chapter has detailed the selection and characteristics of participants, along with a brief description of each team that made up the cases. Participants' biographical data and previous teaching experience were outlined. These variables (age, gender, length of teaching and previous teaching experience) were not included in the analysis of the study for

ethical reasons. However the extent to which they have an impact on teachers' beliefs and perception of role, could be an area for future research.

The case approach was outlined with reasons given for its use. Methods for data collection, processing and analysis were explained. The instruments used to obtain case data was primarily through a scheduled semi-guided interview and scheduled observations, with secondary data consisting of a biodata questionnaire, stimulated recall, and informal observations and interviews. How each instrument was developed, piloted and administered was outlined, and both the advantages and disadvantages of each were noted.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS: THE CASES

This chapter reports on the findings from the analysis of data as it relates to each team. The cases follow on from information gathered from the primary data and are presented as a discussion of the following categories: pedagogic and affective, and the relationship to teachers' perception of role and beliefs. Secondary data is used to support and add depth to the analysis. The cases will be presented as follows. In the first section part one includes a network analysis for the first team member, and a discussion of categories relating to perception and definition of role. The comments in each Network are a representation of comments from the data. Part two is a discussion of beliefs about effective teaching, particularly in relation to how role was defined. The second section presents the same headings for the second team member. The final section discusses the relationship between both team members' beliefs and assumptions about role and effective teaching and the impact on classroom practices. Examples and quotes given are from the interviews and observations. Quotes used in the network analyses and in the beliefs about teaching section are written keeping the English grammar and expression used by participants. Where words or phrases have been added for clarity, these have been enclosed in brackets. Three dots indicate a pause.

4.1 CASE 1: TEAM A. Sarah and May

The teachers in this team have developed an interactive team style, in which they both have distinct but equal roles. This case aims to highlight

elements of their professional relationship that encourage the development of interactive teamwork.

4.1.1 NETWORK ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION – Sarah

Sarah has discussed role as a classroom teacher primarily in Pedagogic terms, with Knowledge and Skills, and Routines and Management both accounting for nearly one third of comments each (see Table 2).

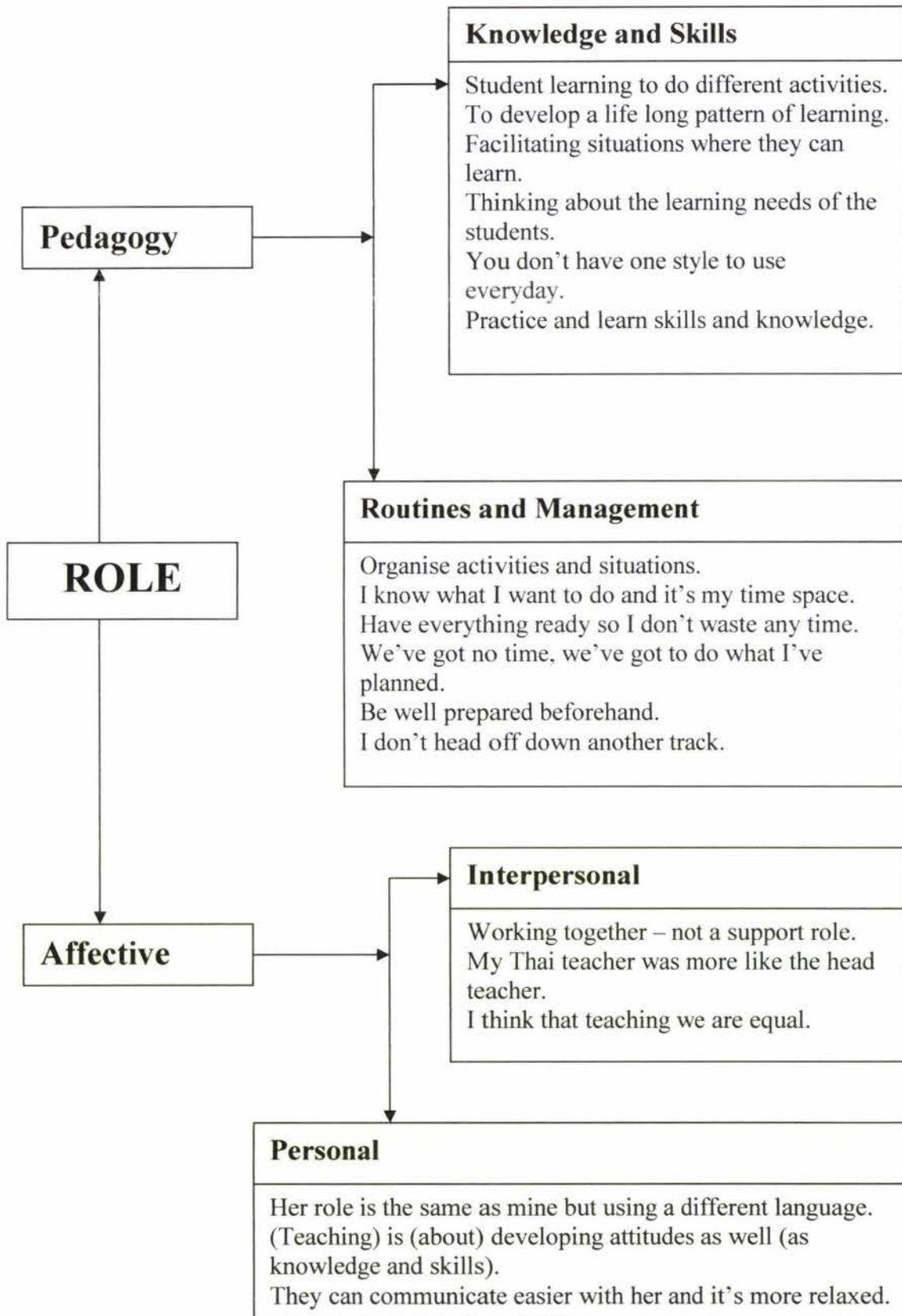
Table 2. Percentage of Comments Reflecting Role in Each Category - Sarah

Category	Sub Category	Percentage
Pedagogic	Knowledge and Skills	30.30
	Routines and Management	30.30
Affective	Interpersonal	21.21
	Personal	18.19

Sarah sees her role as a planner having a major impact on her classroom practices (see Figure 11). Keeping to what has been planned is an underlying belief that impacts on classroom actions, and Sarah accepts that this can make her somewhat inflexible in regard to the content of her programme. She mentions that not heading off down another track precludes using experiences, ideas or concepts arising in the course of the day, unless they fit in to what has already been planned.

Sarah's view of role focuses on teaching that aims to develop a love of learning, and she emphasises that developing life-long patterns of learning in students has both a pedagogic and an affective dimension. Her role in facilitating situations where they can develop this includes using a variety of teaching styles and learning activities, as all students have

Figure 11. Network Analysis - Sarah



different and varying needs. Affective concerns further defined her role especially in regard to her role in teaching as a member of a team.

Within the Affective category Sarah views the development of attitudes as an important goal. She says effective teaching is not just the development of knowledge and skills, it also includes the development of attitudes both in social interactions and in learning. Consequently motivation is seen as very important.

“have a positive environment, nice things on the wall ... and a good feeling in the classroom so students will want to learn and really want to come to school.”

4.1.2 BELIEFS ABOUT TEACHING – Sarah

Organisation, management and planning of time, resources and equipment structure Sarah’s role in the classroom. Effective teaching hinges on being well planned, having a long term plan and following it as closely as possible.

“Very important to do what’s on my plan ... I don’t head off down another track. I like to stick to what I’ve organised.”

Affective beliefs impact on how her planning is implemented in classroom practice. Part of her planning includes thinking about the learning needs of students and the learning styles as well. She sees that students are all different and have different learning needs and consequently she uses different teaching styles to accommodate them. She does this through the use of group and individual work, hands on activities brainstorming, classifying and grouping activities. Sarah

accepts that there is no one ‘best’ way to teach in catering for different needs.

“...choral reading? I’m not sure about these things you know. Because in the olden days when they used to do that in New Zealand, children still learnt back then and so I can’t say that the way I teach is the only way and other ways are wrong.”

Observations and comments from the interviews indicate very equal status in regard to perceptions of role within the team. However Sarah states that their roles had not always been equal: that this is something that changed over time, as she became more familiar with the context, her partner and expectations of others.

“When I first came, I didn’t really know what I was doing. So my Thai teacher was more like the head teacher running things and I was doing support role until I knew what I was doing. We became more equal.”

They both have equal responsibility for students, decision-making and equal power and leadership in the classroom and school.

“Not a support role to me ... I think she stands alone but she’s doing everything in Thai.”

While roles are equal in regard to her team partner and work in the classroom, Sarah sees that others, for example the students and parents, may have a differing view of role expectations. She comments that while their roles are equal there are some areas that make more sense and are more practical for her partner to be responsible for.

“I don’t see my role as being the head information gatherer and most knowledgeable person about the children’s backgrounds because my communication is not so good. I get it third hand.”

In Sarah’s view they have equal roles, but for a variety of reasons – language, culture, communication, they have different responsibilities.

Lack of available time is seen as a constraint in classroom teaching, which is largely overcome by efficient organisation and management.

“I have to choose what is the most important thing to teach my students and some other things can be missed out and they may be fun, but right now the most important thing is teach this, so that can be a constraint or influence.”

There is very little direct translation from English to Thai. Sarah prefers a more active learning role for the students, and encourages this through the types of questions she asks and the kind of feedback she expects from students.

“I don’t ask for support (using language translation) because of the level I teach. I think students can all follow along and do the activities and things I expect them to.”

Whether or not support is explicitly asked for it is apparent from the observation that support is given as it is perceived to be needed. Observations showed support in the re-inforcement of routines, and working together to provide whatever is needed to reach the ultimate shared goal.

Sarah perceives that it is important team members have similar ideological beliefs. In her view this is as important as having compatible personalities, in team relationships.

There is a strong commitment from both team members to give 100% for the benefit of the students. Sarah believes many of the difficulties arising from personality and communication issues in team teaching can be largely overcome if both team members firmly believe commitment to students comes first, and consequently if teachers focus on goals rather than personalities.

“some teachers may find it difficult to speak in English and English teachers find it difficult and can't speak in Thai so they don't speak, or maybe they tried to say it but it came out wrong or they didn't interpret it correctly. But if both teachers are putting their students first and their students' needs, and that's the most important thing for both teachers, then no one can get upset about another teacher giving another idea because the most important thing is what the students need.”

4.1.3 NETWORK ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION – May

Beliefs about role were found to be fairly evenly spread across all categories (see Table 3). Pedagogic sub-categories Knowledge and Skills, and Routines and Management both accounted for a quarter of the total comments. In the Affective category there were slightly more Interpersonal concerns but this was not a significant difference.

