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The 22nd Annual Conference of the Japan-United States Teacher Education Consortium (JUSTEC) was convened at Tamagawa University, Tokyo, from July 22 to 25, 2010. A total of 67 participants from various universities in Japan and the United States attended the conference. The conference program included: school visits to Tamagawa Academy and two cram schools, paper presentations, forum and panel discussions, receptions, and the Taiko and dance performance by the students in the Performing Arts Department at Tamagawa University.

JUSTEC was established in 1987 in order to foster joint research efforts on teacher education in both countries. Throughout the years since its inception, JUSTEC has continued to hold annual gatherings of teacher education professionals in alternate locations in the U.S. and Japan.

JUSTEC 2010 was a special convocation, as it marked the beginning of a renewal for JUSTEC. It was supported by: the U.S. Embassy in Tokyo; the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT); the Japan Educational Administration Society; the Japanese Association for the Study of Educational Administration; the Japan Association for Emotional Education; and the Japan Society for the Studies on Educational Practices. In addition, the JUSTEC 2010 Forum held on July 25 was supported by: the Tokyo Metropolitan Board of Education, the Kanagawa Prefectural Board of Education, the Saitama Prefectural Board of Education, and five other City Boards of Education (Machida, Inagi, Kawasaki, Sagamihara, and Yokohama), recognizing the benefits of JUSTEC not only for scholars but also for practitioners.

We acknowledge the support and generosity given by Tamagawa University and express our gratitude to the JUSTEC Governing Board members for their work and to all the participants for making JUSTEC 2010 a success.

Sincerely,

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はじめに

2010 年 10 月

2010 年 7 月 22 日から 25 日の期間、第 22 回日米教員養成協議会（JUSTEC）の年次大会が、玉川大学（東京）で開催されました。プログラム参加者は、日米の様々な教員養成大学から 67 名が参加しました。JUSTEC 2010 のプログラムでは、玉川学園低学年(1-4 年生)と塾（日能研、城南予備校）の教育視察、研究発表、フォーラム、パネル・ディスカッション、懇親会、玉川大学芸術学部パフォーミング・アーツ学科の学生による和太鼓・舞踊の鑑賞などが盛り込まれております。

日米教員養成協議会（JUSTEC）は、1987 年に日米の教員養成・教師教育の共同研究を促進していくことを目的に設立されました。全米教員養成大学連盟（AACTE）の支援をいただいて、毎年、日米で交互に開催されています。

JUSTEC 2010 は、 JUSTEC 再生のスタートとして特別な大会と言えます。なぜならば、日米の教育に成果を還元できるということを評価していただき、アメリカ大使館、文部科学省、日本教育行政学会、日本教育経営学会、教育実践学会、日本感性教育学会からの後援をいただくことができました。更に、 7 月 25 日に開催した JUSTEC 2010 フォーラムは、教育研究者だけでなく、現職教員にとってもメリットが高いと認めていただき、東京都教育委員会、神奈川県教育委員会、埼玉県教育委員会、町田市教育委員会、稲城市教育委員会、川崎市教育委員会、相模原市教育委員会、横浜市教育委員会からも後援をいただくことができました。

JUSTEC の基幹大学として、玉川大学からの多大な支援とご協力に感謝するとともに、JUSTEC の理事、参加者、JUSTEC2010 の開催を支えてくださった皆様のご協力に心より感謝申し上げます。

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Table of Contents

Ⅶ Responses to Teaching Challenges

Preparing Teachers for the Challenges of Diversity

Keynote Address for the 22nd Annual JUSTEC Seminar

July 22-25, 2010

Marilyn Cochran-Smith

Cawthorne Professor of Education, Boston College

I am delighted to be here at Tamagawa University in Tokyo, and I am honored to be the keynote speaker for the 22nd Annual JUSTEC seminar on "Providing Educational Support for Students with Diverse Needs." I want to extend my personal and professional thanks to President Obara for welcoming me here and for the great interest and support he has shown regarding teacher preparation. As the President of Tamagawa University, his leadership in the area of teacher education is notable and very important. I also want to thank the many kind people who have hosted me these last few days and shown me the sights and the excitement of Kyoto and Tokyo, including Professor Yumiko Ono, Dr. Douglas Trelfa and Dr. Kazuhito Obara, son of President Obara and a graduate of my own institution, Boston College. We do indeed live in a global society.

As a scholar, practitioner, and researcher, much of my life's work has been about issues related to diversity, teaching, and teacher education, and so I am very pleased to speak about this topic.

I'd like to begin with a big picture perspective on this topic—really a global perspective about two major trends. In many nations throughout the world, there is increasing diversity in the school population as well as increasing recognition of the challenges posed by diversity (Banks, 2009b; Castles, 209; Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2006). For example, this map [SLIDE 1] shows the worldwide flow of migration. All of the green circles indicate areas where there are more people coming in than going out, while the pale orange circles indicate areas where there are more people going out than coming in. The larger the circle, the greater the number of people migrating. As you can see, in the U.S., there have been enormous increases in immigration over the last decade, bringing large numbers of students whose first language is not English into the public schools and as well as heightened awareness of diversity. In the U.S., this is added to a situation where inequities based on the marginalization of indigenous and formerly enslaved minorities have been emphasized since the Civil Rights movements of the 1960s and 1970s (Banks, 2009a).

However, even in countries that have long been considered homogeneous in language, ethnicity and culture, the situation has changed (Banks, 2009; Castles, 2009). In Japan, for example, as most of you know far better than I, the current trend is that there are more people coming in to the country than going out. This includes Japanese returnees as well as newcomers from African and South American countries (Hirasawa, 2009). Of course the number of immigrants to Japan is far smaller than the number of immigrants to the US or to some European countries, as we can see, but the trend is in the same direction. Globally, these new patterns of immigration have heightened awareness of the challenges posed by diversity and of the inequities in achievement and other school-related outcomes that persist between majority and minority groups in many nations (May, 2009).

At the same time that we have increased diversity in the school population in many nations around the world, there is another important global trend. There is now unprecedented emphasis on teacher quality in most nations around the world with extremely high expectations for teacher performance (Cochran-Smith, 2005; Furlong, Cochran-Smith & Brennan, 2009). Based on the assumption that education and the economy are tightly linked, it is now assumed in many countries that teachers can—and should—teach all students to world-class standards, serve as the linchpins in educational reform, and produce a well-qualified labor force to preserve or boost a nation's position in the global economy (Darling-Hammond, 2010; McKenzie & Santiago, 2005). This slide [SLIDE 2] shows just a few examples of the global emphasis on teacher quality. The details of these reports, meetings, conferences, academic papers, projects, and new initiatives are unimportant for the moment. The point is that all of these are on the topic of teacher quality, in: the US, China, Costa Rico, Finland, across the OECD countries, Australia, and the UK. In short, and globally, teachers have been identified as one of the major determinants, if not the key factor, in the quality of education, which in turn is tied to the economic health of nations (OECD, 2005).

My major point here is that in the first decade of the 21st century, these two trends have converged—heightened attention to the increasing diversity of the school population and unprecedented emphasis on teachers as the key factor in educational quality. The result is that in many nations around the world, teachers are now expected to play a major role in meeting the challenges of a diverse globalized society by ensuring that all school students have both rich learning opportunities and equitable learning outcomes (OECD, 2010). Thus the topic of this year's JUSTEC conference, "Providing Educational Support for Students with Diverse Needs," is particularly appropriate and well-chosen, even urgent, I believe, at both national and international levels.

In my keynote address today, I want to concentrate on one particular aspect of the conference topic, as reflected in the title of my talk, "Preparing Teachers for the Challenges of Diversity," which is a necessary precursor to the more general conference theme. In other words,

teacher preparation, which involves providing educational support for teachers about how to meet the needs of diverse learners, is a precursor to providing educational support for students with diverse needs. I will concentrate today on the US context, given my own expertise and experience over the last 30 years. I want to share with you how we think about issues of diversity in teacher education in the US, which is of course very different from the Japanese context in many ways. But I believe that some of our practices in the US may have implications for the consideration of diversity issues in Japan and elsewhere.

Some people have used the phrase, "the demographic imperative" (Banks, 1995: Dilworth, 1992) or the "demographic divide" (Gay & Howard, 2000) to describe the current U.S. educational context with regard to diversity. Let me give you a sense of what this means. As this graphic indicates [SLIDE 3], the racial and ethnic characteristics of the school population in the US have changed dramatically over the last several decades—from 78% white and 22 % students of color in 1972 to 58% white and 42% students of color in 2004. Here, "white" means primarily Americans whose ancestry is European, while "students of color" includes African Americans, Asians, Hispanics, and indigenous Native Americans. Demographers predict that by 2035, the majority of school students in the U.S. will be from these minority groups (Hodgkinson, 2002).

Another way to think of the diversity in US schools is in terms of the number of those whose first language is not English—often referred to in US schools as English language learners. As this slide shows [SLIDE 4], the number of ELLs increased from one and a half million to 5.3 million in just a 20 year period, with Asians and Hispanics today's fastest growing immigrant groups. Both this slide and the previous one show that there is a great deal of diversity in the US student population.

Now I want to make it very clear that diversity itself is not a problem. In fact, in teacher education, we do not see diversity as a problem or a deficit. Rather we value diversity as an asset in a pluralistic society and in a democracy, which I will say more about in a moment. But there are severe and important disparities related to diversity, which I'll go through quickly to give an overview. Commonly referred to as "the achievement gap," there are marked disparities among the achievement levels of student groups that differ from one another racially, culturally, linguistically, socioeconomically and geographically. As this slide shows, White and Asian Americans score significantly higher than their Black and Hispanic counterparts in reading [SLIDE 5] and in mathematics [SLIDE 6]. At the same time, there are significantly larger percentages of Black, Hispanic, and Native American adolescents who drop out of school [SLIDE 7]. This, then, is the "demographic imperative"—the urgent need to reduce the persistent association between

demographic diversity, on one hand, and disparities in school achievement and other outcomes, on the other hand.

Of course, it is critical to ask what explains this, although this is an extraordinarily complex question. Some of the explanation—in fact, a great deal of this--surely has to do with high poverty levels for many minority groups (Berliner, 2005) as this slides shows [SLIDE 8] and with the long and unfortunate history of racism in our country. I believe strongly, along with others in the US (Economic Policy Institute, 2008), that we will never solve the problem of the demographic divide unless we decrease poverty and racism and increase the social and economic resources of all students and their families. But this is a topic for a whole different lecture—many of them, in fact. What I want to concentrate on today is another aspect of the problem—the part of the problem that has to do with teachers, teaching, and teacher preparation.

In the US, there is a stark difference in the demographic profile of the student population and the demographic profile of teachers (Villegas & Lucas, 2004), as this slide shows [SLIDE9]. You recall from an earlier slide that the US student population has become increasingly diverse while, as this slide shows, the teacher population continues to be primarily white European American. Like the issue of diversity itself, the fact that teachers and students are different from one another demographically is not in and of itself a problem, but there are problems associated with this. There are marked differences in the biographies and experiences of many teachers who are White European American from middle-class backgrounds who speak only English, on the one hand, and the many students who are people of color, or who live in poverty, or speak a first language that is not English, on the other hand. Geneva Gay (1993), for example, has found that white monolingual teachers tend not to have the same cultural frames of reference and points of view as their students of color because they live in what she calls "different existential worlds." The result is that, unless they are specifically prepared to do otherwise and supported in trying to do otherwise, white teachers often have difficulty functioning as role models for students of color or acting as cultural brokers who help students bridge home-school differences (Goodwin, 2000).

We also know that, without specific support, majority teachers may have difficulty constructing curriculum, instruction, and assessments that are culturally responsive (Ladson-Billings, 1999). Perhaps most serious—unless they have powerful teacher education experiences that help them do otherwise and unless they have ongoing support, many White middle-class teachers understand diversity as a deficit to be overcome and tend to have lower expectations for many students who are different from themselves, especially those in urban areas (Irvine, 1990; Villegas & Lucas, 2001).

Let me add some detail to this statistical picture about the diversity challenges faced by new teachers. Along with colleagues at Boston College, I have been studying how people learn to teach over time, beginning with systematic examination of their experience in the teacher education program and then continuing into their early years of teaching (Cochran-Smith, Shakman, et al, 2009: Cochran-Smith, Gleeson & Mitchell, 2010; McQuillan, D'Souza, et al, 2009).

