The roles of teachers and school culture in the JET (Japan Exchange and Teaching) Programme: an ethnographic case study

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Abstract

Aiming at internationalisation, the Japanese government initiated the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Programme in 1987 by introducing team-teaching by Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) and young graduates from overseas as Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) into English language classrooms throughout Japanese public schools. Previous studies have shown that there have been, in some cases, a lack of interaction and collaboration between the JTEs and ALTs. However, these studies tended to focus mainly on classroom activities and consequently the teams were found to be the main cause of ineffective teaching and learning.

In order to gain a deeper understanding of these team-teaching interactions and problems, the conceptual framework of this ethnographic case study was based on Holliday's concept of small cultures and Lave and Wenger's theory of communities of practice. It aimed to explore how team teachers' (JTEs' and ALTs') perceived and actual roles are influenced by school cultures, as well as which aspects of the school cultures could impact on the effectiveness of the JET Programme. It also investigated the ways in which the ALTs are welcomed and accepted into the schools as well as how the ALTs cope with the contexts of specific school settings and cultures. Data for the study were obtained from 4 ALTs, 7 JTEs, 3 administrative teachers and 1 PE teacher through semi-structured individual interviews, observations of team-taught lessons of 5 teams and school activities outside the classrooms which ALTs attended, as well as fieldnotes, artefacts and documents.

The findings revealed the complexities of the school cultures (as small cultures) and the effect that these cultures have on the perspectives of ALTs and JTEs, their roles and contributions and on the relationships between the ALTs and JTEs. The cultures also strongly affected the roles of schools as teachers' professional learning and development communities (communities of practice). This study suggests that the JET Programme needs to be tailored to the specific culture, and that influential people in each school should be involved to overcome any difficulties caused by cultural aspects. These approaches may create supportive professional development communities within the schools and improve collaboration between the JTEs and ALTs.

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List of Abbreviations

ALTs	Native-speaking Assistant Language (or English) Teachers
BOE	Local Boards of Education
CLAIR	The Council of Local Authorities for International Relations
CLT	Communicative language teaching
CoP	Communities of practice
EFL	English as a foreign language
EIL	English as an International Language
ELF	English as a lingua franca
EPIK	The English Programme in Korea
ESID	Every situation is different
FETIT	Foreign English Teachers in Taiwan Programme
IE	International Exchange course
IEL	Intensive English Learning course
INSET	In-service training
JET	The Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme
JTEs	Japanese teachers of English
L1	First language
L2	Second language
LPP	Legitimate peripheral participation
MEXT	The National Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan
MIC	The Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications of Japan
MOFA	The Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Japan
NESTs	Native English-speaking teachers
NET	The Native-speaking English teachers' Programme in Hong Kong
NSs	Native speakers of English
NSTs	Native-speaking teachers of English
NNSs	Non-native speakers of English

NNSTs   Non-native-speaking teachers of English

SLA   Second language acquisition

TEFL   Teaching English as a foreign language

TESOL   Teaching English to speakers of other languages

Chapter 1
Introduction

Introduction

The Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Programme is one of the biggest schemes for internationalisation in Japan. It was established in 1987 by the Japanese government to enable young university graduates from overseas to live and work in Japan. The JET Programme expects the participants to contribute not only to promoting international exchange, but also to help improve foreign language education at the community level in Japan – especially enhancing students' communicative competence in English (CLAIR, 2014a). The JET participants are mainly employed as assistant language teachers (ALTs), and, generally, the ALTs teach English with Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) in public schools. It was believed that, through team-teaching, the JTEs could develop their teaching skills, and the students' ability to learn might benefit from the interaction between the JTEs and ALTs. Consequently, the ALTs on the JET Programme were expected to have key roles in English language education in Japan. However, issues concerning a lack of interaction and collaboration between the JTE and ALT have also been discussed, mainly focusing on the classrooms (Browne & Evans, 1994; McConnell, 2000). Despite the concept of joint work between the ALTs and JTEs being central to the JET system (Hiramatsu, 2005), the ALTs' duties relate not only to team-teaching with the JTEs in the classrooms but also school activities outside the classrooms, such as attending extra-curricular activities and planning lessons with the JTEs (CLAIR, 2014b). The impact of the ALTs on students' learning and the schools themselves, as well as the interaction and collaboration between the JTEs and ALTs, extends beyond the walls of the classroom to the school as a whole, i.e. to school cultures. Although there is no single definition of culture, all people are members of at least one culture (Frank, 2013). Holliday (1999) states that there are two ways of seeing culture: large and small culture paradigms. While within the large culture paradigm culture is seen as an essential feature of ethnic, national or international groups, the small culture paradigm is "associated with a value, and can relate equally to any type or size of group for any period of time" (Holliday et al., 2010, p.3).

Therefore, a small culture approach considers any instance of socially cohesive behaviour as culture. Holliday's concept of small culture is used in this study. Thus school culture is considered a small culture. School cultures are influential (Hongboontri & Keawkhong, 2014) on how teachers think, feel and act (West-Burnham, 1992; Deal & Peterson, 2009). In other words, what teachers decide to do or not to do in the classroom could be determined by the teachers' association with their school cultures (Bidwell & Kasarda, 1980; Hargreaves, 1994). Therefore, this study aims to discuss the impact of the ALTs on the schools by exploring what types of school cultures emerge in schools participating in the JET Programme, and how the ALTs cope with the school cultures, as well as what aspects of the school cultures influence collaboration and interactions between the JTEs and ALTs not only in, but also outside of the classroom.

This chapter begins by explaining the rationale behind the study then presents the significance of the study. The research aims and questions are stated, and finally the structure of the thesis completes the chapter.

1.1 Rationale of the study

Part of the rationale for this study emanates from my desire to uncover the complexities of school cultures, and their effect on perceptions of ALTs' and JTEs' roles, and the relationships between them and the schools as a whole. The lack of interaction and collaboration between the JTEs and ALTs has been referred to as one of the main issues concerning team-teaching (Browne & Evans, 1994; McConnell, 2000). The reasons for this unsuccessful team-teaching have been associated with the JTEs' lack of communicative competence and confidence in English (Hiramatsu, 2005), as well as their lack of pedagogical knowledge related to teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) and applied linguistics (Gillis-Furutaka, 1994; Hiramatsu, 2005). However, it would be unfair to end this discussion without taking consideration of the reciprocal relationships between the teachers' decision-making and the cultures of their schools. Teachers' thinking and action is the result of "an interplay between classroom and school settings" (Day, 1999, p. 2). There are, undoubtedly, a number of factors which affect the JTEs' decision-making in the practice of team-teaching. The ALTs are also criticised for their lack of qualifications and TESOL experience (Browne & Evans, 1994; McConnell, 2000), even before their roles and

contributions outside the classrooms within the schools are considered. Furthermore, newly-qualified teachers are not finished products; rather they are shaped by the culture of their schools (Bartell, 2005; Feiman-Nemser, 2003). In other words, the ALTs as newcomers are strongly influenced by their first encounters with the schools. Therefore, in order to reveal the range of complex factors within the school cultures, I have employed an ethnographic approach to the study: I aim to look at what people do (behaviour), what they say (language), and the tension between what they really do and what they ought to do, as well as what they make and use (artefacts) within their social and cultural contexts (Spradley, 1980). In this way, ethnography enables me to provide valuable insights into team-teaching interactions and collaborations, by exploring how the ALTs and JTEs are faced with specific opportunities and constraints in fulfilling their roles within the cultures of their schools.

The rationale for the study also stems from a desire to identify which aspects of school cultures could impact on the effectiveness of the JET Programme. Several studies on team-teaching have discussed issues focusing on the views of the JTEs and ALTs in classroom activities (Browne & Evans, 1994; McConnell, 2000). However, in order to assess how the goals of the JET Programme are achieved in the schools, it is essential to explore the schools' views of and reactions to the JET Programme. Therefore, this study attempts to investigate how the ALTs are accepted into the schools as well as how they cope with the contexts of the particular school settings – the school cultures – by employing elements of the collective case study. Thus, I shall examine how the JTEs, ALTs and the administrative teachers in each school react to the programme as well as whether there are any different or common reactions across the schools.

1.2 Significance of the study

The study is significant for several reasons. Firstly, I believe my research into school cultures, and collaboration and interactions between the JTEs and ALTs, will help both groups to find ways to improve their practice of team-teaching. Awareness of the importance of establishing a supportive and collaborative professional teaching community within the schools will be raised, which in turn, enhances school development, since "successful school development is dependent upon successful teacher development" (Day, 1999, p. 2). Furthermore,

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the development of the schools and teachers consequently improves the quality of education for the students within the schools, which will give valuable benefits to society at large.

Secondly, this study will provide not only the teachers (JTEs and ALTs) and the schools but also the JET Programme organisation as a policy maker with recommendations to make their programme more effective. It is hoped that the JET Programme organisation will take action to mediate between the three groups: the ALTs, JTEs and the schools.

Finally, as far as I know, no ethnographic case studies have been conducted to explore the school cultures and their influence on team teachers' (JTEs' and ALTs') roles and relationships, and the effectiveness of the JET Programme. One of the reasons for this is that conducting ethnographic studies in Japanese schools is challenging since it is not customary to visit schools or even ask to regularly visit classrooms in Japan (Sakui, 2004). However, there may be impediments to effective teaching that lie outside the classroom in the school contexts (Lortie, 1975) – the school cultures. Thus I want to explore influential aspects of the school cultures and their effects on team-teaching by the JTEs and ALTs within the schools, by conducting ethnographic case studies. It is expected that this study will open the way for more research on the school cultures and team-teaching. An ethnographic study provides a thick description of what happens within the schools when they are participating in the JET Programme and what teachers say and do in their school cultures so as to give beneficial recommendations for improvements.

1.3 Research aims and questions

This thesis aims to explore the impact of the JET Programme on the schools, as well as on the wider contexts, by exploring team-teaching not only within the classroom but also around the classroom – the school cultures. This ethnographic case study also aims to provide a deeper and more nuanced understanding of the school cultures and their effect on views on the roles of the ALTs and JTEs and the relationship among the ALTs, JTEs and schools. Furthermore, this study attempts to explore how the ALTs as newcomers cope with the school cultures by shedding light on how the roles of the teachers' professional development

community are established and maintained within the particular school culture. In order to achieve the aims of this thesis, the current study attempts to answer the following three questions:

1. How are the roles of ALTs perceived by ALTs, JTEs and their Japanese colleagues, and in what ways do ALTs contribute to students' learning and development in and out of classrooms over time?
2. How are the roles of JTEs perceived by ALTs, JTEs and their Japanese colleagues, and in what ways do JTEs fulfil their roles within the schools?
3. What types of school cultures emerge in managing the JET Programme, and in what ways and to what extent do ALTs adjust to the school cultures?

1.4 Structure of the study

This thesis consists of seven chapters. The current chapter describes the rationale, significance of the study, and research aims and questions. Chapter two presents the contextual background of the research. Chapter three discusses the relevant literature in the field of team-teaching, school cultures and communities of practice. Chapter four explains the research design, outlining the research questions, the paradigm adopted in the methodology used, methods of data collection and analysis. Issues such as research quality, ethical considerations and limitations are also covered. Chapter five presents the findings obtained from interviews, observations, artefacts and fieldnotes, while issues emerging from these findings are discussed in Chapter six. Chapter seven considers theoretical and methodological contributions of the study, outlines implications and recommendations for the teachers, schools, and the JET Programme organisation, making suggestions for future research, and ends with my own reflections.

Chapter 2
Background to the study

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the research context in which this study is conducted. As one of the aims of this study is to assess how the goals of the JET Programme are achieved in the schools, it is important to outline what these goals are. As part of the policy of internationalisation, the JET Programme was set up in 1987 and administered by the Council of Local Authorities for International Relations (CLAIR) and three Ministries in Japan: the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (MIC), the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA) and the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT). Therefore, the JET Programme is a government sponsored programme aiming at the following goals:

> The Programme was started in 1987 with the purpose of increasing mutual understanding between the people of Japan and the people of other nations. It aims to promote internationalisation in Japan's local communities by helping to improve foreign language education and developing international exchange at the community level.   (CLAIR, 2014c)

As the above shows, the major goals of the JET Programme include the development of pedagogy and international awareness (Wada & Cominos, 1994). The JET Programme aims to foster English communicative abilities in Japanese school children by sending native speaking teachers to English language classrooms across the nation. The JET Programme is also an exchange programme, and thus it aims to develop international exchange by increasing mutual understanding between the people of Japan and the people of other nations. This chapter focuses on three aspects of the JET Programme's goals: the improvement of foreign language (English) education in Japan; the development of international awareness among the students; and increased mutual understanding between Japan and other countries.

2.1 Improving foreign language education in Japan

One of the main goals of the JET Programme is closely associated with improvement of foreign language (English) education in Japan, making it more communicative by inviting the ALTs to team-teach with the JTEs in the classroom. As the JET Programme was established for educational purposes, the MEXT's perspective of English language educational policies strongly influenced the introduction of team-teaching in the programme. While English education in Japan was dominated by a method involving word-by-word translation of written English into Japanese (*yakudoku*) (Gorsuch, 1998), team-teaching by the JTEs and the ALTs was intended to create a more communicative and interactive situation in the classroom. When the JET Programme was launched in 1987, the ideas of team-teaching were introduced by Minoru Wada, who had been a Senior Curriculum Specialist in charge of English language education in the Japanese Ministry of Education from 1982 to 1992. Wada was a principal designer of the JET Programme, and *Team teaching* (1990) written by Brumby and Wada offered general guidance. The JET Programme's interpretation of team-teaching has been influenced by their suggestions (see Section 3.6.1). According to Brumby and Wada, collaboration between the ALTs and JTEs and interactions among the participants (JTEs, ALTs and the students) are important. At the same time, the revised Course of Study of 1989 also advocated the adoption of communicative language teaching (CLT). The government thought that, in order to achieve students' communicative competence in English, team-teaching would be extremely effective.

The other important reason for the introduction of team-teaching with ALTs was to develop not only the students' communicative competence, but also JTEs' English speaking skills and teaching abilities with regard to CLT. Since traditionally JTEs had employed the *yakudoku* method they had not needed to be able to speak English at all. In other words, one impact of the JET Programme was the "shock therapy effect on Japanese teachers finding themselves obliged to work with foreign language assistants who speak no Japanese" (Gillis-Furutaka, 1994, p. 29). In 2003, MEXT introduced an action plan to cultivate Japanese with English abilities, in particular practical communication abilities (MEXT 2003) or communication skills in English (MEXT 2002). The action plan of 2003 also emphasised the importance of improving the teaching abilities of JTEs (MEXT 2003), suggesting that JTEs should acquire English skills and the

teaching abilities to be able to conduct activities where English is used as a means of communication, and for this improvement, team-teaching with native speakers of English (NSs) was highly recommended (MEXT 2003).

Considering the above educational policies, the government was clearly of the opinion that developing the JTEs' English language skills would automatically enables the JTEs to improve their teaching abilities. What is less acknowledged in these arguments is the possible relationship between the teachers' decision-making and the cultures of their schools. The ALTs' contributions outside the classrooms seem to have been overlooked. Therefore, this study discusses the need to consider how the JTEs' and ALTs' roles are shaped within the particular school cultures in order to improve interactions and collaboration between the JTEs and ALTs.

Furthermore, it is important to consider how the schools fulfil their roles in accepting the ALTs in the schools. In order to improve team-teaching interactions and collaborations, the importance of organising more workshops and seminars for the JTEs and ALTs is also emphasised (Hiramatsu, 2005). However, the best teacher professional development takes place not in workshops or in discrete, bounded convocations, but in the context of professional communities (McLaughlin, 1994). According to the JET Programme official home page, more than 90% of JET participants are employed as ALTs, who are placed mainly in public schools in Japan (CLAIR, 2014d). However, the programme's lack of support or attitude of non-interference with regard to both the ALTs and their schools has frequently been discussed among the ALTs. The ALTs are informed about the programme before arrival both officially and unofficially from the ALTs community. What this means is that the ALTs begin their work expecting the JET programme not to support them or intervene between the ALTs and the school on their behalf when they are marginalised. An acronym frequently used within the ALT community is ESID – or 'every situation is different' – implying that nothing is planned in advance to help them and that any situation the ALT may find him- or herself in will require an individual reaction, rather than a supported response. Organisers of the programme appear to exploit this as a way of justifying their failure to prepare the ALTs or to help them deal with the different situations. Thus, 'ESID' serves as a disclaimer. What is important to note here is that successful teaching depends on how teachers establish close bonds with

key people within the schools (Hargreaves, 2001). In other words, in order to make team-teaching effective, it is important for the ALTs to establish relationships with their Japanese colleagues. More importantly, this close relationship should occur not just as a result of the ALTs' personal competence, but also from the schools' ability to promote interactions and collaboration between the ALTs and their Japanese colleagues. Therefore, this study explores how such relationships are established in the ALT's daily work.

2.2 Developing international awareness

In addition to communicative competence, the word 'internationalisation' has become a 'buzzword' in Japan over the last two decades. Learning English has increasingly been emphasised as one of the strategies to internationalise Japan (Kubota, 1998). Team-teaching is expected to provide an opportunity to develop international awareness among Japanese students (Wada, 1994) and, thus, the role of the ALTs has been regarded as a key part of internationalisation. MEXT emphasises the importance of internationalisation by referring to the function of English as a common international language (MEXT, 2003) in the action plan of 2003. English as an international language (EIL) emphasises that "English, with its many varieties, is a language of international; and therefore, intercultural communication" (Sharifian, 2009, p. 2). If internationalisation based on EIL is promoted by the JET Programme, team-teaching should provide opportunities for the students to "negotiate for intelligibility due to the pronunciation and grammatical use in their respective varieties of English" (Shibata, 2010, p. 133).

However, as Marchesseau (2014) states, it could also be argued that the JET Programme plays into the native speaker fallacy (Phillipson, 1992). Regarding eligibility for the progamme (CLAIR, 2010e), it is necessary for applicants to hold a Bachelor's degree in any subject by July of the year of entry and to be under forty years of age. A teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) qualification is helpful, but not required. As a result, most ALTs are new graduates with little or no experience of English language teaching (Porcaro, 2004). The eligibility criteria suggest there is the assumption that "if you can speak the language, you can teach it" (Johnston, 2003, p. 135), and clearly has links with what Phillipson (1992) refers to as 'the native speaker fallacy' (Phillipson, 1992), leading to "the entirely unjustified valuing of native speaker over non-native speaker teachers

the world over" (Johnston, 2003, p. 135). Johnston (2003) refers to a student who told him about a language school in Tokyo that employed only teachers who had to be not only native speakers of American English but also blonde, and emphasises that this attitude, which is one of the most pernicious misconceptions in the entire field of language teaching, finally leads to other distortions of values.

Recently, the JET Programme has started to emphasise their positive attitude towards varieties of English, mentioning that there are many ALTs from non-English speaking countries (CLAIR, 2014d). Nevertheless, according to statistics provided by the JET Programme on the 1st July 2014, the majority of the participants still tend to come from Inner-Circle Countries (Kachru, 1985) such as America, Britain, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand and Australia, in which English is the primary language (see Appendix 1). As a result, students tend to learn English from the Inner-Circle rather than the variety of Englishes from the Expanding-Circle and the Outer-Circle Countries (Kachru, 1985) such as India and Singapore. Therefore, how the JET Programme helps Japanese students, teachers and schools to raise their awareness of international and pluralistic aspects of English is an important issue to be discussed in this thesis.

2.3 Increasing mutual understanding through cultural exchange
The JET Programme also aims to enhance mutual understanding between Japan and other countries through cultural exchange. The JET Programme emphasises this element as follows:

> Firstly, each participant in the JET Programme brings their culture to a local community in Japan, helping the country to gain personal contact with peoples of other countries. Secondly, each JET participant will learn a great deal about Japan, its culture and its people. It is expected that JET participants will share what they learned with their family and friends upon returning home.
> (CLAIR, 2014f)

However, it is important to note here what type of cultural exchange between the ALTs and Japanese people can be achieved through the JET Programme. The JET Programme offers a short-term contract: ALTs sign a one-year contract, which can be renewed up to four times, for a maximum of five years. Acceptance into the programme is not a guarantee of more than one year of participation (CLAIR, 2014g). Consequently, the ALTs tend to stay in Japan only a few years

at most. McConnel (1996) criticises the fact that the majority of ALTs view the JET Program as a chance to see the world, perhaps to take time off from school before making decisions about career plans. As some pictures of a poster on the JET Programme for recruitment (see Appendix 2) show, potential graduates at British universities seem to be attracted by the idea of culture as a large culture (Holliday, 1999, see Chapter 1) or a surface culture, which includes food, national costumes, traditional music and dance, literature and specific holidays (Hall, 1976). Although the JET Programme seeks to enhance internationalisation in Japan by promoting mutual understanding between Japan and other nations, there seems to be no clear definition with regard to the nature and ways of mutual understanding (Borg, 2008). Is it the aim of the programme to promote cultural exchange by understanding an alternative value or belief system, or merely to give participants an extended repertoires of facts about foreign countries? Therefore, this study discusses the type of culture and the ways the ALTs are allowed to bring it into their schools, as well as the type of culture they learn about Japan during their stay in the country.

This chapter has described three aspects of the JET Programme's goals and some issues relating to them. In the next chapter (Chapter 3), the conceptual framework of the study and the literature which serves as a background to the research are presented.

Chapter 3
Literature review

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the literature relevant to the study. This chapter is divided into three parts. In the first part, I would like to consider a variety of aspects of team-teaching, starting with its definition and benefits. Then I will focus on two specific contexts: the first is team-teaching by native-speaking teachers of English (NSTs) and non-naive-speaking teachers of English (NNSTs) in English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms; and the second is team-teaching in language classrooms in Japan, thus summarising the JET programme's interpretation. The second part discusses team-teaching by the JTE and ALT not only in the classroom but also within the school as a whole, considering what the term 'school culture' means and how it impacts on the ALTs, JTEs and students. I also review Lave and Wenger's concept of communities of practice in order to consider how the professional community of teachers and the school culture may influence team-teaching interactions in the classroom.

3.1 Definition of team-teaching

According to *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 544), team-teaching is "a term used for a situation in which two teachers share a class and divide instruction between them". This definition implies formats for team-teaching as follows:

> 1) Parallel Instruction: the class is divided into two groups and each teacher is responsible for teaching the same material to her or his small group.
>
> 2) Differential Split Class Team Teaching: The class is divided into two groups according to a special need. Each group is provided with instruction to meet that special need.
>
> 3) Monitoring Teachers: One teacher assumes the responsibilities for class wide instruction, the other teacher circulates in the room and monitors students and behaviour.
>
> (Maroney, 1995)

In contrast with those situations in which both team-teachers do not have to work together before, during and after the lesson, Goetz (2000) describes a closer relationship between team teachers as follows:

> Team teacher work together in designing the course and teach the material not by the usual monologue, but rather exchanging and discussing ideas and theories in front of the learner. Not only do the team teachers work together, but the course itself uses group learning techniques for the learners, such as small-group work, student-led discussion and joint test-taking.
>
> (Goetz, 2000)

This situation requires that both team-teachers should have more "face-to-face planning time" (Villa et al., 2008, p.64) than Maroney's three types of team-teaching. Yangjin and Portell suggest the view that team-teaching is like a marriage: "in order for it work, both parties must develop trust, accountability, communication and mutual encouragement" (Yangjin & Portell, 2011, p. 26).

Cunningham (1960) focuses on rank among team members, and describes the following categories of team-teaching: 1) Team Leader Type, 2) Associate Type, and 3) Master Teacher – Beginning Teacher Type. In Team Leader Type, a fixed hierarchy exists in the team, and the team leader has a higher rank than the others. In Master Teacher – Beginning Teacher Type, the role of the master teacher might be to help the beginning teacher to become acclimatized to a new system. In this type, the master teacher takes the initiatives in the team, and the beginning teacher could be potentially powerless, suggesting that there is no equal sharing of responsibility and power. In comparison, in the Associate Type, there is an equal rank, and nobody has a higher status, with team teachers sharing the responsibility and power equally.

However, it is unrealistic to apply a particular form of team-teaching suggested by the literature above to the great diversity of team-teaching. Bailey et al. (2001) refer to a context of team-teaching involving two teachers, Kathi and Andy, and suggest that team-teaching in practice should be more fluid than Cunningham's categories of team-teaching. In their team-teaching, Kathi and Andy first worked together in Team Leader Type because Andy was the coordinator of the program. As the lesson began, however, an equal partnership between them evolved in

the classroom, which developed into a more Associate Type of team-teaching. In other words, each team has its own characteristics.

Although there is a discrepancy between the theory and practice of team-teaching, the literature confirms the effectiveness of team-teaching in developing teachers' teaching abilities (Shaw, 1976; Weimer, 1993; Buckley 2000; Goetz, 2000; Richards & Shmidt, 2002) and in helping students learn (Worral et al., 1970; Armstrong, 1977; Cooper & Mueck, 1990; Davidson, 1990; DeVries & Zan, 1996; Garner & Thillen, 1997; Anderson & Speck, 1998). In the next section, I will discuss how teachers and students benefit from team-teaching.

3.2 Benefits of team-teaching

3.2.1 Benefits of team-teaching for teachers

Team-teaching offers teachers a number of benefits, firstly, in the aspect of teaching methods. According to Shaw (1976, p. 371), "the range of abilities and information available in the team" together with the opportunities to "be exposed to ideas, knowledge, and opinions of other team members" enables team teachers to develop and improve their skills (Goetz, 2000) and to be more creative (Richards & Shmidt, 2002). It is also important to consider how team teachers can develop their teaching methods through team-teaching. According to Buckley (2000), team teachers have the opportunity for improvement at three points: during planning, through watching each other, and conducting self-evaluation as a team rather than individually.

Another important factor of team-teaching is to enhance teachers' motivation. As Weimer (1993) points out, teachers want to be energised by new approaches. Boredom and mental fatigue often result from repeatedly teaching the same material in the same way. Buckley (2000) also emphasises that the stimulation and challenges of team-teaching prevent and remedy burnout.

3.2.2 Benefits of team-teaching for students

Team-teaching offers not only teachers but also students a number of benefits. Based on the literature regarding collaborative teaching (Worrall et al., 1970; Armstrong, 1977; Cooper & Mueck, 1990; DeVries & Zan, 1996; Garner & Thillen,

1997; Anderson & Speck, 1998; Buckley, 2000; Richards & Shmidt, 2002), it would appear that a team situation creates the following types of classroom environment: 1) a supportive classroom, 2) an intellectual classroom and 3) a collaborative classroom.

3.2.2.1 A supportive classroom

According to Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 544), team-teaching "gives teachers the opportunity to work with smaller groups of learners". If more than one teacher teaches a large group of students, teachers can teach their students more efficiently compared with the one-teacher-in-control method. However, the supportive environment of team-teaching offers more than just efficiency. Buckley (2000) points out that the teachers can communicate with students on an individual basis in team-teaching. Armstrong (1977, p. 66) also regards the strength of team-teaching as providing "learning environments involving close personal contact between teacher and learner". This enables teachers to develop rapport with students, and as a result, the students' motivation can be enhanced.

3.2.2.2 An intellectual classroom

A team-teaching situation creates an intellectual classroom environment for the students. Worrall et al. (1970) show how the learning situations in team-teaching can be expanded intellectually (see Figure 3.1). Compared with the single teaching situation, the students gain "multiple perspectives" (Anderson & Speck, 1998, p. 678) from team-teachers' variety of viewpoints: students are "more likely to be exposed to different philosophies, experiences, values and sources of information" (Garner & Thillen, 1997, p. 28). According to Buckley (2000), when team teachers debate, disagree with premises or conclusions, raise new questions, and point out consequences, they are offering students a model of critical thinking. Buckley (2000) also claims that students can develop discussion skills from exchanging ideas with more people, not only in the classroom but also outside the classroom, and as a result, they become more independent thinkers.

THE SINGLE TEACHER

Teacher's interests

Learning situation

Class interests

THE TEAM SITUATION

Teacher 'A's interests

Teacher 'B's interests

Teacher 'C's interests

Learning situations

Class interests
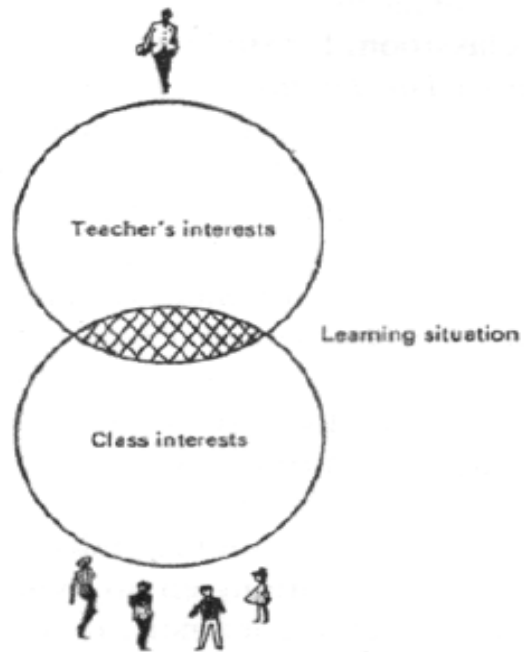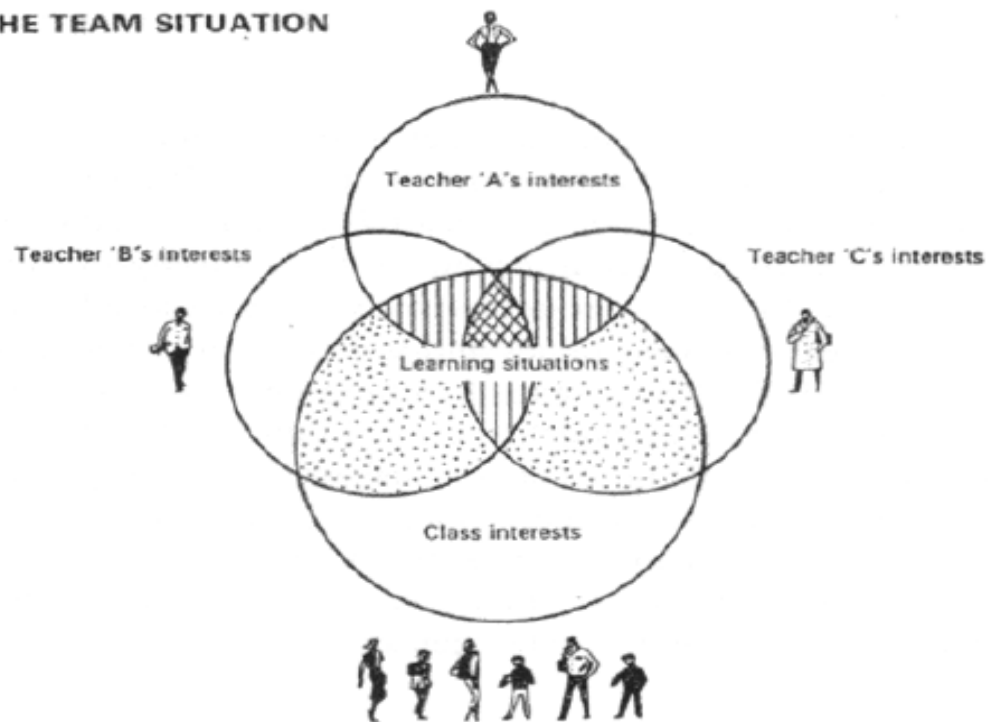
Figure 3.1 The single and team-teaching situations (Worral et al., 1970, p.16)

3.2.2.3 A collaborative classroom

Students can benefit not only from academic but also social advantages in the collaborative classroom environment. Team-teaching classrooms promote students' group learning techniques through small-group cooperative learning, defined by Davidson (1990, p. 8) as follows: "1) a task for group discussion and resolution (if possible), 2) face-to-face interaction, 3) an atmosphere of cooperation and mutual helpfulness within each group and 4) individual accountability". In particular, mutual help and mutual respect are indispensable elements in cooperative learning. DeVries and Zan (1996, p. 108) define cooperating as "striving to attain a common goal while coordinating one's own feelings and perspectives with a consciousness of another's feelings and perspective". Cooper and Mueck (1990) mention that, if students learn to help each other through collaboration, they become more tolerant and respectful of individual differences. Anderson and Speck (1998) emphasise that team teachers themselves can become model learners of mutual respect, if they demonstrate to the students that disparate viewpoints from each teacher are valuable, and this actually "invites students to become a part of the classroom collaborative" (Anderson & Speck, 1998, p. 680).

3.3 Collaborative teaching by NSTs and NNSTs

In the above section I reviewed the benefits of team-teaching for teachers and students. However, they were not specific to language teaching. In this section I focus more on the EFL classroom environment, reviewing collaborative teaching by NSTs and NNSTs. First I summarise the advantages and disadvantages of NSTs and NNSTs in teaching English as a foreign language and then I review the benefits of collaborative teaching between NSTs and NNSTs.

3.3.1 The advantages of NSTs

Several scholars have discussed the advantages of NSTs with regard to the field of language teaching, teaching style and attitudes towards teaching the language, and teaching culture. In the field of language teaching, the main advantage of NSTs is perceived as providing perfect models due to their English language competence (Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Mahboob, 2003; Benke & Medgyes, 2005).

NSTs' ability to teach conversation classes is also perceived as valuable (Benke & Medgyes, 2005), in particular, due to their ability to use the language spontaneously (Árva & Medgyes, 2000). In several studies NSTs were also perceived to have good pronunciation, a wide vocabulary and knowledge of colloquial expressions (Mahboob 2003; Benke & Medgyes, 2005; Wu & Ke, 2009).

With regard to teaching style and attitudes towards teaching the language, Benke and Medgyes (2005) found that NSTs prefer free activity and group work to controlled activities. NSTs focus more on oral skills, language in use and colloquial language, and tend to be happy to improvise. Several studies also found that NSTs were viewed as friendly, lively and informal (Benke & Medgyes, 2005; Wu & Ke, 2009). Benke and Medgyes (2005) also found that NSTs were more capable of getting their learners to speak.

Regarding the teaching of cultural aspects, if the EFL classroom is a monolingual culture environment, NSTs enable students to experience more culturally varied lessons and to increase their cultural awareness. In their study, Benke and Medgyes (2005) revealed that NSTs were seen as providing extensive information about the culture. Mahboob's study (2003) found that NSTs were perceived to have considerable knowledge about their own countries' culture. Consequently they are perceived as good language models (Ma, 2012).

3.3.2 The disadvantages of NSTs

The main problem that NSTs encounter is their lack of familiarity with the learners' cultural and linguistic characteristics, which may result in cultural misunderstanding between themselves and the students. In monolingual classrooms, NSTs will have the disadvantage of having to bridge the gap between the two cultures, that of English and that of the students' mother tongue. Benke and Medgyes (2005) emphasise that NSTs' speech could be difficult for second language (L2) learners to understand, and the differing linguistic and cultural backgrounds of NSTs sometimes inhibit learning. Furthermore, if NSTs do not share the same English language learning strategies with the students, they might be less able to grasp the essence of the students' learning problems. In this situation, NSTs often lack confidence in dealing with their students because they tend to be afraid of offending students' sensibilities and, therefore,

their strengths cannot be completely fulfilled. For example, Ma (2012) found that NSTs were perceived as having pedagogical weaknesses due to their inadequate knowledge of students' needs and problems in learning English and the local educational system. In their study, Wu and Ke (2009) also showed that NSTs were seen as models of pronunciation rather than as formal educators.

3.3.3 The weaknesses of NNSTs

With regard to the field of teaching culture, using English, and teaching style and attitudes toward teaching the language, the weaknesses of NNSTs have been explored by several researchers. Regarding teaching culture, several studies show that NNSTs were seen as possessing insufficient cultural knowledge of English speaking (or Western) countries compared with NSTs (Mahboob, 2003; Benke & Medgyes, 2005; Ma, 2012). With regard to using English, lack of confidence is one of the disadvantages mentioned (Lee, 2005). According to Benke and Medgyes's study (2005), NNSTs admitted to having problems with pronunciation, vocabulary and colloquial expressions, seeing their English as a leant language in comparison with NSTs, who have acquired English and can use the language spontaneously. Lee (2000) experienced prejudice against NNSTs' accent in the classroom as follows: "one day an Iranian student in my low intermediate writing class at a community college made me read aloud a sentence he had constructed using however, "Icy is a good teacher; however, she has a Chinese accent"" (Lee, 2000, p. 19). This may result in embarrassment for NNSTs, as well as damage to their confidence. Jenkins (2005) interviewed eight NNSTs who had a high level of proficiency in English. Interestingly, in spite of their higher education, the teachers actually admired a native-like accent, arguing that their own accents damaged their confidence (Jenkins, 2005).

Regarding teaching style and attitudes towards teaching the language, NNSTs tend to rely heavily on textbooks (Benke & Medgyes, 2005), which suggests a lack of innovation and creativity in the classroom. What is notable here is that NNSTs' low self-confidence influences their teaching style and attitudes towards teaching the language. If NNSTs feel less confident, they avoid risks, and may choose the safe approach of controlled activities based on the course book. Pessoa and Sacchi (2002) refer to research in which NNSTs who did not feel competent enough to teach speaking, pronunciation and listening, incorporated

a number of strategies into their teaching, such as over-preparation and the use of visuals and handouts, in order to compensate for their language challenges.

3.3.4 The strengths of NNSTs

Although NNSTs are unlikely to be such good language models as NSTs, NNSTs can fulfil insightful roles similar to those of NSTs in a number of ways. First, NNSTs can actually provide imitable models of the successful learner of English, pointing out that NNSTs never stop being learners of English as they meet the same sort of difficulties as their students (Lee, 2000; Cook, 2005). In addition, NNSTs can teach learning strategies more effectively, providing learners with more information about the English language because, during their own learning process, NNSTs have gained abundant knowledge about, and insight into, how the English language works (Ling & Braine, 2007).

Secondly, in monolingual settings, NNSTs have more understanding of the local education system (Shin & Kellogg, 2007; Ma, 2012). This helps teachers and schools to anticipate the expectations of students and their parents. Although NNSTs assign a lot of homework, prepare students for exams and check errors consistently, these teaching styles of NNSTs are valued by students, their parents and administrative teachers in the local contexts (Benke & Medgyes, 2005). NNSTs can also benefit from sharing the learners' mother tongue, the use of which can be effective for teaching in the language classroom. Learners tend to prefer learning grammar from NNSTs, because NNSTs can explain complex structures in their students' first language (Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Cook, 2005).

The third strength of NNSTs is their empathy with their learners. As Lee (2000) mentions, second or foreign language learners have put considerable time and effort into attempting to master the language. NNSTs are more able to anticipate and prevent difficulties, have a better ability to read the minds of their students and predict their difficulties with the English language (Braine, 2010). Consequently, NNSTs are sympathetic about the challenges faced by students struggling to master the L2 themselves (Árva & Medgyes, 2000). This enables NNSTs to deepen their empathy for students.

3.3.5 The benefits of collaborative teaching by NSTs and NNSTs

According to Medgyes (1999, p.74), "in an ideal school, there should be a good balance of NESTs and non-NESTs, who complement each other in their strengths and weaknesses". This is a great advantage of collaborative teaching by NSTs and NNSTs. Therefore, this section reviews the benefits of collaborative teaching by NSTs and NNSTs, and how the two groups complement each other's strengths and weaknesses.

Firstly, in collaborative teaching by NSTs and NNSTs, the NST is perceived as a perfect language model, due to their ability to use the language spontaneously and to get their learners to speak (see Section 3.3.1), while NNSTs can serve as imitable models of successful learners of English (see Section 3.3.4). The second benefit is to relieve NNSTs of their 'inferiority complex'. Because of their feelings of inferiority (Jenkins, 2005; see Section 3.3.3), NNSTs may often hesitate to speak English in front of the students. Some NNSTs may be reluctant to teach with NSTs because they fear that their poor command of English may be revealed. However, if NNSTs bravely speak to NSTs in the classroom, this actually brings benefits not only for students but also for NNSTs themselves. NNSTs tend to believe that NSTs are superior in pronunciation (see Section 3.3.3). However, if the students see that NSTs understand NNSTs' English with a foreign accent, they can see how accented English is acceptable. Evers (2005) suggests that NNSTs speaking English with NSTs increases students' respect for NNSTs. This is becoming increasingly important in a world where English is viewed as an international language rather than as belonging to any one particular group. Moreover, NNSTs can provide the students with a more attainable goal of pronunciation. The students can also learn communication skills through observing how the NST and NNST converse and manage their conversation. In team-teaching situations with both NSTs and NNSTs, NNSTs supply the students with "a model for learners to aspire to – living proof that it can be done" (Andrewes, 1999, p. 39). In their study, Carless and Walker (2006) emphasise that team-teaching by the NSTs and NNSTs is another way in which the English language proficiency and the self-confidence of the NNSTs could be enhanced. Collaborative teaching by the NSTs and NNSTs enables NNSTs to allay their anxiety, and successfully restores NNSTs' confidence.

The final benefit is that NNSTs can fulfil the role of a bridge between NSTs and students. Since NNSTs share linguistic, cultural and educational backgrounds with students they can be better qualified than NSTs (Braine, 2010). For example, NSTs are sometimes confused in EFL classrooms because, unlike NNSTs, they are not familiar with students' cultural backgrounds and language difficulties. This could create some discomfort in the classroom, may hinder the students from learning efficiently, and can cause a lack of rapport (Han, 2005) between NSTs and students. NNSTs perceive that they provide less cultural information than NSTs (see Section 3.3.3); however, when NSTs provide cultural information on their countries with the students, NNSTs can also provide the point of view of the students' countries, in particular when they share the same cultural backgrounds with the students (Nambu, 2008, 2009). For example, NNSTs can ask NSTs questions such as 'In our culture or country, this is acceptable, but how about your country?', and 'Why is it not acceptable?'. These questions help the students and NSTs to develop their awareness of differences and similarities between the two cultures. In these situations, NNSTs can actually help both the students and NSTs.

3.4 NSs/NNSs: The better teacher?

As the previous section shows, the two groups (NSTs and NNSTs) have both advantages and disadvantages in teaching English and complement each other in their strengths and weaknesses in collaborative teaching by NSTs and NNSTs (see Section 3.3). However, there is a misconception that one must be a NS in teaching a language, elevated to an idealised language model, while a non-native speakers of English (NNS) is viewed as a defective communicator, limited by an underdeveloped communicative competence, especially in the traditional second language acquisition (SLA) literature, as Firth and Wagner (1997) point out. The notion of the authenticity of the native speaker has been seen as one of the cornerstones of communicative language teaching (Creese, et al., 2014). According to Kramsch (2012, p. 115): "If authenticity means with a recognizable origin, then the monolingual NS was that origin. If legitimacy means authorized by a recognizable authority, then the monolingual NS was that authenticity". At the same time, Kramsch (2012) also questions the notion of the 'authentic' native speakers in today's world, where the mobility and global spread of English are

gradually erasing cultural and national origins and multiplying the centres of authority. The notion of 'Native-speakerism', defined as "the chauvinistic belief that 'native speakers' represent a 'Western culture' from which spring the ideals both of the language and of language teaching methodology" (Holliday, 2008, p.49), has become a wide-spread and much taken-for-granted ideology. It adopts native-speaker models not only as the most desirable standards of accuracy, but also establishes the dominance of native speaker 'experts' in the world (Thornbury, 2006). The assumption of the superiority of NSTs over NNSTs has spread across the English language teaching (ELT) industry in the world. Japan is no exception.

These inquiries are further problematised by a number of researchers such as Brutt-Griffler (2002), Canagarajah (2007) and Pennycook (1999, 2001, 2004, 2007, 2010). The previously acceptable native/non-native speaker dichotomy and native speakership are critiqued as a foundationalist perspective of language, which is determined by a pre-given entity such as ethnicity, birth or nation (Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Pennycook ,1999, 2001, 2004, 2007). Alternatively, English can be socioculturally constructed by all those who use it repeatedly for actual communications – through performative acts and hybrid forms (Canagarajah, 2007; Pennycook, 2004, 2007). In addition to these debates, the role of English in the world is also discussed in various terms (Kubota, 2011). One of them is 'English as a lingua franca' (Jenkins, 2000; Seidlhofer, 2004). It is important to note here that the roles of the JTEs as NNSTs and ALTs as NSTs cannot be described without considering that English is a language used on a global scale. The next section will consider the role of team-teaching by the ALTs as NSTs and JTEs as NNSTs within the Japanese context and internationalisation at the school level, from the aspect of English as a lingua franca.