Table 3. Percentage of Comments Reflecting Role in Each Category - May

Category	Sub Category	Percentage
Pedagogic	Knowledge and Skills	25
	Routines and Management	25
Affective	Interpersonal	28.13
	Personal	21.87

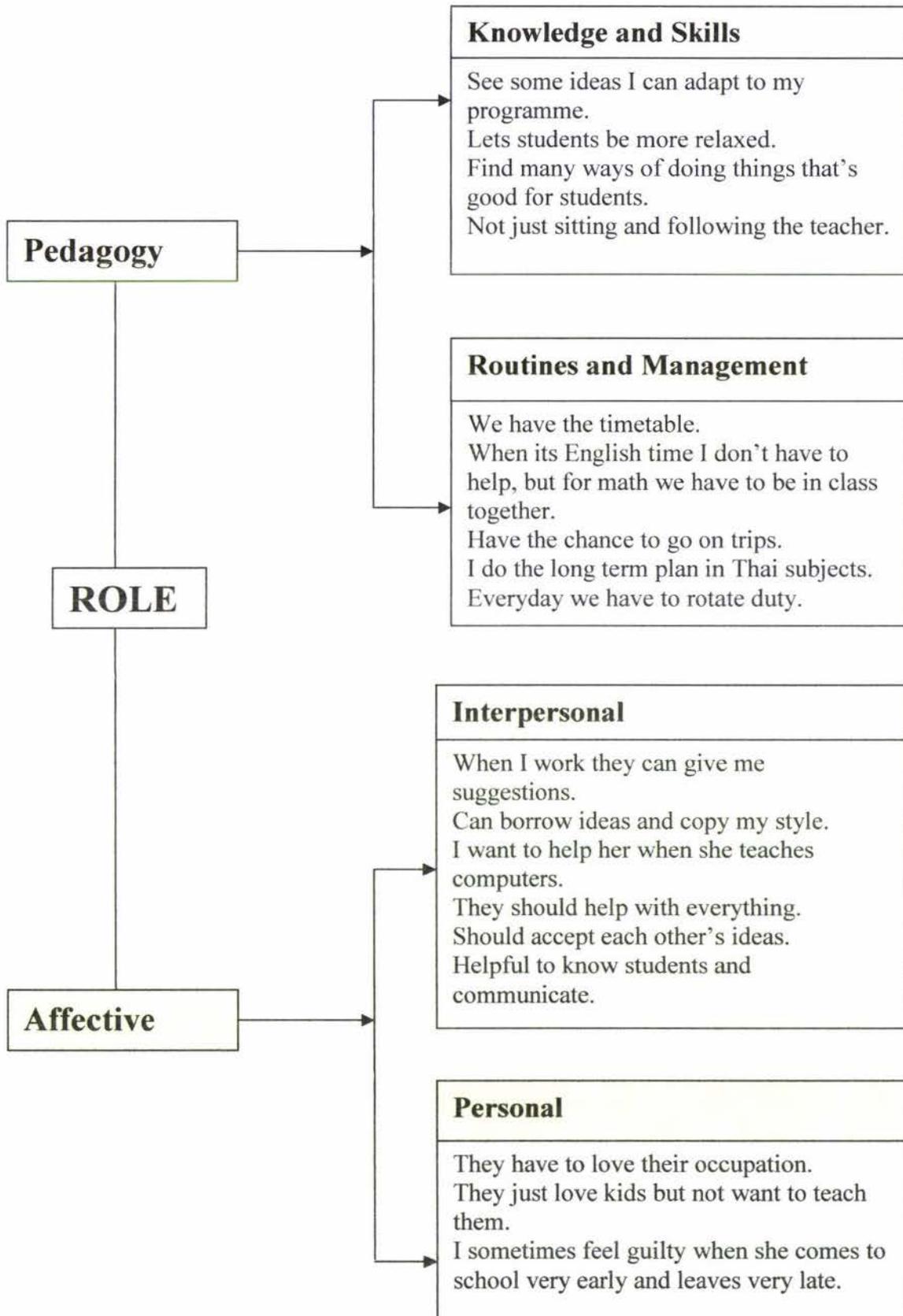
Covering curriculum requirements is an important element of May's programme. Curriculum objectives at this level focus on the development of academic, social, physical and emotional skills, with an equal emphasis on each within a year's programme. The emphasis on affective objectives as well as academic, in May's programme has a connection to Sarah's belief about the importance of developing social and academic attitudes. There would appear to be a similarity in beliefs about what teaching should include, between these two team members.

Passing on knowledge and skills to students and correcting student errors were also noted as important roles in the classroom. These reflect a learning and teaching approach that focuses on skills development.

4.1.4 BELIEFS ABOUT TEACHING – May

May's beliefs about effective teaching generally reflect affective concerns relating to student happiness. Organising and planning activities are important and there should be a variety of activities and interesting ways of doing things for the students. Planning and structuring learning activities and adapting approaches to meet student needs is a primary focus.

Figure 12. Network Analysis - May



May's programme is needs based with a focus on group work and individual one to one teaching with the current class. May points out that sometimes she will have just one group, that is, the whole class, depending on what the students can do, and at other times there may be three or four groups.

In the team context sharing and accepting others' ideas is an important factor in promoting team work. May comments that there are some jobs in the junior classes that are less appealing than others but everyone in the team should support equally.

“everyone should help with everything. They should love children and love to teach them. Not many teachers want to teach junior classes. They love the children but don't want to teach them.”

4.1.5 DISCUSSION – Sarah and May

This section begins by outlining how Sarah and May team teach a maths lesson together. The second part of this discussion focuses on the main points arising from the maths lesson.

Sarah and May are teaching a maths lesson about graphs together, with Sarah leading the lesson. The lesson is about collecting and plotting information (students' favourite colours) on a bar graph. It is apparent from student responses that some previous work has been done on plotting graphs, and this lesson extends previous learning in encouraging students to collect information independently. Sarah introduces the topic, revises vocabulary from previous lessons and tries to relate it to known

concepts and previous learning. May adds interjections where she feels they're needed, either in English or Thai. Sarah introduces the teaching point for the lesson, and then models with May and has students practise together with a partner, while she is observing. Modelling includes how to ask and answer questions (that is, the English students will need to use) and how to record this information. Once Sarah is confident that students know what they must do, students begin independent practice. She sometimes will ensure understanding by briefly checking with May. Both May and Sarah move round the classroom encouraging students, eliciting answers, practising vocabulary and providing help where needed in the use of English and recording responses. Students ask each other questions and help each other fill in work sheets. The final part of the session is back on the mat with students discussing what they found out. As the lesson closes, during the 'tidying-up' stages, Sarah and May spend a few minutes talking about what worked well or didn't work well and anything that came up in the course of the lesson. Evaluations and ongoing decisions about content are noted for later discussion.

This lesson illustrates a number of issues that relate to the style of team teaching of Sarah and May.

- A relationship of trust
- The benefits of joint planning
- Evaluations
- Routines for implementation

Bailey Day & Squire (1992, p. 169) note that for the "balance of power" to be maintained adding interjections needs to be seen as a positive act by the person on the receiving end of the interjections. May included remarks in the course of Sarah's lesson that added to and extended

Sarah's comments, for the purpose of clarification. This is done in an atmosphere of respect and trust between both partners and also reflects Sarah's earlier point that focusing on goals is a valuable component in developing professional relationships in collaborative teaching.

Both Thai and English language are a component in the joint math sessions of Sarah and May. May had some initial misgiving about teaching math concepts jointly in English and Thai, that over time have been allayed.

“I think it will be easier to understand if they learn (English and Thai) together. At first I thought (it would be) confusing for students but now I think not”.

May has shown she is willing to trial new ideas in the classroom, even though she initially had some doubts about their potential effect. This reflects the importance of compromise, sharing, and a give and take attitude that is important in building respect and an atmosphere of trust in collaborative teaching.

Over a period of time, joint planning sessions have provided a time for Sarah and May to foster a positive working relationship, build professional respect and trust, and develop a common base in professional discourse, through sharing a common task.

For effective joint planning, statements and ideas need to be clarified to a greater extent than if teachers are working alone. Joint planning allows for creativity by providing the opportunity for a thorough expression of own ideas, as well as working with the contributions of a partner.

Meetings for planning are held informally, often over a cup of coffee and snack, where students' needs, achievements, skills, progress in mastery of concepts and language are discussed. This directs the course of action for the following lessons and topics, and allows for both Sarah and May to contribute on an equal basis. The informality of these meetings possibly also allows important affective elements in the relationship to be cemented.

Evaluation can involve both assessment of student progress, and evaluation of teacher action. Collaborative teaching provides two perspectives on evaluation in both these areas. As Sarah and May review a lesson, two viewpoints are provided in evaluating student progress and/or mastery of goals, as well as two viewpoints on the most appropriate course of action for subsequent lessons. Also, it can provide guidelines for how similar material may be presented next time. As well as evaluation of students' achievement, collaboration allows for both peer evaluation of teachers' individual work, and evaluation of how the team worked. For peer evaluation to work effectively, there needs to be a relationship of trust, so that feedback is interpreted in a positive manner. Without a relationship of trust or professional respect, feedback may be interpreted as criticism.

Some thought has gone in to the management and administration of implementing the actual team teaching session. The person leading the maths session has time to prepare materials and resources, as their partner takes the lesson prior to this. This reflects the fact that good teamwork doesn't just happen – it takes time and thought, and includes attention

being given to administration factors, i.e giving attention to *how* as well as *what* and *who*.

Role has developed implicitly, without explicit discussion or definition in this team.

“We didn’t make any role just do the best teaching”.

May

That it has done so in a positive way is a reflection of the ability of Sarah and May to communicate and to negotiate ideas about beliefs and role in the classroom.

4.2 CASE 2: TEAM B. Lisa and Jan

The partners in this team have developed a style of co-operation in their work together, although there is little interactive collaboration. There were some contradictions between stated behaviours and those that were observed during the scheduled and informal observations. These contradictions tended to arise from Lisa’s dissatisfaction with the type of team teaching currently practised and that which she feels should happen. Lisa has indicated a desire for a change to their current style of teaming, with the nature of desired change tending towards a more collaborative approach, in implementing a needs based programme. This team illustrates how the development of role is a dynamic process, and that how role develops is related to how it is negotiated by team members.

4.2.1. NETWORK ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION – Lisa

Lisa discussed role primarily from a Pedagogic perspective, with nearly two thirds of total comments falling into this area (see Table 4). Within the Pedagogic sub-category the majority of comments reflected Knowledge and Skills.

Table 4. Percentage of Comments Reflecting Role in Each Category - Lisa

Category	Sub Category	Percentage
Pedagogic	Knowledge and Skills	52.5
	Routines and Management	7.5
Affective	Interpersonal	20
	Personal	20

Routine and Management factors have a minimal placing in effective classroom practices. This finding is supported by later comments regarding classroom administration and management.

“administration and management make team teaching a possibility but it is the team who has to put ideas into practice.”