Here is the situation of one teacher in our study—Elizabeth Mason. Her name has been changed here (and this is simply a generic photo), but all of the details of her situation are true. Elizabeth is a white European American young woman who, herself, attended well-resourced suburban schools with a primarily white population. During her first year as a high school English teacher, she taught four different courses per day with 25-30 different students in each. The student population was 94% African American or Hispanic, 62% of whom were low income, 35% spoke English as a second language, and 18% had limited English proficiency. The school provided little data about students' backgrounds or language abilities. Multiple times during the year, new students arrived in class with no accompanying information regarding their academic strengths and weaknesses, learning disabilities, or English language mastery. Once, toward the end of the school year, a new student arrived from an African country, and Elizabeth realized after a brief conversation that he struggled greatly with spoken English and had even more limited writing abilities. She realized he would need considerable assistance in every area, yet she also thought about the fact that she had more than 100 other students who also needed support.

Here's a second teacher from our study, Sylvie Lee. Sylvie is a Chinese American woman and a native speaker of Mandarin. Her first teaching job was in an urban elementary school in the heart of Boston's Chinatown district. 70% of the students in her school did not speak English as their primary language at home and 50% of all students were identified as not proficient in English. 11% of the school population was African-American, and another 11 % was Hispanic. 82% of the students lived at or below the poverty level, with many immigrant parents working in low paying restaurant positions. 17% percent of the students had been identified as having learning disabilities. Sylvie's language skills were essential in working with the many students coming directly from mainland China with no English experience, but her students' language backgrounds also included Cantonese, Japanese (from Argentina), and Korean. Some of the children in her classes had just arrived in the country, while others still struggled with literacy skills after several years as residents.

And here is one more teacher from our study—Frank Webb, a white male who taught English in a public charter school in Boston. Frank's school was 72% low income, with 93% students of color, 36% ELLs, and another 13% identified as limited English proficiency.

My intention here with both the statistics about the demographics of US schools and the details of the teaching settings of three first year teachers is to make the point that in teacher education in the US, we face considerable challenges in providing the educational support teacher candidates need to provide the educational support diverse learners need, challenges that are quite different from those in Japan. And in the US, we certainly have not fully succeeded in these efforts. In fact, we have very very far to go, as you could see by the most recent statistics.

We are working on preparing teachers for diversity in a number of different ways, and we have identified some effective strategies that help address diversity issues. For the remainder of my time today I want to talk about six components of teacher preparation for diversity, including [SLIDE 10]:

- Values, frameworks, mission statements and standards focused on diversity
- Coursework about diversity, culture, race, and language
- Guided community experiences
- Well-supervised clinical experiences in diverse schools
- Recruitment of a diverse pool of teacher candidates
- Research focused on diversity issues in teacher preparation practice and policy

I want to describe each of these and mention a key example for each.

First, let me talk about the importance of shared values, conceptual frameworks, mission statements, and professional standards regarding diversity, equality, and equity, which are developed and implemented by national professional organizations and creditors, state-level departments of education, and, individual higher education institutions and programs. These make a clear statement about what matters and what is valued. AACTE, a JUSTEC partner, had a great deal of influence in this area. In the 1970s, it established the first Commission on Multicultural Education and issued a statement titled, "No One Model America," which included these words (Baptiste & Baptiste, 1980):

> Multicultural education recognizes cultural diversity as a fact of life in American society, and it affirms that this cultural diversity is a valuable resource that should be preserved and extended.

The full AACTE statement made 3 key assertions: (1) that diversity is a valuable resource; (2) that this resource ought to be preserved and extended rather than merely tolerated or made to "melt away"; and, (3) a commitment to diversity and to cultural pluralism ought to permeate all aspects of teacher preparation (Baptiste & Baptiste, 1980). By 1981 NCATE, the national accreditor for teacher preparation, required that institutions seeking accreditation show evidence that they

provided all teachers with knowledge and skills related to multicultural education (Gollnick, 1992).

Since that time, there have been many other statements reinforcing the commitment of professional teacher education organizations and accreditors to preparing teachers for diversity and valuing diversity as an asset, not a deficit. [There is a long and complicated history here, and the current emphasis of some state policies does seem to reflect a deficit view. I cannot detail this right now (c.f., Cochran-Smith & Fries, in press).] My major point, however, is that values that are shared by the profession and made explicit in major statements and standards are important components of teacher preparation for diversity.

This applies at the local institutional level as well. The most effective TP programs are highly coherent in terms of values related to diversity across coursework, fieldwork, and other learning opportunities. In an analysis of research related to effective preparation of teachers for multicultural classrooms, Christine Sleeter (2008) concluded that programs with the most internal coherence also had the strongest impact on the development of teachers' beliefs and practices.

Let me share a local example here. At Boston College, we have for many years had as our over-arching theme for the preparation of teachers the idea of learning to teach for social justice, which emphasizes that all educators are responsible for challenging inequities and working with others to establish a more just society. As part of that larger goal, we have four explicit themes, several of which specifically addresses diversity, like this one:

> We believe that one of the central challenges of teaching is meeting the needs of all learners, especially as the school population becomes more diverse in race, culture, ethnicity, language background, and ability/disability.

This theme is stated on all of our course syllabi, in all of our program materials, on our website, and in our literature. Our focus is to try to help teacher candidates understand diversity as an asset and to teach them how to build on students' cultural, linguistic, and experiential resources in the classroom. Of course, stating that something is important does not actually make it important in practice. But we have had extensive faculty discussions about the meaning of our goals, and we have been constructing learning to teach for social justice as an outcome of teacher education using a variety of new assessment tools.

Let me turn now to the second component of teacher preparation for diversity, and that is coursework that prepares teachers to work effectively with diverse populations. One of the most important things we have learned about teacher education for diversity in the US is that these issues cannot simply be lumped together into one course, such as "the diversity course" while the rest of the courses are left intact. Rather issues of diversity must be integrated and infused

throughout all coursework, including courses about teaching mathematics and biology (Zeichner, 1993). This also means that addressing issues of diversity must be the responsibility of every teacher educator, not simply those designated as experts in this area (Villegas & Lucas, 2001).

There are a number of key ideas we want teachers to learn in coursework. First—and perhaps foremost—teachers need to learn that diversity is an asset, not a deficit. Historically in the US diversity has been constructed from a deficit perspective about the education of minority students, particularly African Americans and Hispanics. Gloria Ladson-Billings (1999) has called this the "perversity of diversity" (p. 216) where White is normative and diversity is equated with disadvantage and deficiency. For many prospective teachers who are white and who are relatively privileged members of society, it is difficult not to see diversity as a deficit (Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Part of what coursework has to do, then, is to interrupt the deficit perspectives that many teacher candidates bring with them.

This is related to the second idea we want teachers to learn in coursework, which is to rethink and challenge the assumptions, which are often taken for granted about the American educational system, but which do not support the educational needs of diverse students. One key assumption to be challenged in courses is meritocracy, or the idea that success in school is based solely on merit (Sleeter, 1995), which subtly reinforces the idea that failure for certain individuals or groups is "normal" (Goodwin, 2001). Another key assumption to be challenged is the notion of "color blindness," or the idea that racism and other forms of oppression based on differences are old problems that have been solved (Gay & Howard, 2000). This is especially important now that we have a black president in the US. It's easy for some people to assume that we now live in a "color-blind" society. This is clearly not the case, but teachers need coursework that helps them understand.

A third assumption to be challenged in coursework is that a major purpose of schooling is assimilating all students into the mainstream (Grant & Wieczorek, 2000; Weiner, 1993). As you remember from the language of AACTE's statement, our goal in teacher preparation for diversity is to foster pluralism, not simply assimilation. Of course we want all school students to learn English, to be well prepared for higher education and meaningful work, and to feel a sense of identity as participants in American society. But we also want them to maintain their own cultural, language, and ethnic identities. Challenging dominant assumptions requires transformative learning experiences to interrupt common ideas about merit, oppression, and assimilation (Jenks, Lee, & Kanpol, 2001; Sleeter, 1995).

One of the most important things to be learned in coursework about diversity is knowledge and information about culture itself. In a text for prospective teachers, for example, Etta Hollins (1996) points out that "culture is the medium for cognitive learning for all human beings, not just

ethnic minorities and low income children" (p. 71). This means that teachers need to have complex understandings of the deep meaning of culture, the impact of culture on learning and schooling, the ways schools and classrooms function as "cultures," and the role of culture in patterns of socialization, interaction, and communication. Another very important part of what teachers learn in coursework is "cultural conscious" (Gay & Howard, 2000; Villegas & Lucas, 2002)—that is, thinking of themselves as cultural beings at the same time they learn positive attitudes toward students with different cultural backgrounds. A concrete example here—in many programs, teacher candidates are required as part of their coursework to write a "cultural autobiography" in which they examine their own backgrounds; for some candidates, this means realizing, for the first time, that they are not simply "regular" while others are diverse or cultural, but that they are instead, the product of particular socialization processes that are cultural and social. Finally teachers need to learn in coursework how to be self-reflective—to take an inquiry stance (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999, 2009) on teaching and to have self-knowledge about teaching and learning.

Of course, none of this matters unless teachers know how to act on cultural knowledge—and self knowledge—to work effectively with diverse learners. The 3rd and 4th components of teacher preparation for diversity have to do with action. The third component of teacher preparation for diversity is guided experiences in diverse, cross-cultural communities. The key word here is "guided"—in that it is critical that these community experiences are well-planned, thoughtfully carried out, and well-scaffolded in terms of teachers' learning (Melnick & Zeichner, 1996; Sleeter, 2008).

So what do we want teacher candidates to learn from community experiences, especially when these are different from their own experiences? We want them to learn in action and in concrete ways what it really means to say that diversity is an asset, not a deficit—by learning about the values, knowledge traditions, strengths, priorities and contributions of diverse communities. This may happen by working over time—at least a semester, perhaps a year or more—as a tutor with a family literacy project, a volunteer in a school program for homeless children, a church- or community-sponsored project to provide aid to communities, or a soup kitchen for unemployed families (Cochran-smith & Fries, 2005; Sleeter, 2008). This might also occur through the process of what are called "cultural immersion" experiences (Sleeter, 2008). These might be, for example, semester-long work in a school or community center on an American Indian reservation, or, for teacher candidates whose preparation program is located in a suburban or small town areas, this might be a semester's work in an urban school, or an experience living and creating educational enrichment programs in a Mexican American community. Some teacher preparation programs for diversity also require teacher candidates to conduct ethnographic studies in urban communities and schools to enhance their understandings about culture, attitudes, and expectations.

Cross-cultural community based learning experiences are intended to help teachers learn about a community that is culturally different their own by spending guided time there. The "guided" part means that they are equipped with learning strategies in advance, and with guidance about what to observe and how to interpret what they see and experience. The quality and extent of the learning depends on the quality and extent of reflection and reading that are connected to the community experience, the duration and quality of the experience itself, and the facilitation and support preservice teachers have as they make sense of the experiences.

Let me provide a more detailed example. As part of the Ohio State University's teacher education program, Barbara Seidl and her colleagues (Seidl & Friend, 2002) worked with members of a local African American church to build a cross-cultural community experience that would enhance the learning of teacher candidates but also contribute to the work of the church. Through a long process of developing of mutual trust and reciprocity, they created what they called an "equal-status, community-based" internship for teacher candidates. Candidates worked 2-3 hours a week alongside others in various programs run by the African American church—an elementary school program, an extended care program providing homework and tutorial support as well as recreation and enrichment for community children, and an after school program supporting academic and social support for young African American men from a local school. In each case, the teacher candidates were encouraged to observe, listen, and learn from the knowledge traditions and priorities of the community as well as support the children and adults within the program. Members of the church community and the OSU TP faculty met regularly with the teacher candidates to help mediate the experience and guide the work. The community internship was closely connected to coursework and fieldwork in the Ohio State program, which takes me to the next component.

The fourth component of teacher preparation for diversity is well-supervised, well-supported clinical experiences in diverse schools that are closely linked to coursework and other learning opportunities. The emphasis in these clinical experiences is on helping teacher candidates support the educational needs of diverse learners by engaging directly in practice and learning from practice. There are a number of key aspects of practice that teachers need to learn through well-supervised and well-supported clinical experiences. First, is that teachers develop and apply interpretive perspectives about what happens in schools and classrooms (Cochran-Smith, 1999, 2000). The assumption here is that practice is not simply what teachers *do* in classrooms, which can be prescribed and assessed independent of local communities and cultures and independent of the specific needs of diverse learners. Rather practice also involves how teachers think about their work and interpret what is going on in specific schools and classrooms; how they understand competing agendas, pose questions, and make decisions.

