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Revisiting assumptions about team teaching

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要旨

中等教育における外国人講師(以下 NET) と日本人教員 (以下 JTE)とのチーム・ティーチングが始まってから 30 年になる。しかし、「チーム・ティーチング」とは一体何をすることなのか、目標に向けてどのような実践をすればいいのかという点について、依然、模索している。これまで筆者が経験した授業研究の分析によれば、チーム・ティーチングの可能性を阻んでいる要因は、主に２つの点にある。チーム・ティーチングに対する指針が明確でないこと、そして、英語 I、II とオーラル・コミュニケーション(以下 OC)の教科書の内容および目的に大きな隔たりがあることである。このままでいけば、チーム・ティーチングを効果的に実践するための明確な目的や目標がないまま、新しい学習指導要領が（中学は平成 24 年度、高校は平成 25 年度から）施行されても、現状を打開することができないであろう。そこで、筆者はティーム・ティーチングを行っている JTE と NET にアンケート調査を行った。本論の目的は、その結果を分析し、現状を把握するとともに課題を明らかにすることにある。分析の視点は、1）役割に関する NET の視点－OC が自分の担当科目であると確信する一方で、「英語」という科目を担当する英語教員としての自分の位置づけがないという矛盾、2）チーム・ティーチングにおける JTE と NET 両者の役割や関係性に対する固定観念、3）実践を振り返る機会の欠如、の 3 点である。最後に、分析結果をもとに新学習指導要領とコミュニケーション能力を伸長する英語教育の視点から、今後のチーム・ティーチングはどうあるべきかを考察する。

Introduction

Purpose of this Study

Native English teachers (NETs), generally referred to in Japan as Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) or Assistant English Teachers (AETs), have team taught English with counterpart Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) in Japan’s secondary schools since the late 1970s. Uncertainty persists among both JTEs and NETs, however, about what “team teaching” really means and how close their own practices come to meeting its goals (Collins, 2005). Obstacles to realizing team teaching’s potential include limited official guidance and gaps between the solo taught, four-skills English subjects and the team taught English conversation subjects featured in the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) 2003 Course of Study. Teachers lacking an educational framework within which meaningful team teaching can be realized are in danger of perpetuating the current status quo in

MEXT's revised Course of Study (Yoshida, 2009), to be implemented at the junior and senior high levels in 2012 and 2013, respectively.

This study offers quantitative and qualitative data collected through a survey of JTEs and NETs engaged in team teaching. These data illustrate ways in which current team teaching practices often reflect 1) a paradoxical view of NETs which privileges them in conversation subjects (Davies, 2003; Miyazato, 2009) yet simultaneously marginalizes them within the greater curriculum (Macedo, 2002; Ozawa & McLauchlan, 2003), 2) fossilized team teaching roles and relationships, and 3) inadequate opportunities for teacher reflection on practice. Recommendations are offered for addressing some of the issues raised by the survey responses, including ways to bring team teaching in line with MEXT and other English-for-communication perspectives, in turn confirming the value of team teaching as an educational tool in Japan's secondary English education.

Defining Team Teaching

Recognition of team teaching's potential as a tool for second language been has been relatively slow to emerge. Johnston and Madejski note that "few, if any, of the handbooks currently used in EFL [English as a foreign language] make any but passing reference to it" (1990, p. 2). When team teaching is discussed, it tends to be defined only broadly. Tajino and Tajino describe it as "any possible combination of participants that is organized to promote authentic communication in the classroom" (2000, p. 6), while Aline and Hosoda refer to it as "teaching that includes more than one teacher in the classroom even when only one teacher is in charge of the main interaction" (2006, p. 7).

A clearer image of team teaching practices begins to surface when context-specific needs and conditions are taken into consideration. Sandholtz (2000) identifies three team teaching patterns: 1) allocating responsibilities between two teachers, 2) planning together but teaching independently, and 3) cooperating on all phases: planning, instruction, and evaluation. Tajino and Tajino (2000) differentiate between a "covert team" in which teachers cooperate in planning and evaluation and an in-class "overt team" operating in view of the students. Robinson and Schaible (1995) recognize three varieties of team teaching: 1) "traditional," in which two teachers actively share instruction of content and skills, 2) "collaborative," where teachers design and teach a course through discussion in front of the learners, and 3) "complementary/supportive," in which one teacher is responsible for teaching content and the other for providing follow-up activities on related topics and/or study skills.

Team Teaching in Japan's Secondary Schools: Ideal vs. Real

ALTs have been involved in team teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) in Japan's junior and senior high schools for over 30 years, starting with the Mombusho English Fellows

(MEF) Program in 1977 and the British English Teaching (BET) Programme in 1978. The successor to these two programs is the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Programme, now in its 25th year. According to the Council of Local Authorities for International Relations (CLAIR), the JET Programme currently hosts over 4,000 foreign ALTs from over 30 countries (2010). In addition, hundreds of full- and part-time ALTs are hired through private agencies around the country.

Considering the relatively uniform nature of Japan's secondary English education, the definition of team teaching put forward by MEXT is surprisingly unspecific: team teaching takes place "Any time two or more teachers work together to guide an individual learner or group of learners toward a set of aims or objectives" (2002, p. 14). Given this vagueness, MEXT's assertion that "The presence of two teachers teaching together ensures increased and better interaction between the teachers and the learners, and leads to improvement in the quality of teaching" (2002, p. 15) seems idealistic.

More detailed MEXT guidelines for team teaching remain scarce. Ozawa and McLauchlan (2003) recall that when the JET Programme began, schools were forced to accept ALTs with no advice about how to utilize them. Browne and Evans (1994) note an overall lack of clear objectives for the presence of ALTs in class, while Wada admits that "It is also a fact that team teaching began without any form of pedagogic research to validate it as an effective educational innovation" (1994, p. 15). Mahoney points to a "significant absence of directives from the Ministry of Education regarding JTE roles in team taught classes (2004, p. 235), while Gromik observes that "there are, surprisingly, no set rules concerning the duties that the ALTs should perform and consequently… the resulting pattern of provision is decidedly uneven" (2004, p. 6). Team teaching is not sufficiently addressed in Japan's pre-service degree programs (Scholefield, 1997), and neither JTEs nor ALTs receive adequate in-service preparation for team teaching (Fanselow, 1994).