3.4.1 The rise of English as a lingua franca (ELF)

Due to globalisation, defined here as the process of the interconnectedness and interdependence among people in the world (Faulconbridge & Beaverstock, 2009), it is easy to communicate with others around the world through travel, international trade and advanced technology, and this communication is most frequent in English. Consequently, the term 'English as a lingua franca' (ELF) has emerged as a means of referring to communication in English between speakers

with different first languages. Indeed over eighty percent of interactions in English worldwide are now estimated to be more between non-native speakers (NNS-NNS) than non-native speakers and native speakers (NNS-NS) (Graddol, 2006). The use of English as a lingua franca is mainly discussed by Jenkins (2000) and by Seidlhofer (2004). Jenkins focuses on phonology, while Seidlhofer discusses lexico-grammar. When ELF is used for education, the focus tends to be on effective communication and international intelligibility rather than correctness and the dominant native-speaker accents, such as Received Pronunciation (RP), the standard British accent, or General American (GA). ELF can also be defined as a contact language used between speakers who do not share the same cultural backgrounds (Weil & Pullin, 2011). If the effectiveness of communication is considered as important, both linguistic and cultural aspects are essential. These transnational or transcultural function of ELF are discussed in the literature (Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Graddol, 2006, Jenkins, 2007; Pennycook, 2007). However, the notion of English as the language of the native speaker in its parochial sense is purported to persist in Japanese society (i.e. as the language of the British and North Americans in particular) (Saito, 2012) and negatively influences not only Japanese teachers, but also Japanese learners. The teachers admire a native-like accent by arguing that their own accents damage their confidence, in spite of their high education (Jenkins, 2005, see Section 3.3.3). Matsuda's case study of the beliefs about the ownership of English among Japanese upper secondary schools finds that students' ideas about Anglophones is mostly limited to those from the UK and the US (Matsuda, 2003). Japanese learners strive to 'perfect' their English to be like that of the native speaker, while nurturing negative perceptions about non-native varieties of English (Honna, 1995; Honna & Takeshita, 2000). More recently, Saito's survey-based study found that lower secondary school students in Japan evaluate the UK and Japanese English similarly, while holding negative attitudes towards other non-native varieties of English (Saito, 2012). This discriminative attitudes towards different varieties of English could have negative consequences, considering that, when this young generation comes to play a central role in Japanese society, they may well look down upon Asians and Africans (Yano, 2011). The main goals of the JET Programme are to develop international awareness among Japanese students, as well as enhance mutual understanding between Japan and other countries (see Sections 2.2 and 2.3). However, this negative influence of the native speaker

orientation on Japanese learners and teachers is an obstacle to achieving the goals of the JET Programme, as well as being against the current movement of global expansion of English. Therefore, it is important for Japanese people to change their views on the NSs and NNSs; and if an ELF approach is adopted through team-teaching by the JTEs and ALTs, the aims of internationalisation at the school level will be achieved successfully for a number of reasons.

First, according to Jenkins (2012), the crucial point is that users of ELF may not only be from post-colonial English countries and countries where English is neither the first language (L1) nor the official language, but also from L1 English-speaking countries. This suggests that NNSs ELF users should not feel the need to defer to NSs for appropriate English use, while NSs ELF users need to be able to adjust or accommodate their habitual modes of reception and production in order to be more effective in ELF interactions (Jenkins, 2012). Secondly, as mentioned earlier, ELF is a contact language used between speakers who do not share the same cultural backgrounds. Considering this aspect, teaching English as a strategy of internationalisation should not be a form of soft imperialism which imposes 'Western' ways of thinking, doing and acting (Marginson, 1999) on Japanese learners. Rather, it is important for Japanese students to learn how to communicate their cultures as small cultures – alternative value or belief systems (see Chapter 1) – in English to those who are unfamiliar with them. Therefore, it is important to create interaction in team-teaching, in which the JTEs and ALTs "accommodate to each other's usage rather than on how they 'ought to' conform to some mythical exonormative standard" (Maley, 2006, p. 6), and create "cultural synergy or common ground where people from different cultures can converge and negotiate their cultural differences" (Liu, et al., 2011, p. 293). If this interaction can be developed between the JTEs and ALTs through team-teaching, it can help Japanese learners recognise the diverse contexts (or cultures) and proficiencies of ELF and have an awareness that all English speakers, regardless of whether they are NSs or NNSs, will not judge other varieties of English based on the native-speaker model and the particular contexts, such as Inner-Circle countries (Shibata 2010).

3.5 Team-teaching schemes in the world

As the previous sections show (see Sections 3.3 and 3.4), team-teaching by NSs and NNSs can bring significant benefits in ELT. The belief that cooperation between NSTs and NNSTs might make a unique contribution to English language education has been shown in team-teaching schemes not only in Japan, but around the world (Li Yi, 2012). Similar NEST schemes to the JET Programme exist: for example, the English Programme in Korea (EPIK), the Native-speaking English teachers' Programme in Hong Kong (NET) and Foreign English Teachers in Taiwan Programme (FETIT). These programmes are regarded as 'Native English Speaking Teacher (NEST)' schemes (Carless, 2004, 2006a, 2006b; Carless & Walker, 2006; Heo & Mann, 2015), initiated by government educational policies advocating the deployment of NESTs from English speaking countries to co-teach with local English teachers. Despite these schemes having some differences, they all share four common aims: 1) providing authentic language input in EFL classrooms, 2) facilitating cross-cultural communication, 3) enhancing students' English ability and 4) promoting local teachers' professional development (Carless, 2004, 2006a, 2006b; Tajino & Tajino, 2000; Park, 2008). With regards to the implementation of the team-teaching schemes, not only successful practices, but also a number of issues have been discussed (Tajino & Tajino, 2000; Choi, 2001; Crooks, 2001; Gorsuch, 2002; Carless, 2004, 2006a, 2006b; Nambu, 2008, 2009; Park, 2008; Miyazato, 2009, 2012; Chen & Cheng, 2010; Shibata, 2010; Wang & Lin, 2013; Heo & Mann, 2015). Therefore, this section first summarises issues concerning team-teaching, and then, good examples of team-teaching are presented, especially in the East Asia.

3.5.1 Issues concerning team-teaching schemes

Firstly, one of the issues is that these programmes play into the native speaker fallacy (Phillipson, 1992; see Section 2.2). The most important common recruitment criterion is that applicants have to be NSs of English who hold a bachelor degree. Teaching certificates are not required, or are not the first priority in these schemes. In other words, the administrators of these programmes appear to prefer unqualified NSs of English to qualified local teachers (Braine, 2010). In relation to the NEST scheme in Hong Kong, the local teachers are increasingly looked upon as less competent and knowledgeable resources, and

their contribution as less valuable (Lee, 2005). The emergence of the native speaker fallacy also contributes to the NNSTs' inferiority complex, especially when NSTs are present in the classrooms (Braine, 2010), and, as a result, an unequal relationship seems to exist between the team teachers. For instance, the NSTs largely dominate lessons, whereas their team partners (the local teachers) have limited or rare engagement in the class, exclusively acting like teaching assistants or living translators in the JET, EPIK and NET (Tajino & Walker, 1998; Nambu, 2008, 2009; Heo & Mann, 2015). Furthermore, the native speaker fallacy lives in the minds of not only programme administrators, but also parents of students and the students themselves (Braine, 2010), in that there is a strong preference for accents of NSs from Inner-Circle countries. For instance, in the FETIT Programme, NSTs from South Africa had to modify their accents in teaching English because the American or British accent is regarded as the norm by many parents in Taiwan (Chen & Cheng, 2010).

Secondly, although in these programmes NSTs are seen as superior due to the native speaker fallacy, the power issues between the NSTs and local NNSTs are complex. Miyazato (2009, 2012), writing about the JET Programme, states that although the NSTs are experts in terms of language competence, they had minimum authority in terms of knowledge of the local culture and understanding students' language learning situations and the learners.

Finally, unclear roles, lack of training and experience in collaborative forms of teaching have been discussed in the JET and EPIK. For instance, while the local teachers lead the lesson, the NSTs are used as living tape recorders due to the local NNSTs' unfamiliarity with team-teaching as well as the NSTs' lack of teaching experience (Sturman, 1992; Voci-Reed, 1994; McConnell, 2000; Gorsuch, 2002; Tajino & Tajino, 2000; Carless, 2004; Mahoney, 2004; Nambu, 2008, 2009). The National Institute for International Education and Development in Korea seems to offer different types of training such as a mandatory online pre-orientation for 15 hours, an onsite orientation for 25-30 hours and online in-service training programme for both NSTs and the local NNSTs for 15 hours. A study conducted by Heo and Mann (2015) revealed that, although these programmes were considered supportive, especially for new NSTs, and helped them to settle down in the new environment, there were limitations in the training in how to implement team-teaching with the local NNSTs. Heo and Mann (2015)

suggest that there should be communication between the participants involved in the EPIK scheme (e.g. EPIK administrators, recruiters, policy makers, trainers, educators, and team teachers) in order to improve the current scheme and teaching practice.

3.5.2 Good practices of team-teaching based on the NEST schemes

Despite the challenging issues outlined above, positive practices of team-teaching are also identified in some studies (Carless, 2006a; Carless & Walker, 2006; Heo & Mann, 2015). According to the study of the EPIK by Heo and Mann (2015), although the NSTs had little knowledge and no teaching experience, they were engaged in more extended roles than merely that of 'living tape recorder', if the local NNSTs played proactive roles in guiding their less experienced team partners. Heo and Mann (2015) also found that it was beneficial for both NSTs and the local NNSTs, especially novice teachers, to obtain support given by an experienced person through some kind of mentoring relationship in the schools. Good practices of team-teaching in the NEST scheme were found in two studies (Carless, 2006a; Carless & Walker, 2006), with selflessness of both NSTs and the local NNSTs and balancing their preferred approaches being identified as key to successful team-teaching (Carless & Walker 2006). Carless (2006a) also identified that, if the NSTs had sensitivity to the feelings of their local NNSTs, in turn, they seemed to be welcomed and supported by their local NNSTs.

3.6 Team-teaching by the JTE and ALT

This section focuses on team-teaching in the language classroom, specifically in Japan, reviewing the JET Programme's interpretation of 1) the collaboration between the ALT and JTE and 2) the benefits of interactions among the participants in team-taught lessons.

3.6.1 The JET Programme's interpretation of team-teaching

The JET Programme was created by the Japanese Ministry of Education in 1987. Minoru Wada, a Senior Curriculum Specialist in charge of English language education in the Japanese Ministry of Education from 1982 to 1992, was a principal designer of the JET Programme. *Team teaching* (1990) written by Brumby and Wada offered general guidance on how to conduct team-teaching

by the JTE and ALT (see Chapter 2). The JET Programme's interpretation of team-teaching has been influenced by their suggestions. This section summarises suggestions given by Brumby and Wada on how to carry out team-teaching by JTEs and ALTs in EFL classrooms at secondary schools in Japan. According to Brumby and Wada (1990), there are two important aspects of team-teaching: collaboration between the ALT and JTE, and interactions among the participants. These are explained below.

3.6.1.1 Collaboration between the ALT and JTE

First, cooperation before, during and after the lesson is one of the most important elements of team-teaching by the JTE and ALT. Brumby and Wada (1990) suggest that team-teaching means total cooperation between the JTE and ALT where they take equal responsibility in planning, teaching and evaluating their lesson.

The ALT must team-teach with the JTE at the same time in the same group of students because they are not allowed to teach alone. This is connected with ALTs' title of assistant. In Japan, only a person who has a license issued under the Teacher's License Law can be a full-time teacher in public schools. People who do not fulfil this condition cannot teach alone in Japanese public elementary and secondary schools. If NSTs are employed directly by the school itself, they can teach alone, and several Japanese private schools have this type of direct-hired contract with NSTs. The situation of the ALTs, however, is different: after recruitment through the JET Programme, ALTs are assigned to public secondary schools and have a contract with the local government and board of education (BOE). ALTs must follow the license issued under the Teacher's License Law, and are regarded as temporary staff in schools.

Despite the limitation imposed on ALTs, it is noted that the value of ALTs is emphasised. According to The JET Programme publication, *The General Information Handbook* (CLAIR, 2015), which aims to provide information for JET participants on teaching in Japan, ALTs are a valuable resource for JTEs, and should suggest activities or creative and effective ways to use the authorised Japanese course book. Referring to the fact that ALTs are part of the staff in the

school, Brumby and Wada (1990) suggest that the JTE and ALT share responsibility making the most of each other's strengths.

3.6.1.2 Interactions among the participants

According to Brumby and Wada (Ibid.), the definition of team-teaching by the JTE and ALT is as follows:

> Team-teaching is a concerted endeavour made jointly by the Japanese teachers of English (JTE) and the assistant English teacher (AET or ALT) in an English language classroom in which the students, the JTE and the AET are engaged in communicative activities. (Brumby & Wada, 1990, Introduction)

As the definition suggests, team-teaching creates several types of interactions among the ALT, the JTE and the students. This forms the following interaction triangle of team-teaching situations within the classroom (see Figure 3.2 below):

(Students ↔ Students)

Students

ALT ←——————→ JTE
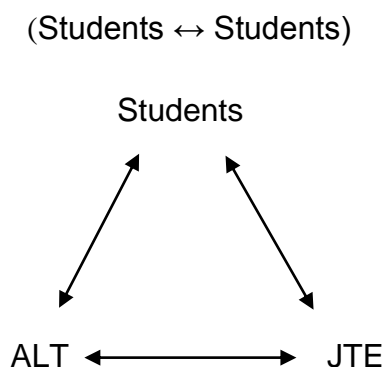
Figure 3.2 The interaction triangle of team-teaching by the ALT and JTE

This section first summarises the three fundamental types of interactions in team-teaching classrooms: 1) Interaction between the ALT and the students, 2) Interaction between the ALT and JTE and 3) Interaction between the JTE and the students.

1) Interaction between the ALT and the students

In particular, interaction between the ALT and students has been regarded as the most important element in team-teaching in the JET Programme. According to Brumby and Wada (1990), the major benefits of ALTs to students are that the students can learn to communicate in English by communicating with a native speaker of English, and that they can also realise that English is a 'living' language through first hand communication with a native speaker. Therefore, in Japan team-teaching is the best possible way of bringing the L2 community (Savignon, 1983; Brumby & Wada, 1990) into monolingual cultural classrooms.

2) Interaction between the ALT and JTE

Interaction between the JTE and ALT can provide a model of real communication with the students: team-teaching by the JTE and ALT encourages the student to learn any variety of English from not only native speakers but also non-native speakers. If the students can see English 'in action' as a means of communication between the JTE and ALT, this becomes "a great source of motivation for them to learn English for communicative purpose" (Brumby & Wada, 1990, Introduction).

3) Interaction between the JTE and the students

Although in the practice of team-teaching, the ALT might be a central part of the lesson, the JTE's support to the students helps the ALT to conduct the lesson smoothly. The classes are not always conducted according to a detailed plan because the teachers need to cope with the students' situation flexibly during the class. During the team-taught lesson, the JTE and ALT need to monitor the students' attitude towards the lesson, and judge whether the students are ready to move on to the next stage of the lesson. Brumby and Wada (1990) suggest that the monitoring role should not intrude on activities but be there if the students need help. The JTE can successfully fulfil this role because in team-teaching classrooms involving JTEs and ALTs, JTEs sometimes encounter situations in which only the JTE can find out what difficulties students feel in their learning process and why, from the point of view of Japanese speakers.

To sum up, the JET Programme assumes team-teaching by the JTE and ALT to be conducted as follows:

1) Team teachers (a group of two or more) work together to plan, conduct and evaluate the effectiveness of the lessons.

2) Team teachers teach at the same time within the same classroom.

3) Team teachers have an equal rank; they share responsibility and power equally, and make an equal contribution to the class, although ALTs are called 'Assistants'.

4) Team teachers are interactive exchanging and discussing ideas in front of the learners; this can enhance the students' motivation towards learning a foreign language.

However, although these are the 'principles' and suggested forms of conduct of team-teaching in Japan, the situation over the last few years has revealed that there are several issues which do not always work in harmony with these theoretical benefits. These are outlined in the following section.

3.6.2 Some issues concerning team-taught lessons by the JTE and ALT

The sections above have related primarily to the language classroom and the interactions and collaboration between the team-teaching participants before, during and after the lesson. The three interactions among JTEs, ALTs and students have been regarded as a key element of team-teaching by the ALT and JTE; however, the interaction triangle (see Figure 3.2) does not always work out so well in practice (Browne & Evans, 1994; McConnell, 2000; see Chapter 1). For example, team teachers may not always work together as envisaged by Brumby and Wada (1990), who suggest that both the JTE and ALT need to "be involved in lessons from planning through execution to evaluation" (Brumby & Wada, 1990, p.17). Students also may not benefit from the interaction between the ALT and JTE, because some JTEs strongly believe it is extremely beneficial for the students only to listen to English from NSTs rather than English spoken between ALTs and JTEs (Nambu, 2008, 2009). ALTs have been regarded as a human tape recorder (McConnell, 2000), meaning that "the Japanese teacher may feel that the only thing the foreign partner can do is to act as a pronunciation model

for the students" (Sturman, 1992, p. 148). These issues remain unresolved. One of the reasons may be that "team-teaching is not an established teaching system but a process in the strenuous efforts to change the teaching and learning of English in Japan" (Brumby & Wada, 1990, Introduction). Furthermore, Tajino and Tajino (2000) comment on the lack of research in the area of team-teaching, not only in Japan but also in other countries.

In order to consider these ongoing issues, it should be noted that interaction and collaboration also extend beyond the walls of the classrooms to the school as a whole. The role of the school and the impact of the team-teaching participants on and from the institution will depend to some extent on the nature of the school and its culture. The following section will consider what is meant by the term 'school culture' and how it may impact on those working within the institution, specially ALTs, JTEs and students.

3.7 School Culture

3.7.1 The importance of school culture

When considering issues in team-teaching and its introduction, it is important to look at school culture. Deal and Kennedy (1984) mention that "when culture works against you, it's nearly impossible to get anything done" (Deal & Kennedy, 1984, p. 4). When a new teaching method is introduced – for example, a collaborative method of teaching in classrooms – it is important to have a school culture that supports this innovation. Therefore, in this section I shall focus on what school culture is and how it can impact on innovation.

3.7.1.1 Small cultures

Firstly, the meaning of the word 'culture' should be clarified: according to Holliday (1999, 2005) and Holliday et al. (2010), there are two types of cultures: large cultures and small cultures. A large culture is associated with a country and language and entities, such as British culture, European culture, Hindu culture, and Japanese culture (Holliday et al., 2010). In contrast, a small culture is "associated with a value, and can relate equally to any type or size of group for any period of time" (Holliday et al., 2010, p. 3); therefore, a small culture approach considers any instance of socially cohesive behaviour as culture. For example,

cultural significances can be found in "particular football teams, types of restaurants, individual universities and departments, and indeed, in professional cultures such as TESOL" (Holliday, 2005, p. 23). In my study I shall apply Holliday's concept of small culture to my discussion of school culture.

3.7.1.2 Interactions within the school culture

In order to review the JET Programme's interpretation of team-teaching by the JTE and ALT, I discussed team-teaching within the language classroom (see Section 3.6). However, each team-teaching situation is actually located not only in the classroom but also within the school culture. Compared with the interactions triangle of team-teaching classrooms (see Figure 3.2 in Section 3.6.1.2), multiple or interwoven interactions are actually created within the school (see Figure 3.3 below).

ALT

School ←→ JTEs

Students
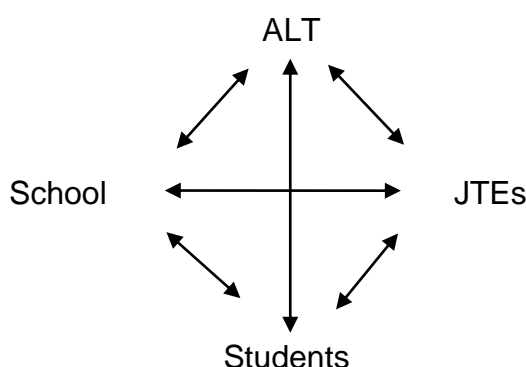
Figure 3.3 Multiple interactions within the school

For example, in a team-teaching situation, cooperation among team teachers already starts before the lesson, with the planning. Tajino and Tajino (2000) see two categories of 'team': overt and covert teams. The overt team is located in the classroom, which means that what team members do takes place in public from the perspectives of the students. In contrast, the covert team is located outside the classroom and involves pre-class planning and post-class evaluation. Generally, the ALT pairs with several JTEs in a school and, therefore, has "the

46

potential to influence several JTEs in their daily routine of team teaching" (Hiramatsu, 2005, p.117). The ALT has to cope with different personalities of JTEs. However, in the school the ALT encounters more than the JTE's personality. A study by Sato and Kleinsasser (2004) revealed that the school's culture has a greater influence on an individual's beliefs, practices and instructions than do the individual's beliefs, practices, and interactions on the school's culture. In other words, the ALT actually interacts with the JTE who has beliefs, practices and instructions that are shaped by the school's culture. Furthermore, in their study, the school regarded managing students and examination-oriented English as the important norms; although the JTEs were free to choose new teaching methods in team-teaching lessons, the study (2004) found that both single and team-taught lessons were very similar in the use of grammar-translation activities and teacher-centred approach. Teachers at this school strongly believed that examination-oriented English teaching, supported by the course book, handouts and grammar activities, was effective for managing students and developing in students the habit of studying. Under these situations, in particular, new ALTs are more influenced by their first encounters with the school culture than by their expectations of teaching English as a foreign language in the Japanese school. Holliday (1994) suggests that it is not sufficient to look only within the classroom to understand what really happens between teacher and class, and emphasises that the social interactions within the classroom are influenced by "factors within the wider educational institution, the wider educational environment and the wider society" (Holliday, 1994, p. 11). In this section, I shall discuss school culture.

3.7.2 Types of school culture

Each school has a unique culture of its own (Waller, 1932; Patterson, et al., 1986). Patterson, et al. (1986) mention that school culture does not fall from the sky; it is created and thus can be manipulated by people within the school. Importantly, school culture actually affects how people think, feel and act (West-Burnham, 1992, Deal & Peterson, 2009). According to Sarason (1971, p. 228), culture is "not concrete, tangible, visible things" but rather what West-Burnham (1992, p. 84) defines as "the product of the shared values, beliefs, priorities, expectations, and norms that serve to inform the way in which an organisation manifests itself

to the world". Deal and Peterson (2009) define values, beliefs and norms. As the first elements of culture, they see values as the core of what the school considers important; values shape behaviour, decision making, and attention because people attend to what they consider important. Secondly, beliefs are understandings about the world around us; in schools, staff, students and principals hold beliefs about all the major aspects of their organisation – for example, beliefs about teachers' responsibility for students learning, about students' capacities, about change and innovation, and about the nature of students and their motivation. Thirdly, norms are the webs of expectations that a group holds in regard to behaviours, dress, language and other aspects of social life; they are the unstated rules or prescriptions that staff and students are supposed to follow. Hargreaves (1994, p. 166) characterises these features as "the content of teacher cultures". The content of teacher cultures has been widely discussed from the aspects of organisational cultures by several authors (Waller, 1932; Patterson, et al.,1986; West-Burnham, 1992; Deal & Peterson, 2009; Schein, 2010).

In addition to the content of teacher cultures, Hargreaves (1994) also emphasises that there is another important dimension to cultures of teaching, namely 'the form of teacher cultures', which consists of the characteristic patterns of relationship and forms of association between members of those cultures. In contrast to the content of teacher culture, which can be seen in what teachers think, say and do, the form of teacher cultures may be found in how relations between teachers and their colleagues are articulated. Hargreaves (1992, 1994) establishes four types: 1) Individualism, 2) Balkanization, 3) Collaboration and 4) Contrived collegiality. Day (1999) also divided collaboration cultures into two: comfortable collaboration and fully collaborative cultures, and he categorises the forms of cultures into three stages adopting Hargreaves' concept: 1) Culture of Separation, 2) Culture of Connection and 3) Culture of Integration as follows (see Figure 3.4 on the following page).
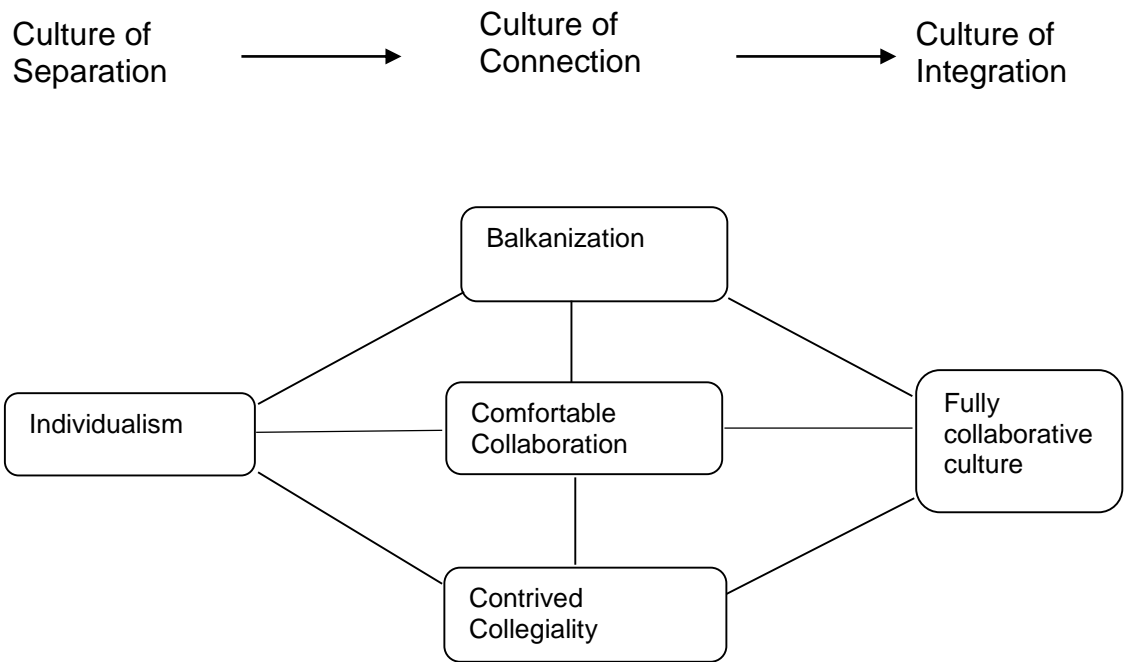
Figure 3.4 School cultures (Day, 1999)

The content of teacher culture and the form of teacher culture are closely related to each other. According to Hargreaves (1992), the forms of teacher culture are important, for it is through them, that "the contents of teacher cultures – the norms, values, beliefs and practice of teachers – are reproduced or redefined" (Hargreaves, 1992, p. 231). This section, therefore, reviews the forms of teacher culture mainly based on Hargreaves' and Day's classifications.

3.7.2.1 Individualism

Firstly, individualism as a form of culture corresponds to the culture of separation. Several scholars characterise schools as isolated working conditions where teachers seldom see or hear each other (Lortie, 1975; Rosenholtz, 1989, Hargreaves, 1994). This isolation is caused not only by the architecture of the school building, but by teachers' preferences for isolation. Teachers themselves tend to choose not to work with their colleague teachers. D. Hargreaves (1980) calls this phenomenon "The cult of individualism" (Hargreaves, D., 1980, p. 187) and, claims that teachers do not like to be observed in their classroom work; the

presence of a colleague is often perceived to be highly threatening because they are fearful of the criticism that may accompany evaluation. Rosenholtz (1985) also explains that, even when teachers need help from other colleagues, they might tend not to ask, if they view it as potentially embarrassing or stigmatising and if it again threatens their sense of professional adequacy. Under these circumstances, teachers frequently and unconsciously forgo help or efforts on behalf of a colleague to avert such self-disclosure (Rosenholtz, 1989). Rosenholtz (1989, p. 430) calls this teacher isolation situation "insulating boundaries". The insulated and isolated school culture also strongly affect beginning teachers regarding the aspect of professional development. If they have little access to role models among their peers, instead of gaining substantive knowledge from their more expert or experienced colleagues, beginning teachers rely on memories of good teachers, recalling their own student experiences, and consider alternative solutions (Lortie, 1975; Rosenholtz, 1989).

3.7.2.2. Balkanization

The second form of teacher culture is balkanization. In a balkanized culture, while teachers associate more closely with their colleagues in small groups, they identify with and are loyal to the group rather than the school as a whole (Hargreaves, 1992; Day, 1999). Although teachers work with colleagues in small groups, the balkanized culture belongs not to the culture of integration, but to the culture of connection. According to *the Concise Oxford English Dictionary* (2011), the word 'balkanize' means to be divided into small mutually hostile states or groups. Sub-groups in the balkanized school culture are insulated from each other (Hargreaves & Macmillan, 1992), and "compete for resources, status and influence in the school" (Day, 1999, p. 79). In the balkanized culture collaboration will "occur only if it serves the interests of the group" (Day, 1999, p. 80). This self-interest gives a political complexion to the group members (Ball, 1987). Hargreaves and Macmillan (1992) explain that promotion, status and resources are frequently distributed between and realised through membership; however, these goods are not distributed evenly among the group members. Therefore, in balkanized cultures, there are winners and losers (Hargreaves & Macmillan, 1992).

3.7.2.3. Collaborative culture

Collaboration is an essential element of teacher development and school improvement (Rosenholtz, 1989; Mortimore et al., 1993; Day, 1999). In order to discuss why the collaborative culture is important both for teacher development and school improvement, it is important to consider how teachers have relationships with their colleagues. Compared with individual and balkanization cultures, the collaborative culture creates a supportive atmosphere among teachers. However, it is also important to note how Day (1999) distinguishes collaboration from comfort collaboration in defining collaborative school culture. According to Day, if collaboration does not extend to the classroom, the culture may be cooperation masquerading as collaboration because it remains at the level of talking about teaching, giving advice and technique trading. Day defines this situation as "comfort collaboration" (Day, 1999, p. 80). In contrast with comfort collaboration, in the collaborative culture, teachers might expose themselves to critical as well as supportive comments from their colleagues for improvement, because critical reflection and experimentation are the norms in this culture (Day, 1999). Hargreaves (1994) characterises collaborative cultures as follows: "collaborative cultures can extend into joint work, mutual observation, and focussed reflective inquiry in ways that extend practice critically, searching for better alternatives in the continuous quest for improvement" (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 195). Furthermore, Nias et al. (1989) point out that failure and uncertainty are not protected and defended, but shared and discussed with a view to gaining help and support. In the collaborative culture, all or most teachers must "give up at least a measure of their independence" (Day, 1999, p. 80). Nevertheless, Hargreaves emphasises the advantage of the collaborative culture as follows:

> …, collaborative cultures are not cozy, complacent and politically quiescent. Rather, they can build collective strength and confidence in communities of teachers who are able to interact knowledgeably and assertively with the bearers of innovation and reform.   (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 195)

These aspects of collaborative culture greatly contribute to teachers' development and school improvement.

3.7.2.4 Contrived collegiality culture

A fourth form of culture is contrived collegiality. As mentioned above in relation to the previous three types of cultures (individualism, balkanization and collaboration), a key issue for schools is "how to move from an individualized or balkanized teacher culture to a collaborative one" (Hargreaves, 1992, p. 229). Day (1999) suggests that, "in 'individualism', 'balkanized' and 'comfortably collaborative' cultures, it is likely that development will be evolutionary to the point that it becomes extinct without external intervention" (Day, 1999, p. 81). In order to achieve the collaborative culture, teachers may work together through "specific bureaucratic procedure" (Hargreaves, 1992, p. 229). It may be an administrative device imposed by the principal (Day, 1999). Therefore, compared with the collaborative culture, in the contrived collegiality culture, teachers' collaborative working relationships are not spontaneous, voluntary and development-oriented. Hargreaves (1994) shows the following features of working relationships in the contrived collegiality:

> 1) Administratively regulated. Contrived collegiality does not evolve spontaneously from initiative of teachers, but is an administrative imposition that requires teachers to meet and work together.
>
> 2) Compulsory. Contrived collegiality therefore makes working together a matter of compulsion as in mandatory peer coaching, team teaching and collaborative planning arrangement.
>
> 3) Implementation-oriented. Under conditions of contrived collegiality, teachers are required or "persuaded" to work together to implement the mandates of others – most directly those of the principal, or head teacher, or indirectly those of the school direct or the Ministry. Such mandates may take the form of a national curriculum, accelerated learning programs, or cooperative learning strategies, for example. Here, collegial cooperation is closely bound up with administrative cooperation.
> (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 195)

Here, it is interesting to consider the case of team-teaching. According to Hargreave's explanations above, team-teaching helps teachers to build collaborative relationships among teachers. Rosenholtz (1989) also comments that:

> Unlike isolated settings, work arrangements and communications in team teaching related directly to the nature of

> instruction; teachers held greater decision-making rights, collaborated more with principals about those decisions, and markedly increased their own exchange of advice and assistance.
>
> (Rosenholtz, 1989, p. 45)

In other words, for the improvement of school culture, team-teaching is regarded as a breakthrough in changing from isolated to collaborative workplaces.

For establishing norms of collaboration in schools, Rosenholtz (1989) emphasises the importance of principals as follows:

> Norms of collaboration don't simply just happen. They do not spring spontaneously out of teachers' mutual respect and concern for each other. Rather, principals seem to structure them in the workplace by offering ongoing invitations for substantive decision-making and faculty interaction.
>
> (Rosenholtz, 1989, p. 44)

According to Rosenholtz (1989), norms of collaboration evolve directly from faculty members' decision-making processes, and the principal should facilitate this. Although principals fulfil a crucial role in establishing a collaborative culture, it is important to note that contrived collegiality is not a remedy for all types of school situations. Considering the diversity of school cultures is important. For example, in some schools, individualism and balkanization may coexist. The cultures change over time (Lieberman, 1992). If peer coaching, mentor teaching and joint planning and teaching are mandated by the principal without noticing positive relations already built among some teachers in the school, it may discourage existing collegial relations or destroy the development of collaborative cultures (Hargreaves, 1992). Cultures of contrived collegiality may act as a bridging process towards more collaborative cultures in providing added opportunities for development (Day, 1999). However culture will also be affected by its leaders (Day, 1999). The principal has a key role in whether or not the school can build a positive culture for school improvement as well as teacher development.

3.7.3 Previous studies concerning school culture

Although teachers' relationships with their colleagues are obviously complex, there is little attention given to the fact that most educational settings already have school cultures of their own (Kleinsasser, 1999). However, some empirical studies concerning school culture have revealed significant findings.

Firstly, according to his empirical study based on interviews with teachers in Five Towns, United States, Lortie (1975) found that teachers preferred individualism to collaborative relationship. Teachers respected egalitarianism which rules out imposing one's views on others; one should respond to requests for help but not expect special privileges for doing so. Interestingly, Lortie pointed out that there are similarities between these Five Towns' teachers' collegial norms and young Chicago lawyers' shared-office tendencies. For example, some newly qualified lawyers agreed to share the expenses of practice such as rent, clerical help, and library, but not profits. Among these Chicago lawyers' relationships, each man kept whatever he earned beyond his contribution to common expenses. Lortie (1975) says that teachers "want boundaries around their core teaching task – they assume that students learn best when the teacher works without interruption" (Lortie, 1975, p. 211). Lortie's (1975) study actually indicated that teachers tended to avoid team-teaching – teaching students with their colleagues at the same time under this norm of individualism.

Secondly, Rosenholtz (1989) identified two types of school cultures: learning-enriched and learning-impoverished. According to Rosenholtz (1989), in learning-impoverished schools, teachers are isolated from colleagues, and tend to hold a terminal view of their learning, entailing mastery of routine practices and procedures. Teacher learning in this culture seems to result at the end of a brief voyage. In contrast, in learning-enriched schools, teachers collaborate with their colleagues, and tend to hold a sustained view of their learning so as to better meet the challenge of students' diverse learning needs. In this culture, any voyage of teacher learning seems ongoing. Interestingly Rosenholtz (1989) found that, in learning-enriched schools, teachers set goals not only with their colleagues but also with their principals.

In contrast with Rosenholtz's focus on general issues in school cultures, Kleinsasser (1989, 1993) examined foreign language teachers at upper secondary school level in the US, applying Rosenholtz's model. Kleinsasser's

study found two types of school cultures. The first is a routine/uncertain technical culture. Like Rosenholtz's learning-impoverished school culture, although teachers are uncertain about their teaching and whether or not some of their students could learn, teachers simply engage in day-to-day routine instructional activities. Teachers in this culture do not communicate or share with their colleagues regarding teaching. The second type found by Kleinsasser he called the nonroutine/certain technical culture, similar to Rosenholtz's learning-enriched school culture. In this culture, teachers' practices of teaching are not routinised, but rather spontaneous. Interestingly, compared with teachers in routine/uncertain technical cultures, who tend to rely mainly on traditional teaching methods such as grammar-focused activities, teachers in nonroutine/certain technical culture incorporated more communicative activities combined with traditional grammar teaching.

Finally, Sato and Kleinsesser (2004) examined school culture and teachers' professional development activities focusing on a Japanese upper secondary school and found that Hargreaves' ideas of individualism and balkanization were prevalent within the school. Most teachers in the English department learned from watching other teachers. The English department in this school traditionally provided several opportunities for peer-observation and discussed each observed class in the departmental meetings. However, the observation of the English lessons revealed that these teachers actually learned the pattern of teaching based on the grammar-translation method. Learning from watching other teachers meant to follow the same way as other teachers did rather than discussing new ideas of teaching. Furthermore, in these peer-observations, the teachers seemed unwilling to critique other teachers, especially experienced teachers' practices and teaching behaviours, although the younger teachers received more criticism from their more experienced colleagues. Interestingly, their study found that a small minority of teachers tried new ideas because they learned how to teach by using these innovative methods from workshops and seminars outside the school. Nevertheless, these teachers' experiences were rarely shared and had little impact on the pattern of teaching English, and as a result, these innovative ideas became marginalised in the school. The study indicated that the balkanized cultural relationships existed among the English department members in this school.

Although the majority of the teachers in the school followed the same pattern of teaching supported by the course book, handouts and grammar activities, they noticed the significance of communication-oriented English, and struggled with how to teach English based on CLT. However, their individual struggles and conflicts were little discussed within the English department. In their isolation, many of them returned to their typical grammar-translation focused activities or to teach the same way they were taught in secondary schools or universities. For example, in the school there were several NSTs who were not JET participants but were employed directly by the school itself. Communication classes were taught by the NST and JTE. According to the observation of team-teaching with the NST, a JTE with 27 years of teaching experience tried pair work, using materials developed by the NST in the first part of the class; however, in the second half of the class, the JTE returned to routine practice that highlighted teacher control. According to the interview data, it seemed difficult for the JTE to keep the learners' attention by using communicative activities for a whole hour, and as result, the JTE felt he had no choice but to go back to the routine practice of engaging students in a drill on pronunciation of words and in a quiz in translating Japanese words into English. This JTE's choice was the result not only of his lack of confidence in the new teaching method, but also from the individualised school culture.

3.8 Communities of practice within the school

3.8.1 The school community
Each school has a unique culture (see Section 3.7.2) and, therefore, it is important that the school provides novice teachers or new staff with induction processes which help them to become included and socialised into the school culture (Nias, et al., 1989). This thesis investigates how both new and experienced ALTs cope with the school culture, and how the school helps them integrate within the school culture. In order to discuss the induction of ALTs into their working places, it is important to consider the school community as well as the school culture. According to Nias et al. (1989), inexperienced or new teachers learn most from those of their colleagues who are easily visible or accessible (Nias et al., 1989). Referring to a study by Bolam et al. (2005), which showed that teachers noticed an increase in collaboration when they worked in communities,

Brouwer et al. (2012) note that "a community is a promising context for stimulating ongoing collaboration between teachers and embedding into the school culture" (Brouwer, et al., 2012, p. 347). In particular, the concept of communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991) is a key element considering the role of the school community and novice teachers.

3.8.2 Communities of practice

The concept of communities of practice originated from a theory of learning – situated learning – defined by Lave and Wenger (1991) as learning through practice and participation. The core characteristic of situated learning lies in the concept of legitimate peripheral participation (LPP). Based on their studies of how apprenticeships help people learn, Lave and Wenger found that, when newcomers join an established group or community, they spend some time initially observing and performing simple tasks in basic roles as they learn how the group works and how they can participate. Getting inspiration from this socialisation process, Lave and Wenger developed the concept of LPP.

Here, it is important to note that communities of practice are more than learning by doing (Wenger, 1998): learning should not be simply the transmission of a body of factual knowledge from the instructor to the receiver, but a social process whereby knowledge can be constructed by the learner (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Wenger (1998) emphasises that learning is situated; that is, as it normally occurs, learning is embedded within activity, context and culture. Therefore, social interaction and collaboration are essential to situated learning. Learners actually become involved in a community of practice which embodies certain beliefs and behaviours to be acquired at the same time. Although they were originally based on a learning theory, communities of practice can be applied to the context of teacher education and learning because teachers are also learners from the aspect of professional development. Learning opportunities can occur in particular for novice teachers through informal interaction among colleagues in the contexts of their schools. Newcomers gain access to the community's professional knowledge in their situated contexts through encounters with people, tasks and social norms. Therefore, I apply Lave and Wenger's communities of practice to the induction of ALTs to the school.

3.8.3 Sense of belonging and LPP

Belonging and relationships should be at the centre of the school community. Furman (2002, p. 12) points out the importance of creating the sense of community within the school, saying that if the school's teachers do not experience the psychological or affective sense of community, then a community is not present in the school. For the creation of this sense of community within the school, membership is crucial. According to McMillan and Chavis (1986), membership is the sense of belonging and identification, which involves the feeling, belief, and expectation that one fits in the group and has a place there, and a feeling of acceptance by the group. Furthermore, McMillan and Chavis (1986) emphasise that the role of identification is represented in "the reciprocal statements "It is my group" and "I am part of the group"" (McMillan & Chavis, 1986, p. 10).

In my study of team-teaching in Japan, I believe that the concept of LPP can help ALTs to feel this sense of belonging within the school. In order to discuss the sense of belonging and LPP, it is important to distinguish differences between the boundary and peripherality for the communities of practice. According to Wenger (1998), boundaries and peripheries both refer to the edges of communities of practice; however, "boundaries – no matter how negotiable or unspoken – refer to discontinuities, to lines of distinction between inside and outside, membership and nonmembership, inclusion and exclusion" (Wenger, 1998, p. 120). In contrast to the exclusiveness of boundaries, "peripheries – no matter how narrow – refer to continuities, to areas of overlap and connections, to windows and meeting places, and to organized and casual possibilities for participation offered to outsiders or newcomers" (Wenger, 1998, p. 120). Therefore, the concept of peripherality of the LPP is the partial participation by newcomers in the practice of community; however, it is not meant to be unrelated to the main part of the community, but suggests a dynamic concept. Lave and Wenger (1991) emphasise that peripherality is "an opening, a way of gaining access to sources for understanding through growing involvement" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 37). LPP provides newcomers with the opportunity to "participate in communities of practitioners and that the mastery of knowledge and skill requires newcomers to move toward full participation in the sociocultural practices of community" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 29), and it concerns the process by which newcomers

become part of a community of practice. Peripherality is an empowering position, and thus moving toward full participation in practice involves "an increasing sense of identity as a master practitioner" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 111). If ALTs as newcomers interact with other school members through LPP, they can be drawn into a community of practice and these continuous communities of practice can give ALTs a sense of belonging.

Although newcomers feel a sense of belonging, another issue might arise. Through LPP, newcomers are absorbed into the community, and may lose their own characteristics. With regard to this issue, Lave and Wenger suggest that "participation is always based on situated negotiation and renegotiation of meaning in the world" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 51). LPP helps not to reproduce a copy of the master but to engage in continuous negotiation between the newcomers and the master of the community, and, by doing so, to constantly create third cultures or third places (Kramsch, 1993).

3.8.4 Concept map of team-teaching interactions

If the introduction of team-teaching with ALTs as NSTs was expected to help develop JTEs' English speaking abilities as well as teaching abilities with regard to CLT (see Section 2.1), it would be important to consider the relationship between school cultures and communities of practice. Whether or not the new ideas brought by the ALTs are accepted will also depend to some extent on how the school culture may impact on establishing teachers' professional learning communities (communities of practice) within the school. Therefore, the following concept map of team-teaching interactions (see Figure 3.5 on the following page) for my thesis can be established, from the aspects of school cultures and communities of practice.
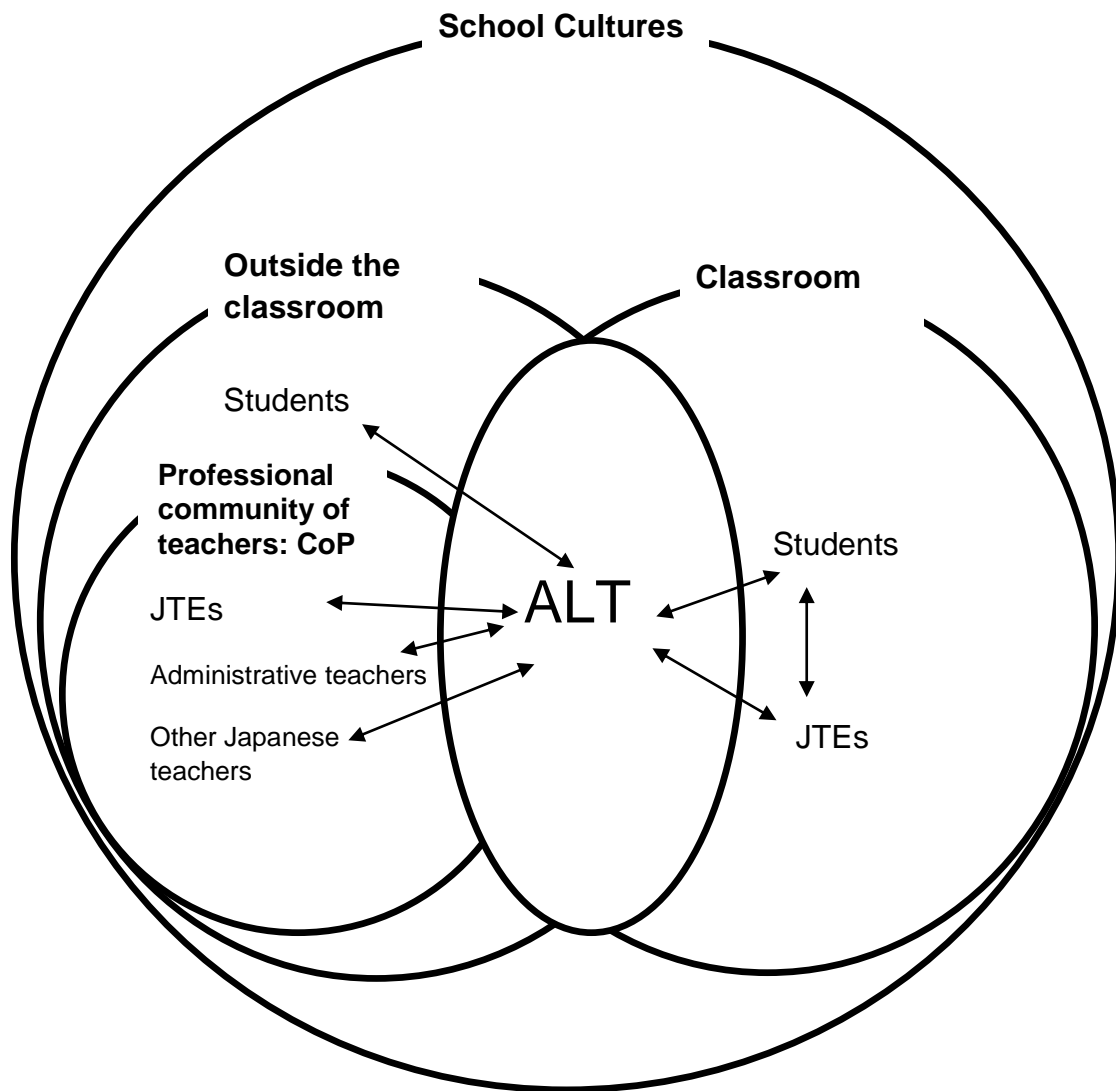
Figure 3.5 Concept map of team-teaching interactions within the school cultures

Note: CoP = Communities of practice

As the concept map shows (see Figure 3.5), the ALTs as newcomers may have to learn not only their teaching skills but also the contextual knowledge through working with the JTEs and their colleagues as the long-term employees, outside the classroom within the school. These interactions with them may also help the ALTs to negotiate with the JTE to implement their own roles in the classroom, which also impacts on establishing team-teaching interactions among the JTEs, ALTs and the students. However, it is important to note that the nature of these interactions between the ALTs and their colleagues (including JTEs) within the

teachers' professional learning communities themselves are influenced by the school culture, as the diagram suggests.