Of critical importance is that teachers develop cultural competence (Gay, 1993; Goodwin, 2000; Villegas & Lucas, 2001; Zeichner, 1993). This means establishing and maintaining caring relationships with diverse students that support their learning. This also means learning to work appropriately, respectfully, and effectively with colleagues, families, communities and social groups. At the heart of all of this is that teachers work from high expectations for all students, including those who speak languages different from the majority, those whose ethnic or cultural backgrounds different from those of the teacher of from dominant groups, and those who have special needs. This can only happen in classroom environments that are well managed and respectful of all students so that culturally responsive and appropriate curriculum, pedagogy and assessment can be provided. Responsive curriculum and pedagogy draw on and build from the cultural, linguistic and experiential resources that students bring to school with them. Responsive assessment is formative, embedded in instruction, and learning-centered.

Finally teachers need to learn specific practices for working with diverse students. For English language learners, who are sometimes recent immigrants and sometimes students who have been in schools for several years, this means ensuring that they gain language skills and also learn rich academic content (Lucas & Grinberg, 2008). For students with special needs, this means ensuring that they have access to the general curriculum through differentiated instruction and other specific strategies.

Let me give one example of this kind of clinical experience. At Boston College, our teacher candidates gain clinical experiences in the diverse school settings of the Boston area. The Boston Public Schools serve more than 56,000 students. Of these students, 38% are English language learners, many of whose families are recent immigrants to the US. These students come from 40 different countries. Their home languages include Spanish, Chinese, Cape Verdean Creole, Haitian Creole, and Vietnamese, among others. In our program, we provide clinical experiences that focus extensively on preparing all teachers to work with English language learners. Over an extended period of time, for example, teacher candidates at the primary level learn how to read aloud to ELLs, beginning with one child, including how to select appropriate books, engage in vocabulary instruction, and model comprehension strategies. Secondary level teacher candidates learn how to assess the language demands of their content areas, develop language objectives for every lesson, and provide opportunities for students to develop English literacy at the same time they learn subject matter knowledge. Both primary and secondary teacher candidates engage in research and reflection about their developing practices and receive specific feedback from supervisors about their practice.

Let me turn now to the 5th component of teacher education for diversity in the US, and I'm going to keep this one rather brief in the interest of time. This has to do with the recruitment and selection of a diverse pool of teacher candidates and then drawing on their experiential and cultural

resources for working with diverse populations. The intention here is to increase the overall diversity of the teacher workforce so that diverse students have role models in the classroom as well as teachers who have high-level learning expectations for them and who are effective in terms of their educational achievement (Villegas & Lucas, 2004). This happens through a variety of traditional programs specifically aimed at recruiting teachers for urban schools or other high needs and also through special teacher preparation programs that recruit teachers from non-traditional pools, such as teacher aides or assistants, minority college graduates seeking a career change, and non-certified teachers. This approach has been a particularly effective way both to increase the diversity of the teaching force and to provide fully-qualified teachers for high-need areas (Clewell & Villegas, 2001; Villegas, et. al., 1995).

Second is the importance of recruiting a diversified teacher work force with high expectations for students and attributes that make them likely to succeed in diverse settings. For example, we know that those who enter teaching with experience in diverse settings and communities tend to be more successful— and stay longer—in diverse schools. We also know that there is some evidence that teachers of color tend to have higher expectations for students of color and are more able to connect with them in terms of life experiences and cultural worlds (Irvine, 1990). One specific example here—for many years, Marty Haberman's (Haberman & Post, 1998) teacher preparation program in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, has prepared teachers for low income schools. He screens teacher candidates on the basis of the attributes of persistence, the extent to which they value student learning, the ability to survive in a bureaucracy, and fallibility, which refers to how they deal with mistakes because he has found that these are the attributes that are most important in working with this diverse population.

Finally, in recruiting and selecting a more diversified group of teacher candidates, it is important to draw on their cultural, experiential and linguistic resources of diverse teacher candidates (Villegas & Davis, 2008). Otherwise they are much more likely to drop out of programs and never make it into the teaching force because they may feel alienated in programs primarily intended to serve the needs of white teacher candidates. My point here is that although this is complicated, there are many important reasons why teacher preparation programs and pathways in the US work hard to diversify the teacher work force for the diverse student population.

The final component of teacher preparation for diversity relates to the fact that there has been a wealth of research in the US and elsewhere related to teacher education for diversity. I am going to just mention this research very quickly here in three different areas, all of which inform the effective preparation of teachers for diversity. A substantial amount of research in the US has conceptualized and theorized learning to teach for diversity, contributing some of the concepts and theories I've mentioned throughout this talk and others, such as cultural competence, cultural consciousness, culturally relevant or responsive pedagogy, asset-based rather than deficit-based

perspectives on diversity, and teacher education for social justice. These are important concepts that guide this important work.

There has also been a large amount of empirical research (both quantitative and qualitative, but also using mixed methods) that has empirically investigated aspects of learning to teach for diversity over time and in multiple settings (Cochran-smith, Davis & Fries, 2004; Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Lucas & Grinberg, 2008; Sleeter, 2008; Villegas & Davis, 2008). In particular, this research has focused on teacher candidates' expectations, beliefs, dispositions, knowledge, attitudes, practices, performance, and career trajectories. Much of this research has found that when teacher candidates take coursework or engage in fieldwork related to diversity, there is short term changes in their attitudes and perspectives, often including more complex understandings of cultural and other differences. But this research has also indicated that it is much more difficult to maintain these new perspectives in the press of everyday school life. Understanding the difficulties involved in the transition from teacher preparation to the first years of teaching can help guide changes in programs.

And finally, there have been some policy analyses regarding the preparation of teachers is relation to equity and diversity issues, such as policies regarding the preparation of teachers for bilingual learners. There is much that could be said about the research on diversity issues, but no time for this today.

In the last part of my address today, I want to draw on one final example of a new teacher. You remember the diversity challenges I outlined for Elizabeth Mason, Frank Webb and Sylvie Lee. Now I want to introduce Lola Werner, another one of the new teachers we have been studying for the last 5 years (Cochran-Smith, McQuillan, et al, 2010). Lola Werner is a white European American middle class woman. She completed the one year master's level teacher preparation program at BC and has now taught for four years as a middle school science teacher in urban charter schools in Boston and Washington, DC.

Lola has taught in several different schools during her first four years of teaching, but they all had similar demographic profiles. In her first year, for example, Lola taught in a combined primary-middle urban school that served students from kindergarten through the 8th grade. Lola taught in the upper end of the grades—7th and 8th grade, which would normally be middle school in the US. 72% of the students in her school were low income.70 % were African American or Latino. 14% had special needs. But for 7th and 8th grade, where Lola taught, the demographic profile was different. Many students left the school just prior to 7th grade to attend higher status exam schools in the city. To keep school enrollment up, students who sometimes had lesser academic credentials were accepted. As a 7th and 8th grade teacher, Lola's students were 89% African American or Latino and for some of them, this was termed a "last resort" school because they had had already

had major difficulties at other schools.

I want to give you a little detail about Lola's early years as a teacher to illustrate what it means for a new teacher to try to teach in a way that supports the educational needs of diverse learners and reflects several of the components of teacher preparation for diversity, which I have just been discussing. But let me be clear here. I am not suggesting that Lola is the perfect teacher, although she graduated from a highly selective liberal arts college with high academic credentials. And I am not suggesting that Boston College offers the perfect teacher preparation program, although it is highly selective and committed to both social justice and teaching for diversity.

I want to repeat what I said at the beginning of my talk--in the US, where we face multiple, enormous, and complex challenges related to supporting the needs of diverse students, we do not have this all figured out. But the glimpse that I want to offer you here today of Lola Werner's experience as a new teacher gives a sense of how she tried to enact many of the key ideas I have been highlighting today and also gives a sense of the struggles and challenges involved.

Lola Werner, a white middle-class teacher in her 20's, came to the BC teacher preparation program largely because of her own values related to working with diverse students and promoting social justice in teaching. In particular, she was committed to improving the lives of young urban, low-income students of color. She had been inspired by what she had read about schools that achieved success for diverse groups despite the many challenges they faced. Her own values matched well the values in the mission statement of the program and the standards it set for itself.

Lola had entered college with advanced placement credits from high school. She attended a selective undergraduate college, majored in geology, and worked for three years in environmental consulting before she decided she wanted to teach. Her content knowledge was strong and her own academic achievement outstanding. Lola entered the teacher preparation program with high academic expectations for herself as a teacher and for her students. In fact, she was drawn to teaching in particular because she believed in high expectations for all students, including the increasingly diverse student population in urban schools. This theme was woven throughout Lola's experience of learning to teach. However, when she began the teacher preparation program, having high expectations for all students was really just an idea, related to her conception of the role of the teacher and her belief in teaching for social justice. Over time, she struggled with the idea of expectations, and although she never lost sight of her belief, she struggled to adapt this idea to the various contexts in which she taught. Over time and working in different schools, she came to see that holding high expectations for students was not a simple platitude but was instead, an ongoing and essential struggle and a quest.

Lola worked hard to draw on the cultural, experiential and linguistic resources the students

brought to school by focusing on the language requirements of the academic content she taught and including relevant cultural references in her lessons. But she also struggled over time as she realized more about her own cultural biography and the assumptions she made about students, their families and their neighborhoods.

Supported by her program's emphasis on inquiry as stance, Lola employed many inquiry strategies to improve her pedagogy and assessment. When many of her students once failed a science test she had given, for example, she carefully avoided blaming them. Instead she studied their test responses to evaluate what content was causing confusion. She then gathered more resources from the local science museum, re-taught the material, embedded formative assessments in the lessons, and attempted to teach the students in new ways. Resourcefulness and a persevering spirit characterized Lola's approach to teaching. When she did not succeed in teaching content, she first looked to the students to understand what they needed, and then sought additional resources to provide new ways to understand. In this sense, an inquiry stance—in which the teacher uses the data of classroom work to inquire critically about practice—was quite compatible with the high expectations Lola brought to teaching.

In addition to high expectations and focusing on rigorous content, Lola believed that building relationships was an essential part of supporting diverse learners. She was often found in the classroom before school or at lunchtime, helping students with their work rather than idly chatting. But she spent a lot of time with students in non-academic settings. In her first year, she attended an after school program with several of her students, and during the summer after her first year, she led a group of students on a trip to Costa Rica. These activities allowed Lola to build strong relationships with her students and get to know them as individuals. Lola also recognized the importance of other relationships that would sustain her in teaching. Having come from a family of educators, Lola had grown up hearing about schools and teaching at the dinner table. Perhaps as a result, she was acutely aware of the importance of collegiality and strong leadership. She took every advantage of the mentoring she received during the preparation program and during her first teaching year. This helped sustain her work in urban teaching.

As of this moment, Lola has now completed four full years of teaching following her one year teacher preparation program. She has taught in three different schools, voluntarily moving from one school to another because she was seeking a place where her values, high expectations, and focus on diversity as an asset, not a deficit matched with the mission of the school. As of this moment, Lola has found a home as a teacher, but the challenges of supporting the educational needs of diverse learners continue.

I'd like to close with the words of a teacher who was interviewed as part of a study of experienced teachers in Boston carried out by my colleague, Sonia Nieto (2001). She wanted to

know what kept teachers going in challenging schools, what motivated them to continue struggling with the challenges. When she asked the experienced teachers to think about what they would tell new teachers coming to teach at their school, one teacher said this:

> I think I'd say, thank you for coming. Every day, 'Thank you! Thank you!' Thank you for coming into the Schools. You really could be doing other things and make so much more money and have much better working conditions. But one thing I said when [my student teacher] was talking about how all the student teachers, once they came in here, they're like 'I don't have a life anymore! I don't have a life.' And I said, 'You know something? This is a life!'
>
> 'You come in, you grow, you learn, it's never the same, it's always different.'
>
> 'You heal, you help, you love. What's wrong with that? Is that a life or is that a life?'

This, I think, is the greatest challenge of preparing and supporting teachers so they can support the educational needs of diverse learners—educating teachers who are willing and able to heal, help, and love at the same time that they meet high standards, provide access to the curriculum for all students, and work with others to change the world.