When educational objectives in the team taught classroom are limited to memorization and pattern practice, the JTE-ALT relationship remains ambiguous. As a result, one of three unsatisfactory team teaching scenarios is apt to emerge. Scenario 1 is perhaps the most stereotypical: that of JTE as instructor and ALT as assistant. Shimaoka and Yashiro (1990) suggest that "JTE dominance may be inevitable in the initial stages of team teaching, since AETs need to get acquainted with the new teaching environment" (p. 28). This model often becomes fossilized, however, the JTE retaining firm control of the class and using the time to explain and confirm vocabulary and grammatical structures. The Scenario 1 ALT may be invited to model words and phrases, but contributes little else to either the lesson plan or the class itself (Collins, 2008). The result is often frustration for those ALTs who would prefer to interact meaningfully with students.

Scenario 2 is the reverse; here the ALT is in charge, and the JTE is relegated to assistant status, monitoring student discipline and occasionally translating directions into Japanese. ALTs

may borrow activity ideas from resources such as CLAIR's *Research Materials and Teaching Handbook* (2006) or The Association for Japan Exchange and Teaching's *Team Taught Pizza* (Tracey, 2007). These compilations, however, make no attempt to connect their activities with specific textbook lessons, or to meet the needs of a particular group of students.

JTE roles are seldom mentioned in these resources, reinforcing the notion that ALTs are primarily responsible for providing enjoyable breaks from the JTE's solo taught syllabus. Scenarios 1 and 2 seem to have been endemic since the early days of team teaching. In 1988, 25% of JTEs responded on a national survey that they themselves were the main teacher; another 30% reported letting their ALT partners take over their team taught classes (McConnell, 2000).

In a third scenario, the team divides preparation and teaching responsibilities, as in Robinson and Schaible's "traditional" variety of team teaching (1995). Macedo (2002), for example, recommends that the JTE handle reading and writing instruction while the ALT focuses on speaking and listening. MEXT (2002) suggests that while one team teacher is leading an activity, the other elicit and monitor student responses. Although Scenario 3 may reflect a positive, cooperative JTE-ALT relationship, the two teachers may essentially be sharing the role of one. Macedo admits, "While this arrangement may seem the most ideal and symbiotic, some still find difficulty justifying having two teachers in the same classroom" (2002, p. 17).

Johnston and Madejski assert that "if two teachers are to be present in the classroom, there must be ways of using that fact to the full, rather than have them just take turns at teaching" (1990, p. 3), while Sandholtz warns that "When responsibilities are simply allocated among teachers, the collaboration dissolves into team teaching in name only with few opportunities for professional growth" (2000, p. 40). Given the lack of guidance on team teaching roles, it seems natural, as Smith points out, that "following a period of initial confusion and tension, team teaching partners tend naturally to settle into a variety of more or less satisfactory compromise 'solutions,' and that these compromises may then have a tendency to become fossilized" (1994, p. 89).

Medgyes (1999) notes that the collaborative nature of team teaching not only makes it more labor-intensive than solo teaching, but forces teachers to work more closely together than they would otherwise. For JTEs used to both autonomy and authority in their classrooms, team teaching represents a major adjustment (Miyazato, 2009). By including the word "assistant" in the foreign teachers' job title, the Ministry has sought to reassure JTEs that, although they are "non-native speakers" (NNSs), their jobs remain safe (McConnell, 2000). However, team teaching with "native speakers" (NSs) is often met with nervousness and hostility by JTEs (Sturman, 1992), and causes insecurity among many JTEs about their own competence (Goldberg, 1995).

ALT Status within Japan's Secondary English Education: A Paradox

Privileging the Native Speaker

To understand why NS teachers might be perceived as a threat to an established NNS teacher population, it is necessary to unpack connotations of superiority the term "native speaker" has acquired. These may be traced, in part, to Chomsky's early definition of the NS as "ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly" (1965, p. 3). This stance has provoked a backlash; Ferguson objects to linguists' long-standing practice of giving "a special place to the native speaker as the only true and reliable source of language data" (1983, p. vii). Phillipson (1992) charges Chomsky, among others, with promoting the "native speaker fallacy," a belief that NSs are, by nature, better qualified to teach the language, while Braine refers to Chomsky's image of the NS as "an abstraction, with no resemblance to a living human being" (1999, p. xv). Widdowson (1994) objects to the perception of NS language use as a model of "insider" authenticity. This practice of privileging NS teachers, thereby constructing and perpetuating an imaginary insider-outsider dichotomy, has also been challenged by Astor (2000), Kramsch (1997), and Paikeday (1985), to name just a few.

Criticisms notwithstanding, the NS fallacy remains tenacious among stakeholders in Japan's secondary English education, including MEXT. Miyazato asserts that "it is clear that the Japanese government regards NSs from major English-speaking countries, who are, in most cases, not even teachers at all, as qualified and suitable to be assistant English teachers based on their perceived inherent superiority as NSs" (2009, p. 57). JTEs may infer from NSs' privileged status that they should reduce their own participation in team teaching (Goto-Butler, 2007; Miyazato, 2009). Students, in turn, may conclude that, since NSs are more skilled language users, they are therefore more credible language teachers. Takada notes that, regardless of JTE training, teaching practices, and attitudes, one "factor that contributes to the distrust of Japanese EFL teachers is related to students' sincere adoration of NS status" (2000, p. 2).

Marginalizing the Native Speaker

Paradoxically, while NSs seem to enjoy a certain privileged status, they may also find themselves marginalized within the educational system. Medgyes (1999) suggests that NS teachers not be given official responsibilities until they are aware of student needs. Given the lack of guidance ALTs in Japan receive from MEXT, dispatching agencies, and JTE colleagues (Collins, 2006), this awareness is likely to emerge slowly, at best. Tajino and Tajino highlight JTE criticisms about NS teachers, including that "the AET is not properly trained to lead the class, has no experience as an educator, has little in-depth knowledge of the English language, and is not responsible for the class" (2000, p. 9). Another commonly reported complaint is high ALT turnover, particularly among agency-hired teachers (Collins, 2006; Gromik, 2004). One outcome of this turnover, Macedo notes, is that "JTEs probably perceive their assistant teachers

to be temporary fixtures. As a result, many JTEs may fail to utilize their ALTs adequately after the school year begins" (2000, p. 35).

At schools offering Oral Communication (OC) I and II, in addition to the four-skills subjects English I and II, it seems ALTs are seldom expected – or invited – to teach outside the OC sphere (Gorsuch, 2002; Mahoney, 2004). When ALTs are relegated to teaching conversational skills seldom evaluated on university entrance exams, ALT marginalization is essentially incorporated into the curriculum. Further fossilizing this "dichotomous curriculum" (Sakui, 2004, p. 158) are the MEXT-approved OC textbooks, whose everyday contents, vocabulary, and functions have little, if any, discernible relation to those of the academically-oriented English I and II textbooks.