In this chapter, I have discussed the literature relevant to the areas investigated. In order to examine team-teaching by the JTE and ALT not only in the language classroom but also within the school, the present study adopts an ethnographic case study approach within the interpretive paradigm. In the next chapter (Chapter 4), I will provide the details of the research methodology adopted in this study with its philosophical underpinnings, and will give a detailed description of the data collection method and data analysis.

Chapter 4
Methodology

Introduction

On the basis of the existing literature, in particular, school cultures as 'a small culture' (Holliday, 1999, 2005; Holiday et al., 2010) and 'communities of practice' (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998), the previous chapter identified key investigation issues concerning team-teaching interactions and collaboration, as well as establishing the conceptual framework of this study (see Figure 3.5 in Section 3.8.4). Based on the framework, this section will justify my chosen methodology and the data collection tools to respond to the research aims and research questions (see Chapter 1).

The first part will provide a description and justification for adopting the theoretical perspective on designing this study, as well as my chosen methodology and methods. The second will outline how the research process of this study was conducted, with reference to the research sites, the participants, empirical data collection and data analysis, as well as a consideration of the ethical issues.

4.1 Research areas

In accordance with the main aim of the study (see Chapter 1), this ethnographic case study focuses on three areas: 1) the role of ALTs in the schools as well as classrooms, 2) roles of JTEs and 3) roles of the school culture. The three main research questions are the following:

1. How are the roles of ALTs perceived by ALTs, JTEs and their Japanese colleagues, and in what ways do ALTs contribute to students' learning and development in and out of classrooms over time?
2. How are the roles of JTEs perceived by ALTs, JTEs and their Japanese colleagues, and in what ways do JTEs fulfil their roles within the schools?
3. What types of school cultures emerge in managing the JET Programme, and in what ways and to what extent do ALTs adjust to the school cultures?

4.2 Theoretical perspectives

Theoretical perspective is the philosophical stance informing the methodology and thus providing a context for the process and grounding its logic and criteria (Crotty, 1998). In other words, methodology fulfil an important role as the bridge between researchers' philosophical standpoints (on ontology and epistemology) and methods. Therefore, in order to develop justification for my chosen methodology and the methods, I would first like to explain my paradigmatic position, which is shaped by my view of the world describing what reality is like and the basic elements it contains ('ontology') and what is the nature and status of knowledge ('epistemology') (Silverman, 2010). Then, I describe the research methodology and methods adopted in this study.

4.2.1 Interpretive paradigm

Paradigms have profoundly affected the development of research in general and qualitative research in particular (Croker, 2009). According to Croker (2009), despite there being several types of paradigms, this can be illustrated by comparing two different perspectives. The first is objectivism, which argues that there is only one, fixed reality, so research must strive to find a singular, universal truth. The second is constructivism. Constructivists believe that there is no universally agreed upon reality or universal truth, and a theoretical perspective linked to constructivism is interpretivism. The interpretive approach is appropriate for my study, as is explained in the following section.

Ontology is a set of beliefs about the nature of reality (Morgan, 2013). Epistemology is concerned with the nature of knowledge and how it can be acquired (Snape & Spencer, 2003). Ontologically, according to the interpretive paradigm, reality is "socially constructed, so the focus of research should be on an understanding of this construction and the multiples perspectives it implies" (Richards, 2003, p. 38). Multiple mental constructions are also acceptable, and perceptions of reality may change throughout the process of reality (Mertens, 1998). My research follows a constructivist ontology because one of the main aims of this study is to interpret participants' perceptions, as each individual creates his or her own unique understanding of the world (Croker, 2009). Furthermore, according to Hammersley and Atkinson (2007), one of the important philosophical ideas on which interpretivism is based is that the social world

cannot be understood in terms of simple causal relationships or by the subsumption of social events under universal laws. Rather, human actions are based upon, or infused by, social meanings. With this in mind, for my study it is not appropriate to accept the epistemological view of objectivism – things exist as meaningful entities independently of consciousness and experiences, that they have truth and meaning residing in them as objects, and that careful research can attain that objective truth and meaning (Crotty, 1998). Interpretivism, in contrast, explores and understands "the social world through the participants' own perspectives; and explanations can only be offered at the level of meaning rather than cause" (Ormston et al., 2014, p. 24). Thus, the interpretivism paradigm attempts to describe "what happens, how the people involved see and talk about their own actions and those of others, the contexts in which the action takes place, and what follows from it" (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007, p. 7). This is what my research aims to do by exploring the school cultures and the effect that these cultures have on the perspectives of ALTs and JTEs, their roles and contributions and on the relationships between the ALTs and JTEs. Therefore, this study project derives from the interpretive paradigm.

4.2.2 Research methodology: Ethnographic case study
This study aims to explore how team teachers' (JTEs' and ALTs') perceived and actual roles are influenced by school cultures, as well as which aspects of the school cultures could impact on the effectiveness of the JET Programme. It also investigates the ways in which the ALTs are welcomed and accepted into the schools as well as how the ALTs cope with the contexts of specific school settings and cultures. In order to achieve this goal, I chose a qualitative research design that combined case study with ethnography. The reasons for this are explained in the following sections.

4.2.2.1 Case study

A qualitative case study approach was chosen for this study, seeing that "reality is multiple, contradictory and changing" (Hood, 2009, p. 68) under the interpretive paradigm. In applying a case study approach, defining case is essential. There

are also several types of qualitative case study. I shall explain how I define case and what types of case study was used in this study.

1) Defining case

This case study defined each school as a case. A case study is defined as "a single instance of some bound system, which can range from one individual to a class, or an entire community" (McKay, 2006, p. 71). Here, the boundedness is a key element of case studies. According to Heigham and Croker (2009), boundedness is a term used in case study to refer to the parameters of a case. Therefore, case could include "the individual or entity, for example a school, under investigation and the settings in which social action takes place" (Heigham & Croker, 2009, p. 307). Importantly, if a case is a bounded system, it is the researcher's task to determine these boundaries (Hood, 2009). In other words, the boundaries of the case are firmly linked to "the researcher's interests" (Hood, 2009, p. 69). I am interested in the impact of the JET Programme on the school level, and, thus, I expanded the site to include the school as a whole.

2) Collective case study

This study employed the elements of collective case study, focusing on three cases: three schools – the group of people within the cases who are influenced in some way by the JET Programme. In collective case study, the researcher chooses more than one case to shed light on a particular issue (Hood, 2009). This study considers issues concerning a lack of interactions and collaboration between the JTEs and ALTs (see Chapter 1). In order to gain a deep understanding of interactions and collaboration between the JTEs and ALTs, the collective case study approach allows me to explore how the impact of the JET Programme on the JTEs', ALTs' and schools' roles are similar or different across the three schools. I believe that this approach helps the JET Programme, schools and teachers (JTEs and ALTs) provide more appropriate and relevant suggestions for the improvement of team-teaching interactions and collaboration and the effectiveness of the JET Programme.

4.2.2.2 Ethnography

1) A small culture approach

As indicated in the previous chapter (see Chapter 3), the perceptions of various groups of people and the small culture they constitute are a significant element of my study. With this in mind, adopting ethnographic aspects in my study is appropriate. A distinctive feature of ethnography is that it seeks a deeper understanding of how people as meaning-makers interpret their worlds, and of the particular cultural worlds in which people live and which they both construct and utilise (Goldbart & Hustler, 2005). Ethnography is also defined as "a form of qualitative research employed by anthropologists to study human society and culture" (Merriam, 1998, p. 13). The essence of ethnography is the study of cultures. Therefore, for my ethnographic study I am going to adopt a 'small culture' (see Section 3.7.1.1) approach, as described below.

In studying culture, firstly it is important to mention again large cultures and small cultures (see Section 3.7.1.1). Traditionally, ethnography was mainly associated with anthropology, and during the nineteenth century it focused on understanding the cultures of particular people in particular locations who were usually regarded as primitive (Walford, 2008). This is associated with large cultures (Holliday, 1999, 2005; Holiday et al., 2010). A large culture is based on an essentialist view and presumes that cultures are coincidental with "countries, regions, and continents, implying that one can visit them while travelling and that they contain mutually exclusive types of behaviour" (Holliday, 2005, p. 17) so that "people in one culture are essentially different from people in another" (Holliday et al., 2010. p. 3). Such a view of culture can be seen to encourage stereotyping and ethnocentrism, both of which judge another culture solely by the values and standards of one's own culture (Omohundro, 2008). In order to avoid this essentialist view of culture, I am going to adopt a small culture approach for my ethnographic study.

Secondly, it is important to note here again that a small culture approach is associated with values, and can relate equally to any type or size of group for any period of time (Holliday, et al., 2010; see Section 3.7.1.1). In this sense, culture exists even in much smaller groups, such as organisations, industries, gangs, and schools, all of which are contexts ethnographers could investigate (Heigham

& Sakui, 2009). This study aims to "find out how the people who are being studied view the situations they face, how they regard one another, and also how they see themselves" (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007, p. 3). Therefore, this ethnographic case study uses small cultures as the location for research, as an interpretive behaviour device in order to understand "emergent behaviour, rather than seeking to explain prescribed ethnic, national or international difference" (Holliday, 1999, p. 237).

2) Focused ethnography

This study also adopts focused ethnography which is different from classical ethnography. As explained above, traditional ethnography is conducted in "a culture unfamiliar to the researcher and may focus on a single setting (usually a village or several villages)" (Richards & Morse, 2007, p. 57). Conventional ethnographic studies are exemplified by researchers "entering the field with no preconceived focus and staying there for an extended period time, allowing a comprehensive description of the culture to be developed" (Heigham & Sakui, 2009, p. 94). As opposed to such a classical type of ethnographic studies, focused ethnography is used to study small cultures such as organisations and institutions (Richards & Morse, 2007), and pays attentions to issues. In such non-traditional studies, the topic is specific and identified before the researcher commences the study (Muecke, 1994). In order to examine the particular issue concerning the role of teachers (JTEs and ALTs) and the school culture, the focused ethnographic aspects enables me to examine "the common behaviours, experiences, or identities shared by the group in order to reveal the culture the people share" (Heigham & Sakui, 2009, p. 94).

4.2.2.3 Ethnographic case study

Since case study is characterised as the unit of analysis, other types of studies are combined with case study, and ethnographic case studies are quite common, for example, "wherein the culture of a particular social group is studied in depth" (Merriam, 2002, p. 8). Importantly, Merriam (1998) mentions that a case study focusing on the culture of a school, a group of students, or classroom behaviour

would be an ethnographic case study. This study aims to explore what types of school culture emerge in managing the JET Programme, and in what ways and to what extent ALTs adjust to the school cultures. Therefore, ethnographic case study is appropriate for this study.

4.3 Justification of data collection methods

This section aims to justify my chosen data collection methods in this study. The study employed an ethnographic approach to the data collection. School cultures as small cultures are complex and multifaceted. As noted in the previous section, one of the main aims of this study is to explore how team teachers' (JTEs' and ALTs') perceived and actual roles are influenced by school cultures. In order to gain a multi-dimensional appreciation of the settings, this study needs to consider a variety of data collection methods (Walford, 2008). Therefore, I applied multiple data collection methods, as Table 4.1 shows.

Main data	Observations
	Fieldnotes
	Interviews
Additional data	Artefacts
	Documents

Table 4.1 Data sources in this study

In addition to the above data collection tools, I kept a research diary. Although my research diary is not used as a direct data source, in that it does not provide evidence supporting my data analysis, it enabled me to do ongoing analysis and reflection on the research process, which helped in being constantly aware of the issue of bias or the potential distortion of research outcomes due to my hasty judgment, as well as unintended influence from my role as a researcher in the research sites (schools). Therefore the research diary should also be seen as one of the important tools in my study.

In the following sections, I shall explain why each data collection tool is appropriate to my study, considering the benefits of a combination of these data-gathering techniques.

4.3.1 Observations

In this study, it was considered important to look at interactions and collaboration between the JTEs and ALTs beyond the walls of the classrooms – i.e. in the larger school cultures. Therefore, observations inside and outside the classrooms are the key data-gathering instrument for this ethnographic case study. Observations enable researchers to observe actions or interactions and behaviour, and to listen to conversation while simultaneously observing the contexts in which these actions are undertaken (Bloor & Wood, 2006). In other words, observational studies are also useful to gain an in-depth understanding of a particular culture or group and people's behaviour in a particular setting. Importantly, observation is a useful data collection tool in particular for the study of school culture since "teachers and students follow familiar routines and activities in schools and often have quite fixed values, beliefs, and assumptions about what does or should go on there" (Cowie, 2009, p. 168). As mentioned previously, this study also aims to explore how the school cultures influence teachers' decision-making processes. Therefore, observation was considered an important tool to "demystify what is actually going on as opposed to what one might hope or assume is happening" (Anderson, et al., 1994, p. 129).

4.3.2 Fieldnotes

As mentioned in the previous section (see Section 4.3.1), observation is one of the main data collection tools in this study. In order to bring these important aspects of observations to my study, writing fieldnotes from observation is essential. This helps to provide a rich, deep description, which is the hallmark of ethnography (Heigham & Sakui, 2009). It is important to note here that fieldnotes contain not only the description of what has been observed but also what people say both in formal and informal conversations. These quotations provide the insider's perspective (emic perspective), which is at the heart of most ethnographic research (Fetterman, 1998). It also helps to create detailed

summaries of the context, activities, events and participants' behaviours (Merriam, 1998; Heigham & Sakui, 2009).

It is also important to note here that there are two type of fieldnotes: direct fieldnotes and reflective fieldnotes. Direct fieldnotes are based on site observations of activities without any considered reflective comments. Reflective fieldnotes are direct fieldnotes with comments in writing from researchers as they observe the situation. Using these two ways of fieldnotes helps researchers to remain nonjudgmental and to avoid imposing their own cultural norm on the people being studied (Fetterman, 1998). Therefore, fieldnotes play an important role in my ethnographic case study.

4.3.3 Interviewing

In order to understand cultures, ethnographic researchers try to explore and understand how people behave within the particular cultures, and thus, observational research is important. In particular, observational research enables researchers to come to a point of recognising "meaningful patterns in observed behaviours" (Angrosino, 2007, p. 42). However, as Angrosino (2007) points out, the following inevitable question arises after observations: "'what, exactly, do those behaviours mean?'" (Angrosino, 2007, p. 42). Regarding this, interviews compensate for the limitation of observations since interviews fundamentally focus more on participants' thinking than their behaviours. Only interviews can collect verbal reports of behaviour, meanings, attitudes and feelings that are never directly observed (Bryman, 2004). Interviews "hold out the possibility of understanding the lived world from the perspective of the participants involved" (Richards, 2009, p. 187). In this study, I will explore how teachers (JTEs and ALTs) see their roles as well as how their roles are perceived. The aim of the ethnographic study is to interpret "another way of life from the native point of view by focusing on ordinary, everyday behaviour" (Bloor & Wood, 2006, p. 69). In order to understand the participant perspective, interviews are an important technique.

4.3.4 Artefacts and documents

Data-gathering is not limited to information that fieldworkers gather through participant observation and interviewing while actively on site (Wolcott, 2005). Artefacts and documents are important sources of data to understand the particular aspect of school culture in my study. Artefacts form another fundamental ethnographic data-gathering tool (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007). The artefacts for ethnographic studies can take a variety of forms. According to Yin (2003), "physical artefacts such as pictures, artwork, tools, or even technology may reveal much about the places where they were seen as necessary or desirable" (Yin, 2003, p. 86). This study also pays attention to documentary sources. A document is defined as "an artefact that has a written text regardless of its physical embodiment" (Bloor & Wood, 2006, p. 57). According to Prior (2003), documents are "manipulated in organized settings for many different ends, and they also function in different ways – irrespective of human manipulations" (Prior, 2003, p. 4). In short, documents relate to some aspects of the social world and have effects on people living there. Documents can also provide "information about settings being studied, or about their wider contexts, and particularly about key figures or organizations" (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007, p. 122). Although artefacts and documents are additional data sources, they help throw light on the hidden or not obvious issues, which interviews and observations might miss. Thus, assembling artefacts and documents should play an important role in my study.

4.3.5 Research diary

A research diary is a written record of the researcher's activities, thoughts and feelings throughout the research process from design, through data collection and analysis to writing and presenting the study (Bloor & Wood, 2006). The advantage of a research diary is reflexivity. Reflexivity encourages researchers to strive not to be complacent and to continue to review and critique their own research practice (Cassell & Symon, 2008), as well as providing them with the opportunity to have "an ongoing process in relation to learning" (Nadin & Cassell, 2006, p. 210). In addition to the discursive commentary and argument, I include reflexivity in my research diary. Therefore, the research diary is an important tool

for my research, enabling me to think about the research process and my role in it critically (Holliday, 2007).

As described above, this ethnographic case study gathered data from a range of sources, including observations, fieldnotes, interviews as well as artefacts and documents. A later section (see Section 4.4.3) will explain how the multiple methods of data collection were employed for this study.

4.4 Research process

This section outlines how the research process was conducted, explaining the selection of research settings and gaining access, the chosen research sites, the participants and how the data was obtained in these research sites.

4.4.1 Selection of research settings and gaining access to them

This section will describe the reasons and process of gaining access to my research sites. Gaining access to the research field is crucial and should not be taken lightly (Van Maanen & Kolb, 1985). In the stage of trying to gain access to potential research settings, many researchers might face numerous obstacles (Johl & Renganathan, 2010). In particular, as this study aims to focus on the participants' perspectives, it is also important to establish a good rapport with my research participants in the research fields, even before entering the research sites. Therefore, I will explain how I chose three schools (research settings) and carried out the procedure to approach them.

4.4.1.1 Selection of research settings

In the middle of September 2011, I started to make the first contact with the research settings – Schools A, B and C in the north-eastern provinces. Although I anticipated difficulties in finding different schools which would accept my research project, in particular after the Great East Japan earthquake of the 11th March 2011 devastated the north-eastern region, I still attempted to find some schools located in these provinces (Prefectures 1 and 2) in Japan for three reasons: familiarity with these areas based on my former experience as an

English teacher; the geographical convenience, and the characteristics of the schools.

Firstly, I had been an English teacher in Japanese upper secondary schools in Prefecture 1 for seven years. My previous study on team-teaching was also conducted in an upper secondary school in Prefecture 1 in 2003. I am more familiar with this area, and it helped me to feel more comfortable to enter the settings. Therefore, two schools in Prefecture 1 (Schools A and C) were chosen. Secondly, the three schools were also chosen due to their geographical convenience. It was important to find research sites which I could visit in one day. This would made it possible to continue to visit them regularly from my family house in Japan, over the six-month fieldwork period. Finally, the three schools were chosen for their particular characteristics. The aspects of the collective case study in this study attempted to explore similarities and differences across three different schools with regard to the school cultures' and their effects on the JTEs' ALTs' and schools' roles. If this study could identify the commonalities across the three schools, the recommendations could become more appropriate for the improvement of the JET Programme. Therefore, I chose the three schools with care. The details of the three schools will be described in Section 4.4.2.1.

4.4.1.2 The process of gaining access to the research settings

In gaining entry for the research setting of ethnographic studies, it is essential to "work with a gatekeeper, someone like a school principal who has the power to let you in – or keep you out of – a certain location" (Heigham & Sakui, 2009, p. 97). However, before making personal contact with the gatekeepers of the schools, I carried out several procedures to request permission to approach them, for two reasons. Firstly, it is not common to visit schools or even to ask to regularly visit classrooms in Japanese schools (Sakui, 2004). Secondly, I already found it was impossible to conduct fieldwork, as scheduled, after the Great East Japan earthquake in the north-eastern region. In my original plan, from April to August 2011, I was going to do my fieldwork in three Japanese upper secondary schools, which are located in the north-eastern region of Japan and which had agreed to participate before the earthquake. However, due to damage to the schools, both physically and psychologically, I had to find different secondary schools which

would agree to participate. In particular, as a result of the earthquake, some of the ALTs had to return home (Smart, 2011). It was anticipated that finding schools in the north-eastern region would become more challenging. Therefore, I firstly made contact directly with the English teachers' consultants in the BOE in City 1 in Prefecture 1 and in Prefecture 2, and with an acquaintance of mine who was about to take up the post of principal of the lower secondary school in City 1 in Prefecture 1, in order to get more information about the damage caused by the earthquakes and the effects on the schools, as well as to consult about how to gain access to potential research sites for my study. Through email exchange, I decided to contact the principals in Schools A and C, and the vice-principal in School B, since I decided that the most appropriate way was to make initial contact with the gatekeepers of the research sites. Secondly, I embarked on my initial contact with the principals (Schools A and C) and the vice-principal (School B) by writing or sending email to the three schools. At this stage I attempted to provide them with clear and detailed information about my affiliation and study, clearly emphasising the issues of confidentiality and anonymity. I also expressed in the letters and e-mail messages my willingness to visit the schools to explain more details of the research (see Appendix 3). Within a week after the initial contact, these three schools agreed to cooperate. In the final stage, I went back to Japan to arrange to meet the gatekeeper (the principal or the vice-principal) of each school and phoned them from Japan in the middle of October 2011.

4.4.2 The research settings and participants
This section describes details of the research settings (three schools) and the participants in this study.

4.4.2.1 The research settings: Three schools

I chose three different types of schools for this study: one secondary, one upper secondary and one lower secondary school (see Appendix 4 for types of schools). School A is located in one of the major cities (City 1) in a north-eastern part of Japan (Prefecture 1). This school is a public secondary school, combining lower secondary and upper secondary levels. Overall, School A is an academic school and expects the students to go on to higher education after they graduate. There

are about 800 students, aged from 12 to 18, and about 70 teachers. The English department consists of 11 JTEs and 2 ALTs. Although there seems to be flexibility of division of work between the two ALTs, basically one of them mainly teaches lower secondary students (from age 12 to 15), and the other is more involved in teaching upper secondary students (from age 15 to 18).

School B is a public technical upper secondary school in another major city (City 2) in a north-eastern prefecture of Japan (Prefecture 2). School B offers five different courses: Mechanical Systems, Electronic Systems, Information Systems, Architecture and Environmental Systems; currently there are about 700 students (from age 15 to 18) and 90 teachers. There are 4 JTEs who team-teach with one ALT.

In contrast to Schools A and B, School C is a very small school. The school is a public lower secondary school located in City 1 in Prefecture 1. There are about 60 students (from age 12 to 15) and 14 teachers; there are 2 JTEs and one ALT. An overview of the three schools is presented in Table 4.2.

SCHOOLS	TYPES OF SCHOOL	LOCATION	Ss	ALTs	JTEs
School A	Secondary (Ss, aged12-18)	City 1, Prefecture 1	800	2	11
School B	Technical Upper Secondary (Ss, aged 15-18)	City 2, Prefecture 2	700	1	4
School C	Lower secondary (Ss, aged 12-15)	City 1, Prefecture 1	60	1	2

Table 4.2 An overview of schools
Note: Ss = Students

4.4.2.2 Participants

As noted previously, this study focused on three areas: the role of ALTs, the role of JTEs and the role of schools. Before the fieldwork I initially planned to choose three groups as participants: ALTs, JTEs and administrative teachers. However, when I started to conduct the fieldwork, I found out about Alex's (ALT in School C) attendance of the PE lessons and extra-curricular activities (the baseball club). Therefore, during the fieldwork, I decided to negotiate with the school (School C)

and with the PE teacher (Hidaka) about Hidaka's participation in my study. Consequently, this study involved interviews with 7 JTEs, 4 ALTs, 3 administrative teachers, and a PE teacher. They are the main participants for this study. All the informants in the study have been given pseudonyms to protect their anonymity. Their names (pseudonyms) are given in the table below, together with the names (pseudonyms) of the ALTs and the number of years they have been teaching in Japan (see Table 4.3). In addition to them, I frequently had opportunities to have a casual conversation with staff or visitors at the schools during the fieldwork. They are recorded in my fieldwork with their permission. Comments from some of them: the office head (see Section 5.1.1) and the ALTs' educational advisor from the BOE in City 1 (see Section 5.3.1) are included in the findings chapter (Chapter 5).

NAME	GENDER	SCHOOL	POSITION
Sakai	F	School A	JTE, ALTs' supervisor
Akama (P)	F	School A	JTE
Toda	M	School A	JTE (IE organiser)
Ishida	M	School A	Principal
Becky: United Kingdom	F	School A	ALT (2nd year)
Mike: Australia	M	School A	ALT (1st year)
Kawada	M	School B	JTE, ALTs' supervisor
Uemura	F	School B	JTE
Morita	M	School B	Vice-principal
Keith: United States	M	School B	ALT (3rd year)
Kimura	F	School C	JTE, ALTs' supervisor
Itoh (P)	F	School C	JTE
Hidaka	M	School C	PE teacher
Nakai	F	School C	Principal
Alex: New Zealand	M	School C	ALT (1st year)

Table 4.3 Interview participants in the study

Note: (P) = Part-time teacher | (IE organiser) = International Exchange course organiser

4.4.3 Empirical study design and development

In order to gain a multi-dimensional appreciation of the settings (schools), it was decided that a variety of data collection should be appropriate (see Section 4.3). This section firstly presents how and why selected data tools were used and how these data were linked for data analysis over time, in order to answer the research

questions. Table 4.4 shows the data needed to address the research questions, with the small 'X' denoting additional rather than the main data (see Section 4.3).

	Research questions	Chosen research methods				
		IT	OV	FN	AF	DC
1	How are the roles of ALTs perceived by ALTs, JTEs and their Japanese colleagues, and in what ways do ALTs contribute to students' learning and development in and out of classrooms over time?	X	X	X	X	X
2	How are the roles of JTEs perceived by ALTs, JTEs and their Japanese colleagues, and in what ways do JTEs fulfil their roles within the schools?	X	X	X	X	X
3	What types of school cultures emerge in managing the JET Programme, and in what ways and to what extent do ALTs adjust to the school cultures?	X	X	X	X	X

Table 4.4 Research questions and corresponding methods

Note: IT = interviews | OV = observations | FN = fieldnotes | AF = artefacts | DC = documents

Considering these research questions, a combination of interviews, observations and fieldnotes was deemed appropriate to investigate how the roles of ALTs, JTEs and schools are perceived and actually fulfilled within the school cultures. With regards to investigating perceived roles of ALTs and JTEs (research questions one and two), although the data from interviews, observations, and fieldnotes were all used, the most significant contribution came from interviews. As a researcher, this allowed me to probe the questions and to obtain more detailed information. With regards to research question three and investigating the school cultures, observation data and fieldnotes were equally important with interview data here because as a researcher, I was able to observe aspects of the school cultures as well as ask participants about them in the interviews.

Artefacts and documents were also useful in adding details to some of my other data collection tools. For example, the artefact data stimulated me as a researcher to do further enquiries in the interviews or the casual conversation. It also corroborated some preliminary codes from the data obtained in the interview and observation. In particular artefacts enabled me to perceive aspects of the ALTs' roles and their contribution to the school culture and to their students' learning e.g. in relation to the visuals they put up on walls etc. With regards to the school cultures and the roles of the JET Programme, documents were important and useful.

At all stages of the research process, I was observing, and then I was keeping fieldnotes and a research diary. I used documents both initially and at the end to look at the JET Programme. Studying artefacts as well as document analysis were ongoing procedures in that I was continually looking at them on my frequent visits to the research sites. Interviews and observations came at the specific times during the research process.

The following sections give details of how the data collection instruments were employed in this study. A summary of what data was obtained and where can also be found in Tables 4.9 and 4.10.

4.4.3.1 Interview design

As Murray (2006, p. 49) suggests, "A pilot study provides an opportunity for researchers to test and refine their methods and procedures for data collection and data analysis". My pilot study helped me to develop tools and techniques of data collection before starting my fieldwork. Before piloting the interview, first I consulted my supervisor about the interview enquiries. With an introduction from a previous colleague who worked in public upper secondary schools in Japan, I conducted a pilot study of interviews with three teachers (the JTE, the ALT and the principal of the school) in order to check whether or not the questions and its probes were clear to the interviewees. The second interview with the same ALT was piloted two months later. As a result of the pilot study, a few minor modifications were made to the interview enquiries. The final versions of the interview enquiries are reproduced in Appendices 5.1, 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4. With their permission, I recorded the interviews. The length of the interview with the JTE

and ALT was approximately 40 to 50 minutes. The interview with the principal lasted about 30 minutes. This helped me to explain the average length of the interview before data collection to each participant of the research sites (Schools A, B and C).

In this study, I conducted face-to-face interviews with all participants. The interviews were semi-structured and included open-ended questions. The participants were interviewed individually, and each interview was recorded with their permission. The ALTs were interviewed in English, and Japanese teachers (JTEs, administrative teachers and a PE teacher in School C) in Japanese. I conducted interviews with ALTs twice, at the beginning and end of my fieldwork. The second interview aimed to encourage the ALTs to consider each aspect of the categories outlined below, based on their experience in their schools, and to reflect on that experience. Only one ALT in School C (Alex) was interviewed three times, as I wished to pose further questions regarding his attendance at extra-curricular activities and the PE classes. An interview schedule can be found in Table 4.5.

The interviews with the ALTs and JTEs were conducted related to the following four categories of enquiry:

A: Goals of the JET Programme and team-teaching
B: Promoting learning
C: Roles of teachers
D: School culture and school community (Roles of schools)

For the administrative teachers, the interviews were based on three categories and were conducted as follows:

A: Goals of the JET Programme and team-teaching
B: Promoting learning
C: School culture and school community (Roles of schools)

The interview with a PE teacher in School C was semi-structured and designed based on the issues emerging from the observations of the PE class and club activity, in which the ALT participated. Sample copies of the interview enquiries and categories of enquiry for the ALT (third time) and the PE teacher can be found in Appendices 5.5 and 5.6.

In addition to the semi-structured interviews above, informal conversations with JTEs, ALTs, administrative teachers, the PE teacher, school staff and the ALTs' educational advisor were recorded in my fieldnotes.

NAME/ (SCHOOL)	POSITION	INTERVIEW DATES		
		INTVW 1	INTVW 2	INTVW 3
Sakai (A)	JTE	09/02/2012 14.05-14.50		
Akama (A)	JTE (P)	14/02/2012 13.10-13.55		
Toda (A)	JTE	23/01/2012 14.30-15.25		
Ishida (A)	Principal	27/03/2012 13.40-14.20		
Becky (A)	ALT	25/01/2012 16.00-16.45	27/03/2012 9.30-10.15	
Mike (A)	ALT	18/01/2012 16.00-16.50	27/03/2012 10.40-11.20	
Kawada (B)	JTE	16/11/2011 13.30-12.25		
Uemura (B)	JTE	21/11/2011 11.30-12.25		
Morita (B)	Vice-Principal	27/01/2012 15.40-16.20		
Keith (B)	ALT	21/11/2011 15.00-16.10	07/03/2012 15.40-16.55	
Kimura (C)	JTE	30/11/2011 14.45-15.20		
Itoh (C)	JTE (P)	05/03/2012 14.30-15.10		
Nakai (C)	Principal	29/03/2012 10.30-11.10		
Hidaka (C)	PE	22/03/2012 14.00-14.45		
Alex (C)	ALT	30/11/2011 16.00-17.00	29/02/2012 16.00-17.10	18/04/2012 15.00-16.00

Table 4.5 An interview schedule

Note: (P) = Part-time teacher | INTVW 1 = the first interview | INTVW 2 = the second interview | INTVW 3 = the third interview

4.4.3.2 Observation design

1) Observation of the team-taught lessons

The main purpose of the observation was to see what kinds of interactions were constructed among the JTE, ALT and the students over the period. I continued to observe the same members of the classrooms from November 2011 to April 2012. In addition to the interaction, other issues emerged. Each emerging issue was recorded in the fieldnotes. An observation schedule can be found in Table 4.6.

The observations of the team-taught lessons were non-participant observations. I mainly stood at back of the classroom, and watched the lessons; however, a JTE, Sakai in Team 1, sometimes encouraged me to join the classroom activities during the team-taught lesson. From time to time, I participated in activities such as games and pair-work with the students. Each lesson lasted from 45 to 50 minutes, and with the participants' permission, all the classes were video-recorded.

TEAM (SL)	MEMBERS	OBSERVATION DATES			
		OVSVN 1	OVSVN 2	OVSVN 3	OVSVN 4
Team1 (A)	Sakai (JT) Becky (AT)	23/01/2012 13.10-13.55	09/02/2012 15.00-15.45	05/03/2012 15.00-15.45	
Team2 (A)	Akama (JT) Mike (AT)	18/01/2012 15.00-15.45	25/01/2012 15.00-15.45	14/02/2012 11.30-12.15	13/03/2012 11.30-12.15
Team3 (B)	Kawada (JT) Keith (AT)	16/11/2011 12.30-13.20	14/12/2011 12.30-13.20	27/01/2012 12.30-13.20	22/02/2012 12.30-13.20
Team4 (B)	Uemura (JT) Keith (AT)	16/11/2011 14.20-15.20	14/12/2011 14.20-15.20	22/02/2012 14.20-15.20	
Team5 (C)	Kimura (JT) Itoh (JT) Alex (AT)	30/11/2011 13.30-14.20	30/01/2012 13.30-14.20	06/02/2012 13.30-14.20	22/03/2012 11.40-12.30

Table 4.6 An observation schedule

Note: (SL) = School | (AT) = ALT | (JT) = JTE | OVSVN 1 = the first observation | OVSVN 2 = the second observation | OVSVN 3 = the third observation | OVSVN 4 = the fourth observation

2) Observation outside the classrooms within the schools

Observations of outside the classroom were conducted whenever I visited the schools, and fiedlnotes were written over the period time. My decision to visit the schools was totally dependent on the schedule and the time convenient for the schools and the participants. However, I attempted to get any information relevant to my research aims, and negotiated ongoing access with the schools and participants during the fieldwork by establishing rapport with them. Some courses, classes other than English language lessons (a PE class), extra-curricular activities (club activities) and school events were particularly relevant to the findings of my study (see Table 4.7). I did not video-record these activities since it was expected that other teachers, ALTs, or visitors from outside the schools would be participating. The records of these particular activities were recorded in my fieldnotes.

I also spent time observing the wider situations of the schools. Following ethnographic research principles, I made an effort to remain open to all verbal and non-verbal interactional information relevant to my research purpose. As with the classroom observation of the team-taught lessons, I mainly took a role of an observer, and conducted non-participant observation of the outside classroom situations within the schools. I observed staff rooms, school cafeterias, libraries and any activities in which the ALTs participated. At the same time, I had informal conversations with the JTEs, ALTs and the school staff while they had their breaks, in particular before and after the lessons. Those were recorded in the fieldnotes with their permission. Furthermore, I conducted participant observation of some schools events and activities in Schools A, B and C. For instance, I was encouraged by a JTE in School A to join the activities with the students at the International Exchange (IE) courses. The principal in School C invited me to attend the kite-flying festival and, with the ALT, to help students. While observing the lunch time in School C, I was able to eat with a group of students and the ALT, with the permission of the school. Even when the ALT and I casually went to the school cafeteria, some students voluntarily joined us. This enabled me to get involved in their lives in the natural settings.

COURSES, ACTIVITIES, EVENTS	PLACES	DATES	TIME
IEL_O1	School A	20/12/2011	9.20-12.20
IEL_O2	School A	21/12/2011	9.20-12.20
IEL_O3	School A	22/12/2011	9.20-12.20
IE3_O1	School A	23/01/2012	9.20-12.20
IE2_O1	School A	07/02/2012	9.20-12.20
IE2_O2	School A	21/02/2012	9.20-12.20
PE_O1	School C	30/01/2012	11.40-12.30
ECA_O1	School C	12/02/2012	16.50-17.50
Kite-festival_O1	School C	29/02/2012	9.30-12.30

Table 4.7 An observation schedule of the particular activities outside the classroom

Note: IEL_O1 = the first observation of Intensive English Learning course | IE3_O1= the first observation of International Exchange course for the 3rd year students | IE2_O2 = the second observation of International Exchange course for the 2nd year students | PE_O1 = the first observation of the PE class | ECA_O1 = the first observation of extra-curricular activities

3) Observation of activities outside the schools

I observed two activities outside the schools in which the ALT of School C (Alex) was involved. The first activity was the workshops for ALTs in City 1. The main purpose of this observation was to understand what types of workshops ALTs attended. With the permission of the ALTs' educational advisor in City 1, I observed the workshops he organised for them, attending twice with Alex. I was strongly encouraged to join the activities with the ALTs at the workshops by an ALTs' educational advisor. Therefore, I conducted participant observation through the whole workshops. Sometimes I helped to do a model conversation with the ALT advisor in front of other ALTs who participated in the workshops. In addition, before and after the workshops, I had casual conversations with the ALTs' educational advisor, which, with his permission, were recorded in the fieldnotes, together with handouts for the workshops.

The second outside activity involved observation of team-taught lessons in an elementary school, where Alex was invited to teach once a month. Through the principal of School A, I obtained permission from the principal of the elementary

school, and conducted non-participant observation of three different team-taught lessons. (However, at the request of the elementary teachers taking the lesson, I sometimes joined in activities.)

I did not video-record these two activities outside the schools for two reasons: it was difficult to get agreement from all the other ALTs who participated in the workshops beforehand, and I also did not want to be a distraction to the students. An observation schedule of the activities outside the schools can be found in Table 4.8.

ACTIVIITIES OUTSIDE THE SCHOOLS	PLACES	DATES	TIME
ET4_O1	Elementary School (City1)	05/03/2012	9.35-10.20
ET5_O1	Elementary School (City 1)	05/03/2012	10.30-11.15
ET6_O1	Elementary School (City 1)	05/03/2012	11.25-12.10
WS_O1	Teacher Training Centre (City 1)	09/03/2012	14.30-16.30
WS_O2	Teacher Training Centre (City 1)	19/03/2012	14.30-16.30

Table 4.8 An observation schedule of activities outside the schools

Note: ET4_O1 = the first observation of team-taught lessons of the elementary school for the 4th grade students | WS_O2 = the second observation of workshops for ALTs

4.4.3.3 Gathering of relevant artefacts and documents

Schools offered a variety of physical artefacts, both inside and outside the classrooms, for example the walls of corridors, message boards in staff rooms, notice boards in classrooms. I collected lesson handouts and worksheets created by the JTEs or ALTs and other artefacts created by the JTE, ALT, the schools and the students such as an English Boards and school newspapers. I also paid attention to a web community in which an ALT (Keith) participated. Furthermore, some important documents concerning the JET Programme, information about the schools such as the school pamphlets, school curricula and school events were gathered. With the permission of the schools and the participants, I took

copies or photos of artefacts and documents relevant to my study as far as I could. Sample artefacts and documents can be found in Appendices 6.1, 6.2, 6.3, 6.4, 6.5 and 6.6.

4.4.3.4 Fieldnotes and research diary

One of the main advantages of writing fieldnotes is that they provide rich contextual information derived from the setting itself (Emerson et al., 1995). I believe writing fieldnotes helps a researcher to remember both the events and the contexts, which can consequently improve the data analysis to allow readers to visualise the scene clearly (Heigham & Sakui, 2009). However, it was anticipated that there might be a problem of over-familiarity with the research sites due to my experience of teaching in Japanese upper secondary schools. Going into schools in a different country provides instant 'strangeness', but in one's own context it is hard to force oneself to focus on what is happening rather than what one expects, knows and is familiar with, as Delamont (2002) suggests. Despite the fact that I had not worked in the research sites, I was familiar with the educational system because I had worked in the same region. This might have led me to take things for granted and miss the opportunity to observe how the people belonging to that particular culture live and work together. Therefore, I adopted "a magpie attitude" (Walford, 2008, p. 9), picking up anything that looked interesting – intentionally remaining open to all kinds of data in the research settings. In my fieldnotes, I took notes of not only what the participants said but also nonverbal behaviours and the descriptions of physical scenes in the research sites. I attempted to record what I could see, hear and feel in the schools relevant to the research as far as I could. As mentioned previously, I used two types of fieldnotes: direct fieldnotes and reflective fieldnotes (see Section 4.3.2). My reflective fieldnotes contained observer commentary, which included "the researcher's feelings, reactions, hunches, initial interpretations, and working hypotheses" (Merriam, 1998, p. 106). However, it is highly important for ethnographic researchers to put aside personal feelings and not to judge. Therefore, I put my comments during data collection in the margin of my fieldnotes and identified the by underlining, bracketing, and putting the initial "OC"

for observer comment (Merriam, 1998). Sample fieldnotes can be found in Appendix 7.1.

A research diary was used as 'a tool for reflexive practice' in my study (see Section 4.3.5). From the time when I started to have contact with the research sites (Schools A, B and C) until the writing-up of the thesis, I kept a research diary. The research diary can become the researcher's companion documenting the development of perceptions and insights across various stages of the research (Altrichter & Holly, 2005). Examples of how I did incorporated reflexivity in practice are as follows:

During the period of my fieldwork, I wrote a research diary based on my fieldnotes, in which I described not only the contexts, participants and events I watched, but also my initial interpretation of them. In the diary, I made a separation between the objective records and my subjective ideas. Following Holliday's (2007) suggestions, on the right hand side of the research diary, I wrote the straight description from my fieldnotes. On the left side of the notes, I wrote my personal ideas relating to what I saw and experienced in the field. In addition to the discursive commentary and argument, I included reflexivity in my research diary. Referring to my comments during data collection in the margin of my fieldnotes, I tried to keep a reflexive stance which enabled me to be more conscious of my thoughts and feelings about how the research is progressing, as well as in exploring my experience of the fieldwork situation as a social encounter and negotiations, and what influence that had on the interpretations produced (Nadin & Cassell, 2006). For example, when I started my fieldwork, I gradually realised that I had to deal with the unintended influence of my roles in the research sites. Because I had the impression that I received a hearty welcome from School C, I thought that I could easily get involved into the teachers' daily lives in School C, which might greatly help me to immerse myself into the community. They treated me very nicely, giving me a cup of tea. I wrote a reflective comment in my diary that, in fact, at the beginning, I seemed to be treated as an inspector or a guest rather than a member of the staff. After I observed the second team-taught lessons of Team 5 (Alex, Kimura and Itoh), I started to feel that visiting the team-taught lessons regularly seemed to make a JTE (Kimura) nervous. However, it was the principal (Nakai) that wanted to show me 'special' or 'good' lessons rather than usual lessons. Consequently, Nakai seemed to put pressure on Kimura, as

my research diary shows: *"I phoned School C to talk to Kimura…Kimura said to me: 'I know what you mean. But my principal told me that I should not show the rubbish lessons to you…' The person who I have to talk to was actually the principal!"* (Research Diary, 02/02/2012). After the personal conversation with Kimura, I strongly felt that I needed to make them understand that I am there to learn about their daily lives without passing judgement on them (Denscombe, 1995). I immediately contacted Nakai by email and said I appreciate it if I could have an opportunity to learn from Kimura's regular team-taught lessons rather than the special lessons. In the next visit to School C, Nakai said: *"'We do not have special preparation, but just show you, as we are'"* (Research Diary, 06/02/2012). Towards the end of the fieldwork, they did not offer me a cup of tea. Instead, they started to say to me: *"'Please help yourself'"* (Research Diary, 29/02/2012).

