A Case study of Team teaching and Team teachers
in Korean primary schools

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DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is entirely my own work and that it has not been submitted elsewhere for any other degree or professional qualification.

Jaeyeon Heo
ABSTRACT

Team teaching has become widespread in Korean EFL classrooms through the nationwide implementation of the EPIK scheme, the government-sponsored ELT programme. Despite an ongoing process of policy changes in the EPIK scheme and English education, there has been little empirical research with a focus on team teachers and a lack of empirical data regarding classroom interaction where there is a ‘two teachers in one class’ model and this has not helped in the development of understanding or supporting team teaching.

This thesis reports on a case study in relation to the team teaching practised by four pairs of team teachers in four different South Korean primary schools. It provides a sophisticated data-led understanding of team teaching implementation and insights into its complexity through descriptive, narrative, reflective and discursive approaches to representation of the data. The full range of diverse interactions between team teachers makes it possible to explore the complex features of team teaching classrooms and to understand the multifaceted nature of the team-teaching relationships. In particular, the emphasis is put on the actual classroom discourse spoken by the team teachers, which fills gaps methodologically in terms of developing understanding of classroom interaction with a two-teachers-one-class model. The four pairs of team teachers have varying team teaching styles with different levels of collaboration and experiences in their contexts. The distinctive characteristics of their interactional relationships are documented through six themes: delivering collaborative presentation in team instruction; taking charge of different skills and content roles; using L1 and L2; providing complementary support; making decisions and intervention; and partnership talk. In addition, the interactional relationship between team teachers has multidimensional features in terms of power, equality, complementarity, interdependence, and collaboration in contrived collegiality. In addition, the key factors underlying their interactional relationships are identified as professional (personal), pedagogic (team), and interpersonal factors.
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ALT = Assistant Language Teacher (Japan)
AET = Assistant English Teacher (Japan)
CLAIR = Council of Local Authorities for International Relations (Japan)
CLT = Communicative Language Teaching
EFL = English as a Foreign Language
ELT = English Language Teaching
EPIK = English Program in Korea (Korea)
FETIT = Foreign English Teachers in Taiwan project (Taiwan)
GET = Guest English Teacher (Korea)
INSET = In-service Training
JET = Japan Exchange and Teaching Program (Japan)
JTE = Japanese Teacher of English (Japanese local English teacher)
KET = Korean English Teacher
KNEC = Korean National Education Curriculum
LET = Local English Teacher (Teachers in EFL contexts)
MEST = Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (Korea)
NET = Native English Teacher
NET = Native-speaking English teachers scheme (Hong Kong)
NIIED = National Institute for International Education Development (Korea)
NNET = Non-Native English Teacher
POE = Provincial (Metropolitan) Offices of Education
SMOE = Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education (Korea)
TETE = Teaching English Through English
CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Along with rapid globalization and the emergence of English as an international language, English language teaching in East Asian countries has gone through many changes, challenges and paradigm shifts in terms of educational policy over the last two decades (Jeon 2009; Jeon & Lee 2006; Nunan 2003). For instance, in several East Asian countries such as Hong Kong, Japan, Korea and Taiwan, team teaching practices have become widespread in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) classrooms, where native and local English teachers work together. As a result, great attention has been paid to the importation of foreign teachers from English-speaking countries. Korea is not an exception in this trend, as it also has been experiencing dynamic changes in English education such as the EPIK (English Programme in Korea) scheme. Indeed, in Korean ELT, team teaching between a KET (Korean English teacher) and a NET (native English speaking teacher) has been implemented mainly through EPIK since 1995. In light of this trend for foreign teachers of English in Korean schools and the use of team teaching on the EPIK scheme, the present study aims at understanding the team teaching implemented by KETs and NETs in Korean primary schools and at exploring team teachers’ interaction and relationship within this context.

In this chapter, I shall present my motivation for the study, the research background and aims, the research focus and research questions, a brief outline of the research context and an overview of each chapter in this thesis.
1.1 My motivation for the study

My own interest in this study has come from my personal experiences of the following: 1) being a team teacher in the academic institute where I previously worked; 2) providing support for a new NET who was preparing for involvement in the EPIK scheme; and 3) being a doctoral student in the Centre for Applied Linguistics (CAL) at the University of Warwick. These experiences and their roles in developing my interest in the study are detailed below.

While working in a private language institute in Korea in 1995, I was involved in the recruitment of native English speaking teachers (henceforth NETs), supporting them and team teaching with them for over two years. At that time, it was a relatively rare, unfamiliar, and sometimes controversial approach in which English was taught with a NET in the same classroom. Even though at that time team teaching with NETs was considered an innovative and up-to-date method in a Korean ELT context, there were manifold problems in co-working with NETs. As a Korean team teacher, one of the most challenging issues I faced was that I did not have any clear ideas about co-working or team teaching with someone who I had never met before and, in particular, with someone who had to communicate in English all the time. In addition, most of the NETs who I worked with at that time were neither fully qualified nor skilful as English teachers. As a result, my institute ceased recruiting NETs almost two and half years later and I found several institutes had had similar difficulties or had experienced failures in recruiting, co-working, and team teaching with NETs in their own contexts. Since then, I have not had any opportunity to work with NETs in both public and private sectors. Even though I had negative memories of my first experience of team teaching, a transitional stage
which weakened this negative impression occurred as a result of the following experience. While doing my Master’s course in 2007 at the University of Bristol in the UK, I met a British man who planned to get married with my close Korean friend, and who was applying for a position as an English teacher on the EPIK scheme. As a former Korean English teacher, I introduced him to basic information such as the educational system, curriculum, cultural issues and current affairs (e.g. North-South problems, presidential election, oil spill in the western sea) and taught survival Korean language to him over seven months. In particular, I focused on some challenges that NETs had commonly experienced from my previous experience: the hierarchical culture in Korean schools, school regulations, expected attitude to Korean colleagues, polite expressions and behaviours, and possible problems or misunderstandings arising as a result of cultural differences. After this, he left for Korea and since 2008 he has been satisfied with living in Korea, and teaching students in schools as a NET. His interesting experience of the process he went through to become a NET as well as his actual experiences of being a NET in Korea aroused my curiosity.

Finally, an important trigger for my interest in this research focus was my experience as a learner and observer when I attended several modules conducted and organised by two tutors in the Centre for Applied Linguistics (CAL) at the University of Warwick. While participating in each session, I witnessed and experienced exactly how co-teaching could take place harmoniously and effectively between two tutors. The modules implemented by the two tutors stimulated me to generate a more positive regard for team teaching and inspired me with potential sources of good team teaching practice which could be applied to my own
educational context. More specifically, I was attracted by different co-teaching styles in terms of team formation, roles, dynamics, and flexible and balanced interactions.

Hence, my motivation for the study was woven from three different stories that took place in three different contexts. Even though each context for the stories I had experienced was different when compared to the contexts in which team teaching is currently being implemented in Korea, they came together to form the root of my motivation for this study.

1.2 Research background and aim

Along with the nationwide implementation of the EPIK scheme, team teaching practice has been common in Korean EFL classrooms, particularly in primary and secondary schools due to a ‘one native English speaking teacher per school policy’ (Jeon & Lee 2006). As a result of its prominence and its importance for English language education in Korea, a diversity of issues related to EPIK have been raised and discussed by many scholars, policy makers and Korean English teachers (henceforth KETs). More specifically, there has been ongoing debate as to the effectiveness of EPIK and the applicability of NET-KET collaboration in Korean EFL contexts (Hartman 2011; SBS news 2011; Segye Daily Newspaper 2009; The Korea Herald 2011; YTN news 2011). A number of studies have tended to mainly focus on the evaluation of EPIK, the effectiveness of co-teaching and suggestions for EPIK (Kim & Ko 2008; Kim 2007; Lee 2007; Min 2006; Park 2006). In addition, students as research participants have been the centre of most of the studies in terms of their experience, preference, perception, interaction with teachers, and learning
effectiveness. Even though the findings and discussions from previous research have provided a general understanding of EPIK and have raised some issues for consideration in terms of the innovation of EPIK, such studies have neglected to explore the most vital factor of EPIK, an in-depth understanding of team teachers (KETs and NETs). The majority of researchers have pointed out that deploying NETs has not only had some positive effects on the Korean EFL classrooms but has also created many issues and problems (Park 2008). In particular, previous studies on the EPIK scheme or team teaching with NETs have reported on problematic issues such as conflicts or tensions caused by miscommunication and cultural differences between KETs and NETs (Carless 2006c; Choi 2001; Jeon & Lee 2006; Kim & Ko 2008; Kim 2007; Lee 2007; Min 2006; Park 2008; Roh 2006). However, little attention has been given to gaining an insight into the dynamic issues associated with team teachers such as teaching practices, interactions, relationships, or collaboration in classrooms. In addition, a number of studies were primarily based on large scale surveys, questionnaires or one-off interviews. This might not be enough to use only statistical analysis of quantitative data from NETs and KETs to explore what really happens to KETs and NETs in their given contexts. Needless to say, it would be impossible to expect any innovative progress in team teaching in Korean EFL classrooms without a rich and thorough understanding of KETs and NETs and their team teaching implementation. Therefore, I investigated the team teaching conducted by KETs and NETs in Korean primary schools as well as delved deeper into the dynamics of team teachers in these contexts. In particular, the interaction and relationship between KETs and NETs in the form of team teaching in given contexts were focused on. I carried out an in-depth investigation of their personal
motivations, experiences, partnerships or conflicts, and the evolution of their team
teaching processes in their interactional relationships.

Thus, the central aim of this study is to understand the dynamics of team
teaching in Korean EFL classrooms with a focus on team teachers’ interactions and
relationships in their particular contexts.

1.3 Research focus and research questions

From my perspective and experience as a team teacher, supporter, and learner as
mentioned in Section 1.1, I have wondered how team teachers implement team
teaching in their classrooms at present and have questioned what leads to their
successful or effective team teaching in different contexts. More specifically, I have
long been interested in the dynamics between two team teachers working together
in one classroom and their personal and professional development in their team
teaching process through learning from each other. For the study, the initial
research focus was on 1) team teaching implementation by team teachers; 2) team
teachers’ relationships in their context; 3) the factors affecting the collaborative
implementation of their team teaching; 4) the changes, development or learning
that occurs through their team teaching process. Based on the research focus and
aim above, research questions were designed as follows:

1. How do team teachers implement their team teaching in Korean primary schools?
2. What is the nature of the relationships developed by team teachers?
3. What are the factors that influence the development of collaborative
   relationships between team members?
4. To what extent does team teaching contribute to the professional learning of team teachers when they co-work in English classrooms in Korean primary schools?

5. What are the factors that influence the professional learning of team teachers in the context of team teaching in Korean primary schools?

However, this initial research focus was slightly altered, changing from a focus on the professional learning of team teachers to a focus on the reflexive relationship between their interactions and their relationships. As a consequence of this shift in focus, the research questions were refined to reflect the new focus during the preliminary work and piloting that were carried out in this study. While exploring actual research contexts, my understanding of the research contexts accumulated and I became more interested in the dynamic relationships through diverse interactions between team teachers from divergent team teaching contexts. In addition, the data generated from preliminary work and piloting revealed quite limited, minor, and predictable factors related to professional learning from each team teacher, in particular, the professional development which should be examined as long-term effect through a more longitudinal approach. This issue will be discussed more in Section 4.3.3. Therefore, my revised research questions are as follows:

1. How do team teachers implement their team teaching in Korean primary schools and how do team teachers experience team teaching in these contexts?

2. What is the nature of the interactional relationships between team teachers?

3. What are the factors that underlie the nature of the interactional relationships between team teachers?
1.4 Brief outline of research context

This study was based on the EPIK scheme, the government-funded project which was launched in 1995. However, its nationwide implementation has been activated more systematically since 2007 (EPIK 2010). My participants were mainly KETs and NETs who were assigned to conduct team-taught lessons in Korean primary schools on a regular basis in the 2010 school year. In addition, there were other participants for the preliminary work: Korean instructors and native English speaking instructors of the onsite orientation programme in NIIED (National Institute for International Education and Development), principals, senior KETs, KETs and NETs with team teaching experience in Korean primary schools, and new NETs participating in the onsite orientation. More detailed descriptions of participants and contextual conditions will be presented in Chapter Four.

1.5 Chapter overview

In this first chapter, I have presented my motivation for conducting the study, the research background and aims, the research focus and the research questions. Chapter Two will provide the background to the study by introducing the Korean context related to the change of English educational policy in public schools, in particular, primary English education in Korea and the EPIK scheme. Chapter Three will present my theoretical background and the literature on teacher collaboration and team teaching; it will also introduce the contexts and the practice of similar schemes in other East Asian countries and examine previous studies on team teaching. In addition, there will be discussion on research dilemmas, classroom interaction, interpersonal relationship and team learning. Chapter Four will present
the research design for data collection and data analysis, followed by Chapter Five which will provide an overview of team teachers in each case, their distinctive characteristics of team teaching implementation, teaching contexts and their team teaching experiences. Based on the exploration of each team teaching case, Chapter Six will analyse and discuss the nature of the interactional relationship between team teachers and the key factors underlying their interactional relationship will be investigated in Chapter Seven. In Chapter Eight, I will summarise my research findings, discuss the contributions and reflect on the whole process presented in this thesis through practical implications, limitations and recommendations.
CHAPTER TWO

The Korean context

This chapter will address the contextual background to the study by introducing the environment of English education and the EPIK scheme in Korea. I will summarise the changes in English educational policy and curriculum, focusing on primary English education and an overview of the EPIK scheme.

2.1 English Education in Korea

Is 20 million won ($17,000) a year in tuition for a child attending an English-language preschool reasonable? It sounds pretty expensive, but such kindergartens are thriving here, capitalizing on the frenzy of ambitious Korean parents to get their children an English education at an earlier age (Kang 2010).

According to a report by the Samsung Economic Research Institute (SERI), Koreans spend about 15 trillion won ($15.8 billion) on English learning per year. Koreans also topped the applicant list of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) between 2004 and 2005 as about 102,340 out of the 554,942 applicants were Koreans (Kim 2008).

These excerpts from newspapers given above clearly demonstrate an ‘English fever’ among Koreans. Since the inception of official English education in Korea 120 years ago, English education has experienced the dramatic growth and it now seems to be the case that ‘English is the life-line’ (Shim 2008: 107) in Korea. There is no exaggeration in the ways that the appetite for English in Korean society has been expressed in the media; example headlines include the following: ‘Korean peninsula is overwhelmed by a zest for English’ (Jeong 2004); ‘English frenzy grips Koreans’
An article (Business Week Online 2001 cited in Shim 2008: 107) describes the concept of the ‘English divide’, which is as follows:

- how the ability to speak English divides the wealthy and the poor in Europe;
- how crucial it is for anyone looking for a good job to speak English;
- how the power to take control can shift from the parents to the children in a family because of the ability to speak English.

In fact, Korean society is not an exception in terms of the ‘English divide’ mentioned above. Kim (2002 cited in Shim ibid.) argues that English proficiency is a barometer of ‘social caste’ in Korea, which means that competence in English is a critical factor in determining an individual’s social, economic, cultural and political position or class in a society. Such a societal value reflected in English education has led to the Korean ‘goose family’ phenomena shown in the following excerpt.

An estimated 200,000 middle class families are sending their pre-college children overseas to be educated in Western countries; most often New Zealand, Australia, the U.S., Canada, and the U.K. ... but today, early study abroad is widespread among middle class families: the children, often accompanied by their mothers, attend public schools in English speaking countries, while the fathers remain in Korea to support them. These families are known as ‘kirogi kajok’ in Korean, or ‘goose families’. The ‘goose’ refers to the seasonal visits reuniting the separated families – the way geese migrate each year. This arrangement has become so widespread that in 2004, the phrase ‘goose family’ was added to the Korean dictionary!

(Chow 2012)

Despite the enormous financial, emotional, and cultural strain felt by families that are separated, these parents believe sending their children abroad at a young age will give them an opportunity to master English and a mark of high status which influences everything from university acceptances, jobs, and even marriage prospects (Chow ibid.). Even though Korean society remains highly monolingual,
Koreans place great importance on English and English is seen as an important key to success and upward social mobility (Jeon 2009). As a result, the ever-increasing significance of English has had a great impact on all of the domains of English education, including private sectors and testing service markets (e.g. TOFEL, TOEIC, GRE). As a response to the ever-increasing importance of English and to counteract the high expenditure on English education, the Korean government has proposed and implemented various English language policies over the last few decades.

2.2 Educational policy for the subject of English

English was the first and the only foreign language assigned as a compulsory subject for students in the 7th grade in the second revision of the Korean National Education Curriculum (KNEC) (1964-1974). At that time, the importance of English language education was not either fully appreciated or widely accepted by Korean people. However, two major factors contributed to the later ‘English fever’ (Jeong 2004: 40) phenomenon in Korea. First, the rapid development of Korea into an industrialised nation and related increases in trade with other countries made the Koreans realise the critical place of English language competence in achieving success in the globalised world. Second, the hosting of international events such as the 1986 Seoul Asian Games and the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games highlighted the importance of English communicative competence (Shim & Baik 2003: 235). Through these international exposures, English has gained increasing significance in Korea which led the Korean government to announce ‘세계화’ (‘segyehwa’ globalization in Korean) (Jeon 2009; Yim 2007). As part of a strong drive towards globalisation in education, the Communicative Language Teaching approach was
introduced in the 6th Korean National Education Curriculum (henceforth KNEC) for English in 1995. As a result, it was considered appropriate that the English curriculum needed changing from a grammar-translation approach to a communicative approach, focusing on listening, speaking, and living English for daily life (Kam 2003: 11). The emphasis on communicative competence has been continued and is present in the 7th revision of the KNEC (Kwon 2003; Shim & Baik 2003). In 2005, the Korean Ministry of Education and Human Resources and Development announced a ‘Five Year Plan for English Education Revitalization’ to place NETs at every junior high school by 2010 and to promote a ‘one native English speaking teacher per school policy’ (Jeon 2009: 235). In addition, the new governmental administration inaugurated in 2008 announced a new proposal to strengthen English education in public schools. For example, the government planned a huge investment for several specific actions: 1.7 billion dollars to hire 23,000 new English teachers who are qualified to practice ‘Teaching English Through English’ (TETE), 340 million dollars to provide schools in farming and fishing communities with teacher helpers to be hired from a pool of college students, housewives, local residents and overseas residents who are competent in English, and 230 million dollars to hire, train and deploy native speaking teacher helpers in schools located in remote areas (Shim 2008: 106). In this proposal, there were important actions and policies affecting English education in the Korean primary school context. The following section will focus more on primary English education with regard to the changes in curriculum and policy, and its current status.
2.3 Primary English education in Korea

English teaching was introduced to Korean primary schools for the first time in 1995 as an extra-curricular subject for students above the 3rd grade (aged ten). It then became a compulsory subject for students from grade three to six in 1997, which was four years earlier than the previous educational policy of starting English classes in the first grade of junior high school (Jung & Norton 2002; Park 2004). According to the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST 2009), the purpose of the English curriculum in Korean primary school is ‘to increase students’ interest in English and foster their basic ability to understand English and express themselves in English’; more specifically, the goals are 1) to acquire interest in English; 2) to build confidence in the basic use of English; 3) to build a foundation for basic communication in English in everyday life; 4) to understand foreign customers and cultures through English education. In addition, the Korean government commissioned the writing of textbooks appropriate for Korean classes. An official textbook was introduced to the 3rd and 4th grades in 2001, containing a variety of learning activities and tasks aimed at achieving communicative competence with an emphasis on developing oral and aural skills in English (KNEC). However, the problem that primary school teachers were confronted with was they did not receive English language teacher training during their college studies before 1997. Consequently, they felt more pressure to take charge of teaching English in their schools. Moreover, the introduction of the policy of ‘Teaching English Through English’ (TETE) has recommended that non-native primary teachers use English as a medium of instruction in the classroom (Kang 2008; Shin 2012). Still, a majority of Korean teachers in primary schools were not fully prepared for English instruction
in English. In particular, this recommendation proposed by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (henceforth MEST) frustrated a majority of local English teachers, since few had the proficiency to meet the demand. In its continued effort and the changes it made to facilitate English education, in May of 2005, MEST announced a ‘Five Year Plan for English Education Revitalization’: facilitating students’ English communication ability, strengthening teachers’ English ability and constructing an infrastructure of English education. More specifically, they planned to place a professional conversation instructor in every primary school by 2012, expand English Only Classrooms to all schools by 2011 and promote a ‘one NET per school policy’ at primary and secondary school levels (Jeon & Lee 2006). In this context, the EPIK scheme has been enhanced since 2007 and has had a more significant impact on English classrooms where KETs and NETs work together due to its nationwide implementation.

In the next section, the introduction of the EPIK scheme will be presented, and will cover its contextual background and current status, and an ongoing process of policy changes in EPIK and primary English education.

2.4 The EPIK (English Programme in Korea) scheme

As mentioned earlier, team teaching in Korean EFL classrooms has been mostly based on the EPIK scheme. EPIK (English Programme in Korea), a NET recruitment scheme, is a government-funded project to recruit NETs to teach in Korean primary and secondary schools in collaboration with KETs. It is co-sponsored by MEST and the 17 Korean Provincial (Metropolitan) Offices of Education (POE). In this section, the EPIK scheme will be introduced in terms of its history, rationale, and
organisation, followed by information on NET recruitment including job description, qualification requirements, duties, and training programmes.

2.4.1 Introduction of EPIK

EPIK was launched in 1995 with the following missions: ‘Reinforcing Foreign Language Education’ and ‘Reinforcing Globalisation Education’; these were promoted as education reformation tasks (EPIK 2011). In 1995, this project started with 54 NETs from six countries including Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States of America. In spite of a short-term stagnation during and after the period of economic crisis and IMF involvement in the late 1990s, EPIK has been systematically implemented to date. Since 2007, the National Institute for International Education and Development (henceforth NIIED), an institute under MEST, has operated EPIK, organising recruitment of NETs and training programmes for KETs and NETs. According to NIIED, EPIK has pursued six missions:

- to foster primary and secondary students’ English communication ability in the age of information and globalization;
- to provide English conversation training to public English teachers;
- to develop English textbooks and teaching materials;
- to improve and expand English teaching methodologies;
- to encourage cultural awareness between Koreans and GET¹ (Guest English Teachers),
- to enhance Korea’s image abroad (EPIK 2011).

¹ NIIED call a NET a Guest English Teacher (GET) in EPIK.
In addition, NIIED addresses several advantages of being a NET in Korea: job security as a government employee, paid vacation, more prestige for teaching experience and career, and more opportunities to experience Korea.

(1) Organisation

As shown in Figure 2.1, EPIK has been largely operated by NIIED with the cooperation of 20 Korean embassies, consulates and 17 Provincial Offices of Education (POE) to recruit NETs. NIIED has advertised and promoted the EPIK scheme all over the world, in particular in English speaking countries through online and off-line methods, screened new applicants through an application process, selected them according to required documents and through conducting interviews, assigned them to 17 POE according to their preferred working area, and organised several training programmes (e.g. online pre-orientation, main onsite orientation, additional orientation, in-service training, Korean teachers’ training and reunion).

Figure 2.1  Organisation (EPIK 2013)
NIIED provides specific information regarding EPIK applicants such as eligibility, salary and benefits, duties, and teaching conditions.

1) Eligibility

There are six main requirements for working as a NET in the EPIK scheme: 1) EPIK applicants should be a citizen where English is the primary language and must have studied from the 7th grade (junior high school) in one of the following countries: Australia, Canada, Ireland, South Africa, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, and the United States of America; 2) they should hold a minimum of a Bachelor’s degree from accredited universities; 3) they should be a maximum of 62 years of age; 4) they should be mentally and physically healthy; 5) they should have a good command of the English language and 6) they should have the ability and willingness to adapt to Korean culture and lifestyle.

2) Duties

According to EPIK, there are some general outlines of EPIK teachers’ duties which are more comprehensively carried out under the guidance of the host Provincial Office of Education (POE). The general duties stipulated are as follows:

- to conduct English conversation classes for Korean teachers and students;
- to prepare teaching materials for English language education;
- to assist in developing teaching materials for English language education;
- to assist with activities related to English language education and other extracurricular activities;
- to demonstrate a good command of the English language, both written and spoken;
- to assist Korean teachers with their English classes and/or jointly conduct English classes;
• to perform other duties as specified by the host POE.

In addition, during vacation, the EPIK teachers may be required to teach on some programs such as an English camp, or their school may prefer for them to work on lesson materials and curricular for the next semester.

3) Salary and Benefits

According to five levels based on their educational background and teaching experience in Figure 2.2, a different monthly pay scale is given to NETs. Moreover, the benefits are equally applied to all of the NETs, such as a one-off settlement allowance, free furnished housing, severance pay, renewal allowance, and compulsory medical insurance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Requirements</th>
<th>Monthly Pay (million KRW)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Metropolitan City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1+</td>
<td>After 2 consecutive years as the level 1 with the renewing Provincial Office of Education (POE)</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2 years of teaching experience with one of the following:</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Master’s degree</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Teacher’s/TEFL/TESOL/CELTA (100+hours) Certificate</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Bachelor’s degree in Education English Language/Literature, Linguistics or Creative writing</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Contract renewal as Level 2+within the same POE</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2+</td>
<td>Master’s degree in any discipline, with Bachelor’s in Education, English Language/Literature or Linguistics</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Master’s degree in Education, English Language/Literature or Linguistics</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Masters degree in any discipline</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Teacher’s/TEFL/TESOL/CELTA(100+hours) Certificate</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Bachelor’s degree in Education, English Language/Literature, linguistics or Creative writing</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Contract renewal as Level 2+within the same POE</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• 1 Year of experience as a scholar with the TALK Program</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Teacher’s/TEFL/TESOL/CELTA (100+hours) Certificate</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bachelor’s degree in Education or English Language/Literature, linguistics or Creative writing</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• One year full time teaching experience with Bachelor’s degree in any discipline</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Master’s degree in any discipline</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• At least 1 year TaK Scholar experience**</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Bachelor’s degree in any discipline</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2.2 Pay Scale (EPIK 2013)
4) Teaching conditions

NIIED gives guidance to new NETs by providing general information about class hours, the average number of students in class, the educational system and school-age, and vacation in a Korean context. In addition, outlines are given on the roles and responsibilities of KETs and NETs: while the licensed KETs or the Korean co-teachers are responsible for consulting, directing and cooperating with classwork, or life in or around school or at home for a NET, the NET should teach students by collaborating with a Korean co-teacher. As for NETs, total instructional hours do not exceed 22 hours per week and their employment period is one year (52 weeks).

(3) Regions

NETs are assigned to 17 provinces including eight Metropolitan cities shown in Figure 2.3. Each province has the different number of NETs that are needed in their schools so NIIED controls the number of NETs assigned in each province, even though NETs mark the preferred province where they want to work when they submitted their application form.

Figure 2.3 Provinces (NIIED 2013)
(4) Main onsite orientation

The orientation training programme was enhanced in 2008 and has been organised by NIIED. New NETs who start teaching English from March 1st (the 1st semester) or September 1st (the 2nd semester) should participate in the orientation training programme organised by NIIED, which usually takes place twice a year about 10 days at the end of February or in August. This training programme is designed for new NETs to understand Korean culture, life, and language, to share useful teaching methods, resources, and classroom management ideas, to examine Korean curriculum and Korean school textbooks and find the most effective ways to teach, and to improve teaching skills through lesson planning or presentation. Figure 2.4 presents a sample of a main onsite orientation programme for new NETs.

![Sample of Onsite Orientation Programme](image)

Figure 2.4 Sample of Onsite Orientation Programme (NIIED 2013)
The detailed information of this training programme will be presented in the preliminary work in this study.

The next section will illustrate the current status in relation to the deployment of NETs in Korean EFL classrooms and the implementation of EPIK described so far.

2.4.2 Current status

In this section, the current status derived from the national reports which MEST carried out in 2009 and 2010 will be presented in terms of the current progress of EPIK, team teaching implemented in Korean EFL classrooms and some issues being discussed by MEST. In addition, I will update some changes in EPIK and primary English education.

According to Kim and Park (2010), the total number of NETs working in Korean primary and secondary schools in 16 provinces$^2$ was 8,546 and the total number of schools where NETs were assigned was 9,186 in 2010 (in some cases, a NET worked in a couple of schools due to the small scale of the classes of schools in remote areas). As shown in Figure 2.5, 81.7 percent of public schools in Korea had at least one NET in their schools.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Provinces</th>
<th>Number of schools (A)</th>
<th>Number of Schools where NETs assigned</th>
<th>Rate of schools having a NET(B/A*100)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>Junior high school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seoul</td>
<td>1,274</td>
<td>587</td>
<td>373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Busan</td>
<td>611</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daegu</td>
<td>428</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^2$ This national report was based on 16 provinces in 2010, excluding Sejong which became a new metropolitan city in 2012.
In addition, it was reported that the total number of new NETs trained and allocated to schools through NIIED was total 1,714 in 2009, total 2,008 in 2010, total 3,193 in 2011, and total 3,477 in 2012 (NIIED 2013). Compared to the number of NETs working in schools in 2009, more NETs were recruited and allocated to Korean schools each year until 2012.

Along with a significant increase in the number of NETs in Korean public schools since 2007, the roles and responsibilities of NETs and the professional development for KETs have been discussed in a variety of aspects. EPIK (2010) summarises the roles of a NET in collaboration with a KET in regular classes as follows: ‘an input provider’ to offer abundant English, ‘a culture introducer’ to support a different culture which a NET belongs to, and ‘a buffer’ to give students an opportunity to be exposed to and get accustomed to facing and talking with a foreigner at the beginning stage. In addition to regular classes in school, NETs have
been involved in extra curricula activities such as after class English programmes, English camps during the vacation period, school English broadcasting, school events like English speech contests, festivals, or English musical performance, and conversation courses for KETs.

With regard to KETs, the issues related to the improvement of KETs’ English competence and teaching techniques have been raised more actively. For example, MEST has paid more attention to ‘Teaching English Through English’ (TETE) from KETs, which places more emphasis on KETs’ speciality as English teachers. Despite some different conditions in each Korean primary school, in general, homeroom teachers and English subject teachers are involved in regular English classes: homeroom teachers who take charge of several subjects including English; English subject teachers who take charge of only an English subject. All of the KETs have been recommended to use English as the medium instruction. In 2009, Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education (SMOE) started the TETE policy and the other provincial Offices of Education implemented it from 2010. SMOE announced a policy of ‘three strikes out’ for teachers that cannot pass the evaluation for TETE (Shim 2008: 111). However, Shin (2012) mentions that many KETs do not meet the expectation of TETE, questioning its practical implementation and effectiveness.

While I was writing up my thesis, there were some changes in EPIK and primary English education. First, in 2012, SMOE announced that only public primary schools in Seoul will sustain the EPIK scheme but secondary schools will stop recruiting NETs from 2013. However, private and specialized schools are not affected by this decision and the other Metropolitan/Provincial Offices of Education will sustain the EPIK scheme. In addition, MEST has not made any decision on the
changes of the policy regarding EPIK and recruitment of NETs and around 2,000 NETs will be recruited and trained to work at primary and junior high schools across the nation in 2013 (NIIED). As for primary English education, the number of English classes for the 3rd and 4th grades of primary schools increased from one to two English classes per week in 2010, and the 5th and the 6th grades started having three English classes per week from the first semester in 2011. Due to an increase in the number of classes per week, primary schools need more English teachers to cover the increasing number of English classes in their schools. MEST announced that 4,731 English instructors would take charge of English conversation classes in 2010 and over 2,000 teachers in 2011 would be dispatched to primary and secondary schools. Despite an ongoing process of policy changes in EPIK and primary English education, team teaching implementation in a Korean EFL context through EPIK has had a great impact on the holistic changes taking place in English education in Korea.

In the next chapter, I will explore an overview of teacher collaboration, team teaching, language education in team teaching, and the NET schemes in several East Asia. It will then be followed by discussion of research dilemmas, classroom interaction, interpersonal relationship, and team learning.
CHAPTER THREE

Literature review

This study aims to investigate team teaching implemented by KETs and NETs in Korean primary schools with a focus on their teaching practices and experiences and to explore their interaction and relationship in these contexts. This chapter will present the important features of teacher collaboration, which is helpful for understanding team teaching more broadly. An overview of team teaching will then be described; this will be followed by an investigation of the educational schemes in several East Asian countries in relation to the deployment of NETs into EFL classrooms. Multidimensional perspectives on interaction and relationship between team teachers will be explored through discussion of research dilemmas, understanding of contexts, complexity of their interaction and relationship, and team learning in a social context.

3.1 Teacher collaboration

For many years, teachers have been characterized as having inherently individualistic and isolated natures in school contexts and the dominant school structure has emphasised teacher autonomy rather than collaboration (Lortie 1975 cited in Jang 2006). Despite the difficulties of its implementation, however, collaboration among teachers has increasingly attracted attention as a key to teachers’ professional development. Teacher development is often made possible through collaboration (Robert 1998 cited in Mann 2005), as it stimulates teacher learning and increases opportunities for teacher development in their work environment (Hargreaves 1997). Collaborative work encourages teachers to
exchange ideas and information, to facilitate supportive dialogue and interaction with colleagues, and to create a collaborative and sharing culture in schools (Tsai 2007). In this light, the significance of teacher collaboration and its contributions have been advocated by many researchers and educators (Hargreaves 1997; Johnson 2003; Little 2003; McLaughlin 1997; Welch 1998).

In this section, I will discuss teacher collaboration in terms of teacher learning, collegiality, and teaming, which are pertinent to crucial features of team teaching.

3.1.1 Teacher learning

Teacher collaboration can be seen as a positive condition for teacher learning. According to Welsh and Sheridan (1995: 1 cited in Welsh 1998: 28), collaboration is ‘a dynamic framework for efforts which endorses interdependence and parity during interactive exchange of resources between at least two partners who work together in a decision-making process that is influenced by cultural and systemic factors to achieve common goals’. As reported by several researchers (Dunn & Shirner 1999; Kwakman 1999; Lohman 2005 cited in Meirink et al. 2010), collaboration with colleagues leads to a powerful learning environment. While collaborating with fellow colleagues, teachers can exchange ideas or experiences, develop and discuss new materials, receive feedback, and provide each other with moral support (Butler et al. 2004; Johnson 2003; Meirink et al. 2007). Consequently, teachers are exposed to a variety of sources of information, alternative practices and critical examination about their teaching practice which reveals their underlying teaching beliefs (Smylie 1995). Through such collaborative interaction
with colleagues, teachers can share knowledge, practice and experience, solve a problem, and learn from one another. That is, as Prabhu (2003 cited in Mann 2005) argues, a teacher’s sense of plausibility is developed through interaction with other teachers’ versions of plausibility. Based on situative and sociocultural perspectives, interactions between individual teachers are both the means for and the result of learning (Wertsch et al. 1995 cited in Tang 2012). Moreover, through these processes, teachers can develop collegiality and create communities or networks of practice inside or outside the schools, which contribute to professional learning and growth.

3.1.2 Collegiality

Shulman (1989: 2 cited in Hargreaves 1991: 47) argues that ‘collegiality and collaboration are also needed to ensure that teachers benefit from their experiences and continue to grow during their careers’. Hargreaves (ibid.) highlights ‘the creation of productive and supportive collegial relationships among teachers’ as a pre-requisite for teacher development and curriculum development. Additionally, he divides collaborative working arrangements and relationships between teachers and their colleagues into two types: One is collaborative relationships, which are characterised as being ‘spontaneous’, ‘voluntary’, ‘development oriented’, ‘pervasive across time and space’, and ‘unpredictable’. The other is ‘contrived collegiality’, which is in contrast to collaborative relationships referred to above. That is, it is ‘administratively regulated’, ‘compulsory’, ‘implementation-oriented’, ‘fixed in time and space’, and ‘predictable’ (op. cit. 53-55). He posits that collaborative relationships can ‘extend into joint work, mutual

Little (1990 cited in Clement & Vandenberghe 2000: 84-85) identifies four distinctive forms of collegiality and collaboration among teachers, based on the levels of their interdependence in interaction with other teachers in daily school practice: ‘storytelling and scanning for ideas’; ‘aid and assistance’; ‘sharing’; and ‘joint work’. In terms of ‘storytelling and scanning for ideas’, team members are mostly independent as teachers exchange quick stories and anecdotes about practice, complain, and gripe in staff rooms or hallways, which are often incomplete accounts. ‘Interchange is neither deep nor focused on problem solving’ (Peterson 1994: 6). As for ‘aid and assistance’, teachers provide help and advice when asked and do not interfere with the other teacher’s work. They seldom establish deep relationships of exchange. In the case of ‘sharing’, teachers routinely share materials and methods and openly exchange ideas and opinions. ‘Joint work’, the highest and most extended form of collegiality, can be described as ‘shared responsibility for the work of teaching’ and ‘a collective conception of autonomy’ (Little 1990: 519). While the first three types are relatively weak in sharing more productive professional relationships, ‘joint work’ provides an opportunity for teachers to develop deeper ties to one another and to build more trusting and productive working relationships. This type of interaction is expected to have great potential to create a school wide culture of collegiality as well as learning.
3.1.3 Teaming

Teachers work together in ways which accommodate different forms of collaboration inside and outside the classroom or beyond the school, such as team teaching, peer observation, peer coaching, support groups, peer conversations, and mentoring. Teacher teaming involves grouping two or more teachers together with responsibility for a group of students for instructional purposes. It may involve interdisciplinary or multidisciplinary teaming and team teaching. In particular, teachers pair up as a team to help each other to solve teaching problems, develop teaching practice, and teach together through collaborative interaction. In this situation, teaming, as a collaborative practice, needs teachers’ active involvement with their partners’ work and strong collegial relationships between teachers.

As for the traditional classroom context, Creese (2006: 435) criticizes the dominant conceptualization of the classroom as ‘a place where only one teacher is interacting with a class of students’. In addition, she argues that this ‘one teacher, one class model’ is unable to cover the diversity of teaching unisons and educational provision in our teaching and learning contexts. In this vein, team teaching by more than two teachers working in the same classroom in partnership has been implemented as one of the most common collaborative forms.

3.2 Team teaching

One of the most common collaborative partnerships in education, team teaching, has been widely implemented in diverse educational contexts. In the following sections, team teaching will be presented in terms of notion, definition, rationale, and its implementation in language education and in EFL contexts.
3.2.1 Notion

In the 1950s, team teaching was first introduced in US primary and secondary schools where more than two teachers shared a large or combined group of students (Friend et al. 2010). Subsequently, in the 1960s, it was recommended as a strategy for reorganizing secondary schools in both the USA and the UK (Warwick 1971 cited in Cook & Friend 1995). Team teaching was adopted in many open concept schools during the 1970s (Easterby-Smith & Olve 1984). With the introduction of the reforms of secondary schools and the integration of special education into general education, co-teaching emerged as another collaborative teaching model. Initially, the implementation of co-teaching practice in the 1970s aimed to provide support for increasing the inclusion of students with disabilities (Friend 2007; Jeon 2010; Murray 2004). That is, pairs of general education teachers and special educators used co-teaching to share their responsibilities for students in an inclusive classroom of general education and special education students (Friend & Cook 2003; Sack 2005). Classroom partnerships specially designed to reach students with disabilities became more commonplace in the 1980s (Friend 2007).

With regard to its concept and practice, co-teaching entails four components: 1) more than two teachers are involved; 2) they deliver substantive instruction; 3) they teach a diverse group of students; 4) their instruction is delivered in a single classroom or physical space. While team teaching was commonly used in general education, co-teaching was recognized as a specialized joint teaching model for students with disabilities (Walther-Thomas 1997 cited in Jang et al. 2010b). However, synonymous terminologies associated with team teaching, co-teaching (Cook & Friend 2003; Gaterly & Gately 2001; Keefe et al. 2004; Roth & Tobin 2001;
Walther-Thomas et al. (1996) and cooperative teaching (Bauwen & Hourcade 1995; Murawski & Swanson 2001) are often used interchangeably. While Jang (2006) states that these three terms refer to a similar instructional delivery system, Liu (2008: 105) specifies the three terms according to their different implications: team teaching, which values the contributions of each participant; collaborative or cooperative teaching, which highlights the process of collaboration and the degree of each participant’s different function; and co-teaching, which contains broader implications for different teaching approaches through collaboration. Other researchers and scholars present different interpretations for team teaching and co-teaching: for example, Cook and Friend (1995: 2) view team teaching as ‘a variation of co-teaching’ which requires a high level of mutual trust and commitment; Jeon (2010: 45) also considers team teaching as ‘one of the subsequent strategies of the co-teaching approach’. However, in Table 3.1, distinctions are made between the two terms ‘team teaching’ and ‘co-teaching’ with regard to four explicit differences (Jang et al. 2010b: 2); these distinctive features are generated from the literature (Conderman et al. 2009; Friend et al. 2010; Villa et al. 2008).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Team teaching</th>
<th>Co-teaching</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mode of implementation</td>
<td>Not specific</td>
<td>Concurrent delivery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Areas of expertise</td>
<td>Same</td>
<td>Different</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher-student ratio</td>
<td>approximately 1: 25</td>
<td>approximately 2: 25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student groups</td>
<td>All types</td>
<td>Heterogeneous only</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.1 Distinction between team teaching and co-teaching

Despite the overlapping or mingling of concepts and definitions between the terms ‘team teaching’, ‘co-teaching’, and ‘collaborative teaching’, their overarching aim is to meet the diverse learning needs of students.
In this study, I will use the term ‘team teaching’ as an ideal and optimizing approach to collaborative teaching in terms of both teachers’ contributions in their teaching contexts. In addition, this term covers the overall rationale for co-teaching and emphasizes its potential contribution to English language teaching as well as other teaching contexts.

3.2.2 Definition and rationale

As a form of teacher collaboration, team teaching has been applied in a wide range of educational fields. From a diversity of operational definitions of team teaching (Adams 1970; Bailey et al. 2001; Buckley 2000; Davis 1995; Jang 2006; Richards & Farrell 2005; Quinn & Kanter 1984), team teaching can be described as follows:

Team teaching is a collaborative process in which two or more teachers share the responsibility for planning, teaching, and evaluating a class or a course in order to achieve a common instructional goal for all students assigned in the classroom.

As Bair and Woodward point out, ‘the heart of the concept of team teaching lies not in details of structure of organization but more in the essential spirit of cooperative planning, constant collaboration, close unity, unrestrained communication, and sincere sharing. It is reflected not in a group of individuals articulating together, but rather in a group which is a single, unified team’ (1964: 22 cited in Buckley 2000: 5). The potential of team teaching is based on the assumption that team teachers can make a greater contribution than the combination of team teachers’ individual work (Davis 1996 cited in Liu 2008). Despite challenges such as more demands on time and energy or achieving a balance between the team teachers, team teaching has many benefits for teachers and students (Bailey et al. 2001; Buckley 2000; Davison,
Successful team teaching classes help create a more dynamic and interactive learning environment (CLT 2006) and provide students with more efficient instruction (Gately & Gaterly 2001), effective monitoring (Dieker & Murawski 2003) and diverse input than what a single teacher can achieve (Bailey et al. 2001). Teachers are also able to take advantage of their individual strengths and ‘their combined degree of knowledge and expertise’ (Richards & Farrell 2005: 160). Moreover, teachers can obtain increasing access to social and material resources, and promote the career development of both experienced and novice teachers through collaborative interactions and through learning from each other (Benjamin 2000; Jang 2006; Letterman & Dugan 2004). Therefore, team teaching has now found a place in a diversity of departments, programmes, and disciplines, at all levels ranging from primary school to higher education due to better quality of teaching and learning it offers (Anderson & Speck 1998; CLT 2006; Devecchi & Rouse 2010; Meirink et al. 2010; Murata 2002).

3.2.3 Language education

Team teaching has played a key role in language education and has been utilized in different language teaching contexts with different pedagogical approaches such as in ESL/bilingual contexts, content-based instruction, or foreign language classrooms. In ESL contexts across a variety of national settings, one mainstream classroom teacher and one ESL/bilingual teacher work in a team, which explicitly aims to serve the needs of students with English as an additional language and to include them into mainstream classrooms (Arkoudis 2003; Creese 2006; Davison 2006). Collaboration between mainstream teachers and language teachers allows ESL
students to learn a subject curriculum through a new and developing language, which leads them to have opportunity to acquire English through meaningful content as well as to interact with a native speaker of the target language (Tsai 2007). In the same classroom, while a mainstream teacher is leading a whole class and presenting subject-specific information, an ESL teacher provides students with special support when needed. These ‘inter-professional relationships’ (Creese 2005: 2) meet the needs of linguistic and ethnic minority students through their full participation in the educational process. As a result, ESL students co-instructed by the two teachers tend to develop academic skills in both their native language and the target language (De Jong 1996; Freeman 1996). However, Arkoudis (2003 cited in Creese 2005: 5) mentions that subject and language teachers have ‘different epistemological authority within their schools’, arguing the difficulty of achieving successful teaching partnerships. Creese (2005: 202) also states that as teachers with different roles are under different pressures in the classrooms, subject teachers and ESL/EAL teachers hardly ever develop ‘cooperative fully fledged teaching partnerships’.

In addition, team teaching is utilized in content-based instruction (Bailey et al. 2001). Content-based approaches lead students to learn a foreign or second language by studying a particular topic or content in the target language. The integrated instruction of language and content helps second or foreign language learners not only to promote their cognitive and language development but also to increase their motivation for language learning (Crandall 1998; Snow & Brinton 1997; Snow et al. 1989). Shaw (1997 cited in Bailey et al. 2001) identifies five types of curricular model used in content-based instruction: the direct content model, the
team content model, subsidiary content model, the supplementary content model, and the adjunct model. Except for the direct content model, the other models entail different forms of team teaching between language and content teachers. Snow et al. (1989) emphasize the collaboration between ESL/foreign language teachers and content teachers through a reciprocal relationship. In addition, Short (1993 cited in Bailey et al. 2001) advises language teachers to forge common ground with subject teachers in implementing content-based syllabi. In a similar vein, a common practice of team teaching in ESP (English for Specific Purposes)/EAP (English for Academic Purposes) settings is to engage both the language specialist and the subject specialist; this, then, fulfils both language development and the specific study needs of students (Song 2006).

In foreign language classrooms, team teaching is beneficial for students since they can learn languages by means of two teachers’ collaborative instruction (Jorden & Walton 1989). While a native speaking teacher of a target language plays the role of a linguistic model for students, the other teacher supports the students, sharing similar language learning experiences in the same mother tongue. Moreover, two teachers can demonstrate interactive activities such as a role-play and provide different linguistic models for students.

Different forms of team teaching by teachers have been implemented in a diversity of educational fields and language teaching contexts. As mentioned earlier, team teaching is a valuable approach not only for creating more effective and efficient learning environments for students but also for enhancing collaborative teaching conditions for teachers. However, despite the advantages of team teaching, it needs a great deal of coordination and communication between
teachers, places great demand on time and effort, involves a lot of effort as well as administrative support, and demands consideration of multifaceted variables affecting team work (Bailey et al. 2001; Richards & Farrell 2005). Compared to the team teaching which occurs in the ESL, bilingual, or multilingual contexts mentioned above, team teaching in EFL classrooms is where English is taught as a foreign language as well as a compulsory subject. Moreover, due to less flexibility in terms of team size, team membership, and team choice (Chen 2009), it is more challenging to carry out successful team teaching between teachers with completely different educational, linguistic, cultural, and social backgrounds; this is particularly true for the team teaching which occurs between NETs and local English teachers in EFL contexts of several East Asian countries such as Japan, Hong Kong, Korea, and Taiwan.

3.2.4 English language team teaching in EFL contexts

The dominant form of team teaching in EFL settings, which is widespread in several East Asian countries such as Japan, Hong Kong, Korea, and Taiwan, involves two teachers in the class: one native English speaking teacher and one local English teacher (Benoit & Haugh 2001; Richards & Farrell 2005). Such a form of team teaching in EFL contexts is commonly less flexible than that in the contexts mentioned in Section 3.2.3 in terms of team size (two), teacher combination (one local and one foreign), member choice (‘mandated rather than freely chosen’) (Davison 2006: 458), or even class choice (usually assigned) (Chen 2009: 25). With relation to the unique type of team teaching which has been implemented in several East Asian contexts, some researchers label it as ‘collaborative language
teaching’ (Nunan 1992a), ‘collaborative EFL teaching’ (Carless 2006b; Tanaka 2008), ‘English team-teaching’ (Chou 2005; Tanaka 2008), or ‘intercultural team teaching’ (Carless 2004, 2006a; Chen 2009). In addition, team teaching in EFL classrooms in these countries is primarily based on an educational policy advocating the importation of foreign teachers from English speaking countries to co-work with local English teachers. For example, there has been the JET (Japan Exchange and Teaching) Programme in Japan since 1987, the NET (Native-speaking English Teachers) scheme in Hong Kong since 1987, the EPIK (English Program in Korea) in Korea since 1995, and the FETIT (Foreign English Teacher in Taiwan) Project in Taiwan since 2003.

Although these schemes have similarities and differences among them, there is a basic assumption that a form of collaborative team teaching between native and local English teachers is an advantageous teaching model which best fulfils learners’ needs in EFL contexts in these countries. Specifically, there are common purposes in these schemes as follows: to provide authentic language input in EFL classrooms, to facilitate cross-cultural communication, to enhance students’ English ability, and to promote local teachers’ professional development (Carless 2002, 2004, 2006a, 2006b; Carless & Walker 2006; Liu 2009; Park 2008; Tajino & Tajino 2000; Tajino & Walker 1998; Yukawa 1994). While team teaching was introduced in these countries with similar purposes, ways and forms of implementation in each country vary to some extent with regard to contextual background (e.g. political, educational, economic, cultural and societal needs), scheme objectives, native English teachers’ qualification requirements and their responsibilities.
Within these schemes, there is potential for the complementarity of native English speaking teachers and local English teachers’ skills to be exploited advantageously. As for the partnerships between NETs and non-NETs, their strengths and weaknesses can be largely complementary (Medgyes 1992, 1994). As shown in Figure 3.1 below, NETs’ strengths are, in general, the relative weaknesses of non-NETs whose own strengths, in turn, reflect the relative weaknesses of NETs. If a NET and a non-NET harness their respective strengths and minimize their weaknesses, team teaching through a collaborative NET and non-NET relationship can have a positive and effective impact on an EFL classroom (Carless & Walker 2006). The following figure shows the respective capacities of NETs and non-NETs which Carless and Walker (2006: 463-464) mention, based on the literature (Barratt & Kontra 2000; Medgyes 1994; Tang 1997).

**Figure 3.1 Strengths of team teaching between NETs and NNETs**

However, Figure 3.1 presented above might suggest an optimistic and ideal model of team teaching completion, which could raise controversial issues pertaining to dichotomous division and notion of ‘native’ and ‘non-native’ English speakers. In fact, ongoing debate on ‘native speakerism’ or ‘myth of the native speaker’ issues has been pursued by many researchers (Holliday 2005; Kubota 2002; Park 2008;
Moreover, it has been reported that it would not be easy to demonstrate such potential for complementarity or to foster collaboration between NETs and non-NETs in real EFL contexts such as Japan, Hong Kong, Korea and Taiwan.

In order to understand team teachers and team teaching in EFL classrooms, it will be necessary to examine the schemes of deploying NETs into public schools and the issues of team teaching in these countries. Despite a continuing dispute, some terms (e.g. NETs, NNETs) will be used to refer to team teachers in this study.

3.3 The NET schemes in East Asia

As mentioned in Section 3.2.4, English language team teaching in Japan, Hong Kong, Korea and Taiwan has been primarily implemented through the NET schemes. In this section, each NET scheme will be examined with respect to background and scheme objectives, and challenging issues of team teaching between team teachers under these schemes will be discussed.

3.3.1 JET (Japan exchange and teaching) Programme in Japan

The JET programme, the largest NET recruitment scheme and having the longest history in East Asian countries, was introduced in 1987. According to the statistics on its website\(^3\), the JET programme expanded from its original 848 participants from four countries in 1987 to 4,360 participants from 40 countries in 2012. More than 110,000 participants from over 62 different countries have joined the JET programme since its inception.

\(^3\) The official website of the JET Programme: www.jetprogramme.org
1) Background

The JET Programme was originally established to take ‘action against criticism of Japan’s economic self-centeredness and cultural insularity’ (Lincicome 1993: 127 cited in Miyazato 2009: 37). Along with political need for internationalisation and rapid economic development in the 1980s, the English language became a significantly important means to enhance understanding and communication between Japanese and people from all over the world (Lai 1999; CLAIR 2010). In this context, the JET Programme was launched in 1987, and has brought ALTs (Assistant language teachers) including native English speaking teachers into Japanese public schools (McConnell 2000; Wada & Cominos 1994). Consequently, the necessity of communicative competence was emphasised in EFL education and regarded as an important task (Wada 1994). In addition, learning English as a foreign language in Japanese secondary schools has become the focus of a variety of new educational policies (Gorsuch 2002). Since 2002, ALTs have taught English in Japanese primary schools. CLAIR (Council of Local Authorities for International Relations) has administered the JET Programme in cooperation with local government organisations: the MIC (Ministry of International Affairs and Communications), the MOFA (the Ministry of Foreign Affairs) and the MEXT (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology).

2) Scheme objectives

CLAIR (2010) states the purpose of the JET Programme as follows:

The JET Programme aims to promote grassroots internationalisation at the local level by inviting young overseas graduates to assist in international

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4 CLAIR: Council of Local Authorities for International Relations
examine and foreign language education in local governments, boards of
education and elementary, junior and senior high schools throughout Japan.
It seeks to foster ties between Japanese citizens (mainly youth) and JET
participants at the person-to-person level.

As mentioned above, the aims of this programme are twofold: to promote
internationalisation and to facilitate language education. That is, it is expected that
cultural exchange with the JET participants enhances Japanese students’ foreign
language learning. In this vein, CLAIR has recruited native foreign language speakers
from more than 50 countries to share their diverse languages and cultures with
students and local communities since 1989. However, most importantly, team
teaching through large-scale recruitment of NETs in the JET Programme has
emphasises the aims of this programme: to promote communicative language
teaching in the English classroom through interaction between AET (Assistant
English teachers) and JTEs (Japanese Teachers of English) in English, to encourage
students to engage in authentic communication through interacting with AETs, and
to raise JTEs’ awareness of English as a communicative medium.

3) Challenging issues of team teaching for teachers in the JET Programme

Several researchers report positive responses and reaction or benefits which team
teachers experience in JET. For example, Wada and Cominos (1994: 2) mention that
the JET Programme contributes to ‘the development of pedagogy’ and ‘increased
international understanding on the part of students, teachers and local
communities’. Browne and Wada (1998) conclude that JET has an impact on the
Japanese teachers of English as well as their confidence level in working together
with native assistant English teachers. The research conducted by Gorsuch (2002)
also shows professional development and personal growth in JTEs through team teaching with AETs. However, a number of researchers criticise the diverse problems of forcing collaboration between JTEs and AETs and challenging issues which team teachers face. First of all, team teachers lack an understanding of the rationale for, and the practice of team teaching (Juppe 1998; Tajino & Walker 1998; Marchesseau 2006). Brumby and Wada (1990: introduction) define team teaching in JET as follows:

Team teaching is a concerted endeavour made jointly by the Japanese teacher of English (JTE) and the assistant English teacher (AET) in an English language classroom in which the students, the JTE and the AET are engaged in communicative activities.