MEXT's new Course of Study, to be introduced at the high school level in 2013, replaces English I, English II, and Reading with Communication English I, II, and III. English Expression I and II, replacing Writing, is expected to emphasize the productive skills necessary to succeed in presentation, discussion, debate, and writing. Doing away with OC entirely might increase the use of English as the language of instruction in these new subjects (Yoshida, 2009) and help ALTs contribute more meaningfully within the four-skills sphere. Unfortunately, however, the 2013 Course of Study features the optional "English Conversation," which may perpetuate both the four-skills/conversation subject dichotomy and the ALT privilege/marginalization paradox.

Tackling the NS Fallacy

Redefining the NS

The term "native speaker," as commonly employed in both the literature and everyday discourse, fails to clarify whether and how NNSs can ever meet NS criteria (Medgyes, 1999). Kachru and Nelson (1996) find the subjectivity of NS and NNS labels problematic, while Goto-Butler points out that "drawing a boundary between native and nonnative varieties of English remains highly controversial" (2007, p. 733). If ALTs in Japan's secondary schools are to inhabit a meaningful middle ground between the extremes of privilege and marginalization, however, it is important to move beyond Chomsky's and other early definitions of the NS.

Goto-Butler (2007) speculates that at the individual level, fundamental elements of nativeness may include the age of first exposure to the language and linguistic competence. Similarly, Davies includes those acquiring a language from birth or in childhood, and describes NSs as having "access to some kind of language faculty, which may be called Universal Grammar (UG) and which has to operate at a very high level of abstraction" (2003, p. 209). More specifically, he posits, NSs possess an intuitive knowledge of the language, which can be further categorized into 1) discriminating knowledge, allowing the NS to recognize whether a word or usage is a legitimate part of the language; 2) communicational knowledge, enabling the

NS to handle linguistic rules; and 3) skills knowledge, which refers to the level of control and creativity the NS brings to communication.

Sociocultural factors are at least as central to the NS self as are these linguistic gauges. Brutt-Griffler and Samimy define nativeness as "a non-elective socially constructed identity rather than a linguistic category" (2003, p. 100). On the other hand, others assert that nativeness is, in fact, an elective identity. Medgyes argues that "the native/non-native distinction should be established on the basis of self-ascription" (1999, p. 16). Similarly, Davies conceives of the NS as "a social construct, a choice of identity and a membership determined as much by attitude and symbolically as by language ability and knowledge" (2003, p. 9).

Astor (2000) sidesteps the task of defining nativeness, arguing that, since there are no scientific grounds for differentiating between NS and NNS language teachers, the distinction should not even be made and that teachers in both groups should be classified only by their levels of professionalism. Where teachers falling within the narrow traditional definition of the NS are unfairly privileged, the motivation to challenge categorization is understandable. However, Astor's own definition of professionalism includes knowledge of psycholinguistics and applied linguistics, both of which are neatly covered in Davies' criteria for NS knowledge. Moreover, if NSs are self-ascribed, then it follows that NNSs have the right to evaluate their own life experiences of learning and using the target language to determine for themselves whether they qualify as NSs.

Recognizing NNS and NS Strengths

The NS has been characterized here as 1) possessing certain kinds and levels of knowledge about the language and 2) being self-ascribed. The fact that NNSs may use these criteria to identify themselves as NSs does not, however, render NS and NNS partners in a team teaching situation interchangeable. On the contrary, it is thought that the NNS brings certain innate capacities to language teaching, especially the linguistic, cultural, and educational heritage they share with students (Medgyes, 1999). Through interviews with JTEs, McConnell determined that this solidarity was "a far more powerful force than identification with the goals of the ALT" (2000, p. 216). Shimaoka and Yashiro (1990) note that JTEs are more knowledgeable about students' previous learning and levels of understanding, preferred learning styles, psychological states, and first language interference. Additionally, NNSs have a relatively firm grasp of the rules of the target language, whereas NSs may not. Davies points out that "Native speakers all do indeed have intuitions about their Standard Language but in those cases where there is… flexibility it is likely that their knowledge of and performance in those norms will be shaky" (2003, p. 209).

The NNS teacher does face at least two hurdles, the first of which is mastering the target language itself. As an NNS, Medgyes opines that "very few of us will ever be able to catch up. To achieve native-like proficiency is wishful thinking" (1999, p. 31); Miyazato, similarly, labels

the JTEs in her study "linguistic novices" (2009). Alternatively, linguistic shortcomings can be reimagined as assets; while NS teachers may have the advantage in the context of language use, NNS teachers may have the advantage in the context of language learning (Widdowson, 1994). Moreover, partial proficiency is a much more realistic student goal than striving for native mastery (Takada, 2000), and NNSs are models of successfully learning the target language.

The second challenge is to straddle differences between the NNS's home culture and that of the target language. Medgyes points out, "By birth we represent our native language and culture, but by profession we are obliged to represent a foreign language with its cultural load" (1999, p. 37). For NNSs teaching in their home countries, representing their native culture may include working within institutional limitations and expectations. In surveying and observing NNS and NS teachers of EFL in Hungary, Árva and Medgyes found NNSs to be stricter teachers, "possibly because they had an enhanced feeling of responsibility, as well as an awareness of being 'more restrained by school regulations and administrative tasks like giving marks'" (2000, p. 363). The NSs' more casual attitude toward language learning is not necessarily a liability, however. Locastro (1996) notes that, while JTEs view grammatical accuracy as the main objective of language learning and teaching, ALTs tend to emphasize communication ability. NS teachers are, therefore, often seen as lenient toward student mistakes (Miyazato, 2009), tolerant of nonstandard usage, inclined to adopt innovative and flexible approaches, and willing to introduce a wider variety of activities (Medgyes, 1999).

Mastery of the target language is frequently cited as a prime NS teacher attribute. NSs are often able to quickly recognize and correct mistakes (Miyazato, 2009), and have access to a "comparatively rich stock of colloquial expressions, idioms and phrasal verbs" (Medgyes, 1999, p. 81). Another plus is the fact that NS teacher presence can help to establish a relatively authentic, and therefore motivational, atmosphere (Medgyes, 1999). MEXT's Action Plan (2003) asserts that "To have one's English understood by a native speaker increases the students' joy and motivation for English learning. In this way, the use of a native speaker of English has great meaning," though Browne and Evans (1994) warn that interacting with a NS is not enough to ensure either motivation or improved fluency and that students also need to learn ways of negotiating meaning.