Even during the stage of analysing data and discussing emerging issues, writing a research diary helped me avoid hasty judgments. Although I had understood that I should not have any preconceived ideas about what I would find in the research sites, I do not deny that I was easily tempted to assess the observed team-taught lessons based on my experience of team-teaching with the ALTs in Japan, as my research diary shows: *"Alex was given only 5 or 10 minutes for his activity by Kimura. Students very much enjoyed the games created by Alex, but just 10 minutes"* (Research Diary, 06/02/2012). However, I also commented on Alex's attitude towards Kimura: *"Alex never complained about his JTE, but why?"* (Research diary, 29/02/2012). After the end of my fieldwork, I considered this inconsistency. This reflection helped me to be aware that I should represent the voices of my participants without filtering them too strongly through my own cultural perspective (Goldbart & Hustler, 2005, p. 17), while consciously trying to keep an open mind (Heigham & Sakui, 2009). It also enabled me to investigate not only the relationship between Alex and Kimura, but also the influential aspects of the school culture, the ALTs' adjustment and identity, considering that culture is best revealed in what people do, what they say (and say they do), or some uneasy tension between what they really do and what they say they ought to do (Wolcott, 1987). Sample extracts from the research diary can be found in Appendix 7.2.

	School A	School B	School C
Interview: Principal	√ (x1:Ishida)		√ (x1:Nakai)
Interview: Vice-principal		√ (x1:Morira)	
Interview: ALTs	√ (x2:Becky, x2:Mike)	√ (x2:Keith)	√ (x3:Alex)
Interview: JTEs	√ (x1:Toda, x1:Sakai, x1:Akama)	√ (x1:Kawada, x1:Uemura)	√ (x1:Kimura, x1:Itoh)
Interview: PE			√ (x1:Hidaka)
Observation (TT)	√ (x3:Team1, x4:Team2)	√ (x4:Team 3, x3:Team 4)	√ (x4:Team 5)
Fieldnotes	√	√	√
Artefacts	√	√	√
Documents	√	√	√

Table 4.9 Collected data from three schools (Note: Observation (TT) = observation of team-taught lessons)

	Elementary school	Teacher training centre (City 1)
Fieldnotes	√ (x1: 3 lessons by Alex and elementary school teachers)	√ (x2: Workshop for ALTs, attending with Alex)
Artefacts	√	√

Table 4.10   Collected data from outside the three schools

4.5 Data analysis

For analysis and interpretation in this study, I went through inductive processes by searching for patterns and meaning in my data (Heigham & Sakui, 2009). In the first stage of analysis, I repeatedly read all the data in details. While reading them, I wrote analytical memos, which recorded my ideas and impressions. As with my research diary (see Section 4.4.3.4), I kept making a separation between the subjective memos and the objective records such as interview transcripts, fieldnotes and artefacts, in order to maintain a balance between an emic and etic position during my fieldwork. Since I made these analytical memos from the beginning of my fieldwork, they were part of my ongoing analysis, and could help me organise and focus my emerging interpretation (Heigham & Sakui, 2009). The second stage of data analysis involved coding the data. According to Heigham and Sakui (2009), the process of coding enables researchers to discover themes or theories, rather than impose pre-existing ideas. While looking through each data set carefully, I firstly coded them relating to each research question. Then, categories and themes were developed across the participants and schools (see Chapter 5). Applying a cross-case analysis, this study also examined themes, similarities and differences across cases. Appendix 8.1 shows an example of interview coding. Appendices 8.2, 8.3 and 8.4 show examples of coding of artefacts: the language activity for team-teaching, lesson plans and English Board. As can be seen in the appendices, some of the codes are deductive codes coming from the research questions and literature. Other codes which I put under the heading of emerging issues are inductive, in that these were not predicted by myself as a researcher, but emerged from the data on an ongoing basis. Examples of some of the deductive codes obtained from the research questions and literature include aspects such as interaction and ALTs' adjustment to the culture. Examples of some of the inductive codes which emerged from the data include aspects such as identity, power and control. As can be seen in Appendices 8.1, 8.2, 8.3 and 8.4, initially I used highlighting, and then, columns to give the preliminary and final codes. Some examples of highlighting and columns can be seen in Appendices 8.1, 8.2, 8.3 and 8.4. Through these processes, Chapter five presents the findings obtained from interviews, observations, fieldnotes, documents and artefacts, while issues emerging from these findings are discussed, combined with philosophical aspects, in Chapter six.

4.6 Research quality: Trustworthiness

It is important for the researcher to provide the reader with the opportunity to evaluate whether or not the research is worth paying attention to, worth taking account of (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In other words, the researcher needs to take into consideration how successfully she or he has responded to the demands of research quality. This study employs a qualitative ethnographic case study. It aims to uncover the complexities and their effect on perspectives of ALTs' and JTEs' roles, and the relationships amongst them and the school as a whole. This type of research requires the researcher to claim consideration of trustworthiness. Trustworthiness is assessed by the issues of how reliable the data are, how valid the interpretations are (Silverman, 2010) and how the participants are protected – how ethical issues are dealt with by the researcher (Rallis & Rossman, 2009). Therefore, I will indicate how I achieved the requirement of trustworthiness of my study discussing the following elements: validity, reliability and ethical considerations below.

4.6.1 Validity

Researchers should establish the validity of their research because if a piece of research is invalid then it is worthless (Cohen, et al., 2007). There are two types of validity: internal and external validity. The following sections will explain how internal validity (credibility) and external validity (transferability) were established in this study.

4.6.1.1 Credibility: Internal validity

Internal validity is defined by qualitative researchers as credibility. Since I was interested in multiple perspectives on team-teaching interactions and collaboration, this study aimed to search for many truths, not one single truth, and therefore, I needed to show that my constructions in the form of findings and interpretations are credible to those being researched (Davis, 1992). In order to ensure the credibility of the findings and interpretations, I carried out the following procedures.

Firstly, credibility (internal validity) depends on evidence of long-term exposure to the context being studied and the adequacy of data (Richards, 2003). From

November 2011 to April 2012, I visited each school for my fieldwork to collect data from several data sources, through different data-gathering tools such as interviewing, observing, artefacts, documents, fieldnotes and research diary (see Sections 4.3 and 4.4). This enabled me to spend a significant period time "learning about, leaning from, and learning with the participants" (Rallis & Rossman, 2009, p. 265).

The second procedure I followed was participant validation, or member-checking. Participant validation is the process of sharing interpretations of the findings with participants (Rossman & Rallis, 2003). According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), participant validation or member-checking is the most crucial technique for establishing credibility. After transcribing the interviews, I asked each participant to check his/her interview transcript, so that the record of the interview was accurate (see Appendix 9).

4.6.1.2 Transferability: External validity

Regarding external validity, qualitative researchers focus on transferability (Davis, 1992). Transferability is concerned with the question of whether the findings are applicable to other contexts (Bryman, 2004). Transferability (external validity) depends on "a richness of description and interpretation that makes a particular case interesting and relevant to those in other situations" (Richards, 2003, p. 286). In this study, I attempt in the following chapters to provide "a thick description of the study with sufficient details to allow the reader to determine whether transfer can be considered a possibility" (Davis, 1992, p. 606).

4.6.1.3 Reliability: Dependability

Reliability of data and analysis in qualitative research is concerned with dependability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). According to Richards (2003), dependability is to be assessed "in terms of the documentation of research design, data, analysis, reflection, and so on, so that the researcher's decisions are open to others" (Richards, 2003, p. 286). In order to increase dependability in this study, I documented all procedures of my research such as samples of interview

enquiries (see Appendices 5.1, 5.2, 5.3, 5.4, 5.5 and 5.6) and interview transcriptions (see Appendix 9), interview and observation schedules (see Tables 4.5, 4.6, 4.7 and 4.8), samples of fieldnotes and research diary (see Appendices 7.1 and 7.2), samples of artefacts and documents (see Appendices 6.1, 6.2, 6.3, 6.4, 6.5 and 6.6) samples of coding and the final reviews of data based on the progress of my study (see Appendices 8.1, 8.2, 8.3, 8.4 and 8.5).

4.6.2 Ethical considerations

In addition to validity and reliability, ethical practice is crucial for the trustworthiness of qualitative studies (Rallis & Rossman, 2009). From the beginning to the end of a study, researchers must consider ethical issues. I took the following procedure to meet the ethical requirements for my study.

4.6.2.1 Ethical research approval

Before starting my fieldwork, I completed a certificate of ethical approval and submitted this to the schools' ethics committee in the University of Exeter. In this certificate, I outlined a brief description of my research project, details of participants, details regarding the ethical issues of informed consent, anonymity and confidentiality, and details of any other ethical issues which may arise from the project. A copy of the ethical approval certificate obtained is found in Appendix 10.

4.6.2.2 Informed consent

The important aspect of informed consent is to protect and respect the participant's right to freedom and self-determination (Cohen et al., 2007). Before starting my data collection, consent was sought both through e-mail and letter correspondence, communicating with principals of the schools. I adopted the consent form available on the website of Graduate School of Education at the University of Exeter (see Appendix 11). In this stage, I explained the aims of my research project and details of my fieldwork to them. However, after gaining consent from the schools, I felt it necessary to re-state the purpose and nature of

the fieldwork to each participant before I actually started to collect data from them. Therefore, after informing the participants of the study's purpose through e-mail, I asked them to fill in the consent form.

In the consent form, I informed the schools and the participants of a number of relevant elements. First, the participants' confidentiality would be maintained. Regarding this, I emphasised that the original names of the schools would not be revealed and that all the participants in the school would remain anonymous. Secondly, I requested their permission to record the interview, observation, artefacts and documents at this point. In order to ensure the anonymity of the participants and confidentiality of the data, I informed them that the information obtained from the participants and the schools would not be transmitted by the researcher to a third party, apart from the thesis supervisors, without the participants' permission. I clearly mentioned that I would use the research solely for my thesis, which may be used for publications and conference presentations. At the same time, I informed the participants that findings of the study would only be published or presented with their permission. Regarding discussion with my supervisors, presentation at conferences and publication, I emphasised that the findings would be in anonymous forms. In addition to confidentiality and anonymity, I informed the participants that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any time.

Following the above explanation, consent was obtained from the piloting school, the research sites (Schools A, B and C), Japanese teachers and ALTs.

4.6.2.3 Other measures

In order to ensure that no harm, detriment or unreasonable stress is placed on the participants I carefully considered the following steps. Firstly, once consent had been sought from the schools, Japanese teachers and ALTs, I consulted with each participant to find the most suitable time and place for the interviews and observations. Secondly, before taking photos of artefacts and photocopying documents, I always requested permission from the participants or principals. Although I attempted to make an effort to explain the nature of my study, the ethnographic case study is an ongoing process; therefore, whenever I wanted to

attend the school events and activities, I negotiated with the gatekeepers or informants before participating.

4.7 Limitations of the study

Despite careful precautions, this study has a number of limitations relating to the nature of the study, my own status as researcher, and my own subjectivity.

Firstly, compared with conventional ethnography, which requires the researchers to do long-term fields visits, this 6 month-study employs focused ethnography, which involves relatively short field visits. However, the short time period covered is compensated for by collecting multiple forms of data.

Secondly, my own status as a researcher may have affected the participants' behaviour to some extent. When the participants knew that I had experience of team-teaching in Japanese upper secondary schools, I realised that some of JTEs or the principals of the schools tended to became nervous or cautious about showing their team-taught lessons. During my fieldwork, expressing my deep appreciation for letting me observe their lessons, I emphasised that the main purpose of my study was not to judge the lessons, but to learn from their ordinary team-taught lessons. This enabled me to develop rapport with the schools and participants.

Since I had experience of team-teaching in Japanese upper secondary schools, it would have been easy to make quick, subjective judgements. In order to avoid making hasty judgements, I decided to keep a research diary. Furthermore, frequent supervision meetings with my supervisors helped me not to impose my own cultural norms on the participants.

Despite the limitations outlined above, I believe that this study provides sufficient information to address the research aims and to add to current knowledge of team-teaching. This information will be presented in the following chapter (Chapter 5).

Chapter 5
Findings

Introduction

This chapter presents the analyses of the research findings from multiple data resources based on the ethnographic case study. The following sections describe and summarise the data in order to answer the research questions as follows:

1. How are the roles of ALTs perceived by ALTs, JTEs and their Japanese colleagues, and in what ways do ALTs contribute to students' learning and development in and out of classrooms over time?

2. How are the roles of JTEs perceived by ALTs, JTEs and their Japanese colleagues, and in what ways do JTEs fulfil their roles within the schools?

3. What types of school cultures emerge in managing the JET Programme, and in what ways and to what extent do ALTs adjust to the school cultures?

In order to remind the readers of each team situation and participant's affiliation, some background information is presented. Tables 5.1 and 5.2 detail information of the 15 teachers (7 JTEs, 4 ALTs, 3 administrative teachers and 1 PE teacher) who participated in the interviews, and the team members of the five teams which were observed.

The letters and numbers used for this chapter are as follows:

(T1O1) = the first observation of Team 1

(T2O1, 2) = the first and second observations of Team 2

(T3O1, 2 ,3) = the first, second and third observations of Team 3

(Becky_I1) = the first interview with Becky

(Mike_I2) = the second interview with Mike

(AF) = artefacts

(DC) = documentation

(FN) = fieldnotes

NAME	GENDER	SCHOOL	POSITION	INTERVIEWS		
				(I1)	(I2)	(I3)
Sakai	F	School A	JTE, ALTs' supervisor	√		
Akama(P)	F	School A	JTE	√		
Toda	M	School A	JTE (IE organiser)	√		
Ishida	M	School A	Principal	√		
Becky	F	School A	ALT (2nd year)	√	√	
Mike	M	School A	ALT (1st year)	√	√	
Kawada	M	School B	JTE, ALTs' supervisor	√		
Uemura	F	School B	JTE	√		
Morita	M	School B	Vice-principal	√		
Keith	M	School B	ALT (3rd year)	√	√	
Kimura	F	School C	JTE, ALTs' supervisor	√		
Itoh (P)	F	School C	JTE	√		
Hidaka	M	School C	PE teacher	√		
Nakai	F	School C	Principal	√		
Alex	M	School C	ALT (1st year)	√	√	√

Table 5.1 Participants in the study, including participation in the interviews

Note: (I1) = the first interview │ (I2) = the second interview │ (I3) = the third interview │ (P) = Part-time teacher │ (IE organiser) = International Exchange course organiser

TEAM	MEMBERS	SCHOOL	OBSERVATIONS			
			(O1)	(O2)	(O3)	(O4)
Team 1	Sakai Becky	School A	√	√	√	
Team 2	Akama Mike	School A	√	√	√	√
Team 3	Kawada Keith	School B	√	√	√	√
Team 4	Uemura Keith	School B	√	√	√	
Team 5	Kimura Itoh Alex	School C	√	√	√	√

Table 5.2 Team members of the five teams, including participation in the observations of team-taught lessons

Note: (O1) = the first observation │ (O2) = the second observation │

(O3) = the third observation │ (O4) = the fourth observation

5.1 ALTs' roles and their contributions to students' learning and progress

The data from interviews, observations, artefacts and fieldnotes revealed that the view of the ALTs' roles and their contributions to students' learning and progress is related not only to language but also to more personal characteristics. This is an area which will be worth discussion later because it may relate to the ALTs' overall roles within the institution. However, I shall look briefly at these roles and contributions in this section, first of all in relation to language related areas, and then, non-language related areas.

5.1.1 Language related areas

Providing a model of pronunciation

For many students studying English in their home country with access to native-speaker models is considered important in helping them develop their language skills. While this is increasingly available through the media, the presence of a native-speaker in the classroom provides many opportunities for interaction, for questioning or further clarification and for hearing different accents of English. This was clearly seen to be one of the main roles of the ALTs, with 9 out of 15 participants believing it to be beneficial for the students to hear native speaker English. Becky and Mike, two ALTs in School A, think that the ALTs' pronunciation is better than JTEs: *"JTEs have trouble with pronunciation"* (Mike_I1); *"Native speakers tend to have better pronunciation"* (Becky_I1). Akama, a JTE in School A, shows her lack of confidence of pronunciation, and sees the benefits of the ALT: *"Because my pronunciation is not good, I try to expose my students to Becky's English as far as I can"* (Akama_I). Remarkably, Ishida, the principal, in School A, clearly claims that the pronunciation of NSs in Inner Circle countries is superior to the speakers of English in Expanding and Outer Circle countries, as classified by Kachru (1985):

> *"There are many varieties of English in the world such as Singaporean English – Singlish. But we frequently hear NSTs' English, and I think as a model of pronunciation, NSTs are superior to people speaking those Englishes".*   (Ishida_I1)

The data from observations of team-taught lessons provides evidence of School A's preference for the students being exposed particularly to the accent of ALTs

rather than JTEs. This was achieved by Becky and Mike who were the main givers of instructions to the students in the team-taught lessons of Teams 1 and 2 (T1O1, 2, 3; T2O1, 2, 3, 4). The students in these classes could see how the ALTs as NSs explained the lesson in English rather than the explanation of the lesson occurring through interaction between the JTE and ALT, as Brumby and Wada (1990) suggest.

Keith, an ALT in School B, views one of the benefits of team-teaching as hearing NS' English in the classroom: *"Team-teaching provides a chance for the students to hear what native English actually sounds like"* (Keith_I1). However, sometimes Keith notes the problems with this:

> *"There is no direction how the teachers (JTEs) should take the other teachers (ALTs), what other teachers' (ALTs') roles should be, so just as a tape recorder. They (ALTs) should be more involved".* (Keith_I1)

The actual main role of Keith in his team-taught lessons (Teams 3 and 4) at School B was to demonstrate a model of pronunciation for the course book dialogues (T3O1, 2, 3, 4; T4O1, 2, 3, Teaching procedure sheets for Team 3, AF, 22/02/2012). The students simply practiced reading the dialogue aloud following the model he provided (T3O1, 2, 3; T4O1, 2, 3).

Interestingly, Alex, an ALT in School C, thinks it is helpful for the students to be exposed not only to NS English but also to two forms of pronunciation from JTEs and ALTs:

> *"I say the word many times, so students understand, but Ms Itoh and Ms Kimura also say it in Japanese English. Not only the native speaker, but Ms Kimura also says it, so that the students got an idea of how it is said in Japanese English, and also the way I say it in the native speaker's way".* (Alex_I1)

However, like Keith, Alex also saw pronunciation modelling as his main role: *"I just repeat the words, and the students repeat after me"* (Alex_I1).

Providing real English

The study found that some ALTs have a strong desire to offer the students opportunities to experience 'real English'. As mentioned in the first interview, Keith believes that the benefit of team-teaching is to provide students with the

chance to hear what native English actually sounds like. Both Keith in School B and Alex in School C are aware that they are frequently seen merely as a 'tape-recorder' but, interestingly, they also attempted to provide students with other opportunities to experience 'real English' outside the classroom. During my fieldwork, Keith and I went to the school cafeteria to have lunch before his team-teaching lesson. When Keith tried to talk to some students sitting near us in English, the following conversation started between Keith and one student (Student A):

Student A: I like judo.
Keith: I don't play judo, but my granddad plays judo.
Student A: My dream is to play judo in the Olympics.
Keith: Great. Good luck.
(FN, 27/01/2012)

After the lunch, Keith said to me: *"I like that kind of talk. It is more real"* (Informal conversation with Keith, FN, 27/01/2012).

Furthermore, the data from interviews, observations of team-taught lessons confirmed that Alex actually shows resistance to the team-taught lessons of Team 5, which emphasise the memorization of words, phrases and grammar. Alex normally prepared his own language games; however, he was actually allowed to do this for only five to ten minutes (T5O2, 3, 4). Alex attends activities outside the classroom because he strongly believes that he can give another approach to teaching English, which is different from the classroom instruction: *"It's more conversational English, and I think the students get an idea how English is spoken outside the classroom. It's a different approach"* (Alex_I1). Again, this relates to Keith's desire for 'real English' and attempts to offer students other opportunities to experience this. Since arriving in School C, Alex had joined several activities outside the English classroom, attending the PE class, eating lunch with the students, playing sports in the lunch time and attending the baseball club after school. In contrast to the English classroom settings, Alex offered the students opportunities to see how, as a native speaker, he speaks English in natural settings. According to the first interview, Alex tries to speak English to them, first, throwing a ball, and then the students can learn expressions for passing the ball to one another: *"If I say, "Here's the ball", they understand, Okay, he's giving me a ball"* (Alex_I1). Alex seems to counterbalance the lack of opportunity to teach

'real English' with attending the activities outside the classroom to let the students learn it from him.

Providing opportunities for interaction

Development of students' communication ability is also noted as one of the results of interacting with the ALTs or participating in the language games created by the ALTs. The ALTs' presence actually provides two types of interaction between the ALT, the JTE and the students. One of them focuses on grammar points, and the other focuses more on meaning.

1) Grammar-focused interaction

Firstly, all the ALTs provided opportunities for grammar-focused interaction by asking the students question such as:

'What did you eat for lunch?' and 'What is your favourite colour?'. The following is a typical interaction between Keith and a student in the class.

Keith: What is your favourite colour?
Student B: Blue.
(the conversation ended)
(T3O1)

These types of exchange were mainly used as warm-up activities at the very beginning of lessons in other schools as well, as the data from observations of team-taught lessons confirmed (T1O2; T2O3; T3O1, 2; T4O1, 2; T5O1).

The interaction between the ALT, the JTE and the students also occurred in the interview games created by Becky and Mike in School A. Interestingly, Akama and Sakai, two JTEs in School A, call the language games in their team-teaching 'the communicative activities'; however, they perceive the fundamental goal of these activities is to learn a certain grammar point: *"I ask Mike to create communicative activities using the grammar points before team-teaching"* (Akama_I1). In fact, the students' communicative abilities in Teams 1 and 2 seem to be promoted by the interview games or information gap games used to practice the grammar points rather than by natural communication and using language to get across meaning to another person. Mike mentioned that he wants to teach the students conversational English: *"I want (the students) to do a brief*

conversation in English at least" (Mike_I1). However, Mike's interactions were predominantly grammar-focused. The following extract from a 'Bingo Game' (AF, 23/01/2012) is a typical grammar-focused interaction created by Becky, which seems to focus more on the form of the present perfect tense than the meaning:

A: How long have you studied English?
B: I have studied English for two years.
(the conversation ended)
(T1O1)

2) Meaning-focused interaction

Keith in School B believed that grammar-focused interaction is not communication because it occurs just once and is initiated by the teacher. Instead, he created his own activity (the 'GW' activity: pseudonym), which significantly focuses less on grammatical form and more on the meaning and how people react to and respond to what they have heard.

Keith basically wanted to create interaction, and, as illustrated above (see p. 99), initiated conversations with students in the cafeteria. For Keith, finding *"communality"* (Keith_I2) is important for communication. Instead of the one way conversation typical of the classroom, Keith created a new activity, which he named 'GW'. Keith believes that the GW activity *"causes conversation"* (Keith_I2) as follows:

A: Guess what?
B: What?
A: I like fruit.
B: Oh, what fruit do you like?
A: I like strawberries.
B: When did you last have strawberries?
A: I had strawberries on Sunday.
B: Oh, sounds good, did you go to the strawberry spring festival?
A: Oh, yes I did.
B: Oh, where was it?
(Keith_I2)

Between the lessons, Keith tried to do this activity with three students in the corridor, showing them the poster for the GW activity (AF, 27/01/2012; FN, 27/01/2012). Normally, Keith and the students exchanged greetings in the corridor, saying 'Hello' and 'How are you?' (FN, 16/11/2011, 14/12/2011).

Although in the beginning they seemed to be slightly confused with his new activity, the data showed that the GW activity definitely achieved a breakthrough in causing continuous interaction between Keith and the students (FN, 27/01/2012).

In contrast with Becky's and Mike's activities in Teams 1 and 2, Keith's GW activity contributed to shifting the classroom environment to one where all three 'participants' – ALT, JTE, and students – were involved in the interaction. During the fieldwork Keith did not have the opportunity to introduce the GW activity to Kawada's classes; however, Keith successfully persuaded another JTE, Uemura, to do the GW activity at the beginning of the lesson as a warm-up (FN, 22/02/2012): Keith first demonstrated how to do his new activity in cooperation with Uemura as follows:

Uemura: Guess What?
Keith: What?
Uemura: I went to City 1 last weekend.
Keith: Oh, really? What did you do there?
Uemura: I attended the seminar.
Keith: What type of seminar did you attend?
Uemura: The seminar on how to develop and create materials for the English lesson.
Keith: Sounds interesting! What else did you do in City 1?
Uemura: I met my friends, and we went to the nice restaurant.
Keith: Sounds great!
(T4O3)

The striking thing is that the students could actually see how the conversation between the JTE and ALT continued and how both were trying to find a connection between them. Keith then tried the activity with some students. As this was the first time it took a little time to get started. However, this situation actually created an opportunity for the JTE, Uemura, to help the students to do the activity with Keith in English. Uemura gradually got involved in the interaction between Keith and the students (FN, 22/02/2012, T4O3).

The data from interviews also showed that, in School A, interaction which focuses on meaning seems to occur between the students and the ALTs outside the classroom. Becky mentioned that there are some students who are keen on talking with the ALTs outside the classroom:

> *"2nd year students are always very excited to see me, and very happy and smiling, and if they see me at the end of corridor,*

> *walking away, they will run to come and say hello. I think Mike*
> *has the same thing. 6th year students are very interested in*
> *learning English. They want to talk about TV or anything".*
>
> <div align="right">(Becky_I1)</div>

However, such interactions were hindered by a number of factors, as the data from fieldnotes indicates: each break between classes is only ten minutes and both Becky and Mike, with 24 hours of teaching a week, frequently, had to run back to the staffroom to prepare for the next class (FN, 18/01/2012, 23/01/2012, 09/02/2012).

Enhancing students' motivation to learn

Motivation is a complex issue and one which requires considerable analysis and interpretation to see what types of motivation are evident in the language classroom. Dörnyei (2001) sees motivation as a dynamic quality which changes over time and he looks at how motivation can be influenced by different stages in the learning process. There are certain preconditions required to be able to generate motivation effectively, and these are defined by Dörneyi and Ottó (1998) as the basic motivational conditions, evidence of which can be found in the data from interviews, fieldnotes and observation of the team-taught lessons. Some ALTs actually contributed to producing the basic motivational conditions by creating a pleasant and supportive classroom, by establishing appropriate teacher behaviour and by having a good relationship with the students.

1) Creating a pleasant and supportive classroom

In order to create "a pleasant and supportive classroom" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 40), Mike in School A attempted to create a relaxing atmosphere by bringing humour into the classroom. To a student with an injured finger, Mike said in English: *"What's wrong? You always get injured. You are the most dangerous person!"* (FN, 25/01/2012, T2O2). Mike quite often made the students laugh in the classrooms (T2O1, 2, 3, 4), and this relaxing atmosphere seems to help the students to interact with him in English. As Akama, a JTE in School A said: *"When Mike joins the classroom, the students are actually motivated to talk to Mike in English because Mike enhances the mood of the classroom"* (Akama_I1).

Similarly, Keith, in School B, attempted to produce a supportive classroom atmosphere by offering encouragement: if a student showed achievement, Keith would say *"Good job"* and shake their hand (T3O1, 2, 3, 4; T4O1, 2, 3); if a student had difficulty doing something, Keith would be empathetic: *"Don't worry. English is difficult, I understand"* (T3O1, 2, 3, 4; T4O1, 2, 3). Uemura, a JTE in School B, notices how the students' attitude towards showing their achievement changes between the single and team-taught classes: *"When they demonstrate how they have improved after the practicing, they try to make more effort to complete it if the ALT encourages them to do it"* (Uemura_I1).

2) Establishing appropriate teacher behaviour

According to Dörneyi (2001), showing enthusiasm is one of the important elements of appropriate teacher behaviour for creating the basic motivational conditions. Keith's enthusiasm for learning a foreign language (Japanese) motivated the students' learning. Keith never spoke Japanese in Team 4, but he sometimes understood what the students were saying in Japanese during the class, and let them know that he actually knows Japanese. This was illustrated in one class I observed, where Keith surprised the students by showing his understanding of something the JTE said in Japanese. By indicating his willingness and attempts to learn Japanese, the students felt motivated: as one student said *"Keith knows lots of Japanese. I should learn English"* (T4O3).

Alex, in School C, also brought enthusiasm to the students both inside and outside the classroom. When Alex joined the PE class and club activity, he actually inspired the students to become enthusiastic players by showing his own enthusiasm (FN, 30/01/2012, 06/02/2012). During basketball in the PE class and club activity, Alex mainly helped the students in their attempts to score. However, he himself sometimes shot at the basket and scored. Following Alex's achievement, some students immediately tried to improve their own game. In a similar situation, when participating in language games in the English classroom at the primary school, Alex's enthusiasm actually improved the competitiveness of the students and a JTE in the primary school: as a team they demonstrated a competitive language activity in which the class was divided into two: Alex's team and the JTE's team. Initially they demonstrated the game slowly; however, the second time, Alex speeded it up and, as a result, the atmosphere of the classroom

was dramatically changed. Following Alex, the JTE became energetic, which in turn generated the students' competitive energy to engage in the activity (FN, 05/03/2012). Alex commented on why the students became excited: *"They want to do the same things. They want to do what the teacher is doing. We are models for the students. We have to do everything – enthusiasm"* (Alex_I3).

3) Having a good relationship with the students

Having a good relationship with the students is another element of appropriate teacher behaviour, and helps create motivation, as Dörneyi (2001) suggests. The data from interviews and fieldnotes shows that it is extremely important to establish a rapport with the students not only inside but also outside the classroom. This was achieved in different ways: by sharing interests in sport, and by establishing contact and trust outside the classroom. Alex, in School C, is keen on creating a bond with the students whenever he can outside the classroom. While attending a school event – a kite festival – Alex was actively involved in helping the students (FN, 29/02/2012). Alex explained his role in this as follows:

> *"Mainly I talked to them about how good their kites are. Like 'Your kite is really pretty', 'Oh, you have drawn a really good picture'. It's a kite festival, so we were just laughing together when the kite fell down, just enjoying with the students, just helping them – not only talking to them, but creating a bond".* (Alex_I2)

Alex mentioned how this bond helps in the classroom: *"I think they are more relaxed in the classroom. I mean they know who I am. Like 'Oh, Alex, he plays baseball with me, he is okay'. I like to have a relaxing nature around me"* (Alex_I2). The positive influence of this bond on the students' learning was confirmed by other colleagues. The office head and the vice-principal also commented on how the students' motivation to speak English had changed: *"Since Alex came, our students started to speak English more"* (Informal conversation with the office head, FN, 06/02/2012).

The data from interviews confirmed that Mike and Becky, in School A, also attempted to have a good relationship with the students outside the classroom:

> *"Most of the events we don't have to do much, we will just be there, so like the sports' day we will just be there. We will just watch the games, but if the students see we are there, 'Oh, you*

are there, I am happy' because we are watching them, but we don't have to do much".   (Mike_I2)

It is interesting to review again how Alex creates a bond with the students: Mike and Becky build a relationship with the students by watching their activities; Alex, on the other hand, attempts to establish a bond with the students by doing activities with the students and by sharing his feelings with them. The interview data provided evidence of Alex's prominent contribution to enhancing the students' motivation to learn English by creating a bond with them outside the classroom, as commented on by Hidaka, a PE teacher in School C:

> *"Perhaps Alex and the students talked about nothing in the kite festival. Just they were flying a kite together, and laughing together by watching the kite which they could successfully fly. But the students surely realised how Alex made efforts to develop the bonds with them. This eventually helps arouse the students' interest in studying the English language".*   (Hidaka_I1)

There are clearly different approaches taken by Alex, Mike and Becky, in their attempts to impact on developing the students' motivation.

Cultural informant

Cultural aspects are increasingly seen as an important component of language learning. There are various ways in which the term 'culture' can be defined and the topic addressed. According to Holliday (1999), ways of seeing culture should be categorised into two groups: large and small culture paradigms. Holliday (1999) states that within the large culture paradigm, culture is seen as an essential feature of ethnic, national or international groups, while the small culture paradigm relates to cohesive behaviour in activities within any social grouping. Within this particular study, the data found relationships between the cultural aspects provided by the ALTs and both categories as defined by Holliday (1999) above. One of them is cultural information or experiences from the ALTs' countries of origin (large culture paradigm) and intercultural awareness issues in relation to the ALTs' behaviour or attitudes (small culture paradigm).

1) Cultural information or experiences based on 'large culture'

In the monocultural EFL context of Japanese secondary schools, a further role of ALTs is regarded as that of giving the students information about their own cultural background. 9 out of 15 interviewees saw culture as a large part of the ALTs' work. All the ALTs regard the JET Programme as not only helping the JTEs teach English but also as cultural exchange: *"I am here as a cultural representative of my country"* (Becky_I1). The view that it is important for the students to have cultural exchange between the ALTs' countries and Japan was also echoed by 4 JTEs and 1 principal. According to Nakai, the principal at School C, there is an exchange of cultural information: *"It is great for the students not only to learn or experience culture of ALTs' countries, but also to introduce Japanese culture to the ALTs"* (Nakai_I1).

Becky and Mike, in School A, created an English Board (a wall-poster in the corridor) every month, which they used to provide information in English about cultural events such as Halloween, Christmas and the Year of the Dragon (AF, 14/02/2012). Alex in School C created a similar board to supply information about sports in New Zealand, which he wanted to introduce to the students; with photos of rugby, ultimate frisbee and cricket (AF, 01/12/2011, 29/03/2012). As the data from artefacts indicates, the students in Schools A and C discovered in this way more about the large cultures associated with the ALTs' countries of origin. However, it is important to emphasise that Alex went further and actually played the sports illustrated on the board with the students in School C, during the lunch break and in the club activity, as the data from fieldnotes suggests (FN, 30/01/2012, 06/02/2012, 12/02/2012, 22/03/2012).

2) Inter-cultural awareness: the small culture paradigm

The interview data confirms that intercultural awareness issues arise naturally from Alex's presence in the school, although he may not be so aware, at least initially. Alex saw one of Japanese cultural aspects as the desire for everything to be perfect, and was aware of how this could impact negatively on the students' behaviour towards learning based on his experience of living and teaching in Japan for several months: *"Mistakes are very bad in Japan, but mistakes are very important because then you can learn from them"* (Alex_I2). Significantly, Alex

actually tried to develop students' positive attitudes towards trial and error during the club activity:

> *"When they miss the ball, when they don't catch it, always I give them confidence, "Don't laugh" because many Japanese students laugh at people who make mistakes. So I tell them not to do that, and say 'Good try' or 'Hard luck'".* (Alex_I3)

Alex's impact on intercultural awareness was also confirmed in non-language related areas, which are discussed in the following section (see Section 5.1.2).

5.1.2 Non-language related aspects

Alex, in School C, clearly sees his role as going beyond the language related area: *"I don't want to just sit there preparing the lessons. I want to explore what the school offers such as club activities"* (Alex_I1). The data also indicates that Alex made a significant contribution to developing interpersonal communication skills and to promoting student leadership by attending extra-curricular activities. Strikingly, these contributions relate not only to how the ALTs perceive their roles but also to whether and to what extent their colleagues and the school as a whole offer opportunities. The data from this study reveal how little evidence there was of this very specific behaviour in relation to the other schools. Although Becky and Mike, in School A, wanted to create an English club in the school, they had to give up because of the school's attitude towards adhering to the contract regarding ALTs' working hours. Mike says:

> *"We tried to start the English club, but we have been told if we stay late on one day (for the English club), we have to go home early on another day. That would be difficult for scheduling. They are very strict on the contract".* (Mike_I1)

Like Alex, Keith tried to attend the club activities in his school, School B. However, he sometimes felt his attendance made people uncomfortable, and stopped it in the end: *"I go to the club activities sometimes. But sometimes I feel my inclusion is rude because I do not come constantly"* (Keith_I1). Therefore, Alex's contributions in non-language related areas tend to stand out and these are the ones which will be the focus of this section: firstly in relation to developing interpersonal communication skills, and, secondly, promoting leadership.

Developing interpersonal communication skills

There are various ways in which the term 'interpersonal communication' can be understood. Brooks and Heath (1993) define interpersonal communication as "the process by which information, meanings and feelings are shared by persons through the exchange of verbal and nonverbal messages" (Brooks & Heath, 1993, p. 7). According to Stewart (1999), interpersonal communication is more than the exchange of messages between two people; rather, it is "the process humans use to define reality itself" (Stewart, 1999, p. 25). In other words, interpersonal communication becomes "the way that humans negotiate meanings, identity and relationships through person-to-person communication" (Braithwaite & Baxter, 2008, p. 4). Interestingly, the data shows that Alex contributed towards developing the students' interpersonal communication in intercultural settings by playing sports with the students outside the classroom. Hidaka signals Alex's influence here: *"The students can learn how to communicate with other people when Alex joins the activities outside the classroom. Communication covers a huge area, which is more than verbal exchange"* (Hidaka_I1). When playing basketball with the students in the PE class, Alex often helped the students to score a goal by throwing a pass to the students, although he had several opportunities to shoot in the basket himself (FN, 30/01/2012). Hidaka sees throwing and catching a ball between the students and the ALT as indicative of an open-mindedness towards cultural and personal diversity:

> *"Attitude towards trying to catch a pass from Alex is a sort of communication too. Although a person who has a different background or different personality joins you, you can catch a pass, and throw back to him or her. You can say that easily, but it is difficult to put it into action".* (Hidaka_I1)

The above comments clearly show Alex's contribution to the aspects of interpersonal communication in an intercultural setting.

Promoting student leadership

The interview data indicates that Alex helped to encourage students' leadership by attending the baseball club continuously. At the beginning, Alex simply felt it was fun: *"I love to play with the students outside the classroom"* (Alex_I1). However, in the third interview, Alex's view of playing sports with the students

had clearly developed, as he became aware of new aspects: *"While playing baseball with the students, I found lots of things - Who is the leader? Who is good at sports? Students who are good at sports have lots of confidence. I want to evoke that in the classroom"* (Alex_I3). Alex became aware of how students can be encouraged to lead and to influence and help other members:

> *"The other day I wanted one of my good students to teach another student, and said to him, 'You are good at English, so please pass on what you know to someone else'. And he said to me, 'Yeah, I will do it'. There is lots of helping going on. I found out who is a leader in the class".* (Alex_I3)

Alex attempted to apply his increased awareness of students' leadership and influence, discovered by himself outside the classroom, to activities and students learning inside the language classroom.

5.2 JTEs' roles

JTEs' roles fall into two aspects: as intermediary between the ALTs and students, and as 'owners' of team-taught lessons. In the monolingual cultural settings such as Japanese secondary schools, the JTEs as the local teachers are situated between the ALTs and the students, and are expected to bridge the gap between them. I shall look at this role as an intermediary in Section 5.2.1. Secondly, the JTEs seem to have complicated feelings about their roles when sharing the classroom with the ALT. As Rohlen (1983) and Miyazato (2012) state, Japanese teachers have great autonomy; the JTEs have the freedom within the classroom to govern it independently in their solo-teaching. The data for this study clearly shows that the JTEs seem to establish their roles in different ways, but it actually relates to protecting their ownership of the classrooms in team-teaching with the ALTs. I shall look at these roles in Section 5.2.2.

5.2.1 JTEs' roles as an intermediary

The data clearly shows that JTEs role as an intermediary between the ALTs and the students is actually fulfilled in various ways, not only in relation to language learning but also with relationship-building, as outlined below.

5.2.1.1 Language learning related areas

According to Brumby and Wada (1990), the JTEs and ALTs need to monitor the students' attitude towards the lesson, and judge whether the students are ready to move on to the next stage of the lesson (see Section 3.6.1.2). The JTEs can successfully fulfil this role because, in team-teaching classrooms, the JTEs sometimes encounter situations in which only the JTE can find out what difficulties students encounter in their learning process, from the point of view of Japanese speakers, and explain this to the ALTs. In this sense, the JTEs actually can bridge the gap between the ALT and the students. There is evidence of perceptions of this role in the data.

Bridging the gap between the ALTs and students

The interview data indicates that JTEs see themselves as bridging the gap between the ALTs and students since the JTEs are able to figure out to what extent the students understand the ALTs' instruction, as mentioned by all the JTEs (7). Uemura, a JTE in School B, said: *"the JTEs give suggestions to the ALTs before moving forward to the next activity when the students do not understand what the ALTs said"* (Uemura_I1). Akama, a JTE in School A, helps the students understand the procedure with the ALTs:

> *"The students really concentrate on understanding what the ALTs are saying. Their positive attitude is great, but they sometimes do not notice that they are actually asked a question by the ALTs. In that situation, I let them realise, 'Now it is time to answer the ALTs, not to listen to the ALTs'".*   (Akama_I1)

Akama also picks up on typical mistakes made by Japanese learners in the classroom, and quite often referred to Mike as a NS and how he uses English in the classroom (T2O1, 3).

The interview data also shows that both during and before the lesson, the JTEs act as a bridge between the ALTs and students. Alex, in School C, values the JTEs' anticipation of the students' difficulties and asks Kimura, the JTE to check his activities:

> *"I first tune up the computer (for the activity), and then we both check together. It wasn't just my input, it was definitely Ms Kimura's input as well".*   (Alex_I1)

The above comments suggests that the JTEs' anticipation of the students' difficulties helps the ALTs to create activities appropriate for the students' language level.

5.2.1.2 Relationship-building related areas

There is evidence of the JTEs helping the ALT to build a positive relationship with the students in different ways: creating activities for communication between the ALTs and students, using the ALTs' strengths, and helping maintain a trusting relationship between the ALTs and students.

Creating activities for communication

A good example of how the JTE helped promote communication between the ALTs and students was found in School A, with Sakai. When students were working on the present perfect tense, she set them homework to write questions in English that they would then put to Becky, the ALT, the next day. Becky wrote comments on students' amusing questions: *"One student asked if I had ever eaten 'Papaya Suzuki' (a famous Japanese dancer), so I replied that I don't eat people"* (Personal email exchange with Becky, FN, 13/02/2012).

Sakai also encouraged the students to write New Years' cards in English to Becky, and asked Becky to read and choose the nicest card among them. The students' cards were put on the notice board of the corridor near the classroom, and Becky's favourite card was marked with a blue ribbon: Special prize chosen by Becky (AF, 23/01/2012).

Using ALTs' strengths/special abilities

The data from observations of team-taught lessons shows that, in one case, the ALT was provided with the opportunity by one JTE to display a special ability in the classroom. Uemura asked Keith, who plays the guitar, to teach the students a Christmas song, White Christmas (T4O2). The students seemed to be impressed with his performance and enjoyed singing. This activity helped the students to see the ALT as a person rather than just as a teaching assistant –

only of interest in relation to language learning. Morita, the vice-principal in School B, was also impressed: *"Keith tries to make an effort to communicate with the students by playing the guitar. I appreciate his contribution"* (Morita_I1).

5.2.2 JTEs' roles as 'owners' of team-taught lessons

When the teacher shares the classroom with another co-teacher in the team-teaching situations, ownership of the classroom becomes an important issue – how the classroom should be shared between team teachers and who should be in charge of the lesson. The JTEs normally teach the students by themselves, and it is natural for the JTEs to see themselves as owners of their classrooms. Interestingly there is evidence as to the issue of ownership of the classroom which actually influenced how the JTEs see and fulfilled their roles in team-teaching with the ALT in different ways. The different roles perceived by the JTE and how these relate to the overall view of themselves in the classroom are discussed below.

Director as well as scriptwriter

The observations revealed interesting data with regard to the behaviour and perceptions of roles that the JTEs have. For example, several observations (T1O1, 2, 3; T2O1, 2, 3; T3O1, 2, 3, 4; T4O1, 2, 3; T5O1) revealed that the JTEs occasionally seem to act as 'assistants' to the ALTs; this is supported by interview data which confirmed that all the JTEs (7) consider it their role during the lesson to help students by walking around the class while the ALT 'leads' the lesson. Kawada, in School B, admitted that, in his team-teaching, *"the ALT mainly conducts the lesson, and I have a role of supporting him and the students"* (Kawada_I1). Keith, in School B, also mentioned this apparent reversal of roles, with him leading the lessons of Teams 3 and 4:

> *"When I teach with Ms Uemura, I can lead the class. She gives Japanese instruction when it is needed. When I teach with Mr Kawada, I lead the class as well. He takes a second part of the lesson by explaining the grammar, but I mainly take the lead roles".*   (Keith_I1)

However, at the same time, the interview data revealed that most of the JTEs (5) actually view this role not as one of assistant but more as scriptwriter or director of the lesson, in line with the sense of ownership mentioned above. Kawada emphasised that he has charge of the lesson because he wrote the plan or script of the lesson, although he seemed to act as an assistant in the classroom.

> *"To the students, it looks like I am an assistant, but I make a plan of the whole lesson and prepare the materials. Keith is performing in the classroom, but I am writing the script for the lesson".* (Kawada_I1)

Interestingly, the JTEs actually see themselves not only as the scriptwriter but also the director of the lesson, as Toda, a JTE in School A said:

> *"During the lesson, I mainly observe the lesson. If the lesson seems not to be conducted as I planned, I stop the students doing the activity, and make them aware of the aims of the lesson. I also explain why I interfered in the lesson to the ALT after the class".* (Toda_I1)

Toda's role is to observe the class, as the above comments suggests; however, Toda definitely believes that the classes themselves are under his direction. The JTEs seem to reconcile the contradiction between the JTEs' role as the main lesson planner of the teams and their behaviour as assistants in the classrooms by seeing themselves as director as well as scriptwriter of team-taught lessons.