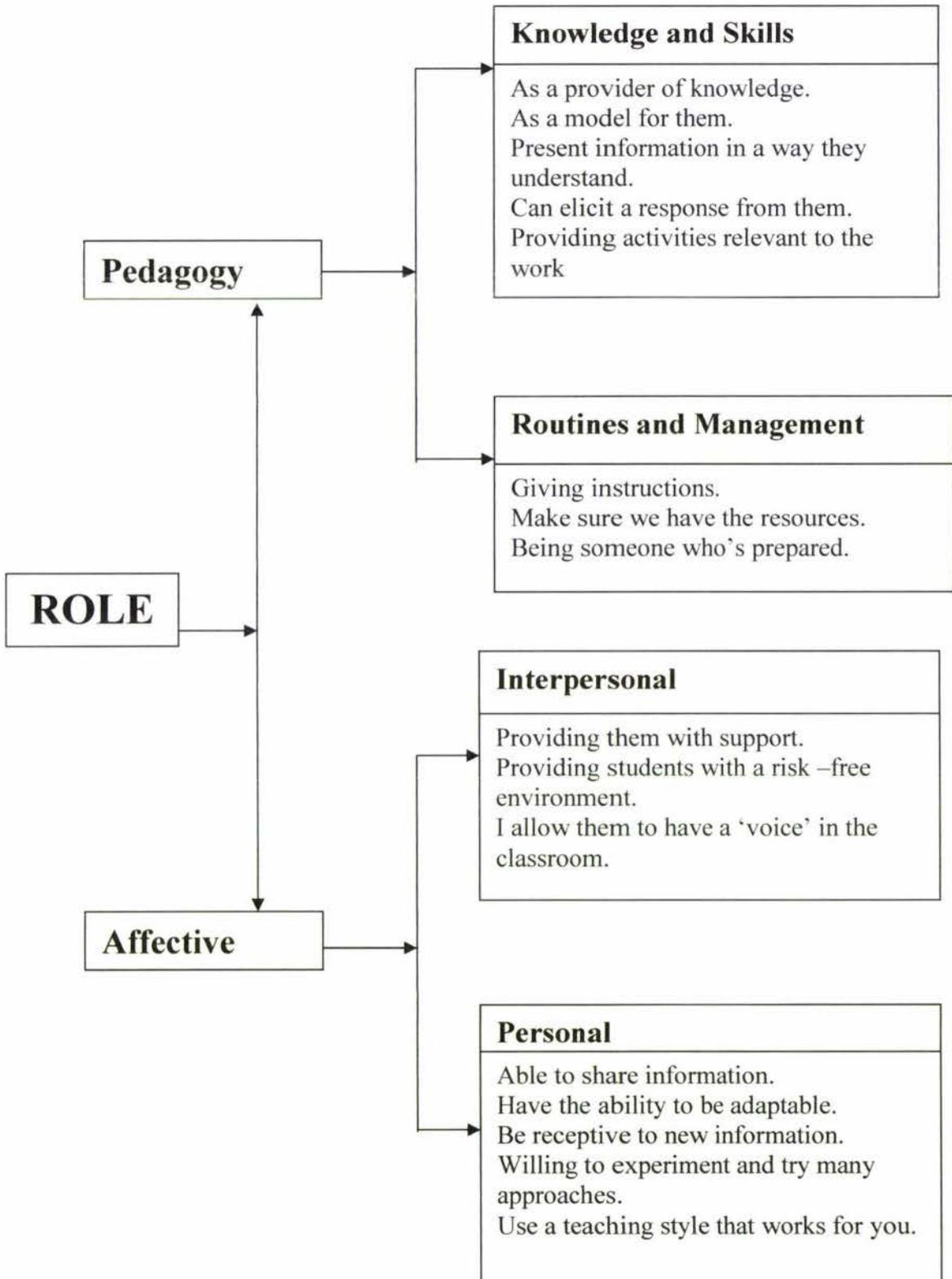
A number of comments involved an explicit statement by Lisa as to what she considered to be her role as a teacher.

“I’m there as a provider for the students because I have the knowledge they do not have.”

“I also see myself as a model for them.”

Lisa defines her role primarily as a resource person – a resource for knowledge and material equipment, as well as a source of modelled language.

Figure 13 Network Analysis - Lisa



4.2.2 BELIEFS ABOUT TEACHING – Lisa

Lisa prefers a less structured approach to teaching with learning arising from day-to-day events in the classroom. Her long term plan operates as a guideline for practice, but there is less commitment to it as something that must be followed. Individual students' needs, and learning arising from everyday interactions are perceived to be more important and having more benefit if followed through at the time they arise.

“I can have a long term plan – say for grammar – and but I can also find it's blown out the water because I have this specific need I have to teach first.... well I'm going to teach it first because there is a need. Just because it's not written down in my long term plan ...”

Allowing students to have a 'voice' in the classroom as an important factor in creating a positive learning environment, which she defines in the following terms.

“Students can say something with no cost attached to it. By doing that the children can say ‘oh I can say this and the teacher's not going to put me down, make fun of me or be cross or hold me up to ridicule’ so a supportive atmosphere not through just me but also through the other students in the class – being a person who allows students to say things and know they won't be repeated outside the classroom.”

Building a risk-free environment based on trust is important in building students' confidence to take risks, as well as for motivation. This relates to the affective needs perceived by Lisa to be most important in a language programme. Planning and structuring learning activities, adapting teaching approaches to match student needs, and helping

students discover effective approaches to learning, are elements Lisa views as important in a student centred and needs based programme.

Using programmes such as Action Learning (Gawith 1988) is mentioned as a good way of catering for students' needs within a positive and supportive environment. In using this approach Lisa defined her programme along three dimensions, within the context of second language learning. She mentioned content, language and evaluation as factors that impact on her programme.

Lisa accepts that she and her partner are a team in that they both have responsibility for the same group of students, in different curriculum areas. She also accepts that while they are a team, they are not currently team teaching in the way that she has interpreted team teaching or that she would like it to be. The difference lies in perceptions about being a co-operative team member and teaching as a team.

Lisa has used the phrase 'team teaching' at different times to describe quite different events and behaviours.

- (a) as a description of the two people in the one class.
- (b) as two people (herself and Jan) laughing and joking and interacting together in the classroom
- (c) as two people teaching together, with joint planning implementing and evaluating.

The first of these (a) may be best described as the members who comprise the team. The second (b) describes the way in which team members build

a professional relationship and develop mutual respect for each other. Neither of these two is team teaching in the sense the last one is (c), which is descriptive of a collaborative team interactively teaching together.

4.2.3 NETWORK ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION – Jan

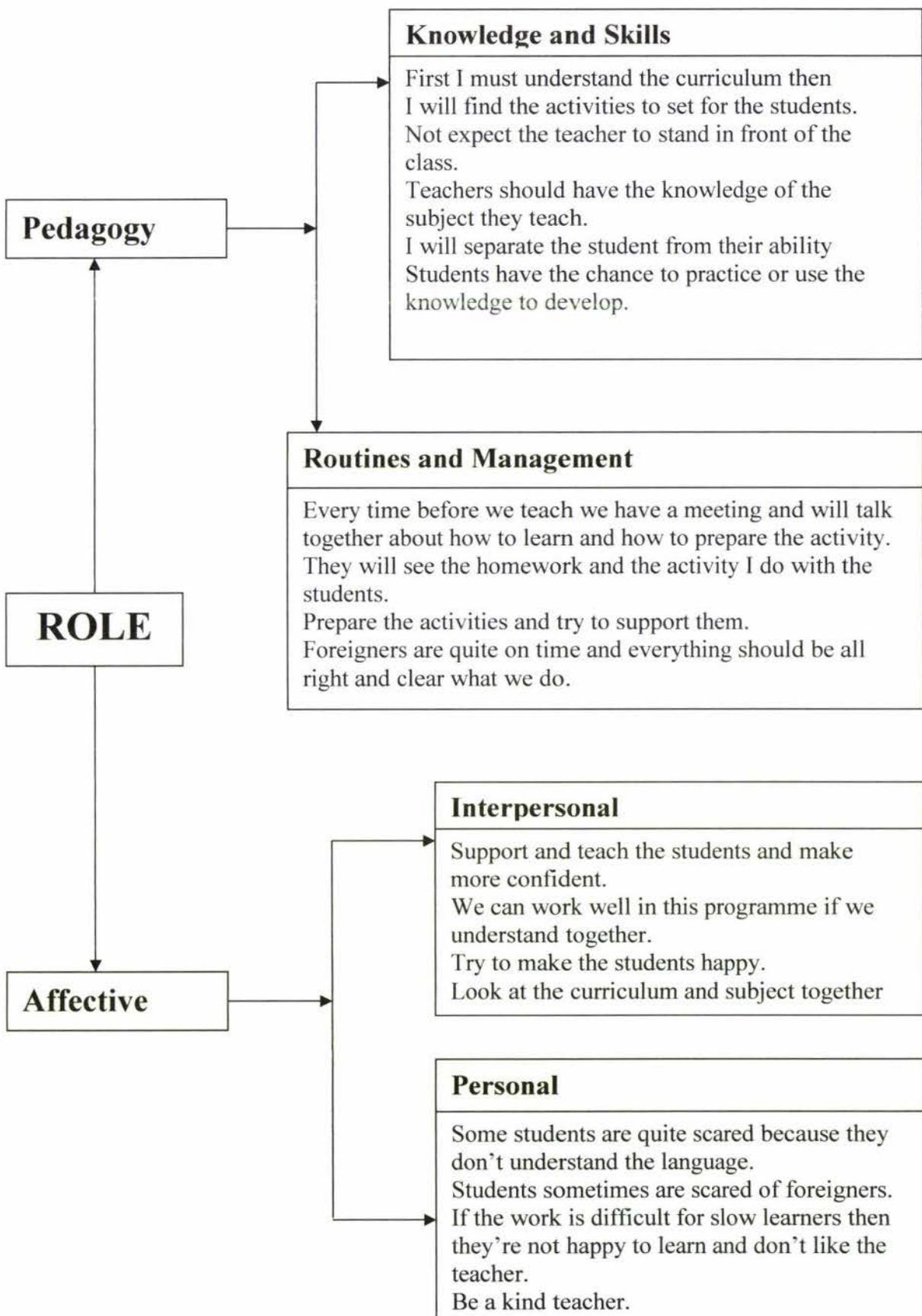
The majority of Jan's comments made about role relate to pedagogical issues, which accounted for just under three quarters of all comments. Of these, the majority were statements reflecting Knowledge and Skills (see Table 5).

Table 5. Percentage of Comments Reflecting Role in Each Category - Jan

Category	Sub Category	Percentage
Pedagogic	Knowledge and Skills	47.05
	Routines and Management	23.55
Affective	Interpersonal	11.76
	Personal	17.64

Throughout the interview there was a major preoccupation with curriculum issues and the effect these would have on her programmes. Jan is particularly concerned with the proposed changes to the curriculum by the Ministry of Education, and the large number of pedagogical comments reflect this concern. Covering the curriculum was seen as a primary goal, as well as preparing activities and the kind of activity best suited to meeting student needs. Jan's view of her role as a planner and organiser includes the context of curriculum issues and maintaining values within the Thai context.

Figure 14. Network Analysis - Jan



Many of the comments made (see Figure 14) reflect concern with student happiness in relation to whether work is perceived as difficult. Underlying this is a concern that the students like her. It is these concerns that provide the basis for her student centred, needs based programme. Success is bounded by group relationships: liking, happiness and positive affective relationships define effective teaching.

4.2.4 BELIEFS ABOUT TEACHING – Jan

Jan sees the degree of student happiness in the classroom as an important element in her success as a teacher. Student happiness in this context is reflected by how easy or difficult students perceived work to be.

“I try to set the activity that suits the student ... If the work is difficult for slow learners then they’re not happy to learn and don’t like the teacher.”

Student liking for the teacher seems to be something that Jan is very concerned about and this was mentioned a number of times in the course of the discussion.

Jan tries to promote student activity and motivation within the classroom using an active learning style rather than a passive/receptive learning style.

“if the topic is very hard or difficult I will sit together with my partner because when I sit beside the student that not understand English they not listen English because they think ‘I know that Ajarn will translate into Thai’. They wait for Thai translation and not want to try to understand English.”

Jan is quite excited about the proposed changes to the Thai education curriculum (see Section 1). She sees a mismatch between the current curriculum and meeting student needs.