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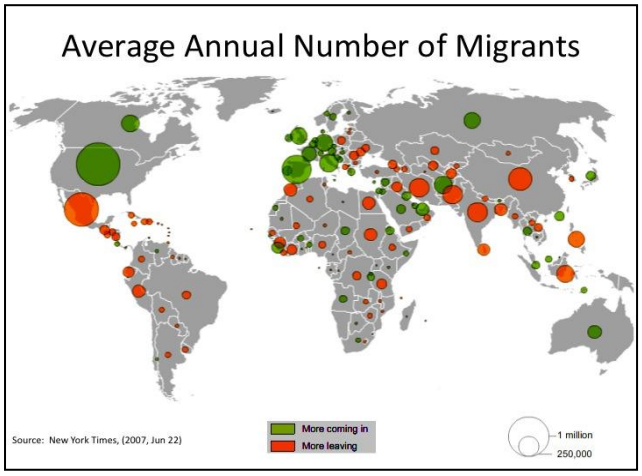

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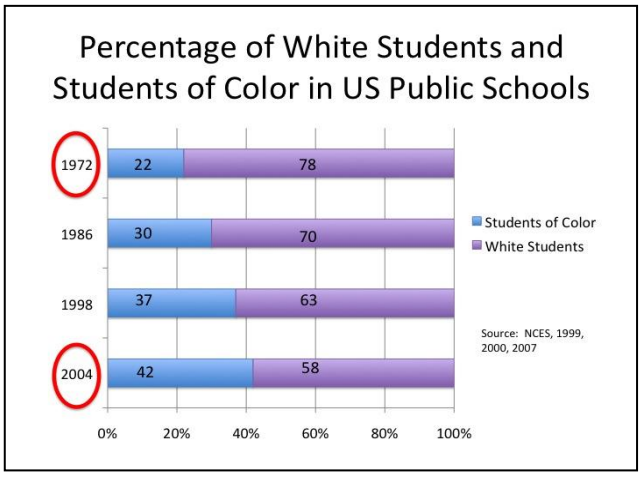

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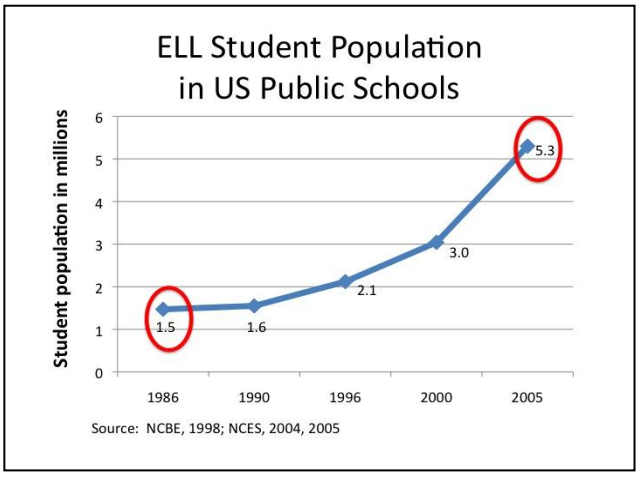

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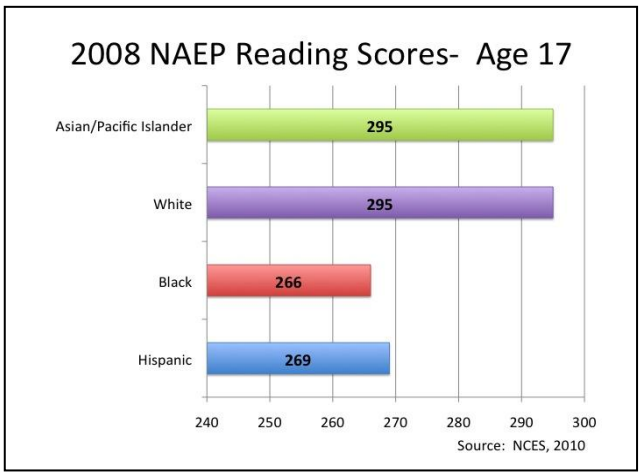

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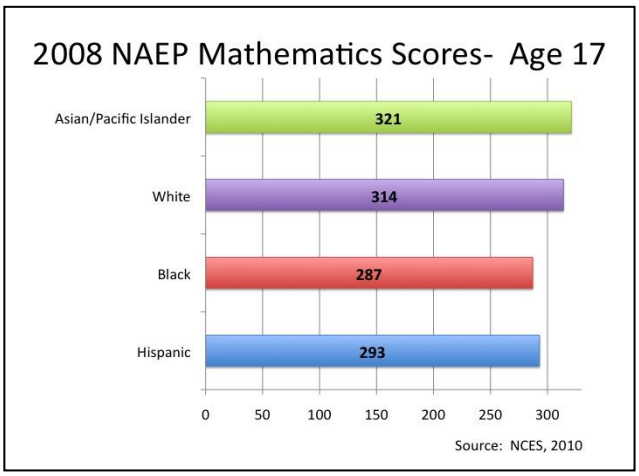

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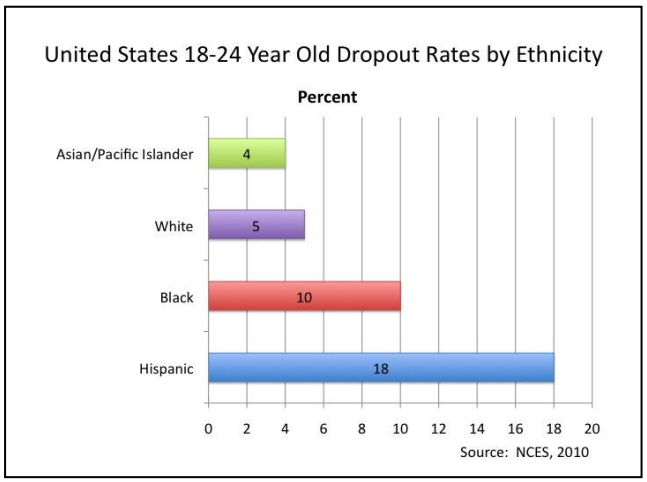

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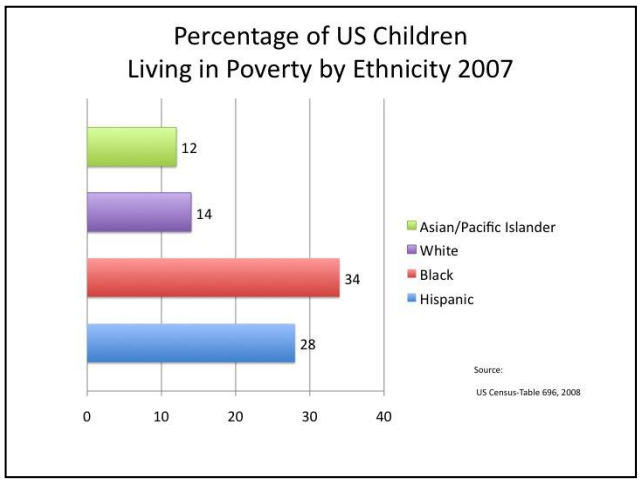

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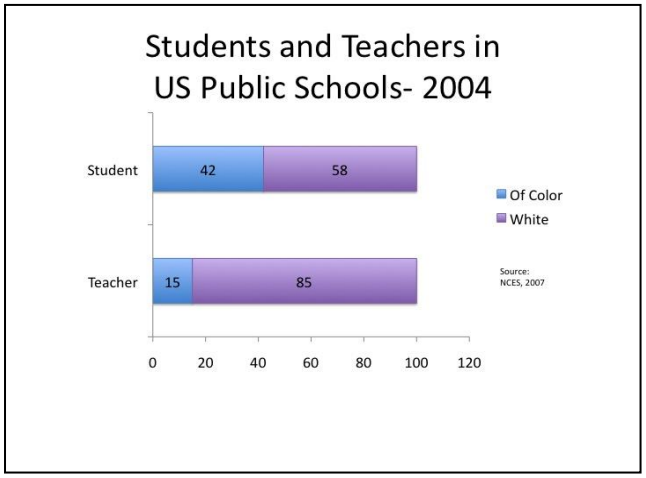

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多様性の課題にこたえる教員養成

マリリン・コクランスミス（ボストン・カレッジ）

本日は、東京の玉川大学にお招きいただき、誠にありがとうございます。この度は、「多様なニーズをもった子どもたちのための支援教育」というテーマのもとに開催された第 22 回日米教員養成協議会（JUSTEC）年次セミナーの基調講演をおおせつかり、大変光栄に存じます。学長の小原先生には、このような機会をいただき、また教員養成に対するご尽力とご支援におきましても、公私にわたり感謝申し上げたいと思います。玉川大学の学長として、教師教育という分野において、小原学長先生は特筆すべき力強いリーダーシップを発揮されております。また、この数日間にわたり、私を温かく迎え入れてくださった多くの方々に、そして、京都や東京の素晴らしさをご紹介くださった、小野由美子教授、ダグラス・トレルファ博士、そして小原学長のご子息で、私が教えているボストン・カレッジの卒業生でもある、小原一仁博士に感謝申し上げたいと思います。私達は、本当にグローバルな世の中に生きていると思います。

私は、学術、教育実践、研究にたずさわる者としてこれまで、多様性、教職、教員養成にかかわる様々な課題をライフワークとして参りましたので、本日、まさにこのテーマでお話できることを大変嬉しく思っています。

そこでまず、このテーマについての全体像、つまり、2 つの傾向についてグローバルな視点から始めたいと思います。世界中の多くの国々で、児童生徒の多様化が進んでおり、その多様性によってもたらされる課題についても、はっきりと認識されるようになってきております(Banks, 2009b; Castles, 209; Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2006)。例えば、この地図[スライド 1]は、世界的な移民の動きを示していますが、グリーンの円はどれも、人口の流出よりも流入のほうが上回っている地域を表し、うすいオレンジの円は、流入より流出のほうが多い地域を表しています。円が大きければ、人口移動が多くなっていること示しています。そこでアメリカ合衆国を見てみますと、過去 10 年では、このように移民（米国に入国する移民）が非常に増えていることがわかります。つまり英語を第一言語としない児童生徒が、大量に公教育の現場に入ってきており、この多様性についての人々の意識も高まっているのです。アメリカ合衆国では、先住民や奴隷として扱われていたマイノリティに対する社会的排斥による不公正の問題が、1960 年代、1970 年代の「公民権運動」以降に強調されるようになってきた状況に加わります（Banks, 2009a)。

しかし、言語、民族、文化の面で長い間、同質と考えられてきた国々であっても、状況は変わってきています（Banks, 2009; Castles, 2009)。例えば、日本では、もちろん皆さんのほうがはるかにお詳しいでしょうが、現状では、日本から移民として出ていく人々よりも、日本に移民として入ってくる人々の方が多くなっています。これには帰国者のほかに、アフリカや南米諸国からのニューカマーと呼ばれ

る人々が含まれています（Hirasawa, 2009）。もちろん、ご覧のように、日本への移民の数は、アメリカ合衆国やヨーロッパの国々と比べれば、はるかに少ないですが、似たような傾向が見られます。このように、世界中で、新たな移民の傾向によって、多様性のもたらす課題と多くの国でマジョリティ（社会の主流派の人々）グループとマイノリティ（社会の少数派の人々）グループとの間に根強く残っている、学業成績やその他の学校に関係する成果に見られる不公平に、関心が向けられるようになってきているのです（May, 2009）。

世界中の多くの国で児童生徒の多様化が進むと同時に、もう一つ、重要な世界的な傾向があります。それは、世界中のほとんどの国において、教員の資質がこれまでになく重視され、教員としての実践力に非常に大きな期待がかけられてきているということです（Cochran-Smith, 2005; Furlong, Cochran-Smith & Brennan, 2009）。教育と経済が密接に関係しているという前提のもと、いまや多くの国で、教員が全ての児童生徒を世界に通用するレベルにまで教育し、教育改革の要となって、世界経済における自国の地位を維持・向上させるような優れた労働力を創出できる、あるいはそうすべきあると考えられるようになってきているのです（Darling-Hammond, 2010; McKenzie & Santiago, 2005）。このスライド[スライド 2]は、教員の資質を重視するという世界的傾向の例として、ごく一部を紹介したものです。このようなレポート、会合、会議、学術論文、プロジェクト、新たな構想など、いろいろありますが、細かな内容はここでは取り上げません。要は、これら全てが教員の資質というテーマを扱ったものだということなのです。アメリカでも、中国でも、コスタリカ、フィンランド、OECD 諸国、オーストラリア、そして英国でも、要するに世界中で、最重要ではないにしても、教員が教育の質を決定する大きな要因であり、教育の質が国の経済発展につながるのだと認識されるようになってきているのです（OECD, 2005）。