As Rutson-Griffiths (2012) argues, however, the definition above does not make reference to the expected role of each teacher, which leads to confusion or conflicts over how to share roles and responsibilities between JTEs and AETs in their team teaching context (Mahoney 2004; Tajino & Tajino 2000; Voice-Reed 1994). As stipulated in this programme (CLAIR 2000), AETs are expected to mainly assist JTEs or homeroom teachers in the classrooms, functioning as ‘English language consultants and cultural informants’ (Miyazato 2009: 39). Nevertheless, in some cases, JTEs take charge of a passive role as AETs’ ‘interpreters’ (Iwamoto 1999; Mahoney 2004; Miyashita 2002) to students, which leads to AET-centred classes. On the contrary, when JETs lead a class, a number of AETs play a role ‘only as an assistant or an alternative to a tape-recorder’ (Kobayashi 2001:8 cited in Macedo 2002: 17) or ‘animator or presenter of learning material’ (Skelton 1988: 27 cited in Adachi et al. 1996: 220). A majority of the AETs are young graduates who are involved in English language teaching ranging from primary school to high school
level. As they have little teaching experience or no formal training as a qualified English teacher (Carless 2002; Johannes 2012), they have a lack of knowledge in ELT and JTEs have uncertainty over how to utilize AETs in a team teaching class (Macedo 2002; Tajino & Walker 1998 cited in Johannes 2012). Secondly, language barrier, specifically JTEs’ deficiency in English conversational ability, is one of challenging issues that a majority of local Japanese English teachers face (Carless 2002; 2006a; Miyazato 2009). Due to their limited language proficiency, there are difficulties in building rapport and communicating with each other. It is reported that some of JTEs tend to feel inferiority regarding their English abilities (Murai 2004; Tajino & Walker 1998 cited in Miyazato 2006). Thirdly, even though team teaching requires time and energy for cooperation, a majority of local English teachers tend to be less motivated to team teach due to their heavy workloads (Juppe 1998; Miyashita 2002). As a result, insufficient preparation for planning and discussion between team teachers causes less collaborative instruction and more ineffective performances in class (Rutson-Griffiths 2012).

3.3.2 NET (Native-speaking English Teachers) Scheme in Hong Kong

The NET scheme was relaunched at territory-wide level in 1998 after its first large scale recruitment to import NETs into secondary schools in 1987 and its halt in 1989 (Carless 2006b). Compared with the other schemes (JET, EPIK and FETIT), the NET scheme has different features due to the complexity of the historical, political, economic, and linguistic background in Hong Kong.
1) Background

A British colony for over 150 years and re-integrated into China in 1997, Hong Kong has experienced considerable political, linguistic and economic changes. First of all, English as an official language has played a vital role in diverse aspects of the whole nation (Nunan 2003; Jeon & Lee 2006); in particular, it has played a role in establishing the status of Hong Kong as a centre of international trade and business. In this situation, English has become the indispensable language for wider communication and its importance has been recognized in a wide range of social contexts (Lai 1999; McArthur 2005). However, after re-integration to China, Mandarin alongside English became an official language instead of Cantonese, which has affected the status of English in Hong Kong as standing between a second and a foreign language (Lee 2005: 35). Despite such changes, English is still deeply intertwined with socio-economic needs and interests and widely used in higher education contexts (Lee 2005 cited in Liu 2009). Even though the Hong Kong government has boosted English language education substantially, some problematic issues emerged such as the regression in students’ English proficiency and the shortage of trained and competent local English teachers (Lai 1999; Lee 2005). Consequently, the Hong Kong government reestablished the NET scheme in 1997 to cover a shortage of qualified and competent English language teachers and to strengthen English language education in primary and secondary schools. English language in primary and secondary schools in Hong Kong is not only a compulsory subject but also a medium of instruction in most schools. According to the Hong Kong Education Department survey (Lee 2005: 26 cited in Liu 2009: 30), the percentage of English medium secondary schools increased from 54% to 94% from
1955 to 1997. The NET scheme was extended to primary schools in 2000 and after a two year piloting, team teaching with NETs has been implemented since 2002.

2) Scheme objectives

According to the Education Bureau of Hong Kong (2012), the deployment of NETs in primary schools can help ‘facilitate an enriched and effective English language learning and teaching environment in local primary schools through the implementation of curriculum reform, professional development of teachers and the adoption of innovative learning and teaching practices.’ More specifically, the aims of this scheme in primary schools are:

- to provide an authentic environment for children to learn English;
- to develop children’s interest in learning English and establish the foundation for life-long learning;
- to help local teachers develop innovative learning and teaching methods, materials, curricula and activities suited to the needs of local children;
- to disseminate good practices in language learning and teaching through region-based teacher development programmes such as experience-sharing seminars/workshops and networking activities (EDB circular No. 8/2002).

3) Challenging issues of team teaching for teachers in the NET scheme

Unlike JET above, the NET scheme has employed only trained, qualified and experienced English teachers, which could enable NETs to lead a solo teaching class, having a responsibility for their own class in secondary schools (Carless 2006a). In

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5 The Education Bureau, The Government of the Hong Kong Special Administrative region: http://www.edb.gov.hk/
these contexts, however, Storey et al. (2001 cited in Carless & Walker 2006) report a lack of genuine collaboration and little evidence of team teaching between NETs and LETs. In addition, the team teachers have little shared understanding or common philosophy between them in the aspects of teaching approaches (ibid.). In earlier studies, Boyle (1997) mentions LETs have negative reactions to NETs in relation to the threat to their self-esteem and concern about their powerlessness in this scheme. Meanwhile, Johnson and Tang (1993) state difficulties which NETs face (e.g. discipline or communication problems with students due to inability to use the students’ mother tongue). Luk (2005) also mentions the lack of knowledge of a mother tongue can be challenging to NETs in communicative classrooms. In contrast, Carless (2002; 2006a; 2006b; 2006c) focuses more on positive features of team teaching in primary schools such as collaboration through genuine team teaching between LETs and NETs and LETs’ positive experiences with their professional development. Moreover, he reports successful collaboration and cases of good practice between NETs and non-NETs or effective team teaching not only in Hong Kong but also in Japan and Korea (Carless & Walker 2006).

3.3.3 FETIT (Foreign English Teacher in Taiwan) in Taiwan

Compared to the other schemes, the FETIT (Foreign English Teacher in Taiwan) scheme introduced in 2003 is a relatively new, less developed and much smaller scale recruitment scheme implemented in several counties in Taiwan. FETIT has been influenced by the other schemes mentioned above, in particular, by the JET programme (Huang 2003), in relation to qualification requirements for the NETs or their job descriptions.
1) Background

According to Liu (2009), two forces led to the establishment of the FETIT (Foreign English Teacher in Taiwan) scheme: Taiwan’s accession to the WTO (World Trade Organization) in 2002 and the national development plan, ‘Challenge 2008’. As a WTO member, the Taiwanese government has recognised the importance of the English language for Taiwan in meeting the demands of globalised and digitalised international contexts. In addition, through the Challenge 2008 plan, the Taiwanese government has tried to strengthen national competitiveness in ten different areas. In this context, the Taiwanese Ministry of Education has enforced English education, emphasising the improvement of the overall national English competence by upgrading the quality of English language learning and teaching as well as increasing the opportunities for learning English in remote rural areas. However, due to a shortage of qualified English teachers in primary schools, some local governments such as Kaohsiung City and Hsinchu City started self-funded EFL teaching programmes and recruited NETs to teach English in 2001. Considering educational equality, the Ministry of Education decided to recruit NETs to work in compulsory schools in rural areas in 2003.

2) Project objectives

The Ministry of Education (MOE)\(^6\) states that the main objective of this project is to improve the English language learning and teaching environment in remote areas that experience limited English learning resources. The FETIT (Foreign English Teacher in Taiwan) scheme aims at encouraging the exchange of English language

\(^6\) The Ministry of Education in Taiwan: http://english.moe.gov.tw/
teaching materials and methods between local Taiwanese English teachers and
NETs, improving students’ English communication ability, and increasing
understanding with other countries by cultural exchange.

3) Challenging issues of team teaching for teachers in FETIT project

Compared to a number of previous studies on the other schemes, there has been a
relatively little and limited research on the FETIT project. With the exception of
some positive feedback from and impacts on students, more challenging issues on
FETIT which team teachers experience have been discussed in several studies. Peng
(2003 cited in Luo 2007a) mentions difficulties in management of NETs and conflicts
between NETs and LETs. In particular, miscommunication and ineffective
communication due to personality clashes (Yen et al. 2003) and disagreement of
classroom role expectation (Chou 2005) lead to poor team collaboration. In
addition, while Chen (2007) reports that NETs have difficulties in communicating
with LETs due to LETs’ English deficiency, Liu (2009: 38) points out that this project
constitutes privileged treatment for NETs and devalues LETs whose salary is half
that of NETs as one of the main concerns.

3.3.4 EPIK (English Program in Korea) in Korea

As mentioned earlier, EPIK (English Programme in Korea) is a government-funded
project to recruit NETs to teach in Korean primary and secondary schools in
collaboration with KETs. Section 2.4 has introduced EPIK and its history, rationale,
objectives, organisation, information on NET recruitment including job description,
qualification requirements, duties, and training programmes (pp. 15-23). As EPIK is
largely based on JET, Park (2008: 142) refers to EPIK as ‘a Korean version of the Japan Exchange and Teaching Program (JET)’. Therefore, EPIK shares much in common with JET. In particular, some challenging issues stated in Section 3.3.1 seem quite similar to difficulties which KETs and NETs experience in EPIK.

1) Challenging issues of team teaching for teachers in EPIK

Some studies (Chung et al. 1999; Kim & Lee 2005; Park & Kim 2000) mention benefits of team teaching not only for students but also for KETs in terms of enhancing motivation, communicative skill, and cross-cultural awareness. In particular, based on the research (Min & Ha 2006), Park (2008: 152) state that the majority of KETs are in favour of inviting NETs who can help KETs ‘learn authentic English, save time for class preparation, and gain different ideas on teaching methodology’. In addition, several studies (Choi 2001; Choi 2009; Kim 2010; Min & Ha 2006) show that generally NETs have positive responses to their teaching experiences and they are satisfied with their positions in schools.

However, problematic issues have been also raised and discussed. According to the survey conducted by Chung et al. (1999), there is a lack of collaboration between KETs and NETs and a gap in the perception of team teaching between the two groups of teachers. For example, KETs tend to quite rely on their NET partners, functioning as an assistant, whereas NETs take a leading role as a main teacher. Park and Kim (2000) also acknowledge several problems such as insufficient preparation time for team teaching, KETs’ poor communicative competence and lack of team teaching model in harmony with entrance exams. In comparison to the JET, the NET, and the EPIK schemes, Carless (2002) points out that KETs and NETs
can give rise to a number of tensions for the following reasons: cultural conflicts between team teachers (Ahn et al. 1998), some of KETs’ unwillingness to team teach with NETs, lack of understanding of rational for and practice of team teaching. In particular, cultural differences or conflicts are identified as the main culprit to tackle collaboration in many studies on team teaching in EPIK (Carless & Walker 2006; Choi 2001; Kim & Kwak 2002; Min & Ha 2006).

3.3.5 Comparison of the four schemes

The schemes for recruiting NETs and deploying them into public schools in Japan, Hong Kong, Korea, and Taiwan have similar and different aspects in relation to their orientations, objectives, rationales, implementation scales, and backgrounds. The main characteristics of the schemes mentioned above can be summarized in the following table (adapted from Liu 2009: 34, 37).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>JET</th>
<th>NET</th>
<th>EPIK</th>
<th>FETIT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nation</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orientation</td>
<td>Political-cultural</td>
<td>Pedagogical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main objective</td>
<td>Cultural exchange</td>
<td>Pedagogical advancement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minor objective</td>
<td>Pedagogical advancement</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Cultural exchange</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rationale</td>
<td>To promote internationalisation at the local level</td>
<td>To provide students with an authentic English environment and to enhance local English language education</td>
<td>To strengthen local students’ English spoken ability and use of the communicative approach</td>
<td>To improve the quality of English language teaching in rural areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation</td>
<td>Nationwide</td>
<td>Rural area</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preference for NETs from ‘inner circle’ group</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.2 Comparing features of the four schemes
With regard to the main concern of each scheme, the JET programme is centred more on internationalisation and cultural exchange, whereas the NET, the EPIK, and the FETIT schemes emphasise English education to improve the English learning and teaching environment in each country. Consequently, while even more young graduates from a diversity of nations have been recruited by the JET programme, the other schemes have more specific categories of qualification requirements for the NET applicants, who perform roles as team teachers, participate in teaching practices and contribute to local English teachers’ professional development. In addition, the official documents in each scheme explicitly show a preference for NETs and native English speaking norms; NETs come from only ‘inner circle group’ (e.g. Australia, Canada, USA, UK). Their English language and cultures seem to be valued as the ideal model for students and teachers in EFL classrooms.

Although the duties and responsibilities of NETs in each scheme are similar in terms of teaching practices in the classrooms, their roles and positions are slightly different. For example, as stipulated in the official websites and documents, ‘ALT’ (Assistant Language Teacher) and ‘AET’ (Assistant English Teacher) in JET or ‘GET’ (Guest English Teacher) in EPIK would imply their differentiated position and role from local English teachers explicitly. Discrepant from such references to NETs as an assistant or a guest, however, some NETs are reported to take leading roles instead of assisting local English teachers. Meanwhile, the label ‘NET’ in the NET and the FETIT schemes can cause non-NET of discrimination which local English teachers mention, such as social status, professional insecurity, or inferior self-esteem, stated in Section 3.3.2 and 3.3.3. As for NETs’ qualifications, NETs recruited in Hong Kong and in Taiwan seem to be more experienced and trained teachers.
than those in Japan and in Korea due to specific requirements; NETs should have licensed qualifications as English teachers (e.g. a degree in ELT or related subjects or teacher license).

Even though each scheme developed out of different background and due to a diversity of reasons, the ultimate goal of the NET schemes might lead to the achievement of their aims through a successful implementation of team teaching between team teachers in their given contexts. However, the team teachers in each scheme still face a number of challenges despite some positive experiences when they implement team teaching in their contexts.

3.4 Discussion of team teachers’ interaction and relationship

In this section, I will first raise challenging issues in relation to investigation of the interaction and relationship between team teachers in team teaching contexts. This will then be followed by exploration of contexts which team teachers engage in and discussion of their interaction and relationship. Finally, I will examine team teaching as team learning in a social context.

3.4.1 Research dilemmas

One of the most commonly researched topics on team teaching and its practices is teachers’ roles and relationships including their perceptions of team teaching and its impact and effectiveness (Friend et al. 2010). In a similar vein, two common themes concerning team teaching in a Korean context are about ‘desirable team teaching models between KETs and NETs’ and ‘different characteristics of KETs and NETs’ (Shin 2011: 30). As mentioned in Section 1.2, however, there has been little
qualitative research on team teachers regarding their interaction and relationship in a Korean context. In addition, this study has some doubt about the empirical research in other EFL contexts such as Japan, Hong Kong and Taiwan as follows: first of all, there is very little literature on relevant theoretical frameworks and analytical approaches to support the complexity of team teaching in terms of the interaction and relationship between team teachers. Secondly, most of the literature on the classroom interaction is based on the one teacher - one class model. Accordingly, there are very few discussions with respect to classroom interaction focusing on team teachers in a team teaching context. Thirdly, there is a lack of spoken data-led accounts, specifically actual classroom discourse, to present team teaching implemented by team teachers or to depict their interaction and relationship, because a majority of studies tend to rely on description from interview and observation data. Fourthly, the contexts in which team teachers are involved do not seem to be handled carefully. Fifthly, it might not be easy to separately discuss interaction and relationship between team teachers because their interaction and relationship seem to be two sides of the same coin.

3.4.2 Team teaching in context

To gain a deep insight into team teachers and their team teaching practice, it is a prerequisite to understand the context team teachers engage in. As for the social context in English education, Holliday (1994) argues that interactive dynamics within the classroom can be only fully understood in terms of the wider macro view. In this macro view of the social context, the classroom can be identified as ‘a microcosm of wider society’ (Holliday 1994: 19), because ‘the classroom possesses...
special features which crystallise the social world’ (*ibid.*: 15) and reflects the world outside. In contrast, in the micro view, it can be described as ‘a discoursal or interactive context’ (*ibid.*: 19). As Walsh (2006: 16) mentions, ‘participants in classroom discourse, teachers and learners, co-construct contexts’ and ‘contexts are constructed through talk-in-interaction in relation to specific institutional goals and the unfolding pedagogic goals of a lesson’. Needless to say, the macro context influences what happens within the classroom. The classroom and its educational environment including a school culture can influence classroom interaction between teachers and students as well as between teachers.

In the same vein, team teaching needs to be understood in ‘the macro - micro continuum’ (Holliday 1994: 14), which is interwoven in connecting the wider social aspects with a deep investigation of what happens between people, in particular, classroom interaction and relationship between team teachers. In this study, the macro context would be in line with English education in Korea, educational policy for English, and primary English education, and the EPIK scheme referred to in Chapter Two (pp. 10-25) and exploration of the NET schemes in Section 3.3. Even though the focal context of this study is a Korean primary classroom, the classroom with team teachers is situated within and interconnected with these complex macro contexts mentioned above.

In addition, in terms of a tangible context, O’Toole and Were (2008: 616) refer to ‘the physical layout or spatial arrangement, and the material object within that environment, the integration of these two corporeal constructs, that sense of ‘place’ that forms the context in which research is conducted’. In this sense, the classroom as a physical environment is viewed as a place including ‘the interior and
exterior spatial arrangements that make up our world’ (ibid.). They emphasise the notion of analysing the place and material objects which contribute to the interactions and in situ behaviour of the participants and provide insights into their power, identity, authority, and status. Thus, it is necessary to understand team teaching practices and interpret the interaction and relationship between team teachers in accordance with their physical environment (e.g. classroom setting and facilities, etc.) as well as the macro-micro continuum (e.g. policy, scheme, school culture, classroom dynamics, etc.) which teachers engage in.

3.4.3 Interaction between team teachers

A classroom is not only an institutional setting but also a social and cultural context which is constructed by participant interactions. Compared to a conventional classroom, having two teachers in a classroom may be highly complex in terms of classroom interaction. In particular, more diverse interaction patterns can occur. However, the literature on classroom interaction has not kept pace with practice in complex classrooms with two teachers due to the dominant conceptualization of the classroom as the one teacher-one class model (Creese 2005). In addition, it is still challenging to employ relevant approaches to interaction analysis for two-teachers-one-class.

There have been a few studies on classroom interaction and discourse in two-teacher classrooms. For example, Martin-Jones and Saxena (1996) show discursive differences between bilingual assistants and subject teachers within primary schools. They find that subject teachers lead conversation and bilingual assistants are restricted by subject teachers’ controlling speaking turns and deciding
what is significant. Creese (2005) also investigates a diversity of interactions in two-teacher classrooms (subject teachers and EAL teachers). She (2006: 437) claims that ‘teachers with different institutional roles are under different pressures’ and ‘the discourses attached to different role performances have different orders of authority’. Despite teaching partnership modes of collaboration that the EAL teachers and subject teachers are viewed as having a similar status, the way the subject curriculum is instructed by the two teachers shows their different positions within the classroom. Although she identifies different discourse and interaction patterns within one class, these multilingual classrooms where subject teachers and EAL teachers interact with each other seem to have differing features, compared to EFL classrooms where local English teachers and native English speaking teachers teach English.

In EFL contexts, there are a few studies on interaction between local English teachers and NETs in a team teaching class. For instance, Tajino and Tajino (2000) classify five forms of team teaching that enable team teachers to provide students with more interaction in Japanese classrooms. They propose the reformulation of team patterns to promote authentic communication in the classroom. As these patterns are not based on actual classroom interaction, it may not be enough to sufficiently describe or discuss the more possible interaction patterns. Aline and Hosoda (2006) investigate the interaction among homeroom teachers (local Japanese teachers), assistant language teachers (native English speaking teachers) and students, focusing on homeroom teachers’ participation patterns in the interaction. They present different types of homeroom teachers’ patterns according to their interactional features and positions such as a learner, a bystander, a
translator, or a co-teacher in each context. As Aline and Hosoda (ibid.) state, however, these four categories would not be discrete because the homeroom teachers do not have the only participation pattern among them during the whole lesson. Similar to my research focus and aim, Tsai (2007) investigates how team teachers interact inside and outside the classroom in Taiwanese primary schools. To understand the team teachers’ interaction, she analyses the data based on the framework of Halliday’s register theory and develops its framework according to her research context. As she mentions in her study, Halliday’s framework is useful to scrutinise the interpersonal and communicative activities participants engage in. She identifies the notion of ‘field’ (Halliday 1978: 222) which is divided into two parts as ‘timing’ and ‘purposes and content’ of team teachers’ interaction, ‘tenor’ as ‘role relationship’ between team teachers, and ‘mode’ as ‘channels of communication’ (e.g. oral language, written notes, and body language). However, the four elements in an analytic chart (e.g. timing, role relationship, channel of communication, purpose and content) would not thoroughly capture the complexity of teachers’ interactions. For instance, the following table is the excerpt from the data analysis of two teachers’ (Anita and Meiling) interactions.
As presented in Table 3.3, Tsai uses the arrows to indicate the directions of communicative actions, which can identify the roles the team teachers play in their communications, such as a conversation initiator or a responses maker. Even though she systematically provides visual sets of data analysis, the complexity of the team teachers’ interaction cannot be depicted only by the use of arrows. For example, as for the role relationship between two teachers, she explains that ‘Meiling → Anita’ means that Meiling initiates the conversations and Anita is the one who responds. However, the section on purposes and content mainly describes the initiator’s roles, which does not show how the other teacher (Anita) reacts or responds to the initiator teacher (Meiling). More importantly, without examples of any actual classroom conversation or discourse, the analytical results do not seem to transparently portray the collegial interactions between two teachers. As this type of analytic charts she presents might deal with their interaction quite simply, it seems to fail to clearly present the sequences and the ways the team teachers interact with each other. Jeon (2010) also explores teachers’ interaction in team teaching practices in Korean primary and secondary school contexts. As this research is largely based on Tsai’s analysis framework mentioned above, it is not

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Timing</th>
<th>Role relationship</th>
<th>Channels of Communication</th>
<th>Purposes and content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>During instruction</td>
<td>Meiling → Anita</td>
<td>Oral conversation</td>
<td>Offered translation on Anita’s instruction and students’ responses and questions; replied to Anita’s questions; asked questions about Anita’s requests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anita → Meiling</td>
<td>Body language (eye contact, nodding)</td>
<td>Asked for help with students, translation, reminders on special homework and exams; sought approval on decisions related to teaching</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
evident to illuminate how team teachers interact with each other. The following table is the excerpt from the data analysis of teachers’ interactions in the primary school English classroom (Jeon 2010: 54).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Timing</th>
<th>Role relationship</th>
<th>Communicative channels</th>
<th>Purposes and content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>During instruction</td>
<td>NET → NNET</td>
<td>Oral/written (eye contract, nodding, smiles)</td>
<td>To suggest an explanation about learning activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NET ↔ NNET</td>
<td></td>
<td>To share opinions about students’ performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NET → NNET</td>
<td></td>
<td>To request translation or explanation in Korean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NNET → NET</td>
<td></td>
<td>To inform of the completion of explanation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.4 shows a parallel to Table 3.3 in terms of the analytical approach. The analytical results of teachers’ interactions do not fully reveal the two teachers’ interaction. For example, Jeon (ibid.: 55) states ‘NET ↔ NNET’ means that two teachers are both initiators and receivers of an act of communications, which could not appropriately present the ways the two teachers initiate or respond to each other. In particular, it would be vague to show the way ‘to share opinions about students’ performance’ between them. The absence of spoken discourse makes it difficult to clearly understand what really happens to two teachers, more specifically when, what, how, and why they interact and communicate with each other. Fujimoto-Adamson (2005) criticises how a number of researchers examining team teaching in Japanese contexts articulate their arguments without any actual classroom discourse. In addition, she emphasises the importance of the discourse analytical approach to illustrate classroom situations. She investigates the two teachers’ roles and responsibilities, focusing on discursive classroom practice. She employs the IRF (Initiation, Response, Feedback) speech coding system of Sinclair.
and Coulthard (1975) and takes the descriptive unit of moves to analyse two teachers’ roles from their discourse performance in the specific transactions. Moreover, she presents pedagogic moves of the Japanese English teachers and NETs to specify difficulties arising from the interaction between them with extracts from a transcribed team teaching lesson. As Walsh (2011: 83) points out that discourse analysis approaches involve ‘some simplification and reduction’, her analytical approach could not fully account for more complex and multidimensional dynamics in the classroom.

In addition, there are a few studies which compare language patterns between KETs and NETs: Lee (2005) points out the prominent differences observed in their use of different types of sentences (e.g. directive statements, questions, imperatives, and exclamatory sentences). Park and Im (2009) report that NETs have diverse language patterns whereas KETs’ discourse is relatively constant in their language use. Park and Manning (2012) conclude that much less L1 is used when NETs are leading class than when KETs are leading classes. However, they focus more on the interactions mainly occurring between each teacher and their students than the interactions between two teachers and their students or between two teachers, particularly teachers’ talk.

In team teaching contexts, a relatively small number of studies have been undertaken related to interaction between team teachers and there is little empirical research which presents spoken discourse to describe their interaction. Moreover, there is a lack of a framework or approaches to analyse the data of two team teachers’ classroom interaction. Thus, this study will thoroughly present classroom interaction between team teachers with a focus on their actual
classroom discourse, which will be discussed in Section 4.4.4 in Chapter Four.

3.4.4 Relationship between team teachers

When team teachers in EFL classrooms, in particular two teachers who have different social, political, educational, cultural, linguistic and ideological backgrounds, work together, their relationships can be more complex and dynamic than those from similar backgrounds. Canney Davison and Ward (1999) and DiStefano and Maznevski (2000 cited in Spencer-Oatey 2011) emphasise relationship building or relational management as a critical factor in international or global teams. In addition, Carless (2004: 345) mentions that ‘intercultural team teaching’ between local and native English speaking teachers would depend on pedagogic, logistical and interpersonal factors, particularly highlighting the interpersonal factors as follows:

The interpersonal factors include the ability to cooperate with partners, allied to sensitivity towards their viewpoints and practices, particularly when differences emerge.

Carless (2006a) contends that individual team teachers’ interpersonal sensitivity may be a key to the success of intercultural team teaching. That is, the relationship between team teachers is a critical aspect underlying team teaching.

To understand the multidimensional relationships between team teachers, I will discuss some relevant features of interpersonal relations derived from the concept of intercultural interaction (Spencer-Oatey & Franklin 2009), focusing on the issues of power, distance-closeness, roles and responsibilities and face sensitiveness.
3.4.4.1 Power

According to Brown and Gilman (1972: 225 cited in Spencer-Oatey & Franklin 2009: 105), power refers to ‘a relationship between at least two persons, and it is nonreciprocal in the sense that both cannot have power in the same area of behaviour’. While power is considered negatively in some cultures, such as domination, control, authoritarianism, or unequal role relations in vertical relations, it is associated positively with ‘benevolence, kindness, nurturance and supportiveness’ in other cultures, in particular, in Confucian Asian countries (Pye 1985 & Wetzel 1993 cited in Spencer-Oatey 1996: 2). In team teaching contexts, there is a little research to discuss power relationships between team teachers. For example, Arkoudis (2000; 2003) and Creese (2005) reveal the discursive construction of power in teaching partnerships. In addition, Creese argues that subject and EAL teachers have different subject-specific discourses which are associated with their different epistemological authority or power within their schools. In the JET programme, Miyazato (2006) points out the unequal power relations which exist between the two team teachers. In her research on power sharing in team teaching relationships, Miyazato (2009) argues that native English speaking teachers have linguistic and sociocultural power over the target language, whereas Japanese English teachers are viewed as the cultural and occupational experts in the local culture. However, Miyazato (2006; 2008; 2009) seems to characterise their power relationships in a dichotomous and linear perspective; that is, NETs are linguistically powerful whereas Japanese teachers are linguistically powerless in the target language. However, it may not sufficiently account for exploring complex power relations between team teachers.
3.4.4.2 Role and responsibility

As for role relationships between team teachers, most of the studies based on the NET schemes in EFL classrooms (e.g. Japan, Hong Kong, Korea, and Taiwan) tend to focus on pedagogical roles and responsibilities including their perceptions. Mahoney (2004) administered a large-scale questionnaire to classify, outline, and clarify the perceptions of team teachers’ role responsibilities in the JET programme. In this study, he presents the main roles they expected for themselves and their partners which revealed role controversy or discrepancy among team teachers. Aline and Hosoda (2006) discuss team teaching participation patterns of homeroom teachers in Japanese primary schools and identify their interactional features and positions. These four patterns (e.g. ‘a learner’, ‘a bystander’, ‘a translator’, or ‘a co-teacher’) reflect their roles in each context. Meanwhile, some of the native English teachers are described as human tape recorders due to their limited role in the classroom (Miyashita 2002). Sturman (1992: 146) proposes ‘flexible equality’ between team teachers which could allow them to better accommodate different personalities and viewpoints and define their respective roles and responsibilities in team teaching. In addition, Tajino and Tajino (2000) suggest five classroom team teaching patterns and discuss a degree of flexibility to team formation which helps identify teachers’ roles more clearly. In a later study, Tajino (2002) scrutinizes foreign teachers’ role expectations through the voices of local Japanese teachers, stating that the gap that exists between team teachers is due to potential role discrepancy. In a similar vein, many researchers (Chen 2007; Chou 2005; Kim & Ko 2008; Liu 2009; Macedo 2002; Tsai 2007, 2009) point out the discrepancy in roles expected by team teachers and their partners or their unclear defined roles in team
teaching classrooms. Even though each scheme stipulates roles and responsibilities for LETs and NETs, how to take charge of and share them largely depends on team teachers themselves. Park (2008) argues that the roles and functions of NETs should be clarified and team teachers need to make sure that they have a proper understanding and expectation of each other’s role.

3.4.4.3 Distance-closeness

Distance-closeness has variables in terms of scope, interpretations, and terminologies but it consists of one or more of the following: ‘length of acquaintance, degree of familiarity, sense of like-mindedness, frequency of contact, positive/negative affect and social similarity/difference’ (Spencer-Oatey & Franklin 2009: 106). Social/interactional role relationships may partially influence the power and distance of the relationships and specify the right and obligations of each role member. As for collegial relationships between team teachers, Tsai (2007) identifies three pairs of team teachers in her study as ‘mutually supportive friends’, ‘unwanted partners’, or ‘friendly teaching partners’ respectively. Along with their collegial interactions, these descriptions show the degree of familiarity or closeness between team teachers. In Liu’s research (2009), she portrays the relationship between a pair of team teachers as ‘good friends’ because they have close interaction both inside and outside their workplace and share their personal life, experience and emotion.
3.4.4.4 Face sensitiveness

Face is concerned with people’s sense of worth, dignity and identity, considered as a unitary concept as well as a multifaceted phenomenon. It has cognitive foundations but it is socially constituted in interaction (Spencer-Oatey 2007). Face is closely related to issues to do with respect, honour, reputation, status, and competence and a person’s sense of identity such as individual identity, group identity, and relational identity. Moreover, face issues and its sensitiveness can vary according to individual and contextual differences.

As each team teacher is not only an individual English teacher as well as a partner to another teacher, the interpersonal interactions and relationships between team teachers are inextricably connected with the relationships among power, distance, roles and responsibilities in their team teaching contexts. In addition, the attributes of face sensitivities can apply to the individual and to the community which team teachers belong to. In particular, ‘face threatening acts’ (Brown & Levinson 1987: 60) may create an obstacle to rapport building and management between team teachers while interacting with each other in team work, specifically while engaging in certain communicative acts such as disagreement, negotiation, requests, and apologies.

3.4.5 Interrelation between interaction and relationship

As Tsai (2007) states, the patterns of team teachers’ interactions reflect characteristics of their relationships. The ways team teachers engage in pedagogical activities, share roles and responsibilities, or communicate with each other reveal their relationships. That is, team teachers have a reflexive relationship between
their interactions and their relationships. For example, when one teacher takes charge of more roles and holds a greater level of responsibility for decision-making than the other teacher, their relationship can be characterised as a ‘leader and participant’ or ‘mentor and apprentice’ relationship (Richards & Farrell 2005: 162-163). In addition, as Creese (2005) states, in the teacher-to-teacher interactions, teachers form different kinds of relationships which impact on the teachers’ discourse. Tsai (ibid.) reports that body language (e.g. eye contact and facial expressions) and spatial relations in the classroom show the team teachers’ relationship (e.g. amicable and easy relationship). In addition, the diverse relationships between team teachers can reflect their interactions inside and outside the classrooms. For example, Liu (2009) mentions that the two team teachers in one case of her study were more like friends than colleagues as they had more personal interaction and in-depth communication. Thus, team teachers usually engage in the interplay between interactions and relationships in team teaching contexts. As team teachers’ interaction mirrors their relationship and vice versa, it would be better to discuss their reciprocal relation together. In this study, I will refer to its reflexive relation as interactional relationship.

3.4.6 Team teaching as team learning in a social context

As discussed above, there are multidimensional features of the interactional relationship between team teachers. In addition, their complex interactional relationship can affect not only their team teaching implementation but also professional development through teacher learning (mentioned in Section 3.1.1) in diverse ways.
As Fagan (2008: 1) posits, one common trend of different sociocultural perspectives is ‘the belief that learning occurs through social interaction with others within specific contexts and communities’. In particular, Vygotskian sociocultural theory provides useful insights to understand teacher learning (Johnson & Golombek 2003) and social contexts in team teaching. Teaching is a social activity as teachers carry out instructional activities within a socially constructed network (Freeman 1996; James 2001; Johnson 2000). Johnson (2000: 4) also mentions that ‘the place where teaching occurs is not neutral or inconsequential to the activity of teaching, but a powerful force that affects what and how teachers teach’. In this light, teaching is influenced by sociocultural settings and the ways in which teachers learn to teach and improve their teaching practice develop from the given contexts where teachers are situated (Putnam & Borko 2000). Eisen (2000: 6) states that teaching and learning are inseparably connected, highlighting a key strength of the teaming process which generally serves to solidify this connection. Team teachers with different backgrounds are able to engage in a diversity of social interactions with each other as well as with other colleagues. By sharing their knowledge and expertise together and gaining the benefits from conversations full of new insights into teaching and learning, team teachers acquire knowledge about useful pedagogical practices, their students, and the cultural and instructional contexts of their classrooms (Putnam & Borko ibid.). Tajino and Tajino state that it is essential to have the view that classroom interaction should not be considered as unilateral actions led by teachers but a co-production of all the participants in a classroom (Allwright 1984 cited in 2000). They argue that team teaching should be reinterpreted as ‘team learning’ (ibid.: 6). When team teaching is team learning, all
the team members, both teachers and students, are encouraged to interact with one another by creating more opportunities for them to exchange ideas or cultural values and learn from other team members. Wang (2012) mentions that it is important for both teachers to engage in team teaching and collaborative learning, which can be a key in developing collaborative skills.

Therefore, team teaching implies not only the interactions and relationships between team teachers but also socioculturally constructed and context-based activities through their collaborative interplay.

3.5 Summary

Teacher collaboration is a key in enhancing teacher learning and professional development. Team teaching, one of the most collaborative partnerships in education, has been implemented in diverse ELT contexts. In particular, team teaching occurring in several East Asian EFL contexts is based on the NETs schemes. These schemes are intertwined with social, political, and economic needs as well as with educational policies and explicitly show a preference for NETs and native English speaking norms. In addition, inflexibility in team selection and in the team-building process can constrain their collaboration and every teaching team has the potential to reach quite different levels of collaboration and experience different dynamics and challenges. In these contexts, the team teachers tend to face relatively greater challenges in integrating and achieving successful team teaching in the classroom than those who have a ‘voluntary’, ‘organic’, ‘sustained and evolving’ partnership (Hargreaves 1994 cited in Creese 2005: 110).
With a focus on team teachers, I discuss their interactions and relationships in diverse aspects. Drawing on research dilemmas on team teachers’ interaction and relationship, I emphasise the notion of context in team teaching along macro-micro continuum and as a physical space. In addition, the empirical research on interaction between team teachers is examined in relation to problematic issues and limitations (e.g. analytical approach and framework, absence of classroom discourse). Based on some relevant features of interpersonal relations such as power, distance-closeness, roles and responsibilities and face sensitiveness, relationship between team teachers is explored. Then, I state that interactional relationship refers to the interplay between team teachers’ interaction and relationship. Finally, from a sociocultural perspective, as team teaching is not simply associated with teaching, I argue that it is necessary to understand team teaching as team learning co-constructed in a social context.
CHAPTER FOUR

Research Methodology

This chapter aims to present a detailed account of the research design for this study and to explain the data collection and analysis process. For this study, I carried out a qualitative case study and used semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, document analysis and a research journal to collect data. The multi-method data collection process enabled me to generate in-depth description, explanation and interpretation. The following sections will begin with an introduction to paradigmatic stance and qualitative case study and how such an approach relates to my research concern; this will be followed by discussion of research methods, the fieldwork procedure, and an outline of data analysis.

4.1 Qualitative case study

4.1.1 Paradigmatic stance

The purpose of the qualitative research is ‘to understand situations in their uniqueness as part of a particular context and the interactions there ... to understand the nature of that setting - what it means for participants to be in that setting, what their lives are like, what is going on for them, what their meanings are, what the world looks like in that particular setting ...’ (Patton 1985: 1 cited in Merriam 1998: 6). Given the aims and focus of this study, a qualitative approach allowed me to explore the participants’ experiences and perspectives and to understand the contextual factors and their complexity in their natural contexts.

In terms of ontological stance concerning ‘the nature of our beliefs about reality’ (Richards 2003: 33), my stance is closer to ‘relativist’. That is, it is believed
that there is no single reality but multiple realities socially constructed by different individuals and groups in different circumstances. More specifically, the same phenomenon or event can be viewed, interpreted or explained from different perspectives by research participants as well as the researcher (Bassey 1999; Cohen et al. 2007; Duff 2008; Guba & Lincoln 1994). This study explored the participant teachers’ interpretations and perspectives of their own reality, which was created by all of the individual participants.

With regard to epistemological stance associated with ‘the nature of knowledge and the relationship between knower and known’ (Richards 2003: 35), I adopted a more ‘subjectivist’ stance which assumes that knowledge is created through interaction between the social world and the individual. In addition, the social phenomena are not independent of our knowledge, so perceptions of social phenomena are subjective and researchers have their own values and perspectives. As a result, all investigations and understandings are value-laden and inevitably subjective. In this sense, the interpretations and perspectives of the participants influenced my perspectives on and understandings of the phenomenon in this study.

Based on the ontological and epistemological stances mentioned above, this study is more in line with the tenet of ‘social constructivism’, that is, ‘reality is socially constructed so the focus of research should be on an understanding of this construction and the multiple perspectives it implies’ (Richards 2003: 38). As Richards (ibid: 39) states, constructivism has the position that ‘knowledge and truth are created rather than discovered and that reality is pluralistic’ and ‘constructivists seek to understand not the essence of a real world but the richness of a world that is socially determined’. In this sense, this study explored the multiple perspectives
of the participants and understanding of their world socially constructed in their contexts. Moreover, these interpretations and understanding were constructed through interaction between the participants and me as the researcher.

4.1.2 Definition and rationale

The case study has been applied to a wide range of fields of research in social science and is regarded as a typical tradition of qualitative inquiry in education and language teaching and learning (Benson et al. 2009). Recently, case studies have tended to be more subjective and interpretive, dealing with more diverse issues such as learners’ and teachers’ identities, teachers’ professional development, education policy, and programme evaluation (Chapelle & Duff 2003). According to Creswell (2007: 73):

Case study research is a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a bounded system (case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information (e.g. observations, interviews, audiovisual material, and documents and reports), and reports a case description and case-based themes.

Despite its weaknesses such as ‘subjectivity’ (Yin 2003: 35) and the challenges of the case study as ‘a choice of what is to be studied’ (Stake 2005: 438), the potential of a particular case study with high quality of description and details can still contribute to thorough and in-depth understandings of a target phenomenon, its uniqueness and its complexity. Dörnyei (2007: 115) summarises the strengths of the case study as follows:
The case study is an excellent method for obtaining a thick description of a complex social issue embedded within a cultural context. It offers rich and in-depth insights that no other method can yield, allowing researchers to examine how an intricate set of circumstances come together and interact in shaping the social world around us.

A qualitative case study is an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a bounded phenomenon such as a programme, an institution, a person, or a social unit (Merriam 1988). In addition, Nunan (1992b cited in Stoynoff 2004: 380) states that the case study is suitable for clarifying teachers’ understanding of their work and responding to the problems encountered in their professional lives.

Based on the strengths of case studies outlined above, I planned to conduct a qualitative case study for my research for the following reasons: first of all, as mentioned in Section 1.2, most of the research on team teaching in Korean EFL contexts and within the EPIK scheme has been conducted by means of quantitative approaches, employing primarily large scale interviews, surveys, tests or questionnaires (Kim 2009; Lee & Park 2009; Roh 2006). These quantitative studies were not able to probe deeply into the phenomenon in real and natural settings (team teaching with team teachers in their classrooms) and were not able to describe how team teaching is contextually constructed. Consequently, in achieving my research aim and focus, a qualitative case study was compatible with my research context; providing better understanding of interactions and relationships between NETs and KETs in real classrooms and better insights into their experience, collaboration, and learning through thick description and in-depth interpretation.

Secondly, the participants in my research were KETs and NETs with diverse backgrounds such as different levels of teaching experience and education. As
Richards (2011: 208) states, ‘case study must involve a focus on a unit or units’; each unit that I focused on in my research was the team teacher implementing team teaching in each context. Furthermore, a case could be each different school, each pair of team teachers, or a bigger unit of KETs or NETs within cases and across cases, respectively. As emphasized by Eisen (2000:9), ‘no two teams are exactly alike because they operate along a continuum representing countless variations in goals, team membership and members’ relationships’. Subsequently, a multiple case study was more relevant to my research design which investigated diverse pairs of team teachers co-working in the different contexts of Korean primary schools. Thirdly, considering my position as a researcher in a real practical situation, I realised that I would have limitations to establish an entirely emic (insider) perspective for an ethnographic approach or intervention for action research for the following reasons: 1) a majority of Korean teachers as authority figures have tended to be unwilling to reveal their own teaching practice to others, in particular, an unknown outsider. Thus, there might be limitations of my being a genuine insider in a research context or lack of accessibility to the staff room which other teachers usually share and stay in; 2) I assumed that my active involvement in the research participants’ team teaching contexts would be limited due to a diversity of school contexts and team teaching conditions; 3) it might be essential to keep my neutral position for balance between two team teachers (a KET and a NET) so as to listen to their voices and to interpret their interactions.

In this section, I have addressed the strengths of case study research and the reasons why I conducted case study. The following sections will begin with the
nature of case study in terms of its characteristics and types; a discussion of validity and reliability will then follow.

4.1.3 Main characteristics of case study

The key features and perspectives on case studies can be categorized and identified from a number of different definitions and descriptions of case study offered by a diversity of researchers and scholars; such work serves to delineate the nature of a case study (Adelman et al. 1976; Bassey 1999; Cohen et al. 2007; Creswell 2007; Dörnyei 2007; Duff 2008; Hood 2009; Johnson 1992; Nunan 1992b; Silverman 2005; Stake 1995, 2005; van Lier 2005; Van Wynsberghe & Khan 2007; Yin 2009). In this study, I adopt some essential features of case study summarized by Richards (2011: 209) and Phipps (2009: 38) for my research concern and focus as follows:

- **Partularity:** Case studies focus on a specific situation or phenomenon (Merriam 1998), exploring ‘the particularity of a single case’ (Stake 1995: xi). Specifically, ‘the nature of a particular unit both in itself and as a case of something larger’ to which a unit belongs (Richards 2011: 208) is studied intensively with the understanding of complex social circumstances. The case can be an individual, an event, a social group, an institution or even a nation and so on.

- **Boundedness:** The focus of case study research is on ‘a bounded system’ (Merriam 1988; Yin 2003; Stake 1995) or ‘a single, relatively bounded unit’ (Gerring 2007 cited in Richards 2011: 209) whose scope and boundaries
between phenomenon and context can be neither always clearly evident nor easy to define.

- **Contextualization**: Researchers construct cases in natural settings without manipulating or controlling in specific temporal and spatial boundaries in social situations. That is, the phenomenon of a case study should be researched in its natural context. In addition, Richards (ibid.: 209) mentions that case study researchers should deal with two interrelated aspects of context: ‘the situated context with which all qualitative researchers must grapple’ and ‘the axial context within which a particular case is configured’.

- **Multiplicity**: Case studies are ideally suited for combining with multiple approaches and utilize multiple sources of data which facilitate triangulation and offer rich-information data and different perspectives on the phenomena being studied (Denzin & Lincoln 2005; Duff 2008; Merriam 1998; Yin 2003). Researchers can generate sufficiently rich descriptions and develop interpretive penetration through multiple data sources such as interviews, observation, documentation, records, and physical artefacts.

- **Flexibility**: Unlike experimental research, a case study has a flexible design which is further developed as the study progresses. Johnson (1992: 85) regards it as ‘a working design’ which may need to refocus or refine even research questions depending on new emerging issues. Moreover, researchers generate ‘working hypothesis’ while collecting and analyzing data (Cronbach 1975: 124-125 cited in Lincoln & Guba 2000: 38).
In short, summing up the key recurring principles above, a case study is ‘the in-depth study of instances of a phenomenon in its natural context and from the perspective of the participants involved in the phenomenon’ (Gall et al. 2003: 436 cited in Duff 2008: 22).

4.1.4 Type of case study

There are a number of taxonomies of case studies, which are closely concerned with the purposes of the research, the way the research is conducted and its outcome in the end product, and the paradigm that researchers employ. Yin (2003) categorizes and labels three different types of case study such as ‘exploratory, descriptive and explanatory’. An exploratory case study aims to refine research questions and propositions which can be explored through subsequent study such as a pilot study. While a descriptive case study refers to a complete description of a particular phenomenon within its context, an explanatory case study presents data as cause and effect in order to clarify how events happen. In addition to Yin’s categorization, several types of case study are classified by Merriam (1988) and Stake (1995): an interpretive case study seeks to develop conceptual categories, supporting and challenging assumptions; an evaluative case study aims at adding judgment to descriptive and interpretive case studies; an intrinsic case study is based on its own worth; an instrumental case study is focused on a broader issue; and a collective or multiple case study enables researchers to find similarities and differences through comparison between cases.
The definitions and categorizations of case study above help to provide researchers with a rationale for their research. I will outline the specific characteristics of the case study which I employed in this study.

- **Exploratory**

The exploratory character of my study can be discussed from two perspectives. First, the case of my research was the two team teachers implementing team teaching in a Korean primary school context. As Hood (2009: 70) states, ‘an exploratory case study is used when little is known about the case being examined’ -- there have been very few studies (Jeon 2010; Park & Im 2009; Shin & Kellogg 2007) focusing on team teachers in my context. Secondly, my research process was refined by a process of exploration even though it was guided by my initial research focus and plan. Through the exploration into the research context, I could adapt procedures or plans and make progress for further steps. In particular, prior to the main study, the process of preliminary work and piloting was regarded as an exploratory study (Richards 2011) which will be illustrated in Section 4.3.

- **Multiple case study**

A collective or ‘multiple case’ study can lead to ‘a better understanding and perhaps theorizing about a still larger collection of cases’ (Stake 2005: 446 cited in Hood 2009: 70). The evidence from multiple cases is more compelling, which makes the overall study more robust (Yin 2009). This study followed a multiple case study approach which consisted of ‘multiple embedded cases’ (ibid: 46) as presented in Figure 4.1. That is, four cases were comprised of four pairs of team teachers in four different schools. Within each case, individual team teachers (a KET and a NET) are
embedded units of analysis in each context. Four individual cases had not only similar features in some aspects but also different or contradictory ones. Moreover, this study involved a combination of within-case and cross-case analysis which offered a thick description and interpretation of themes and categories within cases as well as a thematic analysis across the four cases.

**Figure 4.1 Multiple embedded cases in the study**

- Each context is a different primary school.
- Each case is each team of two teachers who work together in each context.
- Each unit consists of a NET and a KET (two team teachers).

**Descriptive and interpretive**

This case study is both descriptive and interpretive. It involves not only rich and thick descriptions but also applies these descriptions ‘to develop conceptual categories or to illustrate support, or challenge theoretical assumptions held prior to the data gathering’ (Merriam 1998: 27-28).

**4.1.5 Validity and reliability**

Validity and reliability are especially complex issues in qualitative case studies. Some authors (Gall *et al.* 2005; Lincoln & Guba 1985; Patton 2002; Yin 2009) propose the criteria for evaluating case studies or qualitative research and strategies to enhance validity and reliability. Internal validity can increase through
prolonged engagement and constant observation in the research field and through triangulation such as multiple data sources and data collection methods. This study was conducted during a period of six months and involved multiple data collection methods (interviews, classroom observations, document analysis); for the classroom observations, 42 lessons were observed and 28 hours of data were collected). Rallis and Rossman (2009) state that triangulation strengthens the conclusions which can reasonably be drawn from the analysis. In addition, member checking was carried out by getting feedback or comments on the participants’ interview data by arranging meetings and sending emails. For peer checking, my friend, a bilingual English teacher in a junior high school in the USA who stayed in Korea during a year-long break, was involved in checking translations and descriptions. With respect to external validity or generalizability, Richards (2011: 216) proposes that examining the pertinent cases carefully or using ‘strategic selection’ of a case may be more valuable and productive instead of struggling with a number of justifications and concepts of generalization or generalizability. To enhance external validity, careful case selection, a thick description and a multi-site or multiple-case study are needed. Schofield (1990 cited in Duff 2008) mentions that conducting multi-site or multiple case studies can enhance the potential generalizability and credibility of research. A thick description presents the findings in rich contextualized detail and in-depth accounts of the participants’ standpoints to readers. In my study, four cases, that is, four pairs of team teachers in four different primary schools were selected and four cases had unique and diverse characteristics in many aspects. Field notes, interview scripts, video summary notes and a research journal were used in order to provide a thick description.
According to Silverman (2005: 224), reliability refers to the ‘degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions’. Yin (2009: 45) suggests two tactics to improve reliability and overcome weaknesses of a case study: ‘the use of a case study protocol’ and ‘the development of a case study database’. I established a database including field notes, interview transcripts, video summary notes, and documents.

4.2 Research methods

This section will present multiple methods employed for data collection in the study. The interviews and observations represented the main data sources and supplementary or additional information through documents analysis and a research journal was used. In the main study, non-participation observations were primarily used to explore team teaching implementation in natural settings (classroom) and individual interviews provided sufficient data to investigate team teachers’ personal experience, perspective, interaction and relationship. In addition, different types of interviews and observations were adopted with different purposes according to each procedure of data collection in the research process.

4.2.1 Interviews

Interviews have been frequently used in case studies with other data sources such as archival records, physical artifacts, observations and documentation as a means of developing in-depth understandings of phenomena with triangulation (Yin 2009).
In addition, the qualitative interview as ‘conversation with a purpose’ (Burgess 1984: 102 cited in Richards 2003: 50) or ‘professional conversation’ (Kvale & Brinkmann 2009: 2) has been considered as a significant instrument to obtain rich detail to generate data in qualitative inquiry by accessing and presenting participants’ beliefs, attitudes, perceptions and experiences. As Kvale and Brinkmann (ibid.: 1) state, ‘the qualitative research interview attempts to understand the subjects’ points of view, to unfold the meaning of their experiences, and to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations’. In this sense, qualitative interviews were employed to explore the team teaching implementation from team teachers’ points of view, to unfold the meaning of their personal experiences and perspectives, and to uncover their classroom and primary school contexts. In particular, interviews with KETs and NETs conducting team teaching in the classrooms would contribute to insights into their personal motivation, career progression, developing partnership or conflicts and evolution of team teaching processes from a preparatory stage to an evaluative stage. Taking the whole process of interviewing the research participants into account, I was allowed to enter into their various worlds and perspectives as well as the knowledge constructed in interaction between myself and the interviewees (Patton 1990; Kvale & Brinkmann 2009). Moreover, face to face interviews enabled me to obtain more detailed and sufficient data including participants’ body language, facial expressions, voice tones, moods, or hesitations and to delve deeper into their real stories and practices through the gradual process of establishing rapport. In my research, different types of interviews were undertaken: semi-structured and open interviews in terms of an interview format and narrative, reflective and evaluative interviews in the aspect of interview content.
• **Semi-structured interviews and open interviews**

For the diversity of contexts in which the interviews were carried out and for the purposes of the interviews and the wide range of the interviewees, different types of interviews for different contexts were conducted in this study. More specifically, the interviews for the preliminary work and the piloting prior to the main study were undertaken as shown in Figure 4.2. A more detailed schedule and aim of each stage of the interviews will be presented in Section 4.3.

![Figure 4.2 Interview stages in the study](image)

In my research, semi-structured interviews with the participants were primarily used and open interviews or unstructured interviews were partly deployed. Even though semi-structured interviews were planned for data collection prior to undertaking the interviews, a combination of two types of interview was formed during the interview process: open interviews in the initial stage of preliminary work, semi-structured interviews during most of the interviews, and open interviews in the final stage of the main study.

• **Open interviews with training instructors in NIIED (Preliminary work)**
The reason for undertaking open interviews at the beginning of preliminary work was due to my research context and condition. I was the first person to get permission as an unofficial visitor from NIIED to attend the EPIK onsite orientation programme for new NETs (see Figure 2.4). I needed to be explorative in an unknown world without any background information (e.g. instructors, content of programme, training system, etc.). While participating in the orientation programme, I could meet and chat with a few instructors and trainees (new NETs). I interviewed Korean and native English speaking instructors individually during the programme sessions and after the orientation. The purposes of the interviews were to explore the complexity of the EPIK scheme in terms of current team teaching status and context, and the experiences of and perspectives on team teaching from the instructors’ point of views. All of the instructors were experienced or in-service English teachers in diverse Korean contexts (from primary school level to university level).

- Semi-structured interviews with individual KETs and NETs (Piloting & Main study)

As Dörnyei (2007: 136) points out, the semi-structured interview is relevant to cases when a researcher has ‘an overview of the phenomenon or domain in questions and is able to develop broad question about the topic in advance’; such interviews enable the researcher to overcome the lack of depth and richness from structured interviews. In this sense, the main reason I chose semi-structured interviews as the main interview type in my research was due to their potential. That is, I could not only investigate my research focus on some specific topics but also leave room to probe other aspects emerging with flexibility and
unpredictability. Moreover, I was able to guide the interview more precisely and respond to the emerging views of respondents promptly while doing interviews. Even though I prepared for a set of questions guiding the interviews (see Appendix 1), I tried not to have any preconceived ideas or hypotheses. Each interviewee (KETs, NETs, vice-principals) had a different background, different contextual factors, teaching styles, and personal stories, and interpretations of her/his team teaching, events, etc. I was particularly interested in the interplay between team teachers’ interactions and their relationships inside the classroom, outside the classroom, and beyond the school.