“Important to follow the curriculum but the curriculum not respond the students ... does not support.”

Following the curriculum is a primary goal, and part of being an effective teacher is following Ministry of Education directives in regard to the curriculum. There is also a concern that if the teacher does not follow the text issued by the Ministry, students' knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, and conceptual understandings may be lower than in other schools.

“The ministry wants us to use a Thai book and it's a lot of book for the student to do and I want to change but the ministry wants to check how the students develop in Thai but if we didn't use the book the grammar is quite lower than other school.”

There are a number of issues reflecting beliefs about her programme that Jan raised in this comment. Exposure to alternative resources and methodologies has inspired a desire for change. This comment reflects the importance that Jan places on the text itself, in her language programme. (She says “I saw a NZ book and they have got a little sentence and a lot of pictures and the Thai book has a little picture and a lot of sentence”). She is comparing the Thai text book with the Sunshine, Learning Media resource books popularly used in NZ schools for guided reading.) She is unsure of how to implement the changes she feels she wants and needs to make in the face of practical constraints such as Ministry requirements regarding quality assurance, and also the fear that

standards may fall below that of other schools. There is also the constraining factor that alternative resources for Thai language texts are extremely limited. Jan does what she can within these constraints through ability grouping, her solution being for students with difficulties to repeat a previous years work.

“If one student has a problem about reading I will test their level and separate their ability. If they are Level Three I will use Level Three book but (of 14) students one is Level 2 and one is Level 3 Semester 1.”

In having students repeat a previous year's work Jan has changed the content to suit students needs. There are no associated changes to either the teaching strategies or encouragement of students to use alternative learning styles. Without changes to teaching strategies (classroom observations indicate that choral work is the most preferred and most dominant teaching strategy) there is some indication that the underlying pedagogic rationale for a student centred and needs based programme may not be that which is meant by Western practitioners. Jan is defining student centred programmes as those which provide content which is acceptably easy and at which students are able to work independently. The role as a teacher in facilitating learning by providing guidance has been interpreted to mean independent study.

4.2.5 DISCUSSION – Lisa and Jan

Lisa and Jan have developed a spirit of interaction that operates in the classroom through laughing, joking and chatting together in the classroom. Lisa feels it would be beneficial to be able to carry this through to establish a team working relationship in other subjects, such as math, as this is where she feels there is a need.

“We teach math together sometimes but we’re going to have to start teaching more and more because that’s where I’m finding a real need because of the language. I know students have the understanding in Thai but in English sometimes they misinterpret the meaning.”

- Lisa

Arts subjects and Thai cultural subjects (e.g. Social Studies, Thai History) are planned to coincide with each other where there are associated topics. This results in related topics being taught at the same time during the semester, although the aim is not for each partner in the team to take a group, or teach together.

“Before we plan we will talk together about the long term plan, we will try to put my topic and my partner’s topic (together) and vice versa.”

- Jan

Jan is saying that they plan so that topics in certain subjects coincide but as the following comment indicates there is limited willingness to do more.

“it’s their duty – my partner will have responsibility for English, Math, Life Experience and Computer.” - Jan

One aspect of how team partners work together in the classroom has depended on how they have interpreted comments from the school director, such as the following:

“There will be a foreign and a Thai assistant teacher in each class working as a teaching team.”

- School Director

Jan has interpreted her role as a Thai assistant teacher to be something in the nature of translation, with the emphasis on *assistant* rather than on *teacher*, and this is a role that would possibly be reflected in responsibilities that a teacher aide would undertake in New Zealand. Lisa however is stating a need for more equal team teaching roles, which by implication would involve joint planning, teaching and assessment.

It is apparent that both partners believe student centred, needs based programmes to be of importance but it is also evident that these concepts mean different things to them both. In Jan's view a student centred approach entails students working at an independent level, and a needs based programme to consist of the oral and written skills needed for learning. Lisa conceives needs based programmes to involve the necessary guided instruction that is required by individual students, before other concepts can be taught.

4.3. CASE 3: TEAM C. Amy and Lynn

This case focuses on a number of issues relating to interpretation of role and team teaching. Team teaching has been viewed as joint responsibility for a common group of students, and while there is co-operative interaction between team members there is minimal collaboration in actual teaching processes. Tudor (2001, p. 135) notes that in exploring instances of success, the temptation is to assume that principles appear to translate fairly smoothly into practice, and obviously this is not always what happens in the reality of classroom practice. He notes that problematic situations can more clearly underline the complex interaction of factors involved in all language situations. This case explores how participants with different pedagogical and affective beliefs, and differing

assumptions about effective teaching practices have negotiated a solution for their team.

4.3.1. NETWORK ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION - Amy

Amy expressed her view of role predominantly in Pedagogic terms, with this category accounting for over three quarters of all comments (see Table 6). The greatest number of these falls in the Routines and Management sub-category.

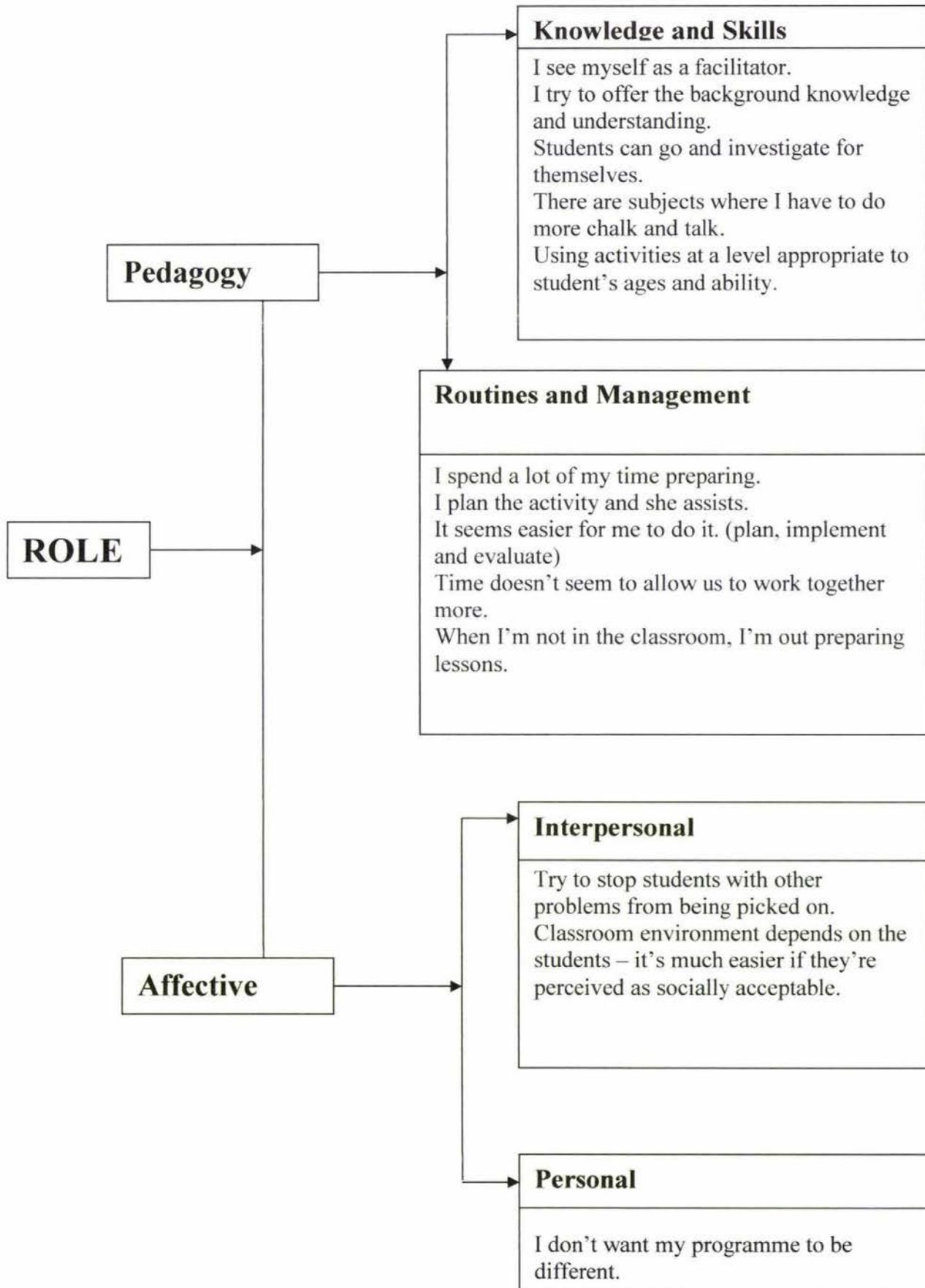
Table 6. Percentage of Comments Reflecting Role in Each Category - Amy

Category	Sub Category	Percentage
Pedagogic	Knowledge and Skills	31.25
	Routines and Management	50
Affective	Interpersonal	12.5
	Personal	6.25

Amy defines her role as both a planner and facilitator. Role has been defined primarily in terms of organisation and management, with the planning and structuring of learning activities seen as fundamental to the success of her teaching practice. She notes that initially students may need background knowledge and understanding of a concept, which she provides using a 'chalk and talk approach'. Later, as students are able to carry out investigative or independent tasks, her role changes to that of a facilitator.

Affective concerns only minimally shape Amy's stated view of role in the classroom and these interpersonal concerns are related to contextual relationships with students and the classroom environment. Amy perceives that a positive classroom environment is conducive to student

Figure 15. Network Analysis - Amy



motivation and learning, but does not mention this as being something that is built or constructed jointly between all members of the classroom.

This perspective also shapes her approach to team work. While the network analysis shows pedagogic concerns to be of major importance, no conclusions can be drawn as to the relative value placed on one in relation to the other in defining role. This may be because heavy weighting in one area in fact serves to mask problems in another. While people often like to talk about what interests them or is important to them, discussing pedagogical issues may be seen as relatively safer than discussing professional relationships. In Amy's case the relationship between affective and pedagogic concerns is of interest in what is discussed as much as what is not discussed.

4.3.2 BELIEFS ABOUT TEACHING - Amy

Amy tended to differentiate roles in teaching English as a language and in teaching curriculum subjects through the medium of English, so this distinction will be kept in discussing role and beliefs about teaching.

Meeting Ministry of Education requirements regarding curriculum objectives is an important goal in Amy's belief system. Concern with how this goal is to be achieved was apparent throughout the interview and is reflected in the high number of pedagogic concerns in the Network Analysis.

“I pick up the curriculum first and look at the objectives, then I go to the assessment sheets we have in the student folders and pull out the objectives. From there, I go back to the Thai curriculum and I can see by the diagrams what they're intending to teach so I know

that I'm covering the content as in a Thai state school. From there I do my planning."

Amy sees promoting student self-inquiry as a major aim in student learning and teaching, but she also sees a number of contextual factors such as learning curriculum subjects in a second language, and time constraining her in her preferred approach to teaching.

"Determining how much time you've got is the big thing though. When we talked about child-centred learning, you obviously can't rush your way through that, so you find yourself focusing more and you're doing the directing."

"Students are being taught in a second language and they need time to process ideas and develop the language to express concepts."