私が特に申し上げておきたいのは、児童生徒の多様化に目が向けられるようになったこと、そして教育の質を左右する最も重要な要因として教員が見直されてきているという、この 2 つの傾向が、この 21 世紀の最初の 10 年間で収束してきているということなのです。その結果、今世界中で、多様化したグローバル社会の課題にこたえる上で、全ての児童生徒に豊かな学習機会を与え、公正な学習成果を享受できるように、教員が大きな役割を果たすことが期待されているのです。ですから、本年の JUSTEC 会議で掲げられているテーマ「多様なニーズをもった子どもたちのための支援教育」は、国レベルでも国際レベルでも、極めて適切で的を得ているとともに、喫緊のテーマであると言えます。

本日の基調講演では、タイトルにもなっている通り、「多様性の課題にこたえる教員養成」という、本年の会議の全体テーマの一側面に着目してみたいと思います。これは包括的なテーマへの準備として必要なものと思います。つまり、多様な学習者のニーズにいかにこたえるかということについて、教師に教育的支援を提供する教員養成が、多様なニーズをもった生徒に教育支援を提供する上での前提になるということです。本日は、私の専門分野と過去 30 年の経験をもとに、アメリカの状況に絞ってお話をさせていただきます。アメリカでは、多様性という課題を、教師教育において、どのようにとらえているかについて、皆様と共に考えて参りたいと思います。もちろん、アメリカの状況は、日本とは様々な面で異なっているでしょうが、アメリカでの実践が、日本や他の国においても、多様性を考える上で参考になることを示してくれると思います。

多様性という面で、現在のアメリカの教育状況を説明するために、「demographic imperative」（就学人口の社会経済的・文化的・言語的変化の現実を考慮することこそ急務である）(Banks, 1995; Dilworth, 1992)、あるいは「demographic divide」（人種、収入、教育レベル、就業状況、居住地域などにおける格差）（Gay & Howard, 2000）といった表現を使う方もいます。その意味するところをご説明しましょう。この図[スライド 3]に示されているように、アメリカでは、民族・人種面から見た児童生徒数の特徴が、ここ数十年で大きく変化してきています。1972 年には 78%が白人、22%が有色人種であったものが、2004 年には白人が 58%、有色人種が 42%になっています。ここで言う「白人」とは主に、祖先がヨーロッパ移民であったアメリカ人、「有色人種」とは、アフリカ系アメリカ人、アジア系アメリカ人、ヒスパニック系アメリカ人、そして先住民族系アメリカ人の児童生徒を表しています。人口統計によれば、アメリカの就学児童生徒の過半数が、2035 年までに、このようなマイノリティの出身者で占められるようになるとされています（Hodgkinson, 2002)。

アメリカの学校における多様性を考える際に、英語を第一言語としない人、アメリカの学校における英語学習者(ELL)の数で捉えるという考え方もあります。このスライド[スライド 4]にありますように、ELL の数はわずか 20 年間で、150 万人から 530 万人に増大し、移民グループの中では、アジア系とヒスパニック系の増加が現在特に著しくなっています。このスライドと前のスライドから、アメリカの児童生徒が非常に多様化していることがおわかりになると思います。

ここで、はっきりと申し上げておきたいのは、多様性そのものは問題ではないということです。実際に、教員養成の現場でも、多様性を問題や欠陥とはとらえておりません。むしろ、多元的社会や民主主義の一つの資産として評価しております。この点については、後ほど詳しく述べさせていただきたいと思います。しかし、多様性に関連して、大きな格差が厳然として存在することもまた事実です。これについては、その概要を手短にご説明いたします。一般には「学力格差」と言われていますが、人種的、文化的、言語的、社会経済的、そして地理的に異なったグループの児童生徒には、きわめて顕著な学力格差が見られます。このスライドにありますように、読解[スライド 5]と数学[スライド 6]では、白人系とアジア系の成績が、黒人系やヒスパニック系よりも格段に高いです。それと同時に、ドロップアウトの割合を見ますと、黒人系、ヒスパニック系、先住民族系がきわめて高い割合を占めています[スライド 7]。これが「demographic imperative」と言われるものであり、就学人口の多様性（社会経済的・文化・言語的）と学業その他の成果との間に厳然と存在する関係を断ち切っていくことが急務と言えます。

もちろん、これは非常に複雑な問題ではありますが、これをどのように説明するかがきわめて重要となります。この問題のかなりの部分が、このスライド[スライド 8]にもあるように、マイノリティ・グループにおける深刻な貧困に関係しています（Berliner, 2005)。それと同時に、アメリカの長年にわたる不幸な人種差別の歴史も関係しています。私は、アメリカで私と考えを同じくする方々と同様に（Economic Policy Institute, 2008)、この「demographic divide」（人種、収入、教育レベル、就業状況、居住地域などにおける格差）という問題は、私たちが貧困と人種差別をなくし、全ての児童生徒とその家族の社会経済的資源を豊にしていくことなくして、決して解決することはできないと確信しております。しかし、これについて話し出すと、全く別の講演になってしまいますので、本日は、この問

題の別の側面、教員、教職、教員養成にかかわる部分に絞ってお話ししたいと思います。

アメリカ合衆国では、このスライド[スライド 9]にありますように、児童生徒と教員の人口統計上の特徴には、著しい違いが見られます（Villegas & Lucas, 2004)。先ほど、アメリカの児童生徒の多様性が拡大していることを示すスライドをお見せしましたが、このスライドでは、教員のほうは、白人のヨーロッパ系アメリカ人が優勢を占めている状況に変わりがないことがわかります。多様性と同様に、教員と児童生徒が、人口統計上異なっているという事実自体は、何ら問題ではありません。しかし、これに関連して、問題が生じてくるのです。ヨーロッパの白人移民系が多数を占め、中流階級出身の英語しか話さない教員と、英語以外を第一言語とする、有色人種系の貧しい児童生徒との間には、経歴や経験に大きな違いが存在します。例えば、Geneva Gay（1993）によれば、白人系の単一言語しか話さない教員は、担当する有色人種系の児童生徒とは、「異なった経験世界」に住んでいるため、同じ判断基準や考え方を持たない傾向があるといいます。白人系教員は、そのようにならないように（白人系の視点から物事を判断していかないように）しっかりと準備し、支援を受けなければ、有色人種系の児童生徒の手本として、あるいは、児童生徒が家庭と学校との違いを乗り越えるために、文化的仲介者としての役割を果たすことが難しくなるのです（Goodwin, 2000)。

さらに、具体的な支援がなければ、ほとんどの教員は、文化的違いに配慮したカリキュラム、教授法、評価方法を構築するのが難しいこともわかっています（Ladson-Billings, 1999)。そして一番深刻な問題は、白人系中流階級の教員は、しっかりとした教員養成の経験を通して、異なった視点を得た上で、継続的な支援が得られない限り、多様性を克服すべき欠陥と見なし、自分と異なる多くの児童生徒に対して、特に都市部では、期待レベルが低くなる傾向が見られます(Irvine, 1990; Villegas & Lucas, 2001)。

新人教員が直面する、この多様性のもたらす課題について、統計的な側面を補足する内容をご紹介しようと思います。私は、ボストン・カレッジの同僚と共に、人はどのようにして徐々に教職について学んでいくのかということについて、教員養成プログラムにおける経験の体系的な検証から、教員としての最初の数年間にわたる間の研究を続けています（Cochran-Smith, Shakman, et al, 2009; Cochran-Smith, Gleeson & Mitchell, 2010; McQuillan, D’Souza, et al, 2009)。

私たちが研究の対象とした教員の一人、Elizabeth Mason の例を見てみましょう。これは本名ではありませんが（この写真も一般的なものに変えています)、個々の事実は本人自身のものを使っています。Elizabeth は、ヨーロッパ系白人アメリカ人女性で、白人中心の富裕な郊外の学校に通っていました。ハイスクールの英語教師として教職についた初年度は、1 クラス 25 人から 30 人の生徒を対象として 1 日 4 クラスの授業を担当しました。生徒の 94%はアフリカ系アメリカ人またはヒスパニック系アメリカ人で、そのうちの 62%が低所得層、35%が英語を第 2 言語とし、18%が英語能力に問題がありました。学校からは、生徒の情報や言語能力について、ほとんどデータを提供されませんでした。年間、何人もの新しい生徒が編入しますが、学力面での長所や短所、学習障害、英語力についての情報が与えられたことはありませんでした。学年末に、アフリカのある国から新しい生徒が転校して来ました。Elizabeth は、その生徒との短い会話を通して、その生徒は、英語での会話が難しく、書き言葉は会話以上に困難であることがわかりました。その生徒は、あらゆる面で多くの支援を必要としていましたが、その生徒

以外にも支援を必要としている生徒が 100 人以上いるという事実も思い出されたのです。

私たちが研究した 2 人目は、Sylvie Lee という中国系女性教員で、北京語を母語としています。初めて受けもったのは、ボストンのチャイナタウン地区の中心に位置する都市型の小学校でした。その学校では 70%の児童が家庭で第一言語として英語を話しておらず、全児童の 50%が英語力不足と判定されていました。全児童の 11%がアフリカ系アメリカ人、11%がヒスパニック系アメリカ人で、82%が法定貧困レベル以下の生活を送っていました。移民として入国した両親の多くは、賃金の低いレストランで働いているという状況で、児童の 17%は学習能力障害があるとされていました。Sylvie の言語スキルは、英語にまったく触れずに中国本土から直接来た多くの児童に教える上で、なくてはならないものでしたが、担当する児童の使う言語には、広東語、日本語（アルゼンチン出身者)、韓国語も含まれていました。アメリカにやってきたばかりの児童もいれば、何年も生活しても読み書き能力に問題を抱えている児童もいました。

研究対象の 3 人目は、Frank Webb という白人男性教員で、ボストン市内の公立チャーター・スクールで英語を担当しました。その学校では、72%が低所得層、93%が有色人種、36%が ELL（英語学習者)、13%が英語能力に問題をかかえていることが確認されました。

ただいま、アメリカの学校における人口統計資料と、3 人の新人教員の教授環境について、詳しくご紹介しましたが、ここで私が特に指摘しておきたいのは、アメリカの教員養成教育において、多様な児童生徒が必要とする教育支援を提供するために、教員志願者に必要な教育支援を提供する上で、私たちが大きな課題に直面しているということです。このような課題は、日本における課題とは大きく異なったものです。そして、アメリカでは、そのような努力が十分に実を結んでいるとは言えない状況と言えます。実際に、最近の多くの統計からも明らかなように、道のりはまだまだ遠いと言わざるを得ません。

多様性に対応した教員養成ということに関して、私たちは様々な方法で取り組んでおり、この多様性の課題に対処する効果的な戦略があることもわかってきました。本日は残り時間を使って、次のような[スライド 10]、多様性に対応した教員養成の 6 つの要素について、ご紹介したいと思います。

・多様性に焦点を当てた、価値、概念的枠組み、使命記述書（ミッションステートメント)、基準
・多様性、文化、人種、言語についてのコースワーク（教員養成の授業)
・指導を伴ったコミュニティ経験
・指導者によるしっかりとした指導を伴った上での多様な学校における臨床的経験
・多様な教員志願者達の中からの募集
・教員養成の実践と方針における多様性のもたらす課題に焦点を当てた研究

それでは、それぞれについて、例を交えて説明させていただきます。

まず、多様性、平等性、公正性に関して、価値観の共有、考え方の枠組み、使命記述書（ミッションステートメント)、専門家としての基準を明確にすることの重要性についてご説明いたします。これら

は、全国レベルの教職関連組織や認定団体、州レベルの教育部局、各種高等教育機関やプログラムによって策定・実施されるものです。これらによって、本当に大切なもの、本当に価値のあるものとは何かが明らかにされます。JUSTEC のパートナーでもある AACTE（American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education：アメリカ教員養成大学連盟）は、この分野で大きな影響力を発揮して参りました。1970 年代には、AACTE によって初めて「Commission on Multicultural Education（多文化教育委員会）」が設立され、「No One Model America（アメリカに単一モデルはありえない）」という題の発表がありました。そこには次のように記されていました（Baptiste & Baptiste, 1980）。