5.3 School cultures

One of the main research aims is to examine the impact of the ALTs not only on students' learning but also on the schools which are participating in the JET Programme. In order to attain this goal, this section will focus on school cultures, since the interaction and collaboration extend beyond the walls of the classroom to the school as a whole. The data from interviews, observations, fieldnotes, artefacts and documentation reveal a number of aspects relating to the types of cultures which exist within the schools and how the ALTs are incorporated into the cultures of the schools or not. I will firstly present analyses of the types of school cultures and follow this by examining the nature of the ALTs' adjustment to the school cultures and the impact of the ALTs on the schools.

5.3.1 Types of school cultures

In order to reveal types of school culture, it is important to remember how the contents of teacher cultures (what teacher think, say and do) and the forms of teacher cultures (how relations between teachers and their colleagues are articulated) closely relate to each other (see Section 3.7.2). Especially, through the forms of teacher cultures, the content of teacher cultures – norms, values, beliefs and practice – are reproduced or redefined (Hargreaves, 1994). If the form and content of teacher cultures influence each other reciprocally, a potential tension or conflict may emerge between what teachers do and what they ought to do. Therefore, in order to identify the types of cultures which exist in the three schools, I first focused particularly on how the ALTs and JTEs are faced with specific opportunities and constraints in fulfilling their roles within the schools and why this is so. Secondly, the ALTs may also experience particular types of cultures through their induction defined here as the process of introducing the ALTs as newcomers to the schools. In order to identify the particular school culture with relation to the induction of the ALTs, I focused on the types of support given to the ALTs when they first arrived.

Looking through the data from the interviews, observations, fieldnotes, artefacts and documentation, five types of cultures emerged; they are characterised here as Window Dressing, Individualism (Lortie, 1975; Rosenholtz, 1989; Hargreaves, 1994; Sato and Kleinsasser, 2004), Family (Alakavuklar, 2009), Bureaucracy (DuBrin, 2008) and Veteran-oriented (Kardos et al., 2001) cultures. I shall look at each type of culture in the following section.

Window dressing

Just as a shop attempts to appeal to new customers by making their window-displays as attractive as possible, schools may see it as their duty to make a good impression on other people, especially on people outside the schools. One example of what I am calling 'window-dressing' culture could be observed in School A, where internationalisation in English language education is emphasised to attract potential students and their families. The school holds two large courses once a year: the Intensive English Learning (IEL) course, and the International Exchange (IE) course. ALTs (from the USA and South Africa) from other schools were invited to the IEL course as well as an ALTs' educational

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advisor (the USA). As their nationalities show, the ALTs involved are mainly from Inner Circle countries. With regard to the IE course, other foreigners working or studying in City 1 were invited to talk, mainly about the cultures of their countries. As Mike, an ALT in School A, said: *"The IE course was about improving students' knowledge about other countries. So we had people from India, from France, from Brazil"* (Mike_I2). However, as one of the JTEs in School A, Sakai, pointed out, the main purpose of these courses is to attract people: *"English education relating to the IE and IEL courses are regarded as the advertisement or 'the real eye-catchers' for this school because it is difficult to manage these courses in other schools"* (Sakai_I1).

As the data from artefacts shows, the official homepage of School A and the school newspaper advertise the IE and IEL courses as salient characteristics of the school (AF, 21/12/2011, 25/01/2012, 21/02/2012), and the lessons conducted by the ALTs and foreign teachers are an attempt to show how internationalisation is achieved. However, it is important to note here how these 'display' lessons are seen by those involved and the extent to which they actually show the real product. The data from the interview with Ishida the principal in School A revealed that one of the reasons behind the two courses is to motivate the students who tend to get bored with repetitive learning for the university entrance examination:

> *"Repeated practice is the most important thing in learning a foreign language, but the students easily get bored with these monotonous and repetitive drills. The IE and IEL courses stimulate again those students to study English".* (Ishida_I1)

Furthermore, as the data from the interviews and fieldnotes indicate, the role of the ALTs and JTEs during the two courses is occasionally a reversal of the normal roles, with the former acting as main teachers and the latter as observers. *"I was the main teacher in the classroom at that time, and JTEs are more like assistants"* (Becky_I1). However, the data from interviews, artefacts and fieldnotes revealed that, as usual, behind the scenes, the actual organisers or planners were JTEs: the foreign teachers had to conduct classes planned by the two JTEs, Sakai and Toda, with the usual focus on grammar. Mike aimed to have his group create a story: *"The point was at the end of three days, they will be working in groups and they will write their own story"* (Mike_I2) but this in fact became a lesson focussing

on the grammatical structure 'want to'. The ALTs' educational advisor mentioned his dilemma:

> *"At the beginning, this course aimed to give the students 'Omoide-dukuri' (which means to give the students a good experience with the ALTs, one they would remember in Japanese), but the JTEs believe that they need to teach grammar to the students. JTEs cannot think about this programme without teaching grammar".*
> (Informal conversation with the ALTs' educational advisor)
> (FN, 20/12/2011)

Although the ALTs' educational advisor wants to provide the students with more free activities, and, as illustrated above, the school principal also claims to be looking for something different from the usual, the JTEs continue to focus on grammar structure in order to answer the expectations of the school. As Mike said: *"School A is an academic school; teachers are very serious about the students' achievements"* (Mike_I2), and the students are only given opportunities to learn mainly from ALTs or foreign teachers during two or three days a year, at these window-display courses, when, although ostensibly led by the international teachers, it is in fact the JTEs who decide the content and focus on grammar and repetitive drills, as usual.

The school is aware of the importance of putting on a display of internationalisation to attract potential customers but, as noted by the ALTs above, the reality of the teaching at the school is somewhat different.

Individualism

Teachers themselves tend to choose to work individually or separately rather than interacting with their colleagues together (Lortie, 1975; Rosenholtz, 1989; Hargreaves, 1994; Sato and Kleinsasser, 2004: see Sections 3.7.2.1 and 3.7.3). Teachers' preference for working individually is identified in School B, as Keith, an ALT, mentioned: *"I found that other teachers don't necessarily communicate with each other. They keep themselves to themselves a lot. Actually teachers don't know each other"* (Keith_I1). As the data from fieldnotes (FN, 16/11/2011, 14/12/2011, 27/01/2012) indicates, Kawada and Uemura, 2 JTEs in School B, seemed not to invite the cooperation of Keith in planning the lessons, apart from Uemura's lesson applying Keith's Christmas song activity (T4O2). Even discussion for improvement of teaching in general seems to rarely occur between

Kawada and Uemura. When Kawada found that Uemura used a debate activity in her solo teaching, he seemed to be extremely surprised: *"Debate? I have not heard about it from her!"* (Informal conversation with Kawada, FN, 27/01/2012). Furthermore, in this individualistic culture, individual teachers' choices take precedence over the administrative teachers' expectations. Morita, the vice-principal in School B, actually expects the students to be able to speak in English through team-teaching:

> *"In our school, more than half of the students work in companies after graduation. Some of them need to work in foreign countries within a few years after joining the companies. It is better for them not only to read English but also to have a conversation in English".* (Morita_I1)

However, Morita's expectation of English education does not seem to be reflected in the actual practice of team-teaching in School B. As the data from fieldnotes (FN, 16/11/2011, 14/12/2011, 27/01/2012) shows, Kawada and Uemura's lessons were based mainly on grammar-focused interaction (see Section 5.1.1).

The students in School B, had fewer opportunities to attend a team-taught lesson by the JTE and ALT. Team-taught lessons of Teams 3 and 4 were actually conducted about once a month. When Keith entered Uemura's class, one student immediately said: *"Long time no see, Keith"* (FN, 14/12/2011). This circumstance appeared to make Keith feel unwanted in School B: *"I don't think they (JTEs) personally like team-teaching. They think it's a problem that I'm there because they have to accommodate me"* (Keith_I1). This also led to Keith's uncertainty as to the ALTs' roles in the school, and sense of isolation:

> *"The JET Programme is a kind of teaching programme. But there is no guidance around that. For a long time I was like "What is my job?", "What do I do?", and over the two years I still do question, "What do I do?", "How do I teach?" because I have to learn how to become an English teacher, and we just went to a skill development seminar, where we learnt what the job was, how to teach better, how to get along in the school, but it's still a learning process definitely".* (Keith_I1)

Keith spends much of his time in School B learning Japanese by himself: *"When I don't have anything special to do, I am studying Japanese at the staffroom or the library"* (Keith_I2). However, even here it is significant that Keith was studying Japanese mainly by writing or reading in the staffroom or the library rather than

talking to other Japanese colleagues, as the data from fieldnotes shows (FN, 16/11/2011, 14/12/2011, 27/01/2012). Keith also tended to stay in the library due to headaches caused by kerosene heaters in the staffroom, which seemed to irritate Kawada. As the data from fieldnotes (FN, 27/01/2012) confirms, Kawada complained to other Japanese teachers about Keith's absence from the staff room in a loud voice: *"I have met many ALTs, but Keith is one of the worst ALTs"*. This clearly did not help relations between Keith and other staff in the school. As Keith mentioned: *"I feel people might not like my position, like 'What is his position?', 'What is he here for?' That's what I feel"* (Keith_I2). The vice-principal, Morita, could have noticed issues relating to Keith's health and his relationships with the JTEs, especially Kawada and other colleagues because Morita shares the same staffroom with Kawada, Keith and other Japanese teachers (FN, 28/11/2011). However, Morita seems to be unaware of or to ignore these issues. What is interesting is Keith seems to do internalising by blaming himself in the end: *"I am not used too much in my school. I haven't really been to the class, maybe once or twice (a month). Maybe it's my fault…"* (Keith_I2). Keith's isolation may well stem from his own personality or behaviour, but is exacerbated by the responses he seems to see in his colleagues within the individualistic school culture.

Family

Schools as a family see themselves as creating caring, familial and warm communities that evoke a pre-industrial romantic image of kinship bonding and shared struggles against adversity (Casey, 1999). However, a family metaphor about culture may also be used in contexts where there is an expectation that 'members' will obey rules made by teachers in authority and that a sense of uniformity will be imposed on all the teachers within the schools. This paradoxical aspect of family-like culture (Alakavuklar, 2009) could be seen as emerging in School C.

Just as a father and mother are in charge of family members, Nakai (the principal) takes on a role which seems to include having more power or control over the teachers and involves a top-down decision-making process. As Hidaka mentioned: *"You cannot do it independently in the school, when you want to do something new. It is difficult for us to act alone in the school"* (Hidaka_I1).

Alex also views Nakai as wielding supreme power over the teachers in School C:

> *"It's all up to the principal. If she says, 'Yes', then I can change something. If I want to do something outside the class, I have to ask her…If she says, 'No', then I cannot do it. I mean even if I could have the teachers' support in it, which I already tried to do, it didn't work, unless the principal said, 'Yes'".*   (Alex_I2)

Alex views his position as an ALT in School C, and his treatment by the principal, as patronising: *"It's like treating me as a kid. It's like my mum saying 'Don't play with that toy'"* (Alex_I2). Even the climate of the staffroom is affected by the presence of the principal: *"When the principal entered the staffroom, the teachers suddenly stopped talking to each other. Before that, they were laughing"* (Informal conversation with Alex, FN, 30/01/2012).

It is also worth noting here that a similar family-like structure seems to be observed in the team-taught lessons in School C. In Team 5, Kimura, a JTE, clearly has more power than other team members, as Itoh, a JTE, mentioned: "*Our team is organised by Ms Kimura, as 'T1' (the main teacher). I am walking around the students who are not good at English, while Ms Kimura is teaching*" (Itoh_I1). As the observation data (T5O2, 3, 4) shows, almost all of the team-taught lessons of Team 5 were normally based on an accompanying workbook with extra grammar and vocabulary exercises rather than interactive activities. While the students are engaged with the workbook exercises, Kimura, Itoh and Alex started to check their answers in silence, walking around the students. These activities lasted for thirty to forty minutes out of fifty-minute lessons. Alex always prepared his own language activities but was only allowed to use these for five to ten minutes. Alex pointed out the inflexibility of the teaching in School C*:*

> *"There are so many rules around you, …and that's similar to the teaching process as well. You stick to the rules. You have to stick to the rules like the principal says: 'You have to do it'; and then, you have to do it; basically, no choice".*   (Alex_I2)

Alex also notices that the team-taught lessons based on the course book result in students feeling bored. *"Working from the course book is very annoying for*

some students. It's not fun" (Alex_I2). However, the sense of harmony of the family-like school culture seems to affect how Alex behaves in team-taught lessons: *"The most important thing is the JTE and ALT get along…putting the bonds into the classroom is important"* (Alex_I1). In fact, Kimura seems to prefer Alex's obedient attitude to any form of argument or critical discussion for improvement: *"When Alex requested me to do his activities in the class, I sometimes said to him: 'Well, but could you do that in this way?' Alex understands what I want to do, that is good for me"* (Kimura_I1).

'Doing things together' also seems to be regarded as an important school slogan in School C. As Nakai, the principal, states: *"All staff members as one educate our students together. It is important to create and maintain such an atmosphere within the school"* (Nakai_I1). Remaining in harmony as in the family-like culture seems to require homogeneity rather than diversity, as Alex noticed: *"One day somebody wrote something in a different colour on the board, people were shocked by that. It's like everything goes haywire: 'Oh my God, it's a different colour!'"* (Alex_I2). There also seems to be a discrepancy between Alex' and Nakai's views of the ALTs' roles and this creates a tension between them. Alex sees his role in the JET Programme as bringing different cultures and different ways of teaching into Japanese schools: *"The JET Programme is really about people coming from different cultures, and introducing your culture into the Japanese way of life, in English classrooms in Japan"* (Alex_I1). In contrast with Alex's views, Nakai believes that the ALTs need to adjust to Japanese ways of teaching: *"First of all, the ALTs need to learn our ways – Japanese ways of teaching. So I always say to the ALTs, 'Enjoy the differences'"* (Nakai_I1). Although Nakai speaks of differences she does not appear to be prepared for Alex to introduce new ideas into the school: *"the ALT is like a Japanese-style set meal. We expect the ALT to do the same as we do in the school"* (Nakai_I1). The school value of togetherness appeared to result in the creation of a number of rules to obey, as Alex noted: *"There are so many rules around you – in order. You can't change the order"* (Alex_I2).

Alex also seemed to surprise other colleagues with his unexpected attendance of co-curricular activities: *"When I say that I play lots of sports, they didn't believe me or they were very surprised because I could do more things than I was supposed to do"* (Alex_I2). Hidaka, a PE teacher, confirmed that Alex's

predecessor had never participated in the activities outside the classroom and that Alex's behaviour was unprecedented:

> *"Teachers in foreign countries tend to think that after school care is not their job. They have a relationship with the students only in the classroom. But in Japanese schools, teachers are expected to take care of the students after class. Alex understood the characteristics of our atmosphere of this school quickly, and tried to get to the students outside the classrooms".* (Hidaka_I1)

Despite the positive reception his behaviour received from some teachers, Alex nevertheless feels he is being watched suspiciously by other colleagues at the same time:

> *"School C is a family-like school. They are family. It's very hard for me to try to get in there. I am a new person, and no one knows me. The community would say: 'What do we do with this person?' 'What job can we give him?' They are always scared. If I am trying to do something, it is like 'Uh-oh, watch out. I hope he is doing the right thing'".* (Alex_I2)

Clearly, there is the perception that School C to some extent has a family-like culture, with its positive and negative aspects; however, there is also, in Alex's mind, the idea that entering the family is not easy and non-members are treated, at least initially, as outsiders.

Bureaucracy

In a bureaucratic culture, the authority for making decisions is located at the top and, therefore, information always flows from top to bottom, in a hierarchical relationship. This study confirmed that the ALTs experience a hierarchal relationship with the JTE, and are seen as 'outsiders' by the school and categorised as 'assistants' and 'native speakers' within all the schools. In this section I shall consider first how the categorisation of the ALTs as 'assistants' occurred and then focus on the categorisation of the ALTs as 'native speakers'.

1) Categorising ALTs as 'assistants'

Although a number of the ALTs' beneficial roles and contributions to students' learning were confirmed in linguistic and cultural matters (see Section 5.1), the data from the interviews, fieldnotes and documentation indicate the view of the ALTs as 'assistants' rather than as independent teachers in all the schools, suggesting a role of less power, of being lower in the hierarchical school culture, in aspects of pedagogy and professional development. Mike and Becky also clearly see the JTEs as possessing a higher rank than the ALTs and claim, *"When JTEs were away, we taught together just because two ALTs equal one teacher"* (Mike_I2). The interview data indicates that JTEs are responsible for making the curriculum and syllabus, with no involvement from the ALTs, as Morita, the vice-principal in School B mentioned: *"JTEs establish the attainment target for the modules throughout the year. JTE firstly indicate the goals of the lessons to ALTs; and then, ALTs should be involved in the lessons"* (Morita_I1).

Decisions about curriculum also affect who plans the team-taught lessons, with the JTEs' decisions about the lesson plans being simply reported to the ALTs. The data from fieldnotes show that three JTEs, Kawada and Uemura in School B, and Kimura in School C, talk to their ALTs about the lesson for fifteen to thirty minutes beforehand (FN, 16/11/2011,14/12/2011, 27/01/2012, 30/01/2012, 06/02/2012, 22/03/2012). However, the JTEs have already assigned the ALTs' roles for the lessons, instead of giving them the opportunity to discuss the lesson and their roles, thus restricting their flexibility in the classroom. A lesson taught by Kawada (JTE) and Keith (ALT) (AF, 14/12/2011, 27/01/2012) provides clear evidence of this lack of joint preparation. Keith has to follow Kawada's lesson plan, although, as the fieldnotes confirm, there was no discussion prior to the class. Keith asked Kawada about a lesson plan a few days before the team-taught lesson; however, Kawada simply replied: *"I have not prepared it yet"* (FN, 27/01/2012). Furthermore, the data from fieldnotes also revealed that Kawada seemed to evaluate how faithfully Keith followed Kawada's planning. According to the observation data (T3O1, 2, 3), Keith seemed to be confused about how to fulfil his roles, and this is interpreted by Kawada as lack of experience of teaching rather than lack of pre-class discussion: *"Keith cannot do what I planned. He has this type of problem. Well, Keith is new to this school"* (Kawada_I1). Keith offers an alternative view:

> *"The problems are not the students but the other teacher (JTE). You have to accommodate yourself to the other teacher. You have to let the other teacher in, and sometimes compromise with what the other teacher wants to do".* (Keith_I1)

Keith wants more responsibility, freedom and flexibility: *"I would like to teach a class by myself. It's easier to be a single teacher because you can go with your own plan, and nobody says it's wrong or right"* (Keith_I1). He clearly questions the role imposed on him by the JTEs.

The situation in School A is somewhat different, as the JTEs (Akama and Sakai) allow the ALTs to create the language activities for team-taught lessons but appear to reserve their right to decide which activities are to be included in the class. *"I ask Becky to prepare the language activity based on the grammar points a week before. Becky shows me several types of activities before the lesson; and then, I choose the best one among them"* (Sakai_I1). In School A Mike seems to be regarded as an efficient language activity designer maker: *"When I ask Mike to create some language activities based on the particular grammar points, Mike can immediately find it"* (Akama_I1). Mike is aware of the need to adjust to the JTEs' request: *"If they (JTEs) do not like the idea, that's too bad. You are there as an assistant"* (Mike_I1). Interestingly, despite the lack of discussion with the JTE, there is clearly interaction between the ALTs: *"Sometimes we (Mike and Becky) talk to each other about some ideas like – 'Oh, I think this is a good idea, but maybe change this' – before we go to the JTEs, and it is nice to have another ALT – 'Co-worker'"* (Mike_I2). This may reflect a cultural difference, in that the two ALTs see themselves as fellow workers or workmates, with the JTEs as the boss.

If the ALTs see themselves as being treated as 'assistants', inevitably they have less impact on the development of the school itself. This was clear in the case of Mike, who originally had plans to introduce conversational English to the students, as mentioned in the first interview, but felt thwarted by the requirement to adjust to the teaching aims of the JTE: *"I would like to transform elective classes into more conversation classes. But it depends on the JTEs – conversation or grammar"* (Mike_I2). Becky was also unable to have a vision for the future team-taught lessons, reflecting her team-taught lessons in the past: *"It's difficult to think about the teaching because we don't have the schedule for the next year. I don't really know who I am teaching with or what year"* (Becky_I2).

What is clear from the above, is that the JTEs seem to be highly dependent on the ALTs for ideas for language activities, but do not give the ALTs the opportunity to discuss with the JTEs, either before or after the classes, in order to improve the lessons.

The role of the ALTs in evaluation of their own performance is also interesting in that it confirms the perception of the ALT as 'outside' the school framework. Although it does not specifically categorise them as 'assistant', nor relate directly to the hierarchical nature of the organisation, the lack of participation at any stage of the evaluation process clearly confirms their position as excluded from the school in some way.

An important stage in the JET Programme is evaluation of the ALTs' performances (*The Contracting Organisation Manual*, DC, 16/11/2011). As the ALT evaluation form shows, two people are involved: an evaluator, and an overseer. In all three schools in this study, the JTEs fulfilled the role of evaluators, and the principals or vice-principals acted as overseers. There is some post-evaluation discussion, as Mike, in School A, mentioned: *"At the end of this process, usually the vice-principal will hold a meeting with the ALT"* (Personal email exchange with Mike, FN, 26/05/2013)*.* However, the data from fieldnotes and documentation confirmed that all the ALTs seem to experience a top-down approach in the evaluation of their performances within the schools.

Sakai, a JTE in School A, explained how the ALTs were evaluated: *"All the JTEs of the English Department firstly evaluate the ALTs' performances of work; and then we submit our evaluation to the principal and the vice-principal (to get confirmation)"* (Personal email exchange with Sakai, FN, 09/09/2013). What is interesting, however, is that none of the ALTs received any explanation about the process. Becky and Mike made the following comments about this:

> *"As for the evaluation of me, I'm not sure since I haven't seen it. I was told after the evaluation that the JTEs had had a meeting to talk about me. I'm assuming they did the evaluation. I was not allowed to keep their evaluation of me (in the first year). In my second year, I didn't get to see their evaluation of me".*
> (Personal email exchange with Becky, FN, 18/04/2013)

> *"Unfortunately, City 1 ALTs are not allowed to see the actual evaluation forms that are completed by their supervisors (evaluators), and many ALTs are not told the results of this evaluation process. It is very top-down system".*
> (Personal email exchange with Mike, FN, 26/05/2013)

Alex, in School C, was not even given an opportunity to discuss the evaluation with the overseer (principal): *"I didn't sit down with the principal to talk about my (evaluation) form because, well, you know how my principal was. We were supposed to but I didn't talk with her"* (Personal email exchange with Alex, FN, 29/04/2013).

More astonishingly, the data from fieldnotes revealed that Keith, in School B, was unaware that his work was being evaluated: *"I was not given any knowledge to evaluate my work beforehand. I was not able to see and did not know that my work was evaluated when you interviewed me"* (Personal email exchange with Keith, FN, 12/04/2013). Keith's relationship with the JTE, Kawada, in School B was problematic for a number of reasons: Kawada seemed ignorant of the procedures outlined in *The Contracting Organisation Manual*, though he clearly had a copy: *"Such a book exists, doesn't it?"* (Informal conversation with Kawada, FN,16/11/2011). He also seemed irritated by Keith's absence from the staffroom due to headaches caused by the kerosene heaters and his behaviour in general: *"Keith is troublesome, and I tried to prevent renewal of his contract as an ALT"* (Informal conversation with Kawada, FN, 22/02/2012). Keith was indeed unable to renew his contract for a fourth year but it is not clear whether this was the direct result of Kawada's evaluation.

In all the schools, there is no communication or face-to-face discussion about the ALTs' performance between the evaluator and the person being evaluated, and the nature of evaluation is a judgemental assessment rather than reflective dialogues among the ALTs, the JTEs as evaluators and the principal or the vice-principal as overseers. This situation prevents the ALTs from reflecting on their performances from the aspects of professional development. Indeed, the top-down procedure of evaluation only serves to reinforce the role of the ALTs as relatively low in the hierarchy of the school and as 'outsiders' to the process.

2) Categorising ALTs as 'native speakers'

In School A there is evidence of a preference for the accent of ALTs who are from inner circle countries (see Section 5.3.1). This preference within the school adds to the view that the ALTs are perceived primarily as 'native speakers', and tends to impersonalise them by regarding them as "pre-determined constructs such as, that of language verifier", as Geluso claims (2013, p. 97). This categorisation of ALTs relates to how the goals of the JET Programme are perceived. Two ALTs in School A, view the goals of the JET Programme as international exchange: *"The benefits of the JET Programme is…they (Japanese students) can understand not only differences but also the similarities between Japanese people and other cultures"* (Mike_I1). Becky said: *"The JET Programme should give (Japanese people) the chance to meet the different foreign people and to think about the world outside Japan"* (Becky_I1). However, the views of the JTEs and the principal in School A see the benefits of the JET Programme and the role of the ALTs differently: *"It is helpful for the students to listen to English from native-speakers through team-teaching and the JET Programme"* (Toda_I1). Ishida, the principal in School A also said: *"Through the JET Programme and team-teaching, I expect the students to be able to express their opinions in English"* (Ishida_I1). The danger here is that "talk is primarily glorified for the sake of talk, rather than for the minds it opens up and the world it connects" (Van Lier, 1996, p. 148). As this study has already shown, the IEL course is used as an advertisement for internationalisation in School A: as a way of attracting people from outside the school; as Seargeant (2009) suggests, the native speaker is promoted as a key selling point and becomes a symbol that represents authentic and communication-oriented English.

The other significant course in School A is the International Exchange (IE) course (see Section 5.3.1 on Window Dressing culture), where other foreigners, English speakers from outer and expanding circle countries, working or studying in City 1 are invited to talk mainly about the cultures of their countries. What is interesting is that Becky and Mike, although not actively involved into this course, are requested to attend, as a kind of 'interpreter' or 'translator' for the invited foreign teachers, in their communication and interaction with the students. These foreign teachers, from the expanding and outer circles, are not seen as having a good enough pronunciation to be understood easily. Sakai, a JTE in School A stated:

"The foreign teachers' pronunciation is not good enough, while the ALTs' pronunciation is good. Some of ALTs have a little accent, but normally ALTs' pronunciation is good" (Sakai_I1).

What is interesting here is the understanding of native-speaker and what communication with 'native-speakers' entails. It seems that the schools want a somewhat idealised version of English to be used within their schools: the language used by speakers of English from non-inner circle countries is not valued as highly as that of inner-circle speakers. This raises the role of the ALTs to a higher position in the hierarchy, exploited by the school in certain courses, but which contradicts the role they are assigned within the daily life of the school.

Veteran-oriented cultures

The ALTs' encounter with the school cultures may not only depend on interactions with the group of colleagues with whom they work, but also on support from the schools – how the schools welcome the ALT as a newcomer in terms of professional development and how they pay attention to the ALT's needs and concerns. A key element of this support is induction, defined here as helping the novice teachers integrate with their school cultures as well as learn about their roles in their schools. The data from interviews, fieldnotes and documentation revealed that the ALTs were experiencing a veteran-oriented culture (Kardos et al., 2001) in their induction as novice teachers, being expected to behave like expert teachers, receiving little support and no interaction with other colleagues to discuss their work in depth within the schools.

Almost all the schools see the most useful induction of the ALTs as inviting the ALTs to welcoming and farewell parties ('teachers' drinking parties'). Ishida, the principal in School A, said: *"Drinking parties are useful to integrate the ALTs to the school"* (Ishida_I1). Morita, the vice-principal in School B, also, when asked about the induction of the ALTs, referred to the welcome and farewell parties:

> *"When the ALTs arrive at the school, we organise the welcome parties by letting the ALTs make a self-introduction speech to the staff and the students. When they go back to the home, we provide the ALTs with the farewell party as well as a speech".*
>
> (Morita_I1)

Kawada, Keith's supervisor in School B, seemed to equate induction with an opportunity for a social occasion: *"We do not have any special induction. Instead, we (four JTEs and Keith) went out for lunch only once when Keith arrived at our school"* (Kawada_I1). As the interview data above shows, these events seem to occur separately, on each individual ALT's arrival and departure, in all the schools.

The administrative teachers also see their role in the induction of the ALTs as talking to them about their lessons or contributions to the daily lives of the schools; as Ishida mentioned: *"After the lessons, we gave the ALTs positive comments, saying to them: "That part was good, wasn't it?"* (Ishida_I1). Nakai, the principal at School C, also said: *"We should praise Alex's efforts like saying: "You always try hard" in the daily life of our school"* (Nakai_I1). However, as the data from the interviews and fieldnotes indicates, these above comments seem to bear little relationship with reality; the administrative teachers in School A tended to observe the lessons of the IE and IEL courses for about five to ten minutes only (FN, 21/12/2011, 23/01/2012, 07/02/2012). The data from the interviews clearly showed the schools' lack of support for the induction. As Ishida (the principal in School A) said: *"We are not particularly concerned about ALTs' integration with the school. The ALTs are treated like us"* (Ishida_I1). What is interesting here is that the schools expect the ALTs to be able to behave like other Japanese colleagues by treating them as school members, although there is no induction which involves both the ongoing process of professional development and of integration into the school communities.

All the schools also provide the ALTs with supervisors, seeing this role as important in introducing the ALTs to the new school settings, as *The Contracting Organisation Manual* suggests:

- Being willing to offer consultation with the ALTs to support their activities
- Facilitating communication with other Japanese colleagues

(DC, 14/12/2011)

As the above data from documentation indicates, the most useful role of the ALTs' supervisors is to help the ALTs integrate into the schools by discussing with them the cultures of the schools, the conventions and the unwritten rules. The data from the interviews indicate that JTEs who are assigned to be ALTs' supervisors see the role of the supervisor as involving procedural matters rather than the

teaching profession and integration into the school, as Sakai (JTE), Mike's supervisor in School A, mentioned:

> *"I provide support for ALTs' daily lives such as finding their flats and opening their bank accounts. When new ALTs firstly arrived at the BOE in City 1, I went to meet Mike, and came back to the school helping him to complete registration in the ward office and to buy his mobile phone".* (Sakai_I1)

As Sakai's comment shows, the JTEs' perception of their main role as an ALTs' supervisor in all the schools seems to relate more to 'survival knowledge' i.e. how to live in Japan. The data from the interviews also indicates that the role of ALTs' supervisor is perceived as a burden rather than something to be taken on willingly, as Kimura (JTE), Alex's supervisor, in School C, mentioned: *"New ALTs normally arrive in the school in the summer holidays. Although the ALT is an important partner, I have to give up my vacations and help the ALT"* (Kimura_I1). Kawada (JTE), Keith's supervisor, in School B, also sees his role of supervisor as troublesome because it covers the ALTs' daily lives outside the school:

> *"Because of the earthquake my previous ALT suddenly went back to his country without clearing his belongings. We were told that the room was very dirty, and had to clean his room. Regarding the current ALT, Keith, I have to take care of dealing with his neighbours. For example, the neighbourhood association asked me to tell Keith to attend volunteering activities to weed gardens with them on this coming Sunday, because he was absent the last time".* (Kawada_I1)

This study provided clear evidence of all the ALTs' experience of isolation under the veteran oriented culture. Keith found himself alone to discover his roles as an ALT in School B: *"I sit down, and think by myself like "What should I do today?", "What's my role today?", You almost have to create it by yourself"* (Keith_I2). School B seems to disregard the relative lack of support Keith receives from the school, as Morita stated: *"I guess there may be the induction organised by the department of English"* (Morita_I1). Kawada, Keith's supervisor in School B, sees his role as supervisor to be to arrange a schedule and inform him about the timetable: *"Keith has to visit another school, so my role (as a supervisor) is to do schedule coordination"* (Kawada_I1). Communication between the ALT and ALTs' supervisor seems to occur mainly for the purpose of information exchange in School B. Becky, an ALT in School A, also revealed her feeling of isolation. The

two ALTs seem to support each other in School A by creating a peer-relationship, as the data already confirmed (see Section 5.3.1). Becky mentioned that she had helped to fulfil the role of inducting Mike: *"I actually went with the supervisor to collect him (Mike). I was walking around the school by introducing him to teachers who can speak English"* (Becky_I1). However, the data from the interview clearly showed School A's concern about the ALTs' lack of interaction with other Japanese colleagues, as Toda, a JTE, mentioned:

> *"This year we considered seating arrangements in the staffroom. Until last year the two ALTs tended to talk to each other all the time since they sat side by side at the staffroom. They did not talk to other Japanese colleagues. So we slightly changed it. The two ALTs currently sit back-to back in the staffroom".* (Toda_I1)

However, Becky reveals a different viewpoint:

> *"Last year I was sitting next to the JTE and the ALT. That was better for me because I could talk them more easily. This year I am sitting next to the school nurse. She is never there. The person opposite me has a book shelf, so I can't see her. For me, someone who talks to me makes a really big difference how I feel about work. Usually the ALTs are lonely in the staffroom. I can't speak to anyone around me, so it just helps me be happy in my work (when I can talk to Mike)".* (Becky_I1)

This suggests the ALTs in School A have little support from the school itself.

The data from the interviews also indicated there is no interaction with the JTEs to discuss their teaching in depth within all the schools. Alex seems to learn how to create language activities not through discussion with the JTEs but by attending seminars outside the school, organised by the ALTs' educational advisor:

> *"He (the ALTs' educational advisor) used to be an ALT. It's a new idea for the first year (ALTs) because some people like me – I mean I didn't do teaching in my degree, so I need all the information I can get, so that I can teach my students the same thing. If it worked for him, then it works for me because many classrooms are the same. So whatever he does and tells us, it's quite important to take it in. So I always go to the seminar".* (Alex_I3)

However, more importantly, Alex mentioned what types of support are important in order to give the ALTs the chance to have an impact on the school:

> *"I think at the start it's hard to make use of the freedom because we don't know what the students like. For us, to have influence in the school, I think we should be given time to assess what's happening, what the school's like; and then we can start to influence the school. Of course, if we are given a little bit more freedom at that time".*   (Alex_I2)

Alex clearly believes that the ALTs need to learn not only the knowledge of teaching skills in general, such as how to create activities, but also the contextual knowledge about the particular school culture in which the ALT is located.

5.3.2 Adjustment

This section presents findings on the types of attempts the ALTs make to adjust to school cultures. From the data from interviews, fieldnotes and artefacts, this study suggests that any impact the ALTs may have on the schools depends on how the ALTs adjust to the school cultures. Interestingly, the attitude of the ALTs involved in this study towards dealing with school cultures seems to be closely associated with how they see their status or position within the schools. Three main aspects in relation to the quality of the ALTs' adjustment emerged: passively adjusting to the school culture, positively coping with the school culture, and finding another place outside the school.

Passively adjusting to the school cultures

The data from interviews, artefacts and fieldnotes revealed that, if the ALTs accept their positions as assistants, they passively adjust to the school culture. In this case, Mike's position as an assistant stops him from being proactive in introducing new teaching methods to the JTEs within the school (see Section 5.3.1).

> *"I am only here from eight until four, and other teachers want to stay back, but they get bonuses and have an opportunity to be promoted. So I say to myself if I can do my work in the time that I'm paid, and then go home… there is no chance for me to get a bonus based on my contract, and there is no chance for me to get promoted, so I just do my job well while I am here and go home".*   (Mike_I2)

Instead of working together to deal with professional issues open-heartedly within the school, the ALTs tend to maintain 'friendly' relationships with JTEs or other colleagues, as Mike said: *"I think going to social events such as drinking parties is good because teachers can get to know you outside the school…I think it is a good place to make friends"* (Mike_I2). Mike, in School A, clearly sees that there is an unbridgeable gap in status between the ALT and his Japanese colleagues, which seems to affect his behaviour within the school.

Mike and Becky also created an 'English Board' every month, with the aim of providing the students with cultural information (see Section 5.1); however, there was also another reason behind making the board, as claimed by Becky:

> *"Often I think some teachers think the ALT doesn't do much because we don't have any club, we don't have any cleaning. They (Japanese colleagues) don't see how we contribute outside the class in the school. But when we do, it helps me feel like teachers think we are doing something".* (Becky_I2)

Becky felt under pressure to create a good impression that the ALTs are also working outside the classroom, and this seems to have driven her to display the English Board, i.e. it was not only for the students but also for her colleagues, as in the Window Dressing culture. Becky and Mike seem to use the English Board as a tool of the adjustment for the school culture; however, their adjustment somehow seems to be perfunctory.

Previous data demonstrated that Becky and Mike attempted to build a relationship with the students by 'displaying' their attendance at school events (see Section 5.1.1). This could be interpreted as a pose to advertise participation in the events or activities, as in the Window Dressing culture. In the IE course, Becky and Mike attended only the opening and closing ceremonies (FN, 23/01/2012). While foreign teachers were giving lessons, Becky and Mike visited each class, but, they tended to stay for only five to ten minutes (FN, 23/01/2012, 07/02/2012, 21/02/2012). Simultaneously, the data from the fieldnotes (FN, 23/01/2012, 07/02/2012, 21/02/2012) confirmed that other colleagues also displayed their attendance of the IE and IEL courses: the principal and the vice-principal visited classes but, again, tended to stay for about five to ten minutes only. Toda, a JTE, attended only the opening and closing ceremonies of the IE course. There may be many reasons for this poor attendance: the teachers and principal might be busy with lessons or other administrative work; however, what

is interesting here is that the two ALTs appeared to copy the behaviour of their colleagues in adjusting to the school culture.

Positively coping with the school cultures

Although Alex, in School C, experienced being treated as an assistant like the other ALTs (see Section 5.3.1), this study suggests that his attitude towards positively coping with the school culture enabled him to establish his own roles in School C. Alex clearly sees himself as more than an assistant: *"I think my job is not only to be a teacher but to be a motivator, which again creates interest"* (Alex_I2). Alex's desire to expand his role beyond being an assistant within the school is firstly achieved by forming a more trusting relationship with other colleagues, since he feels that he is being carefully watched by the other teachers (see Section 5.3.1). According to the interview, Alex joins in activities outside the classroom, which enables him to join the community by sharing the common values of the school culture with other colleagues: *"We (ALTs) are not supposed to stay behind after school, but these co-curricular activities actually form the community"* (Alex_I2). It is important to note here that Alex's effort is appreciated by his colleagues, partly due to his deeper understanding of the school culture as a small culture rather than Japanese culture as a large culture, as suggested by Hidaka, the PE teacher:

> *"In order to know about Japanese culture, most ALTs tend to go on a trip to tourists sites in Japan saying "I went to Kyoto", "I went to Sapporo". It may be a sort of cultural exchange. But if you come to Japan, come to City 1, and come to this school to work, we appreciate your attitude towards being involved in the students' activities by understanding the characteristics of our school rather than the attitude towards admiring the tourists spots saying "Kyoto is fantastic!""* (Hidaka_I1)

Furthermore, Alex's attendance of activities outside the classroom has become part of his daily routine.

> *"I have been to PE classes, so I do not need to ask the PE teacher whether or not it is okay. If I come to the class, I can just turn up to the class. I think that's the relationship which I would like to build with the teacher".* (Alex_I1)

Hidaka explained how Alex started and continued with the PE classes:

> *"At the beginning, Alex asked me, "What types of games do your students do in PE class?" When I answered to him, "We are doing football", Alex asked me: "Can I have a look at your class?" So I replied: "Yes, you are most welcome". We started to talk about this through casual conversation. I also saw Alex playing football frequently with the students during the lunch break, so I asked Alex: "We are doing football games in PE class. Would you like to join us?" After these kinds of things happened to us, now I just talk to Alex, if he has some spare time: "Would you like to come to a PE class to play basketball today?""*   (Hidaka_I1)

This study also confirmed that Alex's positive attitude towards adjustment to the school culture also enables him to develop relationships with other colleagues within the school. The data from the interview showed Alex and Hidaka established a peer relationship by sharing a common attitude towards teaching. Hidaka shows his openness to a variety of ways of teaching: *"There are several ways of making the kick. So the students can learn Alex's ways. It helps the students to increase their motivation as well as to improve their skills"* (Hidaka_I1). Hidaka's embracing of diversity corresponds to Alex's passion for teaching in his own ways:

> *"I can teach new games, new activities for the students outside the English class like saying: "Do this, do this" …I'm not going to say: "No, do it the right way because you have been told to do it"".*   (Alex_I2)

By seeing himself as *"a motivational teacher"* (Informal conversation with Alex, FN, 30/01/2012), Alex motivated not only the students but also Hidaka to team-teach with Alex in his PE class.

> *"At the moment, Alex comes to the class as a guest teacher. But if my PE class could be conducted through team-teaching with Alex only in English, it would be interesting. In that case, Alex would be the main teacher, and of course I need to learn English for that. I know it may be difficult. I may need to get permission from the principal and cooperation from the JTE. But it must be interesting to do this with Alex who tries to participate positively in the school activities by understanding us".*   (Hidaka_I1)

It is important to note here that Hidaka sees Alex as a co-worker; and more importantly, Alex established this peer relationship with Hidaka not by attending the informal parties, as Mike in School A did, but by sharing the aspects of professional development. Alex seems to influence even Kimura, a JTE in the

aspects of awareness of communities of practice. Kimura clearly shows her bad experience of Alex's predecessor: *"Team-teaching with Alex's predecessor was a burden on me. It was a big burden to me"* (Kimura_I1). However, reflecting on her attitude towards Alex's predecessor, Kimura seems to think more deeply about what she should have done to help with the ALTs' acceptance:

> *"Perhaps I should have explained more how extra-curricular activities are important for the students in this school to Alex's predecessor, even though she said me: "I don't like doing cleaning with the students". I couldn't talk to her about this at that time. I didn't have time to take care only of the ALT because I had to do my own work as well".* (Kimura_I1)

Alex's attitude towards positively attending extra-curricular activities seems to help develop an awareness of Kimura's attitude towards helping the ALTs integrate into the school culture.

Moreover, after Alex had volunteered to join these above duties for eight months, his positive attitude towards coping with the school culture encouraged School C to integrate Alex into the school community: the school itself confirmed Alex's new role – assistant coach of the baseball team and a supervisor for cleaning of the hall:

> *"Considering Alex's enthusiasm, we put Alex's name forward as an assistant coach of the baseball club on the official school division of duties, and as a supervisor of the students' cleaning, we officially assigned him to supervise the students who clean the hall".* (Nakai_I1)

Although his position is still 'assistant coach', Alex sees the baseball club as *"our team"* (Alex_I3) in the third interview. This clearly shows that Alex definitely created his own roles as well as developing an increased sense of belonging to his school.

Finding another role/place outside the school

If the ALT sees himself as an intruder in the school (see Section 5.3.1), he tends to find another place and roles outside the school to be able to make his contribution, which is confirmed by Keith in School B. Keith refers to his involvement more outside the school: *"I feel my job is mostly out of this school*

during the weekend – doing volunteer work" (Keith_I1). Keith views the above volunteer work outside the school as more worthwhile: *"We (ALTs) do a lot of things outside the school. It's actually my favourite part of the jobs because it's more purposeful"* (Keith_I2). Keith also participated with the web community – referred to in this study as 'The AL Link' – organised by Keith's colleague who is teaching as an ALT in another school. The AL Link aims to figure out ways of getting students to use English to communicate with the ALTs, as the artefact data shows (AF, 01/10/2013). While Keith felt uncertain about how to act as an ALT in the individualistic school culture (see Section 5.3.1), his participation of the AL Link seems to help him find out his roles, as showing his intentions of improving classes by focusing more on communication:

> *"As my role as an ALT, I would like to improve communication classes. (Previously) I was looking at the dialogue (of the course book), and asked the students, 'What is this story about?' Instead of it, I am thinking about, 'How can I use this dialogue to cause a conversation in a class?'"*　　　　　　　　　　(Keith _I2)

According to Mann (2005), "the building and sustaining of on-line communities has made a major contribution to providing possibilities for language teachers to connect with other language teachers" (Mann, 2005, p. 112). Keith's GW activity (see Section 5.1.1) also drew inspiration directly from the AL Link advocating that the opportunity to have real conversation should be given to the students (FN, 27/01/2012). Interestingly, Keith's idea of GW activity also influenced another participant to create a new communication activity (AF, 01/05/2012). However, it is important to note here that the ALT's impact may effectively extend more outside the school, rather than in his own school.

This chapter presented the findings obtained from interviews, observations, artefacts, documents and fieldnotes. The findings revealed that the complexities of the school cultures (as 'small' cultures) and the effect that these cultures have on the perspectives of the ALTs and JTEs. The cultures also strongly affected the roles of schools as teachers' professional learning and development communities (communities of practice). Issues emerging from these findings will be discussed in the next chapter (Chapter 6).