• **Open-interviews with team teachers in the final stage (Main study)**

I conducted open interviews with the participants in the final stage of my main study. As I proceeded with more interviews with the participants, they became more individually focused on personal stories, feelings, interests, responses and even critical incidents. Due to managing good relationships with the participants, interviewees became more comfortable, cooperative, open-minded and willing to interact with me. As a result, they often adopted a candid style of talking, using narrative expressions and providing more in-depth accounts during the natural flow of the conversation.

• **Narrative and reflective elements in interviews**

As mentioned before, one of the important cores in my research is team teachers’ team teaching implementation, focusing on their experiences, interactions, relationships and perspectives. Initially, I did not intend to have a narrative interview approach as I was not convinced whether the interviewees could play the
role of a narrator, taking their own position with regard to narrated characters and events (Wortham et al. 2011) and I was not sure how I positioned myself as an interviewer with regard to interacting with the interviewees. However, some of the interviewees gradually revealed their personal experiences while processing the interviews and I discovered the importance of narrative elements told in interview contexts. That is, it was essential to elicit deeper and more detailed data from their individual stories, to some extent, which meant they played a role in their stories as a narrator. According to the definition by Polkinghorne (1988: 1 cited in Gillham 2005: 47), a narrative is ‘the primary form by which human experience is made meaningful ... a cognitive process that organizes human experiences into temporally meaningful episodes’. That is, narrative interviews are focused on ‘the stories the interviewees tell, on the plot and structures of their accounts’ (Kvale & Brinkmann 2009: 153) and, in particular, on ‘participants’ narrative reconstructions of aspects of their lives and experiences’ (Duff 2008: 133).

Regardless of my intention, I found that sharing my personal story and experience as a former team teacher was helpful not only for establishing rapport with the participants in advance but also for encouraging the participants to tell their own stories. While a few interviewees were not willing to tell their own personal experiences, other interviewees gradually revealed their biographical accounts as well as personal stories while processing the interviews. Interestingly, most of the interviewees in the main research who had team teaching experiences tended to start reflecting on previous team teaching experience with a former team teacher without any pressure. They naturally compared previous experiences of their ex-team teachers and teaching practices with the present situation which they
were involved in. As time passed, the interviewees became willing to discuss their current experiences, specific episodes or critical incidents in their contexts. While the interviews were proceeding, I became more aware that some of my participants tended to act as narrators, revealed their personal stories, including the elements of tensions, conflicts, hidden stories, and resolutions related to team teaching implementation and their team teaching partners. Moreover, after finishing classroom observations during the semester, I had informal interviews with the participants to reflect on and evaluate their team teaching experience and practice.

Most of the interviews were audio recorded on two different MP3 players with the exception of some informal interviews and chatting and notes were taken after the interviewees gave permission. Also, I tried to get some feedback or comments from interviewees after the interviews, showing my transcripts to the interviewees and asking whether there was any problematic or incorrect part of the transcripts; this issue has been addressed in Section 4.1.5.

### 4.2.2 Observations

Observation of case studies occurring in natural contexts provides researchers with a perspective on what happens in the target phenomenon (Bell 2005). In particular, observations in classroom-based research enable researchers to ‘understand the physical, social/cultural, and linguistic contexts in which language is used and collect relevant linguistic and interactional data for later analysis’ (Duff 2008: 138). According to Pinter (2010), classroom observations have a broad range of possible angles for research within classrooms: observable behaviours of teachers and
learners; classroom interaction; classroom use of teaching materials; classrooms as communities of practice; group dynamics or power relationships. As for the several advantages of observations, particularly direct observations, researchers would be able to gain a better and more holistic understanding of contexts, events and behaviours, rely less on prior conceptualizations of the settings by comparison with verbal reports or written documents, and draw on personal knowledge during the formal interpretation stage of analysis (Patton 2002; Dörnyei 2007). In this sense, in my research, observing team teachers’ classrooms and subject teachers’ rooms or staff rooms played a critical role in exploring their interactions and the processes of team teaching between KETs and NETs. Observation yielded invaluable data, specifically, non-verbal aspects which interviews would not provide such as gestures, eye gaze, and actual interactions. In my research, interviews were designed for individual participants whereas classroom observations were focused more on the complexity of classroom dynamics between the two team teachers including team teaching implementation.

Basically, I carried out observations in three different contexts: 1) observations were carried out during the EPIK orientation programme and were conducted over three days in NIIED as preliminary work; 2) one classroom observation in a primary school as a piloting study and 3) classroom observations were made of a series of 40 minute lessons taught by four pairs of team teachers (see Table 4.1). I used different observation approaches depending on the research contexts: participant observation while participating in the main onsite orientation.

Most of the primary school teachers in Korea tend to stay and work in mainly two places: homeroom teachers usually stay in their classrooms and subject teachers who take charge of teaching English, music, or art stay in their subject teachers’ room. In some cases, team teachers have their own English Only Classrooms where they share and spend most of the time in school.
programme and non-participant observation for observing the team teachers’ classroom interactions and practices.

**Table 4.1 Process of observation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Procedures</th>
<th>Preliminary work</th>
<th>Piloting</th>
<th>Main study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Contexts</strong></td>
<td>EPIK orientation programme (NIIED)</td>
<td>Classroom observation in a primary school</td>
<td>Classroom observations in four primary schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Duration</strong></td>
<td>Three days (16 sessions-24 hours)</td>
<td>One lesson (40 minutes)</td>
<td>42 lessons (28 hours)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Approaches</strong></td>
<td>Participant observation</td>
<td>Non-participant observation</td>
<td>Mixed (open + closed) observation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As presented in Table 4.1, I had observations in three different contexts with different purposes. First, I observed the training sessions of the EPIK orientation programme for new NETs. There were three reasons for undertaking observation in NIIED: 1) It was necessary to gain basic information such as current status of the EPIK and training programme for new NETs in order to understand the team teaching within the EPIK as a whole; 2) Initially, I planned to get research samples for my main research among new NETs participating in this orientation programme; 3) It was important for me to consider practical implications or suggestions for EPIK organizers, instructors, KETs, and NETs to improve team teaching implementation, based on my experience of the programme. According to Adler and Adler (1994: 378), participant observation leads ‘the observer into the phenomenological complexity of the world, where connections, correlations, and causes can be witnessed as and how they unfold’. That is, participant observation enables the
researcher ‘to share in the lives and activities of other people’, ‘to interpret their meanings’ and ‘to interact with people in their own environment’ (Burgess 1982: 45 cited in Bell 2005: 187). The reasons why I had to be a participant observer in the orientation programme were as follows: 1) NIIED did not allow me to video-record the training sessions of the programme because the senior staff member in the EPIK training team was very sensitive about revealing their actual programme to an outsider (a researcher). In fact, NIIED asked me to become a trainee like new NETs; 2) As I mentioned earlier, I was the first person to gain access to this programme as an unofficial visitor from the outside so I was eager to experience the programme as a participant. Due to my position as a programme participant, I could chat with instructors and other NETs more easily and two NETs later became the interviewees for my piloting work. Moreover, it helped me to understand what the programme was like, to access administrative staff of the EPIK organization, and to share similar training experiences with the participants (NETs) in my main research by understanding the programme as a trainee. However, as Morse and Richards (2002) argue that no observer is entirely a participant, I was a participant with my desire to explore the EPIK context focusing on the other participants rather than a perfect insider.

Except for the orientation programme, non-participant observations were mostly employed during the whole process of the study. In contrast to a participant observer who takes part in all activities as a member of a group, a non-participant observer is allowed to scrutinize deliberately the phenomenon under study without involvement in the situation or intentional influence on the events. In particular, Dörnyei (2007) points out that the researcher in classroom observation is not
involved in (or is only minimally involved in) the setting as a nonparticipant observer. In my study, I was usually located at the rear of the classroom, taking two desks: one with digital camera equipment and the other for note-taking in class. As I normally observed classes several times, the team teachers and students became accustomed to my presence and video-recording and then they did not care about being video-taped at all after the middle stage of the process.

From another approach to observation, the observations in my study might have a combination of two approaches: ‘open observation’ which might characterize the early stages of participant observation where the observer tries to get a general sense of the setting and the activities associated with it’ and ‘closed observation where the observer is strictly coding behaviour on a low-inference schedule or instrument’ (Richards 2003: 144). During preliminary work and piloting, my observations might be more related to an open approach because I had less clear ideas on what I would look for or focus on in my research fields. The process of an open approach allowed me to reshape my focus and the categories that I had planned to observe, to obtain general information on the overall research fields, and to familiarize myself with the classroom environment. In addition, during my main study, I undertook classroom observations with a more specific focus and clearer categories such as sharing roles, teachers’ talk and interactions in relation to instruction, classroom management, and decision-making.

Among the three contexts above, the English classes taught by team teachers in the main study were only videotaped with their permission. As observations provide field notes with rich and detailed data in the context where the observations are conducted, field note taking done together with recording
helps contextualize the observed behaviours (Duff 2008). In this light, I tried to write field notes in a notebook in as much detail as possible during the whole process of the observations (see Appendix 2). These notes included the descriptions of teaching activities and materials, classroom configuration, team teachers’ pedagogical roles in the classrooms and interactions with students and conversations or interactions between team teachers. In addition to classroom observations, I got limited permission to enter the subject teachers’ rooms where the participants of two cases interacted with each other or other colleagues and had formal or informal meetings and lesson planning.

4.2.3 Document analysis

Analysis of documents was employed to provide additional data in two aspects: the EPIK scheme and team teaching implementation. The documents such as the educational policy research reports sponsored by MEST (2009; 2010), the Guidebook for Guest English teachers in Korea (NIIED 2010), and the EPIK Orientation programme (NIIED 2010) enabled me to gain a holistic picture of the EPIK scheme in terms of policy, application, current status of implementation, and a proposal for improvement. In addition, such information was supportive to develop themes (e.g. differentiated skills and roles, classroom management, power relationship, or NETs’ duties stipulated in the scheme) which were generated from interview data. For the main research, the documents such as preparatory work or memos of lessons, handouts, and lesson plans used in class were collected to help
me to grasp the entire team teaching environment in primary schools as well as to follow up team teaching practice taking place in the classroom.

4.2.4 Research journal

Research journals are diaries kept by the researchers themselves during the course of a research project in addition to their observation field notes. Silverman (2005) emphasizes the importance of a research journal as it can show the development of a researcher’s thinking to the readers, help researchers’ own reflection, improve time management, and provide ideas for the future directions of the work. In addition, Duff (2008: 142) states that ‘keeping a journal becomes part of the analysis and interpretation process itself as researchers start to mull over new data and themes’. Initially, I did not intend to use my journal for supplementary data of the study but just started writing my personal notes such as my plans, emotions (e.g. frustration or anxiety), decisions, and my first impressions of people who I had contacted for preliminary work. I kept a journal over six months from when I left the UK for research fieldwork to the final interview with a KET (13th of July 2010 to 31st of January 2011). Instead of using an organization framework suggested by Silverman (2005), the content of my journals was rather close to the recommendations by Cryer (2000: 99 cited in Dörnyei 2007: 161). That is, I recorded what I did, where, how, when, and why I did it, what data I collected and how I processed it, particular achievements, emerging ideas, what I thought or felt about what was happening, and so on (see Appendix 3). In particular, the descriptive details and dialogues in the journals were important data collected from the
participants, team teachers during informal meetings such as having lunch or dinner outside of the schools. Some of the off-record conversation provided me with important data such as conflicts or arguments between the teachers. Moreover, it was helpful to reflect my research journey as well as to discipline myself for developing my approach to research contexts by noticing my mistakes or missing points.

4.2.5 Ethical issues

In qualitative research, ethical issues and potential ethical concerns should be taken into consideration from the very first stage of research to the final report stage (Cohen et al. 1994; Merriam 1988; Richards 2003; Dörnyei 2007; Duff 2008; Kvale & Brinkmann 2009). In other words, as the individual participants’ behaviours and lives are described and analysed, their privacy, welfare, and confidentiality concerns must be fully taken into account (Duff ibid.). Given that this study carried out in-depth interviews and that I was involved in participant observation and classroom observations, I considered ethical issues more seriously. Guillemin and Gillam (2004: 263 cited in Rallis & Rossman 2009: 274) mention two levels of ethical issues: one is ‘procedural ethics which usually involves seeking approval from a relevant ethics committee to undertake research involving humans’ and the other is ‘ethics in practice’, which are ‘the everyday ethical issues that arise in the doing of research’. In addition, they emphasize the importance of both levels and summarize the issues that researchers should bear in mind with thoughtfulness and sensitivity.
to research contexts. The following issues are applicable and pertinent to my research procedures and practice.

1) Informed consent

Gaining informed consent prior to starting data collection is a crucial requirement for research. In my case, my ethical approval form was approved from the Graduate Progress Committee at Warwick University before conducting the fieldwork. For the use of my study, I prepared an informed consent form and letters to NIIED, schools and teacher participants (Appendix 4 & 5), all of which were typed and printed in Korean and English. As mentioned earlier, I always had a preliminary meeting with administrative staff and the potential participants in each school to identify myself as a researcher and to explain my research details including the brief summary of the purposes of the research and what was expected of those taking part. In addition, I provided them with information on any possible risks and benefits from participation in the research, the voluntary participation of interviewees and observations and their right to withdraw from the research at any time. This procedure ensured that the participants were not deceived about the study and their roles during the data collection. Moreover, the participants were asked if any photographs taken through videotaping could be used for the purposes of the study. As a gaining consent form related to students in classrooms was omitted at KETs’ requests, I informed students by giving a brief explanation of my study and that several photographs presented in this study were coloured to protect the students’ identities. Most importantly, it was fundamentally emphasized that my research purpose and focus were not related to judgment or evaluation of teacher
participants’ teaching practice and I promised to offer them data and documents at any time if they requested.

2) Privacy and confidentiality

The issues of privacy and confidentiality must be carefully considered and treated during the whole research process of research. In other words, a researcher should protect participants’ privacy such as identities, names, and specific roles and keep in confidence what they share with a researcher (Rallis & Rossman 2009). In my study, confidentiality and anonymity about personal information of the participants were reassured before and after interviews and observations. Even though Duff (2008) points out the insufficiency of simply using pseudonyms for participants or places to disguise their identities, I gave each of the participants and each of the schools pseudonyms, hoping that their anonymity would be preserved. As for presenting and revealing data in a thesis, the participants understood and approved the matter of their identities being revealed in public. However, as one of the participants did not want me to take and use her photos, I did not take and present her photos in this thesis. In addition, I sent a copy of a draft presenting interview data and photographs to the participants in order to confirm again their final approval for the use of the data. I tried to protect their privacy regarding any case of raising ethical concern or problematic issues.

3) Trust and relationship

Establishing and sustaining a good relationship with people in research contexts play a key role in conducting qualitative research. Through an intimate relationship with participants, researchers establish rapport and empathy in order to gain access
to the participants’ lives and stories (Dörnyei 2007). However, it is necessary to consider ethical questions about the possible limitations of closeness and intimacy with the participants. The familiarity or intimacy might influence a researcher who tries to maintain a neutral and objective position and roles. In addition, there is another ethical dilemma about the relationship with participants ‘leaving the field’ (Richards 2003; Dörnyei ibid.; Rallis & Rossman 2009). The way to leave a research field in the final stage of data collection seems to be as important as the way to access a research site in the initial stage. In any case, researchers should be careful not to give participants such feelings of ‘seduction and abandonment’ (Siskin 1994 cited in Rallis & Rossman ibid.: 278). In my research contexts, I tried to compensate for the support of the participants in several ways. For example, I generally offered them small gifts whenever I met, served lunch or dinner, helped a KET search for academic references by providing relevant references, and edited KETs’ writings with comments. After leaving the research fields, I kept contact with them and I had dinner or coffee with the participants separately to express gratitude before I left my home country. Furthermore, I have kept in touch with them by email and cards. Most of the participants, in particular KETs were willing to receive my thesis and promised to support any additional work I might do if I requested this. Some KETs were interested in my research so sharing the results might be compensation enough for them. In particular, one KET emailed me that she planned to publish an English textbook for the third and fourth grade students in primary schools so my study would be supportive to her work.
4.3 Research process and fieldwork

This study was designed as a qualitative case study with the purpose of exploring team teaching by focusing on team teachers in Korean primary schools and investigating their interaction and relationship in this context. Given the aim of the research, a multiple case study was adopted, employing interviews and classroom observations as main data collection methods; document analysis and a research journal were used for supplementary data. In this section, I will present the research procedures of data collection, including preliminary work, piloting and case selection and data analysis drawn on the research design.

4.3.1 Fieldwork procedures

Before conducting the main research, it was necessary for me to explore the EPIK scheme in an actual context. Thus, I participated in the EPIK orientation programme for new NETs for three days as a participant observer and interviewed Korean training instructors, as well as native English speaking training instructors in NIIED. Then, various types of interviews were piloted with team teachers (KETs and NETs) who had been implementing team teaching in their contexts, and with vice-principals in Korean primary schools. In addition, a one-off classroom observation was followed by informal conversations with the two team teachers. In the main research, I selected four pairs of team teachers in four different primary schools in Korea. Table 4.2 shows a summary of the research fieldwork procedures in chronological order: data collection schedule, methods, and participants in each stage.
4.3.2 Preliminary work

While ‘a piloting study is a preliminary study in which a researcher tests and refines data collection and analysis methods and procedure’ (Murray 2009: 49), the preliminary work in my study was an introductory stage to explore the EPIK scheme in relation to the policy, NIIED (which has mainly organised EPIK), and the training programmes in EPIK. The aims of the preliminary work were 1) to get overall information on EPIK (e.g. the NET recruitment system and process, current status of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Procedures</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Data collection methods</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 days (Aug. 2010)</td>
<td>Preliminary Work: EPIK orientation programme</td>
<td>3 Korean instructors, 2 NET instructors</td>
<td>Observations, interviews, documents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug.-Sep. 2010</td>
<td>Piloting 1: Interviews</td>
<td>6 NETs (1 Korean American, 1 British, 1 Canadian, 3 American)</td>
<td>Observations, interviews, documents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 Vice-principals &amp; 4 KETs</td>
<td>Informal chat, interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Piloting 2: Classroom observation</td>
<td>KETO &amp; NETO</td>
<td>Classroom observation, informal chat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14th Sep.-29th Dec. 2010</td>
<td>Main study</td>
<td>Case 1 (KET1 &amp; NET1)</td>
<td>SW school (Jessica &amp; Matt)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Case 2 (KET2 &amp; NET2)</td>
<td>HJ school (Mary &amp; James)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Case 3 (KET3 &amp; NET3)</td>
<td>DK school (Rona &amp; Kevin)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Case 4 (KET4 &amp; NET4)</td>
<td>DG school (Kate &amp; Robert)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jan.-May. 2011</td>
<td>Reflection time</td>
<td>Individual team teacher of four cases above</td>
<td>Interviews, email</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
the EPIK), 2) to explore the EPIK orientation programme, 3) to obtain personal experiences and opinions from training instructors (KETs and NETs) related to teaching English or team teaching in a Korean public school context, and 4) to look for informants or participants for a piloting study and main research. After the negotiation of entry over eight months, I participated in the EPIK orientation programme as a participant observer, and this involved informal observations during the period from 23rd to 25th August 2010 in NIIED. I had informal chats and interviews with five instructors (three KETs and two NETs) and this was followed by my direct participation in the EPIK orientation programme for new NETs, particularly main sessions about English teaching practice. Table 4.3 shows a summary of interviews with the instructors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructors</th>
<th>Data collection methods</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 KET showing good team teaching experience and model in a primary school</td>
<td>Informal chat ➔ semi-structured interview after programme</td>
<td>Strategies of team teaching with a NET, limitations, suggestions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Expert KET in primary English education and teaching</td>
<td>Informal chat</td>
<td>Necessity and preparation for ELT and team teaching in primary schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Senior KET in a secondary school organising EPIK in her province</td>
<td>Semi-structured interview</td>
<td>Positive feedback and personal story (obstacles, learning, overcoming)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 NET completing one year contract in EPIK successfully (2009-2010)</td>
<td>Informal chat ➔ email after programme</td>
<td>Positive feedback on working with KETs in schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 NET teaching in secondary schools</td>
<td>Informal chat</td>
<td>Negative statement on team teaching in public schools</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While taking 16 sessions (a total of 24 hours) over three days (Appendix 6), I was a trainee like the new NETs, taking part in the activities and taking notes on lectures. In addition, I had the opportunity to build relationships with two NET trainees who
had teaching experience in Korean contexts (e.g. at a junior high school and private English institute) before applying to the EPIK. After training, they became informants, providing quite an interesting reflective essay and feedback related to their personal experience as NETs in Korea. Moreover, I had interviews with KETs instructors. Even though this preliminary work was not closely related to my main research focus, it was very meaningful for me in four aspects: 1) understanding aims, content and rationale of the EPIK training programmes more clearly by direct participation in the orientation programme; 2) learning how to negotiate entry and build relationship with research participants; 3) obtaining documents related to the EPIK 4) generating basic data through comments and feedback based on the instructors’ personal experience of team teaching and working in Korean public school contexts. The lessons from this preliminary work helped me to pilot the main research methods such as interviews and classroom observations which required a more sophisticated design and more practice, as will be discussed in the following section.

4.3.3 Piloting

A pilot study helps a researcher to refine data collection plans with regard to ‘both the content of the data and the procedures to be followed’ (Yin 2009: 92). The purpose of this pilot study was to check the overall feasibility of further research and to refine my data collection plans in terms of developing more relevant research techniques and procedures. The piloting in this study consisted of two sets: one was focused on interviews with in-service KETs, NETs, and vice-principals. The other was one-off classroom observation and informal conversations with two team
teachers. The main reasons for the division of two sets were 1) that I intended to select the cases among interviewees participating in piloting for my main study (after some preliminary work, I realized it was hard to look for team teachers who were willing to reveal their teaching practice during a certain period of time), 2) that there were very few voluntary team teachers wishing to show their team teaching practice in the classroom, and 3) that I felt the necessity to collect more sufficient interview data in order to develop clearer focus in the main research. Table 4.4 shows a summary of data collection in a pilot study.

Table 4.4 Summary of data collection in a piloting study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Data collection methods</th>
<th>Duration (min.)</th>
<th>Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vice-</td>
<td>semi-structured</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>Korean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>principals</td>
<td>interview</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>informal chat</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KETs</td>
<td>semi-structured</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>Korean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/open interviews</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 years (3yrs)</td>
<td></td>
<td>69</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 years (2yrs)</td>
<td></td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 years (5yrs)</td>
<td></td>
<td>75</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 years (2yrs)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.5yr)</td>
<td></td>
<td>86</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NETs</td>
<td>email</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 years (3yrs)</td>
<td></td>
<td>58</td>
<td>Korean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 years (3.5yrs)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 years (2yrs)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 years (2yrs)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 years (2yrs)</td>
<td>reflective essay, email</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- KETs: Years of teaching experience in primary schools (Teaching English subject)
- NETs: Years of teaching experience (teaching English in Korea)

Despite some challenges in seeking relevant and voluntary participants, the process of piloting helped me to consider the content of the data as well as the practice of carrying out research procedures in terms of

- modifying some of research foci
• eliciting conceived themes and categorizations related to the research foci
• revising interview questions
• learning how to gain access to teachers
• experiencing and understanding primary school contexts
• developing interview skills and observation techniques
• establishing rapport with participants

First of all, my initial research focus was slightly altered, from a focus on the professional development of team teachers to a focus on their interactional relationships. While exploring actual research contexts during the preliminary work and piloting, I found that there were limited data related to professional learning between team teachers. In addition, it would need longitudinal involvement in research contexts to examine professional development as the long-term effects. However, both Korean teachers and native teachers who I contacted had more pressure to reveal their teaching practice at the beginning of the new semester when they started team teaching. Secondly, through the process of contacting primary school teachers, I learned the importance of relationship with the participants, particularly with teacher participants. It was essential to actively endeavour to enter the world of teachers as authority figures under each different hierarchal system in Korean schools. Most of the participant teachers were busy in school during working hours and tended to prefer individual contacts after class or meetings outside the school. Thus, I usually met and interviewed teachers at time and in places they preferred. Due to developing good relationships with the participant teachers, I think I gained access to more teachers. For example, a KET asked her team teacher (NET) to be interviewed in my piloting and a NET gave the contacts details of other NET colleagues working in other provinces after an
interview. Most importantly, a vice-principal introduced a KET teaching in another school as a good model of team teaching. As a result, that KET became one of my cases for further research. Thirdly, while visiting schools or interviewing the participants, I was naturally exposed to each primary school context, its culture and complexity, which was useful for me to understand contextual factors affecting team teachers and their teaching practice in the school system. In addition, NETs tended to experience more diverse and unfamiliar school environments. In my main research, before starting interviews and classroom observations, I always had a preliminary meeting with team teachers in each school to understand their school context, to fully inform them of my research purpose, and to establish rapport. Fourthly, I found some problems with my interview questions and skills after listening to recording files: first, some interview questions seemed too broad or vague to elicit specific responses from interviewees. Second, I sometimes tended to dominate the interviewees or talk too much. Thus, I revised some interview questions, adding explanation if necessary and tried to provide the interviewees with enough time without pressing them for answers.

Regarding classroom observation techniques, I did one-off classroom observation in my piloting with note-taking instead of video-recording because video-recording was not allowed. As a result, it was a good lesson for me to realize more seriously the limitations of note-taking and the critical roles of video-recording in my research context. Even though one of my research foci was on interaction between the two team teachers, note-taking did not provide fully a series of mutual interactions as well as detailed visual clues such as body language or facial expressions. That is, it had the limited descriptions mainly focusing on
events or activities. In fact, a team teaching class had the complexity of dynamic features which I could not cover fully in a classroom without video-recording. Thus, both audio and video-recordings were employed in my main research. Last but not least, a piloting study helped generate my thematic framework based on piloting data. The evolution of this framework will be presented in the analysis chapter.

4.3.4 Sampling

As Dörnyei (2007: 126) states that ‘the main goal of sampling is to find individuals who can provide rich and varied insights into the phenomenon under investigation so as to maximize what we can learn’, case selection and purposeful sampling are important in case study. Despite some useful sampling strategies proposed by Patton (1990: 169-186), Miles and Huberman (1994: 28), Dörnyei (2007: 127-129) and Duff (2008: 115), I could not consider such strategies in the initial stages of my research situation. I had planned to select a diversity of cases but most of the team teachers that I had contacted were reluctant to be involved in my research. However, with the support from the participants in piloting, I was able to select new diverse cases, that is, team teachers with different background, teaching experience, or teaching conditions. In my study, a combination of case selection strategies was used. Duff (2008:124) argues that it is useful to select four to six focal participants for study in one or more sites which ‘provide interesting contrasts and corroboration across the cases’. Overall, four cases in this study is a ‘strategic selection’ (Richards 2011: 216). Even though four pairs of team teachers had a few common conditions (e.g. same gender combination of team teachers: female KETs
and male NETs, contract period for NETs, or administrative work related to Educational office), each case had different forms of teaching style, experience and context with diversity. In addition, the procedure for finding some cases was rather closer to snowball or chain sampling as the vice-principals recommended the KETs for the two cases which enabled me to obtain rich information and data on my research concern; also, an ex-colleague introduced me to a potential KET who would participate in my research. Once KETs agreed to be my research participants, they sounded out their NET team teachers’ interest in taking part in the research. Interestingly, except for a NET from one case, the rest of the NETs were very interested in my study and got involved in interviews actively. In addition, two schools associated with two of the cases which had totally different contextual conditions were located in the same district so, to some extent, I saved time and effort for data collection. From a practical point of view, after I had classroom observations and interviews with one case in a school, I often met another case in another school to ask some missing points or questions about emerging issues.

In this study, four pairs of team teachers in four different primary schools were selected for the data collection (four KETs and four NETs). Due to school regulation and policy, a majority of primary schools had at least one NET working with KETs. Thus, each case consisted of two team teachers (a KET and a NET) in a school. The detailed account for each case will be presented in Table 5.1 and the schedules of interviews and observations will be shown in Appendix 7.
4.4 Data analysis

Qualitative data analysis is the synthetic process of systematically examining, describing, summarizing, analysing or reconstructing the data so as to address the research questions (Miles & Huberman 1994). Qualitative case studies tend to have more ‘iterative, cyclical or inductive data analysis’ (Duff 2008: 159). In this study, based on a data-driven inductive approach, a combination of several data analysis approaches and processes was adopted: open, axial, and selective coding (Straus & Corbin 1998: 101), thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke 2006), steps and modes of interview analysis (Kvale & Brinkmann 2009), categorization and coding (Richards 2003), cross-case analysis (Merriam 1998; Creswell 2007; Duff 2008). Data analysis for the study involved the following stages.

4.4.1 Transcription and translation

As presented in the research of Cortazzi et al. (2011), language choices for interviews can largely influence the data obtained. However, due to the participant teachers’ clear preference for using L1, I interviewed KETs in Korean and NETs in English. During and after data collection, interview data were transcribed in each native language Korean for KETs and English for NETs; later the KETs’ data were translated into English. Even though there were some ‘translation dilemmas’ (Temple & Young 2004) in generating transcripts in English (e.g. different sentence structure, lack of lexical choice, nuance), I tried to preserve the original meaning in translation as much as possible. As for each of the observed team teaching lessons and other video-records, the classroom data were summarised with a brief description of the activities in the lesson, interactions (between two teachers,
between two teachers and students, and between a teacher and students, etc.), some comments on distinctive features, and a section on issues or propositions emerging from the observation of the lesson (see Appendix 8). In addition, teachers’ conversations (procedural or private talk) in the classroom were placed on separate notes.

4.4.2 Codification and categorisation

Firstly, while repeatedly reading the transcribed data, I highlighted the interesting passages or put initial comments or memos which were useful for developing a further analysis stage (see Appendix 9). In this process, I prioritised each L1 transcript (Korean and English versions) to grasp more sophisticated and detailed accounts from participant teachers who preferred using their L1. Dörnyei (2007) states that new insights can emerge through this process as preliminary codes. After the initial coding process was completed, codes were gradually refined, compared, or merged into different labels. Codes are labels for assigning units of meaning to the descriptive or inferential information collected during the study (Miles & Huberman 1994). For the study, codes were short forms, placed in the margins of the piece of data (see Appendix 10). In addition, whenever I finished reading the written scripts with reshaped codes, I drew diagrams or maps which delineated pre-conceived themes and new emerging ideas (see Appendix 11). Secondly, the data with specific themes (e.g. motivation, willingness, language proficiency, etc.) were codified and recurring themes and patterns were labelled. Once all the data in each case were analysed and codified thematically, data identified by the same or similar codes were collected together. I printed out such
transcripts on four different coloured papers. I cut the thematic scripts out of the transcript paper with scissors, displaying them in a line of groups (see Appendix 12). This manual way of arranging the data with similar themes or deviant factors was likely to create several jigsaw puzzles, which enabled me to immerse myself fully in the data and visualise a large amount of data simultaneously. This process of categorisation is defined as the process of grouping concepts that seem to pertain to the same phenomenon (Strauss & Corbin 1998). Thirdly, the categories arranged within specific themes (e.g. modelling, discipline, decision-making, intervention, etc.) were further analysed within and across categories. Through the categorizing processes, the categories merged into others or created new ones.

As a multiple case study, this study consisted of four cases (four pairs of team teachers). Thus, after analysis of each case, a cross case analysis was conducted so as to seek to ‘build a general explanation that fits each of the individual cases, even though the cases will vary in their details’ (Yin 2003: 121). As Schofield (1990: 212 cited in Duff 2008: 177) asserts, ‘a finding emerging from the study of several very heterogeneous sites would be more robust and thus more likely to be useful in understanding various other sites than one emerging from the study of several very similar sites’. Even though each case had contextual variables and a diversity of teachers’ backgrounds, a cross-case analysis approach was valuable for exploring the particularity or differences and similar or common features among the four cases as well as between the two groups (KETs and NETs).

Within this framework, the general approach to data analysis for the study was inductive analysis, which implied that patterns, themes and categories of analysis emerged from the data. These patterns, themes and categories derived
from the constant modifications, and comparisons were interpreted and generated a final set of categories. Table 4.5 shows examples of how I grouped codes into categories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Team teaching experience</th>
<th>Professional factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sub-categories</td>
<td>previous experience with a former partner</td>
<td>motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Codes</td>
<td>negative feeling &amp; experience; challenges, conflicts, misunderstanding, (in)experienced partner; personality; language; (un)willingness of team teaching; lack of communication; school culture; colleagues</td>
<td>readiness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>learning; attitude (proactive); engagement; active role; relationship management; communication skill; independence; adjustment; sharing; understanding of a partner</td>
<td>language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>exploring; trial and error; exchange; benefits; (un)satisfaction; effectiveness; challenges; demanding; career development; developing relationship;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>motivation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-categories</td>
<td>(un)willingness to teach English; (un)willingness to co-work with a partner; imposition; professional development; interested in career development; advantages of team teaching; preference on team teaching; opinion on team teaching (positive, negative, neutral)</td>
<td>educational background; interested in ELT; (team) teaching experience; career development; inexperienced or novice teacher; self-confidence; attending training programmes; identity as a English teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Codes</td>
<td>non-native English speaking teacher; self-esteem; communication challenges; TETE (teaching English through English) policy; dis(satisfaction) of proficiency; code-switching; NET’s L1 use; social expectation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.5 Examples of codification and categorisation (interviews)
4.4.3 Narrative analysis

As mentioned in Section 4.2.1 (pp. 86-88), the interview data had narrative and reflective elements. In terms of analysis, stories that the teachers told in the interviews were analysed with a focus on their experiences and perspectives on team teaching. As a form of representation, I used interview extracts and quotes by combining analytic vignettes and their actual ‘voices’ to provide an overview of the teachers and their contexts before discussing distinctive themes emerging from the data.

4.4.4 Classroom interaction

As discussed in Section 3.4.3, there is little literature on classroom interaction relevant to the two-teachers-one-class model and lack of analytical approaches pertinent to their interaction. Without any preconceived categories, I transcribed team teaching lessons and added some comments (e.g. pedagogical goals, language functions, teacher talk, etc.) as presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Sample transcript of classroom interaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interaction transcript</th>
<th>Code/Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>001 N: this is memory game ((pointing out the TV screen))</td>
<td>activity: memory game</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>002 everyone says memory game</td>
<td>N’s initiation- introducing an activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>003 C: memory game</td>
<td>N: grouping students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>004 N: we are going to play this game in a group</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>005 group one (. ) you raise your hand (putting his right hand up)... ((G1 raised hands)) group two ... ((G2 raised hands)) group three ((G3 raised hands)) group four...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>006 ((G 4 raised hands)) group five... ((Group 5 raised hands)) group six ((G6 raised hands))</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>010 K: good</td>
<td>K &amp; N’s encouragement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>011 N: thank you</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>012 okay (. ) we are going to play memory game=</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In particular, I placed emphasis on distinctive features which crystallised interaction between two teachers as seen in Table 4.7. However, some utterances can have multiple functions (e.g. one teacher can interrupt a partner teacher’s talking to correct his/her error, one teacher can intervene a partner teacher’s talking for translation or clarification).
### Table 4.7 Examples of codification (classroom interaction)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Features of interaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>demonstration</td>
<td>demonstrating a role-play or modelling with a partner teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clarification</td>
<td>clarifying what a partner teacher has said</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teacher echo</td>
<td>repeating a partner teacher’s previous utterance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intervention</td>
<td>interrupting a partner teacher’s talking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>direct repair</td>
<td>correcting a partner teacher’s error quickly and directly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>confirmation</td>
<td>confirming a partner teacher’s contribution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>code-switching</td>
<td>switching from L2 to L1 for the whole class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>translation</td>
<td>translating what an NET has said in L1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>partnership talk</td>
<td>Inviting a partner teacher to an activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>asking a partner teacher for help</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>referring/presenting a partner teacher in the class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>personal talk, agreement with a partner, feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>off-record talk</td>
<td>inaudible talking between two teachers (e.g. discussion, decision-making, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>body language</td>
<td>eye contract, gesture, nodding, smiling, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After this process, I grouped similar codes and categories and compared differences among cases and then generated themes as presented in the following Table 4.8. Six themes and their specific categories will be described and discussed in Chapter Six.
Critical incident refers to ‘some event or situation which marked a significant turning-point or change in the life of a person’ (Tripp 2011: 24). As ‘a critical
incident is produced by the way we look at a situation’, it can provide ‘an interpretation of the significance of an event’ (ibid.: 8). That is, critical incidents are not simply observed but ‘literally created’ (Halquist & Musanti 2010: 450). Their ‘criticality is based on the justification, the significance, and the meaning given to them’ (Angelides 2001: 431 cited in ibid.). Critical incidents which emerged from the interview data were categorised in one of the important themes, ‘solving conflict/problems’, which helped me probe the complicated relationships between the team teachers. As Chell (2004) states, the incidents are critical enough for interviewees to have good recall and recount their stories. In this study, the team teachers in each case had several critical incidents which emerged through the interaction with a team partner. The teachers’ accounts were summarised by categories (e.g. what happened, the cause, both teachers’ (KET and NET) interpretations, their responses to and understanding of the same incident, the changes arising from, or the influence of the incident, etc.). In Section 7.3.2, I will present those critical incidents in which each team teaching case had the most serious conflict with each other.

4.6 Summary

This chapter explains the research design, data collection process and methods and given an outline of the data analysis. In the following chapters, data analysis and discussion will be presented in terms of the team teachers and their team teaching implementation (Chapter Five), the nature of the interactional relationships between the team teachers (Chapter Six), and the key factors which determined their interactional relationships (Chapter Seven).
Chapter Five

Four narratives of team teachers and their contexts

In the previous chapter, I have presented a detailed account of the research design for this study and explained the data collection and analysis process. The data analysis will be discussed through presentation of three different analytical approaches which respond to the three major questions. I will introduce a brief overview of the next three chapters before returning to the topic of Chapter Five. The analysis and discussion are composed of three chapters: Chapter Five aims to introduce the background of team teachers in each case and their contextual conditions. This chapter presents narrative analysis of each individual case. This holistic overview both highlights the main experiences of the teachers and also provides a summary of key aspects of relationships as experienced by the teachers themselves. In order to do this, the chapter prioritises the teachers’ voices and concentrates on the interview data and observations; Chapter Six aims to explore and analyse the interactions and relationships between team teachers in their team teaching contexts. This chapter presents the nature of the interactional relationships according to significant themes and places an emphasis on two teachers’ classroom interaction; Chapter Seven aims to investigate and analyse the key factors that underlie the team teachers’ interactional relationships. The Chapter Seven presents diverse aspects which emerged from the analytical process and category generation, drawing on interview data, observations and photos.

As an introduction to the participant teachers, this chapter aims to provide background information from each pair of team teachers in four different schools, the contextual conditions in which they operated and the summary of their team
teaching implementation. Four pairs of team teachers in Korean primary schools were involved in this study. When the study was conducted, each pair of team teachers was teaching English in a different public primary school in Seoul (three pairs) and in Gyeonggi province (one pair).

In this chapter, I will begin each section with a brief introduction of the teachers’ schools with descriptions of relevant contextual information. Then, I will introduce the teachers’ professional and educational backgrounds and present the key aspects and distinctive features of their experiences, motivation, and perspectives on team teaching. This will be followed by a summary of the contextual conditions and the characteristics of their team teaching implementation. In order to do this, I gave space to the stories of their lives and understanding of their team teaching experiences which the participant teachers articulated. As mentioned in Section 4.2.1 (p. 86), it was immediately obvious that interview data presented included both narrative and reflective aspects. These rich descriptions captured their team teaching experiences and perspectives. Thus, I employed a narrative approach which combined analytic vignettes as well as voices of the participants as an analytic choice and a representational choice. Table 5.1 below shows the summary of the participant teachers’ background and their working condition in schools.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Team teacher</th>
<th>Case 1</th>
<th>Case 2</th>
<th>Case 3</th>
<th>Case 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jessica</td>
<td>Matthew</td>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>James</td>
<td>Rona</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationality</td>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Korea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational background</td>
<td>BA in General primary education, MA in TESOL in Korea, Training programme in the USA</td>
<td>BA in Health science in the USA, online TEFL course</td>
<td>BA in Korean Language education, Ongoing MA in Korean Language education in Korea, Training programme in Canada</td>
<td>BA in Communication in Greece</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certificate</td>
<td>1st teacher license in primary school, TESOL certificate, TEE Master</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>2nd teacher license in primary school, TESOL certificate</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous Teaching experience</td>
<td>15 years: working in primary schools (8 years: English teaching including 3 years: team teaching)</td>
<td>7 months in this school (since Feb. 2010)</td>
<td>2 years: team teaching with NETs</td>
<td>6 months for a substitute teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural background</td>
<td>Participating in several training programmes abroad</td>
<td>Living in the USA for 6 years</td>
<td>Teaching students in Nepal for 2.5 years</td>
<td>Living and studying in Greece, staying in Korea with his parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching context</td>
<td>5th grade – twice a week (team teaching with NET) 3rd grade – once a week (solo teaching)</td>
<td>Teaching with another co-teacher (6th grade) 5th &amp; 6th grades: 24 classes</td>
<td>4th &amp; 6th grades – twice a week 4th grade- 8 classes, 6th grades- 10 classes</td>
<td>4th &amp; 6th grades- 18 classes, Morning English class by School radio broadcasting (Tue. – Fri.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special comments</td>
<td>Demonstrating her team teaching practice to other teachers, writing an English textbooks for primary students since 2011</td>
<td>Working since 2010 up to 2013 present, Taking charge of supporting new NETs as a NET head teacher in the District Office of Education since 2012</td>
<td>Awarded as the 3rd place of good team teaching model by the District Office of Education in Gyeonggi province in 2010</td>
<td>working in the same school for another year (working in this school from 2009 to 2012)</td>
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5.1 Case One

After I found that a teacher who volunteered for my research was not relevant to my study because she had only solo teaching classes, I spent some time chatting with a vice-principal in that school, discussing current English educational issues. When I was just about to leave, the vice-principal suddenly introduced a teacher (Jessica) to me. She had worked with her in a previous school. The vice-principal strongly recommended the teacher to me, stating that ‘(...) she is an ideal Korean English subject teacher conducting excellent team teaching practice’. In addition, the vice-principal mentioned her background such as her qualifications and her career as a lecturer in in-service training programmes for primary school teachers. I became curious about what ‘an ideal Korean English subject teacher’ was and how she conducted team teaching with a native English teacher in her class. I contacted and asked her to participate in my research. Despite her reluctance at the beginning due to her health problem, Jessica and her team teacher, Matthew, were interested in my research and became enthusiastic participants.

Jessica was a Korean English subject teacher who co-worked with Matthew, a native English teacher from the UK, during the 2010 academic year (March to December). Their school is located in a western area of Seoul, the capital city of Korea, and it had around 900 students from the first grade to the sixth grade and 44 teaching staff and 17 administrative staff in 2010. This school had four teachers to teach English classes: two Korean English subject teachers, a Korean teacher for extra English classes after school (a contract teacher), and a native English speaking teacher. Before beginning a new 2010 academic year, an English subject was allocated to voluntary teachers who were willing to take charge of it. At that time,
more voluntary teachers wanted to take charge of an English subject so they had the competition for two places of teaching an English subject.

5.1.1 Jessica

Jessica was a Korean English teacher who had been teaching students in primary schools for over 15 years, including eight years of English teaching. She had several experiences of demonstrating her English teaching practice to other primary school teachers. For example, she used to be a presenter in in-service training programmes or workshops organised by SMOE (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education) in order to introduce ‘a good English team teaching model’ by demonstrating her team teaching practice. In addition, due to her good teaching performance over the years, she received several awards which gave her not only prizes but also the opportunity to participate in training courses abroad. She was willing to teach English to students as well as to co-work with native English teachers in school, saying ‘(.I) I feel satisfied and rewarded as we have exciting classes with children … it’s great when my students show some progress as lessons go on’. Even though Jessica majored in general primary education at the teachers’ college she attended, she was interested in English language teaching, improving her teaching skills and developing material design ability. Also, Jessica tried to develop herself as an English teacher with a view to developing her teaching career: she held a Master’s degree in TESOL from a Korean university and a TEE Master\(^8\)

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\(^8\) TEE (Teaching English in English) Master is an advanced level of certificate which is given to qualified English teachers whose TEE competence is assessed by the TEE assessment system. The TEE assessment system based on several tests and English teachers’ professional achievement was introduced by Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education in 2009. It has two levels of certificates: one is TEE Ace, which is a basic level and the other is TEE Master, which is an advanced level. It was
certificate. In addition, as a mother of two daughters in the first and sixth grades in primary school, Jessica realised that her nurturing experience was also helpful to understand what primary students were keen on and motivated by in class. Through the whole process of her career development and nurturing experience of her own children during the period of the last 15 years, she felt that she became a genuine teacher who was suitable for a primary school. Jessica mentioned that ‘(. ) these days I would be likely to teach English to students much better than before with the balance between my theoretical knowledge and actual practices in the classroom’. She participated in publishing an English textbook for third and fourth grade students in 2012 and has been writing an English textbook for fifth and sixth grade students in Korean primary schools in 2013.

As for team teaching, she had strongly positive opinions and attitudes towards the EPIK scheme and team teaching with NETs, saying ‘(. ) in spite of some challenges I would like to keep team teaching with native English teachers’. Moreover, she had very clear explanations for her preference of team teaching in her class for the following reasons: first of all, she emphasised the advantages of well-prepared instruction organised by two teachers, adding ‘(. ) I must have improvised the lessons from time to time without team teaching’. Secondly, sharing roles with her team teacher enabled her to save energy, stating ‘(. ) I can be constantly in a good mood by the end of class without being exhausted’; as a result, two team teachers could lead to a better teaching and effective learning environment. Thirdly, Jessica pointed out the benefit of complementary support

estimated that the number of English teachers of primary and secondary schools in Seoul with TEE M qualification was approximately 150 in 2010.
between two teachers. For example, as she felt that classroom English\(^9\) was one of the challenges that she faced in class, Jessica was often supported by a native teacher, saying '(.) a native English teacher complements my insufficient classroom English fully'. During a lesson, when a student asked Jessica how to describe in English the posture of a man in a picture, Jessica immediately relayed the question to Matthew and then replied to the student. Moreover, whenever Jessica needed proofreading or a check of her English writing, she asked a native English teacher to help her to revise or edit her work. She also helped her inexperienced native English speaking team teacher to learn teaching skills and classroom management, which were totally unfamiliar to him.

From her previous team teaching experiences with three native English-speaking teachers, she learned about team teaching more specifically in terms of how to guide a new inexperienced teacher, how to organise team teaching work in a complementary manner, and how to manage a good relationship with a team partner. When she had co-worked with her first native teacher, she had felt exhausted after coming back home because she had had to handle a lot of issues from housing problems (e.g. setting up a mosquito net, defrosting a water pipe in winter) to co-instruction in class. For instance, one of her former native English teachers had been extremely dependent on her so she had done almost everything by herself. Moreover, he had tended to regard his passive and dependent attitude as natural without any awareness of a native English teacher’s roles and duties. That is, Jessica mentioned that he had not been seen to get involved in their team

\(^9\) Classroom English refers to the language that teachers typically use when giving instructions, greetings, checking attendance, asking questions, responding to and evaluating students’ contributions, signalling the beginning or ending of lesson stages (Cullen 2001; Sim 2011: 147).
teaching context actively. Jessica emphasised the importance of a Korean English subject teacher’s role as a host teacher in school, stating ‘(.) regardless of the personalities and qualifications of native English teachers (.) how to guide them at the beginning of a new semester can result in success or failure of team teaching during the rest of the year’. Jessica also insisted that both team teachers needed to learn and develop their own approach to team work outside the classroom as well as inside the classroom.

Even though Jessica preferred team teaching with a native English teacher, she also had difficulties in team teaching with Matthew during the first semester because Matthew did not have any teaching experience or background knowledge about English language teaching. However, she did not involve in guiding Matthew actively but to some extent accepted and followed his own opinions or suggestions. For example, when he often carried out a series of games without any connection to textbook content, Jessica let him do anything that he wanted to try to do in class, saying ‘(..) at first I tried to accept whatever he did although I did not agree with his ways’. Once, when he wanted to conduct an interesting but challenging activity (‘dramatising’) in class, she allowed him to do it even though she felt she could anticipate what the result would be in class - his activity in class went badly. She mentioned that she thought it was ‘important to open some possibilities and potential to inexperienced teachers despite failure or unsatisfying results’. From this experience, she mentioned that Matthew learned how to organise such a demanding activity effectively and practically with more detailed preparation. During this period, Jessica intended to explore not only Matthew’s strengths but also his weaknesses as she wanted him to recognise his responsibility and to
develop his own skills as an independent team teacher. Despite a couple of conflicts and incidents caused by misunderstanding each other, both of them went through a trial and error phase without any serious trouble. After the first semester, Jessica started intervening in guiding Matthew more explicitly and in training him, sometimes very seriously, from lesson planning to evaluating students’ work as well as their teaching performance. Jessica commented that they had conducted successful team teaching from the second semester more easily and effectively. She was satisfied with her team teaching experiences with Matthew, with whom she worked together, due to his outstanding IT (information technology) skills, his sincere and diligent attitude towards students and teaching practice, and his willingness to learn about the new cultural, social, and educational contexts in which he was involved.

Jessica expressed her gratitude for Matthew’s effort and willingness to meet her fastidious demands and expectations, even though she often tended to push him hard to prepare lessons thoroughly because of her characteristics as a perfectionist. Furthermore, she evaluated her team teachers and team teaching satisfactorily and felt that Matthew was the best native English teacher compared to other native English teachers that she had worked with.

5.1.2 Matthew

Matthew was a native English speaking teacher who was born in the UK and migrated to the USA at the age of 17. He graduated from a university in the USA in 2009, majoring in health science. He mentioned that his experience of migration was helpful in understanding other cultures, saying ‘(.) the transition to a new
As Matthew was motivated by a keen interest in different cultures, particularly Asian cultures, and by his friend’s recommendation to work in Korea, he applied for an English teaching position and came to Korea as an English teacher in February 2010. Even though he did not have any previous English language teaching experience, he dedicated himself to the completion of a 100 hour online TEFL course provided by SMOE (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education). Matthew seemed to get accustomed to his new environments easily and securely (e.g. the environment provided by Korean society and culture and the Korean primary school and classrooms he worked in).

At the beginning of the first semester, though, Matthew faced some problems caused by his inexperience in teaching EFL students, mentioning that ‘(.) within the first month none of these students really understood me (.) they just looked at me blankly ... I did not even know why they looked so confused’. Until Jessica advised him, he did not recognise several problems such as the complicated and inappropriate English instruction or direction he was using with his students, his fast speaking pace, or his missed opportunities to check his students’ comprehension. However, Matthew soon realised his problems related to delivering instructions and found a way to meet the level of the students and to balance the lesson with simple and easy explanations through demonstration. He mentioned that he ‘became more aware of ‘teacher’s talk’ in class while instructing, explaining, or asking questions to a whole class’.

With regard to team teaching with Korean teachers, Matthew preferred team teaching because it was not easy for him to take on the whole burden of the
class without their support and guidance. However, he pointed out the challenges of implementing team teaching as well, mentioning that ‘(..) team teaching is more than negotiation (..) we need good communication with each other as well as a sort of compromise’. He felt the difficulty of keeping balance with two Korean team teachers who had different team teaching styles. For example, while another Korean team teacher tended to organise almost every process alone, assigning specific parts to Matthew, Jessica asked him to make his own lesson plan based on the format with some key points which she pointed out. He seemed to have a more personal and closer relationship with another Korean team teacher who took charge of an English subject first and was a similar age to Matthew. Matthew once complained to Jessica that his native English speaking colleagues working in other schools did not make lesson plans like he had had to. However, while at first he had had a hard time keeping in step with Jessica to meet her expectations and demands, he felt he had learnt a lot from the process he had experienced. From almost the end of the first semester, he could produce his own plans smoothly and quickly.

With strong support from Korean team teachers, Matthew learned teaching skills as well as developed teaching materials such as high quality PPTs and games, which he later regarded as his ‘tactic’ on preparation of classes for the new academic year. In reflecting on his first year as a teacher, he stated: ‘(..) it has been a very good year’, adding ‘(..) thanks to my materials and learning from last year it will be an easy year!’ before his second new academic year in 2011.

In addition, he stated that he felt he had become a more skilful teacher and that he really enjoyed teaching students as well as co-working with other Korean teachers in school. Jessica commented that Matthew was ‘an ideal native team
teacher’: he demonstrated a strong sense of responsibility, he was insightful, and he had a harmonious relationship with other teachers who described him as ‘a smart and independent assimilator.’ Matthew also commented that ‘(.) I was very very lucky to have Jessica (.) she was very good at English and professional, very dedicated to making very high quality materials … basically I learned routines from her (.) particularly making lesson plans and the order of the class and homework checking’.

After Matthew succeeded in completing his first year of the contract in 2010, he went on to teach English with other new Korean teachers in the same school for three consecutive years. Due to his positive team teaching experience with Jessica, Matthew seems to have become a more confident and independent teacher who is more likely to lead instruction with new Korean team teachers. His teaching performance in open classes\(^\text{10}\) was evaluated with good feedback by other English subject teachers who worked in other primary schools which were located in the same district in November 2010.

5.1.3 Contextual conditions and their team teaching

Jessica and Matthew stayed in the English Only classroom during the class and usually spent time co-working in the subject teachers’ room\(^\text{11}\) before and after class.

\(^{10}\) Open classes aim to provide teachers with opportunity to present their teaching practices and to foster their professional development with the feedback from other teachers and parents who attend the class.

\(^{11}\) The subject teachers’ room in this school was used by teachers teaching English, music, practical courses and art.
The school opened an ‘English Only Classroom\textsuperscript{12}’ in December 2009, which was sponsored by the Seoul Metropolitan Offices of Education.

The English Only classroom was located in a new building next to the main school building. As shown in Picture 5.1 above, the blue entrance door was framed by an orange rectangular outer door called ‘English Zone’ (1). It was designed with learner friendly facilities such as computer equipment, a bulletin board (2), a touch-screen TV set (3) between a sliding type of blackboards, a collection of books, and attachable desks. This classroom, which had interesting exterior decoration, was only used for teaching English subjects. There was a wooden bench in the corridor next to a bronze imitation streetlamp, and colourful learning material boards and pictures with the names of fruit, the different figures, numbers, and a world map were posted on the outer wall of the classroom, and half of the outer wall was covered with printed wallpaper which had an actual image of the panoramic view of the Sydney opera house. In the classroom, four separate blind curtains contained well known attractions such as the Eiffel tower in Paris or the Neuschwanstein

\textsuperscript{12}English Only Classroom is the place designed to teach an English subject in a learner-friendly environment with the support of facilities. It has been sponsored by the Provincial (Metropolitan) Offices of Education (p. 15).
Castle in Germany, and students’ work was displayed on the notice board. Jessica mentioned that ‘(.) without this English room we cannot do well ... everything is good for students and teachers as well (.) we can have refreshing and exciting moods in class compared to ordinary classrooms’.

The students moved from their classrooms to the English Only classroom whenever they had English classes. Jessica devoted herself to designing this classroom and decorating inside and outside the classroom; as a result, she was proud of this classroom and loved to make use of it for her classes. Matthew also liked the English Only classroom because he preferred computer mediated teaching, which he considered as a critical medium for delivering lessons to students more easily and visually and for the fact that he was good at operating computer programmes.