> 多文化教育では、文化の多様性をアメリカ社会の事実として見なし、文化の多様性を貴重な資産として守り・発展させていくべきものと確信する。

この AACTE の公式発表では、次の 3 つの重要な主張がなされています。(1) 多様性は価値ある資産である、(2) この資産は、単に許容されたり、「同化」して消えていくものでもなく、維持・発展させていくべきものである、(3) 多様性や文化的多元主義に深く関わっていく姿勢は、教員養成のあらゆる面に浸透していかなければならないものである（Baptiste & Baptiste, 1980）。1981 年までには、教員養成の全国的な認定機関である NCATE（National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education：全米教師教育資格認定審議会）は、認定を受けようとする教育機関に、多文化教育に関する知識やスキルを全ての教員に提供したことを具体的に示すことを定めました（Gollnick, 1992）。

それ以来、多様性に対応した教員養成を実践し、多様性を欠陥としてではなく資産としてとらえようとする取り組みを支援するために、専門の教員養成機関や認定機関は様々な発表を出しています。[これについては長く複雑な歴史があって、一部の州の昨今の政策を見ると、欠陥として捉える見方が反映されているように思われる面もありますが、ここでは深入りしません（Cochran-Smith & Fries 記事参照）。] ここで私が特に申し上げたいのは、専門家の間で共有され、主要な発表や基準の中で明記されている価値観が、多様性に対応した教員養成課程の重要な要素になっているという点です。

これは地域の学校や教育機関のレベルにおいても当てはまることです。非常に効果的な教員養成プログラムでは、教員養成の授業、フィールドワーク、その他の学習機会にわたって、多様性に関する価値観が一貫しています。Christine Sleeter（2008）は、多文化クラスのための効果的教員養成に関する分析の中で、内部整合性の高いプログラムほど、教員の信条や実践力を高める上で、大きな影響力を発揮すると結論づけています。

ここで身近な例を一つご紹介しましょう。ボストン・カレッジでは、長年にわたり、教員養成の包括的なテーマとして、社会正義についていかに教えるかという課題を掲げています。これは、教育者というものは、不平等に反対するとともに、他者と協力してより公正な社会を構築するよう努力する責任があると主張するものです。この大きな目標のために、私たちは 4 つの具体的テーマを掲げています。それらの中には、以下のように、多様性について具体的に明記したものもあります。

> 教育の中心的課題の一つは、全ての学習者のニーズにこたえることであると確信し

ている。それは、人種、文化、民族、言語的な背景、能力/障害において、児童生徒がますます多様化しているからである。

このテーマは、ボストン・カレッジの全ての授業シラバス、プログラム関連文献、ホームページや本学資料などにおいても明記されています。私達は、教員志願者が多様性を資産として理解できるよう支援し、いかにしてクラスの児童生徒の文化的、言語的、その他経験に基づく様々な資産を土台としていくかを教えることに焦点をあてています。もちろん何かを重要だと口で言っても、実際に重要なものになるとは限りません。しかし、私達は、そのような目標について教授陣全体で何度も話し合いを重ね、様々な新しい評価ツールを用いて、教員養成の一つの成果として、社会正義に向けた教員の学習内容を構築して参りました。

それでは、多様性に対応した教員養成の２つ目の要素、教員が多様な児童生徒に効果的に対応できるようになるための、教員養成の授業について見て参りましょう。アメリカにおける多様性に対する教員養成の過程で明らかになっている最も重要な事柄の一つに、多様性の課題は単に一つのコース（授業)、「多様性コース」といったものに単純にまとめてあげて、他のコースはそのままにしておいて済む、ということではないということです。多様性の課題は、数学教授法や生物教授法といったコースも含めて、全ての教員養成の授業にわたって統合され浸透していなければなりません（Zeichner, 1993)。つまり、この分野の専門家として認められた人達だけに任せるのではなく、教員養成に関わる教育者一人一人の責任において、多様性の課題に取り組んでいかなくてはいけないのです（Villegas & Lucas, 2001)。

教員養成の授業を通して、教員に身に付けてもらいたい大切なことがいくつかあります。まず、最も重要なことは、教員は、多様性を欠陥としてではなく、資産として捉える必要があるということです。アメリカでは歴史的に、この多様性について、特にアフリカ系やヒスパニック系のマイノリティの児童生徒に対する教育で欠陥として捉えられてきました。Gloria Ladson-Billings（1999）はこれを、「多様性の倒錯」（p.216）と呼んでおり、「白人」が基準であり、多様性は不利あるいは欠陥に等しいとする考え方だとしています。白人で比較的恵まれた環境に育った教員志願者の多くが、多様性を欠陥として考えないようにするのは、難しいことです（Villegas & Lucas, 2002)。多くの教員志願者がそれまでの人生で培ってきた、この欠陥とする観点を断ち切ることが教員養成の授業で達成すべきことの中に含まれていなければなりません。

このことは、教員養成の授業で教員に身に付けてもらいたい２つ目のことにつながっていきます。つまり、アメリカの教育システムでは当然と考えられていることでも、多様な児童生徒の教育ニーズを支援するものではない思い込みに対し、再考し挑戦していくということです。教員養成の授業に関して問題とすべき大きな思い込みの一つに、成果主義、つまり学校での成功は成績によってのみ判断する考え方です（Sleeter, 1955)。これは、一部の個人やグループの不成功を、「普通」と捉える見方を暗に奨励することになります（Goodwin, 2001)。もう一つの思い込みとして、「肌の色の違いが認識できない」という考え方で、人種差別や違いに基づくその他の抑圧は、すでに解決された過去の問題であるという考え方です（Gay & Howard, 2000)。これは、アメリカ合衆国で黒人の大統領が出てきたということからも、特に重要です。私たちはすでに「肌の色の違いが認識できない」社会に生活しているのだと安易

に考える人々もいるかもしれませんが、現実にはそうではないということは明らかです。教員には、そのことについて理解を深められる教員養成の授業が必要なのです。

教員養成の授業において、異議を唱えるべき3つ目の思い込みは、学校の大きな目的は、全ての児童生徒をメインストリーム（社会の主流の人々）に同化させることにあるというものです（Grant & Wieczorek, 2000）。AACTE（全米教員養成大学連盟）の声明を先程ご紹介したように、多様性に対応した教員養成で私たちが目指すところは、単なる同化ではなく、多元的な考え方を促すことにあります。もちろん私達は、全ての児童生徒が英語を学習でき、高等教育を受けられ、そして意義のある職業に付くことができ、アメリカ社会の一員としての自覚を高めてもらいたいと願っています。しかし、同時に、自らの文化的、言語的、民族的なアイデンティティを見失わないで欲しいと考えています。広く根付いた思い込みに異議を唱えるには、成果や抑圧、同化に対する一般的な通念を打破するような、変革をもたらす学習経験が必要です（Jenks, Lee, & Kanpol, 2001; Sleeter, 1995）。

多様性に関する教員養成の授業で学ぶべき、最も重要な事柄の一つに、文化そのものについての知識や情報があります。例えば、Etta Hollins（1996）は、教員志願者のためのテキストの中で、「文化とは、民族的マイノリティや低所得層の子どもたちだけでなく、全ての人類にとって、認知学習の媒介となるものである(p.71)」と指摘しています。これは言い換えれば、教師は、文化の意味を深く理解して、文化が学習や学校生活に及ぼす影響や、学校やクラスが「文化」としてどのように機能するか、社会性、相互作用、コミュニケーションの様々なパターンにおいて文化がどのような役割を果たすかを十分に理解する必要があるということです。教師が教員養成の授業で学ぶべきもう一つのきわめて重要な側面として、「文化的意識」（Gay & Howard, 2000; Villegas & Lucas, 2002）があります。これは、異なった文化的背景をもつ児童生徒に対して肯定的な態度を身に付けると同時に、自分自身も文化的な存在であると認識することを意味します。具体的に申し上げれば、多くのプログラムにおいて、教員志願者は、自らの教員養成の授業の一部として、「文化的自叙伝」を書くように求められます。その中で、自らの生い立ちについて検証することになるのです。そして教員志願者によっては、自分が「普通」で他の者が多様で文化的な存在だという単純な観点ではなく、自分自身も、文化や社会に根付いた、特定の社会的プロセスの産物であるということに、初めて気づくことになるのです。そして、教員は、探求する姿勢（Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999, 2009）を持って、教育実践や学びについての自らの知識を客観的に振り返ることを学ばなくてはいけません。

もちろん、このようなことは、多様な学習者に効果的に対応するために、文化的知識や自己の知識に対してどのように行動するかを教員自身がわかっていなければ、まったく意味のないことになってしまいます。多様性に向けた教員養成の3つ目と4つ目の要素は、行動にかかわるものです。多様性のための教員養成の3つ目の要素は、多様な多文化コミュニティにおける、指導を伴った経験です。ここでは「指導を伴った」ということがキーワードになります。つまり、そのようなコミュニティ経験は、教員の学習においては、綿密に計画され、慎重に実施され、周到に準備されたものでなければならないのです（Melnick & Zeichner, 1996; Sleeter, 2008）。

では、教員志願者達に、コミュニティ体験、特にその体験がそれまでの自らの経験からかけ離れたも

のである場合に、何を学んでもらいたいと期待しているのでしょうか。私達は、多様なコミュニティが有する価値観、知識伝統、長所、優先順位、貢献について学ぶことで、多様性が欠陥ではなく資産であることを学んで欲しいのです。そして、多様性が資産であるということをが本当に何を意味するのか、実践を通じて具体的に身に付けてもらいたいと願っています。これは、時間をかけて、少なくとも１学期、あるいは１年以上かけて、家族読み書きプロジェクトの個人指導の指導者として、あるいはホームレスの子どものための学校プログラム、教会やコミュニティによるコミュニティ支援プロジェクト、あるいは失業家庭のための給食施設でのボランティアとして働くことによって、学んでいくことかもしれません（Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2005; Sleeter 2008)。または、「文化イマージョン（異文化にどっぷりと浸かる)」体験（Sleeter, 2008）という過程で起こることかもしれません。これは、例えば、アメリカ先住民居留地の学校やコミュニティ・センターで、１学期にわたっての体験学習かもしれません。または、郊外や地方都市で準備プログラムを受ける教員志願者であれば、都市部の学校で１学期にわたって学習を行なったり、メキシコ系コミュニティに住んで教育拡充プログラムの作成に携わる経験かもしれません。また多様性に対応した教員養成プログラムとして、文化、態度、期待について自らの理解を深めるために、都市部のコミュニティや学校で、民族学的な研究を教員志願者に行なわせる場合もあります。

多文化コミュニティをベースとした学習体験は、そのような現場で指導を伴った経験を通じて、教員が自分とは異なった文化コミュニティについて学ぶために支援することを意図しています。この「指導を伴った」とは、あらかじめ学習戦略を用意した上で、何を観察するのか、自ら見て経験したものをどのように解釈するのかについての指導を受けた上で行なうということを意味しています。そのような学習の質と範囲は、コミュニティ体験に関係して、どの程度自ら振り返りをしたか、文献をどの程度読み込んだか、その質と範囲、体験自体の期間と質、そして教員志願者が実感を伴う経験から学ぶ際にどのような支援や指導が得られるかによって決まります。

さらに詳しい例をご紹介しましょう。オハイオ州立大学では教員養成プログラムの一環として、Barbara Seidl とその同僚とによって（Seidl & Friend, 2002)、地元のアフリカ系教会のメンバーと共に、教員志願者の学習を支援するだけでなく、教会の活動にも貢献する異文化コミュニティ体験が立ち上げられました。互いの信頼と相互扶助を築き上げるための長年にわたる努力を通じて、教員志願者のための「平等なコミュニティ・ベース」と呼ばれるインターン制度が構築されたのです。教員志願者は、アフリカ系教会が実施する様々なプログラムに、週 2〜3 時間、他の参加者と共に従事します。例えば、小学校プログラムや、コミュニティの子どもたちを対象とした、宿題や個人指導面でのサポートを提供する、レクリエーションや生活の質の向上を含む在宅ケア・プログラム、そして地元学校に通うアフリカ系の若者を対象とした、学習や社会生活をサポートする放課後プログラムなどがあります。いずれの場合も、教員志願者はプログラムの対象となる子どもたちや大人を支援しながら、コミュニティに受け継がれている知識や伝統、優先順位について観察し、話を聞き、学習を深めていくように指導されます。教会のメンバーとオハイオ州立大学の教授陣は、教員志願者と定期的に打ち合わせをし、体験内容の調整や指導に当たります。このコミュニティでのインターン制度は、オハイオ州立大学プログラムの教員養成の授業とフィールドワーク（実地研修）と密接に繋がっており、次にお話する要素へとつながっていくわけです。