It has been established that NNS and NS teachers may differ in terms of behavior and language proficiency. Recognizing each partner's strengths does not, however, guarantee a successful NNS-NS team teaching relationship. On the contrary, McConnell warns that "when people with radically different cognitive frameworks are thrown together in a common enterprise, they may produce little more than the breakdown of trust" (2000, p. 3). To determine whether individual teacher experiences substantiate the portrayal of team teaching by NNS-NS partners in the literature and to construct a meaningful, Japan-specific team teaching framework, the author carried out a study revealing current team teachers' assumptions and practices.

The NETWork Survey

Goals

The Communication Department in Tokai University's Research Institute of Educational Development (RIED) has developed an educational model supporting junior and senior high school JTEs to align their teaching assumptions with those of MEXT and current sociocultural perspectives. It has, more recently, expanded this model to encompass team taught classes; thus the "NETWork" component of RIED's teacher development programs. While many JET Programme and other team teachers are, by nature of their job description, relegated to "assistant" status, RIED has sought to redefine the ALT as the NET. As Rampton notes, "On its own, altering terminology does little to change this state of affairs, but by inserting or removing particular assumptions, alteration can clarify or usefully redirect our understanding" (1990, p. 98).

An early step in exploring team teaching beliefs and routines was the conception and distribution of the NETWork Survey. LoCastro advises that "Both insider (emic) and outsider (etic) perspectives are necessary and useful in order to generate a richer picture of a context" (1996, p. 57). Though numerous team taught classes had been observed, it was expected that a more complete emic perspective on team teaching would emerge from survey responses. While Sections 1 and 2 of the NETWork Survey addressed cross-cultural aspects of JTE and NET working and teaching situations, respectively, the scope of the current research is limited to data emerging from Section 3 (see Appendix 1). The goal of this section was to provide insights into the following research questions: To what extent does NET privilege and/or marginalization impact 1) school curricula and teaching systems, 2) team teaching roles and relationships, and 3) team teachers' ability to reflect critically on their roles and relationships?

Survey Administration

Three versions of the survey were sent to English department head teachers at 14 schools around the country. Survey 1 was completed by the head teachers themselves, Survey 2 was completed by JTEs currently team teaching with NETs, and Survey 3 was completed by their counterpart NETs. The questions included factual, yes/no, ranked, and open-ended questions. All respondents were asked to provide their names, but passed their completed surveys back to their head teachers in the sealed, unmarked envelopes provided. The head teachers then posted all collected surveys back to RIED.

Fifty-seven out of 104 JTEs, or 41% of the population, representing 13 out of the 14 schools surveyed, responded. Fourty-four were full-timers, and 12 were part-timers. Nine had taught with NETs for less than a year and ten had team taught for one or two years. At the other end of the spectrum, five had team taught for eight to ten years, while four had done so for over ten years. The largest group – 28 teachers – was in the middle range, having been engaged in team teaching for three to seven years.

Out of 41 NETs, 23, or 53% of the population, again representing 13 of the 14 schools, responded. Fourteen full-timers and nine part-timers completed and returned the survey. They had taught at their current schools for anywhere between one and 12 years. In addition, six reported having taught at Japanese elementary schools, 12 at other junior high schools, and nine at other high schools; three had been JET Programme participants.

Response Rates and Data Limitations

A variety of reasons may explain why more teachers did not respond. One factor was clearly a lack of time; long after the deadline, both JTEs and NETs were still emailing apologies about not having completed the survey. Some may not have understood the survey's purpose, or appreciated the relatively indirect benefits of completing it. Others may have felt that they were being asked to report on themselves and their teaching partners. As Gorsuch notes, JTEs sometimes feel "beleaguered by… shifts in educational policy, and may feel reluctant to answer questions about what activities and methodologies they prefer" (2002, p. 23) Additionally, all questions on both the NET and JTE Surveys were in English. This may have dissuaded some JTEs; Lamie (2000) notes a tendency for those lacking L2 competence not to complete questionnaires. Both JTE and NET responses included here are quoted verbatim.

Findings

Curricula and teaching systems.

A simple breakdown of the classes team taught by NET respondents speaks to the first research question explored in Section 3 of the NETWork Survey: To what extent does NET privilege and/or marginalization impact school curricula and teaching systems? The 23 NET respondents teach OCI and OCII to a total of 116 different groups of students. On the other hand, the combined total of team taught English I and English II classes amounts to only 17 groups of students. One NET responds, "I realize that the primary goal of English education in Japan is to prepare students for grammar-based entrance exams. But considering the government's objective for team teaching, it is shocking that nobody seems to care about OC classes." Another admits that "we NETs teach only OC. All other English classes are in the hands of the JTEs. To be honest, I've seen very little of these classes, so I really don't know what English skills the students are developing." One JTE confesses, "Sometimes I get confused about the purpose of teaching English. It seems to me the school administration thinks 'teaching English' and 'teaching English conversation' are different."

For a variety of reasons, many schools in Japan – and some entire municipalities and prefectures – do not currently offer OC or other English conversation subjects. All schools featured in the NETWork Survey, however, offer OCI and most offer OCII; both subjects are team taught at least once a week. The curricular and scheduling decisions made at each school's English departmental level, combined with the fact that 12 of the 14 schools use only MEXT-

approved OC textbooks, suggest that both Sakui's dichotomous curriculum and the simultaneous privileging and marginalizing of NETs as OC teachers are, to one degree or another, in place at all the schools surveyed.

Team teaching roles and relationships.

The data emerging from Section 3 of the NETWork Survey is particularly helpful in answering the second research question: To what extent does NET privilege and/or marginalization impact team teaching roles and relationships? Section 3 invited respondents to reflect and report on their team teaching with up to three different partners, completing one page for each partnership. Twenty roles and responsibilities were listed; for each, respondents were asked to estimate 1) how much total time the team spent on it, 2) what percentage was taken on by the JTE, and 3) what percentage was taken on by the NET. Roles and responsibilities assumed by neither the JTE nor the NET were to be left blank. Space was provided for teachers to share "other" roles and responsibilities. They were then asked to characterize their team teaching as either 1) JTE as instructor/NET as assistant, 2) JTE as assistant/NET as instructor, or 3) equal sharing of roles and responsibilities. Finally, respondents were invited to comment on each partnership. An important consideration in survey design was to avoid making implications about ideal working situations and/or team teaching practices (Salant & Dillman, 1994). An effort was made to keep the language neutral, and respondents were reassured in the cover letter accompanying the survey that respondents were not being measured against an "ideal" model of team teaching.