Jessica had 19 classes per week: six classes for the third grade students who had an English class once a week, 12 classes for the fifth grade students who had English classes twice a week and an extra class for supporting students. She conducted solo-teaching for the third grade students and team teaching only for the fifth grade students with Matthew. Matthew had 24 classes per week: 12 classes for the fifth and sixth grade students, respectively, which meant he co-worked with another Korean team teacher besides Jessica. That is, Matthew had to co-work with two different team teachers in this school.

Jessica and Matthew spent most of time in the subject teachers’ room lesson planning, evaluating and discussing their teaching, and chatting after class. Six other teachers also shared this room together and they often had a tea break. As presented in Picture 5.2, the desks were arranged for Jessica and Matthew to
face each other diagonally, which made it slightly difficult for them to communicate with each other without interrupting other teachers. Thus, they exchanged email frequently and discussed some issues at the table in the middle of this room, when necessary.

Jessica and Matthew had tried to prepare the plans for two lessons a week in advance but they usually finished them every Friday of each week; this included preparation of all the materials for the class work such as printing every worksheet, completing PPTs and arranging the DVDs to be used. As for the process of lesson planning, Jessica and Matthew had a tacit understanding: Jessica suggested the main idea and structure whereas Matthew completed the details based on a fixed format. They occasionally exchanged ideas or comments through MSN or email, when necessary. While Jessica took the lead in planning the whole structure of a lesson, she had a lot of IT support from him for programs such as Flash, Excel, and Power Point and for use of YouTube clips, etc.

As for instruction, the two teachers tried to co-instruct every lesson as much as possible in the aspect of teaching practice by introducing key expressions and
new activities, presenting demonstration and doing a role-play. Generally, Matthew introduced new activities to the students, stating the name of the activities, giving the rules, showing how to play and what to do, whereas Jessica would intervene at any time to give additional explanation in English or in Korean when necessary. For example, when they co-instructed a ‘memory game’, Matthew introduced it to students with easy explanation and Jessica checked up the word ‘memory’ in English and ‘gieok’ in Korean. Moreover, they demonstrated an example of this game, sharing roles as a teacher and a student in front of a whole class. At times, Jessica reinforced students’ comprehension and supported lower-level students naturally by speaking in both Korean and English. In particular, Jessica used code-switching to help a whole class to easily follow Matthew’s instruction. However, the aspects of instruction to be delivered by each teacher were slightly separate and different. For instance, while Matthew tended to focus more on speaking aspects, Jessica emphasized new vocabulary or highlighted grammatical aspects and the key expressions students had learnt.

They had complementary collaborative roles and interaction to support each other. For example, while Jessica had students review key expressions they had learnt in the last class, Matthew made preparations for the next activity by collecting small white boards, markers and erasers. While the video clip was playing, Jessica wrote clue words for sentences on the blackboard and Matthew monitored students’ answers on the white boards. While Jessica was explaining the task of making a poster that students would later do, Matthew walked around the classroom, showing a sample poster completed by other students in a different class.
Although Jessica and Matthew prepared each lesson fully in advance, it was necessary for them to be flexible by briefly negotiating with each other and making quick decisions in response to the dynamics going on inside the classroom. For instance, the students in some classes really enjoyed playing a ‘Super Mario game’ and requested more time to do it. In other cases, the students needed extra time to answer the questions on the worksheets in group activities whereas some students in other classes solved the questions more quickly than the given time allocation. In some cases, they changed the way they delivered content which they prepared, or altered the order of procedures, or the rules of the activity. In particular, when they conducted a new session of a lesson, they exchanged feedback immediately after every first class, which they called a ‘guinea pig.’ They adjusted the activities that they had done in class and then tried to apply a slightly different version to the class.

Jessica and Matthew’s classroom management was well organised and planned according to their own principles, which were to seek a balance between two teachers in every class. At the beginning of class, the two teachers shared the roles in the process of checking assignments together. For example, Jessica checked individual students’ homework in the corridor and Matthew rechecked it inside the classroom (see Picture 7.6, p. 271). Throughout this process in every class, they managed students with a mood in readiness for a class. The two teachers walked back and forth in the classroom to monitor whether the students had any difficulties in completing their worksheets and to participate in group activities to support, for instance, an individual group with explanation and correction while students were doing group work. In addition, they had their own implicit tactic between them to discipline students, which they called the ‘angel and devil role-
play'; that is, Jessica took charge of handling punishment issues or scolding students, whereas Matthew did not get involved in disciplining students but rewarded students like an angel (more detail in Section 7.2.3). As Jessica found that disciplining students was the most challenging issue that most native English teachers had faced, she helped Matthew to reduce such a big burden and to make a good relationship with students easily by her strict role to control the whole class. After Matthew had experienced failure to discipline students when Jessica was off sick, he realised the importance of Jessica’s disciplining role and support in class.

As they conducted the same lesson plan in different classes, their daily evaluative talk and feedback affected the next class and the next session of lesson planning. Jessica and Matthew discussed daily teaching practice briefly, saying, for example, ‘(..) we should not have tried so many activities in this session’, or ‘(..) this activity needed more time allocation for students’. Even though Jessica tended to give more suggestions to Matthew, they tried to exchange ideas and advice for better teaching, pointing out some missing points or mistakes made by each other.

After classes, Jessica was in charge of handling follow-up work and administrative work such as designing and grading students’ regular quizzes or examinations, checking their notebooks with comments and writing official reports. Matthew often supported Jessica by helping to grade students’ exam papers and writing comments on the notebooks. Moreover, when Jessica organised and designed the English camp during summer or winter vacation, Matthew assisted her by proofreading and revising the official notice or documents, or providing interesting ideas and new activities from his experiences that he had learned in his schools. Jessica was pleased to co-work with Matthew because he was willing to
help her in many ways, emphasising, especially, that ‘(.). one of his hobbies is writing
and he used to write a column for the newspaper so his writing support upgrades
my basic writing like a real masterpiece’.

After working the officially stipulated hours of nine to five, Jessica and
Matthew usually left school; in some cases, however, they stayed at work to
prepare, for example, an open class or special presentation. Jessica was a mother of
two young children so she felt sorry not to have enough time with Matthew
privately even though they sometimes had teatime with other colleagues during
the break in the subject teachers’ room. However, they occasionally had dinner or
teatime with other colleagues out of school and chatted about various topics from
current affairs (e.g. Korean political and economic issues, tensions between North
Korea and South Korea, nuclear weapons, the educational system) to private life
(e.g. housing, friends, family). Matthew said he enjoyed having official dinners
organised by the school as well as casually socialising with several teachers. In
addition, Jessica and Matthew frequently corresponded with each other via
Facebook, sharing good video clips or photos and leaving messages. Jessica stated
that even though she did not want to infringe on Matthew’s private life after school,
she sometimes contacted him by mobile or email when necessary.

According to a rotating regulation\textsuperscript{13} in public schools, Jessica transferred to a
new school in 2011 because she had worked in this school for five years. Even
though Jessica and Matthew work in different schools now, they still keep in touch
each other.

\textsuperscript{13} Korean public primary schools have a rotation system. Public school teachers usually transfer to
another school after completing a five year working term.
5.2 Case two

The team teachers in this case were the first participants from whom I started collecting data. When I had difficulty in looking for voluntary participant teachers, my friend helped me to have a connection with a Korean English subject teacher (Mary) and the school. As my friend’s son was the sixth grade student who had been taught English by the teacher, I got some feedback from him such as ‘(. ) I liked Mary and English (. ) she made a lesson interesting and encouraged me a lot’. The two team teachers in this case gave me very positive responses about participating in my research immediately when I had contacted them and organised a meeting for a preparatory interview. At that time, the Korean English teacher was doing her Master’s degree so she empathized with my situation and the challenges that I faced in research fieldwork. As she also planned to conduct her research for a dissertation in relation to comparison between two different cultures and languages, she was more likely to pay attention to my fieldwork and I often talked about some issues regarding research methods or data collection with her after interviews.

Mary was a Korean English subject teacher who co-worked with James, a native English teacher from the USA, during the 2010 academic year (March to December). Their school is located in the central area of the Gyeonggi province which has the largest number of native English speaking teachers as well as schools in Korea. There were around 1,120 students from the first grade to the sixth grade and 51 teaching staff and 16 administrative staff in 2010. As this school had
fostered the Baduk\textsuperscript{14} programme as the specialty\textsuperscript{15} of all of the students in a whole school, the principal and vice-principal had paid relatively less attention to the English subject. Despite lack of support from the school, there were two Korean English subject teachers, two native English speaking teachers, and a Korean teacher for English conversation after class; two pairs of team teachers co-worked in two different English Only classrooms separately. Interestingly, two pairs of team teachers had a close relationship with one another and had a regular meeting together. In addition, English morning classes were broadcasted for 15 minutes from Tuesday to Friday and the students watched them on TV in their classrooms.

5.2.1 Mary

Mary had been in charge of teaching English for two and half years since she was assigned to this school. As the vice-principal found that she could fluently communicate with a former native teacher in English, he recommended her to take charge of an English subject as well as administrative work related to a native teacher when she started her first year as a teacher in this primary school. She reflected on that situation, saying ‘(..) at that time in 2008 there was no teacher who was willing to take charge of an English subject but I was more interested in teaching English rather than being a homeroom teacher’. Despite the vice-principal’s request, Mary did not have any pressure to take charge of an English subject in her first year. Even though Mary majored in Korean language education

\textsuperscript{14} Baduk is a board game for two players that originated in Ancient China more than 2,500 years ago. The two players alternately place black and white playing pieces, called ‘stones’, on the vacant intersections of a grid of 19×19 lines.

\textsuperscript{15} Each primary school tends to have the programmes or activities to foster students’ specialty such as classical music performance, English conversation, sports (e.g. baseball, basketball, and football), reading books, writing journals, debate on current issues, etc.
at her university, she has been an enthusiastic learner of different languages including English and its related cultures; as a sign of such interest of languages, she had experienced teaching children in Nepal for two and half years in an NGO (non-governmental organization) before working in this primary school. Mary stated that she had met people with different backgrounds and nationalities and had been naturally exposed to various languages and cultures from her working experience in Nepal.

In addition, she was interested in developing her profession as an English teacher so she engaged in a variety of community activities such as in-service training programmes, open classes or workshops for teachers, English festival and events organized by GOE (Gyeonggi Office of Education). In particular, she was selected to participate in a five plus one training programme for English teachers; that is, she did a five month training programme in Korea after work and a one month intensive programme in Canada and then she achieved a TESOL certificate. When she came back to school after completing this training programme, she felt that she needed to take charge of an English subject longer in school. According to the policy in the GOE (Gyeonggi Office of Education), she should teach English for three years in schools as she got a training programme in Canada through the sponsorship of the GOE. Moreover, due to her general enjoyment of studying, she was studying for a Master’s degree in Korean language education in Korea. Mary was also keen on participating in contests for teachers, which led her to present her teaching practices and methods that she applied in her classes. During the period of my classroom observations, Mary recorded one lesson which was team-taught with James and applied to the contest for good team teaching practice. Their video
record of team teaching and its report were submitted to GOE and they won the third prize in the team teaching performance.

Mary was willing to teach English in school but had a neutral opinion related to the EPIK scheme and team teaching with a native teacher. As she had taught English with native English teachers for three consecutive years, she expressed that she would like to experience solo teaching lessons organised by herself. Even though she considered that team teaching with a native teacher provided her with more opportunity to be exposed to English, she mentioned the inherent difficulty of forming a team with a native teacher, saying ‘(.) it is not easy to meet my type of a team partner’. Before co-working with James in 2010, she had team teaching experience with a former English native team teacher for two years. When Mary started her career as an English subject teacher co-working with a native English teacher, she was a novice teacher without any team teaching experience before. Reflecting on her previous experience with an ex-team teacher, Mary said that she was quite dependent on the native English teacher who had more teaching experience, following whatever he decided and wanted to do. However, after six months, she was not pleased with his attitude because he tended to ignore her suggestions or ideas as well as treat her as his secretary or assistant. Mary recounted her negative experiences with him and illustrated this with an example: ‘(.) one day I served coffee to him five times in school like his maid but he considered it usual ... what’s worse (.) he locked the door of the English Only classroom so as not to be disturbed by students during a break time (.) he was an egocentric and obstinate person’. As a result, Mary had a hard time maintaining a personal relationship even though the ex-team teacher was very skilful and
professional in terms of instruction and classroom management. Mary mentioned that she had given up communicating with him except for some necessary cases. Compared to the ex-team teacher, James did not have teaching experience in a primary school so he often failed to meet the level of students and their needs. However, Mary mentioned that even though James was relatively less skilful than the ex-team teacher in many ways, she had a better relationship with James and was more pleased to team instruct with him in class. Despite a few serious conflicts between Mary and James during the second semester, she was positive overall about her team teaching experience with James. More specifically, she mentioned that she had learnt more about how to build good relations and manage them with a team teacher rather than the pedagogical or practical implementation of teaching English in the school.

Mary commented that James was a positive, naive and open minded person and always tried to help her when she asked him for a favour. She reflected on the academic year, saying ‘(.) it is my nature not to push someone hard to follow me so I tried to get off James’ neck and did not indicate his problems directly ... but these days (.) I have wondered what if I had guided or led him more actively?’ Even though Mary felt sorry that James had deficient teaching skills and lack of appropriate decision-making during a lesson, she evaluated him as a native English teacher who was in the process of becoming a better teacher.
5.2.2 James

James (29) was the same age as Mary and is a native English speaking teacher who was born in the USA but had experience of living in other countries due to his family background. He graduated from an American college in Greece with a Bachelor’s degree in Communications. When James came to Korea due to his father’s job in 2008, he considered that he would go back to the USA or go to other countries because he was not sure about his future career and plan. However, while he was staying in Korea, he was gradually impressed by Korean things, saying ‘(..) it was totally different from what I had expected before coming to Korea’. As he became interested in Korean culture and people and was encouraged by friends in his church community, he applied for several English teaching jobs. Even though he got some offers from the private sector called ‘Hakwon’\textsuperscript{16}, he preferred working in public schools to the private sector and finally he started teaching English in a high school in 2009. James stated that his first year of teaching English in a high school in Seoul was really tough and challenging because he had never taught in his life before. Moreover, his Korean team teachers did not support him at all except for disciplining students in class, mentioning ‘(..) I had to figure out a lot of things and prepare for classes by myself (. ) I just remember taking work home’. He felt that working in a high school for a year was testing and demanding but he had learnt a lot from that experience.

After completing a one year contract in a high school, James started his second year as an English teacher by team teaching with Mary in this primary school. In comparison with his previous teaching experience in a high school, he

\textsuperscript{16} Hakwon is the Korean-language word for a for-profit private institute, academy or cram-school prevalent in Korea.
seemed more satisfied and experienced less stress in most aspects of teaching practice, communicating fully with Korean English subject teachers in English, and flexible schedules without a hectic class allocation. He considered teaching students in a primary school relatively easy and less strict, saying that ‘(.) working in a primary school is like a piece of cake’. Most importantly, James was happy with the support and interaction he experienced with Mary as he was able to co-work with her all the time, which allowed him to have a more relaxing time after class without a heavy workload. Furthermore, Paul, the other native English teacher as his colleague in the school, also helped James in many ways. Paul became a very close friend with James so they often spent time together in school and out of school after work. Whenever James had trouble with Mary or his work, he tended to rely more on his native English colleague (Paul) to get information or advice (e.g. classroom management and discipline).

Reflecting on his team teaching experience with Mary, James felt he had learned a lot of things from her, and stated ‘(.) I am lucky to meet and work with Mary in this school (.). she is really kind to me (.). despite some arguments she is always considerate and generous to support me in many ways’. James renewed a contract to work in this school for the new 2011 academic year.

5.2.3 Contextual conditions and their team teaching

Mary and James usually stayed all day long (nine to five) in the English Only classroom where they spent morning time team teaching during the class and co-working (e.g. lesson planning, material designing) after class. Picture 5.3 below shows the classroom where Mary and James usually worked. Several decorations
such as a welcome sign, a timetable or notices were posted on the dark brown wooden entrance door through which students entered and left this English Only classroom. Inside the classroom, there were an overhead projector and a screen, three whiteboards on three sides, computer equipment, a bulletin board, and a collection of materials. In addition, rules in class (e.g. Be on time), some key expressions (e.g. Where are you going?), vocabulary cards such as names of places or months and students’ work were displayed on the walls of the classroom. The windows on the opposite side of the entrance door and the backside of the classroom were hung with simple sunflower printed blind curtains.

Mary and James had 18 classes per week: eight classes for the fourth grade students and ten classes for the sixth grade students; all students had English classes twice a week. They always conducted team teaching for two different grades of students. In addition, James was responsible for 15 minute morning English programmes for all of the students through the school broadcast system from Tuesday to Friday during the second semester. After Mary had supported James with preparing for the morning programmes together during the first
semester, he took charge of managing them alone from the second semester. As they spent most time in this room together except for lunchtime, their desks adjoined each other, as seen in Picture 5.4. Mary’s desk, located on the corner of the window side, was considerably bigger, higher and wider whereas James’ desk looked quite simple, lower and relatively small. During a lesson, both Mary and James operated a computer on Mary’s desk, which was connected to a projector and a screen. During a break time and after classes, James used his private laptop computer on his desk. James did not seem to have enough space or proper place where he could put his stuff or belongings except for a small drawer which was next to his desk. However, he was not seen to care about this issue seriously because James quite often left this room, visiting another English Only Classroom to meet Paul or spending some time in the playground for playing badminton or football. When Mary and James had lesson planning, they used students’ desks to put on materials, textbooks, a guidebook, and schedule diaries.

As mentioned earlier, there were five English teachers in this school: two Korean subject English teachers, two native English speaking teachers and one Korean teacher for extra English conversation class. Thus, two pairs of team teachers co-
worked in the separate English Only classrooms, taking charge in each different grade of students (e.g. the fifth and sixth grades) and sharing teaching the fourth grade students in each half of classes. The two pairs of team teachers had regular meetings to discuss curriculum, share activities, and exchange feedback with each other. Moreover, they had teatime in a common room and had dinner together out of school. In particular, James tended to rely mainly on the other native English speaking teacher who had more teaching experience in Korean primary schools. Mary also asked the other Korean English subject teacher, a senior teacher (Lee), for advice whenever she had trouble with James or difficulties related to teaching practice. At the suggestion of the senior teacher, they tried to conduct team teaching with a different team teacher after swapping each team teacher and had time to give comments to each other.

Mary and James usually had a lesson planning discussion once a week after class. When they started talking about lesson planning, Mary brought her desk calendar and James used his own diary. First of all, she informed him of weekly schedules such as official exams, school events, or the sudden cancellation of classes. Based on weekly schedules or seasonal events (e.g. field trips, sports day, national holidays), they decided what they needed to do in the following week, writing down memos respectively on the calendar and diary. During the process of discussing the instruction and content, James marked his English textbook and Mary checked a teacher’s guidance book. In addition, when they discussed the arrangements for some activities in class, Mary and James talked about how to instruct the activity that each one wanted to conduct. After deciding an overview of main activities and content, they allocated such activities to each one and each
teacher made further details of the allocated tasks separately. However, Mary often felt discontented with James’ preparation and his allocated parts of the lesson which he had to play a key role in leading in class. For example, she was dissatisfied with the part containing the comprehension check-up that James mainly led. Whenever he asked questions regarding the video clips in the body of the lesson, he kept his eyes on a teacher’s guidebook and did not maintain eye-contact with the students because he had not memorized the questions provided or their variations. Mary thought that James’ dependence on the guidebook could be seen as incomplete preparation for the lesson and it would be necessary for him to prepare his parts more thoroughly. During interviewing them separately, Mary and James revealed different points of view in their lesson planning: James stated that he did not have any difficulty in planning lessons, saying that ‘(.) lesson planning in a primary school is much much easier compared to the high school where I worked before’. James seemed to organize his detailed parts in his own way, showing his notebook to me in which he put everything from the beginning of the year. However, Mary had a different opinion, mentioning that (.) he often failed to meet the appropriate level of learning for primary school students’. Interestingly, in contrast to Mary’s dissatisfaction with him, he was satisfied with the process of lesson planning with Mary. Despite regular discussion on their lesson planning, Mary and James had differing levels of satisfaction because of the lack of details in cooperative preparation. Furthermore, Mary had not asked James to prepare for his part with meticulous care until her senior Korean teacher pointed out several of James’ weaknesses with suggestions for team teaching improvement. As mentioned before, Mary took on a slightly passive attitude towards her team
teacher as she was unwilling to push James to follow her guidance or be directed by her expectations or demands.

In class, Mary and James tried to instruct students together as much as possible but Mary tended to prompt James to get involved in co-instruction more actively. When Mary and James planned a lesson, they shared the outline of the instruction and clearly divided specific parts that each one would mainly deliver. For example, while James usually covered pronunciation and the comprehension check-up parts such as ‘Look and Listen’ or ‘Look and Speak,’ Mary took charge of teaching grammar, vocabulary, reading, and writing parts. As for activity instructions, Mary and James supported each other, depending on the division of activities; when one teacher led an activity, explaining rules and conditions, the other teacher assisted him/her by giving additional explanations, grouping students, selecting voluntary students for demonstration and encouraging the whole class to participate in activities. However, Mary tended to dominate more of the lesson as a whole whereas James was more likely to rely on her direction or suggestions despite his leading parts. For example, when James instructed a ‘rainbow game,’ Mary led students to participate in the game and picked up the word cards, standing beside him. On the contrary, when Mary conducted a ‘guessing game,’ James stood by Mary and looked at Mary and students blankly without giving assistance (see Picture 7.3 (8) (p. 264). James did not instigate support or assistance for Mary and she only got it when she asked for it. Thus, it would be natural for Mary to dominate more of the instruction and to play multiple-roles in order to do her parts and complement some parts or detail that James missed during the lesson. However, after getting some feedback from a senior Korean English teacher in the school,
Mary decided to seriously discuss the issues about their team instruction with James. She mentioned that she had never wanted to direct James in class so she had been passive in delivering her messages or directly expressing her intention to him. Finally, they spent time watching video recordings of their instructions and talking about balanced team instruction. Later, at the end of the 2010 academic year, they demonstrated a more collaborative and developed team instruction style than they had before, at the beginning of the semester.

The most challenging issue of their team teaching in class was about classroom management in terms of the disciplining of students. They faced several serious conflicts and arguments between them, which were caused by their different point of view related to disciplining (see Section 7.3.2.2). While Mary was likely to have a mild and generous attitude to students, James seemed slightly strict. Whenever a class was noisy or some students did not pay attention to a lesson, Mary gave a warning to the whole class by ringing a bell on her desk a couple of times whereas James made students put their hands on heads after counting numbers from one to five in a loud voice. Basically, Mary did not like to treat students oppressively and tried to discipline students as a whole instead of punishing individual students when discipline was needed. Conversely, James thought that some students who did badly should be disciplined strictly and fairly and teachers’ strong discipline led to a better classroom environment. Mary disagreed with his opinions, particularly, with individual disciplining, because a few students in school had problems related to learning development and intelligence. In addition, she thought that an interesting lesson naturally promoted classroom management, saying ‘(. ) if a lesson is interesting enough for students to attract
attention. Students behave well during a class and teachers do not have to discipline students hard. However, James felt that teachers should be strict but fair to students and students should show respect to them with good behaviors and attitudes, saying ‘if I am not strict kids will take advantage of me and it is not good for the classroom atmosphere the only thing we ask is just that they show some respect and just be a little quiet when teachers are speaking’. Moreover, James complained that Mary did not discipline students properly when necessary, which made class management more difficult. Through the process of several arguments and ensuing compromise, they finally reached an agreement to share separate roles in disciplining students; Mary took charge of scolding or punishing individual students whereas James had responsibility for disciplining the whole class. In addition, she promised James that she would try to get involved in classroom management more strictly and actively. After this agreement, they did not have any more trouble related to disciplining or classroom management.

After class, Mary was busy designing worksheets or materials and handling administrative work such as writing official letters and reports, whereas James spent time searching websites which provided interesting games and new activities or making PPTs and video clips. In addition, she was in charge of administrative supports for James and the other native English teacher in school. For example, Mary assisted him in settling into a new place (e.g. housing, paying bills, opening bank account, etc.), went to the police station or the home office with James for preparation of official documents such as his criminal record or visa, encouraged him to attend in-service training programmes or workshops for native English teachers, and organized English camp during vacation. As James appreciated her
dedicated support, he occasionally gave her small gifts such as a box of chocolates
or sweets and Mary was also pleased with his concern. James spent the rest of time
with the other native English colleague by chatting and playing badminton with him
or playing football with students.

As mentioned earlier, two pairs of team teachers maintained close
relationships. As they always had lunch together in a school dining room and often
had teatime in a common room after class, they made use of lunchtime in order to
exchange ideas or opinions and make a decision on schedules. They needed to
discuss the progress of class work because two teams shared responsibility for
teaching the same grade of students together. In addition, they often had dinner
out of school and chatted about personal life. At the beginning of the first semester,
James stayed in his place during weekdays and visited his parents during weekends,
spending time with them. As he gradually made friends with other native English
teachers working in other schools, he travelled to Asian countries such as China,
Japan and Thailand with his friends during the Korean national holidays or during
vacation periods.

In the new 2011 academic year, Mary took charge of a homeroom teacher
for the sixth grade students and James co-worked with new Korean English subject
teachers.
5.3 Case Three

One of my acquaintances, a member of a school steering committee\textsuperscript{17}, introduced a principal in this school to me, mentioning that ‘(...) he is enthusiastic for English education in primary school’. When I had a meeting with the principal, he encouraged me to visit for research purposes. He had a keen interest and introduced English subject teachers in the school to me. Due to the principal’s interest as well as the specialty of English education in this school, he encouraged teachers and students to participate in a variety of English events and activities. As a result, teachers who took charge of an English subject seemed to have more pressure than those in other schools to handle a large number of events and activities such as participating in contests or competitions (e.g. English musical) hosted by other schools or institutes or preparing open classes for parents or other teachers. They also organised school events such as English camp, English drama, and speech contests. There were five English subject teachers: three Korean English subject teachers (two for team teaching and one English conversation) and a native English speaking teacher. The native English teacher co-worked with two Korean English subject teachers, teaching two different grades of students (fifth and sixth) separately. This school opened the English Only classroom in 2009, which was sponsored by the Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education. Their school is located in a western area of Seoul, the capital city of Korea, and it had 1,765 students from the first grade to the sixth grade and 77 teaching staff and 21 administrative staff in 2010.

\textsuperscript{17} Each Korean national and public school has a school steering committee as a deliberative and advisory organization. This system was introduced in 1996, aiming to enhance the independence of each school and to foster a varied and creative education according to the characteristics of each school.
Rona was a Korean English subject teacher who co-worked with Kevin, a native English teacher from the USA, during one semester of the 2010 academic year (September to December). The other Korean English subject teacher co-working with Kevin was a contract teacher, so she was supposed to leave the school after a year’s contract. When I had the first preliminary meeting with Rona, she was reluctant to participate in this research due to several reasons: she faced some challenges as a notice teacher; she was worried about how much her team teaching practice was relevant to my research focus; she felt a burden to show her class to an outsider. While having a couple of meetings with her, I told my stories and challenges to her which I had experienced as a novice teacher. We developed a new relationship not only between an interviewer and an interviewee but also between a former experienced teacher and a novice teacher. She understood and agreed with my advice that her actual team teaching experience and practice would be supportive to other novice teachers and graduates who planned to teach students in primary schools.

5.3.1 Rona

Rona, a 25 year old novice teacher, was urgently assigned to be an English subject teacher in this school in September, 2010 because a former Korean English subject teacher had to go on maternity leave. After graduating from the National Teacher’s college, majoring in general primary education in 2009, Rona spent one semester (approximately six months) working in four different primary schools as a part time substitute. She stated that most of the English classes that she had experienced in those schools were mainly led and organised by native English speaking teachers.
Consequently, she had considered team teaching mostly dominated by native English teachers as the prevalent form of team teaching.

When she started her first year as a full-time permanent teacher in this school, Rona faced several challenges as a novice teacher. First of all, she was very stressed and worried about the new environment, particularly with the new system in the school that she was involved in and new colleagues who she had to make a new relationship with. Secondly, she was afraid of taking charge of an English subject as she had never expected that she would be in charge of an English subject in her first year. Even though she was delighted with her first permanent appointment, she thought that teaching English was too heavy a burden for her. Rona accepted her situation by understanding that she was the youngest teacher in the school and she had no choice but to teach English. To make matters worse, she felt it was difficult to communicate with Kevin in English fully, so she was more nervous and was unwilling to interact with Kevin whenever she had to deliver messages or information from the school or the SMOE (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education) to him. Even though she had kept learning English conversation through a telephone English service for three years, she thought that she had not prepared for teaching English enough and seemed to lack confidence as an English subject teacher. Thirdly, she also had responsibility to handle administrative support for Kevin such as submitting official letters or reports to the District Office of Education, guiding him to prepare documents (e.g. visa, medical certificate) or solving some problems that Kevin requested in his daily life (e.g. payslips, tax, bills). Rona explained her hardship as follows: ‘(.) I am swamped with work every day ... I am struggling for survival in the battlefield of the school’.
In addition, Rona was in a dilemma between the expectation of the school and the real classroom situation. That is, while the principal, the vice-principal, and senior teachers asked her to mainly lead a lesson and be assisted by a native teacher, every lesson was actually dominated and organised by Kevin, an expert in English language teaching. The former Korean English subject teacher also advised her to clearly take some parts in a lesson and to instruct students actively by herself instead of following everything that the native English teacher did. However, even though Rona was in a double bind of pressure, she felt that she would be more comfortable to assist Kevin when needed during a lesson for several reasons. First of all, she mentioned that Kevin was not only a really professional teacher but also a good teacher with love and concern for students, so she felt she did not need to intervene in his teaching at all. Secondly, she had her own solo teaching classes for the same students once a week, which enabled her to complement some parts that students considered difficult or needed review. In addition, she thought that she needed to learn from Kevin what she lacked in her English teaching.

During the semester, Rona often expressed her feelings about the difficulties, frustration, stress, and tension which she experienced as an English subject teacher as well as a novice teacher. At the end of this semester, she reflected that it was really tough and challenging for her to support and co-work with a native teacher. Undoubtedly, because of this build-up of pressure, she decided she would like to take charge of responsibility as a homeroom teacher in the next academic year (2011). However, later, when she came back to school to prepare for the new 2011 academic year after the winter vacation, Rona seemed to have become secure enough in her teaching ability to say: ‘, if I had an
opportunity to take charge in an English subject once again. I would teach English and manage my work better because I learned a lot of lessons from this challenging experience. ... still I need more time to prepare for teaching English and develop my career.’ In addition, she was highly satisfied with Kevin’s performance such as lesson planning, instruction and interaction with students because of his diligent, enthusiastic and professional attitude and skills. However, she did not feel personally comfortable with his perfectionist characteristics which tended to drive her to complete some work very intensively while experiencing his impatience when she worked.

5.3.2 Kevin

Kevin (36) was an experienced native English speaking teacher who had taught English in Korean primary schools for over four years. Basically, he had a wide range of teaching experience in the USA before coming to Korea: as a hotel training manager, he had responsibility to train new employees. After getting an ESL certificate in Boston, as an English teacher, he took charge of ESL (English as a Second Language) classes for immigrants from Russia and South Africa, a summer camp for students, and special programmes for different age groups in a day care centre as well. By his own estimation on his teaching career, he stated that ‘(.I was always good at teaching people things’. As Kevin was interested in living in other countries, especially Korea, which he did not know anything about, comparing Korea with a couple of Asian countries he had visited, he decided to come to Korea in 2006.
His first school where he was assigned was a small primary school in Gyeonggi province in which he taught English for three years. After getting support from one of the Korean English subject teachers at the beginning of his first year, he was able to manage his work and daily life quite independently. As Kevin had various co-working experiences with several Korean English subject teachers during that period, he was already accustomed to co-working conditions in Korean primary school contexts as well as living in Korea. Reflecting on his first school and his team teaching with Korean English subject teachers, Kevin mentioned that while most of his Korean team teachers whom he co-worked with barely did anything in class, some of them did handle the discipline, which was helpful. Except for a couple of arguments with a few teachers, he completed annual contracts for three years without any problems. Kevin stated that he was generally satisfied with his working experience in his first school and he learned how to do certain things (e.g. teaching materials, communication with Korean teachers, understanding of school culture) better through each team teacher he worked with. More specifically, he was proud of the progress of material design and accumulation of his materials, saying '(.) I feel my materials are getting better and better every year'.

Kevin transferred to this school in 2009 and he co-worked with two Korean English subject teachers in 2010. He mentioned that he did almost everything in class when he had team teaching with Rona, whereas the other Korean English subject teacher helped him with discipline and speaking parts. He emphasized that team teachers needed time to start getting comfortable with each other and to understand what each teacher expected so as to find a way to work together and use the strengths of both teachers in the classroom. Moreover, he empathised with
Rona’s difficulties as an inexperienced teacher because he also faced similar challenges when he came to Korea despite his teaching experience in the USA. He stated that ‘(.) I had four years to teach myself which is really slow ... but if another teacher can help you and give you some materials (.) you can build it up and learn pretty quickly (.) it’s learning on the job’. Kevin tried to help Rona with his materials and activities that he made and advised her to select relevant content from textbooks or design worksheets.

Rona commented that Kevin was a skilful and excellent teacher who created attractive classes that students were absorbed in. In addition, Rona had help from Kevin in many ways regarding teaching practice, designing material, and classroom management. Kevin was also satisfied with his work in primary schools, saying ‘(.) primary school is a lot of fun and the students are very optimistic and positive so my plan is to stay in primary schools’. Moreover, he deeply appreciated her administrative support whenever he needed official documents or reports. Due to Rona’s evaluative report on his performance, Kevin was recognised as an excellent native English teacher by the Seoul Seobu District Office of Education in 2010 and he renewed a contract for working in this school in 2011.

5.3.3 Contextual conditions and their team teaching

Rona and Kevin stayed in the English Only classroom where they spent morning time team teaching during the class and co-working (e.g. lesson planning) after class. As shown in Picture 5.5 below, the English Only classroom could be seen through the yellow arch shape of the entrance gate with the sign ‘English Town’ (1). There were some photos (e.g. the Changing of the Guards in the UK) on the wooden wall.
of the corridor and a notice about classroom opening hours and a timetable were posted on the outer side of the entrance door. In the classroom, a touch screen TV set (2) was located between a sliding type of whiteboard under the slogan ‘If you can dream it, you can do it’. On the wall were several material boards and pictures with the names of food, parts of the body, a solar system, a world map and students’ work. In the corner of the classroom were a collection of books, a small table, colourful sofas and chairs, which was called Book Café (3), and a theatre stage for drama activities. In addition, every hexagon shaped desk which consisted of two attachable desks enabled students to boost group activities more efficiently. This English Only Classroom was an independent place since the two team teachers were separated from other teachers and staff in the school.

Rona had 22 classes per week. She taught 20 English classes to the sixth grade students and two classes of Social Studies to the fourth grade students. She had ten solo-teaching classes and ten team teaching classes with Kevin; that is, each week the sixth grade students had a class that was only taught by Rona and a team teaching class taught by both Kevin and Rona. Meanwhile, Kevin had 22 classes per
week: ten classes for the fifth grade students, ten classes for the sixth grade students, and two classes for extra English curriculum. Rona usually stayed in the English Only classroom including her solo teaching classes and team teaching classes with Kevin, whereas Kevin moved to the other English Only classroom to co-work with the other Korean English subject teacher whenever he had the classes for the fifth grade students.

Even though Rona and Kevin spent most time together in this room after class, their desks were placed slightly away from each other. As shown in Picture 5.6, Kevin’s desk was located on the window side which was opposite to the entrance door next to Rona’s desk. Rona stated that actually she did not spend enough time communicating with Kevin because of her slow working process and lack of English capability. Moreover, she felt it was not easy to talk with each other from their desks and Kevin sometime came to her desk to discuss some issues when necessary.
As mentioned earlier, Rona was a novice teacher whereas Kevin had a wide range of teaching experience. As a result, Rona relied entirely on Kevin when planning lessons. Rona and Kevin usually had lesson planning every Friday afternoon. Before discussing a lesson plan, they presented some materials which each of them had prepared for the lesson. If Rona prepared an activity, Kevin made PPTs. She explained the game she prepared and Kevin explained his PPTs so they shared some ideas or solutions if necessary and modified the level of instruction. Then, they decided how to share each activity instruction. However, Rona was led and guided by Kevin in many aspects even though she was a Korean host teacher in their own context. First of all, Rona often used Kevin’s ideas and materials for her solo teaching classes because she was struggling to learn how to teach English and to teach English to students at the stage of ‘survival’. Moreover, Rona stated that Kevin was more familiar with their teaching context and students than she as he had taught the students for over one and a half years, so he had better recognition of the characteristics of the students and the different levels of their learning in class. Thus, Kevin controlled the level of difficulty in instructing or processing activities, depending on the different dynamics of the classes. He sometimes advised her to simplify activities to more easily promote students’ understanding. He also provided her with good teaching materials and some tips to help develop the design of materials.

As for their team instruction, Kevin led most of the instruction from the introductory part, such as using greetings, and asking about the weather, the day, and the date, to the review of the lesson at the end of class. However, Rona was relatively less involved in their team instruction so her roles seemed restricted in
class. For example, Rona sometimes engaged in a dialogue with Kevin or provided students with a couple of grammatical explanations or key expressions in Korean when Kevin asked her for some support. Rona thought that Kevin led over 80 to 85 percent of instruction, even to a maximum of 90 percent and she was much less responsible for team instruction than Kevin. That is, while Kevin mostly dominated their instruction, Rona tended to provide limited support such as distributing worksheets to students, translating in Korean to a whole class if Kevin asked, or giving an additional explanation to lower-level students. For instance, when Kevin initiated a ‘telephone game’, he covered multiple roles in an activity: Kevin explained the key expressions used in the telephone game, grouping students, encouraging members of a group, role-playing with a group, and scoring each group (see Picture 7.4). Even though Rona assisted Kevin through translation and participation in a role-play, these were usually led by Kevin’s requests or direction. Furthermore, the interaction between Kevin and students was quite active and good enough to support his delivery of a lesson; in particular, he could speak simple words or expressions in Korean. He was able to use code-switching to explain grammar (e.g. present progressive form and past tense form of verbs) to students and to deliver key words or expressions (e.g. think, see, come, because + reason). He often not only directed a whole class in Korean (e.g. Speak loudly) but also wrote down lyrics of songs (e.g. I wanna wish you a Merry Christmas) in Korean letters on the whiteboard.

With regard to classroom management, Kevin often led students to be ready for class by playing a song which they had learnt before and by singing along together when they entered the classroom. Until the time students had sat on their
chairs and had paid attention to Kevin, who was standing at the front of the classroom, he did not start instructing a lesson but instead waited for their readiness. When they conducted a group activity, Kevin kept a balance among students by making some students change their seats, considering their characteristics, competence and attitude. During a lesson, Kevin disciplined individual students as well as a whole class whereas Rona stood at the back of the classroom and approached students who did not pay attention to Kevin, or who misbehaved, in order to give a warning. Rona and Kevin used eight interesting characters (e.g. Snoopy, Shreck, and Mickey), representing and naming each group when they had group activities in class. Kevin usually made good use of a reward system by giving a point to each character which each group of students belonged to. Whenever students behaved well, participated in activities enthusiastically, presented their work and answered the questions well during a lesson, Kevin marked a point next to the characters on the whiteboard and then gave sweets to a group of students who achieved the most points at the end of a class. As they reviewed what students had learned every four sessions by asking each student to answer a sentence with key expressions, Rona and Kevin casually assessed their learning. However, while Kevin was not involved in evaluating students’ performance in school, Rona was in charge of organizing regular performance assessments for students and writing reports.

After class, Rona was usually busy handling follow-up work and administrative work and Kevin spent time making new activities, designing worksheets or upgrading PPTs for a new session. As Rona often felt she had a lack of time to manage her assigned work (she struggled with daily paper work), she did
not have spare time to chat with Kevin. In addition, she did not have an opportunity to form a close relationship with him because she said to me ‘(.) I feel so uncomfortable to have casual meetings or have dinner outside of the school with Kevin’. Consequently, Kevin occasionally went to the other English Only classroom where the other Korean team partner who taught the fifth grade students with him worked, spending time meeting and chatting with her. As the other Korean English subject teacher had lived in the USA for over 15 years, Kevin could communicate with her comfortably, sharing something quite common from their living experience in the USA.

In the new 2011 academic year, Rona took charge of being a homeroom teacher and Kevin co-worked with new Korean English subject teachers to teach the fifth and sixth grade students.

5.4 Case Four

When I had a meeting with a principal of this school, I was delighted with his positive attitude and support, allowing me access to classrooms and a staff room for my research. However, I faced some challenges at the beginning stage of data collection in this school. Despite the principal’s enthusiastic support, the Korean English subject teacher was quite passive and reluctant to participate in my research. As the Korean English subject teacher thought that she did not do anything for the co-working she did with a native English speaking teacher, she felt uncomfortable with my presence in her classroom and the staff room. While the native English teacher had a more voluntary attitude and actively engaged with my research from
the very beginning, the Korean English subject teacher gradually felt free to unveil her classes to me and tried to spend more time taking part in interviews.

Kate was a Korean English subject teacher who co-worked with Robert, a native English speaking teacher from the USA, during the 2010 academic year (March to December). Their school is located in a southern area of Seoul, the capital city of Korea, and it had around 1,000 students from the first grade to the sixth grade and 43 teaching staff and 8 administrative staff in 2010. The English Only Classroom was opened in 2008 but it was mainly used for after classes and special programmes, not for regular classes. There were four English teachers: two Korean English subject teachers for team teaching with a native teacher and two native English speaking teachers.

5.4.1 Kate

Kate, aged 30, had been teaching primary students in this school for over four years including two years of English teaching. This school was her first school that she had been assigned to and she had spent nearly five years teaching and working here as a primary school teacher. Even though she majored in general primary education at the National Teacher’s College, she was enthusiastic about learning something new or interesting to develop her career. For example, she was involved in doing a Master’s degree in Counselling Psychology as she would like to have a better understanding of students, particularly the period of adolescence, and guide them well through appropriate counselling. In addition, she regularly attended in-service training programmes or workshops for primary school teachers.

Korean public primary schools have a rotation system. Teachers usually transfer to another school after completing a five year working term.
Before the 2010 new academic year, Kate was assigned to be an English subject teacher because she noticed that most of her colleagues were not willing to take charge of an English subject and even junior teachers tended to avoid teaching English. Moreover, she thought that she had better take on this subject as 2010 was her last year to work in this school. At first, Kate was not entirely satisfied with taking on an English subject, but gradually she got accustomed to co-working with Robert. She had a neutral opinion related to the EPIK scheme and co-working with a native teacher. More specifically, she considered that team teaching with a native teacher had positive effects but it was also demanding work. She stated that Robert, her team teacher, was a skilful teacher so she did not have to provide any specific support related to teaching practice with him in class. In addition, as she had solo teaching classes for the same students once a week, she thought that the class should be mainly taught by Robert so students had more opportunity to be exposed to English spoken by him. That was why she did not get actively involved in class.

Kate considered that team teaching with a native teacher largely depended on who a native English speaking teacher was and highlighted the ‘teaching competence’ of a native teacher. That is, she mentioned that she would have definitely intervened in his teaching practice if Robert had been too inexperienced to lead a lesson or manage classroom. Kate evaluated Robert as ‘a skilful and responsible teacher who manages his work well’ but it was not easy for her to be an intimate colleague with him as he had quite independent and individual characteristics.
5.4.2 Robert

Robert, aged 28, had been teaching English for two and half years in Korea. After graduating from university, having majored in Finance, he came to Korea in February 2008 with mainly two purposes: travelling to other countries, particularly Asian countries, and saving money. In addition, his friend working in Japan advised him to teach English in Korea. After he applied for a vacant teaching position through a recruitment agency in the USA, he got an offer from a private language institute in Seoul, Korea. Before starting his job as an English teacher, he took a one week intensive training session in the USA and had to pass two tests which were organized by an English language institute in Seoul. As the private language institute provided him with all materials such as the books, CDs, and the papers, he followed its structured system according to guidance from a senior director. Robert reflected on his first year that even though it was much tougher than he had expected, he was able to experience ‘the cut-throat world of a private educational context’ and take a step forward in English language teaching with more confidence.

Robert experienced English teaching in three different educational contexts: a private language institute for the first year, a boys’ high school for the second year, and a primary school for the third year (when I conducted this study). He mentioned that as he wanted to have a more relaxing environment, he transferred to a public school after working in a private institute. He stated that having work experience in different sectors was helpful for the development of his teaching skills and materials design skills. In addition, he commented that he had to re-learn certain steps and deal with them whenever he moved into a different teaching context, which improved his teaching career.
From his previous team teaching experience with a Korean English subject teacher in a high school, Robert preferred his classes to be mainly led by himself and assisted by a Korean team teacher. Thus, he was satisfied with simply having the presence of a Korean team teacher in class without any specific support except for a little help with discipline. As Robert was not close to Korean English subject teachers and other teachers, he seemed isolated but he did not seem particularly bothered by this situation. After the working contract at this school was completed, he went back to his home country in January 2011.

5.4.3 Contextual conditions and their team teaching

Even though there was a special place, called the ‘English zone’, which had two English Only classrooms with good facilities in the school, they were used for the classes for the third or fourth grade students and after class sessions or special events. Kate and Robert moved to each classroom whenever they had an English class. Each classroom had a TV set, computer equipment, and several tools for activities (e.g. small whiteboards, markers). Below are the pictures (Picture 5.7) which show one of the classrooms where they co-worked each class.

Picture 5.7 Classroom
Kate had 20 classes per week. She taught 18 English classes to the sixth grade students (eight solo teaching classes by herself and eight team teaching classes with Robert) and four classes of Ethics to the fourth grade students. Meanwhile, Robert had 21 classes per week. He taught English to the fifth and sixth grade students once a week (seven classes and eight classes respectively) and mathematics to the advanced level students in the sixth grade for six classes. Robert had to co-work with another team teacher besides Kate in this school. He was unhappy with a situation where he even had to teach mathematics to primary students in English because he questioned whether teaching mathematics in English was helpful to primary school students and complained about the difficulty of managing such a class on his own. Robert felt uncomfortable with the top-down process of decision-making in the school; that is, the principal wanted him to teach mathematics to students in order to meet parents’ expectation.

Before and after class, Kate and Robert usually stayed in a subject teachers’ room which other subject teachers shared. Robert would not stay longer in this room after class because he sometimes felt isolated and uncomfortable whenever he entered the subject teachers’ room. In fact, Robert preferred having interviews with me in other places out of school during a break time or after class. There were 12 desks for subject teachers, two big leather sofas, and a round table in this room. Even though their desks were arranged for Kate and Robert to face each other diagonally as shown in Picture 5.8, there seemed to be a lack of interaction and communication even between the two team teachers. While Robert stated that he did not really speak much with other teachers, Kate felt sorry that Robert lacked consideration for other Korean teachers who had difficulty in speaking English.
fluently. Particularly, Kate mentioned that Robert did not make any effort to communicate with other teachers by learning basic Korean language (e.g. hello, bye), and some senior teachers were not pleased with his attitude in terms of him not wishing to learn about Korean culture, specifically, the hierarchical culture in Korean schools.

Kate and Robert did not have regular discussions regarding their lesson plans. More specifically, Robert prepared for every lesson for team teaching by himself since Kate preferred not to have a role in the team-teaching preparation, preparing only for her own solo teaching classes. Kate mentioned that she did not have to be involved in planning lessons for the following reasons: first of all, Kate strongly believed that team teaching classes should be mainly led by Robert, a native English teacher. Secondly, as Robert was skilled enough to manage and organize instructions based on his own lesson plans, she did not feel the need to plan lessons together. Thirdly, in view of her heavy workload, she felt uncomfortable supporting Robert. In addition, Kate considered him to be an
independent, introverted and individualistic person so she wanted to respect his own authority as a teacher.

Regardless of Kate’s involvement, Robert was in control of the direction of planning lessons even though Kate sometimes requested his planning sheets. As for lesson planning, Robert explained his focus, concepts and purposes in his lessons and the materials which he used, saying ‘(. ) every lesson is based on the chapter of the textbook (. ) I try to change it a little bit or a lot to make it funnier make it harder and make it easier for students a lot of the time ... if I found it interesting for myself (. ) kids liked it more’. Robert introduced a couple of useful websites through which he got new ideas and made use of resources. Also, Robert provided Kate with materials used in team teaching classes in order for her to make use of them later, if necessary. Kate mentioned that some materials and creative ideas from Robert were useful and applicable to her classes and she would like to adopt and develop the lesson plans that he had conducted.

The instruction implemented by Kate and Robert was quite similar to the way they did their lesson planning as mentioned above. In other words, Robert was in charge of most of the instructional activities whereas Kate was rarely involved in instruction, mostly standing at the back of the classroom or occasionally walking around. Kate tried to facilitate the classes, handle discipline, and help lower-level students whenever they had difficulty in catching up with what Robert said. However, Kate kept staying at the back during a lesson and even entered the classroom through the back door when the lesson started. There were few opportunities in which Kate could address the entire class in Korean as well as in English. Robert led every lesson by himself, primarily focusing on individual or group
activities and games and often had computer-mediated lessons without supplemental support from Kate. However, Robert did not provide any grammatical explanation and vocabulary instruction in class. For example, when Robert conducted a ‘Super Mario’ game, he introduced its rules and how to play it, grouped students, presented a demonstration, and operated a computer. Interestingly, even though he could not speak in Korean, he tried to apply the sentences written in Korean to his classes by using PPT slides (e.g. Can you help me to lift this chair?).

Kate was surprised at his use of Korean language in this game, saying ‘(..) I was surprised when the screen showed a picture with the sentence in Korean because I did not give any language support to him and he even could not speak in Korean’. Robert was able to organize and handle classes easily and he seemed skillful in encouraging students and drawing their attention to a lesson. Robert preferred his own leading instruction, commenting on team instruction: ‘(..) she wants to stay at the back of the classroom and do nothing (..) this definitely works better for me ... the former team teachers tried to do everything fifty to fifty and that did not work for me’. Also, Robert felt comfortable and easy in his ability to conduct his lesson without any hesitation or pressure to balance with a team teacher.

Kate considered that she did not need to support Robert in class except for classroom management and discipline, as Robert was a skillful and experienced teacher. Even though Robert was able to manage a whole class by giving points or pointing out a few students who did not behave well, he sometimes felt that Kate’s presence in a classroom was helpful to discipline students more effectively. In particular, it would be difficult for him to control a couple of students who did not pay attention to him or to make very lower level students get involved in a group
activity in class. In those circumstances, Kate tried to support Robert by approaching students who behaved badly or whispering to individual students explanations of difficult words or the rules of a game. Kate tended to discipline students very gently by simply standing beside a misbehaving student without taking any strong action. In some cases, though, her disciplining did not work effectively to manage a class so Robert shouted at the whole class to be quiet or pay attention through several commands (e.g. ‘Listen’, ‘Class’, ‘Hands on head’).

After class, Kate was busy handling paper work such as regular examinations and preparing for her solo teaching classes whereas Robert spent a couple of hours updating his PPTs or activities, exploring websites in order to find new games or develop his materials. He said that he could get useful materials through the resource website (e.g. mediafire) in which a number of native English teachers working in Korea shared information and posted their materials. Kate mentioned that she had learned a lot from his teaching materials and methods of instruction delivery. As Kate did not take charge of administrative support for Robert and Robert could manage it independently, both of them tended to have less opportunity to share some issues related to personal difficulty or daily life. Except for classes, they were likely to spend time separately after class without interacting or communicating with each other. In addition, as Robert did not enjoy official meetings or dinners with other teachers as well as private meetings out of school, he did not often join regular dinners or casual tea time with them. After the 2010 academic year, Kate transferred to a new primary school and Robert left for the USA as he had planned to do.
5.5 Summary

This chapter has presented the background information from the four pairs of team teachers in this study. This included a brief introduction of the participant teachers’ background, their contextual conditions, and the summary of their team teaching implementation and relationships experienced by them. As described above, each case showed distinctive characteristics with regard to personal backgrounds, motivation to be an English teacher or take charge of an English subject, involvement in team teaching, perspective on team teaching, and the given contexts (e.g. classroom or staff room, teaching assistant facilities, allocated time for classes, the number of team teachers and school cultures). In these contexts, the team teachers had a variety of team teaching experiences in terms of team teaching practice, learning, challenges and relationships with their team partner. Such a diversity of factors led the team teachers to have their own different styles of team teaching implementation and different levels of collaborative relationship in each context. Even though EPIK provides some general guidance for team teaching such as NETs’ duties, expected roles, and team teaching models in class (Handbook 2009, EPIK website), there are a number of variables in each team and how to implement team teaching can be largely dependent on team members as the agents of team teaching.

Based on the characteristics of each case mentioned above, the following chapter will explore the nature of the interactional relationships developed by the team teachers when they implemented team teaching with their own styles in their teaching context.
Chapter Six

Team teachers’ interactional relationship

In the previous chapter, I have used a narrative approach to present the background information from each pair of team teachers in the four different schools, their contextual conditions, and the key aspects of their team teaching implementation and experiences. In particular, I have prioritised the foregrounding of their ‘voices’ based on their experiences and perspectives on team teaching with descriptions of the distinctive characteristics of their team teaching.

This chapter aims to analyse and discuss team teachers’ interactions and co-working situated relationships so as to provide a fuller and in-depth understanding of the team teachers and their team teaching. In order to do this, I prioritise classroom interaction, in particular teachers’ talk, based on video extracts and field notes from a range of team teaching lessons. Moreover, I pay attention to the full range of their diverse interactions (e.g. instruction, classroom management, decision-making, intervention, requests, etc.), which make it possible to explore the complex features in team teaching classrooms and to understand the multifaceted relationships between the two team teachers.

In this chapter, the nature of the interactional relationship between the team teachers will be presented according to six themes which emerged from category generation (see Section 4.4.4, Appendices 8 & 12): collaborative presentation, division of labour, language in the classroom, complementary support, flexibility, and partnership (see Table 6.1). First of all, collaborative presentation is concerned with how the team teachers delivered and instructed a lesson together
in terms of demonstration and modelling. Secondly, the KETs and the NETs seemed to take charge of separate parts in a lesson in terms of differentiated skills and content roles. Along with such a division, each team coordinated and conducted their allocated parts in different ways. Thirdly, two teachers provided students with not only the target language but also their mother tongue. In particular, I will focus more on L1 (Korean) used by the KETs and their interactions with the native English speaking partners in class with regard to the varied purposes of using L1 and L2. Fourthly, each case of team teachers complemented each other in different levels of mutual assistance, classroom management and discipline compatible with their contextual conditions. Fifthly, different forms of team teaching in each case led each pair of team teachers to have their own styles of decision-making and intervention in class. The core of this theme is how they solved problems, shared decision-making, and reached agreement. Sixthly, the ways that each teacher referred to the other during a class and talked with each other after class reflected their partnership as well as collegiality.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collaborative presentation</td>
<td>Modelling and role-play</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Division of labour</td>
<td>Differentiated skills and content roles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language in the classroom</td>
<td>L1 and L2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complementary support</td>
<td>Classroom management and discipline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>Decision-making and intervention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partnership</td>
<td>Teacher to teacher talk</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Based on the six themes above (Table 6.1), the team teachers created complex relationships in their partnership associated with power, position, closeness, role and responsibility inside and outside the classroom.