多様性に対応した教員養成の４つ目の要素は、多様な児童生徒のいる学校における、指導者によるきめ細かな指導と支援を伴った臨床的経験です。このような臨床的経験は、教員養成の授業とその他の学習機会と密接に関係しています。そして、教員志願者が、実践に直接参加することを通して、実践から学び、多様な学習者のニーズを支援できるようにすることに重点が置かれています。そのような指導者による指導と適切な支援を受けた臨床的経験を通じて、教員が学習しなければならない重要な実践の側面がいくつかあります。第一に、教員が、全体を見通す力を身につけ、学校やクラスで起きている事柄について、解釈できるようにすることです（Cochran-Smith, 1999, 2000）。ここで前提としている実践とは、教員が教室で何を「行なうか」に限定されません。地域コミュニティや文化、多様な学習者の具体的ニーズとも切り離して評価されることもありますが、むしろ、実践とは、教師が自らの実践についてどう考えるか、具体的な学校や教室で起きていることをどのように読み取るのか、そして多くの検討事項をどのように理解し、どのように問いをたて、どのように決断していくのかということを伴うのです。

ここで、教員が文化的な能力を高めるということが、特に重要となってきます（Gay, 1993; Goodwin, 2000; Villegas & Lucas, 2001; Zeichner, 1993）。これは、多様な児童生徒の学習を支える心の通った関係をそのような多様な児童生徒との間に構築していくことを意味します。これは、同僚、家族、コミュニティ、社会的グループと適切に、互いに尊重し合いながら、効果的に仕事を進められるようにすることを意味します。そして一番肝心なことは、教員が、マジョリティである社会の主流にいる多くの人々とは違った言語を話す児童生徒、つまり多くの教員の属する有力なグループとは異なった民族的、文化的背景をもつ児童生徒や特別支援を必要とする児童生徒も含めて、全ての児童生徒に対して高い期待を寄せて取り組んでいくということです。これは、クラス運営が行き届き、全ての児童生徒が尊重され、文化的に配慮された適切なカリキュラムや教授法、評価体制が整っている教室環境においてのみ、実現できるものなのです。対応力の高いカリキュラムや教授法は、児童生徒が学校に持ち込んでくる文化的、言語的、経験的な様々な資産を活用し、その上に構築されます。また対応力の高い評価とは、児童生徒の成長発展に即して、教授内容に組み込まれたもので、学習を中心にしたものです。

要するに、教員は、多様な児童生徒と共に取り組んでいくために、具体的な実践方法を学ぶ必要があるのです。英語学習者に関して言えば、ごく最近入国した移民や、何年も学校に通っている者もいますが、彼らに言語スキルの習得のほかに、豊かな学習内容を学べるようにするということです（Lucas & Grinberg, 2008）。また、１人１人の違いに合わせた授業や具体的な方法を通して、普通学級のカリキュラムの内容に及ぶことができるようにすることを意味します。

このような臨床的経験の例を一つ、ご紹介しましょう。ボストン・カレッジでは、教員志願者は、ボストン地区の多様な児童生徒が在籍する学校で、臨床的経験に取り組みます。ボストンの公立学校には、これまでに５万６千人の児童生徒が学んでいます。そのうちの 38%が英語学習者（ELL）で、多くの児童生徒の家庭は、最近アメリカに移民しており、その出身国は世界 40 カ国にのぼります。家庭で使われている言語はスペイン語、中国語、ケープ・ヴェルデの混交語、ハイチの混交語、ベトナム語、その他となっています。私たちのプログラムでは、全ての教員が英語学習者の指導に対応できるようにするこ

とを中心とした臨床的経験を提供しています。例えば、小学校の教員志願者は、かなりの期間に渡って、英語学習者に対する音読の仕方を学びます。それは、児童1人から始め、適切な本の選び方、語彙指導や理解するための方法の手本を見せるなども含まれます。中学・高校レベルの教員志願者は、教科領域において要求される言語をどのように評価するのか、授業ごとの言語目標をどのように設定するのか、そして生徒が教科内容を学びながら英語の読み書き能力を伸ばしていける機会をどのように提供していくのか学んでいきます。小学校でも中学校でも、教員志願者は、自分の実践について研究と内省（振り返り）を行ない、指導教官からその実践について具体的なフィードバックを受けます。

それでは、アメリカにおける多様性に対応した教員養成の5つ目の要素を見ていきます。こちらの内容は、時間の関係上、簡単に済ませたいと思います。これは、多様な教員志願者グループの中からの募集と選考にかかわり、多様な児童生徒に対応していけるように、教師自身の経験や文化的な資産を活用していくことです。つまり、教員全体の多様性を高めて、多様な児童生徒達に高い期待を寄せて教育成果を高めるとともに、多様な児童生徒達の身近な目標を持てるようにすることを意図しています（Villegas & Lucas, 2004）。都市部の学校や諸々の支援が必要な学校の教員採用を目的とした従来型の様々なプログラムを利用する場合もあれば、補助教員やアシスタント、転職を希望しているマイノリティの大卒者、教員資格を持っていない教員など、これまでとは異なったグループから採用する特別な教員養成プログラムを利用する場合もあります。これは、教員全体の多様性を高める上でも、また、支援を必要としている地域に、充分な資格を持った教員を配置する上でも、きわめて有効な方法となっています（Clewell & Villegas, 2001; Villegas, et. al., 1995）。

2つ目に重要なものは、児童生徒に対して高い期待を抱き、多様な状況で児童生徒を成功に導ける多様な教員達を採用することです。例えば、多様な環境やコミュニティでの経験を持った者が教職についた場合、多様な児童生徒のいる学校で、成功する可能性が高くなり、長く教職につく傾向が見られることが明らかになっています。さらに、有色人種の教員の方が、有色人種の児童生徒に対してより大きな期待を抱く傾向があり、人生経験や文化的世界観と結びつけることができることが具体的に明らかにされています（Irvine, 1990）。具体的な例として、ウィスコンシン州ミルウォーキーの Marty Haberman（Haberman & Post, 1998）の教員養成プログラムがあげられます。このプログラムは、長年にわたり、低所得層の学校を対象として教員養成を行なっています。彼は教員志願者の選考基準として、根気強さ、児童生徒の学習能力をいかに高く評価できるか、官僚的な環境でもやっていく能力、そして自分の過ちに対してどのように向き合うか、過ちに対する態度をあげています。なぜならば、このような資質こそが、多様な児童生徒に対応していく上で最も重要な資質であることがわかったからです。

さらに、多様性の高い教員志願者グループを募集・選考する際には、多様な教員志願者の持つ、文化、経験、言語に関わる資産を十分に引き出していくことが大切です（Villegas & Davis, 2008）。そうしないと、そのような教員志願者は、白人系アメリカ人の教員志願者に合わせてデザインされたプログラムの中で、疎外感を感じ、脱落し、教員にはならない可能性が高くなるからです。複雑ではありますが、アメリカにおける教員養成プログラムや教員になるまでの過程では、多様な児童生徒のために教員を多様化する方向で様々な努力を重ねてきていますが、それなりの重要な「理由」がいくつもあることを明言しておきたいと思います。

多様性に対応した教員養成の最後の要素は、多様性に対応した教員教育に関しての豊かな研究成果が、アメリカやその他の国々で蓄積されているという事実と関係しています。ここでは簡単に、多様性に対応した効果的な教員養成について示唆に富んだ異なる3つの分野における研究をご紹介いたします。アメリカでは、多様性に対応した教員養成の概念形成や理論形成の面で、研究がかなり進められており、今日お話させていただいている概念や理論の中にもその一端が現れています。例えば、文化的能力、文化的意識、文化的適合性や対応力のある教授法、多様性を欠陥ではなく資産として捉える視点、そして、社会正義のための教師教育といった内容です。このような概念が、この重要な取り組みを導いていくのです。

また、多様性に対応した教員養成の特徴を、長期間にわたり、異なった状況で実証的に調査した、膨大な実証的研究（量的研究と質的研究、その両方を含んだ研究）もあります（Cochran-smith, Davis & Fries, 2004; Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Lucas & Grinberg, 2008; Sleeter, 2008; Villegas & Davis, 2008)。この種の研究では特に、教員志願者の期待、信条、気質、知識、態度、実践、成績、そして進路に焦点が絞られています。その多くの研究において、教員志願者が多様性にかかわる教員養成の授業やフィールドワークに取り組むと、彼らの態度や視野に短期の間に変化が見られ、文化やその他の違いに対する理解が深まることが確認されています。しかし、そのような新たな視点を、日々の学校生活のプレッシャーの中で維持していくことは、非常に困難であるということも、明らかにされています。教員養成期から教員になりたての数年間に経験する様々な困難を理解することが、プログラムの変革に役立つのです。

そして、平等と多様性といった課題に関連して、教員養成にかかわる政策分析も行なわれています。例えば、バイリンガル学習者のための教員養成に関する政策などがそれにあたります。この多様性の課題に関する研究については、色々とお話したいことはありますが、本日は時間が限られているのでここでは触れません。

今日の私の講演を締めくくるに当たり、一人の教員の例を最後にご紹介いたしましょう。先ほど、多様性の課題ということに関して、Elizabeth Mason、Frank Webb、Sylvie Lee の例をお話しましたが、もう一人、私達がこれまで5年間にわたり研究の対象としてきたLola Werner という新任の教師がおります（Cochran-Smith, McQuillan, et al, 2010)。Lola Werner は、ヨーロッパ系の白人アメリカ人で中流家庭出身の女性です。ボストン・カレッジで1年間の教員養成修士コースを終えた後、これまでの4年間、ボストンとワシントンD.C.の都市部のチャーター・スクールで中学校レベルの科学を教えています。

Lola は、教職について最初の4年間、いくつもの学校で教えてきましたが、どの学校でも社会経済的・文化的・地理的な共通の特性が見られました。例えば、教員になった年、Lola は、幼稚園から8年生までの児童生徒が在籍する都市部の初等中等学校に務め、アメリカの中学生にあたる7年生と8年生を教えました。その学校の児童生徒の72%は低所得層に属し、70%がアフリカ系あるいはラテン系アメリカ人でした。14%の児童生徒は特別な支援を必要としていました。しかし、Lola が教えた7年生と8年生に

ついては、事情が異なりました。多くの生徒は7年生になる直前に、その都市で学力レベルが高いとされる進学校に進学するために退学してしまうため、生徒数を確保するために、学力的に不十分な生徒を学校は受け入れていたのでした。7-8年生のLolaの担当した生徒の89%は、アフリカ系またはラテン系アメリカ人ですが、その中には、他の学校でやっていけなくてこの学校に来た生徒もおり、この学校が「最後の頼みの綱」となっていました。

それでは、Lolaの最初の数年間の経験について少し詳しくお話して、新人教師が、多様な学習者の教育ニーズにこたえ、これまでお話してきた教員養成のいくつかの構成要素を反映した形で教えようとする場合に、どうなるのかについて、ご説明したいと思います。ただし、最初にお断りしておきますが、非常に優秀なリベラルアーツ・カレッジを優秀な成績で卒業してはいますが、私は、Lolaが完璧な教師であると言っているわけではありません。また、ボストン・カレッジは非常に優秀な大学で、社会正義と多様性に対応した教育のどちらにも真剣に取り組んできていますが、私はボストン・カレッジが完璧な教員養成プログラムを提供していると申し上げるつもりもありません。

冒頭に申し上げましたように、アメリカは、多様な児童生徒のニーズにこたえるということに関して、いくつもの、膨大かつ複雑な課題に直面しており、それら全てが解決できているわけでもないのです。ただ、Lola Wernerの新人教師としての経験を垣間見ることで、私が本日申し上げてきたいくつもの重要な考え方を彼女がどのように実現しようと努力してきたか、その過程でどのような困難や課題に直面してきたかを、うかがい知ることができると思うのです。

Lola Wernerは、20代の白人系アメリカ人で、中流階級出身の教師です。ボストン・カレッジの教員養成プログラムを選んだのは、多様な児童生徒を教えること、教職を通して社会正義を推し進めることに自ら価値を見出していたからでした。彼女は、特に、都市部の有色人種で低収入の家庭の児童生徒の生活を、なんとか良くしたいという思いがありました。多くの困難に直面しながら、多様なグループに対して成功を収めた学校について書かれた文献を読み、感化されました。彼女自身の価値観が、大学プログラムの使命記述書（ミッションステートメント）に記された価値観と規範に、ぴったりと合致したわけです。