The autonomy offered respondents in estimating the total time a teaching team spends on a particular role or responsibility necessarily results in certain inconsistencies in the data. One teacher might report, for example, creating daily lesson plans for "30 minutes a week," while another might report "four hours a semester." In order to achieve consistency, all estimates were converted to hours per week. Still, the degree of subjectivity inherent in the process of categorizing these raw data renders it potentially misleading. On the other hand, the estimates of how JTEs and NETs shared each role and responsibility, stated by all respondents as percentages, provide much more objective data. The percentage of each role or responsibility assumed by NETs, as an average of all JTE and NET survey responses, is presented in Table 1, which illustrates combined averages for OCI and OCII classes, while combined averages for English I and English II are shown in Table 2.

Some data emerging from Tables 1 and 2 speak to the NET role as an authority on the language. NETs are expected to shoulder 42.5% more responsibility for checking the language in OC textbooks for naturalness than that in English textbooks, suggesting an assumption that NET expertise extends only to basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS), as described by Cummins (2002). Three NETs report having input in OC textbook choice, but none report being asked to weigh in on English I or II textbook options. Predictably, perhaps, NETs are primarily

Table 1. Average NET roles and responsibilities: OC I, OC II

Roles, responsibilities	Percentage
Creating worksheets and other materials	79.3
Creating daily teaching plans	75.4
Modeling pronunciation	75.0
Brainstorming activities to extend the textbook	66.8
Giving instructions for activities	65.5
Explaining English culture	64.0
Explaining authentic English	64.0
Creating the syllabus	60.3
Teaching vocabulary / idioms	60.1
Checking homework	59.2
Explaining class goals	55.6
Checking textbook for naturalness	50.6
Grading students	49.7
Modeling textbook conversations	48.7
Modeling a communicative relationship	46.8
Maintaining discipline	41.9
Teaching grammar / syntax	41.2
Counseling unsuccessful students	31.5
Arranging authentic social practice	25.1
Translating textbook contents into Japanese	13.3

Table 2. Average NET roles and responsibilities: English I, English II

Roles, responsibilities	Percentage
Explaining English culture	90.0
Explaining authentic English	85.6
Modeling pronunciation	78.1
Teaching vocabulary / idioms	61.3
Modeling a communicative relationship	53.1
Giving instructions for activities	27.5
Arranging authentic social practice	24.4
Modeling textbook conversations	22.5
Maintaining discipline	13.1
Checking homework	12.5
Teaching grammar / syntax	11.3
Brainstorming activities to extend the textbook	11.3
Creating worksheets and other materials	10.6
Counseling unsuccessful students	8.8
Checking textbook for naturalness	8.1
Creating daily teaching plans	7.5
Translating textbook contents into Japanese	5.6
Explaining class goals	5.0
Creating the syllabus	2.5
Grading students	0.7

responsible for modeling pronunciation and teaching vocabulary and idioms in both OC and English subjects. On the other hand, NETs have little responsibility for teaching grammar and syntax in either subject, though Shimaoka and Yashiro posit that "Since classroom activities require a combination of abilities and cannot be divided into distinct domains… both JTEs and AETs need to be involved in grammatical as well as oral-aural instruction" (1990, p. 30).

When it comes to explaining authentic English, NETs take on significantly more responsibility in English classes than in OC. This may be due to the more advanced language presented in English I and II textbooks. Translating textbook contents ranks low in both subjects. It is surprising that as much as 13.3% of this responsibility is estimated to fall to NETs team teaching OC classes, though this situation seems to undermine both JTE and NET roles in the classroom. One JTE complains that "Many NETs, I don't know where they learn it from, translate English words and phrases into Japanese for students rather than rephrasing them in English."

The NET as lesson planner and materials creator is also represented in the roles and responsibilities list. The data illustrate the dichotomy between NET roles in OC and English classes; with OC classes, NETs take well over half the responsibility for creating syllabi, daily teaching plans, and teaching materials, as well as for checking homework and grading students. On the other hand, they take almost no responsibility for these aspects of English I or II. Another significant difference is evident in brainstorming communication activities to extend textbook lessons; this is left almost entirely to the NET in OC, and to the JTE in English.

Time constraints seem to be the main obstacle to team teacher collaboration. In describing their working conditions in Section 2 of the survey, just 19 JTEs feel that they have sufficient time to plan with their NET partners, either during regularly scheduled meeting times or otherwise. Five report that they have just enough time to discuss the activity sequence of their lessons but not to discuss their individual roles, while 27 admit to a lack of time to discuss team taught classes at all. No JTE respondents express unwillingness to collaborate with NETs on plans and materials, but four NETs report that the lack of orientation and guidance when they started at their schools left them feeling isolated, if not marginalized. At times, this situation is ongoing; one experienced NET wishes that "more attention could be given to explaining traditional and current Japanese methods of instruction, assessment, and classroom management," while another complains that, "I teach all the first graders at my school and this group has many 'problems.' I am totally out of the loop on this and it affects the way I conduct my lessons."

When it comes to in-class collaboration, NET responsibilities reflect privilege within the OC sphere and parallel marginalization in four-skills subjects. According to Tables 1 and 2, just over half of all OC class goals are explained by NETs; on the other hand, English I and II class goals are almost always explained by JTEs. The trend is similar for giving instructions in class and counseling unsuccessful students; NET responsibility is much higher for OC than for English. Six NETs note the challenge of team teaching with different JTE partners, with one stating, "There are five different JTEs with whom I teach and they all seem to have a different idea about and approach to team teaching and their role in the classroom."

Maintaining discipline is thought to be primarily an NET responsibility in many OC classes, though several JTE anecdotes reveal that this can lead to cross-cultural

misunderstandings. One JTE expresses frustration at her “bad cop” role: “During the class, I tell my students off when they do bad things and so on, but my partner doesn’t. He just smiles.” Another worries that “He is very serious about maintaining discipline, and sometimes scolds students in English. As a result, they can’t enjoy classes.” A third JTE offers insights gained from an NET colleague: “They said they have a lot of stress to work here. Because in western countries, teachers have an authority over students, but students here think they are a kind of friend.”

The data also speak to NET roles in modeling communicative relationships. NETs bear slightly less than half of this responsibility in OC classes, but slightly more than half in English classes. Given that OC promotes BICS, while English I and II are meant to advance students’ cognitive academic learning proficiency (CALP) as described by Cummins (2002), this result seems counterintuitive. OC textbooks are dialog-centered, however, and the data suggest that NET responsibility for modeling textbook conversations, as opposed to modeling an authentic communicative relationship, is much higher in OC than in English classes. In contrast, English I and II textbooks feature few, if any, dialogs, and team teachers may find it necessary to support student understanding of the demanding topics introduced by discussing them in simplified terms for the students’ benefit.