One of the direct results of Amy's perception of time constraints is reflected in her approach to implementing planned activities. A teacher directed 'chalk-and-talk' approach is used initially, to give students the necessary background knowledge and skills to carry out independent activities and experiments. Humour and entertainment is used as a motivational device, as well as positive reinforcement using a system of rewards. Amy sees the teacher as the person who should be 'in charge' in the classroom which relates to the style of management and the degree to which student 'voice' is allowable in the classroom. She perceives relaxed classroom practices as showing lack of management skills. Teacher control is relatively tight, and keeping to the planned lesson is important, as there is a need for students to cover work within a specified period of time. Consequently motivation is important as well as monitoring on task behaviour and completion of tasks. The structuring of

activities thus becomes a primary focus that enables her to guide student learning to a stage where independent learning can take place, given that there are a number of time constraints that preoccupy her. This, taken in conjunction with the fact the school has a particular ethos regarding the delivery of the curriculum, results in a struggle to achieve these goals. In order to do this Amy uses direct translation from English to Thai as a means of overcoming constraints in her classes, a role she assigns to students.

“I’ve been lucky enough in my classes to always have a student who is very good at English and can translate for me.”

The extensive use of translation reflects a belief about how the curriculum is best covered in the second language learning context. It also underlies beliefs about how language is learnt. Amy’s use of translation supports students’ learning through ensuring understanding in the first language. Helping students discover effective approaches to learning and adapting teaching approaches to match student needs are seen as the primary role of a teacher of English in an EFL context. Amy describes her role in language teaching in the following terms.

“Relate concepts and language to previous learning and Students’ prior knowledge and experience.
 Go slowly, speak slowly and be repetitive.
 Repetition – and building on it slightly each time.
 Learning through experience of using the language is important, and give students the time and opportunity to practise.
 It’s important to involve students in their learning – they have some input into the programme.
 (Students) should listen while others are talking – listen to the teacher and listen to their peers as well.
 They need to contribute actively during discussion.”

These describe a belief about language learning as centred around a function-based approach and focusing on the ability to carry out activities and communicate in social situations.

4.3.3 NETWORK ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION - Lynn

Lynn's ideas about role are concerned with both Affective and Pedagogic factors. The Affective category, which accounts for over half of the total comments, is predominated by Interpersonal concerns (see Table 7). Breakdown of Pedagogic concerns indicated Routines and Management to be of more importance.

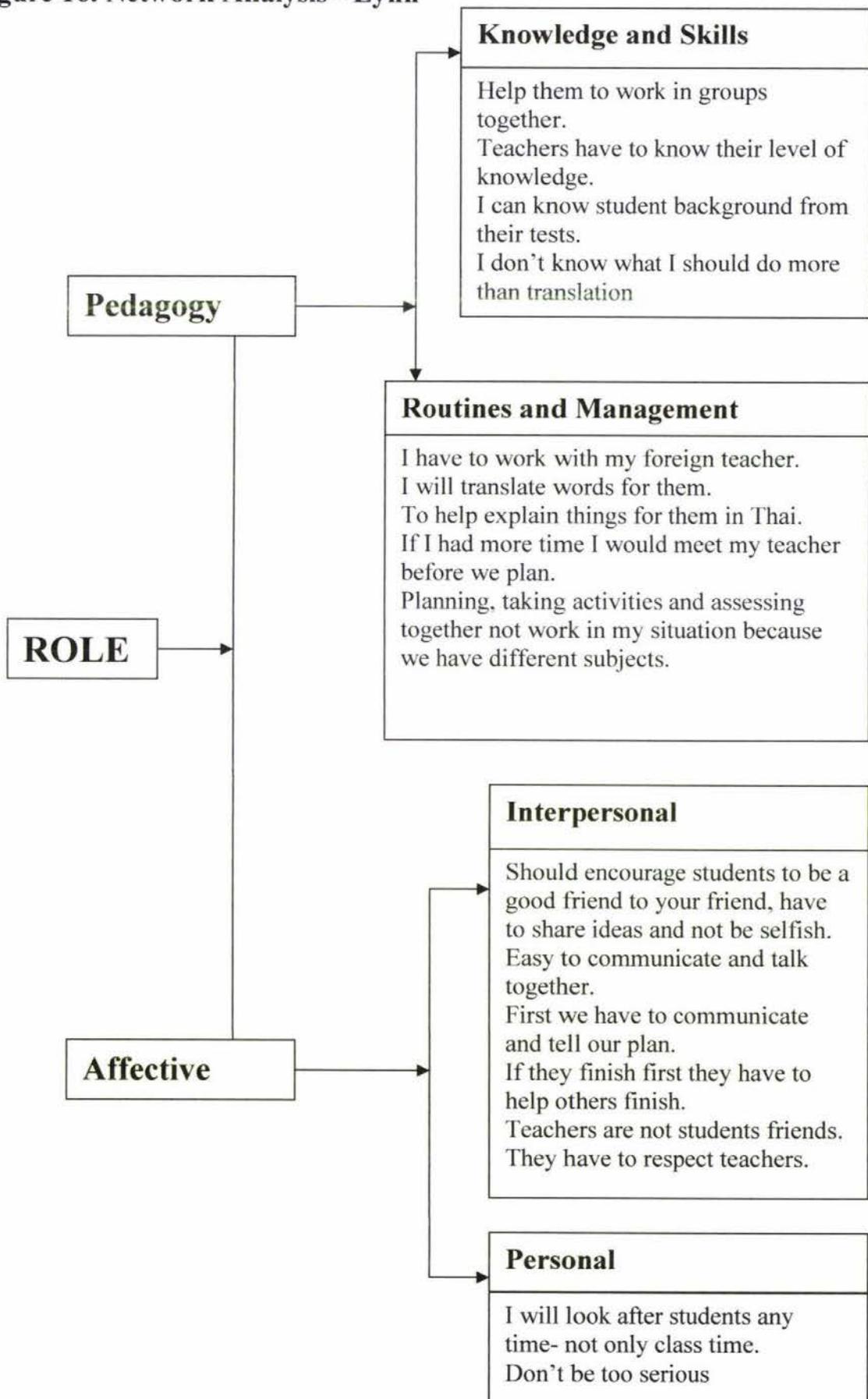
Table 7. Percentage of Comments Reflecting Role in Each Category - Lynn

Category	Sub Category	Percentage
Pedagogic	Knowledge and Skills	13.80
	Routines and Management	27.58
Affective	Interpersonal	44.82
	Personal	13.80

Within the affective area role is allied to student happiness, sharing, friendship and help, with student ability to work with others, and group concerns, receiving a higher priority than individual accomplishments. This possibly reflects a cultural norm as much as individual belief in the importance of the needs of the group. The significance of group cohesion, may at times be more important than individual achievement.

Lynn has shown a preference for role to be defined by others – either from the administration or through leadership from Amy, her team teaching partner.

Figure 16. Network Analysis - Lynn



4.3.4 BELIEFS ABOUT TEACHING – Lynn

Lynn has a number of beliefs about teaching and her role in the classroom, which relate primarily to the affective dimension of help. Of immediate concern is the importance of group membership and emotional well being. The provision of affective support in student learning is a primary goal.

“I have to be a good teacher. I have to look after students anytime – not only school time. If they need our help when school is finished we have to help them.”

The ability of students to work co-operatively with others, to share and help each other in their learning is important.

“In Thai subjects mainly I focus on their behaviour . . . I try to tell them to work in groups – not only by themselves. I try to tell them not to be selfish people - they have to share, not only ideas - anything you can share to your friend. Students who know many things, or have more knowledge than their friends they have to help, if they finish first they help others to finish.”

Lynn’s teaching style is reflected in the classroom atmosphere that is very relaxed. Students are able to call out at will and there is no obligation to put hands up so classes are often quite noisy. There is a lot of freedom of student movement around the classroom and minimal vocalised emphasis on reinforcement of routines. Learning and teaching is seen as something that should primarily be fun, and this suits her personality. Amy comments:

“She’s a real entertainer and the students really enjoy that.”

While there is a firm belief in learning as a fun activity between teachers and students, and students and their peers, there is also a very clear indication that there are appropriate student and teacher behaviours that neither should contravene.

“Teachers are not students’ friends. Students have to respect teachers.”

Pedagogic concerns in the interview tended to take a secondary place to affective issues. However Lynn does have a number of very clearly verbalised ideas about role in regard to pedagogical beliefs. The teacher’s knowledge of subject matter is important, as this is what is given to students. There is the belief that teachers have the knowledge and are able to (or should be able to) pass this on to students. Teacher knowledge of students’ background, in this case knowledge and mastery of concepts is also important, and is gained from test results. In language classes, whole class teaching using a curriculum-based approach to learning predominates, with those needing extra time to grasp concepts supported by their peers. There is an emphasis on rote learning and all students use the text set for the class level by the Ministry of Education. In cultural subjects there is a collaborative approach to activities, in that all members of a group must contribute to the activity in order for it to be completed. Role-play, drama and a belief in using ‘fun activities’ are used extensively to achieve this in cultural subjects. These two different approaches reflect Lynn’s beliefs about how language and other subjects are best learnt and taught. Language learning is believed to be achieved

best through a skills based approach, focusing on the discrete skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

“They can learn every skill from the teacher that uses English ... listening, reading, writing, talking, pronunciation. English language is more important than English culture.”

4.3.5 DISCUSSION AMY AND LYNN

In the team teaching context Amy gives time as the major reason for lack of a closer team teaching arrangement in the classroom.

“I’d like to be able to integrate and work together more but time just doesn’t seem to allow it.”

Previous experience is also mentioned by Amy, and the need for in-service courses as being of benefit in implementing a team teaching programme.

“I haven’t done it before – I don’t have any experience of it and I’d need some direction with that.”

Amy indicates very little personal enthusiasm for it with the comment

“no enthusiasm towards it. I do a good job now so why change.”

However the primary lack of motivation in Amy’s case seems to stem from personality differences in understanding and communication.

“any feedback that I give to my counterpart is taken as criticism rather than feedback so I feel that I can’t say anything because it will just be like ‘you’re criticising me’ and it makes an uncomfortable feeling in the room.”

There are some differences between Lynn’s stated belief and action in regard to role in the team teaching context. Lynn states:

“Team teaching will be easier to plan, teach and prepare our work. It will be easier to follow the curriculum if we talk together. Students will get more English from their teacher.”

However this is not implemented in the current classroom she is working in. A number of reasons are given for this: lack of time, and being busy with other commitments,

“If I had more time I would meet my teacher before we plan. Time and (being) busy is a constraint.”

Uncertainty about how to implement team teaching programmes is also indicated.

“I don’t know what I should do more than translation.”

There is also the perception that different subjects require different teaching approaches as mentioned earlier, with one approach not translating easily to another, depending on the subject in question.

“It won’t work in my situation because we have (teach and have responsibility for) different subjects.”

Both team members state an explicit definition of roles would be of benefit in classroom practice. In the absence of clear definition either by others or by themselves, understanding of role in the team context has developed tacitly. For Amy along professional – management lines and for Lynn along affective – interpersonal lines. The roles that each has assumed (see Thomas 1992, p. 178) in fact work towards minimising team processes, with Amy and Lynn’s unstated but implicit approval. In effect each work to maintain their own autonomy in the classroom with the result that rather than using strategies to develop team work skills, both have become individuals working in the same classroom.

4.4 SUMMARY

As can be seen each case illustrates a different type of team teaching arrangement. What team teaching involves and how it should be implemented is influenced by individuals’ beliefs about effective teaching. This includes both a pedagogical and an affective dimension. Role within the team can be seen to be a fluid two-way process in which the beliefs of one team member influence the role expectations they have of their partner and of themselves. The cases also indicate there are a number of constraints operating within the context each team is working in. The effects of expectations and constraints on the team are explored in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

This section discusses the findings of the previous chapter as they relate to the research questions.