Chapter 6
Discussion of the findings

Introduction

This chapter explores the findings by developing the key issues that emerged from analysis of the data in order to discuss the impact and effectiveness of the JET Programme. There are three main goals of the JET Programme: the first is to improve foreign language education in Japan – especially enhancing students' communicative competence in English; the second is to develop international awareness among students; and the third is to enhance mutual understanding between Japan and other countries (see Chapter 2). However, my study has found interesting data which reveals that not all these aims are being met and that there are significant issues which relate to the aims and the roles – both perceived and actual – of the parties involved: the ALTs, the JTEs and the schools. This is also closely linked with issues concerning power, control and resistance. Therefore, focusing on the two main issues with regard to 1) roles and identities among the three different groups (ALTs, JTEs and schools) and 2) power, control and resistance, I will re-visit and re-assess the JET Programme. Furthermore, based on the discussion of my data analysis, I will introduce a revised diagram of the concept map of team-teaching interaction within the school culture at the end of this chapter (see Figure 6.1 in Section 6.3.3)

6.1 Roles and identity

Issues concerning ALTs' and JTEs' identities are crucial in any discussion of the impact of the JET Programme on the schools. The ALTs as newcomers try to find their own roles and identities in resisting or accepting the roles imposed by the JTEs and they do this in different ways. Some of JTEs as long-term employees have a feeling of ambivalence because of the fact that their roles are imposed by the schools (or by the BOE since the BOE obliged the schools to accept the ALTs), and some of them have questions about that role. This relates closely to issues of identity, which is defined as being continuously changing depending on who is interacting. According to Lave and Wenger (1991), identity is conditioned by social interaction and social structure. The individuals establish their identities through the social and institutional pressures upon the self that it cannot fully

resist (Mathews, 2000). Therefore, I will firstly discuss to what degree the ALTs and JTEs have freedom of choices for their roles and how their roles are imposed on them within the schools. Secondly, ways in which the ALTs' identity is established closely relates to the development of the schools, as Giddens' (1991) structural theory emphasises that social structures facilitate and constrain the activities of individuals, which in turn reproduce and change these same social structures. I will discuss the impact of the JET Programme on the schools themselves, focusing on how the ALTs establish their identities through interacting with the JTEs or others.

6.1.1 Roles imposed and roles chosen

A useful concept in thinking about identity within the community is Lave and Wenger's (1991) concept of communities of practice since it focuses on how individuals establish their identities through social learning. When a newcomer joins a new community, the newcomer feels an urgent need to align his or her experience with the competence long-term employees demonstrate. The long-term employees' competence encourages the newcomer to develop their own ability. Conversely, however, a new experience can also encourage a community to develop as when the newcomer brings some new elements into the practice and has to negotiate whether the community will embrace this contribution as a new element of competence – or reject it (Wenger, 2000). The long-term employees can have the opportunity to learn the new things from the newcomers. The long-term employees and newcomers interact with each other and transform each other (Block, 2006), which inevitably affects the development of the community. Through the two-way interaction, the newcomers and long-term employees establish or re-create their identities within the community. However, analysis of the data revealed that freedom and restriction of choices for their roles are disproportionately distributed to the ALTs and JTEs, which influences not only the ALTs but also the JTEs in how they establish their identities. Ways of acting in accordance with the roles imposed also highlight the nature of collaboration between the ALTs and the JTEs, which is closely related to significant aspects of professional development. Therefore, I will discuss how the roles are disproportionate to the ALTs and JTEs first, and then, what types of collaboration emerged in this study, commenting on whether the interaction has any impact on

the schools and on the individuals, according to the ideas of Lave and Wenger above.

Disproportion between roles chosen and roles imposed: Undermining identities

The disproportionate distribution of roles chosen and roles imposed between the ALTs and JTEs seems to result in a power imbalance in role-sharing in team-teaching between the ALTs and JTEs (Miyazato, 2009, 2012). According to her empirical case studies on teachers' (JTEs' and ALTs') and students' views on the JTEs and ALTs, the ALTs as native-speakers are viewed as being experts in the target language, but are cultural, linguistic and occupational novices in the local culture, whereas, the JTEs as non-native English speakers are regarded as being less expert in the target language, but being more competent in occupational, linguistic and cultural matters related to the local society (Miyazato, 2009, 2012). This study also confirmed the above imbalanced roles in team-teaching. Almost all the JTEs in this study were assigned responsibility for making the curriculum and syllabus, with no involvement from the ALTs (see Section 5.3.1), which allowed the JTEs to have more decision-making choices in planning and conducting team-taught lessons. The bureaucratic culture also forced almost all the ALTs in this study to adopt the role of assistant, giving them less freedom in their teaching performances. This disproportion between roles of choice and roles imposed allowed almost all the JTEs to become 'users' of ALTs as resources, especially concerning pronunciation and language activities, rather than co-workers. For example, Mike and Becky were viewed as the idealised model of English speakers from inner circle countries in School A; however, they were given the label of 'native-speakers' in order to window-dress the internationalisation of the school, but relinquished their individual characters, leading to depersonalisation.

Miyazato's (2012) study also found that, in the case of the ALT-centred team-teaching, the JTEs' English language deficiency and their inferiority complex toward NS teachers resulted in the JTEs' belief in Native Speaker Fallacy (Phillipson, 1992), i.e. the misperception that NSs of English are automatically the best. However, this study revealed that the relationships between the JTEs and ALTs is rather complex, indicating that the JTEs' roles of making the curriculum and syllabus, imposed by the school, undermine not only the ALTs'

but also the JTEs' identities. Almost all the JTEs in this study clearly perceived that the existence of the ALTs could enhance the students' communicative competence in and outside the classrooms (see Section 5.1.1). However, some JTEs were trapped between teaching grammar lessons so the students could pass the examination and teaching communicative English for the internationalisation movement. Some schools in this study expected the students not only to pass the entrance exam to the high-standard universities (based on grammar teaching), but also to be able to speak English to foreign people. As a result, activities based on grammar and adhering to the course book seemed to be the compromise. What is interesting here is that the relationship between puppet and puppeteer appeared to be formed between the ALTs and JTEs. In order to bring the ALTs' strengths into team-taught lessons, some JTEs in this study expected the ALTs to perform as the main teachers, but to base their work on the JTEs' lesson plans (see Section 5.2.2). Just as a puppeteer is hidden or invisible to the audience, Kawada saw himself as the scriptwriter of the team-taught lessons, but also chose to act as an assistant to the ALT in the practice of team-teaching (see Section 5.2.2).

Comfortable collaboration

Team-teaching is closely linked with ideas such as collaborative culture, in which colleagues become more critical friends, who offer a trusting relationship in which conflict is seen as constructive by offering a different perspective on the classroom (Richards & Farrell, 2005). Team-teaching provides the teachers with a supportive environment, promoting individual teachers' development as well as collegiality between colleagues, which, consequently, brings about improvements in the schools themselves (see Section 3.7.2.3). However, this study confirmed that the hierarchical relationship existing in the schools prevented the JTEs and ALTs from becoming critical friends. Almost all the ALTs in this study tended to create comfortable collaboration (Day, 1999; see Section 3.7.2) and avoided disagreement and conflict (Hargreaves, 2001) in accordance with the Japanese value of harmony (Konishi, et al., 2009). Building a professional development culture in bureaucratic settings in which compliance is the norm is not easy (Day, 1999; see Section 3.7.2); Mike and Becky had to adjust to the JTEs' requests because of the hierarchical relationship they had with them (see Section 5.3.1).

This study suggests that team-teaching and its benefits for professional development do not always function well in the schools, where, although comfortable collaboration among teachers is sometimes encouraged, a move to a more critical relationship is not.

As discussed above, almost all the ALTs in the study were restricted as to the roles they chose in their team-taught lessons. However, some ALTs, particularly Alex in my study, attempted to find his own roles outside the classrooms, by attending extracurricular activities within his school (see Section 5.1.1). This successfully reduced the imbalance in roles in team-teaching. The roles Alex chose enabled him to incorporate his/her own personality into the school community. This is further discussed in the following section (see Section 6.1.2).

6.1.2 Boundaries and identity

Ways of learning are crucial for considering the issues of identity within the community. According to Wenger (2000), learning from our interactions with other practices is not just an intellectual matter of translation, but also a matter of opening up our identities to other ways of being in the world. Whenever we belong to multiple communities, we experience the boundary in a personal way. In the process, Wenger also suggests that we create bridges across communities because, in developing our own identities, we deal with these boundaries in ourselves. If the newcomers and long-term employees establish or re-create their identities within the community, then inevitably "power of insiders and outsiders may be accommodated or ignored in particular ways" (Clemans, 2007, p. 71) within the particular community. All the ALTs in my study defined their identities by what they are not as well as by what they are, by the communities they do not belong to as well as by the ones they do, in different ways. My study suggests the ALTs experience an increase or decrease in their sense of belonging through the process of creating bridges across the schools. It is important to discuss their identities considering their interactions with the school communities on the periphery or the outside. Therefore, in order to consider how the impact of the JET Programme extended within the schools, I shall discuss how the ALTs attempt to create bridges across the schools, and how their access is allowed or denied by the schools, focusing on how the ALTs' sense of belonging is established.

Remaining on a peripheral trajectory

This study confirmed that identity is not only about knowing who we are but also about knowing who we are not (Wenger, 1998). Two ALTs (Becky and Mike), who were regarded as the idealised version of a language model and as language resources, appeared to undertake the important work of team-teaching with the JTEs and the IE course (see Section 5.3.1). However, this study also confirmed that they were less positively involved in the improvement of School A, from the aspects of their identities and sense of belonging. A possible reason is that when the ALTs were faced with dissonance between their self-image of a teacher and their perceptions of how they were treated by their colleagues, they appeared to define their identities by what they are not and by the communities they do not belong to. Becky and Mike originally appeared to find opportunities to be able to act on their own will, by creating the English club, which aimed to teach more conversational English to the students (see Section 5.1.2). However, when they realised that the school did not expect the ALTs to extend their own roles within the school, the ALTs regarded themselves as assistants, by telling themselves: 'I am just working here as assistants' (see Section 5.3.2). Even Becky tended to stop having a vision for the future team-taught lessons when she realised she had no say in making decisions about the lessons (see Section 5.3.1). This made the ALTs less positively involved in the school activities, while giving them a good excuse for less contribution to school improvement. It is important to note here that these ALTs' non-participation in School A was mediated by how the institution treated the ALTs. Consequently, Becky and Mike chose to remain on a peripheral trajectory rather than making efforts to learn from their new experience in order to become insiders of the community. Furthermore, they appeared to form a group within School A, clearly seeing JTEs not as their colleagues but rather as their bosses. As School A was concerned about the ALTs' lack of interaction with Japanese colleagues, their sense of belonging seemed to be to their own community rather than to their school (see Section 5.3.2).

Moving from the peripheral to the central part of the community

In contrast with Becky and Mike who simply accepted the existing roles within the school community, this study confirmed that Alex strongly desired to act as an equivalent to the JTEs or other Japanese within the school. As the study indicated, his attendance at activities outside the classroom promoted the students' learning and progress in both language related and non-language related areas, such as the students' motivation, leadership, interpersonal communication skills and intercultural awareness (see Sections 5.1.1 and 5.1.2). It is important to note here that Alex started to bring his influence on these non-language related aspects back to the language classroom. Although Alex was allowed to conduct his language activities only for 5 to 10 minutes and his roles in team-taught classrooms appeared to be limited (see Sections 5.1.1 and 5.3.1), his mobility between inside and outside the classroom enabled him to establish an alternative space between himself and the long term employees of School C. The essential value of School C is that teachers' contributions to the students' activities outside the classrooms affect their learning and development inside the classrooms (see Section 5.3.1). Alex's contributions outside the classrooms conformed with what School C expected. However, it should be emphasised that Alex made efforts to find the opportunity to establish his identities, by bridging a gap between himself and the community of School C. This enabled him to present a dynamic personality as well as to move from the peripheral to the central part of the community. More importantly, Alex's participation in the community of School C started to reflect his perspectives on the norms and practice of the community itself (Kozoll and Osborne, 2004). I will discuss the details of Alex's impact on School C in Section 6.2.

Marginality

ALTs find it difficult to fit in with the rest of the staff in the school community. One of the ALTs, Keith, found it difficult to accept the role imposed by the JTEs. Like Alex, in order to establish his roles Keith attempted to provide the students with opportunities to experience English in natural settings, by talking to the students outside the classrooms and attending the club activities (see Section 5.1.1). However, Keith was positioned further out on the periphery – marginalised, even though Keith was highly enthusiastic about creating activities to develop the

students' communicative language skills. A possible reason for this is that Keith could not establish peer relationships with other Japanese colleagues within the school due to his problematic relationship with his Japanese colleagues, especially Kawada, and his individualistic culture (see Section 5.3.1). Another reason could be that his sense of belonging to the community outside the school appeared to make him distance himself from what he sensed was an unsuccessful teacher role within his school, as the qualitative study based on interviews with the ALTs by Breckenridge and Erling (2011) indicates. Although he had been keen on inventing his GW activity, and attending the web community, Keith became less positive with regard to the need to improve his relationship with Kawada, which appeared to be the fundamental problem to be solved first in his current situation. Consequently, Keith was gradually marginalised by the school community.

This study also indicated that whether the ALTs move from the peripheral position to the central part of the community or not closely relates to issues concerning how power relations between the ALTs and the schools are created, maintained and changed. I will discuss issues concerning power and control in Section 6.2.

6.1.3 Roles of teachers and school culture (the form of teacher cultures)

The above sections focused on the issues concerning ALTs' and JTEs' roles and identities in the discussion of the impact of the JET Programme on the schools (see Sections 6.1.1 and 6.1.2). These issues are closely related to school cultures (the form of teacher cultures), as Hargreaves pointed out (Hargreaves, 1994; see Section 3.7.2). As explained in Section 3.7.2, the form of teacher cultures consists of patterns of relationship and forms of association between members of those cultures. Therefore, the form of cultures can be seen in how relations between teachers and their colleagues are articulated. I shall discuss which aspects of the school cultures influence roles of the groups: the ALTs, the JTEs and the schools, in the light of Hargreaves' models of school cultures.

Imposed collaboration

According to Hargreaves, there are four types of school culture: individualism, balkanization, contrived collegiality and collaboration (1992, 1994, see Section 3.7.2). What is most important here is that one of the aims of team-teaching should be to help teachers build collaborative relationships amongst themselves (see Section 3.7.2.4). This in turns leads to a collaborative culture. A collaborative culture is regarded as important since it greatly contributes to teacher development and school improvement (see Section 3.7.2.3). In other words, the introduction of team-teaching is influential not only in the English language classrooms but also in the teachers' professional development communities (communities of practice). However, team-teaching seemed to be less influential in developing a collaborative culture in almost all the schools in this study. Rather, most of the teachers in this study seem to be fundamentally working individually or separately in their schools rather than discussing their work with each other, as the study shows (see Section 5.3.1). What must be considered is that the schools appear to be categorised mainly by contrived collegiality cultures. Despite its definition as a culture of connection (Day, 1999; see Figure 3.4), the contrived collegiality culture is not necessarily a collaborative culture. Rather, under the contrived collegiality culture, "teachers are required or persuaded to work together to implement the mandates of others – most directly those of the principal, or head teacher, or indirectly those of the school direct or the Ministry" (Hargreaves, 1994, p.195; see Section 3.7.2.4). The JET Programme aims to promote collaboration; however, the result is that it imposes collaboration on the schools.

Some aspects of collaboration – balkanization – were found in this study. In a balkanization culture, while teachers associate more closely with colleagues in small groups, they identify with and are loyal to the group rather than the school as a whole (Hargreaves, 1992; Day, 1999). Some aspects of balkanized culture can be found in Schools A and B. As discussed in the previous section, Becky and Mike collaborated with each other to discuss the lesson plans, while they have less sense of belonging to the schools. Rather, they seem to form a group within the school and do things in the group (see Section 6.1.2). Keith's GW activity was more accepted in Uemura's team-taught lessons than Kawada. Potentially, Keith and Uemura could form a group. It is important to note, however

that the balkanization culture is not characterised by the collaborative culture. Like contrived collegiality, the balkanization culture is a culture of connection. These groups are not strong enough to impact on the schools, as Sato's and Kelinsasser's empirical case study on a Japanese upper-secondary school English department demonstrated (see Section 3.7.3).

Only one possibility of a collaborative culture can be seen in School C, where Alex and Hidaka voluntarily collaborated with each other rather than collaboration being imposed.

6.2 Power, control and resistance

Issues concerning power, control and resistance emerged from the findings. The ALTs are aware that what they do, what they produce and how they act are constantly watched by their colleagues and the schools. This is perhaps an extreme interpretation, but these elements of control and power relate to Michael Foucault's argument about the mechanisms of prison surveillance in his book, *Discipline and punish* (1975). Considering the mechanisms of prisons surveillance, the power of gaze defined by Foucault (1975) is important in discussing issues concerning categorisation. I will take some of Foucault's terminology and, in less extreme terms, discuss how the ALTs are categorised by a normalising gaze within the schools. Furthermore, again using Foucault's prison metaphor (1975), the power relations between the inmates and the prison warder in the panoptic prison are complex. The JTEs seem to be given power by the school to control the ALTs; however, the ALTs also acted differently towards the surveillance of the schools. I will discuss how the entanglements of power between the ALTs, JTEs and schools emerged.

6.2.1 Surveillance

The English philosopher, Jeremy Bentham (1748-1832) introduced the idea of the panoptic prison and the role of surveillance. The word panoptic is combination of two Greek words and relates to the eye and vision. The first part, 'pan' means 'all' and the second part, 'optos' means 'seen' or 'visible'. Therefore, it literally means 'seen by all' or 'fully visible'. In the panoptic prison, the prisoners can always be observed by guards in the guard tower. The guard-observer might be

looking elsewhere or on a break, but the prisoner can never really know whether the guard is looking. The power of gaze is invisible, but the inmate is totally visible. Borrowing Bentham's idea of the panoptic prison, Foucault suggests that in the panoptic society we behave as if we are always under watchful eyes; and therefore, we are also expected to perform according to the rules and norms of the society. Foucault also emphasised the power of gaze and how it becomes a normalising gaze. Foucault used the term 'examination' to describe the act of the scrutinising gaze. What is important to mention, according to Foucault, is that the result of the examination is recorded; and as a result, the examination – the scrutinising gaze – turns the individual into a 'case', which constitutes knowledge as well as power for watchers. This 'power of writing' forces the individual to "be trained, or corrected, classified, normalized, excluded" (Foucault, 1975, p. 191). My findings suggest categorisation of the ALTs seems to be created through the process of the normalising gaze. The schools view the role of the JTEs as training the ALTs. The JTE is assigned by the school the role as the ALTs' evaluator. In other words, the schools seem to give the JTEs power while creating a power relationship between the JTEs as watchers and the ALTs as being watched. The act of looking at the ALTs is also recorded in documents such as evaluation sheets, without informing the ALTs of the criteria of evaluation, as my data indicates. Through this process, the ALT participants seem to be disciplined by the power of gaze within the schools and are actually categorised as assistants, foreigners or outsiders.

This study confirmed that Becky and Mike were aware that the school would judge their performance (see Section 5.3.1) but did not know how and when. This seemed to drive them to defensive behaviour in anticipation of being criticised by the JTEs and other Japanese teachers. Becky and Mike were keen on keeping the English Board up-to-date (see Section 5.3.2) because they saw this as helping avoid being accused by other Japanese teachers of poor attendance at extra-curricular activities. They appeared to try to justify their work behaviour by displaying their attendance rather than getting involved deeply in the school activities (see Section 5.3.2). Although this might help them feel relatively secure and comfortable within the school, it also suggests pre-emptive defensive behaviour, encouraged by the gaze of power.

My study also confirmed that, although the ALT in School B, Keith, was not informed about being evaluated by the school, he felt that most JTEs and Japanese colleagues seemed to dislike him. This could be because Kawada, a JTE in School B, complained to his Japanese colleagues in the staffroom about Keith's behaviour. This resulted in a kind of surveillance network in that Keith began to be 'watched' by Japanese colleagues within the school. Keith's contribution in creating the GW activity – meaning-focused interaction – could have been positively evaluated (see Section 5.1.1). However, as long as Keith was under the surveillance networks established by Kawada, the value of his achievement could not be appreciated properly within the school. Rather Keith was categorised as contributing little. He had to put up with the cold looks from other Japanese teachers (see Section 5.3.1), he gradually withdrew from school life and was relegated to a position of 'outsider'.

6.2.2 Resistance

Although my study acknowledges that the ALTs were controlled by a kind of surveillance, which works as a network of relations from top-down, Foucault also argued that power is "an effect that is manifested and sometimes extended by the position of those who are dominated" (Foucault, 1975, pp. 26-7). Foucault sees power not only as hierarchical but as diffuse, diverse, ambiguous and located everywhere in day-to-day relationships and encounters, with everyone being caught up in the mechanism of power (Kelly, 2009). Therefore, strategies of power are key aspects for Foucault. Moreover, and importantly, he also asserts that power could work from the bottom up through resistance (1975). The resistance to power at the personal level – micro-resistance – was confirmed in my study. Referring to one of my ALT participants, Alex, I will discuss how his resistance had an impact on the school and the JET Programme.

According to Foucault (1975), "there is no single locus of great Refusal, (…). Instead there is a plurality of resistances, each of them a special case" (Foucault, 1975, pp. 95-6). As my study indicated, the ALTs had different ways of refusing, and these were decisive in determining whether their resistance became strategic or not. For example, despite his desire to teach the students conversational English, Alex never tried to argue with the JTE, Kimura (see Section 5.3.1). This appeared to help Kimura, who saw herself as the main teacher and Alex as an

assistant, feel comfortable with Alex. Rather, Alex viewed his obeying of Kimura's orders inside the classroom as helping him negotiate with Kimura about his entry into a new area – outside the classroom (see Section 5.3.2). What is interesting here is that Alex's behaviour was strategic and different from the other ALTs. Becky and Mike obeyed the school to protect themselves, while Keith's behaviour resulted in his withdrawing from the school. On the other hand, as the study confirmed, Alex clearly followed the rules but with a degree of resistance, with the aim of cultivating an arena for his talent and challenging the stereotype of the ALTs as assistants. This was the first step of Alex's strategy.

As the second stage, Alex had to cope with the school surveillance. Alex's participation in extra-curricular activities and PE classes was new and, thus, drew the attention of the school with the cautious gaze (see Section 5.3.1). Alex's second strategy was to keep engaging in the extracurricular activities everyday-situations, which formed networks between Alex and the students. These networks gradually started to have the effect of making a strong impression on other Japanese colleagues, and helped to change the nature of the school's gaze on Alex – from cautious to more curious, and, finally, sympathetic (see Section 5.3.2). Furthermore, Alex was also struggling with orders from the principal, Nakai, and the negotiation between Alex and Nakai is still an ongoing process, as my study showed. However, it is definitely interesting to note that Alex's attitude towards Nakai as the strongest wielder of power in School C is not defensive at all. Rather, by mounting an effective counterattack and entering the attacker's main territory, Alex's participation in activities outside the classroom gave him entry into the core part of the school culture as a small culture, which enabled him to increase his power for negotiation with the school (see Section 5.3.2).

A significant result of the strategy is that Alex's contributions to the students' learning and progress outside the classroom meant that the Japanese teachers became aware of the possibility of changing the school conventions. After getting involved in Alex's new arena of learning (outside the classroom), the PE teacher, Hidaka, started to integrate team-teaching with Alex in his PE classes. Hidaka was aware of the difficulties that might arise in discussing this with the principal and the JTE under the hierarchical school culture, but, as this study confirmed, Hidaka is optimistic about the outcome as he thinks it is worth challenging the school convention (see Section 5.3.2). Even, the JTE, Kimura, started to change

her attitude towards receiving more ALTs (see Section 5.3.2). In the future, not only Hidaka, but also other Japanese colleagues may start to encourage the ALT to get involved into the school community, and this could potentially have a snowball effect. Due to the limited time of my study the whole process of Alex's impact on the school could not be traced; nevertheless, as the study confirmed, Alex's resistance has definitely had an impact on the effectiveness of future ALTs and the impact of the JET Programme on School C.

6.3 Re-visiting and re-assessing the JET Programme

One of the main issues is the nature of the whole programme. Based on my analyses of the findings, I will re-visit and re-assess the JET Programme, discussing the whole ethos, culture and the aims of the JET Programme. As mentioned above, the JET Programme aims at improving foreign language education in Japan (especially enhancing students' communicative competence in English), developing international awareness among students, and enhancing mutual understanding between Japan and other countries. What is notable here is that the third goal is rather political (see Chapter 2). The government expects the ALTs not only to introduce their own cultures to the schools and local communities in Japan but also to "gain some understanding of Japanese cultures and customs, and hopefully develop favourable attitudes towards Japan" (Sakui, 2004, p. 19), which seems to be mutual understanding between Japan and other countries. However, ways in which the ALTs and Japanese students learn cultures bring some significant issues. Rather the study suggests these goals paradoxically help promote ethnocentricism and create an 'othering' society within contemporary Japanese society, assigning the ALTs a particular position. Furthermore, as explained in the background section (see Chapter 2), the saying 'Every situation is different' – ESID – seems to be used as lack of action and intervention by organisers of the JET programme, and in a way, enforces the ALTs to deal with whatever might happen. In order to consider some implications of this study for the JET Programme in the next chapter (see Chapter 7) I will introduce a revised concept map of team-teaching interaction based on the findings of my research.

6.3.1 The position of ALTs

One of the particular positions of the ALTs is 'native speakers'. This study confirmed that, the ALTs and the school seem to have different views of the goals of the JET Programme. Mike (the ALT in School A) saw the JET programme as promoting mutual respect, understanding not only differences but also similarities between Japanese cultures and other cultures, while his school (the JTEs and the principal) viewed the benefits of the programme as helping the students to acquire English language skills, enabling them to speak and listen to native English speakers, especially from inner circle countries (see Section 5.3.1). This suggests how the term 'internationalisation' is interpreted in Japan: Yoneoka's (2000) study shows that English language ability is seen by Japanese students as a key attribute to an international person. The ALTs in School A are also categorised as 'native speakers' because of School A's preference for the accent of the ALTs who are from inner circle countries. This attitude suggests that English education initiated by native speakers from inner circle countries is associated with prestige in Japan. However, it may lead to ethnocentrism, which "builds fences between cultures and thus creates barriers for intercultural communication" (Liu et al., 2011, p. 28).

6.3.2 Othering society: a lack of intercultural communication competence

One of the most important goals of the JET Programme is to enhance mutual understanding between Japan and other countries (the third goal). However, at school levels, ALTs are mainly viewed as cultural informants (see Section 5.1.1). It is important to note here that, although the schools expects the ALTs to offer their experience and knowledge of the large culture, they seem to be less interested in understanding the ALTs with different values and belief systems based on the 'small culture', or to develop an alternative (or third) culture between the schools and the ALTs from the intercultural communication perspectives. Alex viewed his school as valuing homogeneity rather than diversity (see Section 5.3.1). Almost all the schools in my study appeared to expect the ALTs to be able to behave like the Japanese teachers, taking no account of the ALTs' points of view (see Section 5.3.1).
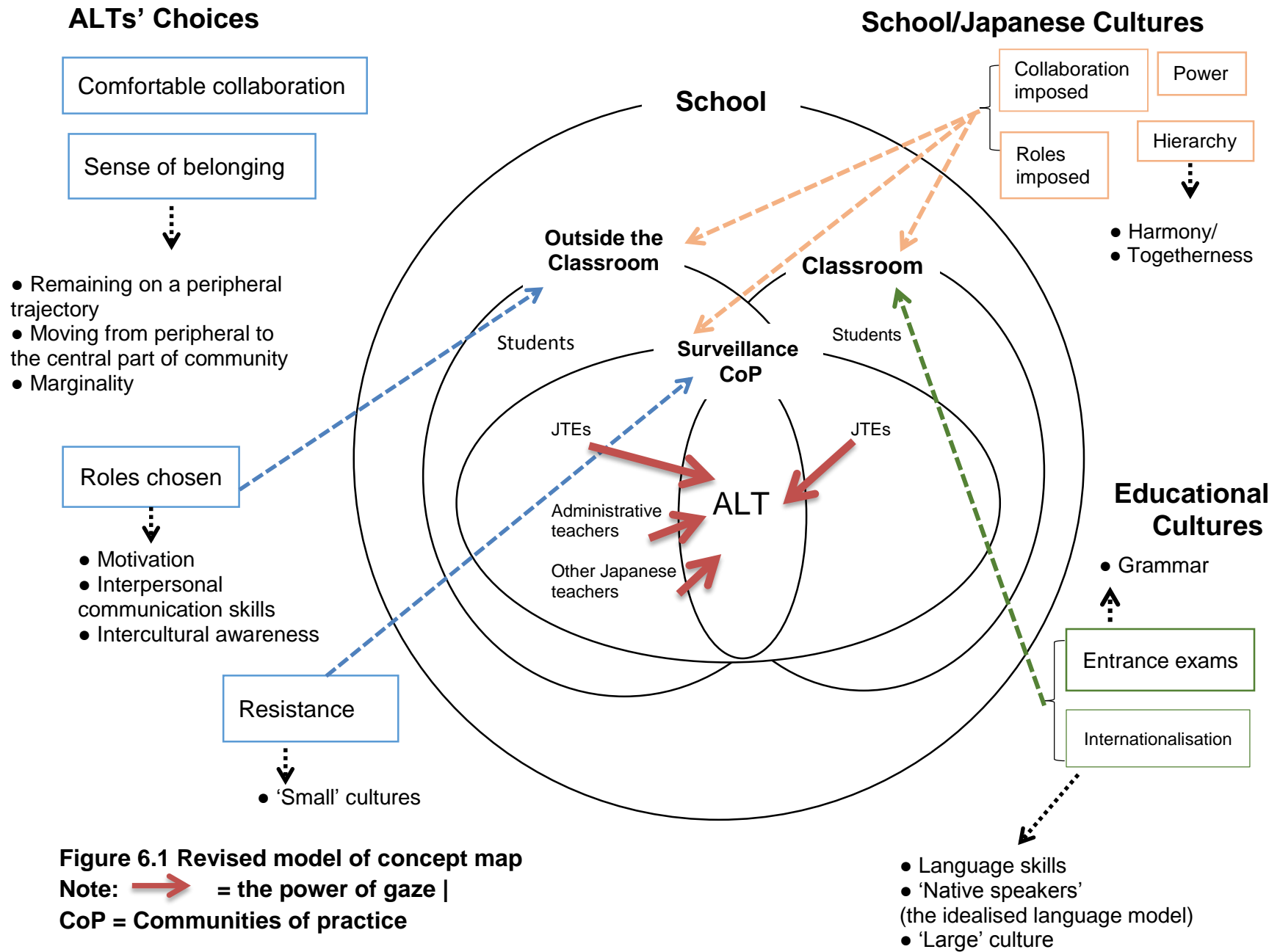
The JET Programme increases the opportunities for Japanese people to encounter foreigners, but sees the ALTs as 'others' rather than establishing a

culturally diverse society in Japan. The study revealed that some of the Japanese teachers think that the main interest of the ALTs with regard to understanding Japan is to travel around the tourist spots – understanding Japanese culture as a 'large culture' (see Section 5.3.2). The ALTs are on renewable one-year contracts, extendable to five years maximum (previously only three years). During the limited period, it might be difficult for the ALTs to get to understand the culture of the school (although Alex gained a good understanding of his school culture already in his first year). It should be noted that, in the view of Sakui (2004) the government prefers to have a large number of ALTs staying for a short time, rather than a small number staying for longer, as, in that way, more people can contribute to intercultural awareness. In addition, the JET Programme requires only a Bachelor's degree in any field; teaching qualifications are treated as optional. Consequently, most ALTs are recent graduates with little educational experience or content background to become teachers. The result is that, rather than helping to establish Japan's international image, the ALTs end their period in the country being perceived as unqualified teaching assistants. As Hilton and von Hippel (1996) states, stereotypes are over-generalisations and thus may be wrongly generalised to some members of the group. One of the ALT participants (Alex) challenged the stereotype of ALTs, seeing himself as more than an assistant language teacher. Alex's deeper understanding of the school culture as a 'small culture' was highly appreciated by his school and colleagues. Nevertheless, the ALTs appeared to encounter barriers to integration into their school communities because of the stereotyped image of ALTs reinforced by the JET Programme.

6.3.3 A revised concept map

As the study shows, the situations in which ALTs are located differ in that there are numerous variations of school cultures; as a result, the impact of the JET Programme depends on the individual schools. As explained in Chapter 2 and above, the JET programme prefers to take a non-interference approach (Borg, 2008) using the 'every situation is different' as an excuse. However, as discussed above, a number of issues in common have emerged across the schools. Therefore, the diagram below offers a revised model of the concept map of team-teaching interactions within the school culture (see the next page).

ALTs' Choices

Comfortable collaboration

Sense of belonging

↓

● Remaining on a peripheral
trajectory
● Moving from peripheral to
the central part of community
● Marginality

Roles chosen

↓

● Motivation
● Interpersonal
communication skills
● Intercultural awareness

Resistance

↓

● 'Small' cultures

School/Japanese Cultures

Collaboration imposed

Power

Roles imposed

Hierarchy

↓

● Harmony/
● Togetherness

School

Outside the Classroom

Classroom

Students

Students

Surveillance CoP

JTEs

JTEs

ALT

Administrative teachers

Other Japanese teachers

Educational Cultures

● Grammar

↑

Entrance exams

Internationalisation

↓

● Language skills
● 'Native speakers'
(the idealised language model)
● 'Large' culture

Figure 6.1 Revised model of concept map
Note: ⟶ = the power of gaze |
CoP = Communities of practice

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As outlined in this chapter, the revised model shows three emerging themes: the first aspect relates to school and Japanese cultures; the second to the educational cultures; and the third to the ALTs' choices. I will explain how these aspects are interrelated each other.

As the first perspective, I have added school and Japanese cultures to the diagram. One of the most important aspects of school (and Japanese) cultures is the power of gaze. For example, the JTEs are given power by the school to control or train the ALTs. When the JTEs fulfil the role as ALTs' trainers, the surveillance network is established, involving their Japanese colleagues. As the diagram shows, the power of surveillance is imposed from the school and cultural cultures onto both work inside and outside the classroom. In other words, the ALTs are disciplined by being watched in and outside the classroom, and being categorised as assistants, foreigners or outsiders. Additionally, Japanese or school values – hierarchy – also influences the ALTs to avoid disagreement with the JTEs, thus creating comfortable collaboration based on the value of harmony and togetherness. Consequently, this prevents the ALTs from establishing two-way interactions with their Japanese colleagues in the teachers' professional learning and development communities (communities of practice) within the school.

The second element relates to educational cultures, which involves internationalisation and the entrance examination. They impact mostly on the classroom (apart from Alex's contributions outside the classroom). This forces the JTEs to encourage the students to develop their language skills through grammar-focused interactions or through interactions with 'native speakers' from inner circle countries, which may mislead the students about their views of internationalisation rather than cultivating their intercultural and interpersonal communication competence.

The third aspects are linked with the ALTs' feelings, and actions that they chose. It is also important to note that their choices are influenced by other aspects (school and Japanese cultures, educational cultures). One of the important elements of ALTs' choices – their sense of belonging to the school – is inevitably affected by how the school treats the ALTs as well as by how the ALTs are able to manage with the power of gaze imposed by the school. If the school sees the ALTs as assistants, the ALTs tend to fulfil only roles imposed by the JTEs and

the school, maintaining comfortable collaboration with them. However, this leads the ALTs to choose to remain on a peripheral trajectory, accepting their positions as assistants. Rather, they stop developing their roles and decrease their sense of belonging to the school. If the ALTs are under the surveillance networks and have to put up with the cold looks from other Japanese colleagues, the value of their achievements could not be appreciated properly within the school and gradually they withdraw from school life, seeing themselves as 'outsiders' – marginality. There is a possibility of letting the ALTs move from peripheral to the central part of the community and of increasing their sense of belonging, if they manage to find their roles – roles chosen – and to incorporate their own personalities into the school community. When they have to fulfil roles imposed inside the classrooms, the ALTs alternatively tend to find their own roles outside the school, aiming at providing the students with opportunities to experience English in natural settings and at enhancing their motivation, interpersonal skills and intercultural communication competence. The ALTs express a feeling of refusal in their school lives. It is important to note, however, that, in order to challenge the roles imposed by the school (the stereotype of the ALTs as assistants), actions the ALTs have taken should be strategic, which becomes resistance. The effectiveness of the roles chosen by the ALTs improves only when they are able to overcome the power of surveillance. For example, one of the ALT participants (Alex) found his own roles outside the classroom at the initial stage, which enables him to collaborate in school activities (extra-curricular activities, supervising students' cleaning activities and having lunch with the students) – the school culture as a 'small culture' – with his Japanese colleagues; and gradually but surely brings his influence such as interpersonal communication skills and intercultural awareness back to the language classroom with a lack of intercultural aspects. More importantly, this helps to change the nature of the school's gaze on the ALT as well as making the Japanese teachers aware of the possibility of changing the school conventions from homogeneity to diversity.

In the following chapter (Chapter 7), I shall provide theoretical implications, arising from this study, as well as recommendations for schools (administrative teachers), teachers (the JTEs, the ALTs) and organisers of the programme for the effectiveness of the JET Programme.

Chapter 7
Implications and conclusion

Introduction

This study set out to explore the impact of the JET Programme on three Japanese secondary schools. It has identified the complexities of the school cultures and their effect on views of the roles of the ALTs and JTEs and the relationship among the ALTs, JTEs and the schools, which consequently impacts on the effectiveness of the JET Programme on the schools. While the general theoretical theories on team-teaching and the JET Programme emphasise the importance of interactions between the ALTs and JTEs (see Chapter 3), other studies criticise the lack of interaction between them, by mainly focusing on classroom activity. These studies tend to neglect those aspects which influence interaction and collaboration between the ALTs and JTEs within the wider contexts – the school cultures. Therefore, the study aimed to answer the following questions:

1. How are the roles of ALTs perceived by ALTs, JTEs and their Japanese colleagues, and in what ways do ALTs contribute to students' learning and development in and out of classrooms over time?
2. How are the roles of JTEs perceived by ALTs, JTEs and their Japanese colleagues, and in what ways do JTEs fulfil their roles within the schools?
3. What types of school cultures emerge in managing the JET Programme, and in what ways and to what extent do ALTs adjust to the school cultures?

In this chapter, therefore, I will firstly summarise the main empirical findings to respond to these above research questions. In the next three sections, theoretical and methodological contributions, implications and recommendations for teachers, schools and the JET Programme organisation will be presented. Concluding this chapter, I will suggest further research, and then end with my personal reflections on this research journey.

7.1 Summary of the main findings

This section summarises the main findings of the study, responding to the research questions.

7.1.1 ALTs' roles and their contributions to students' learning and progress

The ALTs' roles and contributions mainly relate to language and cultural aspects. It is important to note that the ALTs' freedom and restriction of choices for their roles affect the nature of their roles. The ALT participants in the study had fewer choices regarding their roles in the classrooms, and, as a result, the findings indicate that they provide a language model (in particular with regard to pronunciation) and grammar-focused interaction in the team-taught lessons, by accommodating the JTEs' or the schools' requests. Even outside the classrooms, the ALTs had to answer the JTEs' requests and create activities which aimed at teaching a certain grammar point. The ALTs in this study appeared to fulfil the task imposed by the JTEs or the schools; however, some of them expressed a desire for freedom to choose their own roles within the school. One of the ALTs created a meaning-focused interaction (the GW activity), and tried it out on some students outside the classroom. Another ALT also expanded his roles by eagerly participating in extra-curricular activities. These roles chosen by the ALTs enabled them to make unique and wide-ranging contributions to the students' learning and progress, covering not only a model of the language, but also interpersonal communication skills, intercultural awareness issues, motivation and student leadership.

7.1.2 JTEs' roles and their attitudes to the fulfilment of their roles

Most of the JTEs in the study see one of their important roles to be 'owners' of team-taught lessons. The JTEs generally admitted that the existence of the ALTs brings benefits to the students' learning and progress, and, therefore, the JTEs seem to act as assistants to the ALT in the classroom, by observing the classroom. However, at the same time, they clearly maintain a strong sense of ownership of their team-taught lessons, by seeing themselves as the directors as well as scriptwriters of the lessons. As the scriptwriters, the JTEs fulfil their role as the main lesson planners and provide the ALTs with the script of the lessons. Some

JTEs in this study (Kawada and Toda) see themselves as directors, checking whether or not the ALTs follow the scripts.

7.1.3 Types of school cultures and ALTs' adjustment to the school cultures

The third research question focuses on the types of school cultures, examining how the school cultures shape the role of the ALTs and JTEs within the schools and how the ALTs adjust to the school cultures and what their impact is on the schools. JTEs directly or indirectly control the ALTs inside and outside the classrooms within the schools (see Section 7.1.2). However, the JTEs do not originally have power over the ALTs; rather schools seem to give the power to the JTEs. Almost all the JTEs in this study are given the responsibility to make the curriculum and syllabus with no involvement from the ALTs. The bureaucratic school culture forced almost all the ALTs in this study to adopt the role of assistant. This imbalance of roles is created by the schools and allows the JTEs to become 'users' of ALTs rather than seeing the ALTs as 'co-workers'. It is important to note here that the JTEs appear to have more power and choices; however, the JTEs' behaviour and views are inevitably influenced by the wider contexts: school expectations as well as social educational expectations. For instance, in order to bring the ALTs' strengths into team-teaching, some JTEs in the study expected the ALTs to perform as the main teacher, but to base their work on the JTEs' lesson plans. Just as a puppeteer is hidden from the audience, the JTEs saw themselves as the scriptwriters of the team-taught lessons, but also acting as assistants to the ALTs in the classrooms.

It is also important to note here that the ALTs' attitude towards coping with the roles imposed by the schools (or by the JTEs) reshape the nature of their roles and their identities. One of the important roles of the ALTs is viewed as cultural informant. This role is actually divided into two aspects: the first relates to cultural information or experience from the ALTs' countries of origin (a 'large' culture paradigm) and the second to intercultural awareness issues in relation to the ALTs' behaviour or attitudes (a 'small' culture paradigm). What differentiates these two forms of cultural informants is dependent on how the ALTs see their roles and adjust to the school cultures. If the ALTs passively accept their imposed roles as 'assistants' or as 'native-speakers', they become less positively involved

into the schools' activities. Although the ALTs in this study saw the goal of the JET Programme as intercultural understanding, they appeared to offer their experience and knowledge of the large cultures (as in Mike's case) as the schools expected. In this case, the ALTs kept their identities in the roles assigned by the schools: 'assistants' or 'native-speakers'. On the other hand, if ALTs positively adjust to the school cultures, by acting as an equivalent to the JTEs or other Japanese within the schools, their roles could be extended and expanded beyond the schools' expectations. The ALTs' involvement in the teachers' professional development communities enables them to raise the students' intercultural awareness. In the case of Alex in this study, this helped him to establish his identity as a dynamic personality within the school.

7.2 Theoretical and methodological contributions

In order to gain a deeper understanding of team-teaching interactions not only in the classroom but also around the classroom with regard to school cultures, the conceptual framework of this study was developed mainly based on two theories (see Figure 3.5 in Section 3.8.4). The first is Holliday's concept of small cultures (see Section 3.7.1.1), and the second is Lave and Wenger's theory on communities of practice (see Section 3.8). As the revised concept map shows (see Figure 6.1 in Section 6.3.3), the findings of my empirical study have given an insight into understanding the complexities of the school cultures (as small cultures) and their effects on the views of ALTs' and JTEs' roles and contributions and on the relationships between the ALTs and JTEs, as well as on the roles of schools as teachers' professional learning and development communities (communities of practice). I believe that these findings could influence further understanding and application of research concerning team-teaching and the JET Programme in the following ways.

Firstly, as reviewed in Chapters 1 and 3, studies by Browne and Evans (1994) and McConnell (2000) have revealed issues concerning the lack of interaction between the JTEs and ALTs by mainly focusing on the classrooms. In order to find solutions for these issues, Gillis-Furutaka (1994) and Hiramatsu (2005) suggest that both JTEs and ALTs should be given opportunities to extend their pedagogical knowledge base related to TESOL and applied linguistics, pointing out the lack of opportunity for learning (see Section 1.1). In particular, the JTEs

are recommended to study abroad, which may help them not only gain the pedagogical knowledge but also to improve their communicative competence in English. This suggestion is derived from Hiramatsu's study (2005), which indicated that the JTEs' lack of communicative competence in English causes lack of communication between them. According to Hiramatsu, due to the JTEs' lack of competence and confidence in English, they find it difficult to discuss their lessons plans before the class as well as to interact with the ALTs during the lessons (see Section 1.1). However, what my own study found, as described in Chapters 5 and 6, is that both the ALTs and JTEs did not view the language barrier between them as the fundamental obstacle to improve team-teaching. Rather, the lack of two-way interaction is dependent largely on how their roles and status are shaped within the particular school cultures (see Section 6.1). Even though the ALTs may have innovative ideas, their contributions may not be maximised, if they simply accept the roles assigned to them formed by the values or norms of the school (see Section 5.3.2). In these cases, gaining pedagogical knowledge of TESOL or improving language competence at the personal levels is insufficient to improve team-teaching interactions between the JTEs and ALTs. Without considering the complexities of the school cultures, it is extremely difficult to achieve improvements in team-teaching interactions.