As for data presentation, each case will slightly vary due to the differing data collection situations regarding the willingness of participants and the limitation of access to the places where team teachers or other colleagues and staff worked, as mentioned in Chapter Four.

6.1 Collaborative presentation: modelling and role-play

According to Carless and Walker (2006), one of the advantages of team teaching is the presence of two teachers who have different teaching styles and voices in the classroom. That is, learners benefit from ‘hearing two different models of language’ (Richards & Farrell 2005: 161), in particular, ‘having two models of the target language presented in class’ (Bailey et al. 1992: 168). With regard to this issue, the two team teachers in each case had different styles of instructional presentation, which is one of the key distinctive features of the interactional relationships between the team teachers. For instance, the team teachers in Case One and Two made use of joint presentations according to the purposes of their practice or activities in each lesson. Specifically, when they introduced and delivered a new activity or practice, they often demonstrated examples to students in order to improve students’ understanding and facilitate their activity effectively. In other words, they team-instructed a lesson through modelling or a role-play, standing at the front of the class. Meanwhile, the team teachers in Case Three and Four seldom tried to engage in collaborative presentation during a lesson with their team.
partner. As for these two cases, the NETs tended to be dominant or solo presenters. The following extracts illustrate distinctive features of their instructional presentations in each case. For these extracts, the following codes are used: K: Korean English teacher; N: native English speaking teacher; C: Class; Ss: several students (see Transcription conventions and abbreviations in Appendix 13).

Among the four cases, Jessica and Matthew (Case One) had the most frequent collaborative presentations in their lessons. Extract 1 presents a common form in which Jessica and Matthew interacted during the class. When they taught a lesson regarding the names of furniture and key expressions of location, Matthew explained what to do in this exercise to students and Jessica exemplified a sentence with emphasis on a given word (furniture) and a prepositional phrase indicating location.

Extract 1

(1) 77 N: I will choose the name of one item
    78 please make a full sentence (.) er (..) sink ((looking at class))
    79 K: there (.) is (.) a sink (.) a sink in the (..) bathroom
    80 N: there is a sink (.) in the bathroom

(Case 1, Class 7, 01/11/10)

Matthew initiated an activity, giving a word (sink) to Jessica (line 77-78) and Jessica presented a sentence with the given word to activate their practice in advance (line 79). Then, Matthew clarified this practice with repetition of the complete sentence (line 80). This is a typical IRF pattern of a CA institutional-discourse (Seedhouse 2004) but it is replicated by the actual teachers through modelling. After this demonstration, Matthew led students to produce correct answers by making sentences with the given words (several names of furniture). As Carless and Walker (2006: 467) report in their research, one of the particular advantages of team
teaching is that two teachers can engage in dialogues or modelled interaction. The following Extract 2 is also typical of how Jessica and Matthew modelled a prepared dialogue as input for a mini role-play which was related to wh– questions and relevant answers by use of a past tense.

Extract2

(2) 01 N: for example (.) let me and Jessica do an example
02 Jessica (.) what did you do yesterday?
03 K: I (..) I played with my daughter
04 N: where did you go?
05 K: I went to the park
06 N: who did you see?
07 K: I saw my daughter play
08 (N gestures to K in order to change the role.
09 K approaches a student who does not pay attention to their role-play,))
10 K: Min-ho {student’s name}(,) are you listening to me?
11 (K steps back and points at the first sentence on the blackboard, leading students to ask it to N.)
12 K: let’s ask the first question to Matthew teacher
13 C: [what did you do yesterday?]
14 K: [what did you do yesterday?]
15 N: eh (,) I went to a Vietnamese restaurant in Hongdae
16 K: Vietnamese restaurant (…)
17 N: mol kka? {Vietnamese restaurant e mol kka?} Vietnamese restaurant e mol kka? {Vietnamese restaurant (…) what is that?}
18 Ss: eum sik Jeom e rum {Vietnamese restaurant name}
19 K: Vietnam eum sik jeom {Vietnamese restaurant}
20 um (,) ma jat seo {That’s right}
21 okay (.) second question
22 C: [where did you go?]
23 K: [where did you go?]
24 N: I went to Hongdae
25 C: ah:::Hongdae
26 K: nu gu rul man nat seo yo? {Who did you see?}
27 C: who did you see?
28 N: I saw my friend (,) Laura

(Case 1, Class 5, 08/11/10)

Matthew signalled a demonstration to the class (line 1) and Jessica and Matthew modelled adjacency pairs (line 2–7). After their modelling, Jessica and Matthew expanded from their role-play to a role-play with the whole class. Jessica led the
students to get involved in a role-play (line 14), and then Jessica and the whole class became one interlocutor to Matthew. Jessica and the students asked two questions chorally and Matthew answered them (line 15-17, 27-29). Jessica used code-switching to elicit a question which the students then asked Matthew in English (line 31-32). The sequence of interactions (e.g. a modelling between two teachers → interaction between Jessica and students → interaction between Jessica, students, and Matthew) shows how their role-play and modelling provides a link to encourage interaction with students as well. Extract 2 above illustrates three interesting aspects in their interaction: Firstly, their role-play has a semi-authentic element (Jessica did actually play with daughter and Matthew had Vietnamese food with Laura). Secondly, Jessica and Matthew’s modelled interaction was flexible enough to extend into a role-play with the class. Thirdly, despite collaborative presentations in their instruction, Jessica had more complex roles than Matthew in disciplining a student who misbehaved (line 9-11), guiding students to speak a sentence (line 12-13), code-switching (line 19-21, 31), and confirming an answer (line 25). In similar ways depicted in Extracts 1 and 2, Jessica and Matthew’s joint presentations were observed in almost every class. According to Gately and Gately (2001: 44), when two teachers are engaged in the presentation of the lesson, deliver instruction and structure the learning activities, they proceed at ‘the collaborative level’ in the three developmental stages in the co-teaching process. Although some of their interactions were planned demonstrations or scripted dialogues between them, they often had unplanned modelling or a role-play. For instance, Extract 3 below portrays how Jessica and Matthew jointly instructed a lesson through spontaneously impromptu interactions. In the situation, when the
students in this class completed an exercise more quickly than the estimated time
which had been assigned to their lesson plan, Jessica and Matthew had to arrange
an extra activity for the students. They had a quick off-record procedural exchange
and conducted a new activity where students had to practise a telephone
conversation concerning making an appointment.

Extract3
(3) 09 N: class (.) in each day (.) you need four things (.) the first thing is
an activity (.) watch movie ((indicating a list of activities))
11 second (.) who (.) that will be the name of person you are
12 with (.) your friend’s name (.) the third thing is where (.)
13 where are you going=
14 K: = to meet
15 N: = to meet
16 fourth thing is (.) what time will you meet
17 now (.) Jessica and I will do an example
18 in this case (.) Jessica is a caller and Mathew teacher is a
19 receiver
20 K: sungsang nymeun yeogi list joongye ‘go staking’ eul hajago
gureolgeoyeyo {I will ask Matthew to go skating} Matthew
22 sunsangnym e hagisiltago checkhateumeon no rago halgeogo
23 checkahnhateumeon yes rago halgeoyeyo {If Mathew ticks in
the section of ‘doesn’t want’, he will say ‘no’ otherwise, he
will say ‘yes’}
26 K: ring ring (.) “pick up the phone” ((with a gesture to N))
27 ((N pretends to receive a call.))
28 K: hello? this is Ms. Jessica (.) is Mathew teacher there?
29 N: speaking (.) hi (.) Ms. Jessica (.) how are you?
30 K: I’m good (.) are you free Monday afternoon?
31 N: um(.) yes (.) I am
32 K: would you like to go skating?
33 N: sure
34 K: yeoreobundeul jeokeo yaji {Class, write it down}
35 N: class (.) who will Jessica go skating with? who?
36 C: Matthew teacher
37 N: right (.) Jessica is going skating with Matthew teacher
38 ((K writes ‘Matthew’ on the screen))
39 N: oh (…) we need to find out where we are going to meet
40 K: sunsangnym deuleo galkkeyo {I will do my turn}
41 okay (.) can we meet at err (…) at the bus stop at three
42 o’clock?
43 N: errm (.) that’s great (.) see you then
44 we write bus stop (.) and what time (.) class?
45 C: three o’clock
46 N: okay
After Jessica and Matthew distributed worksheets together to the class, Matthew initiated an explanation of the activity, looking at the worksheet (line 9-13). When he was explaining key points, Jessica immediately interjected missing words and Matthew corrected them (line 14-15). Then, Matthew signalled a role-play with Jessica to the class (line 17-19). They demonstrated a telephone conversation (line 26-33) to facilitate a follow-up activity. As they conducted this unplanned role-play, Jessica seemed to give more additional explanation of what she would do to students in Korean (line 20-25) so as to help students grasp their role-play more easily. After their role-play, Jessica directed what students should write on their worksheets (line 34), and Matthew checked the students’ comprehension of their conversation (line 35-37). Matthew found that they should have had more conversation about the place to meet (line 39) and instantly they exchanged one more turn taking with each other (line 41-43). Despite an unplanned exercise, Jessica and Matthew facilitated the smooth flow of the lesson. Regardless of any pre-organized plan or spontaneous decision-making during a lesson, Jessica and Matthew led their class across a wide range of collaborative presentations (from simple modelling to role-play) according to different classroom dynamics, not only in prepared procedures but also in improvised situations. According to Bailey et al. (1992), even though team teachers’ collaboration in the classroom can be either planned or unplanned, both planned interactions and spontaneous discourse between them can be beneficial to students. Jessica and Matthew were often observed to conduct improvised modelling or demonstration in class, which
mirrored their team harmony and mutual understanding of each other in sharing instructional roles.

Compared to Jessica and Matthew above, Mary and James (Case Two) tended to have relatively less collaborative presentations in their class. In addition, as they mainly relied on prearranged role-play based on their plans, Mary and James were rarely observed to interact with each other spontaneously during a lesson in the classroom. For example, in Extract 4, when Mary and James instructed a lesson related to shopping, they conducted a role-play which occurred in a shop and which was adapted from the English textbook. Before this activity, Mary encouraged students to participate in their role-play and created a stimulating atmosphere for the situational play. She selected three voluntary students who would act like dolls in a shop. While Mary was interacting with the whole class as well as the voluntary students, James did not get involved in their interactions in this preparation stage. After that, Mary initiated a role-play, saying to the class, ‘(.) okay (. ) first we are going to show a role-play’.

**Extract 4**

(4) 20 K: knock (. ) knock (. ) knock
21 N: ((S1 dances so K gives S1 a sign to sit down))
22 K: I want a doll
23 N: what do you want?
24 K: I want a doll
25 N: we have three dolls (. ) a dancing doll (. ) a singing doll (. )
26 K: and an English speaking doll
27 N: can I see the dancing doll? ((pointing at S1))
28 K: ((N presses on the back of S1.
29 S1 dances and students in the classroom laugh.))
30 K: okay (. ) how much is that?
31 N: that is ten dollars
32 K: ten dollars? wow (. ) it’s expensive (. )
33 N: here we go
34 S2: you don’t know me (. ) you don’t know me ((singing a Korean
As described above, Mary was a customer who looked for a doll and James was a shopkeeper who introduced each different doll to her. The three voluntary students were quite actively engaged in their roles as dolls by dancing, singing and speaking (line 30, 36, 43), and James also expressed his character in an interesting way with non-verbal funny actions (line 29, 35, 42). Due to the students’ engagement, Mary and James’ role-play drew more attention than usual from the students in the class. It is related to learners’ real life activities, that is, ‘situational authenticity’ in their interaction (Carless & Walker 2006: 469). Mary and James often made students take part in their role-play, which seemed to result in more lively or diverse performances depending on the different dynamics of each class. However, interestingly, they seldom demonstrated spontaneous modelling or exemplification during a lesson. The following Extract 5 depicts a similar role-play presented by Mary and James, which was a sample practice, followed by students’ role-play. They focused on wish lists for Christmas as a seasonal event. Mary acted like a girl who was waiting for Santa Claus and James played a role as Santa Claus. In particular,
the two teachers organised their role-play in a more exciting way with the help of props (e.g. a red hat, a chair, a yellow cushion).

Extract 5

(5) 15 K: James teacher and I are going to have a role-play about Christmas and then you will do next
16 (sitting on a chair))
17 18 N: ho! ho! ho! ho! ((approaching K and looking at the class))
19 Merry Christmas! Merry Christmas! Merry Christmas everybody! ((with a funny gesture)) **Merry Christmas!**
20 21 C: Merry Christmas!((laughing))
22 ((K hangs her head down on the yellow cushion))
23 N: hello .(.) Mary?
24 K: ((pretending to be surprised)) oh .(.) who are you?
25 N: I am Santa Claus
26 K: ((standing up)) **Santa Claus**? oh .(.) my god! nice to meet you
27 N: nice to meet you .(.) so what do you want for Christmas?
28 K: I wanna (…) um (…) a **boyfriend**!
29 ((Class yells with excitement.))
30 N: a boyfriend? ((shrugging his shoulder))
31 K: can I have two?
32 N: yeah
33 K: okay .(.) I wanna:: glasses and (…) okay .(.) there (…) I wanna Kwangho {one student’s name} there! ((pointing out a student))
34 ((Class laughs))
35 36
37 K: okay .(.) who do you want to be Santa Claus?
38 C: jeo yo .(.) jeo yo {me, me}

(Case 2, Class 3, 22/12/10)

Mary signalled a role-play to the class and explained the following exercise which students were expected to do (line 15-16). James put on a red Santa Claus hat and acted like Santa Claus with a loud laughter and in a grandfatherly tone (line 18-20), and the students were excited to correspond with him (line 21). Mary also pretended to look serious by making a long face (line 22) which turned into a surprised face (line 24, 26). When Mary answered funny wish lists for Christmas, particularly, when she named a student as a Christmas gift (line 34), the class cheered loudly. After their role-play, the students competed with one another to volunteer to present their own role-play in front of class. Mary and James’ role-
play tended to impart an element of liveliness and humour in tone and facial expressions. In this sense, both teachers seemed to play a role of ‘an entertainer’ which is in contrast to the argument that NETs’ roles are somehow similar to that of an entertainer (Stein 1989: 243).

In comparison with Jessica and Matthew (Case One), though, Mary tended to mostly initiate a role-play in their instruction and James kept step with Mary’s direction in the given formats. While both Jessica and Matthew initiated a different role-play or modelled a conversation together (although Extract 1, 2, and 3 showed Matthew was an initiator), James was not seen to initiate any role-play in class. Moreover, they were rarely observed to have any spontaneous discourse or improvise joint presentations between them caused by unexpected situations. The form of their collaborative presentation was mainly limited to a role-play. They occasionally had well organised and prepared role-play and tried to encourage students to take part in their role-play which led to more exciting situational plays.

Compared to collaborative presentations conducted by the team teachers in Case One and Two, Rona and Kevin in Case Three and Kate and Robert in Case Four showed significant contrast. As mentioned in Section 5.3.3 and 5.4.3, their team teaching styles and contextual conditions might affect the differing forms of their presentation in class. Rona and Kevin seldom, if ever, instructed together except for a couple of situations when Kevin asked Rona to participate in a group role-play with students. In addition, their collaborative modelling or role-play was rarely observed in class. In fact, Extract 6 is not a role-play between Rona and Kevin but interactions between Rona, Kevin and students. When Kevin instructed completion of a sentence by using a conjunction (because) and reasons through a telephone
game, he demonstrated an example answer after explaining this exercise to the class. Kevin was a caller and each group of students was a receiver.

Extract 6

(6) 21  N: ready? so (.) Rona teacher will call you ((looking at G2))
22  K: are you ready? ring (.) ring (.) ring
23  G2: hello (.) Snoopy speaking
24 ((N indicates a conversation chart posted on the board according to turn taking.))
25  K: hi Snoopy (.) how are you?
26  G2: ((The screen shows a swimming pool and a boy who catches a cold))
27  K: I’m sick (.) I can’t go to pool
28  G2: why?
29  N: one more time (.) >one (.) two (.) three<
30  G2: [because I have a cold]
31  N: [because I have a cold](without voice)
32  G2: two points (.) and:: good speaking (.) good speaking
33  (marking points on the board))
34  K: okay (.) next (.) Mickey (.) ready? ((approaching G3))
   (Case 3, Class 2, 12/11/10)

After Kevin practised the role-play with the students of Group 1, he invited Rona to initiate a telephone conversation with Group 2 (named Snoopy) (line 21). Rona was a caller and the students in Group 2 responded chorally as the receiver. Rona engaged in turn-taking three times with Group 2 (line 22, 26, 30). When the students in this group did not make a proper response to Rona (line 31), Kevin encouraged and supported the students to produce a correct answer (line 32, 34). Interestingly, he spoke by mouthing the answer, which was clear enough for students to guess an answer. Rona had relatively limited interaction with the students in this activity due to Kevin’s dominant instruction. Consequently, Rona seemed to play a role as a participant rather than as a teacher who led a lesson, which was even led by Kevin.
In Case Four, Kate and Robert never engaged in instructional presentation together in their class. As Kate usually stood at the back of the classroom during each lesson, Robert usually took the role of a solo presenter, instructing the class alone. The reasons that Kate did almost nothing in class were mentioned in Section 5.4.1 (p. 166).

As described in this section, three pairs of team teachers (Case One, Two, and Three) had different patterns of instructional presentation through diverse corresponding interactions, which implied that each team of two teachers had differing levels of collaborative relationship. In addition, their interactions explicitly showed that one teacher in each case had a more complex and a leading role than the other.

6.2. Division of labour: differentiated skills and content roles

Despite collaborative presentations between the team teachers mentioned above, the NETs and the KETs tended to have differentiated skills and content roles in their instruction. In this section, I will discuss how the team teachers who took charge of separate functional skills and roles interacted with each other in order to organise a team teaching class. Some researchers (Barrat & Kontra 2000; Carless 2002; Medgyes 1992: Tang 1997) argue that NETs and NNETs possess complementary attributes (see Figure 3.1, p. 39), which can exploit respective strengths and minimize their weaknesses. Even though all of the team teachers in this study did not have the same attributes described in Figure 3.1, there were distinctive aspects between the NETs and the KETs. First of all, the four NETs had shared features in their classrooms: they mainly took charge of listening and speaking parts (e.g. ‘Look
and Listen’, ‘Listen and Repeat’, ‘Look and Speak’ in the textbooks); they tended to essentially lead and focus on oral practice individually or chorally in routinized formats; they made use of more visual resources via computer mediated presentations than the textbooks. Meanwhile, the KETs emphasised reading and writing (e.g. ‘Let’s Read’, ‘Let’s Write’, ‘Review’ in the textbooks) and checked up on grammar, key expressions and vocabulary. They helped to ensure students were on track, double-checking their learning process with worksheets or quizzes. In this sense, as Medgyes (1999: 56) summarises differences in teaching attitudes between NETs and non-NETs, the NETs tend to focus on ‘fluency’, ‘language in use’, and ‘oral skills’, ‘favour group work/pair work’, and ‘use a variety of materials’ whereas the KETs tend to focus on ‘accuracy’, ‘form’, ‘grammar rules’, and ‘printed word and correct/push for errors’.

For example, the following extracts illustrate the similarities which the four NETs had in terms of routinized patterns of initiating a lesson. Matthew, James, Kevin, and Robert usually started exchanging greetings with students (line 1-4), asking about the weather or the date, and then moved on to what they learned in the last class (line 7-8), as seen in Extract 7. They had typical patterns of interactions with the whole class at the beginning of each lesson. Fujimoto-Adamson (2005: 88) refers to ‘greeting and framing’ as the transaction to open the team-teaching lesson and shows team teachers’ pedagogic moves clearly.

**Extract 7**

(7) 01 N: okay (.) good morning class
02 C: good morning
03 N: how are you today?
04 C: I: am fine thank you (.) and you?
05 N: I’m good (.) how’s the weather?
06 C: it’s sunny
In addition, the NETs generally focused on pronunciation and lexis in the choral drills, particularly when new vocabulary or unfamiliar expressions were introduced in a lesson. Extracts 8 shows how James led students to speak a comparative form repeatedly, and Extract 9 also presents a typical mechanical drill pattern through which Kevin taught an ordinal number unfamiliar to the students.

**Extract 8**

(8) 64 N: so we take this large here and... we stick it (a word ‘r’) at the end of the word (.) okay we have larger (.)
65 C: can everyone say larger
66 N: larger
67 C: larger
68 N: larger
69 C: larger
70 N: three (.) two (.) one
71 C: larger
72 N: okay good job

(Case 2, Class 5, 14/09/10)

**Extract 9**

(9) 35 N: twelfth twelfth
36 C: twelfth
37 N: twelfth
38 C: twelfth
39 N: it’s November twelfth
40 C: it’s November twelfth

(Case 3, Class 1, 12/11/10)

Moreover, they had similar pedagogic skills to elicit responses from students by using visual materials such as PPT slides or worksheets. The following extracts show how the NETs enabled students to produce sentences with the given words. For example, in Extract 10, Matthew presented words one by one, such as ‘sink, bed, and lamp’, and then the whole class made sentences with these words, speaking them chorally. Meanwhile, Robert led an individual student to answer
the question (line 61, 69), and then the whole class repeated the answer together (line 63, 71) in Extract 11.

Extract 10

(10) 15 N: very good one more .) sink .) three two one
16 C: there is a sink in the bathroom
17 N: okay very good .) class what is the name of this?
18 ((pointing out a screen))
19 C: bedroom
20 N: right .) bedroom ((looking at a screen)) okay .) bed
21 C: there is a bed in the bedroom
22 N: very good .) errr … lamp .) three two one
23 C: there is a lamp in the bedroom

(Case 1, Class 7, 01/11/10)

Extract 11

(11) 59 ((N operates a computer. A picture appears with a question
60 ‘what’s this?’))
61 S1: this is a bedroom
62 N: bedroom perfect! three .) two .) one .) go!
63 C: this is a bedroom
64 ((N operates a computer and three coins appear.
65 N marks three points.))
66 N: next
67 ((N operates a computer. A picture appears with a question
68 ‘what’s this?’))
69 S2: this is a kitchen
70 N: good .) three .) two .) one .) go!
71 C: this is a kitchen

(Case 4, Class 2, 28/10/10)

The extracts (7-11) above clearly show the parallel patterns of skills and roles which the NETs had in their lessons in terms of focusing on speaking parts with choral repetition or drill. In comparison to the NETs’ attributes, the KETs concentrated more on grammar and vocabulary and clarified some aspects which their native English team partners might miss, or could not deliver. As Medgyes (1992) points out, the non-native English speaking teachers can understand the learners through similar processes of learning English and can anticipate language difficulties more
easily. For instance, Extract 12 presents how Jessica intervened in Matthew’s instruction so as to check vocabulary and expressions:

**Extract 12**

(12) 27 N: one more… um… blanket (.) three two one
1 28 C: there is a blanket in the bedroom=
29 K: (turning to a class)) =please tell me the spelling (.) blanket?
30 C: **B.L.A.N.K.E.T.**
31 ((K writes down a word according to a spelling spoken by C.))
32 K: is that correct? ((pointing out a word on the board))
33 C: yes
34 ((N nods his head.))
35 K: good (.) that means **ebul (.) damnyo** {blanket}
   (Case 1, Class 7, 01/11/10)

(2) 26 N: ((N touches a screen and a line is rising up.))
27 C: they are holding hands ((a sentence is rising up))
28 K: they are holding hands
29 ((coming forward and holding hands with a student sitting in the first row)) **holding hands**
30 (Case 1, Class 1, 14/10/10)

In Extract 12-①, when Matthew led a practice, interacting with the class (line 27-28), Jessica interjected to verify the spelling of ‘blanket’ to students (line 29-32) and clarified its meaning in two synonyms in Korean (line 35). Furthermore, Jessica stepped forward to demonstrate an expression ‘holding hands’ with a gesture of holding hands with a student in the class in order to provide a clear meaning (line 29-30) in Extract 12-②. In these ways, Jessica was observed to frequently check vocabulary and emphasise key expressions.

In Case Two, Mary’s roles were similar to Jessica’s in terms of checking comprehension, vocabulary or grammar and writing sentences, whereas James also dominated the ‘Look and Listen’ and ‘Look and Speak’ parts like Matthew did. However, the interactions between Mary and James were slightly different from those between Jessica and Matthew mentioned above. Despite separate and
leading parts which were explicitly allocated to each one, Mary was sometimes observed to dominate a lesson, not only intervening in James’ parts which had been assigned to him, but also complementing his lack of instruction. In Extract 13, for example, Mary gave background information related to a request expression (e.g. Will you help me?) in order to facilitate James’ speaking practice part later. She elicited responses from students to introduce a sentence and specific situations in which the request sentence was used.

Extract 13
(13) 45  K: when can we say will you help me?
  46  unje will you help me rago sseulkka? {When can you say this?}
  47  what situation?
  48  S1: mugeoyoongeo deulttae {when we lift something heavy}
  49  K: oh joahyo {great} mugeowoongeo deulttae {when we lift something heavy} tto? {what else?}
  50  S2: yisagalttae {when we move to a new place}
  51  K: yisagalttae tto? {when we move to a new place, what else}
  52  S3: gongbuhalttae {when we study}
  53  Ss: (XXXX)
  54  K: (((looking at Ss and repeating their answers)))
  55  gongbuhalttae {when we study}
  56  badaeh bbajeoteulttae {when we fall into a river}
  57  dowoomi philyo haittae {when we need help}
  58  dowoomi philyohan maneun sanghwangdeulyee itsubnida
  59  {There are many situations when we need help.}
  60  this time (.) we will learn some situations when we need help
  61  okay? (((looking at N and handing a microphone to N))
  62  N: okay let’s read together (((pointing at a sentence on a screen))
  63  will you help me?
  64  C: will you help me?

(Case 2, Class 1, 19/10/10)

Mary used code-switching (line 46) to ask a question and the students gave answers in Korean (line 48, 51, 53). Then, Mary repeated their answers in Korean (49, 52, 56-59) again (The L1 support including code-switching will be discussed in the following section). This process conducted by Mary helped the students improve their understanding and follow the speaking drill (‘Look and Speak’) led by James later.
After Mary’s introduction, she gave a turn to James (line 62). In addition, whenever James occasionally caused a breakdown or unnecessary pauses in the flow of the lesson, Mary instantly interjected to make up for his parts instead. Extract 14 delineates such a situation when Mary supported James’ main part because he was not successful in eliciting responses from the students. Every lesson in the textbook started with a ‘Look and Listen’ part in which students listened to dialogues or conversations along with several pictures related to listening scripts.

**Extract 14**

(14) 01 N: so (.) what did we learn last time?  
02 Ss: err (3.5)  
03 K: nana: nana: nana: nana:  
04 N: sorry = ((approaching a teacher’s desk))  
05 C: =sorry (.) I can’t  
06 N: good job ((looking at a teacher’s book))...  
07 K: okay (.) let’s play soccer  
08 Ss: [yes!]  
09 Ss: [sorry I can’t]  
10 K: oh good  
11 N: let’s play basketball  
12 C: sure I can (.) of course  
13 N: okay everyone (.) page...=((approaching a teacher’s desk))  
14 K: = one o six  
15 N: one o six ((looking at class))  
16 K: bbekyukjjok ymnida {please, page 106}  

(Case 2, Class 1, 01/10/10)

When James initiated a review of the lesson concerning various responses to suggestions (line 1), the students were silent, leading to a pause (line 2). Then, Mary gave a phonological clue with a rhythm sequence (line 3) and James also provided the students with the first lexical item as another clue (line 4). However, he came to a desk on which a teacher’s guidebook had been placed and tried to keep his eyes on it (line 4, 6) to generate example sentences which had been taught last class. He did not seem to remember the sentences which he had presented. As soon as there
was a slight pause (after line 6), Mary presented a sentence (line 7) in order to avoid any disjuncture in the explanation and learning (and to bridge James’ next turn smoothly). While Mary was eliciting responses from the students and giving an evaluation (line 7-10), James got some example sentences from the book, and this was followed by his providing another sentence (line 11). Then, Mary let him know the page number as well (line 14) and James announced this to the students (line 15). Mary clarified this again in Korean (line 16). Even though this part was principally allocated to him, like the other NETs, it was evident that James did not manage it independently but needed Mary’s support. That was why Mary looked more dominant during repeated instances like this and why she was partially unsatisfied with James’ incomplete preparation, as described in Section 5.2.3 (p. 147).

As seen in Case One and Two, the KETs (Jessica and Mary) often interjected or interrupted their team partners during the lessons to check up on vocabulary, grammar or comprehension. According to Bailey et al. (1992: 169), it is necessary for two teachers to welcome ‘friendly interruptions’ to keep the balance of power. However, their interruptions or interjections were mainly led by the KETs (Jessica and Mary) not by their native partners. This revealed that they had non-reciprocal ‘friendly interruptions’ (Bailey et al. ibid.) between the two team teachers, which meant that they might have the imbalance of power in their team teaching classrooms.

In contrast, Case Three and Four had clearly discrete features in their division: as the KETs, Rona and Kate, rarely engaged in joint instruction in team teaching classes, their different skills or content roles were rarely presented in the
class. Even though Rona had limited interactions with Kevin and the students during a lesson, as mentioned in Section 6.1, there was almost no evidence of Rona initiating turn. When she was nominated by Kevin, Rona occasionally took charge of announcing the day’s lesson plan at the beginning of a class.

**Extract 15**

(15) 47 N: what’s the plan today (. ) Rona teacher? ((looking at K))
48 K: we have the rest part of lesson thirteen
49 so (. ) can you remember what you learned?
50 do you remember?
51 here are the key sentences in lesson thirteen
52 we have been studying I can um why? because I have a um=
53 N: =there are two sentence types in the lesson
54 I have a um I have an um (. ) and I am um (. ) okay?
55 I have a um is what? what is it? what goes here?
56 ((pointing out a sentence on the screen))
57 noun or adjective?
58 C: noun
59 N: gurae (right) myeongsa (noun) goes here (. ) I have a marker
60 I have a er.. backache (. ) okay? I have a
61 everyone (. ) I have a
62 C: I have a
63 N: good here is I am (. ) I am
64 C: I am

(Case 3, Class 6, 12/11/10)

In Extract 15, for example, when Kevin asked Rona to introduce a lesson plan to students before his instruction (line 47), Rona briefly mentioned it and reminded the students of what they had learned in the last class with key expressions (line 48-52). In addition to her introduction, Kevin provided more detailed explanation with grammatical aspects (line 53-57) and simple Korean words (line 59). As mentioned in Section 5.3.3, Kevin was the only NET among the four cases who was able to explain grammar and vocabulary in simple Korean. The interaction between Rona and Kevin presents an obvious contrast with Case One and Two. That is, Kevin played a similar role in instructing a lesson rather like the KETs (Jessica and Mary),
particularly in terms of checking grammatical points. On the other hand, Rona simply took charge of checking on a previous lesson just as the other NETs often did. Due to his multiple roles and skills, Kevin was more likely to be a solo instructor whereas, in comparison, Rona’s content roles were limited despite her engagement in supporting low level students with additional explanation in Korean. Moreover, her engagement seemed to be largely led by Kevin.

In Case Four, Robert had the most computer mediated lessons among the four cases, linking the content of the textbook to games or activities (e.g. Super Mario game, completing sentences with given words, Who is fast?). He never taught specific vocabulary or grammatical aspects during a lesson but instead he focused on speaking and writing practice. The following field note portrays how Robert led a group to repeat key expressions chorally through a game.

**Extract 16**

The second activity was a ‘Super Mario’ game which was designed to review key expressions that student had learned. There were 23 same boxes with question marks on the TV screen. Robert explained what number each box had and then made Group 5 choose one of the boxes. When the students in Group 5 selected number three, he approached a computer and clicked. A picture (a girl is lifting a table) appeared with the written message ‘Say in English 탁자 드는 것을 도와주겠어요? (takja denun gutul dowajusiget eoyo?)’ He led Group 5 to speak the sentence written in Korean in English. After that, ‘Will you help me lift the table, please’ was shown below on the screen. Robert tried to direct the whole class to repeat the sentence again. When he clicked a mouse, four yellow, blue, red and green stars were presented. Robert asked Group 5 to choose one of the stars and Group 5 chose a yellow star. As soon as he clicked the yellow one, a Super Mario appeared spinning around and then it disappeared and simultaneously ‘-3 POINTS!’ was shown. Robert erased three points from the points which Group 5 achieved during today’s lesson. The other students in different groups laughed and yelled out a cheer whereas the students of Group 5 looked disappointed. Since the class was noisy, Robert tried to make students quiet and Kate came and gave a warning to one student chatting with a friend sitting behind him. Robert smiled at Group 5 and started this game with Group 4.

(FN 1: Case 4, Class 6, 28/10/2010)
Extract 16 above describes one of the typical patterns which Robert and Kate had: Robert led an activity with a focus on speaking drills and Kate was not engaged in any instructional roles except disciplining support. As Kate had her solo teaching class with the same students, she previewed what the students would learn with Robert or reviewed what they had learned from Robert with emphasis on grammar, vocabulary, and a writing skill. Kate and Robert in Case Four were clearly independent of each other without team interactions in the classroom.

In this section, I have described how each pair of team teachers shared differentiated skills and content roles in their instruction. Despite such separate roles and skills which the NETs and the KETs took on, each team has shown different and deviant features to organize such division of roles suitable for each context.

6.3 Language in the classroom: L 1 and L 2

Along with differentiated skills and content roles presented in Section 6.2, using two different languages by two team teachers in a class was identified as a key nature of their interaction, in particular, in the team teaching context where both teachers have access to learners’ L1 and L2. This section will focus on how the two teachers interacted with each other as language providers of a target language (English) and a mother tongue (Korean) used in a team teaching class. As mentioned in Section 6.1, collaborative language teaching between two teachers can provide more varied input with two voices, two accents, and two speeds of speech delivery and provide two models of the target language in class (Bailey et al. 1992). Moreover, Medgyes (1992, 1994) argues that team teaching between NETs
and NNETs may harness respective strengths and weaknesses by having positive role models as well as making use of the mother tongue. In particular, Carless and Walker (2006: 468) emphasise ‘exploitation of the mother tongue’ which NETs cannot adequately do without the support of local English teachers. In this study, four KETs commonly used Korean in their team teaching contexts. For example, Jessica and Mary engaged in English medium instructions with their NETs and often used Korean to help the whole class to easily grasp not only their leading instruction but also the native English speaking team teachers’ instruction when necessary. Meanwhile, Rona and Kate seldom instructed with their team teachers in class but, just in a few cases, they engaged in supplying an L1 (Korean) to the students: for example, when the NETs (Kevin and Robert) seemed to have difficulty in initiating a new activity or when the students appeared to be having difficulty in understanding English instructions and the class became noisy.

In this section, I will focus on L1 used by the Korean English teachers and their interaction with each native English partner and the varied purposes of using code-switching or a mother tongue. Among the classification of Korean English teachers’ talk with a focus on the types of L1 use (Liu et al. 2004: 616), the KETs mainly used L1 for the following functions: directions or instructional comments; questions (checking comprehension, etc.); text, word or grammar explanations; managing students’ behaviour; and compliments or confirmation. First of all, the extracts below show how the KETs used Korean in their classes for directions or instructional comments. In Extract 17, Jessica and Matthew conducted an activity for which the students needed to make sentences and link those sentences to the
pictures on the given poster. Jessica and Matthew tried to introduce this task together.

Extract 17

(17) 36 N: good ... ((showing a poster to a class))
37 this is what we might do (.) make many sentences like this
38 ((pointing out a screen)) as many as you can (.) draw lines
39 K: ((showing another poster to a class)) ja ... sunsangnim
40 seolmyeong dleobosayo {Class, listen to me}
41 sam ban eolinedlei hankeondae {This is done by the students
42 in Class Three} meonjeo domyeongssik jjakeuljiaseo hanbun
43 jakuphago hanbunjakuphago bungalow gamyeonse ... {first of all, pair two people and do it in turn}
44 {First of all, pair two people and do it in turn}
45 muel hanyamyeon ... {What you are going to do...}
46 **what is she doing?** juleul gut gu {Draw a line} **she is ... eating**
47 **ice cream** (.) dapeul sseunengeoyeyo {Write an answer}
48 daum sarameun {next person} **what are they doing?**
49 **they are dating**

(Case 1, Class 1, 14/10/10)

After Matthew introduced what to do in this activity to the class (line 36-38), Jessica gave directions, adding detailed explanation in Korean (line 39-45). Then, she used not only English to demonstrate two sets of example sentences but also Korean to provide directions (line 46-49). Jessica was often seen to give the students rather detailed instructions in Korean when Matthew’s guidance did not seem enough for the students to perform a task or when they conducted such complex activities.

As for Case Two, whenever Mary organised a preparatory stage for a following activity, she tended to speak Korean for directions.

Extract 18

(18) 01 K: let’s play a challenging game (.) for this game (.) one student in each group (.) come up!
02 one student in each group
03 N: one student each group
04 K: **come up (.) one student from each group** (.)
05 come up ((operating a projector))
06 bundan beyeolo hansaram naomeyon dae
07 {one person from each group}
Extract 18 shows one of Mary’s typical patterns of L1 use for directions. Mary moved to another activity named a challenging game, asking the students to come up to the front of the classroom in English (line 1-2) and James repeated it to support her (line 3). However, despite Mary’s repetition of directions in English (line 4-5), the students did not follow her direction and the class became noisy. Then, she used code-switching to give detailed directions to the students in Korean (line 6, 9). In this situation, Mary needed to make use of ‘echoing’ (Benoit & Haugh 2001: 5), which was useful where some translation from L2 to L1 (or from L1 to L2) was required for student comprehension.

While Jessica and Mary tended to use Korean for their own instructional comments or directions due to their leading positions, Rona and Kate mainly translated their English speaking partners’ instructions or directions in Korean. The following two extracts show how they exploited their mother tongue in their team teaching contexts. In Extract 19, Kevin interacted with the students, actively walking around the right front of the classroom where a TV screen and a whiteboard were closely placed. Rona stood at the left corner of the front which was near the blackboard, monitoring the class.

Extract 19

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line</th>
<th>Transcript</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>guys (.) if your speaking is very good (.) speak loud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td><em>kgehaseyo</em> {Speak loud}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>if you speak loud (.) one extra point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>one more point (.) okay all right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>((looking at G2, Snoopy)) Snoopy (.) come on! Snoopy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td><em>daehwarul kge jaihameon plus il pointru deo jugetdaguyo</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>{If you speak loud, you will be given one more point.}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Case 3, Class 2, 12/11/10)
While Kevin was approaching a group of students at a table, he explained what the students were asked to do in English and in Korean (line 15-16). Then, he emphasised a point system for a reward (line 17-18) and Rona repeated it in Korean to clarify Kevin’s instruction (line 20). Interestingly, despite short sentences or words, Kevin often used English followed by Korean equivalents, that is, code-switching in class. As mentioned in Section 5.3.3 (p. 162), Kevin was more capable of leading a lesson with his speaking in Korean and the students seemed to mostly grasp his directions, which was a significant feature considering very few NETs can speak or use Korean in class. Kevin contrasts with the NETs of some cases in Luk and Lin’s research (2007: 111), which revealed how NETs had a disadvantage in the communicative classroom due to their ‘lack of L1 linguistic and cultural knowledge’. In comparison, Rona seemed to have fewer chances to intervene in Kevin’s part or support the whole class in Korean.

In Case Four, even though Kate was the least involved in L1 use among the KETs, she was observed to deliver complex instructions in Korean when Robert struggled to activate a task through his directions only. Robert could not speak Korean and he did not allow the students to use Korean in his class.

Extract 20

(20)  03  N:  okay hey (.) listen carefully (.) read a computer
04  you won’t be able to see the screen right here
05  ((pointing at a blackboard)) okay?
06  if you make a mistake (.) don’t erase ((crossing several times
07  on the board with yellow chalk)) cross it out (.) speed game
08  C:  ((Class is noisy.))
09  K:  dalryeonagaseo dabeulseuneudae {See the screen here and
10  run to the board. Write an answer.}
11  tulrilldaen jiwoojimalgo jeoreotgye makchilhago
12  {If you make a mistake, don’t erase and cross it out like that.}
   (Case 4, Class 3, 27/10/10)
In Extract 20, Robert gave directions for an activity, demonstrating how to save time on occasions when the student would make a mistake (line 3-7). However, the students did not seem to understand his instruction fully. As soon as the class became noisy, Kate provided explanation in Korean (line 9, 11), following Robert’s direction. As she was standing at the back of the classroom, the students turned to listen to her. This was her only support to the whole class in Korean that I observed in Case Four. Despite their limited engagement in class, Rona and Kate were similar to what Aline and Hosoda (2006: 11) describe as ‘being a translator’ in terms of their participation in class and interaction with native English partners.

Secondly, the two Korean teachers, Jessica and Mary, tended to use their L1 during a lesson at any time when they felt they needed to use code-switching for vocabulary or comprehension checks, while their native partners were giving instructions. According to Castellotti (1997 cited in Turnbull & Arnett 2002), code-switching is a way of enhancing language input to help students understand, check comprehension, and highlight important points or salient vocabulary. This is presented in Extract 21 and Extract 22 below. For example, when Matthew gave his instructions, Jessica interjected to ask questions to verify vocabulary and confirm the students’ answers.

Extract 21

(21) 01 N: this is memory game ((pointing out the TV screen))
   02 everyone says memory game
   03 C: memory game
   04 N: we are going to play this game in a group
   05 group one (. ) you raise your hand ((putting his right hand up))... ((G1 raises hands)) group two ... ((G2 raises hands))
   06 group three ((G3 raise hands)) group four... ((G 4 raises hands)) group five... ((Group 5 raised hands)) group six ((G6 raises hands))
   09 K: good
Matthew initiated a memory game with instructional comments (line 1-8) and Jessica encouraged the students with a compliment (line 10). Then, Jessica interjected while Matthew was giving his instruction by asking the meaning of a word (line 14) and clarified its meaning in Korean and confirmed the answer in English (line 16). Even though Matthew looked slightly embarrassed by Jessica’s sudden interruption, he noticed that the students seemed to understand the meaning of this game clearly, and mentioned this quietly to Jessica (line 17). Moreover, she made the positive evaluation explicitly after Matthew’s feedback (line 23-24). After this class, Jessica mentioned that Matthew sometimes missed checking on the students’ comprehension before conducting the activity. In a similar way in Extract 12 (Section 6.1, p. 192), Jessica often used Korean to highlight salient vocabulary or key expressions, which enabled Matthew to guide this game more easily later. Jessica, as a non-native English teacher, seemed to make profitable use of the mother tongue (Medgyes 1994) and understand her students’ needs and common difficulties as EFL learners (Carless 2006a; Tang 1997).
In Case Two, Mary used Korean to help James to check the students’ comprehension during his leading part (‘Look and Speak’). Extract 22 depicts the situation when James initiated the students’ comprehension check after they watched a video clip on the TV screen.

**Extract 22**

(22) 83 N: why did Santa Claus give Tony a watch?
84 Ss: gnyang ... {err...} {{Class becomes noisy.}}
85 N: okay (.) what is a reason?
86 C: ..... (5.0)
87 N: he is ... a good boy?
88 C: ..... (3.0)
89 K: sigye wyejoeteoyo? {Why was a watch given to him?}
90 C: (XXXX)
91 K: Santa ga woaseo {Santa Claus came}
92 oh! {{(with a gesture of patting one’s head)}}
93 good boy rago haejanah {He said ‘Good boy’}

(Case 2, Class 2, 01/10/10)

When James asked a question (line 83), several students tried to answer it but they did not provide any clear answers for his question (line 84). Then, James recast the question which did not work properly and there was communication breakdown between James and the students (line 85-86). As soon as James failed to elicit answers from the students despite recasting another question (line 87-88), Mary asked the same question to the class in Korean (line 89). The students started uttering replies and finally she provided some clues with key words quoted from the video script (e.g. Oh! Good boy) in English and story background information in Korean with a gesture (line 91-93). While Mary was interacting with the students, James stared at them and waited for his turn to lead the next part. According to Choi and Choi (2010), one of the major sources of communication breakdowns between NETs and Korean primary school students is native teachers’ use of
difficult words or sentence structures. When James recast a question (line 85), the word ‘reason’ which he used could not be relevant to the students’ vocabulary level. Whenever James had breakdowns in interaction with the students, Mary supported him by using Korean and English in this way.

As described above, the KETs in this study used Korean for several purposes according to their team teaching contexts. They had a slightly different range of support and interaction with their NETs and the students in class. Although Jessica and Mary had English mediated instruction, they seemed to quite often use Korean in their team teaching class because of their leading roles and having to deal with their inexperienced partners’ instruction. Meanwhile, L1 use by Rona and Kate was relatively limited due to their less engagement in instruction and L1 use by the NET (Kevin) would play an important role in communicating with students in class despite simple words and expressions.

6.4 Complementary support: Classroom management and discipline

Carless (2006a: 344) emphasises ‘complementarity’ as part of the rationale for team teaching in which team partners should complement each other. Two features discussed in Section 6.2 (different skills and content roles) and 6.3 (L1 and L2) are also associated with complementary relationship between the two teachers in each case. Moreover, their complementary support was observed as a key aspect of their interaction in terms of assistance, class management, and discipline. In this section, I will focus on such complementary relationship between the team teachers. As mentioned in Chapter Five, each classroom was equipped with teaching assistant facilities such as a computer, a TV set, or a projector, which the
teachers made good use of in class. In addition to operating those facilities in a classroom, team teachers supported their team partners in different ways when necessary, which could indicate the degree of their collaborative relationship. For example, the following two extracts show how Jessica and Matthew supported each other complementarily. In Extract 23, when Matthew led a lesson, interacting with the whole class, Jessica also stood at the front of the classroom to assist his instruction.

**Extract 23**

| (23)  | 35 N: okay (.) last one (.) what is the name of this room? |
| 36   | C: living room |
| 37 N: | **living room** |
| 38   | ((K writes a word ‘living room’ on the board.)) |
| 39 N: | ((looking at a screen)) err ..TV (.) three two one |
| 40 C: | there is a TV in the living room |
| 41 N: | good (.) ah ... **sofa** (.) three two one |
| 42 C: | there is sofa in the living room |
| 43   | ((K writes a word ‘sofa’ on the board.)) |

(Case 1, Class 7, 01/11/10)

When Matthew initiated a question and the students answered it (line 35-36, 39-40, 41-42), Jessica wrote down the words on the blackboard (spoken by Matthew as well as the students) for visual reinforcement (line 38, 43). Moreover, whenever Matthew was reading sentences or directing the students to follow ‘Look and Listen’ or ‘Look and Speak’ parts in the textbook, she pointed out the corresponding sentences one by one on the blackboard, encouraging the students to write sentences in their notebooks or on their worksheets, and checking their progress or performance by monitoring the students in the classroom. Matthew also supported Jessica by operating a computer or preparing the setting for activities led by her. As
mentioned in Section 5.1.3 (p. 132), Matthew was skilful at computer operation and various programmes in which Jessica had difficulty.

**Extract 24**

(24) 106 K: before we play this game (. ) group leaders (. )
107 come and get two paper boards ((showing a paper board))
108 and ... four counters
109 ((K and N distribute paper boards and counters to students.
110 N operates a computer and a stopwatch appears on the
111 screen.))
112 K: we can give four minutes to you
113 ((N clicks a stopwatch and it is ready to run.))
114 N: okay (. ) start!

(Case 1, Class 6, 22/11/10)

In Extract 24, while Jessica was leading the whole class, Matthew operated a computer in order to set a stopwatch on the TV screen (line 110-111, 113). They shared even simple work together such as distributing worksheets, game boards, or counters to the students (line 109), grouping students, and giving out stickers (see Picture 7.2, p. 262). Two extracts present their ‘combined degrees of knowledge and expertise’ which helped reinforce a bond between them and led to successful task completion and a smooth transition in a lesson (Richards & Farrell 2005: 160).

As Shannon and Meath-Lang (1992: 131) argue, they ‘recognised the gifts, skills and expertise of the partner without feeling denigrated or in any way less skilful’. More noticeably, Jessica and Matthew were careful and alert to help each other, not only in spontaneous situations but also in requested situations when each one occasionally asked for some help (e.g. ‘Matt, can you help me?’; ‘Jessica, can you do the PPT?’; or ‘Can you do this now?’). In this sense, Jessica and Matthew had ‘shared commitment to team teaching and ongoing communication’ (Goetz 2000: 11) and revealed ‘sensitivity’ to the teaching partner (Carless 2006a: 350).
As for Case Two, Mary assisted James considerably during their lesson whereas the support James gave Mary was comparably limited. It was often observed that Mary managed multi-tasks by herself during a class and sometimes requested help from James. This is presented in Extract 25. Mary initiated an activity about cultural comparisons in terms of cultural differences, introducing Nepalese culture through a video which she had recorded in Nepal. Before starting this activity, Mary made ready to play a video clip and pulled down a projector screen.

Extract 25

(25) 59  K: okay good job .) now we move on next activity  
60  this activity is about cultural things (.) 
61  we will show you a video clip (.) look at the ... 
62  watch the video clip and think and remember it 
63  gieokhaseyo Eoddeon eyagiga nawatneunge 
64  {Remember what this story is about} 
65  ((K operates a computer and a video is played. K asks N to 
66  turn off the lights in the classroom. After watching it, K 
67  operates a computer and draws back a screen. N turns on the 
68  lights.))

(Case 2, Class 1, 05/11/10)

As described above, she briefly introduced the activity related to the video and its focus and then operated a computer to play a video clip (line 59-63). As soon as the video clip was played, Mary asked James to turn off the switch where he stood nearby and James turned the light switch off and then on, when requested (line 65-68). Mary was busy handling a sequence of procedures, whereas James did not seem to notice her bustling movements until she asked him to turn off the lights. Benoit and Haugh (2001) identify ‘eye contact and signalling’ between team teachers in the classroom as one of the team teaching tips. However, Mary and James rarely maintained eye contact or signalled each other during a lesson for
communication. Despite the lack of James’ alert assistance, Mary sometimes tried to impose on him some roles in class. In Extract 26, Mary organised a new activity regarding a comparative form and directed James to get involved in sharing a role.

Extract 26

(26) 30 K: each person from each group (. ) come up!
31 ((Three students come up. K operates a computer and a new sentence ‘whose mouth is bigger?’ appears on the screen.
33 K comes to N and hands a plastic ruler to N.
34 N comes to three students.))
35 N: aaa: ((opening his mouth))
36 S1: first ((pointing out S2 and S3))
37 S2: no (. ) no (pointing out S1)
38 N: okay (. ) rock-scissors-paper!

(Case 2, Class 5, 14/09/10)

As described above, Mary encouraged the students to participate in the activity (line 30) and operated a computer to present a sentence for a task (line 31-32). Then, she approached James, giving a yellow plastic ruler to him (line 33). When James was about to measure the size of each voluntary student’s mouth (line 34-35), two of the students refused the first turn because they seemed shy to open their mouths in front of the class. Finally, James suggested a way of deciding their turn (line 38), measuring the sizes of their mouths, and then Mary proceeded to the next steps in this activity. As James did not seem to notice the circumstances when Mary needed support, Mary tended to handle even simple work (e.g. distributing or collecting worksheets from students) alone instead of sharing some roles or work which James would be able to manage. Consequently, James was seen to miss opportunities to help Mary in class and neither did he seem to recognise such situations. Moreover, as Mary usually operated a computer, a projector and its screen whose devices were installed around her desk, James rarely operated them.
to assist Mary. However, whenever James was asked for support by Mary, he helped her very willingly: setting desks for students, placing a movable whiteboard, or grouping students.

Compared to Mary and James, Rona and Kevin had similar interactions with each other. Like Mary’s dominant roles, Kevin managed almost all the work by himself including operating a computer, marking points, grouping students and distributing worksheets or cards to the students (see Picture 7.4, p. 265). However, on the contrary to James, Rona supported Kevin spontaneously if necessary. She occasionally operated a computer or a TV screen while Kevin was eliciting answers from a group of students or talking with students. When they had group work, Rona often assisted Kevin: distributing cards or game boards to each group, marking students’ group worksheets together and collecting cards or worksheets after an activity. Rona’s operational support for Kevin was limited and simple during a lesson because Kevin took a central role in most of the instruction and utilized teaching equipment and facilities well without any help.

In Case Four, compared to the other cases, there were much simpler facilities such as a TV set, computer equipment, and a blackboard in their classroom. Even though Kate did not provide any complementary support to Robert, Robert ably managed a class, operating a computer and preparing the setting for a practice or an activity.

As for classroom management, the KETs commonly played a key role in helping their team teachers to lead a lesson in a better classroom atmosphere in their own ways. For example, whenever a class became noisy after an activity and needed to get ready for the next movement, Jessica and Mary managed the
classroom, often giving an English command to the class as presented in Extract 27. Students chorally spoke a reply, immediately following the Korean teachers’ commands.

Extract 27

(27) 24 K: have a seat! look at me look at me
25 C: look at you look at you

(Case 1, Class 6, 08/12/10)

67 K: be be
68 C: quiet.
69 K: be be
70 C: quiet
71 K: no talking .) open your books

(Case 2, Class 3, 03/12/10)

While Jessica usually managed a class strictly and directly, Mary rang a bell to make students pay attention to teachers and sometimes controlled them with the commands above. However, when the class became extremely noisy and hard to control, Jessica and Mary gave commands in Korean (e.g. jeonbu eopdeuryo {Class, head down on the desk}, wae ereotkke oraetdongahn sikkeureowoe {Why are you too noisy for a long time?}, or son meori hago ilbunman ereokye igetssumnida {Hands on your head for a minute}). As mentioned in Section 6.3, L1 (Korean) was used for managing students’ behaviour. Kang (2008) reported that KETs exclusively used L1 for classroom management, which arguably seems more effective in controlling the whole class. Compared to Jessica and Mary, Rona and Kate seemed passive and indirect in managing a classroom. As Rona and Kate usually stood at the other sides or the back of the classroom, it was relatively easy to control misbehaving students by approaching and giving a warning to them individually during a lesson.
As mentioned in Section 5.1.3 (pp. 134-135), Jessica covered general classroom management and strictly disciplined students because she wanted to reduce the burden of this role which Matthew felt challenging. According to Jeon (2009), a number of native English speaking teachers working in Korea have classroom management problems because their legitimacy as teachers is systematically limited. As KETs are in control of assessment and examinations in public schools, they can exercise more power in classroom management than NETs who do not engage in them. In addition, KETs have better access to a fuller range of linguistic possibilities for L1, which tends to work better for disciplining students. Thus, Jessica mainly handled punishment issues or scolding individual students at any time (see Extract 3 line 9-11), whereas Matthew was never engaged in any disciplining issues. Gately and Gately (2001) point out that both teachers need to mutually develop rules and routines in a structured environment for classroom management. In this light, I found that their disciplining strategy (e.g. ‘Angel and Devil’) worked effectively, so they managed a class quite well and easily. Interestingly, Matthew engaged in a low-level of disciplining by encouraging students to concentrate on their work and circulating the classroom as shown in the following Extract 28.