The disparity between OC and English textbook contents may also underpin the fact that, according to the data, acting as a cultural informant is the top-ranked NET responsibility when team teaching English I and II. NETs are responsible for only 64% of explaining English culture in OC, where topics may be familiar enough that students do not require additional background knowledge. The reverse scenario, in which NETs arrange situations in which students experience authentic social practice, hovers at about 25% for both OC and English. Closely tied to “extending textbook lessons with communication activities” and “arranging authentic social practice,” the perspective in which students are the authorities on a particular topic and NETs, or another non-Japanese audience, are the learners, may not be commonly shared among the respondents. Both JTEs and NETs, however, seem to feel that carrying out this kind of activity is primarily a JTE responsibility.

NET roles identified by JTE and NET respondents in the open-ended “other (specify)” lines of Section 3 include JTE language coach, presentation and speech coach, writing coach, and dialog journal participant. Respondents also describe the NET as motivator and encourager, though this is sometimes perceived as taking place at the expense of JTE-student rapport. One JTE admits that, “When I go into the class with the NET, they look pleased and like to speak in English. When I go by myself, they look serious. The attitude toward me is that toward a Japanese teacher. Most students prefer the NET.”

The respondents were also asked to categorize each of their team teaching scenarios as either 1) NET as instructor, 2) JTE as instructor, or as 3) equal sharing of roles and responsibilities. Given the data, it is perhaps unsurprising that most OCI and II teachers describe the NET as teacher and the JTE as assistant (see Fig.1); one school even reports a policy by which OC classes are taught 70% by NETs and 30% by JTEs.

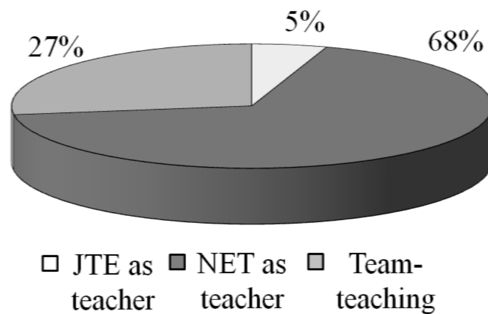

Figure 1. OCI and II scenarios

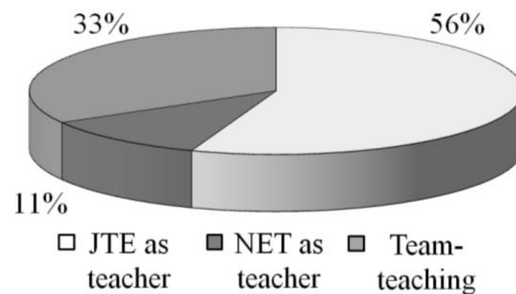

Figure 2. English I and II scenarios

In describing OC team teaching, one NET asserts that "Every relationship is different. One or two JTEs seem unsure of what to do with me or in my class. The best just let me teach." Another responds that "Her presence in class enables me to teach. She responds quickly and appropriately when I or a student needs help. Yet her presence is never distracting." A third NET evaluates his situation as sharing roles and responsibilities equally, but seems to reveal his own instructor status: "It still seems to be a 50/50 relationship. He just seems to know exactly what to do in class to support my goals." Twelve JTEs volunteer specific complaints about their assistant status. One reports, "He doesn't want me to help his students so I cannot stay so long in his classroom. He uses me when something bad comes up," while another shares, "I don't feel that we are actually team teaching. I feel that I'm either a translator or an observer." Similarly, two JTEs complain that, since they did not collaborate on the lesson design, they seldom understand the activities and are unable to support students.

The opposite scenario is revealed in many responses regarding team taught English I and II (see Fig.2). A few NETs report being treated "like a guest," one complaining that "I don't even know why I am in the classroom. I don't ever really speak at all or do any preparation for the classes." Another confides that, "If I was an ALT, I'd probably enjoy the class, but as an NET, I'm starving to teach more. To keep myself motivated, I think about… my other classes. I also learn Japanese, as the students and teacher translate the text." The perception that English I and II are "JTE territory" is borne out by Gorsuch's study; she concludes that "JTEs use English I or II courses to teach non-oral English skills for the purpose of preparing students for university exams" (2002, p. 19).

Reflection on roles and relationships.

Woods notes that stated behavior may be influenced by a respondent's belief system, which "deals not only with beliefs about the way things are, but also with the way things should be" (1996, p. 70). Similarly, Kennedy and Kennedy (1996) warn of the gap between teachers' stated beliefs and actual behaviors. This potential disparity complicates the third research question addressed by Section 3 of the NETWork Survey: To what extent does NET privilege and/or marginalization impact team teachers' ability to reflect on their roles and relationships?

Many respondents declare themselves satisfied with their team teaching status quo, one NET stating, "I have been working with the same people now for long enough that our roles and responsibilities are clear." Other comments reflect a certain comfort level with JTE-NET relationships that have never been discussed explicitly, for example, "My NET partner and I understand our roles and responsibilities, although we haven't had the opportunity to talk about this topic."

This stance, while seemingly self-contradictory, is understandable. Current team teaching culture is often rigid, featuring fixed textbooks, class designs, and teaching schedules. Some JTEs and NETs report inheriting routines from their partners' predecessors, while others admit that their patterns, established early in their relationships, quickly fossilized. Given the time constraints mentioned by so many respondents, it would be remarkable if team teachers were able to reflect together on the effectiveness of their planning and teaching practices. Due to the lack of effective pre- and in-service training reported by many respondents, the NETWork Survey itself provided their first opportunity to reflect on their team teaching. A lack of awareness about teachers' own educational assumptions and where they stem from may underpin some of the less reflective comments; some engaged in Scenario 3 team teaching conclude that, because the JTE and NET get along with each other and their students seem to enjoy the classes, their teaching situation is ideal. For some of these respondents, the survey itself may have validated these fossilized assumptions.

For others, however, the NETWork Survey seems to tap into a vague sense that something is missing in their team teaching, but that they don't know how to articulate their concerns or proceed. One JTE responds that "I am often confused because of the daily busywork, but this [questionnaire] gave me a chance to think about my work again. I could realize some points that I have to revise, and I believe this survey has helped me." While the open-ended responses do not generate specific, quantifiable data regarding the impact of the privilege/marginalization paradox on teachers' ability to reflect on their team teaching relationships, the NETWork Survey seems to have enabled some respondents to begin adopting a "reflective practitioner" stance (Schön, 1987).