Secondly, the value of empirical study on this topic also relates to the research approach and methods. Two empirical studies (Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004; Hiramatsu, 2005) inspired me to develop an ethnographic approach to my case study. In their empirical case study on a Japanese upper-secondary school English department, Sato and Kleinsasser (2004) demonstrated that the influence of a school's culture on an individual's beliefs, practice, and interactions is considerably greater than the influence of an individual's beliefs, practices, and interactions on a school's culture. Hiramatsu's case study on a Japanese upper-secondary school also finds that there is a gap between two major English education policy changes (the introduction of CLT and team-teaching based on the JET Programme) and the implementation of these at the level of individual teachers (Hiramatsu, 2005). While these two studies employed a single case study approach, I chose a qualitative research design that combined a case study with ethnography. Ethnography as the study of cultures, allowed me to explore how the ALTs and JTEs are faced with specific opportunities and constraints in

fulfilling their roles within the specific contexts. In particular, a close look at the ALTs' contributions and their interactions with the JTEs and their colleagues in and outside the classrooms has enabled me to uncover a variety of cultures existing in the three schools (see Section 5.3.1). Moreover, I employed the element of collective case study, focusing on three cases (three Japanese secondary schools), which also enabled me to identify not only distinctive but also common themes across these three schools. This helped me considerably to develop and discuss the significant issues that emerged from the analysis of the data, concerning identities, power, control and resistance (see Chapter 6). These issues should encourage not only the teachers (JTEs and ALTs) and the schools, but also the JET Programme as a policy maker, to reconsider the effectiveness of the programme.

With regard to a wider contribution, this study could be seen as contributing to furthering our understanding of areas such as effective pedagogy within team-teaching, the contributions of both NS and NNS teachers, and teacher development in general.

Regarding effective pedagogy within team-teaching, various ideas put forward or adopted by the ALTs could help to promote interaction and learning. For example, the activity based on meaning-focused interaction created by Keith could be a breakthrough in making the classroom more interactive. Before the lesson, team teachers themselves need to prepare dialogues for the students, developing question techniques such as Keith's GW activity so that the team teachers can show role models for the students during the lesson. It is useful to use follow-up question techniques from both the teachers. For instance, team teachers can show the students how to get another person to talk, asking a question such as: "Did you watch the final episode of Sherlock last night?" If the person responds affirmatively, the follow-up question could be: "What do you think of the ending?" Listening carefully to what the other person is saying is important, because his/her response affects the next question. Showing interest by smiling, nodding and saying "Tell me more" or "Sounds interesting" during the conversation also helps encourage the other person speak. Team teachers' awareness of the importance of these follow-up questions helps the students realise that communication is ongoing and dynamic. This can also help create a more collaborative classroom (see Section 3.2.2.3).

Furthermore, intercultural awareness arose naturally from Alex's presence in the schools. This awareness suggests the value of the perspectives of the ALTs as strangers, in that they may be able to identify some more effective teaching strategies than those embedded in the local culture. The ALT experiences the cultural contexts in other ways, which may be different from their everyday experience in their own country. What is important here is that the ALT's experience of making the strange familiar sheds new light on teaching and learning and helps to develop new theoretical perspectives about pedagogy (Osborn, 2015).

However, as this study has shown, the ALTs' innovative activities seem to be ignored not only due to the relationship between the JTE and ALT within the hierarchical culture, but also due to the issues of NSs and NNSs. The ALTs are viewed as the correct language model and informants of cultures as 'large culture'. This suggests two aspects of awareness. Firstly, with regard to the notion of internationalisation, the awareness of the importance of the ALTs as informants of culture as a 'small culture' can help schools change their approach in order to develop students' intercultural communication competence. Secondly, regarding the role of ELF in a global era, the ALTs as NSs need to be able to adjust or accommodate their habitual modes of reception when interacting with the JTEs as NNSs, as Jenkins (2012) suggests. In order to establish successful interaction between both groups, the ALTs as NSs and JTEs as NNSs need to "develop their awareness of both cultural similarities and differences between themselves and how best to negotiate, adjust, transform, and connect" (Luk & Lin, 2007, p. 31). In the light of the literature, and bearing in mind the issues that have become apparent in this study, there is a need for discussion between the two groups (the JTEs and ALTs) and increased awareness of the role of ELF, and that the notion of culture involves culture as a 'small culture', not just a 'large culture', and the JET Programme is attempting to bring two groups together to enable awareness of a discussion of both cultural and linguistic areas. However, my study shows that there is still a long way to go.

Although the ALTs' position is one of disempowerment, they had choices, as this study found. The ALTs' (as newcomers) sense of belonging and their engagement in the teachers' professional development communities (communities of practice) are influenced not only by the school cultures, but also

by how the ALTs see their roles. Consequently, the ALTs work in different ways. While one of them was positively moving to the central part of the community, some were remaining in a peripheral position, while another was gradually marginalised by the school community. This strongly affects the ALTs' willingness to learn new aspects from the schools and to contribute to school improvement. Therefore, with regards to teacher development, the awareness of various aspects of school culture, which impact on the teachers' development communities in a workplace (communities of practice), can help the schools to establish collaborative relationships between newcomers and long-term employees, through open discussion, in order to support and help each other. The JET Programme aims to promote collaboration by introducing team-teaching; however, the result is that it imposed collaboration on the schools. The JET Programme's organisation and the schools involved in the JET Programme should be made aware of the results of this study, as well as any further research.

These findings are transferable not only to schools participating in the JET Programme, but also those in similar or related contexts, especially the ELT contexts in Eastern Asia. The findings regarding teacher development could also be transferrable not only to team-teaching contexts where two cultures and norms clash, but also to those contexts where a newcomer joins a community.

7.3 Implications

Over 26 years the JET Programme appears to have contributed substantially to improving English language teaching and promoting internationalisation in Japan by inviting young graduates onto its programme. However, as evidence from this study shows, it has not been acknowledged that the considerable variety of school cultures which exists in the schools can impede team-teaching interactions. Rather, the JET Programme organisation appears to prefer to take a non-interference approach to these issues caused by the complexities of the school cultures (see Section 6.3). On the basis of findings from my qualitative research, I have considered below a number of implications for the teachers (ALTs and JTEs), for schools, and for the JET Programme organisation.

7.3.1 Implications for the ALTs

All the ALT participants in this study have their own ideas about teaching more communicative English and of gaining intercultural awareness within their schools. Indeed, as outlined in the aims of the JET Programme, ALTs are expected to have a great impact on the school from the aspects of English education and cultural exchange. However, the findings in my study show that their impact may not always extend to the schools for two main reasons: the imbalance between the ALTs and JTEs with regard to their roles and to the nature of teachers' professional development community as shaped by the school cultures. Therefore, I suggest the following for the establishment of the ALTs' roles:

1) The ALTs need to gain the trust of the JTEs and their Japanese colleagues in their schools. One of the aspects of the school community is the power of gaze. The ALTs are trained under watchful eyes; what they do and what they produce are constantly watched by their colleagues and the schools. Based on their previous experience, schools and the JTEs may have an image of the ALTs as people who are uninvolved in the life of the schools, seeing their jobs as a temporary opportunity to make money and to travel around Japan, and having an understanding of the Japanese culture as a 'large' culture. This image may hinder the JTEs and the schools from collaborating with the ALTs, by seeing them as 'assistants'. Therefore, the ALTs need to explore opportunities to make contributions to the students' learning and progress both in and outside the classrooms, by understanding their school cultures as a 'small' culture. This also helps change the nature of the schools' gaze on the ALTs.

2) It is also important to note how the ALTs see and cope with their status or position shaped by their schools. One of the ALTs, Alex, strongly desired to act as an equivalent to the JTEs or his Japanese colleagues within the school. While fulfilling the roles assigned to him by the JTEs and schools, he also tried to find his own roles. More importantly, what made Alex special in his school is that he himself chose to be more than an assistant, thus extending his roles.

3) The ALTs need to make an effort to find opportunities to make a contribution not only to the language teaching classrooms, but also to the teachers' professional development community in everyday-situations.

This will help the ALTs to establish their roles and identities within their schools. Once their own roles are established in their school communities, the ALTs would be able to act and make decisions more easily, without being controlled by their colleagues and schools.

7.3.2 Implications for the JTEs

Both JTEs and ALTs noticed that the presence of ALTs enhances the students' communicative competence with its focus on meaning. The ALTs' presence provided two types of interaction between the ALT, the JTE and the students, with the first focusing more on the grammar points and the second more on the meaning. Almost all the ALTs in this study were assigned the roles of providing opportunities for grammar-focused interaction in the team-taught lessons by the JTEs, while outside the classrooms they actually provided interaction with the students, which focused more on meaning. It is ironic that the interaction between the ALTs and students is more natural in the JTEs' absence. One explanation may be that, while almost all the ALTs in this study adopted the role of assistant, most of the JTEs in this study became 'users' of ALTs as resources due to the bureaucratic culture. This lack of involvement in the decision-making process could gradually demotivate the ALTs from introducing new ideas to the JTEs (as was the case with Mike and Becky). Another possibility is that some JTEs saw themselves as restricted to teaching grammar lessons so the students could pass the examination. In order to bring the ALTs' strengths into team-taught lessons, some JTEs in this study gave the ALTs the chance to perform as the main teachers, but they had to base their work on the JTEs' lesson plans. At the same time, some JTEs chose to act as assistants to the ALTs in the practice of team-teaching. Consequently, both ALTs and JTEs are going against their imposed roles. This study also found that the only meaning-focused interaction which provided opportunities for real communication between the students, the ALTs and the JTEs in team-taught lessons was Keith's GW activity. What is noticeable about the GW activity is that the JTE (Uemura) also fulfilled her role as an intermediary between Keith and her students in her team-teaching classrooms. Therefore, I will present the implications for the improvement of interactions among the JTEs, ALTs and the students as follows:

1) The JTEs should be open to new ideas introduced by the ALTs. Even though none of the ALT participants in my study had received TESOL training, they potentially had opportunities to make great contributions to students' learning and progress with their enthusiasm. It is the JTEs' responsibility to exploit and maintain the ALTs' motivation to contribute in this way.

2) The JTEs should treat the ALTs as co-workers and share power with them. Keith in this study invented meaning-focused interaction; however, his JTEs, in particular, Kawada, seemed not to give him the opportunity to discuss his ideas, even going so far as to ignore Keith's contribution outside the classrooms. Whether their ideas are accepted or ignored is totally dependent on the JTEs. If the JTEs give fewer opportunities to the ALTs, they have fewer opportunities to gain innovative ideas from the ALTs. As the findings of my study indicate, if the JTEs exert less control over the class and give opportunities to the ALTs and students for more meaning-focused interaction, then the JTEs are more involved in their interactions (as was the case with Keith and Uemura). This significantly helps the JTE to establish their identities in their team-taught lessons.

7.3.3 Implications for the schools

As the findings of my study indicate, there are a number of issues regarding the acceptance of the ALTs in the schools. These issues are related to the schools' views of internationalisation and the roles of the schools as teachers' professional development communities: communities of practice. I shall outline some implications for the schools, first of all in relation to the internationalisation aspect, and then the communities of practice.

7.3.3.1 Internationalisation

The value the schools place on the ALTs seems to be closely associated with the internationalisation within the schools. For example, School A seems to value the ALTs as enhancing how the school promotes internationalisation, by organising the salient course (IEL course), in which English education is introduced by offering an idealised English teaching model — ALTs as 'native speakers' from

inner circle countries — within the school. The ALTs are categorised as 'native-speakers'. However, the way the ALTs are perceived within the daily life of this school is different from the way they are portrayed in the IEL course. The view of internationalisation in School A also suggests that the language used by speakers of English from non-inner circle countries is not valued as highly as that of inner-circle speakers and may also be in danger of leading to ethnocentrism. Furthermore, while some ALTs in this study see the aims of the JET Programme as including more intercultural communication, their schools expect them to offer their experience and knowledge of the 'large culture' and seem to be less interested in understanding the ALTs with different values and belief systems based on the 'small culture'. The ALTs appear to be categorised as 'native-speakers' or 'foreigners' within the schools.

Based on these findings, the implications for internationalisation at the school level are as follows.

1) If the ALTs with different cultural backgrounds would continue to join the schools and to work with their Japanese colleagues on a daily basis there, then the school should consider internationalisation from the aspects of intercultural communication skills.

2) Internationalisation at the school level should also be promoted by combining the ALTs' perspectives with the existing school values and norms rather than seeing them as separate and different; this would help to avoid ethnocentrism, which leads to prejudice, stereotypes and discrimination.

7.3.3.2 Communities of practice

All three schools seem to lack preparation for accepting the ALTs. For example, almost all the ALTs received little support and no interaction with other colleagues to discuss their work in depth within the schools. Instead of providing induction opportunities for the ALTs, the schools assigned the JTEs the role of ALTs' evaluators, giving them power to train the ALTs by the power of gaze. This creates a power relationship between the JTEs as watchers and the ALTs as being watched. One of the main issues here is that, although the JET Programme suggests the schools should inform the ALTs of the criteria of evaluation

beforehand, their performances within the schools are watched and recorded on evaluation sheets without any prior information or explanation. The power of gaze – surveillance – seems to be the main function of the teachers' professional communities in receiving the ALTs. Through this top-down process, the ALTs seem to be disciplined in their schools. However, this judgmental and hierarchical environment affects the ALTs' impact on the schools. For example, the ALTs tend to choose comfortable collaboration, seeing themselves as assistants. Furthermore, they interact less with their Japanese colleagues and make less effort to learn new experiences in order to become members of the school community; this decreases their sense of belonging to their schools, which inevitably results in less contribution to the improvement of the schools.

Based on these finding, the implications for the roles of schools as teachers' professional development communities (communities of practice) are as follows:

1) The schools should work to achieve a greater understanding of what participation in the JET Programme means and how they should receive and induct the ALTs. An unwelcoming environment without administrative or collegial support reduces the ALTs' efficacy and commitment to the work place. The schools, in particular the administrative teachers, need to introduce an effective induction programme for the ALTs, by encouraging the school members to create two-way interactions between the ALTs and their Japanese colleagues within the teachers' professional community. This also helps the schools to create more supportive school cultures.

2) The schools also need to address issues concerning the relationships between the ALTs and JTEs. The administrative teachers appear to leave the role of integrating the ALTs into the schools entirely to the JTEs, and thus, the schools may fail to notice any problematic relationships between the JTEs and ALTs. They may not fully appreciate the value of the ALTs' achievement within the schools due to the power relationship between the JTEs and ALTs.

7.3.4 Implications for the JET Programme organisation

This study revealed that the complexities of the school cultures may inhibit the effectiveness of the JET Programme. However, issues concerning the ALTs and their schools seem to be left up to each school itself. Moreover, there is clearly a

difference in understanding between the schools (and JTEs) and the ALTs regarding their expectations of the ALTs' roles and the JET Programme. These differences seem to be related to the views the schools have regarding internationalisation and cultural exchange (see Sections 6.3.1, 6.3.2 and 7.3.3.1). This results in confusion as to the ALTs' roles and how they might accomplish their duties in their schools. Therefore, I propose the following implications for the JET Programme:

1) The JET Programme should take action to convey a clear message to BOE (which organise workshops and seminars for the JTEs), schools, JTEs and ALTs about what the programme hopes to achieve, how internationalisation at the school level should be achieved, and how the ALTs' roles should be fulfilled.

2) The JET Programme needs to intervene more in the ongoing progress, before, during and after the ALTs are placed in their schools. Continuous support from the programme itself will help to improve the effectiveness of the JET Programme.

7.4 Recommendations

The aim of this section is to present practical solutions based on the implications arising from previous analysis and discussion (see Section 7.3), I provides key recommendations for teachers (the JTEs and the ALTs), for the schools, and for the JET Programme organisation.

7.4.1 Recommendations for the JTEs and ALTs

One of the key issues that emerged from analysis of the data is the power relations between the JTEs and ALTs (see Section 6.2). In order to redress an imbalance of power between the JTEs and ALTs, the JTEs should gain confidence and be involved in the team-taught lessons, by establishing their roles as realistic and successful models for the students. The JTEs and ALTs should be fully aware that learning how to use English internationally or interculturally should not be viewed as learning how to speak like English speakers from inner circle countries, by providing the students with the ALTs as the idealised English language models. Rather, team-taught lessons should be a rehearsal for the

outside world, by empowering the students to deal with the diversity beyond the classroom and to make the most of this diversity in their effort to achieve communication and understanding (Prodromou, 2007). In order to establish the above types of classrooms, the ALTs needs to realise the ways they use English "as a natural mirror of their cultural worldviews, norms and cultural or linguistic identities" (Marlina, 2013, p. 20), while working at the cross-cultural settings – understanding the school culture as a small culture. It is highly important for the JTEs not only to listen to the ALTs' perspectives but also to discuss how or in what ways the values and norms are shaped behind the way of using English with the ALTs. This also enables the JTEs to reflect their way of using English. This type of discussion outside the classrooms helps to in the planning of team-taught lessons, which aims at gaining the students' intercultural understanding.

In order to develop the students' intercultural communication competence, the JTEs and ALTs should create team-taught lessons in which the students raise awareness of values, norms and attitudes underpinning cultures. A lesson on politeness in writing across cultures, for instance, could be useful in order to learn how to communicate their cultures in English to those who are unfamiliar with them (Marlina, 2013). The fundamental goal of this activity is to develop the students' attitudes for dealing with unfamiliar communicative encounters rather than simply accepting or trying to imitate only Western ways of thinking, doing and acting. In the activity, the students should not just be aware of differences, but also commonalities across the different cultural values. When the students are required to explain their analyses of their letters and explain the reasons behind those structures to the ALTs, they also reflect their own cultural values, worldviews, and pragmatic norms; and how these are embedded within their letters. Through this process everyone – the students, the JTEs and the ALTs – could realise a possibility to be able to create a third culture, defined as "cultural synergy or common ground where people from different cultures can converge and negotiate their cultural differences" (Liu, et al., 2011, p. 293). It would be more valuable if not only ALTs from the inner circle, but also those from outer and expanding circle countries could attend this activity. These types of activities would be more meaningful than simply exchanging cultural information as a 'large' culture.

7.4.2 Recommendations for the schools

As noted previously, schools should recognise that their views of internationalisation and their roles as teachers' professional development communities (communities of practice) are important aspects of providing an effective induction programme for the ALTs (see Section 7.3.3). Therefore, this section covers two areas: induction and internationalisation.

7.4.2.1 Induction

The impact of the ALTs on the schools is dependent on how the schools induct the ALTs, which is closely associated with the nature of the professional teaching community. Therefore, in order to introduce a more effective induction programme for the ALTs, I suggest the schools review 1) the process of ALTs' evaluation, 2) the role of the ALTs' supervisor and 3) their work environment – professional development communities.

1) The process of ALTs' evaluation

One of the essential features of effective induction is defined as support and assistance (Griffin, et al., 2003) rather than judgmental evaluation. Although the ALTs' progress may need to be assessed, there are a number of considerations to be made regarding the forms that assessment takes. First, the ALTs should not be judged unilaterally by the ALTs supervisors or by the schools. Rather, the effectiveness of the JET Programme should be assessed totally from the views of four groups: the schools, JTEs, ALTs and students. For instance, based on the students' views, the JTEs and ALTs should share ideas for the improvement of team-teaching. The JTEs and ALTs should also be asked about their perceptions of the team-teaching process and what they like or dislike about it (Richards & Farrell, 2005). Secondly, the ALTs' efforts outside the classrooms may be underestimated, since their contributions often occur behind the scenes: in the corridor, school cafeteria, and hall. The schools, especially the administrative teachers, should more carefully identify their contributions. These above assessments should be regularly conducted.

2) The roles of ALTs' supervisor

It is important to reconsider the role of ALTs' supervisors in order to create an effective component of the ALTs' induction programme. The ALTs' supervisor appeared to evaluate the ALTs' performances in accordance with the top-down procedure of evaluation, which leads to the ALTs being 'outsiders' to the process (see Section 5.3.1). Therefore, I suggest that the ALTs' supervisors should take on more of the role of 'mentors', who primarily help break down barriers of isolation (Bartell, 2005), rather than evaluators. The role of the ALTs' supervisors should be to help the ALTs interact with the JTEs and other Japanese colleagues, through planning lessons with the JTEs in a non-hierarchal relationship and collaborating with other Japanese colleagues on school activities outside the everyday classroom situations. In addition, the selection of the ALTs' supervisor is also important. As Mann and Tang (2012) suggest, it is extremely helpful to provide two mentors, "with the experienced mentor playing a more advice- and information-giving role and the relatively inexperienced mentor playing a collaborative and empathetic role" (Mann & Tang, 2012, p. 489).

3) Collaborative work environment: positive school culture

In order to shape the collaborative professional development community, the schools should consider creating a positive staffroom climate, in which the ALTs can easily approach other JTEs and Japanese colleagues informally or formally. As the collective case study by Mann and Tang (2012) shows, it is important for novice teachers to be able to have interactions with other teachers inside the staffroom and these interactions are also affected by the physical settings, such as furniture and seating arrangements. Furthermore, the schools should support the ALTs' supervisors becoming effective mentors, by reducing their workload and by offering them more learning opportunities. The schools need to realise that the role of the ALTs' supervisor as an intermediator between the ALTs and other Japanese colleagues (including the JTEs) helps establish not only two-way interactions between the JTEs and ALTs, but also a collaborative professional development community within the school.

7.4.2.2 Internationalisation at the school level

In order to promote internationalisation within the schools, the schools should firstly realise that their preference for the students to be exposed specifically to the accent of the ALTs from inner circle countries could negatively affect the students' acceptance of different varieties of English and the JTEs' attitude toward using English in front of the students. Therefore, I firstly suggest that the schools support the JTEs in establishing their roles as providing successful models of language learners who are able to use English language intelligibly with all speakers, not only from inner, but also outer and expanding circle countries. It would be helpful for the students to recognise how to develop mutual understanding among the varieties of English users, if the ALTs, JTEs, and speakers from expanding and outer circle countries could interact with each other, through meaning-focused negotiation. This helps raise students' awareness of intercultural and pluralistic aspects of English.

Secondly, it is important to note here that the schools should treat the ALTs as individuals and listen actively to them about their perspectives based on their experience of cultural awareness in Japanese schools. The schools should contact the ALTs to ask about their special abilities before they arrive in the schools, while encouraging other Japanese teachers to collaborate with the ALTs by using their strengths and special abilities for the ALTs involvements in the students' activities, such as attending club activities and lessons other than English language classes. This could be an interesting and unique project, if the schools and the ALTs communicate with each other, by making efforts to find the commonalities between them. Most importantly, this process itself could give the schools and the ALTs possibilities to develop their intercultural communication competence.

7.4.3 Recommendations for the JET Programme organisation

As pointed out earlier, the JET Programme should realise the need for greater intervention between the schools and the ALTs and for action in order to improve the effectiveness of the Programme (see Section 7.3.4). Therefore, I provide the JET Programme's organisation with recommendations to reconsider two aspects: guidance for an effective induction programme and the meaning of internationalisation.

7.4.3.1 Guidance for an effective induction programme

The JET Programme should provide the schools and JTEs with opportunities to learn about well-designed induction programmes and the role of mentor for the ALTs before new ALTs arrive. After the ALTs are placed in their schools, the programme organisation should constantly visit the schools to investigate if and how an effective induction programme for the ALTs is provided and how the ALTs make an effort to become members of the school. These investigations are important for analysing the effectiveness of the JET Programme. With regard to evaluation, currently, *The Contracting Organisation Manual* and *The Supervisor Handbook* are published by the JET Programme and distributed to the participating schools. Although there are important suggestions about the ALTs' evaluation in the book, the schools do not appear to pay attention to them. Considering this situation, the programme organisation should directly ask the ALTs whether or not the schools explain about the process of the assessment at the initial stage, by email or by phone. If there is no explanation about the process of the criteria, the programme organiser should contact the schools to urge them to offer this. In order to review the induction programme within the schools, the programme should take into consideration feedback from the ALTs on completing their appointment on the JET Programme. This follow-up activity should be more encouraged, and should also be conducted in collaboration with the JET Programme alumni.

Furthermore, the above two books published by the JET Programme – *The Contracting Organisation Manual* and *The Supervisor Handbook* – should be revised. It is important to make these books more user-friendly for both the Japanese teachers and the ALTs so that everybody in the schools can understand how the ALTs should be regarded and treated. *The Supervisor Handbook* should also give more ideas on the roles of the ALTs supervisors, focusing on the nature of mentors.

7.4.3.2 The meaning of 'internationalisation of English language education'

The JET Programme aims to promote internationalisation in Japan's local communities by improving foreign language education and developing international exchange at the community level. Internationalisation should be

inseparable from intercultural communication competence, which refers to the ability to communicate with people from different cultural or ethnic backgrounds (Liu, et al., 2011). However, schools appear to see these two aspects – culture and communication – as separate. For instance, English language teaching as a means of internationalisation of education is based on a view of English as a unitary concept and the language of the 'West', viewing the ALTs from inner circle countries as the idealised language model. This becomes a barrier against developing intercultural communication competence. International exchange is also viewed as cultural exchange, by gaining knowledge about other cultures as 'large' cultures. This might lead to an 'othering' society in Japan. I therefore recommend that the Programme and the policy makers (The Ministry of Education) should re-consider the meaning of internationalisation in Japan, by taking into consideration intercultural communication competence. English language education should encourage the students to become cultural relativists who believe that all beliefs and customs are relative to the individual within his or her own social context and all cultures are of equal value (Liu, et al., 2011).

7.5 Conclusion: further research and conclusion remarks

The current study has revealed how school cultures influence the views of the roles of the ALTs and JTEs, relationships among the ALTs, JTEs and the schools, and the effectiveness of the JET Programme. However, further research is still needed to provide deeper insights into the complex contexts in which the ALTs and JTEs build their relationships. As noted in Chapter 4 (see Section 4.7), one of limitations of my study is relatively short field visits. Although the short time period was compensated for by collecting multiple forms of data, a qualitative ethnographic case study over an extended period of time would be appropriate for a future study. It would be helpful to conduct pre-, in- and post- interviews with the JTEs, the ALTs and the school in order to investigate how their participation in the JET Programme affects their careers and lives from the perspectives of professional development, within and beyond the school.

Due to the limitation of space, the current study did not extend the discussion to issues with regard to motivation and JTEs' roles as an intermediary between the ALTs and the students. However, these issues are highly important areas to investigate from the students' perspectives. This could also help uncover and

examine other school values and norms, for example, by conducting individual and focus group interviews with the students.

As the world has become more interconnected, it is important to re-consider reasons why the ALTs' presence is important in the schools. If the ALTs' role is viewed as a model of language from inner circle countries and as an informant of culture as a large culture, then Skype or video desktop technology can bring the ALTs on the other side of the globe onto the computer screen in front of the students in the English language classrooms in Japan. If the ALTs are also expected to base their work on the JTEs' lesson plans, then the JTEs could just email the ALTs before the class to describe the lesson plan. Within a 'model' such as this, the JET Programme would not have to invite the ALTs to live and work in Japan. This thesis indicates, however, that their presence is valuable within the schools, and could become even more so, if the ALTs get involved in the teachers' professional development community with their deep understanding of the school culture as a small culture, enabling the ALTs to reflect their own perspectives on the teachers' communities. The striking impact of this contribution is that, gradually, but surely, the Japanese teachers could become aware of the possibility of changing the school conventions. Even the JTE in this study who has a negative image of the ALTs due to her previous experience, over the course of time became more open-minded to receiving ALTs. This could be a breakthrough that would change the JTEs' attitude towards team-teaching with the ALTs in the future.

It should be remembered that, currently, the effect of the JET Programme on the schools leads to ethnocentrism and an 'othering' of society in Japan (see Section 6.3). The aims of the JET Programme must be to encourage the schools to be aware of the importance of developing intercultural communication competence and of the ongoing process of creating a third culture, through their encounters with the ALTs within the schools. It is hoped that a more positive impact of the JET Programme on the schools will extend to the future Japanese society.

7.6 Reflections

My personal experience of team-teaching with the ALTs in Japanese upper secondary schools impelled me to launch this study of team-teaching and the

JET Programme. In this brief final section I shall outline my teaching experience in Japan. It is this experience which shaped my choices on this research journey.

When becoming a full-time teacher of English, I had the opportunity of team-teaching English in different upper secondary schools in Japan. In each school; however, I had to struggle not only with developing my teaching skills, but also with adjusting to each ALT's personality. When I was teaching with one of the ALTs who had some teaching experience, I occasionally found it difficult to express what I was thinking of in the teaching plan and to explain the contextual knowledge, such as the students' learning situations. Due to her strong sense of 'how to teach English', other JTEs started to feel it was difficult to negotiate with her. It was painful for me to see how she gradually became isolated in the school. On the other hand, when I was teaching with another ALT who had just arrived in Japan and had no experience of teaching English, these difficulties did not occur. He was always accommodating with my requests and had a good relationship with other JTEs and Japanese colleagues in the school. However, I occasionally wondered how I could bring out his strengths as an ALT. There were no seminars and workshops for team-teaching in my working environment, so I decided to study the MA and EdD TESOL Programmes at the University of Exeter in order to find the answers to these questions.

Through learning the concepts of school cultures as a small culture and communities of practice, I now realise that if I had taken into consideration not only the ALTs' personalities but also the school cultures and teachers' professional development community, the benefits of team-teaching could have been shared with the ALTs and the students in the classroom, as well as with other colleagues within the teachers' professional development community. Although, when working on the programme, I considered how to incorporate the ALT's personality into 'my' team-taught lessons, I cannot deny I had a stronger sense of ownership of the team-taught lessons and controlled the ALTs to a greater or lesser extent. The reality might be that we expect the ALTs to be obedient to us within the schools rather than appreciating the different perspectives they offer. Just as a fish would be the last creature to discover water, even I did not consider why I had a strong sense of responsibility of being the main teacher of the team-taught lessons, and where these ideas came from. School cultures affect teachers' decision-making processes: in other words, they

cannot act without thinking of the values and norms of the schools and society's expectations. However, the teachers also need to learn how to deal with internal conflict between what they do and what they ought to do. As an educator as well as a researcher, I would like to help teachers (both JTEs and ALTs) and schools participating in the JET Programme to create a more supportive teachers' professional environment within the schools.

The second impact this research journey has had on me is that I have become more sensitive to issues concerning power and culture in my everyday life. I have started to think about the places in which I have a sense of belonging – the study space at the university, the local pub, and even the kitchen of my house – and found that people who gather in these places create their own communities under their own unique cultures. Furthermore, between insiders and outsiders of the communities, power relations always exist. For instance, through the experience of house-sharing, I have learned to be quite happy to follow several unwritten rules and to maintain shared values with my house-mates, e.g. in the use of 'our' kitchen. However, whenever new housemates have arrived, the culture of 'our kitchen' has changed: the kitchen could become 'their' kitchen. Even thinking about the potential tension between 'us' and 'them', with each new arrival can cause stress. I now understand the relationship between this tension and power relations, and I am able to face these power issues more positively, by taking a critical perspective in relation to my own attitude towards meeting new housemates. I now ask myself – 'Could I also be participating in maintaining the existing culture by exercising power over the new people rather than collaborating with them to create a new culture?', 'Am I trying to avoid negotiating with them, by seeing them as temporary housemates?' These reflections remind me that intercultural communication competence is not a one-time, finite achievement. Rather, it is a lifelong process that is re-applied in every interaction. I am still learning and must learn throughout my career. This study is just the beginning of my journey as an ethnographic researcher; however, it will surely guide me – not only as a researcher but also as a human being – in how to deal with my new encounters with various lived everyday cultures in the future.

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Appendix 1 Numbers of JET Participants

Number of Participants by Country 2014-2015

As of 1 July 2014

Country	Year	ALT	CIR	SEA	Total
United States	1st Year	915	32		947
	2nd Year	690	32		722
	3rd Year	411	17		428
	4th Year	230	8		238
	5th Year	118	4		122
	Total	2,364	93		2,457
United Kingdom	1st Year	150	6		156
	2nd Year	107	7		114
	3rd Year	54	2		56
	4th Year	33	1		34
	5th Year	22	1		23
	Total	366	17		383
Australia	1st Year	120	7		127
	2nd Year	88	6		94
	3rd Year	51	3		54
	4th Year	28	2		30
	5th Year	9	1		10
	Total	296	19		315
New Zealand	1st Year	95	5		100
	2nd Year	74	6		80
	3rd Year	49	1		50
	4th Year	18	1		19
	5th Year	6			6
	Total	242	13		255
Canada	1st Year	189	5		194
	2nd Year	136	6		142
	3rd Year	67	3		70
	4th Year	56	2		58
	5th Year	30	1		31
	Total	478	17		495
Ireland	1st Year	26	1		27
	2nd Year	31	1		32
	3rd Year	13	2		15
	4th Year	5			5
	5th Year	6	1		7
	Total	81	5		86
France	1st Year	1	2		3
	2nd Year		7		7
	3rd Year		3		3
	4th Year	2	2		4
	5th Year	1			1
	Total	4	14		18
Germany	1st Year		6		6
	2nd Year	2	2		4
	3rd Year		1		1
	4th Year		3		3
	5th Year		1		1
	Total	2	13		15
China	1st Year	4	48		52
	2nd Year	2	10	1	13
	3rd Year	2	4		6
	4th Year	1	1		2
	5th Year		1		1
	Total	9	64	1	74
Korea	1st Year		20		20
	2nd Year	2	14	4	20
	3rd Year		10	2	12
	4th Year		11	2	13
	5th Year		3		3
	Total	2	58	8	68

Number of Participants by Country 2014-2015

Country	Year	ALT	CIR	SEA	Total
Russia	1st Year		4		4
	2nd Year		2		2
	3rd Year	1			1
	4th Year		1		1
	5th Year	1	2		3
	Total	2	9		11
Brazil	1st Year		3		3
	2nd Year		3		3
	3rd Year		3		3
	4th Year		4		4
	Total		13		13
Peru	3rd Year		1		1
	Total		1		1
Spain	1st Year		1		1
	Total		1		1
Italy	1st Year		1		1
	3rd Year		2		2
	Total		3		3
South Africa	1st Year	24			24
	2nd Year	29			29
	3rd Year	21			21
	4th Year	15			15
	5th Year	4			4
	Total	93			93
Argentina	1st Year		1		1
	Total		1		1
Belgium	2nd Year		1		1
	Total		1		1
Finland	1st Year		1		1
	4th Year	2			2
	Total	2	1		3
Mongolia	1st Year		1		1
	3rd Year		1		1
	4th Year		1		1
	Total		3		3
Indonesia	1st Year		1		1
	2nd Year		1		1
	Total		2		2
Switzerland	1st Year	1			1
	2nd Year		1		1
	Total	1	1		2
Philippines	1st Year	3			3
	5th Year		1		1
	Total	3	1		4
Netherlands	1st Year		1		1
	2nd Year	1	1		2
	5th Year	1			1
	Total	2	2		4
Hungary	2nd Year			1	1
	Total			1	1
Singapore	1st Year	15	3		18
	2nd Year	15	3		18
	3rd Year	7			7
	4th Year	4			4
	5th Year	1	1		2
	Total	42	7		49

Number of Participants by Country 2014-2015

As of 1 July 2014

Country	Year	ALT	CIR	SEA	Total
Jamaica	1st Year	25			25
	2nd Year	21			21
	3rd Year	18			18
	4th Year	11			11
	5th Year	5			5
	Total	80			80
Thailand	1st Year		1		1
	Total		1		1
Malaysia	2nd Year		1		1
	Total		1		1
Barbados	1st Year	2			2
	2nd Year	2			2
	3rd Year	1			1
	4th Year	1			1
	5th Year	1			1
	Total	7			7
Saint Lucia	2nd Year	1			1
	Total	1			1
Trinidad and Tobago	1st Year	3			3
	2nd Year	2			2
	3rd Year	5			5
	4th Year	4			4
	5th Year	1			1
	Total	15			15
Ghana	1st Year	1			1
	Total	1			1
Kenya	2nd Year			1	1
	Total			1	1
Antigua and Barbuda	2nd Year	1			1
	Total	1			1
Latvia	1st Year		1		1
	Total		1		1
Fiji	3rd Year	1			1
	4th Year	2			2
	Total	3			3
Tonga	4th Year	1			1
	Total	1			1
Samoa	4th Year	1			1
	Total	1			1
Palau	3rd Year	1			1
	Total	1			1
Vietnam	1st Year		1		1
	3rd Year		1		1
	Total		2		2
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	2nd Year	1			1
	Total	1			1
Total	1st Year	1,574	152		1,726
	2nd Year	1,205	104	7	1,316
	3rd Year	702	54	2	758
	4th Year	414	37	2	453
	5th Year	206	17		223
	Total	4,101	364	11	4,476

Appendix 2 A poster on the JET Programme for potential graduates at the University of Exeter (October 2014)

Appendix 3 Sample research request to schools

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Akiko Nambu and I am writing to ask if it would be possible to carry out some research in your school. I am currently working towards a Doctor of Education (EdD) in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) with Dr Jill Cadorath at the University of Exeter in the UK. I am interested in discovering more about team-teaching and the JET (Japan and Exchange and Teaching) Programme, by conducting fieldwork for ethnographic case studies of participating schools.

I will not use this research for other purpose than my EdD research. I promise to preserve the confidentiality of this research.

The ultimate goal of this research is to explore the effectiveness of the JET Programme and to consider more appropriate recommendation for the improvement of the JET Programme. I believe that if I could be allowed to conduct fieldwork in your school for a few months, employing the following methods – interviewing, observations of team-teaching and other activities, in which ALTs (Assistant Language Teachers) participated within your school, field notes, and artefact and document analysis, it would be extremely helpful for achieving the aims of my study. While I completely understand how you have faced with the difficulties resulting from the Great East Japan earthquake, I would be very grateful, if you could give me the opportunity to explain more about details of my fieldwork in your school.

I have enclosed a reference from my supervisor. If I can provide further details, please email at an249@exeter.ac.uk. Thank you very much in advance for your time and consideration, and I look forward to speaking with you.

Yours sincerely,

Akiko Nambu

Doctoral Candidate in EdD TESOL
College of Social Sciences and International Studies
Graduate School of Education, University of Exeter
St Luke's Campus, Heavitiree Road, Exeter EX1 2LU, UK
Email: an249@exeter.ac.uk

Appendix 4 Types of schools in accordance with Japanese school system from elementary to upper secondary school

Age	Grade	Schools	
6-7	1	Elementary school	
7-8	2		
8-9	3		
9-10	4		
10-11	5		
11-12	6		
12-13	1	Lower secondary school	Secondary school (Combined lower and upper secondary school)
13-14	2		
14-15	3		
15-16	1	Upper secondary school*	
16-17	2		
17-18	3		

NB * Upper secondary schools are classified into three categories: general, specialised (vocational) and integrated courses**.

 **Integrated courses were introduced in 1994. These courses offer a wide variety of subject areas and subjects from both the general and the specialized courses, in order to adequately satisfy students' diverse interests, abilities and aptitudes, future career plans (Japanese school system, the official home page of MEXT. Retrieved 5 March 2015, from http://www.mext.go.jp/english/introduction/1303952.htm)

Appendix 5.1 Sample copies of the interview enquiries

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE (for ALTs: 1st time)

A: Goals of The JET Programme (and team-teaching)

Q1: What do you understand by 'The JET Programme'?
Probe: Can you explain what you mean by 'The JET Programme'?

Q2: What do you think are the benefits of the JET Programme?
Probe: Can you explain how the JET Programme contribute to your school and to your students' development?

Q3: What do you understand by team-teaching?
Probe: Can you explain what you mean by 'team-teaching'?

Q4: Through the JET Programme and team-teaching, how do you want to contribute to your students' progress?
Probe 1: What types of abilities do you expect your students to develop? For example, speaking, communicative abilities, or something else? Why do you think so?

Probe 2: What aspects of the JET Programme and team-teaching do you think are helpful for students in learning English as a foreign language?

B: Promoting learning

Q1: How does team-teaching help students' learning?
Probe: Can you tell me the benefits/advantages of team-teaching?

Q2: What do you feel is your students' attitude to team-teaching?
Probe: Can you explain how your students participate in your team-teaching classes?

Q3: How do your students relate to each other in your team-teaching lessons?
Probe: Are you able to recognise the differences among students?

Q4: With regard to your students spoken interaction is it different in team-teaching from single teaching? If so, in what way?
Probe 1: Are you able to recognise the relationship between your students' spoken interaction and team-teaching?
Probe 2: You have no experience of teaching single classes either previously or elsewhere?

Q5.1: What types of contributions or activities do you engage in outside of the classroom?
Probe: Do you have any responsibilities for club activities or cleaning etc? If so, could you tell me more about them?

Q5.2: When you engage in the activities outside of the classroom, how do you contribute to your students' progress or development?
Probe 1: You said that you have a responsibility for … (example: club activity etc) outside of the classroom. What are your other main roles in the activities outside of your team-teaching in classrooms?

Probe 2: What do you normally pay attention to when your students do activities outside of the classrooms?

C: Roles of teachers (Team-teaching by NSTs and NNSTs)

Q1: How do you and your partner cooperate in team-teaching?
Probe: Can you explain how you work together with your partner? How about planning, teaching, monitoring and evaluating?

Q2: What are the roles of teachers in your team-teaching? When your students do activities, what are you doing? What do you think about that?
Probe 1: When your students do activities, what are you doing? Why do you think that?
Probe 2: What do you normally pay attention to when your students play activities?

Q3: What kind of relationships do you have with your students in your team-teaching classrooms?
Probe: How do you promote students to participate in the class?

Q4: What do you think are the characteristics of NSTs and NNSTs in teaching English as a foreign language?
Probe: Do you see any differences between NSTs and NNSTs in teaching English as a foreign language?

Q5: What do you think are the benefits of team-teaching by NSs and NNSTs?
Probe: Does the collaboration/combination of NSTs and NNSTs benefit your students and you?

D: Roles of Schools

(New ALTs)

Q1: Could you tell me a bit about the process of introducing you to your school community?

Probe 1: When you first arrived in your school, how were you inducted into this school? Have you had activities or events for your induction into your school community? If so, could you tell me a bit about them? Does the induction activity or event happen to you personally or socially? What do you think of it?

Prove 2: Do you have induction tutors in your school? If so, how does he/she help you?

(Experienced ALTs)

Q1: Could you tell me a bit about the process of introducing you to your school community?

Probe 1: When you first arrived in your school, how were you inducted into this school? Have you had activities or events for your induction into your school community? If so, could you tell me a bit about it? Did the induction activity happen to you personally or socially? What do you think of it?

Prove 2: Did you have induction tutors in your school? If so, how did he/she help you?

(Both New and Experienced ALTs)

Q2: Could you tell me a bit about your routine as the ALT in your school?
Probe: How does the school begin and end? How do you attend a meeting?

Q3: Could you tell me a bit about your working environment?
Probe1: How's the staff room? How do you have a meeting with JTEs or other colleagues? Is it a formal meeting or informal meeting?

Probe 2: Does the school or the department offer an opportunity for teacher development or anything else? If so, how does it provide you with it? Is it individually or collaboratively?

Q4: Could you tell me a bit about how you see yourself or your role within the school community?
Prove 1: What are the challenges you have encountered in your school community? Or what are your expectations of your school community? How have you attempted to overcome any challenges or why do you think they occurred?
Prove 2: For example, what kinds of behaviour are encouraged and discouraged in your school? Why do you think so?

Appendix 5.2 Sample copies of the interview enquiries

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE (for ALTs: the 2nd time)

A: Goals of the JET Programme (and team-teaching)

Q1: Reflecting on the last few months, what suggestions would you make to improve the JET Programme (and team-teaching) for the future? Why do you think that?

Probe: For future improvement of the JET Programme (and team-teaching), what aspects should be changed? Why do you think so?

B: Roles of teachers:

Q1: Reflecting on the last few months, what do you think of your roles for the ALT in your school?

Probe: Can you explain how you contributed to your school and your students' development during these few months?

C: Promoting learning

Q1: What do you feel is your students' progress during these few months?

Probe: In the first interview, you mentioned that you expected students to develop ….. What do you think of it?

Q2: What suggestions would you make to improve students' development for the next academic year? Why do you think so?

Probe: For future improvement of your students, could you tell me more about your future teaching planning? Why do you think that?

D: School Community

Q1: Please tell me a bit about your induction activities for your school community from your first arrival to this moment.

Probe: You told me that you have had activities or events for your induction to the community and that you have induction tutors etc…, how do you feel about it? What are the most supportive and what are the less supportive aspects? Why do you think so?

Q2: From the point of you as ALTs, what suggestions would you make to improve the induction into the school community in the future? Why do you think that?

Probe: For the further improvement of the induction activities for ALTs, could you give some suggestions for that? Why do you think that?

Q3: What do you feel is your school community?

Probe: In the first interview, regarding your school community or the challenges you have encountered in your school community, you mentioned that …. What do you think of it? Have you found any solution for that? Or how will you or do you want to cope with in the future?

Appendix 5.3 Sample copies of the interview enquiries
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE (for JTEs)

A: Goals of The JET Programme (and team-teaching)

Q1: What do you understand by 'The JET Programme'?

Probe: Can you explain what you mean by 'The JET Programme'?

Q2: What do you think are the benefits of the JET Programme?
Probe: Can you explain how the JET Programme contribute to your school and to your students' development?

Q3: What do you understand by team-teaching?
Probe: Can you explain what you mean by 'team-teaching'?

Q4: Through the JET Programme and team-teaching, how do you want to contribute to your students' progress?
Probe 1: What types of abilities do you expect your students to develop? For example, speaking, communicative abilities, or something else? Why do you think so?
Probe 2: What aspects of the JET Programme and team-teaching do you think are helpful for students in learning English as a foreign language?

B: Promoting learning

Q1: How does team-teaching help students' learning?
Probe: Can you tell me the benefits/advantages of team-teaching?

Q2: What do you feel is your students' attitude to team-teaching?
Probe: Can you explain how your students participate in your team-teaching classes?