Extract 28

(28) 15 N: class (. ) one minute left
16 class (. ) if you finish it come to Matthew teacher
39 when you are ready (. )
40 please show your work to Matthew teacher
114 okay (. ) winners come to Matthew teacher

(Case 1, Class 5, 08/11/10)
In contrast with Matthew above, James in Case Two actively got involved in disciplining students during a lesson. Whenever a class was noisy, he counted a number which was a basic warning to the students. For example, he spoke out ‘(.).
      five four three two one zero! (.)
      everyone listen up!’ or in some cases, he used a simple Korean command such as ‘son meori! {Hands on head}. As described in Section 5.2.3 (p. 149), Mary did not want to manage a class strictly so James tended to become much stricter to the students. After a couple of big arguments between them, both Mary and James tried to control the whole class actively with rigid discipline. As seen in Extract 29, James punished a student by making him stand at the back of the classroom (line 18) after a couple of warnings to the whole class by Mary and James (line 12-16). James controlled a misbehaving student very strictly, compared to the other NETs in the other cases. After ten minutes, Mary told the student to return to his seat.

**Extract 29**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>K: joyonghee hasaeyo! {Please, be quiet}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>joyonghee {be quiet}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>N: hey (.) pay attention (.) <strong>pay attention</strong>!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>((coming to a couple of students))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>K: junbee deoltaekkaji ahnhalkkeoya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>{Before you are ready, we cannot start}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>N: ((approaching a student)) you (.) stand back</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>((A student comes to the back of a classroom.))</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Case 2, Class 3, 05/11/10)

In contrast to Matthew and James, Kevin and Robert were skilful enough to manage a class in their own ways even though Rona and Kate sometimes supported them respectively with disciplining students. More outstandingly, Kevin was quite good at classroom management, simply raising and lowering his voice (line 3-4) or making
use of a rewarding rule by giving points (line 38-39), as presented in Extract 30. The
students in Kevin’s classes were well disciplined by his charisma, his louder voice
and energetic actions. Except for a few cases, I found Rona more prone to giving
her warnings only in Korean (e.g. ‘baro ahnja’ {Sit up straight}, ‘malhaji ma’ {Don’t
speak}, ‘joyong’ {Quiet}) with gestures at individual students to be quiet, but she
seldom disciplined the whole class.

Robert was also experienced in controlling a class. In similar ways of classroom
management conducted by Kevin above, Robert usually used a rewarding principle
to make students be quieter or more motivated in a lesson. He did not allow the
students to speak Korean during his class and strictly kept them from speaking
Korean by deleting a point as a penalty. Robert pointed out misbehaving individual
students, saying ‘No Korean’, ‘No speaking Korean’ or ‘Pay attention!’ as well as
managing the whole class. Moreover, he punished the students who used bad
language or misbehaved in class by means of depriving them of their turns in a
game or an activity. He seemed successful in classroom management or discipline.
However, on rare occasions, Kate supported Robert. The following Extract 31
portrays Kate’s engagement in Robert’s disciplining of students, which caused the students to misunderstand the situation.

**Extract 31**

(31) 52  S1:  shut up! (XXXX)
53  N:  hey hey (. ) you should not say that ((looking at S1))
54  S:  no no no (. ) the girl (. ) choose ((pointing out S2))
55  G2:  (XXXX)
56  N:  he kept saying bad words ((looking at G2))
57  S:  stop! hey (. ) stop ((looking at S1))
58  S:  ((K comes to a student in G2.))
59  K:  nabbeunmalhameyon ghwwoe eobeoyo
60  N:  {If you say bad words, you don’t have a chance}
61  S:  say ((looking at S2 in Group 3))
62  S2:  b

(Case 4, Class 5, 27/10/10)

After Robert heard one student using bad language, he pointed it out to the student (line 53). Then, he skipped that student’s turn to choose a card on the TV screen and gave a chance to another student (S2) in the next group (Group 3) (line 54). When the other students in Group 2, which the student belonged to, were confused, not understanding the reason for losing a chance (line 55), Robert firmly explained G2 what he had done (line 56-57). Kate monitored this situation from the back of the classroom and then came to the student and explained why he had lost his turn in Korean (line 59). As soon as the other students in Group 2 listened to Kate’s explanation, they seemed to accept this situation and Robert continued to lead this activity, giving a chance to the student in Group 3 (line 61). During the lesson, Kate found that Robert looked unhappy and there was some trouble between Robert and a misbehaving student and among the students in that group. She came to the group, explained the reason to the student and the other members in that group in Korean and returned to the back. Except for a few circumstances
above, like Rona, Kate hardly intervened in managing a class at all, staying at the back of the classroom all through a lesson. She had one to one discipline, standing next to misbehaving students as a sign of warning, which was individual and indirect support for Robert’s instruction.

In this section, I have described how the four pairs of team teachers complemented each other through mutual assistance, classroom management and discipline. Despite varied degrees of complementary support in each pair of team teachers, they seemed to have ‘an opportunity to move between teaching and observing or assisting, providing a change from the pace and demands of a solo-taught class’ (Richards & Farrell 2005: 160). The four KETs had differentiated features in terms of their engagement, intervention, and roles, which were related to the interactions with their NETs. Each team had their own team teaching styles of complementary relationships between the two team teachers according to their mutual agreement and strategy, or individual teacher’s comprehensive capability.

6.5 Flexibility: Decision-making and intervention

When two team teachers have to solve problems or challenging issues in a diversity of situations, they go through the process of discussion, negotiation, compromise, and decision-making. Under such circumstances, both teachers need ‘willingness to adapt to diverse situations’, ‘respect’ for each other’s opinion (Luo 2010: 274), and ‘willingness to compromise’ (Carless 2006a, 2006b; Carless & Walker 2006). As mentioned in Section 6.1, for instance, the team teachers sometimes altered their practice or the procedural order in their lesson plans due to unexpected circumstances or responses to the dynamics going on inside the classroom. In that
situation, the team teachers in each case managed the class in the way of a brief conversation, off-record procedural talk, or sometimes unilateral decision-making mainly by one teacher. This section will discuss how flexibly team teachers led their classes through negotiation, quick decision-making and intervention in their contexts. Three team teaching cases (Case One, Two, and Three) of team teachers showed differences in such flexible aspects. Case Four was excluded because I did not observe such interactions between Kate and Robert.

Among the four cases, Jessica and Matthew (Case One) were most frequently observed to have off-record procedural talk and brief negotiation for making quick decisions during every lesson. Their momentary discussions and exchanges were seen in class while the students were doing worksheets and pair or group work. The following extracts show how Jessica and Matthew interacted with each other to share ideas and opinions together followed by actions.

**Extract 32**

Jessica and Matthew talked with each other and Matthew looked at his watch. Then, Matthew operated a computer and a stopwatch appeared on the screen. He talked to Jessica and she checked a given time (five minutes) on the screen and announced to the students the time allocation for an activity. While doing group work, Jessica and Matthew had a brief talk and then Matthew said to students, ‘Class, we give one more minute now’.

(FN2: Case 1, Class 7, 01/11/10)

As presented in Extract 32, whenever Jessica and Matthew conducted pair or group work, they often altered time allocation spontaneously to keep the pace of the class going smoothly as ‘a real advantage with time keeping’ (Benoit & Haugh 2001: 5). In addition, just before a lesson was over, they decided a password which was used to review and check the students’ learning (see Picture 7.7, p. 272). Both of them usually engaged in selecting expressions, as described in Extract 33 below.
**Extract 33**

Matthew showed the paper to Jessica, talking about key expressions that were taught in a lesson so as to decide a password. Class was slightly noisy. Then, Matthew came to a computer desk and operated it. While Jessica was making class pay attention to their announcement, two sentences such as ‘Where is ...?’ ‘It is in ...’ appeared on the TV screen. Matthew stood next to Jessica. Jessica and Matthew introduced today’s password to the students and they demonstrated a pair of example sentences (a question and its answer).

(FN3: Case 1, Class 5, 08/11/10)

In Extract 34, when the students were doing a task, presented on a TV screen, one student sitting in the back row in the classroom complained that the letters on it were too small to recognise from her seat. Jessica and Matthew immediately solved this problem together.

**Extract 34**

While Jessica and Matthew were monitoring students’ work respectively, a student told Jessica that the letter font on the TV screen was too small to recognise the letters. Both Jessica and Matthew came to the computer desk and talked to each other, looking at the computer screen. While Matthew was operating the computer, Jessica looked at the TV screen. As soon as a new slide appeared, Jessica checked the enlarged letters on the TV screen, signalling ‘Okay’ to Matthew.

(FN 4: Case 1, Class 3, 08/12/10)

Furthermore, Extract 35 depicts how Jessica and Matthew coped with an unexpected situation through making a quick decision. The students in class six completed the practice that Jessica and Matthew had prepared earlier than their expectation. In that situation, they had to discuss what they should do for the rest of the time and decided to conduct an extra activity which was designed on a worksheet.
Both Jessica and Matthew interacted with each other for decision-making purposes (line 46). Jessica praised the students’ good performance with a positive evaluation in Korean (line 48-51), and Matthew also agreed with her positive evaluation (line 56). Jessica initiated worksheet distribution and Matthew followed her (line 55, 58). Then, they discussed the time allocation (line 62) and Jessica announced the given time, mentioning ‘We’ which implied both teachers’ decision (line 63). As seen in Extract 35, while introducing this practice, Jessica and Matthew engaged in off-record procedural talk twice (line 46, 62) and signalled each other using eye contact (line 56-57) on the spot. Moreover, whenever they decided to do trivial and simple things, they tried to exchange ideas, asking each other’s opinion. According to Hargreaves (1991: 53-54 cited in Nicholls 1997: 75), ‘collaborative relationships are spontaneous, voluntary, developing-oriented, unpredictable, and persuasive across time and space’. In this light, the relationship between Jessica and Matthew was
harmonious and flexible enough to handle an urgent change or an alternative plan through simple discussions, which meant they co-worked in harness.

As for Case Two, Mary and James were less often observed to discuss or talk with each other during a lesson. The reasons for their lack of interactions to make decisions during a lesson are as follows: as described in Section 6.1, Mary and James seldom had improvised joint instructions or presentations. In addition, as Mary tended to lead a lesson more than James, Mary often decided independently what they had to alter, the time allocation for activities, or the procedural order instead of sharing ideas and opinions with James. In most situations, Mary asked James to do as she directed or planned, such as doing more speaking drills for students, leading a game more speedily, or leading a brainstorming activity with items in a classroom. James rarely initiated talking to Mary but seemed to listen to Mary’s opinions and follow them. The following extracts show how they interacted with each other to change the way of instruction or convey a direction through off-record procedural talk.

**Extract 36**

When James asked three questions one by one to students, Mary came to James to say something and then James looked at a teacher’s guidebook again. James asked more questions related to a conversation from a video clip.

(FN 5: Case 2, Class 1, 01/10/10)

In Extract 36, Mary seemed to request James to modify questions related to a conversation (‘Look and Speak’ in the textbook) and James followed her advice, asking more questions to the students. Likewise, Extract 37 describes how Mary and James conducted a game called ‘Simon says’ when they had an extra time (five minutes) in class. As Mary found James’ commands slightly boring, considering time
keeping in class, she asked James to control a game with varying speeds or commands.

**Extract 37**

Mary handed a microphone to James and talked with each other. James said to students, ‘We are going to do Simon says. Stand up!’ All of the students stood up from their seats. James gave a few commands (e.g. Simon says go three steps, Simon says turn right) and a couple of students came back to their seats due to their wrong reactions. Mary talked to James and then James gave a couple of commands consecutively much faster than before. More students did wrong reactions and returned to their seats.

(FN 6: Case 2, Class 3, 05/11/10)

In addition, when they had a ‘Bingo’ game using key sentences, Mary and James produced as many sentences as possible separately. As Mary had to instruct the game, she asked James to select relevant sentences for answers in that game (Extract 38).

**Extract 38**

Mary talked to James and they came to the window side of a classroom. While the students were writing down sentences on their notebooks, Mary and James put the paper on the shelf separately, writing down sentences on it. Mary and James looked at each paper and selected several sentences. As soon as Mary gave her paper to James, she came back to her desk and picked up a microphone. Mary made the students ready for the following activity, standing in front of the class and James sat on his chair, writing down something on the paper until Mary asked him to give correct answers.

(FN 7: Case 2, Class 3, 19/10/10)

As presented in the extracts above, their off-record procedural talk and interactions were slightly different from those of Case One. While Jessica and Matthew in Case One reached reciprocal agreement by exchanging ideas with each other during the interactive moment, Mary and James in Case Two tended to have more unilateral decision-making, primarily led by Mary. Moreover, both Jessica and Matthew felt free to talk with each other at any time when each one had some matter that
he/she was willing to ask the other team teacher. However, James’ interactions with Mary seemed limited and passive, simply making sure what Mary had asked him to do, replying to her using expressions such as ‘Okay’, ‘Yes’, or ‘No problem’.

As mentioned in Section 6.1 and 6.2, the team teachers in Case Three and Four had fewer instances of interaction through decision-making or negotiation, and in particular, Robert was never seen to talk with Kate in class during the period that I observed their classes. The NETs, Kevin and Robert, dominantly led every lesson in their contexts and decided independently almost all the content and every procedure, time allocation, or order. As a result, their Korean team teachers, Rona and Kate, hardly engaged in their decision-making during a lesson, following and supporting them when necessary. In Case Three, Kevin and Rona talked with each other a couple of times in unexpected circumstances, as presented in Extract 39.

**Extract 39**

When Kevin made a transition to another activity, he turned on a TV set but it did not work properly. Despite several trials to turn it on and off, he could not switch on the TV. Kevin looked embarrassed and came to talk to Rona. He asked Rona to manage the class. While Rona was talking to the class, Kevin looked for an alternative activity from his desk. Then, he came back and distributed worksheets to the students.

(FN 8: Case 3, Class 4, 12/11/2010)

In addition, when Kevin distributed cards and boards to students, he wanted to alter some rules of the game due to different levels of students’ performance and talked about them to Rona. As Kevin and Rona usually circulated and monitored group work separately, Kevin needed to inform her of some changes to help students. Despite talking with each other a couple of times, Kevin tended to make decisions, letting Rona know them, and leading her to follow them during a lesson. In that situation, however, Rona was neither uncomfortable nor unsatisfied with
Kevin’s independent decisions or unilateral actions. Meanwhile, Kate seemed indifferent to whatever Robert decided according to his plans even though she was always with him in the same classroom. As Kate was never engaged in instructing a lesson at all, she kept mostly separate from her team teacher, Robert, in terms of interactions.

As for intervention between the two teachers, Case One and Two showed some differences. More specifically, Jessica and Matthew had reciprocal and direct intervention between each other despite Jessica’s more dominance, whereas Mary had unilateral and indirect intervention. For example, Jessica intervened in Matthew’s leading parts, even interrupting his speaking at any time when she needed: correcting a misleading instruction, giving an additional explanation (see Extract 17), pointing out a misbehaving student (see Extract 2), and clarifying vocabulary or grammatical aspects in Korean (see Extract 21). An instance is presented in the following Extract 40. When Matthew made a mistake to direct an activity, Jessica intervened.

Extract 40

(40) 11 N: we are going to start playing a phone number game (.)
12 we are going to have a row of students (.)
13 each student will be shouting one number
14 for example (. \textbf{five five five five} (.)) and ...
15 all the other students have to try to hear the phone number(.)
16 okay (. ) group one (. ) come up (. ) please come up
17 ((Students in Group 1 stand up.))
18 K: ((looking at the computer screen)) \textbf{no no no} (. ) no group one
19 (. ) one person from each group
20 N: one person from each group
21 okay (. ) one person from each group
22 ((Some students come up.))

(Case 1, Class 6, 22/11/10)
Matthew explained how to play a ‘telephone number’ game and asked students to come forward to participate in this activity (line 11-16). However, Jessica immediately intervened in his instruction, stopping the students from coming up due to his misleading guidance (line 18-19). Then, Matthew repeated her direction (line 20). Although not very often, Matthew also intervened in Jessica’s leading parts by adding missing points to her explanation or encouraging students to reply to Jessica in Extract 41.

**Extract 41**

(41) 13 K: put the number (.) number two (.) what is it?  
14 C: lamp  
15 K: lamp (.) number three?  
16 C: [TV]  
17 K: [TV] number four is?  
18 C: toilet  
19 K: toilet (.) are you with me?  
20 please put the number in each box (.)  
21 what’s next?  
22 Ss: (XXXX)  
23 K: what?  
24 N: what is this? everyone (.) three two one?  
25 C: chair.  
26 K: chair (.) next?  

(Case 1, Class 7, 01/11/10)

When Jessica elicited the students’ answers (lines 13-21), some students gave a wrong answer and others did not reply (line 22). Matthew instantly repeated a question and encouraged students to answer (line 24). While Jessica and Matthew interacted with each other through intervention when necessary, Mary usually supported James with her unilateral and indirect intervention and James was never observed to intervene in Mary’s instruction or speaking at all. Even though James mainly led his allocated activity called a ‘rainbow’ game, he tended to rely on Mary who was a key decision maker, as seen in Extract 42. James instructed a
comparative form and led student to make a proper comparative form with the given adjective word.

Extract 42

(42) 73 ((K talks to N and K picks up a word card ‘big’.)
74 Then K gives it to N.)
75 N: okay (.) it’s your turn now (.) you guys create the words
76 so … “start with…erm” start with big? ((showing a word card
77 ‘big’ to the whole class)) okay! any volunteers to come up
78 K: what is a comparative form of big?
79 C: bigger
80 N: big bigger so.. anyone wants to come up?
81 C: (raising hands) me me me
82 K: okay (.) come up ((pointing out a student))
83 N: which letter or letters is in the end?
84 ((Student adds letters to a word ‘big’.)
85 K: good job
86 N: okay (.) let’s read together (.) bigger
87 C: bigger
88 N: bigger
89 C: bigger
90 N: so … what letters do we add? we add (.) g, [g (.) e (.) r]
91 [g(.) e (.) r]
92 C: excellent!
93 K: last one (.) one more
94 ((N says something to K. K nods when N picks up a ‘beautiful’
95 word card.))
96 N: yeah (.) we got the word beautiful
97 K: ((with a gesture of raising her hand)) okay!
98 N: how do you make this a comparative form? is anyone brave
99 enough to step down? give it a shot!
100 K: okay (.) Hyunseung {a student’s name} ((indicating a student))
   (Case 2, Class 1, 14/09/10)

While James was instructing this game, he selected adjective words among the word cards on the board. Mary seemed to intend to introduce three adjectives (e.g. large, big, and beautiful) with different comparative formation to the class. Thus, Mary made him choose the words ‘big’ and ‘beautiful’ after ‘large’ and handed each word card to James (lines 73-74, 94-95). Mary did not mention the words to James but her gestures and actions clearly delivered what word cards James should
choose. Then, James followed Mary’s choice, which showed that he was dependent on her during this lesson.

In this section, I have presented how the team teachers had decision-making and intervention in the other partner’s work in their classrooms, mainly focusing on Case One and Two. Two pairs of team teachers had different levels of reciprocal relationship. Even though the KETs were viewed as taking on a leading position in class, Matthew interacted with Jessica actively and interdependently whereas James was largely depended on Mary. These interactive patterns and the process of decision-making and intervention reflect the flexibility in their relationship for keeping balance between them, sharing roles, and reaching a compromise.

6.6 Partnership: Teacher-to-teacher talk

As team teachers are more centrally involved in their classrooms, the ways they refer to a team partner in class and talk with each other after class mirror their partnership and collegiality. In this section, I will look more particularly at ‘partnership talk’ (Creese 2005: 140) in class as well as teacher-to-teacher talk after class. As for partner teachers’ talk, it was often observed that each pair of team teachers referred to a partner during a lesson in slightly different ways. The following extracts from the classroom transcripts show some comparisons among the three cases with the exception of Case Four. First of all, Jessica and Matthew (Case One) most frequently referred to each other during a lesson. As mentioned in section 6.1, Jessica and Matthew had quite a few instances of role-play or joint demonstrations in their team instruction and each teacher presented the other as an equal presence, an interlocutor, a problem solver, or a decision maker during the
class. The following examples were from several different extracts. As seen in Extract 43, Jessica referred to Matthew with different purposes: to talk to him as well as a procedural talk to the class (1); to make use of him as an element of the material (2); to invite him as an interlocutor (3); to ask him a question (4); to endorse his opinion (5); to introduce his turn (6); and to indicate him as a prize-giver (7). In most of the situations, Matthew was presented to the students as an equal team teacher, presenter, and partner by Jessica. Meanwhile, Jessica was mostly presented as a partner in a role-play with Matthew. That is, Matthew often referred to Jessica when he instructed a practice or an activity such as modelling in a role-play (8, 9), delivering an instruction (10), and introducing her turn (11).

Extract 43

(43) K:  
(1) Mathew teacher (.) I will choose number one and ...  
(2) okay (.) here is my invitation card (.) I am inviting Mathew teacher (.) dear Mathew teacher...  
(3) let’s ask the first question to Mathew teacher  
(4) Mathew teacher (.) how can I express this posture?  
(5) Yukban (.) eoreobuldel e neomoo jinhaeseo Mathew sunsang nym hago sunsangnim e kkamjjak nolratdago jigum yejihateoyo {Class 6, Good job! Mathew teacher and I are surprised at your good performance}.  
(6) Mathew teacher announces today’s passwords  
(7) get a sticker from Mathew teacher  

N:  
(8) now (.) Jessica and I will do an example  
(9) Jessica teacher is a caller and Mathew teacher is a receiver  
(10) Mathew teacher is going to start to here ((pointing out the opposite part of the picture on the screen)) Jessica teacher will start from there  
(11) okay (.) now Jessica is going to show you her card ((standing up)) (Case 1)
Jessica referred to Matthew in a wide range of their team work, such as during a team instruction (1-5), at the end of a lesson (6) and at the beginning of a class (7), whereas Matthew usually named her in his leading instruction with similar patterns (8-11). It meant that Jessica had a more leading position with more responsibility and roles. In addition, compared to the other cases, I found two distinctive features in their relationship. One is that both teachers often used the expression ‘we’ when they announced their decisions or agreements to students such as ‘(.) we give you one minute’, ‘(.) we can give you four minutes’ or ‘(.) we will do the first thing’. It implied that Jessica and Matthew seemed to have a strong bond as equal colleagues as well as they were presented as equal teachers to their students. The other is that Matthew quite often called himself ‘Matthew teacher’ instead of ‘I’ or ‘Matthew’: ‘(.) when you are ready (. ) please come to Matthew teacher’, ‘(.) when you are ready (. ) please show your work to Matthew teacher’, ‘(.) class (. ) if you finish it (. ) come to Matthew teacher’, or ‘(.) okay (. ) winners come to Matthew teacher’. This explained that Matthew clearly distinguished himself from Jessica in light of different managerial roles, such as checking students’ worksheets, giving feedback or correction to individual students, or rewarding them with a sticker.

Compared to Case One, Case Two and Three had differing aspects. That is, each teacher presented the other in routine formulas, in limited situations, and in a unilateral one way. For example, in Case Two, Mary referred to James whenever she introduced their role-play (1, 2) or gave a direction for a practice (3) in Extract 44. However, none of the observations established that James presented Mary in the class. In contrast with James who never referred to Mary, Kevin presented Rona in several ways: to invite her to introduce a lesson plan (1); to announce a schedule...
(2); to indicate her as a distributor (3); or to invite her as an interlocutor (4) in Extract 45. Interestingly, while the KET, Mary and the NET, Kevin, seemed to have similar patterns in terms of presenting their partners unilaterally, their partners, James and Rona, hardly mentioned them. With regard to their different styles of team instruction, James often had a role-play or joint teaching with Mary, whereas Rona was hardly ever engaged in team instruction with Kevin.

**Extract 44**

(44) K:  
(1) okay (.) first we are going to show a role-play  
James teacher is a shop owner and I am a customer  
(2) James teacher and I are going to have a role-play about Christmas  
(3) James teacher will ask you questions about these pictures after listening to conversation  

**Extract 45**

(45) N:  
(1) Rona teacher (.) what is the plan today?  
(2) today is my last class (.) you see Rona teacher next week  
(3) okay (.) Rona teacher will give you a paper (.) on your paper please write your team name (.) write your team name ready? so (.) Rona teacher will call you  

While the extracts above focus on how differently each team teacher presented the other partner to the students during a lesson, the ways that the team teachers talked to each other after class indicated distinctive characteristics in view of their partnership. As mentioned in Chapter Four, each case had varying data sets due to different conditions of the access to each classroom, staff room and subject classroom. Thus, the following representative extracts show how the team teachers (Case One and Two) talked to each other after class for lesson planning and
assessment. For example, Extract 46 is a unique example of assessment conducted by two teachers. In consideration of contextual situations, a majority of KETs mainly take charge of evaluating students’ performance and regular examinations, but NETs hardly have any responsibility for them. In this light, this extract is a very exceptional case. Extract 46 delineates how Jessica and Matthew interacted with each other to reach mutual agreement and learned from a partner while evaluating students’ group work together. More importantly, Jessica and Matthew (Case One) were the only team to carry out assessment of their students’ work together.

After class, when Jessica checked eight posters which were displayed on the desks, Matthew entered the English Only Classroom. She invited Matthew to evaluate the group activity work together.

Extract 46

(46) 21 N: ((reading some words on the poster)) pretending a dog
22 pushing ... walking ... folding...
23 K: excellent
24 N: really good
25 K: yeah ...
26 N: ((picking up one poster from the desk)) I like this one
27 K: but ... we told them they had to make at least seven sentences
28 N: ah ...
29 K: they made only five
30 N: you mean we have to disqualify ((putting the poster on the desk))
31 K: ((nodding her head)) umm ...
32 N: ((picking up another poster and counting the number of sentences)) three four ... six seven
33 umm ...what’s your favourite?
34 K: ((pointing at a poster and reading a sentence)) they are looking a show (.) isn’t it good? no? watching a show is better?
35 N: ((shaking his head)) it could be better they are looking at show (.) but looking a show ....
36 K: how about others? ((pointing at some sentences))
37 N: he is jumping, feeding...she is pushing... ((looking at a poster))
38 ((K looks at another poster and reads written sentences.))
39 N: a baby car? ah::: pram ...
As described above, Jessica and Matthew had to choose the three best posters among eight groups. With respect to evaluating posters which students had submitted as group work, they started talking about good points of the students’ performance, looking at the posters one by one (line 21-25). When Matthew selected a poster (line 26), Jessica pointed out the need for disqualification as the poster did not meet their conditions (line 27-28), which reminded him of their main criteria (line 29-32). After that, Matthew started counting the number of sentences on each poster on the desk and then asked which one was Jessica’s favourite (line 36). As Matthew seemed to hesitate to select a poster with his own idea of a certain standard to grade each piece of work, Jessica recommended one poster to him. Interestingly, Matthew indirectly pointed out a wrong lexical choice in the sentence which Jessica did not notice (line 37-41). After some compromise had taken place, they finally decided to select the first, second, and third place. This extract clearly presents their partnership through collaborative interaction. Even though Matthew was inexperienced in how to evaluate the students’ work, Jessica not only invited him to share a role in assessment but also respected his decision. Moreover, Matthew actively got involved in the process of evaluation and accepted her request even in some situations when Jessica tended to lead him to follow her. In the next class, Jessica and Matthew posted the students’ posters on the notice board.
board and announced the three best posters selected, which showed the two teachers’ shared evaluation. As Jang et al. (2010a) argue, team teachers have opportunities to observe and acquire different skills by exchanging roles or swapping duties. In addition, as discussed in Section 3.1, by sharing their knowledge and expertise together and gaining the benefits from conversations full of new insights into teaching and learning, team teachers acquire knowledge about useful pedagogical practices and their students (Putnam & Borko 2000). Through the evaluation process, Matthew had an opportunity to evaluate the students’ work with Jessica and he could support her with the lexical choice.

Extract 47 portrays a different team partnership in a situation when two teachers faced disagreement and lack of satisfaction. When Mary and James planned a lesson, they discussed the arrangements for some activities for Christmas in class.

**Extract 47**

(47)  36 N: we can have a Christmas presentation
     37 K: or Christmas decoration
     38 N: maybe I have a Christmas presentation
     39 we can do if you want
     40 K: okay
     41 N: so we can teach about Christmas with worksheets ...
     42 maybe cultural things
     43 I have a PPT (.) I can show you
     44 K: okay
     45 N: if you want … I mean whatever you wanna do

     53 K: yes … what time do you go to bed?
     54 (pointing at the title of the chapter)
     55 did you make something for it?
     56 N: a kind of… I still find a song
     57 K: I can print some words such as what’s (.) water (.) old (.) etc
     58 I can paste them on the blackboard like flashcards
     59 a kind of… (showing a gesture of hammering))
     60 N: ah::: we can do a hammer game ((following a gesture of hammering))
While Mary and James were talking about an overall theme in the next class, they agreed to use visual materials (line 36-44). When they talked about the activity that each one wanted to conduct, Mary and James showed an obvious contrast in their preparation. That is, James did not remember the name of the song which he wanted to use in the class, which revealed his lack preparation of his allocated part (line 56) and Mary helped find the song together later. Meanwhile, Mary introduced a hammer game to him, explaining how to play it, which materials were needed, and what she prepared for it (line 57-64).

(47) 066 N: I think there might be a shopping song that I may have found
② 067 K: shopping song? what kind...
068 N: did you have a song? or...
069 K: you mean... busy Beaver song?
070 N: yeah (. ) yeah.... I guess... yes... it’s something like what time...
071 K: what time...
072 N: it might not be a Busy Beaver song (. ) I think
073 K: shopping song?... wait wait wait
074 first review ( (writing down the order of instruction on the post-its))
075 okay (. ) I will just find it ( (standing up and approaching her computer))
076 shopping song?
077 ((N looks at K.))
079 ((K plays a song through the Internet.))
080 K: we have already had a shopping song.
081 N: oh (. ) okay
082 ((K plays a song through the Internet.))
083 N: no (. ) it’s not that one (. ) I think probably another one
084 ((standing up and approaching his laptop computer))
085 K: another one?
086 N: that is not a shopping song that I know ( (searching for a song on the YouTube website))
087 ((K and N search a song from each computer separately.))
088 perfect! once were warriors ( (playing a song))
089 N: how about this? what’s the time Mr. Wolf?
090 091 K: Mr. Wolf? oh (. ) umm...
After Mary introduced her activity, James suggested using a song called the ‘shopping song’. Mary helped him to recall the song which he wanted to use (line 67-73) and searched for the song on the Internet (line 76-78). As Mary and James thought of each different song, there was miscommunication between them due to misunderstanding (line 80-86). While each teacher was searching for a song respectively (line 88), James found the song and played it for Mary (line 89). James felt the lyrics of the song were quite relevant to the key expression of the lesson (line 90). However, Mary seemed to be unhappy with James’ choice (line 91), judging that it was inappropriate for the students, so she kept playing several different songs to check the relevance and the level of difficulty of the words. Despite slight disagreement (line 92-93), when Mary seemed to lead him to follow her decision and proposed another song, James gave in to her suggestion. Eventually, they agreed to use a totally new song in the next class. From the extract above, I found two characteristics in their partnership. Even though they did lesson planning together, Mary expressed her opinions strongly as a key decision maker and James got slightly defensive in presenting his ideas, mentioning ‘(.) if you want’ (line 39) or ‘(.) if you want … I mean whatever you wanna do’ (line 45). The limited data present that how the two teachers positioned themselves differently and they
had a slightly different power relationship to terminate disagreement. In addition, it was apparent that Mary felt discontented with James’ preparation, as mentioned in section 5.2.3. Even though Mary and James had a good relationship as friends outside of the school, Mary was dissatisfied with his lack of preparation as a team partner.

In this section, I have described how each teacher was mentioned in class by the partner through partnership talk and interactions during and after class. How to refer to a partner teacher and how to communicate with each other mirror the multifaceted relationship related to their power, position, role and responsibility in their contexts.

6.7 Conclusion

This chapter has analysed and discussed the nature of interactional relationships between the team teachers in each context. Their interactional relationships can be characterized as the three main features: firstly, the team teachers in each case had quite different levels of collaborative and collegial relationship. This was identified by the distinctive patterns of their classroom interaction: how to provide their collaborative presentation (Section 6.1), how to organise different skills and content (Section 6.2), how to use L1 and L2 (Section 6.3), how to support the team partner (Section 6.4), how to make a decision or intervene with each other (Section 6.5), and how to communicate with each other (Section 6.6). While Case One had the most collaborative relationship, Case Four had little collaboration in the classroom. Secondly, the interactional styles (e.g. language choices, turn-taking, and intervention) reflected their power relationship and inequality related to position,
role and responsibility. In particular, it was clear for the two teachers to have such a power relationship when there was a gap in professional capabilities between them (Case One, Two and Three). Thirdly, as discussed in Section 6.2, 6.3, and 6.4, each team had a different degree of complementary relationship with a range from independence to interdependence between the team teachers. Case One had more interdependent interaction with each other than the other cases whereas the team teachers in Case Four were indifferent and independent from each other.
Chapter Seven

Factors underlying team teachers’ interactional relationship

In the previous chapter, I have presented the analysis of interactional relationships according to six themes and focused particularly on the teachers’ classroom interactions. This process of cross-case analysis allowed me to present similar, differentiated, and deviant features among the four cases but also to elucidate separate characteristics between the four KETs and the NETs in their contexts respectively.

Drawing on their team teaching experience and implementation (presented in Chapter Five) and the distinctive features of their interactional relationships (presented in Chapter Six), this chapter aims to present the key factors that underlie the team teachers’ interactional relationship. I will present these factors which emerged from the analytical process and category generation (see Section 4.4.2). More specifically, the factors are classified into three categories: professional, pedagogic and interpersonal aspects. Each category is divided into three specific elements as presented in Table 7.1: the professional factors are related to individual teachers’ backgrounds (e.g. professional motivation, professional readiness and language proficiency as an English teacher as well as a team teacher), the pedagogic factors are primarily concerned with team teaching practice in the classroom (e.g. perspectives on English language teaching, role sharing and differentiated skills, and team strategy), the interpersonal factors are associated with relational aspects between the two teachers (e.g. personality, problem/conflict solving, power and balance in partnership). In order to illuminate these factors, I will draw on interview data, field notes and photos.
7.1 Professional factors

As described in Chapter Five, each teacher had different educational, cultural, and professional backgrounds. My account confirms that one of the critical factors affecting their interactional relationship was the professional factors associated with professional motivation, professional readiness, and language proficiency. To be more concrete, each teacher had a different level of (un)willingness and (de)motivation in respect to taking charge of an English subject or to co-working with a team teacher. In addition, the team teachers were affected by their self-confidence and readiness, which they had developed through previous (team) teaching experiences and different educational and professional backgrounds they had gained. Moreover, their language proficiency (English as a target language and Korean as an L1) as an English team teacher was a key element among various professional factors.
7.1.1 Professional motivation

According to Ushioda (2008:1), ‘motivation is what moves a person to make certain choices, to engage in action, and to persist in action’. The professional motivation of English team teachers in this section is associated with their choices and engagement in team teaching. As described in Chapter Five, all the teachers had different willingness and motivation to teach English with their team teachers. First of all, the NETs were motivated by diverse reasons for coming to Korea. For example, while Matthew and Kevin were initially motivated by a keen interest in different cultures, particularly Asian cultures, Robert intended to travel to Asian countries and make money for his future career and James, due to his father’s work in Korea, came along with his family without any specific plans or purposes. However, they shared a common desire (or at least a choice) to work as an English teacher and applied for an English teaching position in schools. After working in senior high schools for a year, James and Robert transferred to primary schools because they wanted to have less stressful working conditions with more relaxed environment and flexible teaching schedules. In particular, Kevin who had over four years of teaching experience in Korean primary schools, preferred working in Korean primary schools, saying ‘(.) if I stay (.) I will be working in primary school because the students are more optimistic and positive without learning stress’. Regardless of their motivations, the NETs actively tried to get a teaching job and were satisfied with their work in Korean primary schools. Except for Robert (Case Four), the other NETs (Matthew, Kevin, and James) renewed a contract for working in the same schools after participating in my research and still teach primary school students English. In addition, they were willing to co-work with KETs for different
reasons (e.g. classroom management, L1 (Korean) support, assisting low-level students). However, as school regulation and the scheme stipulate that all NETs should co-work with KETs in the classroom, they had to co-work with their Korean partners regardless of their willingness or motivation.

Meanwhile, the KETs varied in the degree to which they were willing to engage actively in team teaching with NETs because, in some cases, it was an imposition. Hargreaves (1991: 53) highlights voluntary work relations, arguing that collaborative relationships start from ‘their perceived value among teachers that derives from experience, inclination, or noncoercive persuasion that working together is both enjoyable and productive’. Meanwhile, Goetz (2000) points out that the inception of team teaching imposed by administration tends to be less successful. As Korean primary teachers could decide to be in charge of either a homeroom teacher or be an English subject teacher19 before a new academic year, their decisions to teach English largely affected their team teaching and interactional relationships with their partners. In particular, the KETs had markedly different reasons and motivations for taking charge of responsibility for teaching English.

7.1.1.1 Willingness and part willingness

Among the KETs, for instance, Jessica was the most willing and enthusiastic teacher who took charge of an English subject. She expressed her strong willingness to teach English as follows:

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19 See p. 24
it’s my self-satisfaction (. ) I feel very satisfied and pleased with an exciting class with children who really enjoy a lesson and like me ... whenever I have such a great rewarding experience through their productive progress in learning, I cannot help taking charge of an English subject

(INT: K1, 15/10/2010)

In addition, as Jessica had a keen interest in English language teaching and development of her career as an English subject teacher, she wanted to keep teaching English with a NET in the future. Ushioda (2008: 21) states that intrinsic motivation includes ‘doing something as an end in itself, for its own self-sustaining pleasurable rewards of enjoyment, interest, challenge, or skill and knowledge development’. In this sense, Jessica was highly intrinsically motivated to engage in teaching English. Moreover, she obviously preferred team teaching with a NET to her solo teaching, saying ‘(. ) actually I am more satisfied with team teaching classes than my solo teaching classes (. ) I feel we can create a synergy effect while working together’. Jessica considered that team teaching was a great advantage for her to continue to improve her English, in particular, classroom English as well as daily English conversation, mentioning ‘(. ) having a native English speaking teacher next to me is really beneficial ... it’s a kind of having a private English tutor’.

Mary was also willing to take charge of an English subject but she had slightly different reasons: first of all, she was motivated by the opportunity to learn English from a NET, stating ‘(. ) team teaching is good for teachers as well as students (. ) I can be exposed to English from nine to five every day’. Secondly, when there was no voluntary teacher who was willing to teach English in her school, the vice-principal recommended Mary to take charge of an English subject as he found that she was able to fluently communicate with a NET in English. Thirdly, she had obligation to teach English, which was a vital factor in her decision as follows:
it just happened to me when I felt that I needed to teach English when I came back to school, completing a training course in Canada ... according to the policy in the POE (Provincial Office of Education), I should teach English for three years in schools because I got a training programme in Canada through the sponsorship of the POE (.) so it was a good timing for me.

(INT: K2, 10/09/2010)

Even though both Jessica and Mary were willing to take charge of an English subject, Jessica was more self-motivated (e.g. self-satisfaction, professional development) than Mary whereas Mary was fundamentally influenced by the situational conditions (e.g. the vice-principal’s request, obligation for sponsorship).

7.1.1.2 Imposition and semi-imposition

In contrast to Jessica and Mary above, Rona and Kate were reluctant to teach English and to co-work with a NET in their schools. Rona had no choice but to take charge of an English subject because she was allocated to the school urgently in order to replace the former KET’s maternity leave. As presented in Section 5.3.1 (p. 154), Rona was essentially forced to take charge of an English subject and faced challenging situations, for example, the principal and senior teachers’ demands and expectations of her and the lack of confidence to communicate with her team teacher in English. As she had never expected that she would teach English in her first year, Rona was stressed and even frightened to teach English and to co-work with a NET. Consequently, she struggled to cope with the demands of teaching English and managing administrative work for her team teacher at the stage of ‘survival’ (Maynard & Furlong 1995: 12 cited in Farrell 2008: 3) which novice teachers usually go through in their first year. She was depressed at this situation, expressing her hardship as follows:
I am a newcomer. I need time to get accustomed to the environments. I need to learn the systems operating in the school. however I am swamped with work every day. what’s worse, I don’t know even what team teaching is but I have to teach English with Kevin and provide him with administrative support. it is a tremendously huge burden on me.

(INT: K3, 29/10/2010)

When I interviewed Rona at first, she had clearly lost confidence and felt puzzled about herself as a teacher. This is evident in the following comment:

I often feel confused at my identity as a teacher. when I play a role in simply supporting Kevin like a substitute teacher. I am a real teacher? ... I have never wanted to be a teacher to assist another teacher (Kevin) in this way such as giving points to students.

(INT: K3, 29/10/2010)

Even though she became more comfortable to reflect on her tough experience after the semester, she stated that ‘it was really really challenging experience ... I would like to be a homeroom teacher in this new academic year’. Rona seemed more demotivated than the other KETs in many ways.

Rather like Rona, Kate was neither interested nor motivated in teaching English. However, although she was not eager to take charge of an English subject, Kate was not stressed or worried about teaching English but accepted the situation she confronted. Kate gave the reason for the decision that she had made as follows:

at the beginning of this year there was no one to take charge of an English subject and ... even most of the younger teachers were reluctant to be in charge of teaching English ... without any pressure from others. I thought that I had better take on this subject because this is my last year here.

(INT: K4, 14/10/2010)

As Kate was a reluctant volunteer to take charge of an English subject, she seldom engaged in co-working with her team teacher, mentioning ‘I did not mind what subject would be allocated to me ... Robert is an experienced teacher so I do not
feel I need to support him’. As presented above, even though both Rona and Kate were not willing to teach English, they were externally imposed to take charge of an English subject, which was more affected by contextual situations given to them rather than their own interest or intrinsic motivation. Kate did not feel it difficult to co-work with a NET because she had had English teaching experience for two years before. Meanwhile, as a novice teacher, Rona had the most challenging experience among the KETs. She had to manage two complex jobs ‘teaching effectively and learning to teach’ (Wildman et al. 1989: 471 cited in Farrell 2012: 438), which made her more stressed and demotivated. In addition, the main reason for the hardship which Rona went through was largely related to professional readiness as an English teacher, which will be discussed in the next section. Two of the KETs, Jessica and Mary who took charge of an English subject voluntarily, tended to actively and enthusiastically engage in team teaching with their partners, whereas Rona and Kate seemed reluctant or indifferent to co-working with team teachers. As Hargreaves (1994) states, each teacher’s voluntary partnership is a pre-requisite for collaborative relationship between teachers. According to Igawa (2009: 206), ‘two team teachers’ own motivation, along with the motivation of his/her partner, is essential to make team teaching better’; the (un)willingness and (de)motivation which the four pairs of team teachers had, in particular the KETs, influenced the overall interactional relationships in their team teaching. In addition, their professional (de)motivation was interrelated with their different professional readiness as an English team teacher, which will be discussed in the following section.
7.1.2 Professional readiness

While professional motivation presented above is the trigger for teachers’ choices and engagement in teaching English and co-working with the team teachers in the given contexts, professional readiness is related to their practical preparation and qualification for an English teacher as well as a team teacher. Pasternak and Bailey (2004) emphasise professional preparation, that is, teachers must be professionally trained and prepared for teaching of the target language. As introduced in Table 5.1 (pp. 119-120), the teachers had different personal backgrounds in terms of age, gender, nationality, education, qualification, teaching and cultural experience. In particular, their readiness for an English team teacher was closely associated with the following aspects: previous (team) teaching experience and educational and professional backgrounds, which were influential in developing or hindering interactional relationship between team teachers.

7.1.2.1 Previous (team) teaching experience

First of all, the KETs and the NETs, with the exception of Matthew (Case One), had a wide range of teaching experiences from six months to over fifteen years and from one to over seven years, respectively. In addition, they had not only team teaching but also English language teaching experiences in different contexts in Korea (e.g. primary schools, a private language institute, and senior high schools). It goes without saying that their previous teaching experiences affected their interactional relationship in their contexts. As described in Chapter Six, more experienced team teachers tended to be active and confident, guiding and directing their less skilful partners with respect to lesson planning, instruction, material design, classroom
management, and so on. For example, the KETs, Jessica and Mary, led their NETs, Matthew and James. Meanwhile, the NETs, Kevin and Robert, more independently dominated and controlled a lesson than their KETs, Rona and Kate, respectively.

In addition, their previous team teaching experiences influenced the interactional relationship with current team partners in different ways. For instance, Jessica mentioned that she could have a trainer’s mind after co-working with a former partner who had been extremely reliant on her. As an outcome of her previous experience, Jessica, a veteran teacher, had a strong sense of responsibility to guide her partner, Matthew, with no teaching experience, stating ‘(.) this year I decided to support my partner in a different way (. ) encouraging Matthew to develop his own ideas and capability’. Even though Matthew did not have any teaching experience or educational background, he was gradually able to organise team teaching actively and independently through learning from Jessica. Their relationship was like ‘mentor and apprentice’ (Richards & Farrell 2005: 163).

After she had experienced serious conflicts with a former partner (as presented in Section 5.2.1, pp. 140-141), Mary realised the importance of communication in terms of communicating her thinking and intention to her partner without hurting the partner’s emotion or creating misunderstanding. Even though she was not often satisfied with James’ teaching performance, Mary tried to pay more attention to the relationship with him. She had a good personal relationship with James and they sustained a good friendship with each other outside the classroom.

Meanwhile, both Kevin and Robert preferred the classes to be mainly led by themselves, with intermittent support from the KETs, because they had had
challenging experiences with their former team partners. For example, Kevin reflected on his former KETs and the primary school where he had worked, saying ‘(.) a couple of my team teachers at my old school were not great (. ) they barely did anything ... they even didn’t want to teach English’. Through his previous team teaching experience, Kevin, with four and half years of teaching experience in Korean primary schools, did not actively engage in leading or directing Rona, a novice teacher, to co-instruct, but mainly dominated classes alone. Although Kevin provided Rona with teaching materials or guidance in teaching content, he felt more comfortable and natural to manage a class by himself, mentioning ‘(. ) I definitely take a lot of control just because I’ve been doing this longer’. During most of their lessons, they tended to have a ‘leader and participant’ relationship (Richards & Farrell 2005: 162).

Robert also had had to manage almost everything by himself because his former partner had been like a ‘bystander’ (Aline & Hosoda 2006: 9) who had refrained from participating in the main sequence of classroom interaction between Robert and the students. In addition, Robert seemed not to expect that he would team instruct with his Korean team teacher, stating ‘(. ) some teachers try to do everything like fifty-fifty but that doesn’t work well for me’. Interestingly, Robert felt comfortable with Kate, who was apathetic towards him and rarely engaged in or intervened in lessons, behaving instead like a bystander. Furthermore, Kate was not interested in building or developing a relationship with Robert and vice versa. They hardly interacted with each other except for simply saying ‘Hi’ and ‘Good morning’, even outside the classroom.
7.1.2.2 Educational and professional background

Educational and professional background was an important element affecting their professional readiness. Except Jessica and Kevin, the other teachers in this study did not have any educational background related to English language teaching or English education. However, the KETs majored in general education for primary students and had received pre-service training and a variety of in-service training programmes according to their interest. All primary school teachers in Korea are required to receive a minimum of 120 hours in-service teacher training and are encouraged to continue their professional education by the MEST (Sim 2011). In particular, Jessica and Mary attended in-service training programmes continuously to improve their English teaching skills after work or during a vacation. In addition, they had opportunities to participate in training programmes abroad (e.g. USA and Canada) to develop their careers as an English teacher. Research on teacher motivation reports that teachers’ motivation and their engagement, commitment and persistence in teaching are evidently associated with their inclination to become involved in professional development (Richardson & Watt 2006; Watt & Richardson 2007). In that sense, Jessica and Mary had strong motivation to teach English and to develop their own professional skills as an English teacher. In addition, their less skilful team partners, Matthew and James, were supported by them in many ways as described in Section 6.2. Meanwhile, Rona and Kate seemed not to be so interested in English education in primary school. Rona was not ready to consider in which aspect she would like to develop her career, mentioning ‘(.) I don’t have a clear idea ... I’d like to explore and learn diverse areas’. When I met her during a vacation, she was participating in several in-service training programmes
such as origami, the paper craft course, at best, marginally relevant to English education. As mentioned in her background in Section 5.4.1, Kate was doing a Master’s degree in Counselling Psychology. She was more interested in psychology and counselling than English education as a primary school teacher, saying ‘(.) the longer I teach my students (. ) the more challenges I face (. ) I need to get to understand them’.

In this study, three of the NETs, with the exception of Kevin, did not have any educational background for teaching primary school students. According to Kim (2010), the majority of NETs (82.8%) working in Korean primary schools did not have any teaching experience or educational background in primary education. In addition, some Korean researchers criticise such a problematic issue caused by unqualified NETs (Ahn et al. 1998; Choi 2001; Chung et al. 1999; Park 2006a, 2006b). The NETs (Matthew, James and Robert) seemed to be less qualified as English teachers in terms of their educational or professional background. After coming to Korea, the NETs attended a 10 day main onsite orientation (p. 21) or in-service training provided by NIIED\textsuperscript{20} and the offices of education in Korea. However, many Korean researchers point out that such programmes are not enough to help inexperienced or less qualified NETs (Kim 2007; Kim & Ko 2008; Min 2006; Min & Ha 2006; Park 2008). In fact, Matthew mentioned that he could learn more from Jessica through their team teaching experience than the training programme (even though it had been helpful in getting some basic knowledge and information). In addition, Kevin stated that in-service training programmes organised by the Provincial Office of Education provided him with a good opportunity to meet other

\textsuperscript{20} NIIED (National Institute for International Education Development) organises an orientation programme for new native English speaking teachers (p.16).
teachers, adding that ‘(.) we do exchange some ideas but mostly we exchange materials because materials are time consuming’. However, he pointed out that most of the training programmes were more suitable for new and inexperienced NETs. In addition, Kevin and Robert commonly mentioned that a number of unqualified NETs tended to teach English to students without serious consideration. Kevin and Robert were more independent than Matthew and James, less relying on support from their KETs. They tended to get new ideas and updated materials through the websites which were shared and posted by other NETs working in Korea. Kevin stated that ‘(.) even if you do have an educational background in primary school (.) it won’t prepare you ... it took a couple of years for me in getting any good’. They individually collected and updated materials as well as spent their time developing activities after lessons. It is clear from this study that the more experienced teachers who were professionally prepared to teach English tended to play a leading and supportive role for their less capable partners or an independent role separately.

7.1.2.3 Language proficiency: English and Korean

Pasternak and Bailey (2004) argue that teachers’ language proficiency is one of elements of professionalism. My study also suggests that language proficiency was a critical aspect in terms of professional readiness. English is both the language being taught by the team teachers and is also the medium of communication between them. Two pairs of the team teachers (Jessica and Matthew, Mary and James) usually instructed every lesson and communicated with each other in English inside and outside the classroom. However, Rona and Kate were rarely
observed to speak in English during a class except a few situations during a lesson (see Section 6.2) and they did not often interact with their partners outside the classroom. In particular, Rona had more difficulties in relation to English proficiency than the other KETs because she had to teach English, learn how to teach English and interact with Kevin. Mann and Tang (2012) argue that non-native novice teachers of English face additional challenges in terms of their linguistic competence. As a novice teacher, Rona was afraid to communicate with Kevin in English mainly due to her low level of self-confidence caused by the lack of English proficiency. Whenever she had to deliver notices or information to Kevin, Rona was stressed by her limited fluency in English, mentioning ‘(.) whenever Kevin asks me to help his matters (. ) I become nervous and need to look up unfamiliar words in a dictionary’. Moreover, Rona even felt uncomfortable with a situation when Kevin came to chat with her after class. In a similar vein, several studies show some difficulties in their team teaching relationships that non-native English speaking teachers face due to low levels of English proficiency: Sturman (1992) and Crooks (2001) found that Japanese English teachers’ language abilities influenced the relationship with native English speaking teachers in the aspect of communication. Tsai (2007) also reported challenging experiences and miscommunication problems which a Taiwanese teacher with a low level of English proficiency went through while team teaching with the partner. Rona was negatively affected by her English competence and seemed to struggle to establish a close relationship with Kevin. Kevin understood some challenges that KETs faced:
a few Korean teachers enjoy teaching English but many of them really hate it (.) and I understand why it’s a difficult thing to teach a language you’re not a hundred percent comfortable with (.) it’s a difficult thing to do (INT: N3, 12/11/2010)

Through his working experience with Korean primary school teachers, Kevin recognised that some Korean teachers were not willing to take charge of an English subject due to lack of English capability. However, Kevin emphasised the necessity of English competence as an English teacher as follows:

some of our advanced students can speak much much better (.) now I know a couple of them actually lived in other countries and that is fine ... you must be the best speaker in the classroom (.) your English teacher should be able to speak better than almost every student in the entire school (INT: N3, 12/11/2010)

Kevin had had challenging experiences in his first school where some of his former KETs had been deficient in their English and this had caused serious problems in teaching students and communicating with him.

Although Jessica and Mary could communicate with their partners in English fluently, they felt that their English proficiency was not enough to cover whatever they wanted to express without restriction. Moreover, they instructed a lesson in English by using code-switching when necessary (see Section 6.3), but they still wanted to improve English more fluently in speaking as well as in writing. Interestingly, the NETs stated that they did not have any language barrier when they communicated with their KETs in English. However, all of the KETs were not fully satisfied with, nor self-confident in, their English proficiency as an English teacher. Nemtchinova et al. (2010) argue that NNETs’ perceived language proficiency has an impact on their professional self-esteem and confidence.

As for Korean, Kevin was the only NET that could speak in Korean when he explained grammatical aspects or vocabulary and disciplined students in a
Kevin stated the reasons for his speaking Korean during a lesson as follows:

even though you don’t have to speak with the students in Korean in the classroom (. ) you have to learn some Korean (. ) if they see that you understand the problem ... you know what they’re trying to do (. ) and they see what you’re trying to do (. ) what they have to do and they appreciate that ... and they behave better if you could understand some of what they say (. ) it’s helpful (. ) if they ask you simple questions (. ) and you do understand what they’re saying (. ) the low level students want them to be comfortable with you ... and they are very scared to ask any questions in English (. ) I’d better have them ask me questions in Korean and I will answer in English

(INT: N3, 12/11/2010)

Kevin used simple Korean to enhance the students’ understanding, to handle classroom management, and to encourage the lower level students in class (see Extract 19). In particular, when some students came to chat with him before or after class, Kevin often responded to them in simple Korean (e.g. ahni ‘No’, bbalribbalri ‘hurry up’, molrayo ‘I don’t know’). The students looked happy and excited with his Korean responses. According to Carless (2002; 2006a), the majority of NETs have difficulties in establishing good rapport with students and classroom management due to the language barrier in their local contexts. In this light, Kevin had a closer relationship with students, (interacting with them in Korean as well as in English) than the other NETs in this study. James spoke a couple of simple commands in Korean whereas Matthew and Robert did not speak in Korean at all inside and outside the classroom. Consequently, with the exception of Kevin, three of the NETs varied in the degree to which they were reliant on the language support (L1) and classroom management provided by their KETs. That is, they felt that their Korean team partners’ existence itself was quite supportive to them during a class, whereas Kevin seemed more independent and needed limited help from Rona.
In this section, I have discussed the following professional factors: professional motivation, professional readiness and language proficiency. Each teacher had different motivation to teach English and co-work with a partner, which was entangled in their professional readiness as an English team teacher. More self-motivated and more experienced teachers tended to actively engage in team teaching, leading or supporting their less experienced partners. In addition, they were interested in developing their own career as an English teacher. Their language proficiency was an important element affecting not only their confidence as an English teacher but also their relationship with their teaching partners.