Recommendations

Establishing a Team Teaching Framework

As strongly suggested by the data, team teachers need time to establish and maintain planning and teaching practices which clarify their relationships, while staying flexible enough to meet the various needs of their student population. Many respondents commented on the importance of their regularly-scheduled meetings, but felt that they needed still more time to reflect; administrators should consider ways to include more meeting time in team teachers' schedules. Moreover, increased opportunities for teacher development are vital. Lamie recognized that in-service courses are "needed to change teachers' attitudes and beliefs and give them the necessary tools to enable them to alter their classroom practice" (2000, p. 9), yet many NETs have little chance to engage in ongoing teacher development (Collins & Fine, 2008).

In planning and facilitating in-service teacher development (TD) programs, RIED has constructed a model for English education based on the notion of English as a mediating instrument enabling students to eventually succeed in today's global society (Suzuki & Collins, 2007). JTEs often bring traditional "English as knowledge" assumptions about learning and teaching with them to these TD programs, and expect to hear about ways to improve their solo taught classes. By overlooking the potential inherent in JTE-NET team taught classes, TD program participants often perpetuate the NS privilege/marginalization paradox.

Every teaching context is necessarily unique, and NETWork Survey respondents report working and teaching situations ranging from the exasperating to the rewarding. MEXT continues to support the practice of team teaching in its upcoming Course of Study (MEXT, 2009), and stakeholders can take fuller advantage of this resource by revisiting their own assumptions about NS and NSS strengths and roles.

Recommendations for Team Teachers

There are a number of ways team teachers can shift their practice from Scenarios 1 – 3, highlighted in both the literature and NETWork Survey responses above, toward a team teaching relationship necessitating JTE-NET team teaching. By clarifying their relationships, team teachers can promote meaningful, interactive situations in class which neither the JTE nor the NET could replicate in solo-teaching. In redefining their team teaching, both are empowered to move beyond a division of responsibilities and begin exploring the nature of the team teaching relationship itself.

Activity Theory (Engeström, 1987) provides a valuable framework within which team teachers can move away from a perception of English as a body of knowledge to be mastered through internalization (Hanks, 1991) and toward an understanding of English as a tool for communication. In other words, by viewing social practice as the desired outcome of English education, team teachers are better equipped to identify ways of extending textbook lessons with authentic communication activities. When the context of an activity is meaningful, clear roles

for the JTE, NET, and students, as well as for the language itself, emerge. With clear relationships in place, team teachers can facilitate student interaction, both within and outside the classroom community. When students see evidence that their thoughts and words have an impact on others, student motivation for participation in future activities, as well as for self-study, is enhanced (Suzuki & Collins, 2007).

If team teaching is to live up to its name, the teacher-assistant model must be replaced by a teacher-teacher one. Various clarified JTE-NET team teaching relationships have emerged from the literature, the NETWork Survey data, and the author's previous work with team teachers participating in RIED's TD programs.

JTE as empathizer, NET as intuitive knower.

JTEs may tend to take the "correctness" of MEXT-approved textbooks for granted. JTEs should not only consider the limitations which textbook writers and publishers face, but should also share this knowledge with NETs, who may be tempted to dismiss textbooks as overly grammar- and vocabulary-oriented. NETs, armed with this kind of awareness, can tap into the NS's intuitive knowledge of the language to critically evaluate textbook dialogs and reading passages for authenticity of genre, naturalness of discourse style, and appropriate usage. Additionally, NETs' intuitive knowledge of the language makes it easier for them to analyze a passage's genre and organization, as well as the writer's intent. Such an analysis can provide the framework upon which a communication goal extending the lesson can be set. They may also be better-equipped to search for and revise supplementary reading sources that appropriately recycle the contents and language of a textbook lesson.

Having been through the same educational system themselves, JTEs can empathize with student expectations of and attitudes toward textbooks and supplementary materials, and pass this understanding on to NETs. Moreover, JTEs have a deeper understanding of students' background cultural knowledge of textbook topics, as well as their facility with target linguistic items. JTEs can also ensure that supplementary reading materials are culturally sensitive and age-appropriate. By relying on each other's strengths during this early phase, both the JTE and NET stand to gain insight into the textbook's contents, their students' levels, and the language itself.

JTE and NET as full collaborators.

Truly collaborative teaching relationships are challenging to establish and maintain. McConnell warns that "cooperating on a lesson plan and its implementation requires a willingness to engage in the give-and-take of mutual criticism" (200, p. 211). Still, a thread of optimism runs through the literature, with Johnston and Madejski claiming, for example, that "the creative energies released when two minds collaborate on a joint project often far exceed

those that either of the participants would have been capable of when working alone" (1990, p. 2). To increase the chances of a positive outcome, MEXT (2002) advises JTEs to share their philosophy of and goals for teaching and NETs to share their ideas on teaching methods and materials.

Additionally, both the JTE and NET must be invited to contribute to syllabus and lesson design and materials creation whenever possible. Completing teaching timetables with two columns – one each for the JTE and NET – promotes closer collaboration, while clarifying the team's relationship during each activity. Two-column timetables often reveal instructor-assistant relationships. In situations where meaningful roles cannot be clarified for both teachers, it may be possible to team-teach only part of a lesson; Johnston and Madejski (1990) advise, "This is preferable to having an extraneous presence in the classroom for an extended period" (p. 7). Timetables can also indicate how much Japanese and English is spoken in class, at what times, and by whom.

JTE and NET as a model of communication.

MEXT (2002) recommends that team teachers model textbook conversations for students. While this practice is commonly carried out, it does not necessarily convey to students that the JTE and NET are engaged in – or are able to engage in – authentic communication in English. Tajino and Tajino (2000) suggest in their "Pattern A" that students observe team teachers interacting about a variety of topics. Benoit and Haugh argue that "Explicit discussion of what is to be done next in the classroom is extremely disruptive to the flow of the lesson and gives off the impression that you are ill prepared to teach the class" (2001, p. 6). JTE-NET interaction about activity goals and procedures has the potential, however, to increase the JTE's credibility with students as an effective communicator in the target language. Moreover, this type of interaction reduces teacher isolation in the classroom (Johnston and Madejski, 1990) by necessitating close JTE-NET collaboration in the planning stages. If both teachers have a clear understanding of the day's activity sequence, an impression that the team is unprepared can be avoided.

JTE as student supporter, NET as cultural informant.