5.1 QUESTION 1.

What expectations and beliefs do teachers have about their role as a team teacher?

5.1.1 THE NATURE AND STRUCTURE OF THE TEAMS

Teams can be discussed from two perspectives: the structure of the team, and its nature. Each case illustrates examples of different types or models of teams and team teaching. In Case A, Sarah and May have a collaborative style of teaming, with leadership and decision making power shared equally. This style of team work is an example of the Associate type, as described by Cunningham (see Section 2.1.3).

Using Shimaoka and Yashiro's typology, Sarah and May's team teaching style reflect a combination of types. Both take the lead and secondary roles at alternate times, as illustrated by the maths session in Section 4.1.5. Both also have equal roles in that they teach on equal terms, and they also both have distinct roles in that there are areas of responsibility each is accountable for. Sarah's and May's interactive style of working together also fits Leonard's description of Co-operative team work, where both share the classroom, teaching load and responsibilities and they constantly interact with each other and with students in English. Case A

can best be described as a model of interactive, collaborative team teaching.

Shimaoka and Yashiro's model of Distinct Roles for each teacher describes the team in Case B. When Lisa and Jan do teach as a team, Lisa as the native English speaker takes the lead role and Jan takes the secondary role. These roles are not alternated between members as they are in Case A.

Team C participants can also be described as Distinct Roles for each. Amy and Lynn recognise they are members of a team, but have implicitly negotiated strategies that specifically preclude teaching as a team.

An aspect of models or types of teams that these cases highlight is how often the phrase 'team teaching' is used to describe the people who make up a team as well as describing actual teaching and teaching processes carried out by team members.

Participants defined team teaching in a variety of ways: team teaching included both a description of the members of the team, and the teaching process itself, whether carried out jointly or solo. There are many variables impacting on participants involved in team work, which have resulted in the emergent processes participants refer to as team teaching.

5.1.2 EXPECTATIONS AND REALITY

As can be seen from Chapter Four both New Zealand and Thai teachers have a number of expectations about teaching in the bilingual primary institution and in the context in which the research was carried out. These

expectations impact on the roles that develop. Expectations New Zealand participants had are set out below.

- that student centred learning, needs based programmes and communicative language methods will transfer readily from the New Zealand context to the Thai classroom context.
- that the first priority is the student and the classroom programme.
- that time is needed for developing an understanding of, and facility with, team practices.
- that both members of the team are equal, although they may have different responsibilities.

New Zealand participants commented that their role in the classroom was not noticeably different from that in New Zealand classrooms. Roles as planners, organisers and facilitators of activities were felt to be the same as that which they would have solo teaching in general primary classrooms. All New Zealand participants felt that student centred learning, needs based programmes and communicative language methods transferred readily from the New Zealand context to the Thai classroom context.

There seem to be a number of reasons for the perceived similarity in role expectations between New Zealand and Thai contexts that was held by New Zealand teachers. Firstly the school institution encourages the student centred learning and needs based programmes using hands-on activities, which are the norm in N.Z. classrooms, and which are used by New Zealand participants in this study. New Zealanders have not needed to make any change in their teaching style or strategies used, or in their underlying beliefs about effective teaching in this respect, in working in Thai classrooms.

The second perspective relates to the relationship with their Thai partners. New Zealanders have generally set the direction as outlined in the preceding paragraph and their partners have provided support for this. The nature of the support has varied in each case. In Cases B and C it has tended to be based on mechanics and procedures (everyone has the right equipment, understands the instructions, an extra pair of hands to cope with computer glitches, etc.); in Case A, the support has been a closer involvement with the process of teaching. Where the nature of the support is as in Cases B and C, there are not interactions of the type which would bring differing pedagogical beliefs to the fore, and which could entail a closer look at the possibility of modifying methodology. In Case C, it is possible closer teaching interactions did occur in the early stages of the team development, and changes were made to the amount and nature of teamwork undertaken rather than modifying methodological beliefs and practices.

On most occasions expectations about the priorities of students and programmes meet the reality of school life, although there have been occasions when other concerns e.g. promotional activities have taken precedence over programme activities such as parent teacher interviews. When expectations of this kind have not been met, NZ participants have tended to make negative judgements about the professionalism of their partner, the administration, or both. This reaction has also been documented by Thorpe (1991, in Haworth 1996, p. 101) who suggests that where there is a mismatch in belief systems, negative judgements are made.

However, these issues about priorities may also be the product of poor communication rather than an issue of professionalism, as this exchange may indicate.

Int: You say here (transcribed from the scheduled interview) it is very important to cover what is on your plan. What (do you do) about outside interruptions to your programme?

Sarah: I don't know ... They don't seem to happen any more ...

Int: Others have found they still happen to them.

Sarah: Oh... Yes ...(laughs) everyone seems to have interruptions and problems still. I seem to be able to plan for them

Int: Is that a communication thing?

Sarah: Yes ... communication is very good and May always tells me what is going on, so I always know when there's something coming up.

Armstrong (1977) points out that time is needed to develop understanding of and facility with team practices (see section 2.1.5) and suggests three years may be necessary. All participants found the length of time needed to develop a professional relationship was longer than first anticipated. Sarah and Jan suggested an initial three-month period was needed to develop understanding of how their partner used language (Jan), and the context in which they were operating (Sarah). An atmosphere of mutual respect and trust is necessary in which to develop a positive professional relationship. The factors that create trust and mutual respect vary between individuals, but are dependent on personality, communication and ability

to negotiate differences. The length of time needed to develop this relationship will vary between individuals: it may be relatively short (as in Sarah's and May's case) or may take much longer (Amy and Lynn).

Developing expertise with team teaching practices also takes time. All participants, except for one, have not team taught before being employed at this school. Therefore more time than initially anticipated by participants was needed to develop this facility. This is especially so for New Zealand participants as the cultural and educational context, the team situation, and access to both languages were distinct factors that they did not have previous experience of.

There was a belief on the part of all New Zealand participants that both members of a team have or should have equal decision making ability, status and power within the team. This is reflected in what New Zealanders expect from their team partner, in relation to contributions, active participation and decision making, presentation of opinions and sharing of ideas, all of which are elements promoting equal team roles.

In fact there are considerable differences in this area that seem to be related to the nature of hierarchy within Thai society, and to what New Zealanders are used to in their own country. The roles of teachers are influenced by what Gudykunst and Kim (1984) call the degree of hierarchy present within the relationship. Thai participants may not be altogether comfortable with the New Zealand expectation of equal roles, especially where there is some disparity in age and amount of teaching experience between partners.

One area in which there was consistent agreement amongst New Zealand participants was in how role as ‘discipline enforcer’ was perceived. Lisa comments, “discipline is not an issue here”. All felt that they had a major role in enforcing discipline and maintaining order in New Zealand classrooms and that their Thai classes simply did not have the behaviour problems that appear to be prevalent in New Zealand classrooms.

There were factors outside the teams themselves that had an impact on role relationships within the team. There were major differences in the roles ascribed to Thai and New Zealand participants as a group, and the consequent behaviours seen as permissible by each, by the administration. Administration personnel and Thai participants saw part of their role to include duties other than classroom obligations, for example, promotional visits to other schools, showing visitors around the school. These roles impact on the team (for example during promotional visits Thai participants’ classes may or may not be covered depending on availability of staff). This seemed to cause a degree of role conflict (as noted by Hargreaves 1972, in Thomas 1992) where participants have multiple roles, which are perceived to conflict with each other.

Thai teachers also had a number of expectations

- that mentoring is an appropriate way of accessing professional development.
- learning should first and foremost be fun.

Thai participants felt that professional development i.e. development of their teaching practice especially in regard to student centred learning as a focus of the new curriculum, could best be achieved through practical,

hands-on experience in the classroom, with the guidance of their New Zealand team partner. This has many elements in common with a mentoring arrangement. None felt that formal in-service courses were necessary, although this may be a reflection of the type of in-service programmes available, which tends to be seminars and/or lectures, provided by the Ministry of Education.

It should be noted that none of the New Zealand participants mentioned a mentoring relationship as one of their roles. From the Thai perspective, their informal professional development has been along the lines of unplanned observation and the drawing of own conclusions on the basis of observations filtered through their own beliefs and experiences, without feedback. The result has been development along lines unrealised by New Zealand participants (e.g. Case B – Jan) and conclusions drawn have been at variance with New Zealand team members' understanding of methodology. It is possible that feedback is not desired by Thais, or that New Zealanders are not prepared to give it (e.g. Case C,) if the nature of the feedback is interpreted as criticism. While New Zealanders and Thais may have different understandings of how mentoring can be implemented, awareness, guidance and feedback are an implicit part of an effective mentoring arrangement in western practice. These elements may not be how mentoring is interpreted in Thai practice.

Thai participants were strongly oriented towards the school ethos of learning-as-fun. Outwardly, there was much less concern with academic achievement: the primary focus was affective concerns about student happiness in their learning environment. This finding was somewhat surprising, given the importance placed on passing exams in Thai society. In this context 'happiness' seems to consist of enthusiasm in the

classroom, ability to answer teachers' questions, and the perceived difficulty of tasks.

There was an indication that, at times, foreign staff were 'too serious' or 'too strict with some things', that tended to reflect differences in what was believed to constitute professional behaviour. In the context of the school ethos, Thai staff assumed a more relaxed approach to matters (such as teachers' punctuality, supervision of students, completion of homework, methods of discipline and behaviours believed to require discipline), than foreign staff members were able to achieve.

This relates in part, to Jan's comment that sometimes students are scared of foreigners. In the school context, new students do seem to be scared of foreigners, and take some time to understand and evaluate the differences in expected student–teacher roles when interacting with foreigners. The area of affect in student–teacher role relationships in the team teaching context, is outside the scope of this study. However it is an area in need of further research, as affect has found to be a major construct in Thai participants' beliefs about teaching.

May sums up the Thai perspective by saying:

“they (foreigners) should accept things even if they don't like (it) ... take it easy, don't be too serious”.

5.2 QUESTION 2.

What do Thai and New Zealand teachers believe and assume constitute effective language teaching practice?

5.2.1 APPROACHES TO TEACHING

It was found that two approaches predominate in teachers' thinking about effective language teaching. These basically are related to beliefs about language learning and teaching as a function based approach emphasising processes, and a skills based approach focusing on content. Associated with these two approaches is the role of the teacher, which is directly related to each.

New Zealand teachers followed a function-based approach to learning and teaching. This reflected beliefs about their role as a teacher in encouraging communication in social situations with students needing to take an active role in their own learning. Programme emphasis is based on activities in Science, Social Studies, Math etc. that promote active participation from all learners. These included problem-solving, task oriented and information gap activities. Textbooks are not used in teaching English as a curriculum subject.

Thai teachers generally had a skills based approach to learning language, with the focus being on mastery of content. When they were supporting English programmes, and curriculum subjects using English language, they tended to follow the direction or lead of the New Zealand teacher who used a function-based approach. Thai teachers felt more comfortable in an assisting, support role in many teaching instances for a number of reasons.

- the feeling that the native English speaker is the 'expert' in both speaking English and as a source of knowledge of current language teaching methodology.
- confusion about the rationale underlying foreign methodologies.

- personality issues.
- role as a facilitator was generally not fully understood.
- a focus on teaching content rather than process.