7.2 Pedagogic factors

Pedagogical factors are concerned with how each pair of teachers understood, applied, and developed team teaching suitable for their situation. In this section, I will focus on the pedagogical approach to team teaching practice implemented by the team teachers in the classroom: their perspectives and attitudes towards teaching English in their contexts, their role sharing based on each teacher’s differentiated skills and responsibility, and their own team strategy developed by themselves.

7.2.1 Perspectives on teaching English

One teacher’s attitude, perspective, and value towards English team teaching can affect the other team partner’s and vice versa. In this aspect, Jang et al. (2010a: 254) highlight ‘a sharing relationship based on similar values’ and argue that ‘team
teachers need to discuss their pedagogical philosophies’. As each team teaching case had diverse professional features as described in Section 7.1, they had different viewpoints on and assumptions about teaching English, which was reflected in their commitment to teaching and the underlying pedagogical principles evident in their team teaching. Not surprisingly, the two novice teachers, Matthew and Rona, and the less skilful teacher, James, were largely influenced by their more experienced team partners, Jessica, Kevin and Mary. That is, professionally inexperienced teachers tended to follow their more capable teaching partners’ ideas and suggestions. In particular, Jessica, Mary and Kevin, who had been accustomed to Korean primary school contexts, had their own stronger opinions on teaching English than the other teachers in this study. For example, Jessica argued the critical points which she focused on in her English language teaching as follows:

> when it comes to English education in a primary school (.) an English class should be exciting and interesting (.) and it should motivate and stimulate students and provide them with lots of input (.) and it should have more chances of speaking than that of private institutes

(INT: K1, 15/10/2010)

In addition, she emphasised the differentiation of public education from private sectors, saying that ‘(.) many children don’t want to go to Hakwon (private institute) but they like an English class in school. We should take advantage of this point’. Jessica’s main concern was to create an interesting English class which could motivate her students to learn English and could strengthen their learning outcomes. Such interest and concern were reflected in their classes. For example, Jessica and Matthew were observed doing the following: 1) conducting a variety of tasks including worksheets for individual or group work, which led to active and
dynamic classes; 2) enhancing speaking parts by using PPTs, video clips, or games; 3) double checking the students’ productive processes through assignment and review. Even though Matthew did not give his opinions about English teaching, he implicitly agreed with Jessica, stating that ‘(.) she is good for guiding me and maintaining the quality of the class’.

In the light of highlighting learners’ motivation, Mary had similar opinions to those of Jessica given above and mentioned her principle of ‘fun English’ being compatible with primary school students:

although the students have mixed levels of their English ability, all of them have a basic curiosity about English itself (.) instead of forcing them to learn it (.) I’d like to encourage them to explore and experience English and a native English teacher without pressure, for fun (.) I always think about how all the students get along with one another in class regardless of their English levels

(INT: K2, 05/11/2010)

As she did not want her students to be stressed and demotivated by discouraging or embarrassing experiences in her class, she was seen to pay more attention to the students’ concerns. When she selected the students in order to participate in activities such as a role-play or to give answers to a class, Mary tried to encourage all the students to get involved in an activity, considering their different English proficiency levels. James also had parallel ideas like Mary, which he cared about in class: one was to ‘help the students learn English and keep a positive atmosphere’; the other was to ‘have fun’. Thus, their class was more like a play rather than a typical class. For instance, Mary and James reviewed what the students learned with a ‘Bingo’ game instead of a quiz or a test. In addition, Mary did not give any
assignment to the students, saying that ‘(..) the students still have a lot of homework assigned by their homeroom teachers so I want to reduce their work’.

As a NET, Kevin had a slightly different focus on English language teaching in school:

some personal philosophy I have in the classroom is more like teaching things that are useful (..) I’d like to keep teaching them (students) things that they might use in everyday life … I move beyond that material and get them into something that is more practically useful for them (..) something they might actually end up saying someday

(INT: N3, 12/11/2010)

Kevin argued that useful English should be taught to primary school students, instead of ‘getting them prepared for their test’ or only ‘focusing on correct English such as grammar and sentence structure’. Thus, Kevin led the students to continue to speak key sentences repeatedly during a lesson. After each lesson, Kevin and Rona checked every student’s ability to speak, at least the key sentences through one to one interactions with the teacher. Like Matthew, Rona did not clearly offer her opinions on English language teaching to me but she wanted the mixed level students to follow Kevin’s instruction without trouble. She mentioned that ‘(..) in my solo teaching classes (..) I usually teach them the first session of each lesson in Korean to support low level students and to warm up the following team teaching classes mainly led by Kevin’.

As Kate also had her solo teaching classes, she instructed separate sessions in Korean with similar reasons as mentioned above by Rona. In addition, as stated in Section 5.4.1 (p. 166), Kate expressed her strong views that the students should be exposed to English spoken by a NET as much as possible during team teaching classes. That was the main reason for her role as a ‘bystander’ (Aline & Hosoda
2006: 9) in their team teaching classes. Robert outlined his thinking about his classes as follows:

every lesson is based on a textbook, based on the chapter and I think of an activity (.) but I barely have the kids open the textbook … she teaches more of the book, more like grammar in Korean (.) I’d like to make a class more interesting for students and myself (.) I want to make everyone happy but it makes classes difficult (.) so the only way I can keep the balance is to stay in the middle

(INT: N4, 27/10/2010)

The comments above show two aspects which he considered in his class: one was how to make an interesting lesson and the other was how to balance a class for the students with different levels in the middle of the ability range. During a lesson, Robert always focused on group activities and led individual students to participate in an activity by interacting with the other members in their groups. In terms of viewpoints on teaching English, Kate and Robert seemed discrete and independent to each other due to a differing focus and a separate teaching style in team teaching. Shannon and Meath-Lang (1992: 126) underline ‘compatibility in basic values and philosophy’ and state that beliefs about the learner and pedagogical principles which team teachers share are necessary to a productive partnership. The inexperienced teachers, Matthew, James and Rona, hardly had any inconsistency of ideas regarding teaching English with their partners even though their interactional relationship varied in the degree of collaboration in their teaching contexts. In addition, diverse principles and perspectives on teaching English which each pair of team teachers had affected how the team teachers shared roles and responsibilities.
7.2.2 Role sharing and differentiated skills

According to many researchers (Carless & Walker 2006; Gorsuch 2001; Hiramatsu 2005; Mahoney 2004), the discrepancy or uncertainty in roles which team teachers expect and share is one of the challenging issues which they experience in team teaching. Friend et al. (2010) also argue that unbalanced roles and responsibilities could hinder collaboration between team teachers and impede the practice of team teaching. Considering real contextual conditions in this study, however, it would be difficult for two teachers to divide tasks and responsibilities equally and share exactly the same roles as each teacher had different professional features (as mentioned in Section 7.1). In this vein, Walther-Thomas (1997) emphasises that team teachers need not necessarily perform exactly the same roles and responsibilities. Moreover, as there is no clear guideline on their roles and responsibilities for collaboration, this matter would be decided by and be dependent on two teachers. As Jang et al. (2010a) point out, therefore, both teachers need to be flexible and willing to accept, clarify, and adopt particular roles and responsibilities in relation to their personal preference and specialty. Each pair of team teachers in this study showed diverse features of role sharing, which was closely associated with their interactional relationship.

For example, Jessica and Matthew were often seen to share roles all through a lesson in terms of instruction (see Picture 7.1 below). Whenever some parts of the lessons were mediated by video clips, CDs and computer programmes, the two teachers stayed in separate positions for effective instruction. While Matthew was operating a computer (photo 1), Jessica stood next to a TV screen or a blackboard to encourage the students to pay attention to a lesson or help
promote their interest in the content shown on the TV screen by touching or writing clue words on it (photo 2).

Moreover, they tried to share even simple work, such as selecting a group for an activity (photo 3) and announcing the winning group after an activity (photo 4). Their role sharing showed a consultative attitude to each other with regard to their strengths and weaknesses: Matthew was good at using IT skills, including a computer, and preferred computer mediated teaching, mentioning ‘(..) the best thing that I can do is to build these resources and take advantage of computer technology as much as I can’. Jessica, who had difficulty in operating computer programmes, had a lot of IT support from Matthew as follows:

**Picture 7.1 Team Instruction by Case One**

1. Computer operation by Matthew
2. Encouraging students by Jessica
3. Selecting a group
4. Announcing the winning group
yes we are not computer-generation ... I was exhausted and short of IT skills compared to the teachers younger than I (.) at that time, this native speaker (.) this man has come here with great hands of IT (.) which I am not good at ...

... Flash Power Point Excel YouTube with copy and paste (.) everything ... he is a paradise of computer technology for me

(INT: K1, 15/10/2010)

Matthew was also supported by Jessica’s active involvement in classroom management and discipline, which he regarded as his most challenging issue. In addition, Picture 7.2 shows how they shared the same roles together, interacting with their students. Both Jessica and Matthew stayed at their desks for the individual student feedback, carrying out corrections of their worksheets or notebooks (photo 5). When the tasks were completed, the students came to the two teachers in order to present their work and collect a sticker as a reward and Jessica and Matthew distributed different stickers to them according to their performance (photo 6).

Jessica tried to encourage Matthew to engage in some roles which she had usually dominated in her solo teaching, saying that ‘(.) a Korean teacher is more responsible for sharing roles with a native English speaking partner (.) it really depends on Korean teacher’s ability to make a partner engage in some roles’. Through making
correction or giving a reward to students together, Jessica and Mathew had the advantages of their role sharing: Jessica shared one of her main roles with Matthew, which many KETs tend to handle alone, getting his writing support and comments, which she regarded as a challenge (as mentioned in 7.1.3). Matthew seemed to have a strong sense of responsibility and identity as a teacher by interacting with the individual students.

As described in Section 6.1, Mary and James shared their roles, depending on the division of activities; they conducted more separate and individual instruction, focusing on their own assigned parts. For example, Mary and James instructed each activity separately (e.g. a guessing game and a rainbow game) as seen in Picture 7.3.

**Extract 48**

Mary explained a ‘Guessing’ game to the class in Korean, holding a golden coloured box (photo 7). After that, she said to the students, ‘Is there any volunteer?’ Several students raised their hands, saying ‘me, me, me’. While Mary was introducing this activity to the class and selecting a voluntary student, James stood next to her, staring at Mary and the class. Mary pointed out one of the students (Dong-ho) and Dong-ho came to the front. Mary showed Dong-ho an item in the box (photo 8) and Dong-ho looked at the class and described the item in English. Some students raised hands and the class became noisy. Dong-ho pointed out one student and the student answered ‘a ruler’. As soon as Dong-ho said ‘No’, several students raised hands and one of them answered ‘a crayon’. After these procedures were repeated four times because of wrong answers, one student said a correct answer. James did not say any single word and stood beside Mary and Dong-ho. He held a microphone with his left hand during the process of this activity.

After a guessing game, James explained a ‘Rainbow’ game, demonstrating an example with word cards on the rainbow coloured chart over the white board. He chose a word ‘large’ and asked how to make a comparative form to the students. When James chose a word ‘large’, Mary picked up the word card and displayed it in the light green section (photo 9). Several students answered ‘r, r, r’ and James led the students to repeat ‘larger’ chorally. Mary picked up a word card ‘r’ and displayed it next to a word ‘large’. When James turned to Mary and said something, Mary picked up a word card, showing it to him and placed on the light green section.
When James asked the class to volunteer for making a comparative form, several students raised their hands and Mary selected one. The voluntary student came to the rainbow chart and picked up word cards. While the student was displaying word cards, Mary helped him to complete a comparative form, standing beside him and James looked at him (photo 10).

(FN 9: Case 2, 14/09/10)

7. Guessing game instructed by Mary
8. Encouraging a student by Mary
9. Rainbow game instructed by James
10. Supporting a student by Mary

Picture 7.3 Team Instruction by Case Two

As seen in Picture 7.3 and Extract 48 above, Mary had to manage her activity, holding a guessing box and picking a voluntary student to come forward; she was in more control of instruction and was busy playing multiple-roles in order to do her part and complement some parts or detail that James missed during the lesson. Therefore, with regards to the degree of collaboration and the balance of sharing roles, Mary tended to dominate more of the lesson as a whole whereas James was more likely to rely on her direction or suggestions despite his leading parts. Even though James took limited roles in class, Mary did not urge him to take some supporting roles for her, mentioning that ‘(.) I don’t expect his support too much
due to his lack of experience and unfamiliarity with a primary school context’. Moreover, Mary valued his sincere and positive attitude to helping her in various ways, as described in Section 6.2.

Compared to two cases above, two pairs of the team teachers (Kevin and Rona, Kate and Robert) showed big differences in their role sharing. More specifically, Kevin and Robert independently organized almost the entire lesson alone during a class and their KETs played limited roles. For example, Picture 7.4 illustrates how many roles Kevin covered in an activity; Kevin explained the key expressions used in the telephone game (photo 11), encouraging members of a group, role-playing with a group (photo 12), scoring each group (photo 13), and supporting passive and less confident students (photo 14).
Kevin commented on his main role as follows:

034 IR: what do think your role is as a native teacher in class?
035 IE: we are supposed to speak ...
036 at least 75 or 80 percent of the time (.)
037 the native speaker (. ) we should be doing most of the speaking
038 in the class (. ) I mean 80 percent of the teacher’s speaking ...
(INT: N3, 22/10/2010)

Even though Rona assisted Kevin through translation (photo 15) and participation in a role-play (photo 16), these were usually led by Kevin’s requests or direction.

Rona was relatively less involved in their team instruction so her roles seemed restricted in class. Rona mentioned her roles and their team instruction as follows:

015 IR: can you tell me about team instruction in your team teaching?
016 IE: Kevin mainly takes charge of instruction in class ... he leads 80-85 percent of instruction (. ) even to a maximum of 90 percent (.)
017 my roles are to read a dialogue with Kevin
018 to control students (.) to provide a couple of grammatical explanations or key expressions in Korean
019 if Kevin asks me for some support (,) I follow his requests
020
021 IR: what do you think your roles are in that instruction?
022 basically I support some students
023 who have difficulty in following Kevin’s instructions
024 with additional explanation in Korean (.)
025 I sometimes found that
026 a few students needed one to one support (.)
027 I think my main role is
028 to support low level students properly in class
(INT: K3, 29/10/10)
Their role sharing reflected on Kevin’s perspective on teaching English mentioned in Section 7.2.1. In addition, the unbalanced role sharing was related to professional factors in Section 7.1 (e.g. Kevin’s preference of dominant instruction, Rona’s unwillingness to teach English, lack of confidence caused by professional readiness and deficiency of English competence as a novice teacher).

The role sharing between Kate and Robert was quite similar to the way Rona and Kevin did it. Kate also tried to facilitate the classes, handle discipline, and help lower-level students whenever they had difficulty in catching up with what Robert said. However, while Rona sometimes operated a computer to assist Kevin and participated in a role-play with students in class, Kate kept at the back during a lesson and even entered the classroom through the back door when the lesson started. In addition, there were few opportunities in which Kate could address the entire class in Korean, never mind in English. As she was reluctant to allow me to use her photos, her photos were not presented in this thesis. As presented in Picture 7.5, Robert led every lesson by himself; he introduced a game (photo 17), operated a computer and a TV screen (photo 18), encouraged students to participate in an activity (photo 19) and corrected students’ sentences (photo 20). Robert felt it comfortable to organize a class according to his own decision and interest and regarded Kate’s disciplining students as the most important support which she gave him.
As mentioned in Section 7.2.1, the more experienced teachers played a leading role and had more responsibilities based on their principles and ideas, and this affected their teaching partners’ role sharing. In addition, matters such as how to share roles, which roles to share, and how to make good use of their specialties could be decided on how two teachers understand each other in terms of individual professional capability and preference, a strong sense of responsibility as a team teacher, and willingness to accept ‘the fluidity of content roles in the partnership’ (Jang et al. 2010a: 254).
7.2.3 Team strategy

As illuminated in the previous two sections, each team had different team teaching styles, principles, and approaches to role sharing, and in some cases, this enabled the team teachers to create their own way to develop their team teaching implementation. More explicitly, some teams had specific formats and tacit agreement in relation to lesson planning, instruction, evaluation, or decision-making. In particular, compared to the other team teachers who partially settled on their approaches due to irregular implementation, Jessica and Matthew had their own strategically well-organized approach suitable for their situation and conditions. As for lesson planning, Jessica suggested the main idea and structure whereas Matthew completed the details based on a fixed format (p. 132). For example, Jessica explained the process of lesson planning as follows:

I give him a note which we call a ‘memo’ for a lesson plan in advance for example. First motivation. Second is ‘Look at and Speak’. Third is activity. Fourth is test and today’s homework shall be this and fifth the target point for the expression that we will focus on. Then he completes the lesson plan form and then he gives me some feedback like ‘I will do this when we explain games’. We exchange opinions and he writes down some missing points or my suggestions and then completes the lesson plan.

(INT: K1, 15/10/2010)

In addition, Matthew commented on the process of creating lesson plans with Jessica, as described in the extract below:

I give it to her. She goes ‘I like this I like this. Don’t like this. Like this like this’. And we discuss the parts that are on that. That she doesn’t like. Then we quickly talk about it and make a decision what to do. And then I correct the lesson plan and that should be the final lesson plan.

(INT: N1, 01/11/2010)
The comments presented above show that Jessica and Matthew had clear procedures informing their organisation of lesson planning and their shared roles which were compatible with their different professional experience and skills.

Matthew mentioned the advantage of their strategy as follows:

> even though the lesson changes every lesson, it’s always the same system which means, it’s easier for me because I can make the lesson plans very quickly and it’s easier for Korean teachers as well ... both of us can just go and look at the lesson plans for five seconds and will be able to teach the whole class with no practice and no reading

(INT: N1, 01/11/2010)

As for classroom management, Jessica and Matthew usually used their own strategies before, during and after class. At the beginning of class, the two teachers shared the roles in the process of checking assignments, as described in Extract 49 and photos below.

**Extract 49**

Jessica made students stand in a queue along the corridor and then started checking their homework one by one (photo 21), saying to each student, ‘well done’, ‘good job’, or ‘good’. She told each student the number of stickers which he/she could get from Matthew teacher, which depended on his/her homework performance. In addition, a couple of students who had not done their homework were asked to stay in the corridor. When each student entered the classroom and came to Matthew, Matthew standing around the teacher’s desk said to him/her, ‘How many stickers?’ simply and student answered the number of stickers to him such as ‘one’ or ‘two’. Matthew put a sticker on the back of the student’s hand (photo 22). The students put the sticker on their sticker collection cards in the English textbooks and then sat on their chairs. The bell rang. Jessica and four students who had not completed their homework entered the classroom. She let them stand at the back of the classroom when the class started.

(FN10: Case 1, 29/11/2010)
Throughout this process in every class, interaction between Jessica and the students in the corridor and Matthew and the students inside the classroom not only showed the equal status of the two teachers to the students but also that they shared their responsibilities and duties. As for the reward, stickers were given to students based on their performance in relation to homework, active participation, group activities, and presentations. In addition, during a lesson, they had their own implicit tactic to discipline students, which was called the ‘angel and devil role-play’; in other words, Jessica played the role of an evil person by handling punishment issues or scolding individual students, whereas Matthew had the role of rewarding students like an angel. Jessica and Matthew described their different roles for discipline respectively in the following extracts:

to the students (.) I am the devil and he is an angel as I am the only one to ask them disciplines in Korean in most cases (.) he doesn’t have to scold them (.) I am the person asking them ‘why do you miss your homework?’ (.) or ‘you should behave well in class’… but he usually conducts only exciting activities and just says hello in gentle smile (.) they are favorable to him and love him but they can have limit to share their problem with him when necessary … finally (.) I must be involved in any situations

(INT: K1, 15/10/2010)
do you know the concept ‘good cop and bad cop’? it’s ... it’s an old idea in police work if you’re going to interrogate someone you will have one person being their friend and one person being their enemy and I feel they may have done that with us ... like Jessica is the strict person she is the discipliner she is the bad person but I am the nice one I’m the one who makes the games I give out the snacks, you know? I am the loved one (INT: N1, 01/11/2010)

Just after a lesson, Jessica and Matthew applied their own principle to remind students of key expressions which they learnt on the day. Before the end of class, Jessica and Matthew decided to select two important expressions, called ‘passwords’, whose clues were usually presented on the TV screen or blackboard. Students could not leave the English subject classroom until they had given proper answers to each teacher’s questions. The answers for the given passwords could be to complete a sentence with a word presented by a teacher or play a role in a dialogue. As shown in Picture 7.7, at the end of every class, Jessica stood at the front door to check key expressions for the boys (photo 23) and, for the girls, Matthew stood at the back door (photo 24).

23. Jessica at the front door 24. Matthew at the back door

Picture 7.7 Classroom management after a lesson
As presented above, Jessica and Matthew made good use of their team strategy developed by themselves in their context. As Smith (1994) argues, the success of particular approaches implemented by some team teachers may not be the best way for other team teachers or applicable to other contexts. In that sense, Jessica and Matthew were successful in exploring, creating, and applying their own approaches and they felt mutually satisfied with them. Moreover, through the team strategy which they settled on, they developed an interactional relationship in terms of sharing roles and responsibilities, attitudes towards students and a teaching partner, and pedagogic principles in team teaching implementation.

In this section, I have discussed pedagogic factors in relation to team teachers’ perspectives on teaching English, role sharing and responsibility and team strategy. Each team had similar and different viewpoints on teaching English to primary school students and they shared roles and responsibilities compatible with their given contexts and conditions. In addition, team strategy developed and operated by team teachers was also an important element affecting their interactional relationship, as mainly presented in Case One (Jessica and Matthew).

7.3 Interpersonal factors

Carless (2006a: 345) posits the importance of an individual team teacher’s interpersonal sensitivity in ‘intercultural team teaching’, which would mostly affect team teaching success between local English teachers and native English speaking teachers. In addition, Luo (2010: 273-275) emphasises the components such as ‘respect, equality, flexibility and empathy’ in her ‘collaborative teaching model’, which can be regarded as interpersonal and intercultural features. In this vein,
relational aspects between the team teachers were key factors affecting their interactional relationships. In this section, I will focus on three aspects of their interpersonal features: personality, problem/conflict solving, and power and balance in their partnership.

7.3.1 Personality

Many researchers (de Oliveira & Richardson 2001; Sturman 1992; Thomas et al. 1998) refer to teachers’ personalities which affect team teaching and their collaboration: Chen’s research (2009: 144) showed that one of the main factors which would contribute to effective or successful team teaching was ‘personality’ or ‘personal trait’. Tsai (2005: 136) argues that team dynamics depend on ‘individual team members’ positive personality’. In her study, Tsai (2007) reported that personality had both positive and negative influences on the team teachers’ interactions and their relationships, with comparison made between compatible and incompatible personalities of different pairs of team teachers. Considering a contextual condition where team teachers are assigned to co-work with anyone without choice, it would be challenging for team teachers to meet a partner compatible with their personality.

In this study, three pairs of the team teachers, with the exception of Case Four, had positive and negative experiences related to similar or different personalities between the team teachers. For example, Jessica and Matthew had parallel and complementary characters and so were compatible with each other; this was often exemplified in their well organised lesson planning or team instruction in the classroom. Jessica described herself as ‘a perfectionist’ who tried
to plan and prepare a lesson well in advance, mentioning ‘(.) I might not be an easy person to Matthew ... I always urge him to do this or that until I am satisfied with his work or process’. Despite having some hard time meeting her demands, Matthew did not have any serious problems or conflicts caused by her personality. As stated by Jessica and other colleagues (Section 5.1.2, pp. 128-129), he was also a meticulous, serious and modest person who was suitable for co-working with Jessica, who was professionally strict and fastidious. Moreover, as described in Section 6.3, both Jessica and Matthew were flexible and receptive enough to negotiate and listen to the other’s different opinions in order to help them make better decisions. Jessica described Matthew as ‘a British gentleman’ and Mathew reflected that ‘(.) we are a good matching team’.

In contrast to Jessica and Matthew above, Rona and Kevin had differing personalities which resulted in some conflicts between them; in particular, Rona suffered from something of a personality clash. Rona was introverted, calm and shy whereas Kevin was extroverted, confident, and jocular. Rona was satisfied with his performance as an English teacher, evaluating that ‘(.) Kevin is even better than other experienced Korean English subject teachers (. ) in terms of professional mind attitude and skills. He is always energetic, humorous and friendly to the students in class’. Before or after a class, Kevin was usually surrounded by a few students who came and chatted with him in simple English and he created an exciting atmosphere during a lesson. He sometimes had a hoarse throat from speaking in a loud and cheerful voice every lesson.

However, Rona felt tired and uncomfortable with his meticulous and stubborn nature as Kevin tended to keep nagging her into solving a problem. For
example, when Kevin had to renew a visa, he asked Rona to provide information about a visa scheme and she contacted the office of education and Immigration Service. After this, she got the reply that they needed to wait for an official announcement related to a new visa scheme because it was in progress. Even when Rona informed him about this official policy, he still kept asking about the visa issue almost every day. She got fed up with his pushing her to repeatedly contact the Immigration Service and the Office of Education. One and half months later, Rona finally got the official letter to introduce the scheme and handed it to Kevin. However, what made Rona annoyed was that Kevin was too impatient and inflexible to wait for it even though his visa had more than six months to its expiry date. At this point, she realised that ‘(..) he is in the polar opposite of me (..) his strong character in that way is unbearable for me’. Moreover, Kevin was outgoing and enjoyed chatting with her as well as another Korean English subject teacher. However, Rona was reluctant to chat with him due to her shy and quiet character and lack of English proficiency mentioned earlier. While Rona was compatible with Kevin’s personality as an English teacher, she had difficulties in interacting with him outside the classroom personally.

Compared to Rona and Kevin above, Mary and James had some similarities but also differences due to their personalities. When Mary was interviewed at first, she raised the personality issue, mentioning ‘(..) what if we had a MBTI\(^2\) to recruit and match a team partner?’ After serious conflicts with her former team teacher (see Section 5.2.1, p. 140), Mary wanted to co-work with a partner compatible with her personality and expectation. She was gentle, patient, and considerate and

\(^2\)MBTI (The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator) assessment is a psychometric questionnaire designed to measure psychological preferences in how people perceive the world and make decisions.
James was easy-going, optimistic and cheerful as described in Section 5.2.1 and 5.2.2. Even though she was not satisfied with James’ teaching style or his lack of preparation in terms of professional aspects, she stated that she had a more comfortable relationship with James than the former team partner. Whenever James did not lead his parts smoothly during a lesson, Mary avoided pointing out his faults or directly expressing her own thinking to James and encouraged him, saying ‘I will cover this part’ or ‘let’s do it together’. However, James did not recognise such situations that Mary was not happy with, stating ‘(.) yes (.) it’s a good lesson … teaching primary students is easy’. He seemed to have high self-satisfaction with his teaching and did not consider anything seriously. Mary stated that James was kind and honest but his easy-going and inattentive character had a negative influence on their preparation for teaching and instruction. Despite dissatisfaction with his professional skills and mind as an English team teacher, Mary was influenced by James’ cheerful and optimistic attitude in a positive way, mentioning ‘(.) I became more positive and tried to look on the bright side while working together (.) his cheerful mood is conveyed to me’. While Mary had difficulties in team teaching with him during a lesson, she was compatible with James’ personality as a friend after class or outside the classroom.

As for Case Four, both Kate and Robert seemed individualistic and indifferent to each other, so their personalities did not really influence each other. However, as shown in their team teaching implementation in Chapter Five, such an indifferent character between them was correlated to their separate interactional relationship in almost every aspect.
7.3.2 Problem/conflict solving

Just as Choi (2001) identifies the lack of intercultural understanding and miscommunication between two teachers as a main culprit in ineffective team teaching, all the team teachers in this study experienced conflicts with diverse issues. In some cases, such conflicts that they had encountered made them more stressed and challenged in their relationships when they worked together. In addition, the ways that both teachers handled the problems and its processes through which they maintained the relationship were vital to hinder or develop their further interactional relationships. The following three critical incidents portray not only the conflicts caused by misunderstanding, discrepancy in opinions and disagreement, but also their different problem solving processes.

7.3.2.1 Misunderstanding

**Incident: I have no intention to disgrace you.**

Jessica was a hardworking teacher and usually stayed late in school for teaching preparation. One evening, when Matthew entered the staff room, he saw Jessica working hard. He came to her and yelled out ‘Go home’ to Jessica a couple of times. Jessica felt bad and left the room. From the next day, Jessica did not talk with Matthew and he was confused by her cold attitude because he did not know the reason.

Jessica expressed her feeling about this incident as follows:

I was really embarrassed and angry at Matthew and felt deeply insulted by him(.). How dare a young and inexperienced teacher like Matthew do this! ... after I came back home (.). I felt worse and worse because there were other colleagues in that room, in particular (.). junior teachers (.). as I could not accept this situation and needed time to calm down (.). I stopped talking.
with him and even did not have any eye contact inside and outside the classroom

(INT: K1, 21/12/2010)

As described in Section 7.3.1, as Jessica had a perfectionist personality trait and she was proud of herself, she could hardly accept Matthew’s behaviour towards her. As Jessica seemed to be sensitive to issues of status and competence as a senior teacher, Matthew’s act had the potential to be ‘face-threatening’ (Brown & Levinson 1987: 60) to her. That is, she felt that she had lost face publicly, which made her more uncomfortable and embarrassed. Matthew’s yelling can be identified as one of the ‘face-threatening acts (FTAs)’ (ibid.) which Jessica interpreted as an insult.

However, Matthew explained the reason and his feeling as follows:

as I was worried about her health (around that time, she was diagnosed with a serious disease) (. ) I tried to make Jessica leave the school and take a rest as much as possible after classes (. ) I did not imagine my act (yelling) made her angry (. ) so I did not catch any clue (. ) why Jessica had a cold attitude to me ... later when I got to know the reason (. ) I was embarrassed at her reaction and I felt bad as well

(INT: N1, 02/02/2011)

Even though his intention was to worry about her health, Jessica interpreted his act as an insult and Matthew was embarrassed at the unexpected situation. What was worse, he was very offended at her manner to handle this issue without any explanation of the reason. A couple of weeks later, the two teachers had time to talk with each other and solved the problem. As Matthew could understand her position and some issues embedded in Korean school culture (e.g. hierarchical system, honour, face), he circulated his apology email to all colleagues in school to gain face for Jessica. Jessica also felt sorry for him due to her misunderstanding of
his original intention. In addition, both Jessica and Matthew agreed to discuss the problematic issues between them directly and immediately. Through this conflict, they realised unintentional behaviours or words could lead to more serious misunderstanding which harmed their relationship. However, despite solving this issue, when Matthew was interviewed after that academic year, he reflected on this incident as being ‘an unpleasant memory’ which had given him a red face. He mentioned that he had admitted that there was some distance between a senior teacher and a novice teacher which was caused by different power and status in their relationship.

7.3.2.2 Discrepancy: Discipline

*Incident: Please, respect me!*

As mentioned in Section 5.2.3 (pp. 149-150), Mary and James had different perspectives on disciplining students in class. Although I did not witness this incident, it was told me vividly by each teacher on the next day when they had a big argument. It is a composite account described by the two teachers. One day, James saw a girl in class who did not pay attention to him, scribbling something on the desk with a pen. James warned the girl student not to do it but she could not understand what he told her. Even though James gave another warning to the girl, saying ‘Don’t do it’, she did not recognise this serious situation, and kept scribbling. Finally, James became really upset and angry: his face turned red, and he yelled at the girl. She was startled by his sudden shouting; she started crying in class and the class became noisy due to this incident. Then, Mary soothed the crying girl and handled the situation. After the class, Mary closed the door of an English Only
classroom and had a big argument with James, even yelling at him with anger.

James was also angry at Mary, yelling at her and he left the English Only classroom.

Mary explained the situation and the reasons for being angry at James as follows:

I was really angry at James’ act (.) because we had already discussed the issues related to discipline before (.) I had already advised James not to scold one to one in class (.) especially lower level students (.) who tended to be shy and defensive under his forceful attitude or action ... even several students in school had some physical (.) psychological or intellectual challenges in learning ability (.) that was why I had advised him to discipline students not individually but as an entire class ... even though I believed James could have fully understood and accepted this issue (.) an unpleasant incident occurred in class

(INT: K2, 05/11/2010)

As Mary thought James was unfamiliar with a primary school context (e.g. students, curriculum, policy), she did not want him to control the students in his dogmatic way. Despite her advice, James persisted with his strict disciplining style which created the problems and breakdowns in their relationship.

However, James had some reasons for his strict approach to discipline due to a bad experience, which he explained as follows:

in this school (.) I had a bad experience ... a couple of boys the sixth grade students came to me (.) telling something in Korean with a smile (.) so I regarded it as a kind of friendly gesture (.) however ... when I got to know that the boys had sworn at me in Korean (.) I was really really shocked and (.) upset with their deceptive attitude towards me (.) I felt some students showed disrespect to me ... I thought that ‘if I am not strict (.) kids will take advantage of me’ ... as I would like to be respected as a teacher (.) like other Korean teachers (.) I tried to manage and control a class in stricter ways

(INT: N2, 05/11/2010)

In addition, he argued the reason, complaining about the discrepancy in discipline with Mary as follows:

I think ... some students who misbehave in class should be disciplined strictly and fairly (.) otherwise it will not be good for the classroom atmosphere ... the girl could have understood what I said to her because I gave a warning a
couple of times (. ) but she did not listen to me (. ) I felt really bad and annoyed at her (. ) and I could not understand why Mary did not intervene in discipline in that situation

... without Mary’s involvement and support ( . ) it is hard for me to manage a class alone ( . ) because I often failed to discipline students effectively (. ) even though I asked Mary to become more proactive in disciplining the students ( . ) who misbehaved during a lesson (. ) she did not want to do it

(INT: N2, 05/11/2010)

James considered that he was ignored or ill-treated by the girl despite his warning, and that he was also not respected by his partner, Mary. As Tsai (2007) points out, lack of ‘professional respect’ between team teachers can impact on their relationships; in the case of both Mary and James, they both seemed less receptive to disciplining styles different to their own. In addition, the discrepancy in disciplining issues seemed to be caused by their failure to compromise.

A couple of hours later, Mary made the girl understand the incident, explaining what the problem was and the reason James got angry at her at that time. Mary encouraged the girl to apologize for her misbehaviour to James and explained that the girl really had not understood what he had said to her. When the girl apologized to him with the help of Mary’s interpretation, James was pleased with her apology, shaking hands with the girl. After work, Mary and James had time to talk about their conflict and discussed the discipline issue seriously. As Carless (2006a: 345) points out, team teachers need to be aware of ‘sensitivity towards their viewpoints and practices, particularly when differences emerge’. Finally, they reached an agreement: Mary promised James that she would manage and control the classroom more actively and strictly than before and James promised to discipline students as a whole class, with more attention to challenged students who needed additional support. When I observed their classes, I found something
noticeable about their disciplining styles. Mary became strict, controlling individually misbehaved students and even letting them stand at the back of a classroom, whereas James seemed secure and comfortable with less involvement in discipline, simply counting numbers as a warning. After this severe conflict, Mary and James did not have any problems related to discipline and recovered from the breakdown in their relationship. After learning about his bad experience, Mary could understand James’ attitude better and became sensitive to his position as a team teacher. James accepted Mary’ advice and tried to find out about students who needed extra support.

7.3.2.3 Disagreement: Open class

_Incident:_ Do it as usual!

All novice teachers with less than three years teaching experience should have regular clinical supervision from senior teachers and a principal in their schools. As a novice teacher, Rona had to get supervision for the first time. In her case, team teaching practice with Kevin was opened to a principal and senior teachers and Rona was supervised by them. For more than one month, Rona had been stressed, nervous, and worried about this open class, and she made a great effort to prepare for it. Rona wanted to take charge of instruction more than usual and present her role sharing with Kevin equally in the open class. However, Kevin did not accept her suggestion because he thought they should present their natural and usual team

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22 Clinical supervision is a professional activity aiming to improve a novice teacher’s instruction through senior teachers’ classroom observation, feedback, and discussion in a face to face relationship with a novice teacher (Kim 2012).
teaching practice as usual to others. Rona was annoyed at Kevin’s lack of consideration for her situation.

When she was interviewed before the open class, she had extremely complicated emotions:

I am extremely nervous and anxious (. ) because it is the first time for my teaching to be observed and evaluated by senior teachers including a principal (. ) while preparing for open class (. ) I would like to lead teaching practice (. ) and get support from Kevin and we divided instruction into two parts clearly ... however (. ) I got angry at him (. ) he always says to me (.) ‘don’t worry’ or ‘don’t be nervous (. ) it will be okay’ but it did not make me comfortable but annoyed

(INT: K3, 29/10/2010)

As stated in Section 5.3.1, as she was asked to take a leading position by the senior teachers and the vice-principal, Rona encountered a dilemma between their expectation and a real situation. Rona felt frustrated with Kevin’s attitude: Kevin did not regard the open class as a serious matter nor care about Rona’s challenges. However, Kevin had a strong opinion about his principles on open class as follows:

I am not nervous (. ) I am used to having one or two classes every semester (. ) if you go to another school, they rehearse a lesson (. ) it is like the students already know all the material, it is a show, it is not even a class (. ) it is a show (. ) and I really hate that (. ) if I go to the open class, the students have questions and they actually do not one hundred percent understand the material (. ) I am much happier because this is actually like a real class (. ) if your open class is something they are already very comfortable with, they are not learning anything, they should not call it a class (. ) they should call it a show (. ) I cannot understand Rona’s unusual preparation (. ) what we need is to present our actual teaching in class, not a show

(INT: N3, 29/10/2010)

As illustrated in his personality in Section 7.3.1, Kevin was confident and self-assertive due to his wide experience and professional skills. As he had had several open classes before, he did not consider their open class seriously. In addition, he valued their natural and actual class as being important and disagreed with Rona’s
‘radical’ changes. Interestingly, Kevin stuck to his principals when his teaching practice was evaluated by the education officers.

When I attended their open class with the senior teachers, I was surprised at Rona’s more active engagement in teaching, which had not been seen before. Even though they did not take charge of teaching equally, Rona and Kevin jointly instructed a lesson, leading activities separately and sharing roles together. Their open class was successful and both Rona and Kevin were satisfied with their performance. When Rona was interviewed later, she appeared relaxed and comfortable but still felt sorry about Kevin’s intransigent attitude towards her.

As illustrated above, each pair of team teachers experienced interpersonal conflicts and solved them in their ways. Through the problem solving processes, they developed their interactional relationships or struggled with understanding of their partner.

7.3.3 Power and balance in partnership

Even though team teachers’ equal partnership and contribution are essential in team teaching, there is often in inequality in their power relationship and practices (Fujimoto-Adamson 2010; Wang 2012). As described in Chapter Six, the team teachers in each case had a different role, position, status, and responsibility in their contexts, which created an unequal relationship between them. That is, it would be natural for two teachers to have a power relationship between them in their contexts. In particular, as Korean schools tend towards authority and a hierarchically based culture (NIIED 2010: 132), the power differential of unequal relationship would be regarded as more acceptable. Each pair of team teachers in
this study had different types of asymmetric power relationships in terms of professional, linguistic, and contextual aspects, which led to not only power imbalances between them but also power sharing relationship suitable for their capabilities and contexts.

7.3.3.1 Professional power

As presented in Section 7.1.2, each pair of team teachers had different levels of professional readiness which largely affected their interactional relationships, in particular, the role relationships between them. The more experienced and skilful teachers (Jessica and Kevin) had a leading position in terms of control of lesson direction and lesson guidance as a whole, and had more responsibilities than their novice partner teachers (Matthew and Rona). For example, Jessica forced Matthew to prepare lessons fully and gave him comments or feedback after checking his lesson plans whereupon he mostly followed her suggestions and advice (see Section 7.2.3). Interestingly, Matthew was always seen to wear dress shirts and formal trousers whereas the other NETs in this study usually dressed casually in blue jeans and T-shirts. I got to know the reason while having an interview with Jessica. After asking about my impression of Matthew’s formal wear, Jessica mentioned the reason as follows:

on the first day in the first semester (. ) I asked him to wear formal clothes except for sports days in school (. ) maybe other native colleagues told him (. ) ‘it’s too formal’ (. ) so he asked me the reason (. ) I answered ‘it’s better for you’ and he agreed with me ... I think we need to be well presented to the students as a teacher (. ) he looks neat and professional all the time (. ) I think it is a right decision

(INT: K1, 13/10/2010)
Jessica seemed proud of him and very satisfied with his formal style and her decision. She played a critical role as a trainer and master and Matthew was like a trainee and apprentice in many aspects. Even though Matthew sometimes felt it fiddly to meet Jessica’s requests, he tended to follow her decisions as much as possible. He reflected that ‘(..) as I did not have any teaching experience (..) it was my advantage to look like a professional teacher’. In addition, their power relationship was clearly revealed when they encountered conflicts. As shown in Section 7.3.2, Matthew was likely to accept and comply with what Jessica wanted to do or decided to do. In this sense, Jessica and Matthew did not have an equally collegial relationship in their interpersonal aspects. However, Jessica tried to maintain a good relationship with Matthew, saying that ‘(..) I try to respect him as much as I can and pay much attention to saying ‘thank you’ as he loves that expression so much’.

Kevin was also professionally more powerful than Rona inside and outside the classroom. In addition to his professional background, as Kevin had worked in that school longer than Rona, she could not help relying on him. Even though Kevin did not guide Rona strictly like Jessica did, Kevin tended to lead her to follow his instructions. Whenever they had to decide some matters, in particular when they had disagreement, Kevin tended to strongly insist his opinions and Rona was more receptive to his ideas or suggestions. Their personality differences in Section 7.3.1 and their problem solving in Section 7.3.2 reflected their different power relationship as well. Despite her more active engagement in instruction than before, Kevin had a stubborn insistence on his opinion about an open class but Rona did not maintain her opinion. After the open class, Rona received comments from a
senior supervisor that she was advised to take a leading position and not to mainly support Kevin. The senior supervisor raised the issue of their unequal role relationship, that is, Kevin was a main teacher whereas Rona was like an assistant. However, Rona seemed unwilling to take a dominant position, saying that ‘(.) how can I deal with it? I am not in a position to argue my ideas with him because he is much better than I in many ways’. She seemed to believe that Kevin would make better decisions to coordinate all the teaching. Due to her lack of confidence as a teacher, Kevin and Rona had a more imbalanced power relationship than the other team teachers in this study.

7.3.3.2 Linguistic power

Even though the KETs taught English and communicated with their NETs in English, there was no one who was satisfied with their English ability as an English teacher in terms of a language provider. Even Jessica, a veteran teacher who had a TEE-M (pp. 122-123) certificate and a Master’s degree in TESOL, felt the burden of TETE (Teaching English Through English) (see Section 2.4.2, p. 24). She self-assessed her English proficiency as being insufficient as follows:

I still feel less confident in my ability to correct students’ writing or to talk about diverse current affairs with Matthew (.) without a native English speaking partner I will have more challenges to teach English in English and need more preparation and time for teaching

(INT: K1, 13/10/2010)

The comments above show the gaps between ‘the English teachers’ self-assessed language proficiency’ and ‘the desired proficiency’ she believes would enable her to teach English in primary schools (Butler 2004: 245). As mentioned in Section 7.1.1, Jessica and Mary regarded the NETs as a good linguistic resource as well as an
English tutor to them. According to Miyazato (2009), target-language power could be more significant than any other power in terms of power sharing in team teaching. Despite slightly dichotomous characterisation, Miyazato describes Japanese English teachers as being linguistically powerless in the target language whereas NETs are linguistically and socio-culturally powerful in the target language. The KETs in this study were often observed to get English support from their NETs inside and outside the classroom (e.g. providing unfamiliar expressions or vocabulary, correcting students’ writings, proofreading, and revising PPTs or official documents). Even though they did not have a strong belief in the ‘native speaker fallacy’ (Phillipson 1992: 185), the KETs’ perceived English deficiency led to lack of confidence, which influenced their power relationship with the NETs. Jessica mentioned that ‘(.) I think a native English speaking person is better than I in terms of English capability regardless of his/her background’. In addition, as Korean society has built a strong public faith in ‘native speakers’ or ‘native speakerism’ (Park 2008: 148), the KETs sometimes encountered this issue. For example, Jessica mentioned the ‘Matt Effect’, which had a significant impact on the students’ responses and attitude in class. Compared to her solo teaching classes, she found that the students were more active and excited in team teaching classes. Mary stated parents’ expectation and preference for NETs as follows:

when we organised an English camp during a vacation, we had to put a native speaking teacher’s name on the name list of tutors (. ) otherwise, parents and students were less interested in or insecure about the camp programmes

(INT: K2, 03/12/2010)
As discussed in Section 7.1.3, a target language, English in team teaching was an important component of professional readiness for team teachers, in particular, the KETs as NNETs.

7.3.3.3 Contextual power

The EPIK scheme and policy clearly stipulate NETs’ duties and regulations (p. 18), Chapter Two, which gives an overview of their roles and responsibilities). In addition, EPIK specifies explicitly a NET as a ‘GET’ (Guest English Teacher) (NIIED 2010), which can imply their status and position. Similar to AETs (Assistant English Teachers) in the JET programme in Japan, the appellation of GETs in EPIK means that NETs are not permanent teachers but temporary ones just like guests. According to Miyazato (2009), as NETs are treated as special guests, they remain politically weak in the educational system. That is, they have the status of foreign visitors, differing from that of KETs. In fact, the NETs had a one year contract. As for Kevin, he had renewed a contract every year for four years based on the regulation changes in the scheme. Their renewal of working contract was mainly decided by their Korean team teachers through the performance evaluation. For instance, Mary and Rona managed administrative work for their team teachers, James and Kevin respectively. In addition to living support such as housing, bills, payment, and visa issues, one of their important roles was to evaluate their team partners and report their performance. Therefore, Mary and Rona were evaluators as well as team partners to James and Kevin. Mary expressed the difficulties of the inconsistency in the two roles as follows:

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23 See Section 3.2.2, p. 40.
sometimes I feel my role as a team teacher contradicts that of administrative work (.) when we organise a lesson, I am a co-worker to him so we need to discuss any matters with each other (.) but while doing administrative work, I am like an administrator not a team partner .... these days, I feel I become more like an administrator and James tries to read my face

(INT: K2, 19/10/2010)

As described above, Mary felt uncomfortable with two different roles towards James. Tsai (2007) points out that local English teachers’ taking charge of evaluating their native team teachers creates a critical hindrance to the development of desirable relationships. That is because they do not have a team teacher relationship but an evaluator-evaluatee relationship which leads to an unequal relationship.

As for Rona, she submitted her reference and evaluative report about Kevin’s teaching performance to the district office of education. As a result, Kevin was recognised as an excellent NET and awarded the third prize, which was mostly determined by Rona’s supportive letter. Likewise, positive evaluative reports can determine NETs’ renewal contract as well as their promotion and salary increase. However, Rona mentioned that ‘(..) Kevin deserves achieving a prize but it is annoying paper work for me’. Even though she was pleased with the good result, she regarded the evaluation process, including completing officially formatted documents, as additional workload. Jessica and Kate did not involve themselves in evaluative work in assessing their native partners’ teaching performance so they felt they were relived from the burden of a potential challenge in their relationships. Two of the KETs had to manage two different and conflicting role relationships, which would influence their interpersonal relationship with the native team partners in positive or negative ways. The evaluative role and process completed by
the KETs would make them politically more powerful than their NETs. However, such an asymmetric power relationship in the educational system and the scheme would damage the opportunity for mutual trust and an honest relationship between two teachers. Both team teachers did not have power in the same aspect, to some extent, which might enable them to balance their asymmetric power relationship in their partnership and to have ‘flexible equality’ (Sturman 1992: 160) in their roles and responsibility.

In this section, I have discussed interpersonal factors affecting the interactional relationship between the KETs and the NETs. More concretely, three aspects have been presented in terms of personality, problem solving, and power and balance in the partnership.

7.4 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the factors related to interactional relationship between the two team teachers of each case. As three main factors, professional (personal), pedagogic (team), and interpersonal factors were closely intertwined with one another and affected the interactional relationship between the team teachers in diverse aspects according to their given teaching contexts and conditions. In particular, the KETs’ (un)willingness to engage in team teaching with the NETs was largely influential in their interactional relationship. In addition, interpersonal factors between the team teachers had an impact on their relationship development through the process of understanding the team partner and the contexts, being aware of individual or cultural difference, reaching compromise, and learning from each other.
Chapter Eight

Evaluation and Conclusions

This chapter aims to evaluate my research and reflect on the whole process presented in this thesis. Firstly, I will summarise the main findings which emerged from the analysis in the three preceding chapters and outline the contributions which the research has achieved. In addition, I will propose ideas for practical implications regarding the EPIK scheme, schools and team teachers, followed by discussion of the challenges and limitations that I experienced and what I learned from this research project. Finally, I will provide some recommendations for other researchers and further research in this area.

8.1 Summary of main findings

This study aimed at understanding team teaching implemented by the KETs and the NETs in Korean EFL classrooms and at delving deeper into their interaction and relationship in these contexts. The three specific research questions arising out of the research focus and aim were as follows: 1) How do team teachers implement their team teaching in Korean primary schools and how do team teachers experience team teaching in these contexts? 2) What is the nature of the interactional relationships between team teachers? 3) What are the key factors that underlie their interactional relationships? To respond to these questions, I will present a summary of main findings on the following aspects in this section: diversity in team teaching implementation, team teaching experiences, the nature
of team teachers’ interactional relationship and the key factors underlying their interactional relationship.

8.1.1 Diversity in team teaching implementation

This study has uncovered diverse styles of team teaching implemented by the four pairs of team teachers in each context. As described in Chapter Five, each pair of team teachers had distinctive characteristics with a view to their personal and professional backgrounds, motivation, and perspective on and involvement in team teaching. In addition, they had different co-working conditions and contexts such as classroom facilities, allocated time for solo or team taught classes, the number of team teachers, and school atmosphere (e.g. principal or vice-principal’s interest in English education, a specialized activity or subject in the school). Even though two pairs of team teachers in Case One (Jessica and Matthew) and Case Two (Mary and James) shared roles and responsibilities in the classroom as much as possible, the KETs tended to guide and support their NETs throughout the whole team teaching practice (e.g. lesson planning, instruction, classroom management and discipline). In contrast to these cases, Case Three (Rona and Kevin) and Case Four (Kate and Robert) showed differing relationships: the NETs largely dominated lessons whereas their Korean team partners had limited or rare engagement in class, acting like teaching assistants or living translators. In my literature review Sections 3.2.3 and 3.2.4, I discussed previously identified organizational patterns of team teaching and collaboration in ESL and EFL contexts (Bailey et al. 1992; Bailey et al. 2001; Carless & Walker 2006; Creese 2005; Richards & Farrell 2005). However, this study has demonstrated a great deal of variety in team teaching patterns and
collaborative styles between the team teachers cannot be explained or counted for in fixed models as ‘no two teams are exactly alike because they operate along a continuum presenting countless variations’ (Eisen 2000: 9). That is, team teaching implementation can be flexible and diverse in varying contexts and how team teaching is implemented is largely dependent on team teachers themselves, the agents of team teaching practice (Tsai 2007).

8.1.2 Team teaching experiences

8.1.2.1 Positive experiences

In general, the team teachers in this study experienced some advantages of team teaching and learning from their team partners in various aspects. For example, as Jessica pointed out (in Section 5.1.1, p. 123), the KETs reported that they benefited from team teaching with NETs: having more opportunity to be exposed to English by working with the NETs; getting English support such as classroom English or writing assistance from the NETs; and gaining material resources. These findings are in line with the positive reports of previous research (Kim & Lee 2005; Min & Ha 2006; Park 2008) outlined in Section 3.3.4 of this thesis. In addition, the inexperienced teachers (Matthew, James, Rona) gained a wide range of knowledge and learnt a variety of skills (e.g. lesson planning, teaching practice, material design, classroom management) from their more skilled partners (Jessica, Mary, Kevin). As discussed in Section 3.1.1, teacher collaboration stimulates teacher learning and development (Hargreaves 1997; Mann 2005) and creates a sharing culture in schools. Both experienced and novice teachers can promote their career development through collaborative interaction and learning (Jang 2006; Letterman
& Dugan 2004). All of the team teachers in my research succeeded in completing team teaching implementation with their partners by the end of the academic year (2010), and currently, they still teach primary students in the same or different schools with the exception of Robert (Case Four). Interestingly, Matthew became a head teacher to take charge of supporting new NETs in a district office of education in 2012.

Moreover, according to their reflections (see Sections 5.1.1, 5.2.1, 7.3.2), two pairs of the team teachers (Jessica and Matthew, Mary and James) gradually learned about individual and cultural differences from their team partner and learned how to maintain a good relationship through the process of solving problems, decision-making and sharing ideas. That is, they became more sensitive to and serious about exploring their teaching partnerships and more aware of the importance of relationship management and communication with their teaching partners. They seemed to broaden their interpersonal understanding and sensitivity, indicating that this is a key element in intercultural team teaching (Carless 2004; 2006a).

8.1.2.2 Challenging experiences

The challenging experiences which the team teachers had in their teaching contexts are similar to several challenging issues of team teaching in the NET schemes discussed in Section 3.3 (p. 43, 46, 49, 50): a lack of intercultural understanding between team teachers; inexperienced and unqualified NETs; KET’s lack of confidence; discrepancy in role expectations.
Firstly, all of the team teaching cases in this study experienced conflicts and tensions between the team teachers, as encapsulated in the critical incidents. These were caused by misunderstanding, disagreement or discrepancy (see Section 7.3.2). Such problems are closely associated with a lack of intercultural understanding including interpersonal factors (Carless & Walker 2006; Park 2008). In particular, cultural differences or interpersonal conflicts are identified as one of the common challenges that a majority of team teachers face in Korean contexts (Ahn et al. 1998; Carless 2002; Choi 2001; Kim & Kwak 2002).

Secondly, two of the NETs (Matthew and James) had little knowledge and no teaching experience regarding ELT pertinent to a primary school context. However, in contrast to the reports on AETs’ limited roles in the JET programme (Kobayashi 2001; Macedo 2002), Matthew and James were engaged in more roles beyond the ‘animator’ or ‘living tape recorder’ in team instruction. As insisted by Jessica (pp. 125, 262), in this case, the KETs (Jessica and Mary) supported their NETs in many aspects. This meant that team teaching practice could be largely dependent on more trained and qualified KETs’ proactive roles and willingness to guide and direct their less capable team partners. However, Jessica was willing to do so (see Appendix 10) whereas Mary was slightly passive and reluctant to actively engage in such a situation.

Thirdly, as described in Section 5.3.1, English teaching was assigned to Rona, a novice KET. She had the most challenging experience among the KETs due to her lack of confidence caused by a lack of teaching experience, her perceived English deficiency and unwillingness to teach English. Moreover, she confronted additional challenges as a non-native novice teacher of English (Mann & Tang 2012).
Fourthly, discrepancy in role expectations in team teaching was one of the noticeably challenging experiences. While team teachers experience confusion or conflict regarding the sharing of roles and responsibilities (Kim & Go 2008; Mahoney 2004; Liu 2009; Tajino 2002), Rona had difficulties in dealing with the discrepancy in roles between the expectation of the school (the senior teachers and the vice-principal) and the real classroom situation. Without KETs’ voluntary engagement or willingness to team teach English with NETs, it is difficult to expect a full-fledged and collaborative style of team teaching.