Árva and Medgyes recognize that NETs can be "rich sources of cultural information, highbrow as well as lowbrow, about any topic around which the lesson [is] structured" (2000, p. 365). Browne and Evans claim, somewhat sweepingly, that "all are 'experts' on their own culture. Providing opportunities for students to learn firsthand about people from other countries and cultures seems to be a natural role for ALTs" (1994, p. 23). Additionally, respondents to a nationwide survey identified "informant on authentic English culture" as a key NET role (Mahoney, 2004). Garant lists specific topics, "for example: holiday theme, comparative

lifestyle discussions, and comparisons of different traditions" (1992, p. 27). While NETs may be qualified to share lesson-relevant anecdotes and information from outside the country, either in the lesson introduction or review phase, they can also offer culturally sensitive perspectives on the numerous Japan-specific topics featured in textbooks.

At these times, the JTE has an opportunity to adopt a stance of "near peer role model" (Murphey, 1995), or "co-learner of English" (Aline & Hosoda, 2006). Harada recalls that "when I asked my colleague as a representative of my Japanese foreign language learners, I entered the territory of solidarity with the students" (2008, p. 23). Additionally, MEXT points out that "The ALT can give firsthand data in the target language and the (JTE) can take care of difficulties stemming from the learners' cultural and linguistic background" (2002, p. 15). In addition to supporting NET-student interaction, the JTE can increase NET awareness of the students' background knowledge of the topic and their listening abilities.

JTE as mediator, NET as learner.

Many textbook topics present opportunities for students to share their own knowledge about Japan with NETs and other non-Japanese target audiences. In activities where students take on an "instructor" role, imparting Japan-specific information, the NET can adopt a learner stance, roughly corresponding to Tajino and Tajino's "Pattern B," in which students take the initiative to teach the NET (2000). Brogan (1994) points out that "The role of the teacher will shift… from instructor to modeler to resource to evaluator to monitor to motivator. Beyond these, one of the most critical roles of both teachers is that of learner" (p. 220).

Admittedly, the longer an NET has lived in Japan, the more potential there is for the learner stance to feel artificial. Cole (1993) points out that while some language teachers try to conceal their knowledge of the students' culture and first language, others persist in an "acknowledged pretense of inability" (p. 12). Arudou (2010) warns that this stance may reinforce a feeling of otherness between students and NETs by falsely setting them up as cultural ambassadors. Students need not be perceived, by themselves or others, as cultural experts, however. Moreover, if the activity is authentic and purposeful, and its context, roles, and behaviors clear, student motivation is likely to remain high (Suzuki & Collins, 2007).

In Tajino and Tajino's "Pattern E," the JTE, NET, and students comprise a multicultural community with its sights set on communicating with the world outside (2000). NETs may be in a better position than JTEs to realize this pattern, extending lessons communicatively by arranging interactions between students and non-Japanese members of the local community. At the same time, JTEs are more likely to understand protocol for initiating and maintaining student interaction with people outside the school.

The team teaching relationships suggested in this section are not exhaustive; JTEs and NETs will hopefully resist fossilization of their teaching practices and develop their own routines as they continue exploring what team teaching means to them and their students. Team

teachers must be able to act on their own initiative (Shimaoka & Yashiro, 1990), and though teaching behaviors may diverge, in part, due to differing proficiencies (Medgyes, 1999) and individual personalities (Tanabe, 2004), it is hoped that partners will have shared perceptions about JTE-NET relationships as well as each partner's strengths.

Recommendations for Other Stakeholders in Team Teaching

Ideally, textbook publishers and writers, currently at work on the new Junior 1 – 3 textbooks to be introduced in 2012 and the English Communication I – III to be introduced the following year, will consider ways for each lesson to be either solo or team taught in ways which clarify meaningful JTE and/or NET roles and relationships. Additionally, at the high school level, a degree of integration between English Communication and English Conversation textbooks, in terms of both contents and language, would promote a more unified image of the goals of English education and of the language itself.

Not including the optional English Conversation in the new curriculum would help resolve the conversational English-four skills dichotomy, and might improve the efficiency of students' learning. Where English Conversation has been included, it will be beneficial to find connections between the Conversation and Communication I – III textbooks. While identifying ways to introduce Conversation functions into Communication classes will likely be a challenge, Communication contents and language can be recycled in the Conversation class, resulting in a relatively integrated curriculum.

Administrators, including English head teachers, responsible for hiring NETs need to have what Gromik terms a "clear and coordinated vision of what they are seeking to achieve" (2005, p.9). To avoid some of the problematic situations reported in the NETWork Survey, this vision should involve more careful consideration of NETs' teaching qualifications and experience. At the very least, both JTEs and NETs should grasp, from the beginning, the rationale behind team teaching and how it is meaningfully integrated into the school's English program. Additionally, integrating NETs more fully into the department may motivate NETs to make longer-term commitments to the schools; Sandholtz (2000) points out that teacher's enjoyment in their work is linked to their sense of school community.

The shifts in perspective and practice offered here necessitate a degree of teacher autonomy which is far more attainable than many team teachers may realize. As one NET points out, "There are times when we disagree, but I think we've learned a lot from experimenting with the class. We continually talk about new ways of presenting and expanding the material to make it more valuable to the students." While taking control of one's own teaching can be a challenge, if stakeholders in secondary English education continue to revisit their assumptions about team teaching, there is hope that team teaching will eventually live up to its potential.

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Appendix 1: NETWork Survey Section 3

Team teaching Relationships

Team taught class: 1	
Partner's Name	

Roles and Responsibilities	**Total Time Spent**	**JTE %**	**NET %**
Creating the syllabus			
Creating daily teaching plans			
Checking textbook for naturalness			
Brainstorming activities to extend the textbook			
Creating worksheets and other materials			
Arranging authentic social practice			
Explaining class goals			
Giving instructions for activities			
Teaching vocabulary / idioms			
Teaching grammar / syntax			
Translating textbook contents into Japanese			
Modeling pronunciation			
Modeling textbook conversations			
Modeling a communicative relationship			
Explaining authentic English			
Explaining English culture			
Maintaining discipline			
Checking homework			
Counseling unsuccessful students			
Grading students			
Other (specify)			
Other (specify)			

Which statement best describes the above team teaching relationship? Check one box.

- [ ] The JTE is the main classroom instructor; the NET is the assistant.
- [ ] The NET is the main classroom instructor; the JTE is the assistant.
- [ ] The JTE and NET share their roles and responsibilities equally, or almost equally.

Feel free to comment on this team teaching relationship on page 7.