5.2.2 THE AFFECTIVE CONCERN

New Zealand participants tended to show a concern with academic factors, which was especially noticeable with those teaching at the higher grades. Learning was perceived to be very much concerned with academic progress, an increase in knowledge and the ability to use and apply that knowledge. Thai participants were much more concerned with affective factors in student development and the effect of these on learning. Creating and enhancing a harmonious environment was an important element in the classroom context and the level of activity and emotional response of students was an important factor in the perceived success of lessons.

The importance Thais place on a harmonious environment is also apparent in their professional relationships with their team partner. Statements concerning a difference of opinion or disagreement over classroom operations tend not to be voiced or acted on by Thai participants, in the interests of harmony. New Zealand participants found this both bewildering and frustrating, as overt agreement concerning decisions may not indicate what courses of action will happen in practice. This relates to Niratpattanasai's (2001, see Section 2.1.2) comments regarding what is perceived as appropriate behaviour in relation to communication.

5.3 QUESTION 3

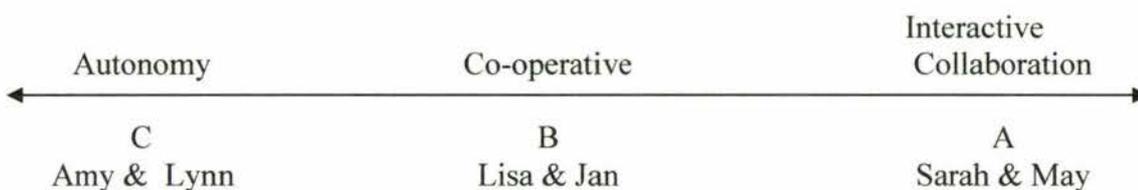
How do expectations and assumptions impact on classroom roles, relationships and teaching practices?

5.3.1 AUTONOMY OR COLLABORATION

Teams appear to develop in a number of ways, for a number of reasons. Research indicates and analysis of the cases supports the notion that participants in teams do not specifically define at the outset what their role in the team is. When there is lack of initial guidelines in defining variables such as role, either from the administration or from joint negotiation between team members themselves, participants fall back on their own ideas about what they entail.

As the Krech model (see Section 2.1.4 Figure 4) implies, teams' behaviour develops through interaction between participant, task and context variables. Consequently what teams start out as may not be what they end up as. The process of change seems to develop in an unplanned way as partners subconsciously negotiate their roles, leading to either the development of teamwork skills and practices, or to participants maintaining their own autonomy in the classroom. Variables such as time, personality, ideological beliefs, and communication, were found to influence the direction in which participants take i.e. whether they choose team solutions or individual autonomy solutions. Figure 17 illustrates how the cases have developed.

Figure 17. The Nature of the Teams



Autonomy in the classroom is characterised by teachers' individual orientation to work. Teachers undertake practices that aim to maximise time on their own, or minimise contact with their partner. These practices tend to result in team members working as individuals within the team. Research into teams in the teaching context, suggest teacher autonomy in the classroom is preferred when there are differences in personality, beliefs about role and teaching philosophy. It would seem that team members unconsciously collude in processes and practices that submerge the conflicts between them, which teaching together would bring to the fore.

In Case C, Amy and Lynn demonstrate autonomy as a solution in the face of personality, ideological differences, and difficulties in satisfactory communication, where distance and politeness has taken the place of negotiation and discussion. Attributions for perceived problems tend to be external and dispositional; as a consequence there is limited motivation to make changes to their situation.

Case A, Sarah and May have developed an interactive collaborative style as outlined by Leonard (see section 2.1.3). This case illustrates a situation where both teachers share the classroom, teaching responsibilities and workload, and both constantly interact with each other and with the students.

Co-operative teams can be seen to fall somewhere between the above two. There may not be the same degree of interaction in teaching processes that is an inherent characteristic of collaborative teams, and especially in interactive collaborative teams. Lisa and Jan (Case B) have the potential to move in either direction as their team develops. Lisa has

indicated a desire to move in a more collaborative direction; Jan is comfortable with the status quo. How this team develops further will depend on the interaction of a number of variables and how these are negotiated.

Due to contractual arrangements between New Zealand staff and the Board of trustees, and foreigners returning to New Zealand, exploring aspects of team development over a greater period of time was outside the scope of the study. This would be an important area for further research.

5.3.2 VARIABLES

A number of constructs or variables emerged from the analysis as impacting on how the teams developed: time, trust and professional respect, communication, defining terms, personality, and beliefs about teaching.

Time

The time needed for communication in planning and organisation emerged as a variable in Case C and was mentioned by both Amy and Lynn. This was not a variable mentioned in the other two cases. Participants in Cases A and B have been able to prioritise planning and organisation, and have been able to make time for it. In Case C, there may be constraints operating (e.g. Lynn's commitments to co-ordinating and organising extra classes run by the school, or translation work required by the administration) that make time very difficult to find for joint planning and organisation.

Lack of time may also be given as a reason for being unable to undertake co-operative or collaborative work. If joint planning and organisation will

potentially highlight problems in other areas (e.g. personality) then reasons (such as availability of time) will be found that discourage finding time to work together.

Trust and Respect

It takes time to develop an atmosphere of trust and mutual respect. Through taking time to communicate, and jointly plan, share and implement tasks, Sarah and May developed a positive professional and personal relationship that promotes self esteem and respect for each other. Qualities that promote this include compromise, open-mindedness, a willingness to listen, share and accept each other's ideas, and a focus on goals.

Communication

Thai participants had a good level of 'social' English, and would probably be classified as Intermediate to Advanced. However in the specific area of language relating to teaching practices and methodology, it became apparent that ability to communicate thoughts and ideas clearly, was more limited.

This difference in ability to use language equally well in different contexts, tended to contribute to miscommunication, as New Zealand participants sometimes made the erroneous assumption that their partners were equally capable in all areas, having judged ability on usage in social contexts.

As well as ability to use English language to communicate there are cultural differences in how appropriate communication is defined (see also Niratpattnasai 2001, section 2.1.2)

Lisa has commented:

“Why not communicate? Open discussion is essential ... stating one’s point of view or position is not grounds for a battle. Again communication is the key”.

Lisa is reflecting a very western approach to communication. Open discussion, and ego strength – the confidence to state one’s opinion – are values held by westerners, but are not always seen as appropriate behaviours in the hierarchical nature of Thai society. Thais are generally not comfortable in an atmosphere of ‘open discussion’ tending to perceive this kind of interaction as argument, and equating feedback with criticism (as found by Amy, section 4.3.5).

Defining Terms

Related to communication is the notion of having a common discourse in pedagogic areas as well as social. This is highlighted by the participants’ desire for commonly defined terms, a need that is also documented by others in the literature. Concepts mean very different things in theory and in practice to different people, which lead to somewhat contradictory definitions of terms such as *student-centred learning*. Participants may find it more useful to jointly construct meanings of terms, which describe or relate to their own practices in the classroom. Relying on external definitions of what terms such as *team teaching*, *student centred*, *needs based* should be, tends to be interpreted through existing beliefs. Participants’ own joint explanations of these terms could provide guidelines for co-operative practice.

Personality

Sturman (1992, p.146-147) notes

“in an ideal situation there are no problems. Both members of the team immediately find they like each other as people and respect each other as teachers.... it is obviously easier if you like each other. Unfortunately no one can guarantee that this will be the case and the least that either teacher can hope for is that they will not actively dislike the other”.

Where there are problems relating to personality, these can be minimised by focusing on goals rather than personalities, thereby helping to avoid the negative judgements that tend to be made. As Sarah (section 4.1.2) pointed out concentrating on students' needs (goals) is perceived to be more beneficial than focusing on how someone said or did something (personalities). This underlies the relevance of attribution theory (see Deaux & Wrightsman 1988, Weiner 1974, Doyle 1977) in discussing personality issues. If the tendency is to attribute difficulties in team work to personality (e.g. Lynn's attributions regarding Amy's feedback, and Amy's attributions regarding Lynn's management style), then motivation to change is limited, as it is seen as a factor outside of one's control. Team members, who attribute problems to the context or situation, are more likely to be motivated to re-appraise a problematic situation with the belief that change is within their control. This in turn is more likely to lead to positive resolutions.

Ideology

There is also the possibility that what is interpreted as personality differences, may turn out to be differences in personal philosophy about teaching. There were instances noted in classroom observations where

participants working together in a team teaching session were using teaching methods based on differing beliefs (for example, one member using a process oriented approach to teaching spelling, the other member using a content based approach). This tended to result in a degree of frustration between participants (which found voice in negative comments about personality) as well as 'mixed messages' being sent to students. These kinds of interpretations highlight the need for adequate communication.

Unfortunately further exploration in the area involving student responses regarding 'messages' received is outside the scope of the study but is an area noted for further research (see Section 6.4).

5.4 SUMMARY

This chapter has explored some of the factors indicated by participants to be key elements influencing their roles, and how their team has developed. The structure and nature of the teams were discussed and each team was seen to have developed in a different way, preferring either autonomy or collaboration or something in the middle. Expectations Thais and New Zealanders had in both approaches to teaching and roles in the classroom context were discussed. Variables of time, trust and professional respect, communication, defining terms, personality and beliefs were found to have an impact on team processes. The implications of these are outlined in chapter six.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS

6.1 THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

This study explores the notion that the relationship that develops between team partners is crucial to establishing the process of team teaching, and that the nature of the team is influenced by a number of variables.

Much of the literature regarding team teaching presents models as structural arrangements concerning the characteristics and organisation of the team members involved. This study indicates team teaching includes both a structural and an emergent component. Participants' ideas about how they define role indicates that the process of role making emerges from classroom interactions and is dependent on the relationship built by team members. This supports Thomas' notion of role as an emergent process.

Implicit in the Krech et al (1962) model of group dynamics is the notion that role is initially defined at the outset, although this was not found to be the case in this study. Role emerges from a number of variables; personality, communication, beliefs, ideology and how these interact in context. Thomas' model (see Figure 5) presents these variables as *givens*, which in effect suggests they act as constraints from which members of the team subconsciously negotiate their roles. This study found variables to be much more flexible and more loosely structured than suggested by Thomas.

6.2 METHODOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

This section summarises the research approach and design used in the study and the benefits and limitations of each.

This study found the research approach to be an important factor in exploring teachers' views about role and beliefs. Western views of Asian classes tend to rather stereotypical images of learners as 'sponges', passively soaking up information and knowledge imparted by the teacher using a prescribed text, neither of which (teacher or text) is questioned. This image suggests a fairly regimented learning and teaching environment, which is reinforced through anecdotal accounts of students under immense pressure to succeed at school. Such a description of Asian classes focuses on surface features of the learning and teaching context, but fails to explore the deeper context, and the meaning, which is attributed to actions. When one examines the context from teachers' own point of view, a different picture emerges.

Thai teachers, while adopting a predominantly skills based approach to teaching, with emphasis on the text prescribed by the Ministry of Education, were found to be very concerned with affective factors in the classroom context; more so than their New Zealand counterparts, and especially those teaching at the higher grades. Concern with students' happiness, ability to complete tasks without loss of self esteem and social relationships, structured Thai teachers' beliefs about teaching and their actions in the classroom.

These elements underlying teacher practices were not apparent from descriptive sources. They emerged through approaches aiming to explore why observed actions were carried out.