8.1.3 The nature of team teachers’ interactional relationship

In Chapter Six, I have analysed and discussed the team teachers’ classroom interactions mainly through actual classroom discourse according to six features, which reflected their relationships. I will summarise the nature of the interactional relationship between the team teachers according to the following three aspects: collaborative relationship in contrived collegiality; inequality and power; and complementarity and interdependence.

8.1.3.1 Collaborative relationship in contrived collegiality

As discussed in Section 3.1.2, the nature of collaborative relationship is contrary to that of contrived collegiality (Hargreaves 1991). In general, team teaching based on the EPIK scheme is characterised as contrived collegiality which is ‘administratively regulated’, ‘compulsory’, ‘implementation-orientated’, ‘fixed in time and space’ and ‘predictable’ (ibid.: 53-55). In this sense, the team teaching relationships could be identified as ‘implementation partnerships’ which are ‘imposed, brief, mechanistic,
discharging of specified duties, and with high prediction’ (Hargreaves 1994 cited in Creese 2005: 110) due to government driven or national top-down processes and mandated working conditions.

Despite the constraints of contrived collegiality and implementation partnerships, the team teachers in each case had quite different levels of collaborative and collegial relationships. Such relationships were identified by different interaction patterns: delivering collaborative presentation in team instruction (Section 6.1); taking charge of differentiated skills and content roles (Section 6.2); using L1 and L2 (Section 6.3); providing complementary support (Section 6.4); making decisions and interventions (Section 6.5); and partnership talk (Section 6.6). While Case One had the most collaborative relationship in a class, Case Four had a lack of genuine collaboration.

8.1.3.2. Inequality and power

The researchers (Dieker & Murawski 2003; Luo 2010; Jang et al. 2010a; 2010b) emphasise that team teachers need equality such as equal status, equal partnership or equal contribution as an important element for successful team teaching. However, this claim is not relevant to some cases in this study in terms of two aspects: first, it is difficult for two teachers to have equal partnership when one of them is unqualified, inexperienced, or less capable. Second, unequal status or partnership between two teachers is not negatively influential on the relationship in every team teaching case. For example, even though the team teachers instructed a lesson in forms of co-presentation (e.g. modelling, role-play) from an equal status point of view, more experienced and capable teachers directed their
inexperienced team partners through intervention, guidance and support (see Sections 6.1 and 6.5). As argued in Section 7.2.2, it would be impossible for two teachers to divide tasks and responsibilities equally and share exactly the same roles, particularly when there is a significant gap in professional capabilities between team teachers. In this sense, the two teachers in Case One had a ‘mentor and apprentice’ relationship (Richards & Farrell 2005: 162), whereas Case Two tended to have a ‘leader and assistant’ relationship as well as a friendship. The team teachers in Case Three had a ‘leader and participant/supporter relationship (ibid.) and those in Case Four seemed to have an ‘instructor and observer/monitor relationship (adopted from Friend & Bursuck 2009: 92). However, Case One and Two contrast with Case Three and Four: while the KETs (Case One and Two) played the role of a leader, the NETs (Case Three and Four) performed the role of a leader or a dominant instructor. Interestingly, even though Case One seemed to have an asymmetrical power relationship between the two teachers, they implemented highly balanced team teaching in the classroom through collaborative interaction with each other. In EFL team teaching classrooms, there is often an inequality in the power relationship and practices (Fujimoto-Adamson 2010; Miyazato 2009a; Wang 2012). The team teachers in each case had an explicit or implicit power relationship. As discussed in Section 3.4.3.1, ‘power’ has negative connotations in terms of domination, control, authoritarianism, or unequal role relations in vertical relations. However, symmetrical (peer) relationships do not always guarantee success (Mann 2005). In this study, to some extent, the power relationship or asymmetric relationship between two teachers played a positive role in their team teaching

### 8.1.3.3 Complementarity and interdependence

‘Complementarity’ (Carless 2006a: 344) is one of the distinctive features in the team teachers’ interactional relationship. In Section 3.2.4, I have discussed complementary partnerships, focusing on the respective strengths and weaknesses between NETs and non-NETs based on the literature (Barratt & Kontra 2000; Carless 2002; Medgyes 1994; Tang 1997). This has been underpinned by their differentiated skills and content roles (Section 6.2) and supporting L1 and L2 (Section 6.3). In addition, the KETs supported their NET in terms of classroom management and discipline whereas the NETs (Matthew and James) helped their KETs (Jessica and Mary) by operating teaching assistant facilities or arranging teaching materials (Section 6.4) despite different styles and levels of engagement.

Based on the differences in complementary and collaborative relationships, their collegial interaction could be placed on a continuum with a range from independence to interdependence between team teachers (Little 1990). Among Little’s four levels of interdependence in interaction discussed in Section 3.1.2 (p. 29), each case in this study could be characterised as ‘storytelling and scanning for ideas’, in which team teachers are mostly independent (Case Four), ‘aid and assistance’ (Case Three), ‘sharing’ (Case Two) and ‘joint work’, in which team teachers are interdependent (Case One). A shift in this dimension towards interdependence relates to ‘changes in the frequency and intensity of teachers’
interactions’ (*ibid.*: 512) as well as the likelihood of mutual influence, unrequested feedback, the exposure of one’s work to others and mutual obligation.

### 8.1.4 Key factors underlying team teachers’ interactional relationship

The team teachers and their team teaching implementation cannot be fully understood without taking into account the factors which are reflexive to their interactional relationships. Drawing on their team teaching experiences and the distinctive features of their interactional relationship, I have analysed and discussed the key factors with regard to the team teachers’ interactional relationship. Nine factors in three categories (professional, pedagogic, interpersonal factors) were identified as influential: professional motivation, professional readiness, language proficiency, perspectives on teaching English, role sharing and differentiated skills, team strategy, personality, problem/conflict solving, and the power and balance in the partnership (see Table 7.1). Concerning the factors which I have identified as being important from the data analysis, there are three distinctive features in comparison with the factors discussed in previous research.

First of all, most of the key factors presented in the study are compatible with the factors affecting collaboration between teachers that have been reported in previous studies. As seen in Table 8.1, despite some differences in fine detail, the eight factors in three categories have certain similarities with those in previous research.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Current study</th>
<th>Previous research</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional (personal) factors</td>
<td>Professional motivation</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional readiness</td>
<td>knowledge (Luo 2007b); professional capacity (Chen 2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Language proficiency</td>
<td>language (Tsai 2007; Luo 2007b); a teacher’s proficiency of target and host languages (Chen 2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogic (team) factors</td>
<td>Perspectives on team teaching</td>
<td>assumptions about teaching and team teaching (Tsai 2007); sensitivity towards their viewpoints and practices (Carless 2006a); philosophies and attitudes (Jang et al. 2010a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Role sharing and differentiated skills</td>
<td>complementary role sharing (Kim 2011); collaborative culture (Luo 2007b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Team strategy</td>
<td>team strategies (Carless 2006a); team capacity (Chen 2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal factors</td>
<td>Personality</td>
<td>personality (Tsai 2007); personal trait (Chen 2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Problem/conflict solving</td>
<td>willingness to solve conflicts (Kim 2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Power and balance in partnership</td>
<td>collaborative partnership/ compatibilities ( Jang et al. 2010b)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Secondly, among the nine key factors, professional motivation (see Section 7.1.1) was divergent from the comparison of the factors above. As for professional motivation, team teachers’ (un)willingness and (de)motivation to take charge of an English subject or to co-work with their teaching partners had a great effect on the overall interactional relationships. Sections 7.1.1.1 and 7.1.1.2 have demonstrated how the differences in teacher motivation (e.g. willingness, part willingness, semi-imposition and imposition) influenced the team teachers’ engagement and persistence in team teaching. As host teachers in Korean primary schools, the KETs’ willingness played a more critical role in their team teaching implementation than
the willingness of their NETs who are recognised to co-work with KETs in the classrooms under the EPIK scheme (p. 18). Professional motivation can be in line with teachers’ voluntary work relations (Hargreaves 1991) and their own motivation (Igawa 2009).

Thirdly, interpersonal factors (e.g. personality, problem/conflict solving, power and balance in partnership) were most critical in affecting the interactional relationship between team teachers, as stressed by many researchers (Carless 2004a; 2006a; Carless & Walker 2006; Chen 2007; Choi 2001; Luo 2007b). In their team teaching relationship, it was important to understand, compromise and respect each other, in particular when they had different opinions and experienced conflict, miscommunication, and misunderstanding.

8.2 Contributions

The contributions which the research has achieved will be summarised from three main perspectives: research focus and findings, exploration of a wide range of team teaching contexts and methodology.

As mentioned in Section 1.2, there has been surprisingly little qualitative research with a focus on team teachers in Korean EFL contexts. This means that there has been almost no attention to complex, dynamic and multifaceted aspects in teachers’ interaction and relationship in team teaching contexts. The first contribution which this study has made is to investigate this under-researched area through a more sophisticated and data-led understanding of team teaching implementation from the perspective of team teachers. In addition, I delved deeper into team teachers’ relationships through their diverse interactions. In order to do
this, I explored a wide range of contexts related to team teaching. Even though the main research context was a classroom which team teachers engaged in, this specific context reflected the educational context including the EPIK scheme outlined in Chapter Two. Moreover, the description of the detailed school and classroom contexts (Sections 5.1.3, 5.2.3, 5.3.3 and 5.3.4) has supported understanding of each pair of team teachers in their particular context. The diversity of contexts explored made it possible to draw a detailed picture of the complex interplay of how team teaching has been implemented within a big picture. As stated in Section 3.4.2, I tried to understand and present interactive dynamics within the classroom, interconnecting with these complex macro contexts (Holliday 1994).

Most importantly, this research contributed to methodology in terms of multiple methods, rich data sets, and different data-led-approaches to presentation. This study design allowed me to probe in-depth into team teachers, their relationships and their team teaching implementation in their contexts. I obtained rich data generated from a wide range of contexts from the EPIK training programmes to real classroom practices as mentioned in Section 4.3. In this thesis, I have presented the analysis chapters with three different approaches: a narrative approach with a focus on team teachers’ voices in Chapter Five, which was important for gaining insights about their experiences, practices and perspectives; classroom interaction, including teachers’ talk in Chapter Six, which was a key to understand what really happened inside the classroom through actual classroom discourse; a mixed approach from interviews, field notes and photos in Chapter Seven, which provided readers with diverse angles to delineate the same
phenomenon. Through these presentations in descriptive, narrative, reflective and discursive ways, I have elucidated a more detailed team teaching class and provided an insight into its complexity. As mentioned in Section 3.4.3, there has been little research to discuss classroom interaction between team teachers through actual classroom discourse (Fujimoto-Adamson 2005) and little literature on classroom interaction with more than one teacher (see Creese, p. 30). This study contributed to filling such gaps methodologically through the use of multiple methods for data collection and presentation of different analytic approaches. More importantly, I have prioritised spoken forms of data presentation, emphasising two teachers’ classroom interaction. Walsh (2011: 2) argues that ‘any endeavour to improve teaching and learning should begin by looking at classroom interaction’. In this vein, it goes without saying that classroom interaction between team teachers needs to be understood with reference to actual classroom discourse.

Considering that there are few studies on team teachers in a Korean context and that there is a lack of literature on team teachers’ classroom interaction in EFL contexts, my research project has shed further light on the understanding of the EPIK scheme and team teachers and the dynamics of their teaching practices and interactional relationship. Furthermore, this would support future plans for developing team teaching implementation by KETs and NETs and the EPIK scheme for recruiting, training, directing and consulting new NETs and their Korean team partners as well as policy makers, educators and researchers.
8.3 Practical implications

On the basis of the findings in Section 8.1, I will propose some practical implications for the EPIK scheme, schools and team teachers in Korean primary schools.

8.3.1 Implication for the EPIK scheme

8.3.1.1 Recruitment of NETs

As mentioned in Section 2.4.2, Korean primary schools need more English teachers, especially qualified and experienced English teachers, due to an increase in regular English classes per week. In this situation, along with enhancing KETs’ pre-service and continuing professional development, it is necessary to recruit well qualified NETs. As described in Table 5.1 (pp. 119-120), Kevin (Case Three) was the only qualified teacher as an English teacher in terms of educational background and teaching experience. The KETs (Jessica, Mary and Kate) stated that more emphasis needs to be put on recruiting experienced and trained NETs who would be capable and willing to teach English to EFL students. According to NIIED (2012), from 2013 they will strengthen the interview evaluation, the robust initial application aptitude check, and the thorough document screening process to invite the most qualified NET candidates and to maintain and improve upon the recruitment high standards. However, the regulation in the EPIK scheme (see Section 2.4.1, p. 18) seems to have some obstacles to recruit qualified NET candidates. For example, the following eligibility for EPIK seems to have potential problems:

According to the E2 visa law, EPIK teachers should be a citizen of a country where English is the primary language (e.g. Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, South Africa, United Kingdom, the United States of America); must have studied the junior high school level (the 7th grade) and graduated from a university in one of the seven designated countries; Ethnic Koreans with legal residency in a country where English is the primary language can apply,
but must provide proof of English education beginning from the junior high school level. (EPIK 2013)

First of all, the restriction on the seven designated countries stipulated above reveals a preference for native English speaking norms, represented by only the ‘inner circle’ group (Kachru 1985). As Korean society has a strong public faith in the ‘native speaker myth’ (Shim 2008 cited in Park 2008: 149), it is still challenging to recruit NETs from ‘outer circle’ countries (Kachru 1985). However, Kim and Go (2008) raise the issue on recruiting English teachers from the outer circle countries and Park (2008) argues that it is necessary to expand the perception of native speakers and to invite more diverse groups of proficient English speaking ELT professionals to teach Korean students. Secondly, the regulation that ethnic Korean applicants ‘must provide proof of English education beginning from the junior high school level’ seems to be problematic. Ethnic Korean candidates who are well qualified and experienced in ELT would be more beneficial to students and KETs than inexperienced NETs. However, such a regulation causes constraints on recruiting ethnic Koreans in the process of application for EPIK. I experienced a critical incident related to this issue while conducting this study as follows:

My best friend, Michelle, is a public school teacher in Arizona, U.S. She planned to take a one-year leave of absence to take care of her elderly mother in Korea in 2010. When I designed my research, I was wondering how an ethnic Korean NET interacted with KETs and students in a Korean primary school. When I contacted her, she was also interested in my research and teaching primary school students in Korea, and then she applied online in the U.S for EPIK. I thought she might be an ideal bilingual and fully qualified teacher to Korean primary students: learning English and graduating from a university in Korea; teaching Korean young learners for four years in Korea; teaching American students in primary and junior high schools in the U.S. for six years. However, Michelle and I were really surprised that her application was rejected by NIIED. When Michelle contacted NIIED to ask the reason for the refusal, they replied that her
qualification did not meet the EPIK eligibility: she did not study English education beginning from the junior high school level.

I asked Michelle to send me her cover letter and CV stipulating her professional background, certificates and references. The excerpt of her cover letter related to her career in the U.S. would be enough to show her qualification as a teacher.

I am a public school teacher in Casa Grande Elementary School District, AZ, US, and I am taking a one-year leave of absence to take care of my elderly mother in Seoul, Korea. After obtaining a teaching certificate and a Master’s degree in Education at Oregon University, I taught in 5th grade classrooms for four years in public schools: one year in Oregon and three years in Arizona, where I taught multiple subjects, including reading, math, social studies and science. In Arizona, I also have an SEI endorsement (an inclusive ESL (ELL) teaching endorsement), along with a Middle Grade Math endorsement. After four years of Elementary teaching, I decided to change my assignment. I took a Middle Grade Math Test, passed it with almost a perfect score and got a middle grade math endorsement to teach math in middle schools. I taught middle school math for two years, then took a year’s leave of absence for the above stated reason.

Even though I did not grow up speaking English, I feel as though I am highly qualified to teach Korean students the English language and to introduce American culture due to my deep understanding of what learning and mastering a second language entails, as well as my experience of living in the U.S. for 15 years and teaching for 6 years as a public school teacher. My strength lies in my excellent relationships with my students. Students respond well to me, as I am sincere and fun to work with. While teaching fifth grade, many students and their families requested to be in my classroom. I work well with a team and communicate well with staff, students, and parents.

Although the case described above would be exceptionally rare, I felt that it was really ironic to reject such a qualified bilingual teacher, who had over ten years teaching experience in Korea and in the U.S. with full qualifications. The invisible power relations seem to exist in the labels of native and non-native speakers and the race and ethnicity of English language teachers (Kubota & Lin 2006; Javier 2013). NIIED will need to consider modifying the eligibility conditions for NETs in EPIK to
recruit better qualified EPIK candidates. To do so, NIIED should enhance the recruiting system to select EPIK applicants thoroughly with appropriate standards and to be proactive in hiring ethnic Korean NETs who are experienced and qualified in ELT. In addition, it would be potentially important to establish an English teacher resource pool and to enhance an alumni network and community in which EPIK participants are involved in social and professional networking, and volunteering services, for instance in relation to promotion, marketing and planning events, on an ongoing basis. In the same vein, NIIED will start looking for alumni volunteers who are residing in their native countries and willing to support EPIK recruitment from 2013 (EPIK 2012).

8.3.1.2 Teacher training: Onsite orientation and in-service

In this section, I will discuss teacher training for team teachers, focusing on two types of training programmes: the main onsite orientation as pre-service training for new NETs, which I participated in for preliminary work (p. 100), and in-service training for both KETs and NETs. The Metropolitan/Provincial Offices of Education and several institutes including NIIED (National Institute for International Education Development) have provided training programmes to English teachers in public schools. First of all, as described in Figure 2.4 (p. 21), the main onsite orientation is designed for new NETs who are new to Korea or to public school teaching by introducing them to areas such as teaching methodologies and to Korean culture before they are dispatched to primary schools. The NETs in this study agreed that this programme was supportive for new NETs and themselves to glimpse an unfamiliar world and to settle down in new environments. However, as Matthew
and Kevin mentioned in Section 7.1.2.2, there are limitations in the training in how to implement team teaching with KETs appropriately. In addition, Jessica pointed out that onsite orientation was not enough for her less qualified team partner to make up for a lack of knowledge and skills in ELT. This is also the view taken by Park (2008) who argues that the 10 day orientation is not sufficient to provide the participants with the necessary and specific information and skills. While participating in this orientation (see Appendix 6), I felt that it seemed too intensive and challenging for new NETs, particularly for inexperienced teachers, since they had to digest quite broad and multifaceted content within the space of a week. Many researchers (Ahn et al. 1998; Chung et al. 1999; Choi 2001; Min & Ha 2006; Kim 2007; Kim & Go 2008; Park 2008) point out that training programmes need to be improved both in their quantity and quality so as to offer more specific knowledge and information relevant to team teaching. In a similar vein, Wang (2012) emphasises sufficient pre-service training for NETs and NNESTs with more opportunity to practise team teaching in classroom settings in order to explore how team teaching can best serve pedagogy.

Recently, NIIED launched a mandatory online in-service training programme, which consists of 15 units to support team teaching practice and team teachers. In addition to online support, it would be critical to systematically develop in-service training for both KETs and NETs with a focus on team teaching. As team teaching needs two teachers who share responsibilities, it is necessary to train two teachers together before a new semester or during a vacation. A majority of in-service training programmes on team teaching or collaboration between team teachers tend to be one-off workshops or seminars. In this study, Jessica (Case One), as a KET,
and Kevin (Case Three), as a NET, had some experience of demonstrating their team teaching or teaching English to other KETs and NETs in the workshops. However, needless to say, regular in-service training should be designed for and provided to team teachers to promote their learning and professional development by interacting with a team partner and by creating a network of other KETs and NETs to share and exchange new ideas and to find solutions to overcome difficulties in team teaching (see Section 3.1). By pre- and in-service training programmes, KETs and NETs should be trained separately and jointly (Park 2008) and well prepared for team teaching with a better understanding of their partner, learners, curriculum, materials, and teaching contexts.

8.3.2 Implications for schools

8.3.2.1 Mentoring

Along with training programmes outside the school mentioned above, team teachers need continuing and practical support in their teaching context. In this situation, it would be beneficial for team teachers, especially novice teachers, to get ‘support given by one (usually more experienced) person for the growth and learning of another’ (Malderez 2001: 57 cited in Mann & Tang 2012: 476), that is, through some kind of mentoring relationship. As ‘mentoring is an interpersonal, ongoing, situated, supportive and informative professional relationship between two (or more) individuals’ (Bailey et al. 2001: 207), team teachers can have a mentoring relationship between themselves or between other colleagues in school. As described in Chapter Five (Sections 5.1.3, 5.2.3, and 5.3.3), there were at least two different pairs of team teachers in each school and they had more opportunity
to interact with each other than other subject teachers. For example, Mary and James (Case Two) were often supported by a veteran senior KET and an experienced NET separately and jointly in the same school. As presented in Section 5.2.3, when Mary faced problems related to James or teaching practice, she got advice from a senior KET. Meanwhile, James relied on Paul, his more experienced native colleague, to overcome difficulties in teaching and managing his relationship with Mary. In addition, these two pairs of team teachers (Mary and James, a senior KET and an experienced NET) maintained a close relationship with one another and they tried to conduct team teaching with a different partner after swapping each team teacher. Through this process, they had time to discuss some problematic issues, to exchange opinions and ideas with each other, and to find solutions together. Mary and James had mentors in the form of a ‘critical friendship’ (Farrell 2011: 368) in their context. As for Jessica and Matthew’s relationship, Jessica played a role in mentoring Matthew, who had no teaching experience, offering a wide range of support despite some features of ‘hierarchical apprenticeship’ (Carter & Francis 2001 cited in Mann & Tang 2012: 484). Considering that a majority of NETs are less experienced or less qualified in teaching English, more experienced KETs should be proactive in supporting them. As mentioned in Section 7.1.2.2, Matthew learned more from Jessica through team teaching than through training programmes, which emphasises the importance of more experienced KETs’ guidance. Moreover, Jessica supported another inexperienced KET who took charge of English team teaching with Matthew. As Richards and Farrell (2005: 169) suggests, veteran team teachers need to guide, support and mentor novice
teachers. Team teachers themselves need to be willing to take advantage of mentoring adapted for their own teaching contexts.

8.3.2.2 Team and collaborative reflection

According to Zepke (2003: 170), reflection is ‘a process to help us learn from our own or others’ experiences and to turn that learning into action’. Even though self-monitoring/observation or individual reflection is valuable and necessary, team or collaborative reflection might be more relevant to team teaching. In this sense, peer coaching and peer observation can be forms of reflective practice which would be healthy for enhancing their teaching skills and ‘companionship’ (Benedetti 1997: 41 cited in Bailey et al. 2001: 216). As stated in Section 3.1, a collaborative and sharing culture in schools plays a key role in enhancing collegiality, teacher learning and development (Johnson 2006; Little 2003; Meirink et al. 2007).

As presented in Case Two, two pair of team teachers (Mary and James, Lee and Paul) in the school exchanged ideas and supported one another to develop themselves as an English teacher and learn from a different team. However, in team teaching contexts, two teachers can also support each other through watching a video recording of their teaching and commenting on it together, a process known as stimulated recall (Lyle 2003). For instance, after Mary was advised by a senior KET to monitor her team teaching, Mary and James video-recorded their team teaching in a classroom. Then, they watched it together, asked questions, offered feedback and advice to each other and discussed some problems which they recognised. Moreover, they invited a senior KET to comment on their practice. In an interview with her, Mary reflected on this process as ‘a positive and
valuable experience’ in her teaching and relationship with James. Mann and Walsh (forthcoming: 6) emphasise ‘dialogic processes of collaborative reflection’ through interaction with self and other colleagues, which is beyond learning from other colleagues. In light of this, it would be worthwhile for team teachers to make use of team or collaborative reflection in their contexts by the use of teachers’ own transcripts and the use of video-recordings to facilitate a process of reflective practice (Mann & Walsh ibid.: 13). This reflective process can help them gain close understanding of the complex relationship with a team partner through interactional features including their language used in a class.

8.3.3 Implications for team teachers

8.3.3.1 Team strategy

Among the four cases, Jessica and Matthew (Case One) had a high level of satisfaction with their situation, both in terms of their team partner and the positive experience of their team teaching implementation. In particular, as presented in Section 7.2.3, they had clearly distinctive team operation skills, that is, a team strategy that they had mutual understanding about as well as agreement on pedagogical approaches. The team strategy developed by Jessica and Matthew enabled them to organise their team teaching effectively and harmoniously from lesson planning to follow-up work. The official website of NIIED currently posts video records and essays (KETs and NETs) which are selected in the contests to introduce good models of co-teaching practice and to share teaching and living experiences. Such resources or a prescribed handbook can be helpful to new NETs and novice KETs at an initial stage. However, the success of particular approaches
to one team might not be applicable to other teams due to a number of varying factors which each case has. In addition, as Fanselow (1990: 196 cited in Smith 1994: 87) argues, useful prescriptions could prevent team teachers from exploration and such exploration would be a key in diverse contexts and conditions which team teachers operate in. Even though trainers, educators, and scholars propose guidance or suggestions for good practices or successful team teaching, ultimately team teachers need to explore, create, and develop their own team strategy suitable for their teaching conditions and contexts. To do this, team teachers themselves will be aware of the necessity of their team strategy and make good use of reflective practice mentioned above or case studies on team teaching with team partners and other colleagues.

8.3.3.2 Relationship management

Along with team strategy, it is necessary for team teachers to maintain a good relationship with each other in order to foster teacher collaboration. As mentioned in 3.4.4, interpersonal factors play a critical role in relationship building or rapport management between team teachers in intercultural team teaching (Carless 2004a). In particular, Section 7.3.2 has presented a diversity of conflicts and tensions which the team teachers in each case experienced with their partner, caused by misunderstanding, miscommunication, disagreement and cultural differences. When team teachers confront such conflicts with their team partners, the way they communicate with each other and find out some solutions together could develop or hinder their relationship. As stated by Jessica and Mary, team teachers need to know their partners, understand individual and cultural differences and have an
open mind to communicate with each other. Thus, individual team teachers should be aware of interpersonal skills and sensitivity (Carless 2004; 2006a) such as ‘willingness to compromise’, ‘empathy for the views of the partner’ (Carless & Walker 2006: 473) and ‘professional respect’ (Bailey et al. 1992; Benoit & Haugh 2001; Struman 1992 cited in Tsai 2007: 188).

8.4 Limitations

Despite the contributions mentioned in Section 8.2, there are potential limitations in this study. The most challenging issue that I faced was to gain access to team teachers, particularly KETs. As discussed in the methodology chapter, most of the team teachers that I had contacted were reluctant to be involved in my research. Even though I succeeded in gaining access to the four pairs of team teachers in four different schools, each case had some variables in terms of a range of data sets and data collection conditions. For example, as Jessica and Matthew (Case One) and Kate and Robert (Case Four) stayed in the subject teachers’ rooms which other teachers share, I visited there only once to avoid harm to other teachers and to protect their ‘privacy’ (Richards 2003: 140) in a common place. As for Rona and Kevin (Case Three), I was allowed to video-record only their teaching practice in the classroom. Consequently, I had to rely more on interview data on their lesson planning or follow-up work in some cases, which meant each case varied in its details and in the length of data presentation in this thesis. In addition, due to limited space, the presentation of interview data largely omitted the interviewer (a researcher) role in the production of data, which did not provide the representation of ‘co-construction’ between interviewer and interviewee (Mann2010: 14).
When it comes to interactional relationships between the team teachers, I excluded several influential factors: contextual variables (e.g. classroom facilities, allocated time for solo or team taught classes, the number of team teachers, and school atmosphere) and systemic or logistical factors (e.g. time for planning and preparation, workload, and administrative support). Moreover, as I have focused more on the interactions inside the classroom, I might have lacked an insight to be gained from exploring the different dynamics between the two teachers outside the classroom or beyond the school.

8.5 Recommendations for further research

From my experience in this study, I will provide some recommendations for other researchers and further research. Firstly, further studies need to be conducted for a longer term in order to examine long-term changes or development in their teaching practices or relationships to gain deeper insights about team teaching. When I designed my research, I had planned a one-year longitudinal study to explore team teachers and their team teaching implementation from the very beginning stage (an on-site orientation programme for new native English speaking teachers in some cases) to the end of an academic year (a need for two semesters). However, I had to conduct data collection for over six months including one academic semester due to challenging issues in real research fields, as stated in Section 8.4 (e.g. difficulty in permissions from NIID, team teachers and schools). In addition, in the first semester when two team teachers tend to be busy, sensitive and careful in getting to know each other, it is much harder to gain access to teachers and schools at this time. That was why I had to collect data after the first
semester when two teachers seemed more relaxed to open their classrooms to the outsider (a researcher). Secondly, it is necessary for researchers to be aware of some issues affecting interviews (e.g. (under)rapport with teachers, balance between team teachers’ perspectives and interpretations). In addition, it is important to be involved in ‘reflection on interview data’ (Mann 2010: 19) during the whole interview process, which can have a great impact on both production and representation of interview data.

Thirdly, it might be useful to employ a stimulated recall protocol with teachers. This would enable a researcher to understand the original situation and the rationale behind their team teaching practice. Additionally, using the participant teachers’ journals will help obtain the process of team teaching through their reflection. Fourthly, according to specific research aims, it would be beneficial to investigate team teachers with more diversity (e.g. personal background, experience, nationality) or with a specific focus (e.g. Korean immigrants as NETs) and to extend research fields to outside the classroom or beyond the school.

8.6 Concluding remarks

Along with the nationwide implementation of the EPIK scheme, team teaching practice has been common in Korean EFL classrooms. However, there have been sceptical perspectives on team teaching between KETs and NETs and an ongoing discussion of policy changes related to the EPIK scheme and English education. In this situation, it was critical to understand the team teaching currently being implemented by KETs and NETs and team teachers in their contexts.
In this thesis, I have reported on my investigation of the four pairs of team teachers and their team teaching implementation in Korean primary schools with a focus on the interactional relationships between them. Based on multiple data sets, and more importantly, classroom interaction data, this study has presented a perspective on a diversity of team teaching implementation. Each case of the team teachers in a different context had constraints as well as potential for team teaching practices. To gain a rich and thorough understanding of team teaching, it was important to explore the ways the team teachers interacted with their team partner in the classroom and the different types of relationships they formed and developed through collaboration.

Even though I did not have any evaluative attitudes toward each case, I was impressed in different ways by each case of team teachers, in particular Case One (Jessica and Matthew) because this case showed the fundamental picture of greater possibilities for team teaching. As described in Chapter Five, Six, and Seven, Jessica and Matthew had a highly complementary relationship and were willing to compromise in order to team teach harmoniously, collaboratively and effectively. Their relationship seemed to be a sustained and evolving partnership in integrating and achieving successful team teaching in a classroom. Jessica and Matthew were seen to have an unequal power relationship in many aspects but both of them were willing to respect, compromise, and learn from each other. Jessica was proactive in guiding, training, and mentoring Matthew, who had no teaching experience, whereas Matthew was eager to learn what he lacked from Jessica, develop his career as a novice English teacher and support her enthusiastically. As depicted in Appendix 1, their collaborative interactional relationship consists of positive
elements such as learning, rapport management, willingness, motivation, team strategy, and partnership.

As mentioned earlier, success of particular approaches taken by one case cannot necessarily be the best way for other cases of team teachers. However, through this kind of case study, other team teachers can exchange ideas and information, share teaching practice and experience and solve similar problems together. In addition, it is also necessary for team teachers to be aware of problematic issues or constraints which they confront in their situations, discuss them with team partners with an open mind, and diagnose issues connected with their teaching practice by themselves and from other colleagues who have team teaching experience. Along with support from outside the school, ultimately, teachers taking charge of English team teaching need to be proactive in changing, learning, and developing team teaching and their professionalism as an English teacher. Furthermore, as mentioned in the practical implementation section, there should be communication between the participants involved in the EPIK scheme (e.g. EPIK administrators, recruiters, policy makers, trainers, educators, team teachers, etc.) in order to improve the current scheme and teaching practice.
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Appendix 1. Sample of Interview questions

1. Personal, educational, and professional backgrounds

1) Can you tell me about your personal background (regarding your nationality, any reasons or aims to come to Korea, any experience of living or working in any other country, interest in ELT in primary schools, etc.)?
2) Can you describe your educational background (e.g. degrees, certificates, or teacher education programmes or training, etc.)?
3) Can you tell me about your professional background (e.g. teaching career, changes or professional development as an English teacher, plan for the next academic year, etc.)?
4) What is your opinion about team teaching with NETs/KETs? Why?
5) What emphasis do you put on teaching English to primary students?

2. Team teaching experience

6) Can you describe your experience with a current team partner in this academic year?
7) To what extent are you satisfied with your current team teaching practice, a team partner, and context? What makes you think so?
8) What are the benefits or the challenges in your team teaching experience?
9) Compared to previous team teaching experience or the first semester, are there any changes or influences in your current team teaching?

3. Team teaching implementation

10) Which teaching style would you prefer? Why?
11) To what extent, in which aspect, and how do you think you have collaboration with a partner?
12) Can you describe your team teaching preparation (e.g. lesson planning)?
13) What roles do you usually play in your class? How about your team partner’s roles?
14) What are your responsibilities?
15) In which aspect do you feel you support a partner? In which aspect do you think you are supported by a partner?

4. Relationship between team teachers

16) To what extent do you feel your relationship with a partner is developed?
17) What is the most challenge in your relationship with a partner?
18) Do you have any conflicts or trouble with a partner (if so, what happened, reasons, how to solve the problems, etc.)?
19) What specific role do you have in your relationship?
20) What kind of socialising do you have after work/ during a vacation?
Appendix 2. Sample of field note (Case One)

Matthew was standing on the left side from the blackboard, near the computer and Jessica was on the right side. (The positions of the two teachers showed the roles clearly; operating computer and leading the game vs. scoring and encouraging students’ participation actively) Matthew picked up another spoon and called out the number one. Two teachers and other students stared at the students in group one but they were silent because they did not decide two numbers of cards. After waiting for a while (a couple of minutes), Jessica counted down ‘Three’ and Matthew counted ‘Two’ to the class subsequently. (It seemed that Jessica did not intend to break the flow of moves in the game and Matthew noticed her intention by counting down). One student in group one called out two numbers but two cards showed ‘cooking’ and ‘cleaning’. When the first card was changed to a ‘cooking’ picture, some students answered it as ‘singing’ incorrectly. Immediately Jessica made a cooking gesture and corrected the wrong answer. The next turn was followed by the students in group five who were sitting in the front rows closest to Jessica. The students discussed each other to decide two numbers and Jessica encouraged them to say numbers loudly to the whole class. (The students in group five were likely to be passive and shy or lower level). The cards were a mismatched pair and some students raised hands to get a chance regardless the game rules. Matthew selected the spoon marked with number six and a student chose two numbers which matched with ‘cleaning’ each other. Jessica marked one point by drawing a circle on the board, praising them. Group six got one point and the students in group six were cheering. While Matthew was picking up another spoon, Jessica asked the whole class to read the word on the screen more loudly both in Korean and in English and suggested she would give an extra point to the group who would read the word loudly and actively. (Jessica was likely to link the game to key word forms and emphasize more opportunity for students to speak aloud in English).

Codes: mutual support (complementary); role sharing and balance; J’s leading & multiple roles (position); co-presentation; J’s code-switching & L1 use
Appendix 3. Samples of Research Journal

01-09-2010
I realized that I forgot to ask Ms. U to record the classroom by my digital camera so I sent her a text message to ask her permission. However, she told me it would be impossible to allow me to video record her English class because it was necessary for me to get permission from school. It means I will have to concentrate on field notes and to be sensitive to all the aspects of classroom situations but focusing on my topic and issues.

02-09-2010
Ms. U gave me a ring to inform me of a NET’s absence because of her sickness. I am getting nervous and tired. My friend told me an English teacher in a primary school where her son goes. I succeed to contact her and she would ask my observation to her NET in their classroom.

03-09-2010
Ms. J, an English teacher in a primary teacher, gave me a ring to say that I could video record her class as well as observe her class on Sep. 14. Thanks God!!!

04-09-2010
I emailed Kelly who started teaching in Ganwon province, specifically Jeongsun. She was Korean-American who I met in NIIE and chatted simply. Her case seemed attractive and interesting to investigate bilingual teachers’ careers, life, or beliefs, and so on. Also, I contacted two English teachers in primary schools to meet personally before my classroom observation. It is necessary to make rapport and appropriate understanding of my research aims and procedures. But I am nervous to worry about their unwillingness or reluctances. I decided to meet Ms. J one week earlier than the classroom observation schedule so I contacted her and made an appointment at her school on 10th Sep.

07-09-2010
Kelly sent email with her non-fiction essay awarded in Hangook daily newspaper. While reading her essay, I found her previous teaching experience in a junior high school presented a variety of episodes and emotional changes. It deserved being awarded. Her essay and her experience gave me new ideas or a diversity of issues related to teacher identity, culture, language, motivation, professional development, etc. Finally I could observe an English class taught by a NET and a KET in GXXXX primary school with the help of Ms. U. Oh... I was slightly disappointed at their teaching style and a lack of collaboration between two teachers. I’m wondering whether other schools are similar to this class.

09-09-2013
I had a meeting with a primary English teacher who I had met at NIIED. She was a lecturer to introduce the primary school curriculum to new NETs participating in the EPIK training session. We talked about a lot of issues related to NETs, EPIK, and co-working with NETs. I tried to ask her to be one of my participants in my research but she was unwilling to do it, requesting official documents from public offices such as government, SMOE, ministry of
education, etc. Her case must be a good case for me but I would not like to push her with political or social power from other parties.

10-09-2010
I went to HXXX primary school in Geonggi where is a little far away from my place. I was nervous and to some extent excited to be meeting the first teacher who showed the willingness of participation in my research. When I arrived at the English classroom on the 3rd floor, brown wooden entrance door was closed. Knocking to the door, I opened the door and saw Ms. J and her co-teacher James sitting on their chairs. They welcomed me with a big smile. Ms. J asked me what I would like to drink and she made an instant coffee for me. Before talking about my research, I introduced myself to James, a NET co-working with Ms. J. Then I had time to talk with Ms. J, having coffee. She was really kind and warm hearted. In particular, she told me she was doing her master degree so she could understand my difficult situation to look for cases fully. In addition, she asked me about research processes, data and what I needed. While talking with her, I could relieve some stress and tension on my research process. I got her basic background, career, interesting experience and interest. Her support made me pleasant and encouraged.

11-09-2010
Ms. Y gave me a ring to inform some contacts with other teachers because she has a wide range of relationship with teachers, principals and educators. She contacted several principals and asked me to visit their schools next week. I realized that meeting with principals seemed uneasy but it could be another chance for me to access to schools and teachers.

14-09-2010
HJ school: 6th grade classroom observation
   2 session (9:50~10:30)
   3 session (10:40~11:20)
   4 session (11:30~12:10)
After lunch time, I had interviews with a KET and a NET respectively. It was the first interview and observation that made me quite nervous and excited. Their interviews seemed quite invaluable... I am look forward to the next meeting with them.

22-09-2010
Korean Thanksgiving Day (holiday)

28-09-2010
Cancellation of meeting with principals in schools (organized by Ms. Yeom) Reschedule.

30-09-2010
Cancellation of meeting with principals in schools (organized by Ms. Yeom) Reschedule.
Appendix 4. Letter (Participant teacher)

My name is Jaeyeon Heo, a doctoral student in the Centre for Applied Linguistics at the University of Warwick, UK. I am conducting some research for my doctoral thesis and currently I am in the process of collecting data. I would like to introduce my study to you and to ask whether you would be willing to participate in this study.

**Purpose**
The purpose of the study is to gain a better understanding of actual interactions between native and Korean English teachers inside and outside English classrooms with a particular focus on what and how English team teachers learn from the colleagues they team teach with in Korean primary school English classrooms.

**Procedures/Tasks**
The duration of this study would be one school semester (Sep. 2010 – Dec. 2010). Once English team teachers have agreed to participate in this study, the researcher will (1) observe teachers’ classes, (2) ask reflective questions about their teaching practice when they have free time, (3) participate in some of the teaching meetings and discussions, (4) conduct several formal interviews with participants, focusing on teachers’ general teaching practice and collaborative experiences. The timing of interviews and observations will be negotiated and determined by participants’ teaching schedules, their personal preferences and permission.

**Confidentiality**
The fundamental rights and dignity of participants will be respected and confidentiality and privacy will be assured. Every effort will be made to keep participants’ study-related information confidential and safe. Please be assured that any action, including teaching practice conducted and organized by participants will not be judged and evaluated.

I would be very grateful if you could sign this consent form. Your signature indicates that, having read the information provided above, you have decided to participate. I appreciate your cooperation and assistance.

Signature __________________                    Data __________________

Yours sincerely,

Contacts and Questions:
For questions, concerns, or further information about the study, please feel free to contact.
Jaeyeon Heo +44 (0)7576 324 810 or J.Heo@warwick.ac.uk or jenny_jyheo@yahoo.co.uk
Appendix 5. Informed Consent form (Participants)

Title of Project: Team teaching between a KET and a NET in Korean primary schools

Researcher: Jaeyeon HEO

Institution: Centre for Applied Linguistics, University of Warwick, UK

Please Initial Box

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet dated 10/09/2010 for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason, without my medical care or legal rights being affected.

3. I understand that this study will store my basic personal information.

4. I understand that my information will be held and processed for the following purposes:
   - To be used anonymously for internal publication for an PhD project and submitted for assessment with a view to being published in academic journals /conferences.
   - I understand that quotations from the web survey may be used in writing up the results of the research and that these will always be anonymous and not attributed to me in any way.

5. I understand that the interview can last over 60 minutes, and will be audio-recorded and classroom observation will be video-recorded

6. I agree to take part in the above study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Participant</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Signature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Researcher</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Signature</th>
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</table>
### Appendix 6. EPIK Orientation Programme (August, 2010)

#### 1. August 2010 EPIK Orientation Schedule

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time &amp; Date</th>
<th>9:00am-10:30am</th>
<th>10:50am-12:20pm</th>
<th>2:00pm-3:30pm</th>
<th>3:50pm-5:20pm</th>
<th>6:00pm-</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8.20 (Fri)</td>
<td>Self-study (9:00–9:50)</td>
<td>Opening Ceremony (3:00pm)</td>
<td>Lunch (12:30–13:20)</td>
<td>Dinner (6:00–7:00pm)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.21 (Sat)</td>
<td>Medical Check-up (9:00–10:30)</td>
<td>EPIC Life (Kendra Brown)</td>
<td>Class Meeting (1–4)</td>
<td>Survival Korean Lessons (7:00–8:30pm)</td>
<td>Korean Movies (8:30–9:00pm)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.22 (Sun)</td>
<td>Korean Cultural Experience (Korean Folk Village &amp; Oryeongji Arts Centre)</td>
<td>Being Active in the Classroom (Matthew Walker)</td>
<td>Project-based Learning (Korea Bennett)</td>
<td>Classroom Management (Jim H. Cho)</td>
<td>Being Active in the Classroom (Matthew Walker)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.23 (Mon)</td>
<td>Project-Based Learning (Korea Bennett)</td>
<td>Classroom Management (Jim H. Cho)</td>
<td>Epistemology (Korea Bennett)</td>
<td>Classroom Management (Jim H. Cho)</td>
<td>Epistemology (Korea Bennett)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.24 (Tue)</td>
<td>Classroom Activities Using Multiple Intelligences (Glenn Allen)</td>
<td>Active English (Neville Bowers)</td>
<td>Lesson Planning (Maggie Quinn)</td>
<td>Classroom Activities Using Multiple Intelligences (Glenn Allen)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8.25 (Wed)</td>
<td>Active English (Neville Bowers)</td>
<td>Lesson Planning (Maggie Quinn)</td>
<td>Classroom Activities Using Multiple Intelligences (Glenn Allen)</td>
<td>English Fever (Kyma Kim)</td>
<td>Active English (Neville Bowers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.26 (Thur)</td>
<td>Lesson Planning (Maggie Quinn)</td>
<td>Classroom Activities Using Multiple Intelligences (Glenn Allen)</td>
<td>English Fever (Kyma Kim)</td>
<td>Active English (Neville Bowers)</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.27 (Fri)</td>
<td>Lesson Presentation 1</td>
<td>Lesson Presentation 2</td>
<td>Lesson Presentation 3</td>
<td>Lesson Presentation 4</td>
<td>Fun Night (7:00–9:00)</td>
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*Schedule is subject to change without a prior notice.*
### Appendix 7. Schedules of research fieldwork

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Classroom observations</th>
<th>Interviews (K &amp; N)</th>
<th>Preliminary meeting</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Case 1</strong></td>
<td>Jessica &amp; Matthew</td>
<td>15/10/2010</td>
<td>13/10/10 15/10/10 01/11/10 08/12/10 21/12/10 11/05/11</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>14/10/2010</td>
<td>14/10/10 19/10/10 05/11/10 03/12/10 13/05/11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>18/10/2010</td>
<td>18/10/10 29/10/10 12/11/10 16/11/10 31/01/11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Case 2</strong></td>
<td>Mary &amp; James</td>
<td>14/09/2010</td>
<td>10/09/10 14/10/10 19/10/10 05/11/10 03/12/10 13/05/11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19/10/2010</td>
<td>14/10/10 19/10/10 05/11/10 03/12/10 13/05/11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>03/12/2010</td>
<td>14/10/10 19/10/10 05/11/10 03/12/10 13/05/11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>22/12/2010</td>
<td>14/10/10 19/10/10 05/11/10 03/12/10 22/12/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Case 3</strong></td>
<td>Rona &amp; Kevin</td>
<td>22/10/2010</td>
<td>22/10/10 29/10/10 12/11/10 16/11/10 31/01/11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12/11/2010</td>
<td>22/10/10 29/10/10 12/11/10 16/11/10 31/01/11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>16/11/2010</td>
<td>22/10/10 29/10/10 12/11/10 16/11/10 31/01/11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>17/12/2010</td>
<td>22/10/10 29/10/10 12/11/10 16/11/10 31/01/11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Case 4</strong></td>
<td>Kate &amp; Robert</td>
<td>13/10/2010</td>
<td>13/10/10 14/10/10 28/10/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>14/10/2010</td>
<td>13/10/10 14/10/10 28/10/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>27/10/2010</td>
<td>13/10/10 14/10/10 28/10/10</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>28/10/2010</td>
<td>13/10/10 14/10/10 28/10/10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Appendix 8. Example of category generation (team teaching implementation)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Sub-category</th>
<th>Case One</th>
<th>Case Two</th>
<th>Case Three</th>
<th>Case Four</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lesson planning</td>
<td>engagement</td>
<td>J &amp; M</td>
<td>M &amp; J</td>
<td>R &amp; K</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>meeting</td>
<td></td>
<td>once a week (regular base)</td>
<td>depending on R’s plan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>place</td>
<td>subject teachers’ room</td>
<td>English Only Classroom</td>
<td>subject teachers’ room</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>role sharing</td>
<td>J: key points</td>
<td>each activity which each one prepared</td>
<td>each activity which each one prepared</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>decision-making</td>
<td>J &gt;&gt; M</td>
<td>M &gt; J</td>
<td>K &gt;&gt; R</td>
<td>R: independence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>support</td>
<td>J&gt;&gt; M</td>
<td>M &gt; J</td>
<td>K =&gt; R</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>M: planning lessons, materials, etc.</td>
<td>J: matching Ss’ level, order, etc.</td>
<td>R: materials, modify an activity, etc.</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction</td>
<td>engagement</td>
<td>J ≥ M</td>
<td>M &gt; J</td>
<td>K (R: limited)</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>location</td>
<td>front</td>
<td>front</td>
<td>K: front, R: side</td>
<td>R: front, K: back</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>features of presentation</td>
<td>co-presentation, one lead &amp; one support (≥M)</td>
<td>co-presentation, one lead &amp; one support (≥M)</td>
<td>solo presentation (limited R’s engagement)</td>
<td>solo presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>planned &amp; unplanned</td>
<td>planned</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>modelling, role-play</td>
<td>mainly role-play</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>focusing skill &amp; content role</td>
<td>KET (J &amp; M): grammar, vocabulary, writing, comprehension check, review</td>
<td>K: grammar, vocabulary, listening, speaking, individual, choral drill</td>
<td>R: listening, speaking, individual &amp; choral drill</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>NET (M &amp; J): listening, speaking, individual &amp; choral drill</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>K: L2 &amp; L1</td>
<td>R: L2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>support</td>
<td>J = M</td>
<td>M ≥ J</td>
<td>K ≥ R</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>operating computer,</td>
<td>preparing an activity</td>
<td>L1 support, preparing</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>preparing an activity</td>
<td>an activity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decision-making</td>
<td>J ≥ M</td>
<td>M &gt; J</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>J ≥ M</td>
<td>K &gt; R</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intervention</td>
<td>J &gt;&gt; M</td>
<td>M &gt;&gt; J</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R &amp; K</td>
<td>R</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R &amp; K</td>
<td>R</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom management</td>
<td>J &amp; M before &amp; after a class: assignment check, review a lesson</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>role sharing</td>
<td>J &amp; M before &amp; after a class: assignment check, review a lesson</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>discipline</td>
<td>J: punishment, scolding M: reward, circulating</td>
<td>M ≥ J</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M: individual Ss J: whole class</td>
<td>K &gt; R</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K: reward, point system R: individual Ss</td>
<td>R &gt;&gt; K</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>after a class: review a lesson (password)</td>
<td>R</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N/A after a class: review a lesson (password)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>evaluator</td>
<td>KETs’ main responsibility (J, M, R, K): regular exams</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M: assessing group work</td>
<td>J: grading Ss’ speaking test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>designing and grading Ss’ regular exams, checking notebooks, handling official documents</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follow-up work</td>
<td>KETs</td>
<td>N/A (PPTs, worksheets)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M: helping grade exams, writing comments for Ss’ feedback</td>
<td>R: updating teaching materials (PPTs, video clips)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K: updating teaching materials (PPTs, worksheets)</td>
<td>R: updating teaching materials (PPTs, video clips)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative work for NETs</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>KETs’ duty performance reports, official documents for visa, contract process, etc.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socialising</td>
<td>Inside the school lunch and tea break with other colleagues lunch, tea break, regular meeting with another team lunch with other colleagues</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Official dinners casual meeting for dinner, cinema, etc.</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contact email, facebook</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Email</td>
<td>Email</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 9. Initial comments and memos
### Appendix 10. Sample of categorisation and codification (Jessica’s interview)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data</th>
<th>Comments</th>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I: I really enjoy your class. K: We have only two activities today. I: So I think you’ve prepared them more than usual in advance (as you knew my visit before) K: Oh, no. It’s not true. That can be one reason why I like team teaching, as I shall not prepare perfectly all by myself. We should prepare the class fully before as we both should perform it. I should have improvised the lessons time to time without team teaching. <strong>Perfect preparation</strong>, this can be a <strong>key advantage of team teaching</strong>, I believe. So we should find all related files, pictures and posters and I should make up my <strong>lack of classroom English</strong> with help from him. And I can be constantly in a good mood by the end of class without being exhausted. I don’t have to say ‘Write this five times’ only to pass the time and for my relaxing time. We both, he and I can work with full energy…. I prefer team teaching to my solo teaching I: Ah…yeah. Both of you manage it well. K: Yes, it’s a great point. It will be difficult to lead and guide those teen agers alone. I: Your students are very good in class. K: Yes, I agree. But I think it’s a kind of advantage, so called a ‘<strong>Matt Effect</strong>’ in class.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Willingness of team teaching</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I: You are very positive to work with native teachers. K: Right. I want to go on it. I: Then what is your opinion for the people who have negative perspectives on this system? K: eumm… first around fifty percent, the habitude of native teachers should be responsible for it. It’s important for the creed or professional ethics of the person. I’ve heard there is a native teacher taking a sick-leave for ten days in a month… if I meet that kind of one, then… it must be very hard to work with, yes, the first fifty percent, the rest is on Korean teachers who should guide them (NETs) in a right way at first. At the beginning of a new semester, Korean team partner should help them to follow the right rules, to settle at this</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Proactive in guiding new NETs</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
professional job and also to stimulate them to work hard. Then the native teachers can make right standards and develop themselves in two to three months. Otherwise, both Korean and native teachers would have hard time during the rest of a full year.

| I: Do both of you prepare the lesson plan in advance? | trial & error period reason for J’s active involvement (learning from previous TT experience & former partner) | Lesson planning
| K: Yes. At the beginning... two years ago, I was unhappy because the former English team teacher was so much dependent on me and I had to prepare the class almost by myself, from A to Z. After that, I decided not to do this kind of work again. This year I changed my mind and I tried to make a new NET study and develop his career if necessary. I asked him to make his own plan and follow my guidance. But it was also not easy because he didn’t know our basics like PPP...yes, he couldn’t know... although he got a BA degree and was trained during a short period. So he chose just activities every day without any purpose. | J’s proactive in guiding M | previous Team teaching experience
| | J’s intention to encourage M to explore his own way to develop his capability as a teacher | |
| | J’s role as a trainer | |
| | Relationship: trainer & trainee, | |
| I: Then... class could be over after doing only games. | using ‘memo’ (developing their own way to process a lesson planning) | Lesson planning
| K: Right. At first I accepted them although I didn’t agree his way. Then from the second semester, I gave him a note, we call it memo. I gave him some guidance like number one motivation, number two look at and speak number three activity number four test. And today’s homework shall be like this and last, the target point for the expression. Then he completes teacher’s talk according to the lesson plan form, I have intensified this part to avoid rambling and for the comprehension check.... Then he gives me some feedback like ‘I will do this when we explain games’. We exchanged opinions and then complete the lesson plan. After that, we collect related materials. There are so many shared resources in websites like this memory game, we can change only the content. Just after the first class, we exchanged feedback, we call it ‘guinea pig’ and adjust some activities later. Then we make progress from the second class and perform a perfect one at last. Although he said ‘I’m sick and tired of this video clip’ in the sixth class, the last one. Consequently I feel contented all the way. | J’s guidance, highlighting the importance of teacher’s talk → not too long, simplifying word | Team strategy: Mutual agreement, Exchanging feedback, Guinea pig
| | J’s checking up M’s plans → M follows her style | |
| | Power relationship: Professionally experienced vs. inexperienced | |
| | Role relationship: Master vs. apprentice | |

Lesson planning
Appendix 11. Sample diagram of themes and categorisation
Appendix 12. Grouping thematic scripts
Appendix 13. Transcription conventions and abbreviations

Extract 1 - 47

K\textsuperscript{24} Korean English subject teacher \textbf{bold} louder than surrounding talk

N native English speaking teacher : syllable

S\# individual student = latched utterances

Ss several students \textasciicircum \textasciicircum quieter than surrounding talk

G\# a group (XXXX) unclear talk

C a whole class \textgreater \textless quicker than surrounding talk

\{(\ )\} non-verbal actions [ ] onset and end of overlap

\{\ } translation in Korean . falling intonation contour

\ldots pauses of varying lengths ! animated tone

\textit{Italics} description \textbf{?} rising intonation contour

\textbf{INT} Interview

\textbf{FN} Field note

\textsuperscript{24} In all of the extracts presented in this thesis, K and N are identified as the Korean English subject teacher and the native English speaking teacher in each case instead of stipulating each one’s name.