Q3: How do your students relate to each other in your team-teaching lessons?
Probe: Are you able to recognize the differences among students?

Q4: With regard to your students spoken interaction is it different in team-teaching from single teaching? If so, in n what way?
Probe 1: Are you able to recognize the relationship between your students' spoken interaction and team-teaching?
Probe 2: You have no experience of teaching single classes either previously or elsewhere?

Q5: What do you feel is your students' attitude toward communicating with ALTs or speaking to ALTs in English outside of the classroom? Why do you think that?
Probe: Can you explain how your students communicate with the ALT outside of the classroom?

C: Roles of teachers (Team-teaching by NSTs and NNSTs)

Q1: How do you and your partner cooperate in team-teaching?
Probe: Can you explain how you work together with your partner? How about planning, teaching, monitoring and evaluating?

Q2: When your students do activities, what are you doing? What are the roles of teachers in your team-teaching? What do you think about that?
Probe 1: What do you normally pay attention to when your students play activities?
Probe 2: You said …when your students play the activities. What are your other main roles of team-teaching?

Q3: What kind of relationships do you have with your students in your team-teaching classrooms?
Probe: How do you promote students to participate in the class?

Q4: What do you think are the characteristics of NSTs and NNSTs in teaching English as a foreign language?
Probe: Do you see any differences between NSTs and NNSTs in teaching English as a foreign language?

Q5: What do you think are the benefits of team-teaching by NSs and NNSTs?
Probe: Does the collaboration/combination of NSTs and NNSTs benefit your students and you?

D: Roles of Schools

Q1: Could you tell me a bit about the process of introducing ALTs to your school community?

Probe 1: When ALTs first arrived in your school, how were the ALT inducted into this school? Do you have a role for ALTs' induction into your school community? If so, could you tell me a bit about them? Or who does have the responsibility for that in your school?
Probe 2: Does the ALT have induction tutors in your school? If so, how does he/she help ALTs?
Probe 3: What do you think are the most helpful activities or events for the induction into the school community for ALTs? Why do you think that?

Q2: Could you explain how your school manages the JET Programme?
Probe: With regard to accepting the ALT or managing the JET Programme, do you have any responsibility or roles for that? If so, could you tell me a bit about it?

Q3: Could you tell me a bit about the environment of your working with ALTs?
Probe1: How do you have a meeting with ALTs? Is it formal meeting or informal meeting?

Probe 2: Does the school or the department offer an opportunity for teacher development or something else for working with ALTs? If so, how does it provide you with it? Is it individually or collaboratively?

Appendix 5.4 Sample copies of the interview enquires
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE (for administrative staffs)

A: Goals the JET Programme (and team-teaching)
Q1: What do you understand by 'The JET Programme'?
Probe: Can you explain what you mean by 'The JET Programme'?

Q2: What do you think are the benefits of the JET Programme?
Probe: Can you explain how the JET Programme contribute to your school and to your students' development?

Q3: What do you understand by team-teaching?
Probe: Can you explain what you mean by 'team-teaching'?

Q4: What do you think are the advantages of using NSTs in teaching English as a foreign language?
Probe: Do the NSTs benefit your students in learning English as a foreign language? If so, why do you think so?

Q4: Through the JET Programme and team-teaching, what types of abilities do you expect your students to develop? For example, speaking, communicative abilities, or something else? Why do you think so?
Probe: What aspects of the JET Programme and team-teaching do you think are helpful for students in learning English as a foreign language?

B: Promoting learning

Q1: How does team-teaching by the JTE and ALT help students' learning?
Probe: Can you tell me the benefits/advantages of team-teaching?

C: Roles of schools

Q1: Could you tell me a bit about the process of introducing ALTs to your school community?

Probe 1: When ALTs first arrived in your school, how were the ALT inducted into this school? Do you have a role for ALTs' induction into your school community? If so, could you tell me a bit about it? Or who does have the responsibility for that in your school?
Probe 2: Does the ALT have induction tutors in your school? If so, how does he/she help ALTs?
Probe 3: What do you think are the most helpful activities or events for the induction into the school community for ALTs? Why do you think so?

Q2: Could you explain how your school manage the JET Programme?
Probe: With regard to accepting the ALT or managing the JET Programme, do you have any responsibility or roles for that? If so, could you tell me a bit about it?

Appendix 5.5 Sample copies of the interview enquiries
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE (for Alex: 3rd time)

Q1: Could you tell me why you are interested in attending the baseball club?

Q2: What are you doing while joining in the baseball activity?

Q3.1: Could you tell me about your new roles in School C. You are an assistant coach of the baseball team?

Q3.2: How were students when you joined the activity?

Q4: What did you find out while playing baseball with students?

Q5: What are your concerns about the students outside the classroom?

Q6: Your principal told me that you also are in charge of students' cleaning hours? Could you tell me about that?

Q7: I'd like to ask you a question about the elementary school activity. You remember the competitive activity? First time, you and the elementary school teacher showed the performance slowly. The second time, you ran faster than the first time. Do you remember why you ran faster the second time?

Appendix 5.6 Sample copies of the interview enquiries
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE (for a PE teacher, Hidaka)

Q1: Could you tell me how Alex started to join your PE class and baseball club?

Q2: What do you feel is your students' attitude to Alex's participation in your class and club?

Q3: When Alex join the activities, what are you doing? What are the roles of teachers in your PE class and baseball club?

Q4: What kind of relationships do your students have with Alex, through his attendance at school activities (extra-curricular, PE class, school events)?

Appendix 6.1 An example of artefacts: Classroom activity worksheet in Team 1, School A (AF, 23/01/2012)

Name: Class: 2 -   No: Date:

★☆Bingo★☆

A: How long have you _____ _____?

Studied _____? (例: English)   Liked _____? (Manga)
Played _____? (soccer)   Lived in _____? (████)
Known _____? (Mike) *   Had _____? (a bike)
Wanted _____? (a PS3)   Been _____? (Mike`s friend)

B: I have _____ for _____ days/weeks/months/years.

Example (例)
 A: How long have you liked Arashi?   B: I have liked Arashi for 2 years.

Write the numbers 1-16 in the boxes. Let's play Bingo!

Note: * Mike is a popular cartoon character (*manga*) in Japan

Appendix 6.2 An example of artefacts: Lesson plan created by a JTE (Team 3, School B)

Teaching Procedure (Feb. 22)

Textbook) empathy (p.65, p.60~61))
Classes) 2-3 (4th period)

Basic Procedure) (min.)
1) Greeting (2)
2) Dictation(10) (p.65)
3) Try It Out Step 1 (15) (p.60~61)
4) Try It Out Step 2 (15)
5) Wrap Up (2)

Procedure

Activity	ALT	JTE
1) Greeting	*talks to the students in English	
2) Dictation (10) *Hand in papers *Studs write down words, listening to CD *Check Answers	 *walks around the desks and watch students writing down the words	*explains what they will do *plays CD *tells the answers
3) Try It Out (step 1) *Looking at the page 60, Studs choose their favorite ramen shop other than Tokeidai *Fill in the underlined part *pair work *demonstration	*talks about his favorite ramen shop *walks around the desks and watch students writing down the words	 *explains the activity *explains the activity

3) Try It Out Step 2	*shows the demonstration between teachers (Bank, Police Station, …)	*shows the demonstration between teachers
		*explains the activity
*Studs fill in the underlined part(direction)	*walks around the desks and watch students writing and give some help	
*pair work		
*demonstration	*ALT give some comment on studs demonstration	
4) Wrap Up		

Appendix 6.3 Examples of artefacts: English Board created by ALTs (Becky and Mike) (AF, 14/02/2012)

Appendix 6.4 An example of artefacts: English Board created by an ALT (Alex) (AF, 01/12/2011)

Appendix 6.5 An example of artefacts: GW activity, created by an ALT (Keith) and his participation in the online teacher community (AF, 01/03/2012)

From now you say two things to me☺

Good morning.......... and **guess what!**
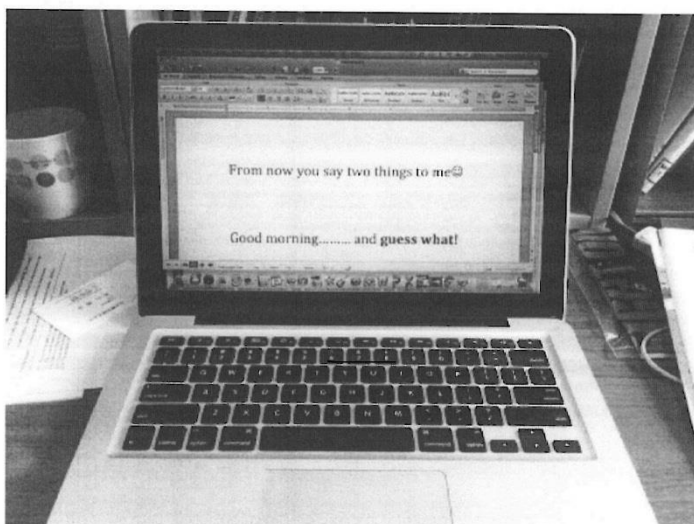
"Guess what?!" This is the poster I printed off for my kids and put around the school.

I've had a breakthrough with my students recently. When I see my kids in the morning, they no longer say "Good morning!" to me. Now, instead of just, "Good morning!", they usually ask me a second question. "Guess what?!", they say. I ask them, "What?". And then they have to tell me about something from their day.

Instead of a teacher, I become a listener, and a conversation starts as I reply with follow-up questions. It's kind of like physics, I think. "Guess what?" is an easy English phrase that all students can say. And it gets the ball rolling. An object in motion stays in motion. And if you can find a clever way like this to get the conversation rolling, you are already off to a good start.

I like the English passport idea. Maybe I'll start to offer a "Guess what?" stamp if my students use a "Guess what?" question. Passports are Great!

- ◦ Comments 1 Comment
- ◦ Categories Communication Revolution, Talk More, Teaching Advice
- ◦ Author   .

Is it Possible?

24 Feb

Do you think it is possible to start a communication class at your school?

If not, what do you think is the biggest challenge you face?

/2012/02/

Appendix 6.6 An example of documentations: Evaluation of the ALTs' performances from *The Contracting Organisation Manual* (DC, 16/11/2011)

4－2　勤務評定

外国青年勤務成績評定は、JET 参加者の指導育成を図り、公正な再任用を行うために必要な基礎資料を得ることを目的として平成9年度より導入された。

その背景としては、招致人数を拡大しつつ質の維持・向上を図ることと、JET 参加者側からの勤務の評価・フィードバックが求められていたことが挙げられる。

実際の評定に際してはまず、事前に JET 参加者に対し評定の内容や方法などを周知する必要がある。そして、数回の面接を行い、JET 参加者自身に「努力目標の設定」や「その達成度についての自己評価」等をさせるとともに、それらについて十分話し合い、当事者双方で共通の認識を持つことが望まれる。

また、任用団体からの要望や改善して欲しい点について具体的に示すと同時に、JET 参加者からの要望や意見についてもよく聞くことが肝要である。このような手続きを経てこそ、JET 参加者の「やる気」を高め、ひいてはその結果を再任用の決定等に反映させることができる、ということを念頭に置かれたい。相互に誤解の生じないよう、事前に評定方法について明らかにすることによって公正な運用をお願いしたい。

勤務評定の具体的な実施方法については、次ページ以降に「外国青年勤務成績評定要領（案）」を示してあるが、これはあくまでも参考であり、各任用団体で独自の評定要領を作成し実施することを妨げるものではない。この要領（案）を参考に各任用団体で評定要領を作成し実施いただきたい。

なお、勤務評定の導入率を高め、JET 参加者へのフィードバックの機会を増やすため、平成18年度に大幅な改定を加えた。

Translation (underlined portion):

With regard to evaluation of the ALTs' performances, the participating organisations (schools) need to let JET Participants (ALTs) know beforehand the evaluation criteria. (My translation)

Appendix 7.1 Sample fieldnotes: School visit (School B): 27/01/2012

10.30　学校到着　Staffroom
Kawada 先生より、研修会に
参加されて 資料を見せてくれる。
コピーしてもいいかどうか お願いを
する。

11.00　ALTと中庭で会う。食堂の中
（自販機前）
で 昼食に 行かないか 誘われる

12.00　学食 — school cafeteria
School cafeteria　7～8人の生徒と先生（1人）

S: I like Judo.
ACT: I don't play judo, but my grandad plays Judo.
S: my dream is to play in the Olympics.
ACT: Great Good luck.

廊下　ACT:
"I like that kind of
fall. It's more real"という

"More real"という

English outside classroom が好き という

12.00　staffroom へ もどる
　　　　（職員室にもどる）

　　　　kawada と keith
　　　　打ち合わせを始める・

　　　　約・10分間 ？　（10 m）

　　　　"OC" について 10 minute. ？
　　　　　のクラスが
　　　　meeting befor the lesson

12:25　kawada,
　　　　keith　　　そいつれ 授業
　　　　につく
　　　　classroom へ 移動する.
　　　　授業について説明 て
　　　　kawada

Appendix 7.2 Sample research diary (02/02/2012)

2月2日

前回の訪問の際に、JTEが私に授業を見学されることに、緊張しがちなのではないかという印象を受けていた。それでも、ALTが いつも 協力的で、私とJTEとの仲介を行ってくれているようで、それがとてもありがたい。
感謝！

ALTから メールが来て、今が電話をするチャンスといわれる。
Could you by any chance call the school right now? My JTE just wants to talk with you.

さっそく、電話をして、授業見学についての話をしてみる。しかし、JTEから。
「あなたのおっしゃる 意味も わかりますが、校長からは、あまりに ひどい 授業は 見せられない と言われているんです。」
という 返事を受ける。

I phoned School C…Kumura said to me: 'I know what you mean. But my principal told me that I should not show the rubbish lessons to you…' (My translation)

これには、かなり ショック。JTEが 緊張する相手は、私よりも、校長 先生 なのだろうか。
これは、気がつくのが、遅くならなくてよかった。
いや、もっと早く気がつくべきだったのだ。

私が、実際に話さなければいけないのは
JTEよりも校長先生 だった。
さっそく メールをしなければ。

The person who I have to talk to was actually the principal! (My translation)

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Appendix 8.1 Sample coding (interview)

RAW DATA		PRELIMINARY CODES	FINAL CODES	EMERGING ISSUES
Alex's transcription (2nd interview) …AN: Q: Reflecting again on the last few months what do you think of your roles of ALTs in your school? Alex: In terms of the last few months, I think my role has extended. Not being an assistant language teacher but an assistant motivational teacher. I have helped the students improve their motivation towards learning English. I think it's my job not only to be a teacher but to be a motivator, which again creates interest. I have gotten to know everyone. That's very important because you can ask the staff without having to be nervous. You can say: 'Okay, I want to do this today, can I do it?'….	Motivational teacher: learning Identity Alex's efforts to get to know the staff	[1] *Motivation* [2] *Positively Getting involved into the staff*	ALTs' adjustment: 2, **POSITIVELY COPING WITH THE SCHOOL CULTURES**	**ALTs' IDENTITY**

…AN: What about your roles in the kite festival? Alex: Mainly I talked to them about how good their kites are. Like 'Your kite is really pretty', 'Oh, you have drawn a really good picture'. It's a kite festival, so we were just laughing together when the kite fell down, just enjoying time with the students, just helping them – not only talking to them, but creating a bond. Mostly I do speak in Japanese…So firstly I say to them in Japanese like 'What's up?' 'What's happening?', and then maybe I throw in a little bit of English. It's about slowly getting into English.	More natural settings (outside the classroom) Creating a bond Talking to the students (gradually English)	[3] *"Creating a bond as well as teaching English (more conversational English): Outside the classroom (the natural settings)*	ALTs' roles and contributions: 1, 3, 4 **MOTIVATION** • Having a good relationship with the students **(LANGUAGE RELATED AREAS)**
AN: Through the club activity or attending PE classes, what aspects did you find? Alex: Just shows me who are the cool students, who are the students who don't get along…. working outside the classroom is very important. You get an idea of what the students are like more than just in the English class. They may be totally different people outside the English class, you don't know them, and you find out. I think they are lots of more relaxed (in the	Creating a bond Students: Feeling relaxed with the Alex in the classroom	[4] *"Creating a bond outside the classrooms is helpful to teach English in the classroom"*	

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classroom). I mean they know who I am. Like 'Oh, Alex, he plays baseball with me, he is okay'…It does help a lot in the classroom when you are associated with the students outside the classroom.				

Notes: ☐ : ALTs' roles and contributions | ☐ : ALTs' adjustment | ⬯ : emerging issues

Appendix 8.2 Sample coding artefacts 1

RAW DATA	PRELIMINARY CODES	FINAL CODES	EMERGING ISSUES
Bingo worksheet Name: Class: 2 - No: Date: A: How long have you _____ _____? Studied _____? (例: English) Liked _____? (Manga) Played _____? (soccer) Lived in _____? ( ) Known _____? (Mike) * Had _____? (a bike) Wanted _____? (a PS3) Been _____? (Mike's friend) B: I have _____ for _____ days/weeks/months/years. Example (例) A: How long have you liked Arashi? B: I have liked Arashi for 2 years. Write the numbers 1-16 in the boxes. Let's play Bingo! **Identity** **Power** *Present-perfect tense than meaning (Grammar-focused interaction)* *ALT: creating activities based on the JTE' request (ALTs' adjustment)*	*Language games created by Becky* *"Communicative games" (to JTEs), but grammar* *Creating the activities based on the JTEs' request* *ALTs as a language activity designer* *JTEs as ALTs' Boss*	**INTERACTIONS (CLASSROOM) LANGUAGE RELATED AREAS** *Grammar-focused interaction **ALTs' ADJUSTMENT** *Passively adjusting to the school culture **BUREACRATIC CULTURE** *Categorising ALTs as assistants	**ALTs' ROLES:** Roles imposed **ALTs' IDENTITY:** *Remaining on a peripheral trajectory **JTEs' IDENTITY/** JTEs as users of ALTs as resources

Notes: ☐ : ALTs' roles and contributions | ☐ : ALTs' adjustment | ◯ : emerging issues

Appendix 8.3 Sample coding artefacts 2

RAW DATA	PRELIMINARY CODES	FINAL CODES	EMERGING ISSUES
ALT is expected to follow JTE's lesson plan *Identity* *Power* **JTE is the main lesson planner, but acts as an assistant** Teaching Procedure (Feb. 22) Textbook) empathy (p.65, p.60~61)) Classes) 2-3 (4th period) Basic Procedure) (min.) 1) Greeting (2) 2) Dictation (10) (p.65) 3) Try It Out Step 1 (15) (p.60~61) 4) Try It Out Step 2 (15) 5) Wrap Up (2) Procedure	Activity	ALT	JTE		1) Greeting	*talks to the students in English			2) Dictation (10)	*walks around the desks and watch students writing down the words	*explains what they will do *plays CD		*Hand in papers *Studs write down words, listening to CD				*Check Answers		*tells the answers		3) Try It Out (step 1) *Looking at the page 60. Studs choose their favorite ramen shop other than Tokeidai	*talks about his favorite ramen shop	*explains the activity		*Fill in the underlined part	*walks around the desks and watch students writing down the words			*pair work		*explains the activity		*demonstration				*JTEs is the main lesson planner, but acts as assistants* *ALT is expected to follow*	**BUREACRATIC CULTURE** *Categorising ALTs as assistants **JTEs (Kawada)' roles:** Scriptwriter as well as a director **ALTs (Keith)' ADJUSTMENT:** *Finding another role/place outside the school	**DISPROPORTION BETWEEN ROLES CHOSEN AND ROLES IMPOSED:** **JTEs' roles:** Roles chosen: Puppeteer **ALTs' roles:** Roles imposed: Puppet **ALTs' identity:** Marginality **POWER:** Surveillance

Notes: ☐ : ALTs' roles and contributions | ☐ : ALTs' adjustment | ◯ : emerging issues

Appendix 8.4 Sample coding of artefacts 3

RAW DATA	PRELIMINARY CODES	FINAL CODES	EMERGING ISSUES
Food, clothes for Halloween (Large culture) **Identity** **Creating English Board: ALT's (Becky) adjustment with the window dressing**	*English Board created by ALTs (Becky and Mike)* *Information about Halloween* *English Board was created once a month*	ALTs as cultural informant: Large culture Becky's adjustment within the window dressing culture	**ALTs' IDENTITY:** *Remaining on a peripheral trajectory

Notes: ☐ (blue) : ALTs' roles and contributions | ☐ (orange) : ALTs' adjustment | ◯ (green) : emerging issues

Appendix 8.5 Table of themes and data sources

MAIN THEMES	IT	OV	FN	AF	DC
ROLES OF ALTS					
Language related areas					
• *Providing a model of pronunciation*	√	√		√	
• *Providing real English*	√	√	√		
• *Providing opportunities for interaction*					
1) Grammar focused interaction	√	√		√	
2) Meaning-focused interaction	√	√	√	√	
• *Enhancing students' motivation to learn*					
1) Creating a pleasant and supportive classroom	√	√	√		
2) Establishing appropriate teacher behaviour	√	√	√		
3) Having a good relationship with the students	√		√		
• *Cultural informant*					
1) Cultural information or experience: large culture	√		√	√	
2) Inter-cultural awareness: small culture	√				
Non-language related areas					
• *Developing interpersonal communication skills*	√		√		
• *Promoting student leadership*	√				

Note: IT = interviews | OV = observations | FN = fieldnotes | AF = artefacts | DC = documentation

MAIN THEMES	IT	OV	FN	AF	DC
JTES' ROLES					
JTEs' roles as an intermediary					
<u>Language learning related areas</u>					
• *Bridging the gap between the ALTs and students*	√	√			
<u>Relationship-building related areas</u>					
• *Creating the activities for communication*			√	√	
• *Using ALTs' strengths/special abilities*	√	√			
JTEs' roles as 'owners' of team-taught lessons					
• *Director as well as scriptwriter*	√	√			
SHOOL CULTURES					
Types of school cultures					
• *Window dressing*	√		√	√	
• *Individual*	√	√	√		
• *Family*	√	√	√		
• *Bureaucracy*					
1) Categorising ALTs as assistants	√	√	√		√
2) Categorising ALTs as NSTs	√				
• *Veteran-oriented cultures*	√		√		√
Adjustments					
• *Passively adjusting to the school cultures*	√		√		
• *Positively coping with the school cultures*	√		√		
• *Finding another roles/place outside the school*	√		√	√	

Appendix 9 An example of an interview transcription (first interview)

School: C   ALT: Alex

Date: 30th November 2011   Time: 16:00-17:00

A: Goals of the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Programme and team-teaching

AN: What do you understand by 'The JET Programme'?

Alex: I think the JET Programme is internationalisation. Teaching English basically, helping teaching English. The JET Programme is really about people coming from different cultures, and introducing your culture into the Japanese way of life, in English classrooms in Japan. Some people have different styles of teaching English, so basically the students are looking at ways to teach English in different styles. If you come from England, you have different English from Americans. Wherever you are from, basically you give that to the students.

AN: What do you think are the benefits of the JET Programme?

Alex: I think it gives the person who's coming from different countries a whole new experience. Some people don't know about Japan at all, and they find it very interesting to live in Japan, and also it gives students a different approach of how English is taught. So by having a foreign teacher, and a native English speaker, it gives students a different approach to learn English, not just having a Japanese teacher.

AN: What do you understand by team-teaching?

Alex: I have to learn about team-teaching because this is my first time. It's something that I have had to adapt to, and also learn new things about the way of teaching in this country. There are different rules, and you have to get accustomed to them. In the term of team-teaching, I think it good for Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) and for the JET Programme participants to interact with one another. Team-teaching is important because you get two sorts of advice

from two different people in the classroom. So from my point of view, I'm from New Zealand, so my speech, my pronunciation of words are going to be different from JTEs.

AN: Through the JET Programme and team-teaching, how do you want to contribute to your students' progress?

Alex: That's a good question. I think, my aim is to make students understand English. To have a basic conversation with the students is really helpful. I think my help and contributions to the students are…playing with them at the lunch time, and speaking English (to them) as well as eating school lunches (with them). That's not really teaching in a classroom, but that's an activity outside the classroom, which you really need to do as well because it gives you a different approach to the students, and it's not in the classroom, so they can actually do whatever they like, and talk about whatever they want to as well. I try to talk as much I can with the students – only English as well. So that's good.

B: Promoting learning (Communication, motivation etc)

AN: How does team-teaching help students' learning?

Alex: Having two contributors in the classroom is very important. When I'm teaching English, I give a different viewpoint (to the students). That's a key factor of internationalisation because the students get a different view of how English has been spoken and how English has been taught as well. So I give my viewpoints, and my pronunciation. I think if both the JTE and the Assistant Language Teacher (ALT) combine to make a good pair, I think then the classroom would be much better. I think in that way, we prepare the lessons beforehand. I think the most important thing is the JTE and ALT get along. If that happens, then I think it's a victory. Putting the bonds into the classroom is important. If you do not get along with the JTE, you don't really know what's going on in the classroom, and I think the students can notice that, and they can probably think sometimes that if the ALT does not get along with the JTE, he probably won't do as much as he needs to do, and he may just sit at the back of the classroom. But if the JTE

and ALT get along together, then I think it creates a more harmonious environment rather than when just one person is doing all the work, and the other person just standing.

AN: What do you feel is your students' attitude in team-teaching?

Alex: I think the students here are amazing. They partake in everything that we ask them to do. I think they know that Kimura sensei (JTE) and I get along. I think that's very important because their attitudes towards learning improve, and if we are seen as one, then obviously the students work as one, and want to learn. If we show that to the class, then obviously we've got the response (from the students). If we are encouraged and motivated to teach English together, then they are encouraged to learn. It's the combination. If we show this example to them, the students can learn from that. If both of us work together, then it's definitely going to create a better environment.

AN: How do your students relate to each other in your team-teaching lessons?

Alex: I think again because it's a small classroom, I think it's only 16 students. There is no question about one being an outsider. Like everyone works together in pairs very well. There is no sign of I do not want to work with you, or with a girl and boy. There is no differentiation between boys and girls in this school. They work together.

AN: With regard to your students' spoken interaction, is it different in team-teaching from single teaching?

Alex: I have only experience of team-teaching. I wouldn't know how to answer that question.

AN: What types of contribution or activities do you engage in outside the classroom?

Alex: What I want to encourage is the students to learn more, not only English, but also the other subjects. I actually participate in PE class because I like sports. It creates another image of the English teacher as the ALT. If he is doing something other than English, students would say, "Hey", you know, and it just creates a different approach to how Japanese students look at the ALT. If the ALT goes and plays in a PE class, students would get to know you so well. I mean definitely going to PE class has definitely improved my relationship with the students. Because I think I am not too bad at sports they look at me as an idol. They look at me when I play baseball and soccer. So I think you have to have the skills, multiple skills to work with the students, not only in the classroom but outside. I think that is one of the most important things for ALTs to have communication with the students outside of the classroom. In the same way, I also play with them during the lunch time, and also during the school lunch, where we have a conversation in English. Again, it's a different approach from being inside classroom.

AN: Is it volunteering or has the school asked you to do that?

Alex: I honest, I decided it. I have a choice. I think I made a good choice. I am only asked to do English (by the school), but I feel that it's better for me and the students to build the relationship outside the classroom, and I think it's really important. It just makes the ALT a different person, not just an English teacher. I think I have definitely made a few more friends. I really got on well with some of the students that play sports. I think it shows that the ALT wants to do more things. I don't want to just sit there, preparing the lessons. I want to explore what the school has to offer. I mean in the team of the club activity stuff like that, and I want to get into it, so that's why I do extra activities outside the English classroom.

AN: How do you find this kind of activity?

Alex: Oh, it's fun. Very fun. I love to play with the students outside. It's very fun.

AN: How did you start to join PE classes?

Alex: I asked because sometimes we don't have English classes until the end of the day, sometimes there is a PE class in the morning, so I said to Kimura sensei (JTE), "Hey, can I go to a PE class today?" , and she said, "Yes, please". So and then I asked a PE teacher, of course, whether or not it is okay if I come to the class, and now that I have been to maybe three, four, five classes. It's fine that I do not need to ask, I can just turn up to the class. "Okay, today Alex is coming to the lesson, the PE class". I think that's the relationship which I'd like to build with the teachers. So I do not have to ask the permission.

AN: When you engage in the activities outside of the classroom, how do you contribute to your students' progress or development?

Alex: Well, I'm trying to take as much English as I can. Whenever I'm playing sports or playing with the students, I'm always speaking English (with the students), and sometimes, only sometimes I have to engage in Japanese. Sometimes we have to talk in Japanese, so that the students definitely understand what we say, but I try to keep English only, so that the students get a different view of English, not just in the classroom. If I say, "Here's a ball" (by throwing a ball to the students), they understand "Okay, he's giving me a ball". It's more conversational English, and I think if the students get an idea of how English is spoken outside the classroom - the conversational English - I think they get the ability to speak in English. It's a different approach to make the students learn English. I think if you have that skill, it's very important to use it. Basically it creates a different approach, and shows the students that you are not just an English teacher, you are more than that. I mean outside the classroom the conversation can just flow. They (students) can just say what they want. He's free. He plays sports. He's not asking to do anything apart from "Kick a ball". It's very casual. It's good for the students to learn that because everyone who lives in Japan has few ideas what casual English is like. It makes it easier for him or her to speak the language. Because sometimes when we teach English to the students, it's very formal. But if the students are playing sports with me, they can learn casual English language.

C Roles of teacher (Team-teaching by NSTs and NNSTs)

AN: How do you and your partner cooperate in team-teaching?

Alex: I think it's about preparing the lesson first, I mean we get together beforehand, and say to each other: "This is what we are going to do", "How do you think?", "Do you think it's okay for the students?", "Do you think the students understand this?", so basically, preparation before the lesson, and understanding each other before we really get into it (the classroom). I think communication is very important. If there is no barrier between the JTE and ALT, it is good.

AN: What about during the class?

Alex: I think we do some hand signals. We can understand how the lesson goes. If she wants me to do something, she will tell me like when the students don't really know what's going on. So if I want to do something, or if she wants me to do something, then she will tell me, or I want to say something to her, I just say, "Excuse me", "This is right", "This is wrong". It's not like I have to wait until she finished, or wait after the lesson to say something to her about the lesson. If something goes wrong, I tell her, and if I say something wrong, she tells me. It's a very flexible relationship. We are good.

AN: Did you make PowerPoint slides?

Alex: Yeah, together. I first, I know lots about the computer, and it's easy for me to do something like that on the computer. I first tuned up the computer, and then we both (JTE and ALT) checked the slides together, "Do you think this is okay for the students?", "Do you think it's hard enough?", "Do you think it's easy enough for the students?" So slowly, slowly, we went down the slides, and changed a little bit, and it wasn't just my input, it was definitely Kimura sensei's (JTE) input as well, and we are a good team, I think. There is no problem.

AN: What about evaluation?

Alex: After the lessons finish, we talk, and say how the lesson went, and if there is any improvement, we talk about it like who understands what, which students really engaged in the lesson, and so on.

AN: What are the roles of teachers in your team-teaching?

Alex: We all have roles to play in the classroom. Basically when I come to pronunciation or phonics, I think that's what I take over. I say the word many times, so students understand, but Ms Itoh and Ms Kimura also say it in Japanese English. Not only the native speaker, but Ms Kimura also says it, so that the students get an idea of how it is said in Japanese English, and also the way I say it in the native speaker's way. I mean the classroom has structure, but if I have anything to say to her (JTE), or if I want to do anything, I will ask her, "Can I play this game for the last 5 minutes?" or something like that. While the students are working by themselves, we can quickly have a chat, and say: "There is time left at the end of the class, maybe 5 minutes, and is it possible for me to play this game?" and so on. We don't have any fixed roles, but basically the one fixed role I have is actually the phonics part, pronunciation. She (JTE) takes care of all the grammar points in Japanese, so it is easy for the students to understand, and I just repeat the words, and the students repeat after me.

AN: What kinds of relations do you have with your students in your team-teaching?

Alex: We all have good relationships with the students because the school is so small like a family. I've been only for 4 months (in this school), so they don't know me as well as they know the JTE. Because I am a native speaker, it's hard for them to communicate with me. But I have a very good relationship with the students. There are no worries at all.

AN: What do you think are the characteristics of NSTs and NNSTs in teaching English as a foreign language?

Alex: I think it's hard for foreign countries to adopt English. It's hard for them to speak and teach English. I think the JET Programme is foreigners who are from native-speaking countries coming and helping Japanese English teachers. I think it's better if the native speaking teacher is teaching English, I mean there are lots of benefits to that. They know what they are doing. It's mother tongue to them rather than a person who is learning English, and then teaching English. The best thing is the native speaker and the non-native-speaker combined like the JET Programme.

AN: What do you think are the benefits of team-teaching by NSTs and NNSTs?

Alex: I think…If you are talking about team-teaching by NSTs and NNSTs, both of them need to do things together, and I think it's good if the non-native speaker and the native-speaker get together and teach. If the native-speaker says something in English, and the non-native speaker translates, I think that it's very good. It's easier for the students to learn from both of them.

D: Roles of the schools

AN: Could you tell me a bit about the process of introducing yourself to your school community?

Alex: I guess I gave a self-introduction in the staff room first; and then, we went up to the hall, where the students were. The principal introduced me first, she talked about me in Japanese, and explained where I was from and what I did at the university; and then, I gave a short speech in Japanese saying what my name is, where I am from, and what I did at the university. So it was pretty good because it is a small school again, I wasn't really nervous at all. It was fine.

AN: Could you tell me a bit about your routine as the ALT in your school?

Alex: I get to school at about 7.45, before 8, and I prepare my things. Teachers come around 8ish. The bell goes off at 8.15; and then, it's Home Room Time, which I am not really involved in. I basically look at what we have to do for the day (during the Home Room Time). I look at a timetable seeing what classes I have; and then, pretty much prepare the lesson by myself, maybe drawing worksheets. When the teachers come back from their Home Rooms, we (JTEs and ALTs) start to talk about: "Okay, so this is what we have today, this is a time table we have today, these are English classes we have today", and then maybe we look at the textbook, maybe say: "This is what we are going to do for today", and then we do English classes. After lunch, I might go to some other classes. We normally talked about what happened to the classes after the lessons. Then, I think after the 6th period the students clean, so I go to see their work, and then I say (to the students): "Okay, good job", and they go back to their Home Rooms, and then I come back to the staff room. Basically I am looking at what is going to happen the next day, or if my JTE is there, I maybe talk about what is going to happen, or just relax a bit.

AN: Could you tell me a bit about the environment of your working?

Alex: Sure, in the staff room, if I need help I will get it. It's not really hard for me to do by myself, but if I want to do something that I don't know how to get there, then I will ask someone. They will help me.

AN: Could you tell me a bit about how you see yourself or your role within the school community?

Alex: I am an English teacher. I'm a native speaker. I am trying to do whatever I can to teach the students in English like in the morning, saying "Good morning" to the students in English, not in saying Japanese: "Ussu", or "Ohayogizaimasu". I guess saying "Hello", "What are you doing?" in English to the students who are in the corridors makes a difference. I guess the students look at me as a teacher. So I have to basically act in a high role. I am also making a New Zealand Board

like information about New Zealand. I put just a flag, some pictures about New Zealand. It's not so big, and it's just next to the staffroom. So I will put what I want to do on that board. It's like motivational stuff, motivational words, and things like "Please study hard", it's my way of saying something to the students without being there, and the students see what's happening in New Zealand.

AN: What are the challenges you have encountered in your school community?

Alex: I think the first challenge is the language barrier. I knew a little bit of Japanese because I have been to Japan for six months, so it wasn't too hard for me to adapt to the first stages of meeting and greeting. It wasn't too hard because I knew how to speak Japanese and greet people in Japanese. And I guess getting to know the students is a bit tough, I mean I'm obviously a new person, and they are going to be shy. So trying to find a way – what is the easiest way for the students to know who I am and for me to get to know them, and I think one of the biggest things that I faced was how to get students to know me. And I think New Zealand is famous for rugby, and I brought a rugby ball obviously to the school. They didn't know what it was. So for the first time I played with the students, and they were quite shocked at the ball itself because it's not round. So when they saw me passing a ball, they are quite amazed. So instantly, the bond was created there by saying "Wow!", "You can do that", and then I talked to them how to do it. So I think that the bond was made between the students and me, and it's easy for me to get to know them, if they get to know me. Again, extra curricula activity is my strong point as well.

AN: Do you have a kind of expectation of your school community?

Alex: I'd like to do whatever I can to help students, and I just want to be myself. I hope the school lets the foreign person inject his foreign roots, foreign culture into the school like by playing rugby or making a rugby team. So I did that, I did Haka for my self-introduction in every class. So they knew it's like a greeting, so…students were quite amazed, I mean they were quite shocked what I did, because they have never seen before. It's quite scary as well. I think after I did Haka by myself I showed them the rugby team - All Blacks. I was talking about

New Zealand's winning and put New Zealand on the map for the students. I think some students are very keen on the rugby. They want to learn. Sometimes they play without me because sometimes I am busy for the lunch time, they come to take the rugby ball, and go to the playground to pass the ball to them. It's good.

Appendix 10 Certification of ethical research approval from the University of Exeter

UNIVERSITY OF
EXETER

Graduate School of Education

Certificate of ethical research approval

DISSERTATION/THESIS

To activate this certificate you need to first sign it yourself, and then have it signed by your supervisor and finally by the Chair of the School's Ethics Committee.

For further information on ethical educational research access the guidelines on the BERA web site: http://www.bera.ac.uk/publications/guidelines/ and view the School's statement on the GSE student access on-line documents.

READ THIS FORM CAREFULLY AND THEN COMPLETE IT ON YOUR COMPUTER (the form will expand to contain the text you enter). DO **NOT** COMPLETE BY HAND

Your name: Akiko Nambu

Your student no: 580036946

Return address for this certificate: 1-21-22 Tsurugaoka, Sendai, Izumi-ku 9813109, Japan

Degree/Programme of Study: EDD in TESOL

Project Supervisor(s): Dr. Jill Cadorath

Your email address: an249@exeter.ac.uk

Tel: +44 (UK) (0) 7504006167 OR +81 (Japan) (0) 223726

I hereby certify that I will abide by the details given overleaf and that I undertake in my dissertation / thesis (delete whichever is inappropriate) to respect the dignity and privacy of those participating in this research.

I confirm that if my research should change radically, I will complete a further form.

Signed:......*Akiko Nambu*..................................date:.. 3/11/2011 ......

NB For Masters dissertations, which are marked blind, this first page must **not be included** in your work. It can be kept for your records.

Chair of the School's Ethics Committee
updated: April 2011

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Certificate of ethical research approval
DISSERTATION/THESIS

Your student no: 580036946

Title of your project:

The impact of the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Programme: an ethnographic case study of two participating schools.

Brief description of your research project:

This research aims to explore the impact of native-speaking Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) in the JET Programme on students' learning and development in English as a foreign language (EFL) education in Japan. Based on an ethnographic case study of two schools working with ALTs, using the interview, observation, artifacts and document analysis, the study also examines how Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) teachers help ALTs to establish a relationship with students, how the school help the ALT to integrate the school culture, and how the ALT cope with the school culture.

Give details of the participants in this research (giving ages of any children and/or young people involved):

The participants in this research will be Japanese teachers of English in secondary schools, who teach students between the age of 12 and 18, native speaking ALTs and the school representatives such as a head teacher, a deputy head teacher and a chief of the English department of the school. This research includes both part-time and full-time teachers.

Give details (with special reference to any children or those with special needs) regarding the ethical issues of:

a) <u>informed consent:</u> **Where children in schools are involved this includes both headteachers and parents). Copy(ies) of your consent form(s) you will be using must accompany this document.** a blank consent form can be downloaded from the GSE student access on-line documents:

Through the JET Programme and the Boad of Education in which the schools located, communicating with head teachers of the schools, consent will be sought both through e-mail and letter correspondence. Consent will be obtained from the schools, local teachers and native-speaking ALTs . Consent will be also obtained from the piloting school, local teachers and native-speaking ALTs.

b) <u>anonymity and confidentiality</u>

Firstly the original names of the schools will not be revealed, and refer as Schools A and B. Secondly all the participants in the schools will remain anonymous. Other teachers of the schools will be that the data will be protected and kept securely. Findings will only be published with their permission. Participants will, in addition, be informed that they have the right to withdraw from the study at any point.

Chair of the School's Ethics Committee
updated: April 2011

Give details of the methods to be used for data collection and analysis and how you would ensure they do not cause any harm, detriment or unreasonable stress:

In order to ensure that no harm, detriment or unreasonable stress is placed on the participant, I will be carefully considered the following steps. Firstly, once consent has been sought from the school, local teachers and ALTs, I will consult with each participant about them to find the most suitable time and place for the interviews and observations. The interviews, observations, artifacts and document analysis will also be piloted on a secondary school in which the JET Programme is managed. Participants will be also made aware of how the research findings will be used. In order to ensure the anonymity of the participants and confidentiality of the data, the information obtained from the interviews, observations, artifacts and document analysis will not be transmitted by the researcher to a third party, apart from the thesis supervisor, without the participants' permission.

Secondly, I will preserve the confidentiality of the participants and the schools, and of the data collected from them for data collection and analysis. With the permission of the participants, I will tape-record the interview, videotape the classroom observation data, take notes, and take photos of artifacts produced by the schools, local teachers and ALTs, take photocopies of documents relating to the JET Programme. After collecting the interview data, I will transcribe the interviews, and ask each participant to check the transcript. Qualitative data collected by the interviews will be analysed by coding, and qualitative data collected by observations, field notes, artifacts and documents will be analysed by coding and grounded theory. Records of the data collected will be locked in a secure and safe place. Regarding the interview (including transcripts) and observation data, field notes and photos of artifacts and photocopies of the documents, I will remove the real names of the schools, local teachers, and ALTs in order to keep the privacy of the participants, their schools and people concerned with the schools. My field notes and transcripts of the interview data will not contain personal identifiers. Personal information will be coded to ensure anonymity.

Give details of any other ethical issues which may arise from this project (e.g. secure storage of videos/recorded interviews/photos/completed questionnaires or special arrangements made for participants with special needs etc.):

Once the interview is transcribed as a Word file, I will rename each file so that anonymity is secured. I will store the transcribed interviews on my computer while analysing the data, then I will remove them and keep them on a USB stick. Regarding the video-recorded observation data and photos of artifact data, I will also give rename each file, and store on my computer for the purpose of analysis. Electronic information (including a computer and a USB stick) will only be access by me with my username and password. After analyzing the data, I will remove them and keep them on a memory card. With regard to photocopies of documents, I will remove the real names of the schools and teachers from each document, and rename them. Also, I shall preserve data of the recorded interview, observation, artifacts and documents securely.

Give details of any exceptional factors, which may raise ethical issues (e.g. potential political or ideological conflicts which may pose danger or harm to participants):

I do not anticipate that there will be any exceptional factors which I will raise additional ethical issues.

This form should now be printed out, *signed by you on the first page and sent to your supervisor to sign. Your supervisor will forward this document to the School's **Research Support Office** for the Chair of the School's Ethics Committee to countersign. A unique approval reference will be added and this certificate will be returned to you to be included at the back of your dissertation/thesis.*

N.B. You should not start the fieldwork part of the project until you have the signature of your supervisor

This project has been approved for the period: October 2011 until: July 2012

By (above mentioned supervisor's signature): J Gazath date: 30/10/2011

N.B. **To Supervisor:** *Please ensure that ethical issues are addressed annually in your report and if any changes in the research occur a further form is completed.*

GSE unique approval reference: D/11/12/11

Signed: Salah Troudi date: 8/11/2011
Chair of the School's Ethics Committee

This form is available from http://education.exeter.ac.uk/students/

Chair of the School's Ethics Committee
updated: April 2011

Appendix 11 Exeter consent form

<u>CONSENT FORM</u>

I have been fully informed about the aims and purposes of the project.

I understand that:

> there is no compulsion for me to participate in this research project and, if I do choose to participate, I may at any stage withdraw my participation
>
> I have the right to refuse permission for the publication of any information about me
>
> any information which I give will be used solely for the purposes of this research project, which may include publications
>
> If applicable, the information, which I give, may be shared between any of the other researcher(s) participating in this project in an anonymised form
>
> all information I give will be treated as confidential
>
> the researcher(s) will make every effort to preserve my anonymity

................................………………..
          ....
(Signature of participant)
        (Date)

…………………
(Printed name of participant)

One copy of this form will be kept by the participant; a second copy will be kept by the researcher(s)

Contact phone number of researcher(s): +44 (UK) (0) 7504006167 OR +81 (Japan) (0) 223726036

If you have any concerns about the project that you would like to discuss, please contact:

Akiko Nambu, Doctoral Candidate in EdD TESOL.
Graduate School of Education, University of Exeter, St Luke's Campus, Heavitree Road,Exeter, EX1 2LU, UK. Email: an249@exeter.ac.uk
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OR
Dr Jill Cadorath, Thesis Supervisor.
Graduate School of Education, University of Exeter, St Luke's Campus, Heavitree Road,Exeter
EX1 2LU, UK. Email: B.J.Cadorath@exeter.ac.uk

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Data Protection Act: The University of Exeter is a data collector and is registered with the Office of the Data Protection Commissioner as required to do under the Data Protection Act 1998. The information you provide will be used for research purposes and will be processed in accordance with the University's registration and current data protection legislation. Data will be confidential to the researcher(s) and will not be disclosed to any unauthorised third parties without further agreement by the participant. Reports based on the data will be in anonymised form.