This highlights the need to consider carefully the perspective adopted in research approach, in cross-cultural studies. A *first order* perspective (see Marton 1981, section 3.3.1) describes the surface characteristics of a situation, that interpreted through western eyes may lead to incomplete judgements. It would seem that a *second order* approach may be more informative in research where culture is pertinent to the study.

Cultural factors were important in the appropriateness of the instruments, with some being found to be more useful than others. The use of the scheduled semi-guided interview was found to be very effective as a primary means of gathering data. The interview guidelines given to participants prior to the actual interview itself, allowed the situation to be more predictable, especially in the case of Thai participants. It also allowed aspects of language (that is, English is not Thai participants' first language) to be less of a barrier to gathering information than might have otherwise been the case. In conjunction with this, informal follow-up interviews were invaluable as a means of confirming and expanding data, without which analysis of data could lead to ambiguous or unbalanced results.

Indirect or informal data collecting approaches may be more useful techniques especially when carrying out research with Asian subjects. It was noted that any objections, or any comment that may have been felt by Thais to be interpreted as a negative comment, were generally made during informal interviews, rather than during the scheduled interview. This may be due to preferred use of indirect methods of communication and also the employment of face saving behaviour, an aspect noted by

many who have been involved in research with subjects from Asian countries.

Elements of face saving may also be a reason that the stimulated recalls was not as useful in all the cases as it was first anticipated. Thai participants were unused to being videoed as part of teaching practice, and although comfortable with the video session in the classroom, one participant was uncomfortable with viewing their teaching during the stimulated recall session. This may be due to the same reaction as anyone who has watched their own teaching session on video for the first time – ‘oh no, do I really do that.’ In order to minimise this reaction it would probably be worthwhile doing a ‘practice’ session for those subjects where stimulated recall is being done for the first time.

However the discomfort felt may also result from perceptions where feedback was interpreted as criticism. Since a very small number of Thai participants were involved in the study, generalisations regarding this as a data collecting instrument in this context cannot be made. However given the tendency of Thais to sometimes interpret what New Zealanders regard as feedback, as criticism, the sessions may be better undertaken individually rather than as a team.

6.3 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

One of the implications this study raises concerns the nature of professional development in providing guidelines for effective team practices. All participants noted benefits of in-service and professional development, although there were differences in what inservice was perceived to be and the direction it could take. The nature of team work evolves from relationships built by team members, which in turn arises

from beliefs, personality and communication. An explicit awareness by participants of their own beliefs about teaching, and the nature of their role is desirable in any in-service course or professional development regarding team practices. In-service that focuses on imparting knowledge by itself is unlikely to change beliefs. Lamb (1995) suggests the focus of in-service courses, where teachers already have well developed constructs about teaching, should begin with teachers' beliefs; that is focusing on making explicit teachers' own beliefs and practices, and the values they are intended to serve. Once articulated and analysed for potential contradictions with each other, the teaching/learning context and the beliefs of their team partner, then teachers will be "able to accommodate new ideas, appreciate the theory underlying them, understand their practical realisation and evaluate their usefulness" (Lamb 1995, p. 79).

Given the lack of readily available in-service that is felt to be relevant by Thai staff, and accessible by New Zealand staff, a more active role by participants could be undertaken in initiating their own joint professional development. This kind of professional development could incorporate elements of *collaborative action research* (e.g. Hopkins 1993) involving reflection on teaching practices and activities. While McCook (1998) found some limitations using a reflective approach to teacher education with Vietnamese teachers, there is the advantage that the focus of development is context specific to both individuals concerned, and allied to their own classroom concerns and team practices.

The results of this study point to the significance of affect in Thai and New Zealand team teaching relationships. As indicated in the study building a professional relationship, mutual trust and respect takes time. Haworth (1996, p.117) points out that conflict can arise when there is the

need to make changes to practices which may have been regarded as successful in the home culture. While Haworth is commenting on teaching practices this notion also applies to general behaviour in both professional and personal relationships.

While the institution perceives foreign input into teaching methodology as desirable, foreign staff need to be aware that these practices are set in the Thai context and adapted to Thai values and beliefs. As the study found both Thai and New Zealand participants' actions are a reflection of their beliefs and there is the potential for these to be quite different from each others' viewpoints. Where there are major differences e.g. the nature of communication and the emphasis given to affective or pedagogic factors, surface variations may be noted but deeper beliefs may go either unobserved or be misinterpreted. Consequently, awareness of others' beliefs would be an initial precursor to undertaking teaching roles within a different culture. Awareness raising activities are therefore seen to be a necessary part of professional development.

In learning to be aware of differences in the nature of communication, how feedback may be interpreted, and the importance of maintaining relationships, New Zealanders may need to make changes to practices which would be considered acceptable in their own country. In collaboratively defining and undertaking a joint task, and being open to the needs and requirements of partners, shared understandings of different ways of viewing the world can develop which in turn can promote a positive professional and personal relationship.

6.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

As this was an exploratory study involving a small number of cases further research is needed in the primary level, cross-cultural context, regarding the variables influencing team development, their inter-relationship, and how changes in one influence the others. The small number of cases making up this study does not allow generalisations to be drawn; a greater number of cases could be used to expand and confirm the findings from this study.

The development of teams could also be investigated over a greater period of time than this study covered, to explore how teams may change and develop. This would be especially important considering Armstrong's claim that three years is necessary for development of, and facility with team practices, and in the light of participants finding more time was needed to develop this than originally anticipated.

While variables such as age, gender, length and previous teaching experience were not explored in this study, for reasons of confidentiality; this is a useful avenue for further research. Given the hierarchical nature of Thai culture, where age *per se* is worthy of respect, these variables must have an impact on how role develops in teams. Further research in this area could explore the extent to which these variables impact on role expectations and development.

Inquiry into student perceptions and the student/teacher roles in the team teaching context were outside the scope of the study. It is an area in need of research especially in the context in which this study is situated. Students at this school are exposed to student/teacher and teacher/teacher roles and beliefs that would fall outside the norm of Thai state schools.

The impact of student perceptions on team teaching roles and beliefs about teaching and learning involving Thai and New Zealand teachers would add to the understanding of team teaching processes.

6.5 SUMMARY

This chapter has outlined theoretical and methodological implications of the findings from the study and a number of areas for future research were noted. The context in which the study was situated was seen to be of critical importance, as was the research perspective and instruments used for collecting data. Further research in the areas noted would also add to the understanding of team teaching, and how it emerges and evolves in classroom practice.



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CONSENT FORM

I have read the Information Sheet and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

I understand I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time and to decline to answer any particular questions.

I agree to provide information to the researcher on the understanding that my real name will not be used.

(The information provided will only be used for this research).

I agree/do not agree to the interview being audio taped.

I agree/do not agree to the classroom observation being audio taped

I agree/do not agree to the classroom observation being video taped

I also understand that I have the right to ask for the audio/video tape to be turned off at any time during the interview or classroom observation.

I agree to participate in the study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

Signed:

Name:

Date:



APPENDIX 2. BIODATA QUESTIONNAIRE***Questionnaire***
Background Information

Please fill in and return to Lucy

Name/Pseudonym _____ *Age* _____

Teaching Qualification _____

Other Qualifications _____

Where did you complete your teacher training? _____

Date of graduation? _____

How many years was your teacher training course? _____

When did you start at this school? _____

Have you previously taught in a bilingual school or in a similar context?

If yes, can you briefly describe the school and work you did?

What are the main differences and/or similarities you see between teaching at this school and teaching in a Thai state school, or in a NZ state/mainstream school?

APPENDIX 3. GUIDELINES FOR THE INITIAL SCHEDULED INTERVIEW

Interview questions

Guidelines for the initial interview

1. Beliefs about teaching

How do you see your role in the classroom? How would this be apparent to a visitor? Have any shifts occurred in your perception of your role?

How do you see your partner's role? Have any shifts occurred in your perception of your partner's role?

What is effective teaching? How would you recognise effective teaching?

What is learning? How can you know if learning is taking place?

What are the qualities of a good teacher?

What do you see as your partner's particular strengths? How do you draw on these strengths? What are your strengths?

What kinds of students do best in your class?

What roles are students expected to assume in your class?

2. Beliefs about the programme and the curriculum

What do you think are the most important elements in an effective language teaching programme?

How do you decide what you will teach?

Can you tell me about 2 – 3 lessons or activities you have used that worked well for you? Describe what you do. What makes it work well?

Tell me about how you plan a lesson. What decisions do you need to make? What decisions are made jointly or separately? What is your role and input into assessment?

How do you monitor and evaluate how things went? When do you do this?

How do your evaluations feed back into the next lesson?

What constraints do you see in the planning process?

What changes would you like to see in your programme?

What advantages do you see in team teaching?

- for the teacher
- for the learner
- for learning language

Do you see any disadvantages?

How would your teaching practice be different in each of the following situations?

	Monolingual Situation	Bilingual Situation
Sole Teacher		
Team Teacher		

3. General

What is the most rewarding aspect of teaching for you?

When new staff arrive at the school what do you think would be important for them to know? What would you tell them?

Foreign participants: How much of a constraint do you see limited access to both language codes (i.e. English and Thai)? Can you elaborate on this idea? How does this impact on your classroom relationships?

Thai participants: How does your partner's limited Thai impact on classroom relationships? How would you do things differently if you had a bilingual English/Thai teaching partner?

Part 2. Rank these statements on how important you think each one is. Give each one a number from 1 to 16, where 1 is most important and 16 is least important.

Your job in the classroom primarily involves:

1. Planning and structuring learning activities.
2. Providing a model of correct language use.
3. Answering students' questions.
4. Correcting students' errors.
5. Passing on knowledge and skills to students.
6. Adapting teaching approaches to match student needs.
7. Helping students discover effective approaches to learning.
8. Covering curriculum requirements.
9. Helping students to communicate (ignoring oral errors as long as you can understand what they are trying to say).
10. Providing feedback to students (telling them when they are successful, or in not why not).
11. Motivating students to keep them interested in the task.
12. Promoting student co-operation when working on group tasks.
13. Helping students understand the grammatical features/rules of language
14. Evaluating and/or testing.
15. Encouraging students to make decisions about what they are to learn and how they learn it.
16. Organising and managing student behaviour.

Part 3. *Team teachers in other schools and situations
have made these statements.*

*Read each one and decide how closely they reflect your
experiences of team teaching. Write about how close or far
your views are to each statement.*

I wish there were more guidelines and information available about team teaching. Sometimes I am not sure what I should be doing.

There is not enough time to discuss lessons, planning and evaluation together, on a regular basis.

There are problems with knowledge and ability to use each other's language. It sometimes makes communication and the ability to change things difficult.

My teaching partner has very set ideas about how things should be done, and does not accept my style of doing things. Sometimes I feel my ideas are not valued.

I'm not always sure if my teaching partner agrees or disagrees with me.

When we are planning or talking about our teaching I am not sure about whether my partner has made a decision or not. I am not always clear when decisions have been made.

Team teaching is a good way to get ideas. You don't really need in-service or professional development courses, because you can watch your team teaching partner and learn from them.

Appropriate administration and managerial factors are as important as general classroom pedagogical factors, in successful team teaching.

In the bilingual context, students learn subject concepts at the same time they are learning English because English is the medium of instruction. The best way to team teach in this situation is for the native speaker to take the leading teaching role and their partner to translate what is said.

A team teaching relationship in which partners share equal roles is an unrealistic expectation.

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