Lolaは、高校で大学の単位をいくつか取得した状態で入学してきました。競争率の高い大学に入り、地理学を専攻した後、環境コンサルタントの仕事を3年間経験して、教職に就く決意を固めました。教科に関する知識や学力について、申し分ありませんでした。教師としての自分に対しても、児童生徒に対しても、大きな期待を抱いて、教員養成プログラムに入りました。実際に、彼女が教職に惹かれたのは、都市部の学校で多様化が進行している児童生徒を含めて、全ての児童生徒に、大きな期待を抱くことの大切さを信じていたからです。このテーマは、彼女の教員養成の経験全体に織り込まれていきました。しかし、実際に教員養成プログラムが始まると、全ての児童生徒に対して教師が大きな期待を抱くということは、教員の役割に対する彼女自身の考えと、社会正義のための教職ということに対する彼女の信条にかかわる一つの考え方にすぎないと思うようになりました。その後、この期待感との格闘の日々が続きました。自分の信念を見失ったわけではありませんが、様々な環境に適応させていくことに苦労したようです。やがて、いくつもの学校で経験を積むにつれて、彼女は、児童生徒に大きな期待感

を抱くということは、決して言葉だけのものではなく、終わりのない本質的な格闘であり、探求であるということに気づいたのです。

Lola は、教える教科内容で必要となる言語要件に焦点をあて、授業に関係する文化的なことも盛り込みながら、児童生徒の文化、経験、言語に関わる資産を活用しようと努力しました。しかし、自分自身の文化的な背景と、児童生徒、その家族や近隣の人々に対して、自分が抱いていた思い込みについても、深く思い知らされ、時間をかけて努力をしたようです。

大学のプログラムが、探求する姿勢を重視していたことが幸いし、Lola は、探求に関する様々な方法を駆使して、自分の教授法や評価法を改善していきました。例えば、自分が作問した科学のテストで多くの生徒が落第点を取った時には、生徒達を責めないようにしました。その代わりに、生徒たちの回答をつぶさに調べて、どのようなことに生徒達がつまずいているのか調べました。地元の科学博物館からさらに資料を集めて、新しい教材で教え直したり、授業の中に学習のポイントごとに評価していけるようにしたり、新しい方法で教えようとしました。多くの資料や情報、そして忍耐強い精神、これが Lola の教える姿勢の特徴です。うまく教えられない時は、まず生徒達を見て、彼らが何を必要としているか見極めようとしました。そして、生徒達の理解の助けとなる新しい方法を求めて、さらなる資料・教材を探しました。この意味で、教師が授業のデータを使って実践した内容を批判的に探求しようとする、探求的な姿勢は、Lola が教職に抱いていた大きな期待と、ぴったりと一致するものでした。

Lola は、生徒に大きな期待を抱くこと、また授業内容に妥協しないことに加えて、生徒達との間に関係を築くことが、多様な学習者を支援する上で不可欠の要素だと信じていました。学校が始まる前や昼食時にも、Lora の姿は教室で見られました。ただお喋りをするのではなく、生徒たちの勉強を助けていました。また、授業以外にも生徒達と多くの時間を過ごすようにしていました。教職 1 年目には、何人かの生徒達のために、放課後のプログラムを行ないました。1 年目が修了した夏休みには一部の生徒達を引率して、コスタリカに旅行に出かけました。このような活動を通じて、生徒達との間にしっかりとした関係を築き、生徒一人一人のことがよくわかるようになっていったのです。また、他の関係も、教職を支えていく上で重要であるということもわかってきました。教育者の家庭に育ったため、子どもの頃から、学校のことや教職についての話題が夕食時にあがっていました。おそらく、そのお陰でしょうか、同僚との良好な関係や強いリーダーシップの大切さについて、よくわかっていました。教員養成プログラムや教員 1 年目で受けた、先輩指導者からの指導を通して、学んだことをうまく活かしてしていきました。それは、都市部の学校での教職を続ける上での支えとなりました。

現在、Lola は、1 年間の教員養成プログラムに引き続いて、4 年間の教職経験を終えたところです。これまでに 3 つの学校で教えていますが、それは、彼女の求める価値観、高い期待感、そして多様性を欠陥ではなく資産と捉える考え方と学校目標が一致する職場を求めて、彼女自身が自分で学校を異動しているからです。今、彼女は教師として自分に合う学校を見つけることができました。でも、多様な学習者の教育ニーズを支援していくという挑戦は続きます。

最後に、私の同僚である Sonia Nieto（2001）が実施したボストンのベテラン教員を対象とした研究

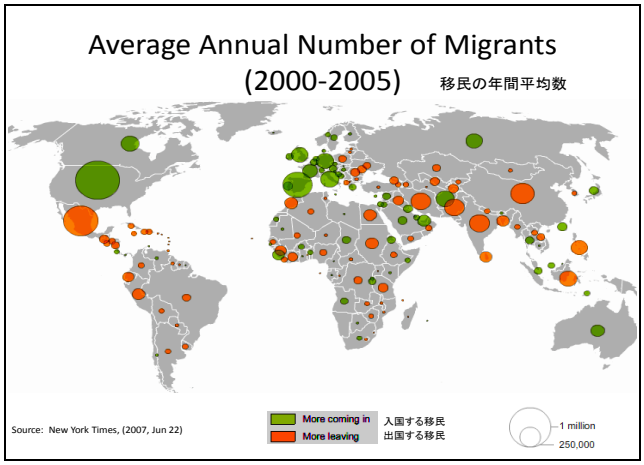
の中で、インタビューを受けたある教師の言葉をご紹介して、この講演を締めくくりたいと思います。この同僚の研究は、なぜ、教員達が課題の多い学校に行くのか、また、そのような課題に立ち向かい続ける教員達の動機は何なのかについて、明らかにしようとしていました。ベテラン教師達に、自分達の学校に新しく来る教師達に、どんな言葉をかけてあげたいか尋ねたところ、ある教師が次のように語ったそうです。

> きっと「この学校に来てくれてありがとう」って言うと思います。毎日。「本当に、本当に、ありがとう」って。この学校に関わってくれて、ありがとう。他にもできることは色々とあったでしょうし、もっとお給料が良く、労働条件の良いところもあったでしょう。
>
> でも１つだけ、［私が担当した実習生]に言ったことがあります。この学校に来た実習生達が、皆、「もう、自分の人生がない！自分の人生が送れない」といった感じに話していたので、私は言ったんです。「わかるでしょ。それが人生なんですよ！」って。
>
> 「この学校に来て、あなたは成長し、学んでいます。同じことはなく、日々、変化しているでしょう。」
>
> 「あなたは、癒し、助け、そして愛を与えているのです。そのことの何がいけないのでしょうか？それが人生、それが人生じゃないのですか？」

これこそが、多様な学習者の教育ニーズを心から支援していけるように、教員を養成・支援していく上で、最も大きな課題ではないでしょうか。心から癒し、助け、愛を与えることのできる教師、そして同時に、高い水準を兼ね備え、全ての児童生徒がカリキュラムの内容を学べるようにし、世界を変えていくために他者と協力していける教師。そのような教師を教育していくことなのです。

（翻訳：大谷千恵）

＊参考文献は、pp23-27 を参照



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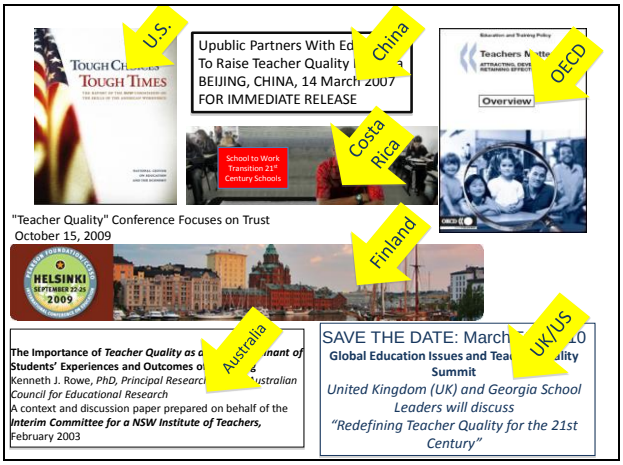

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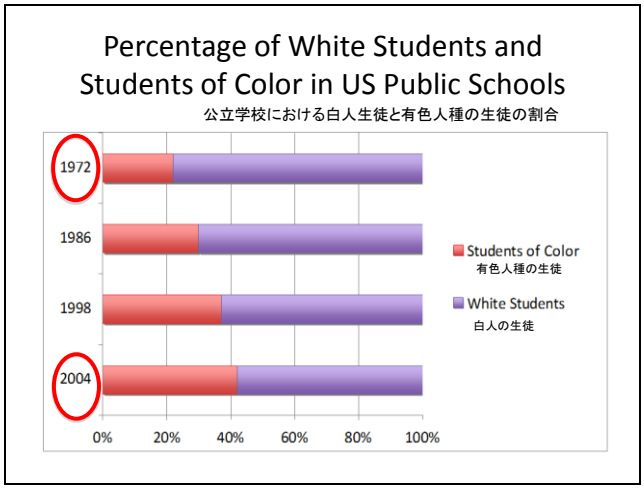

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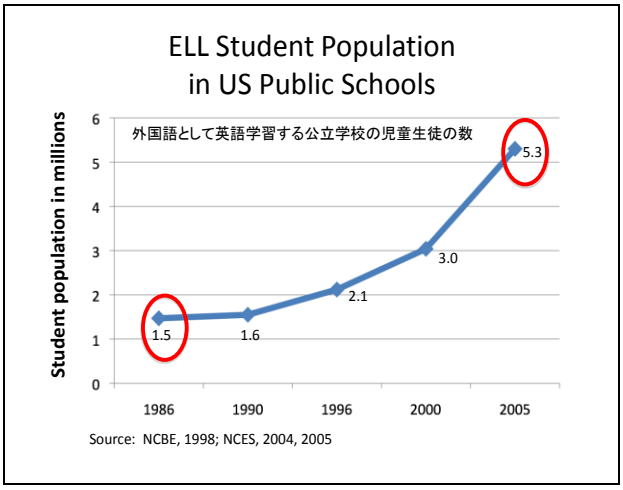

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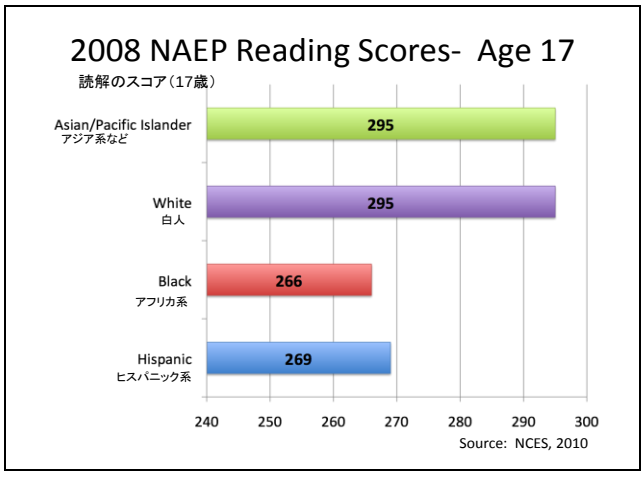

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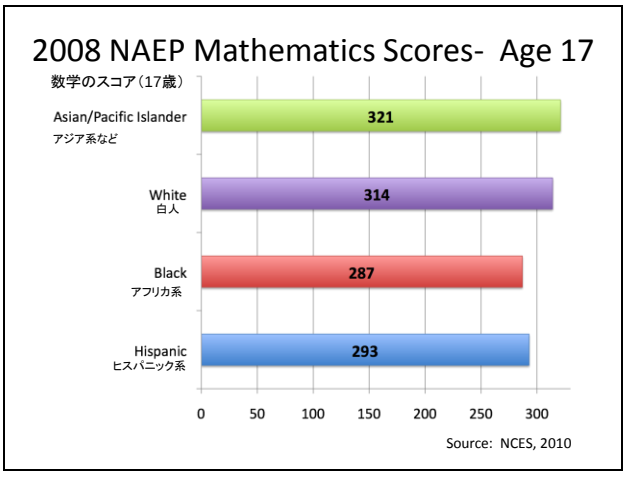

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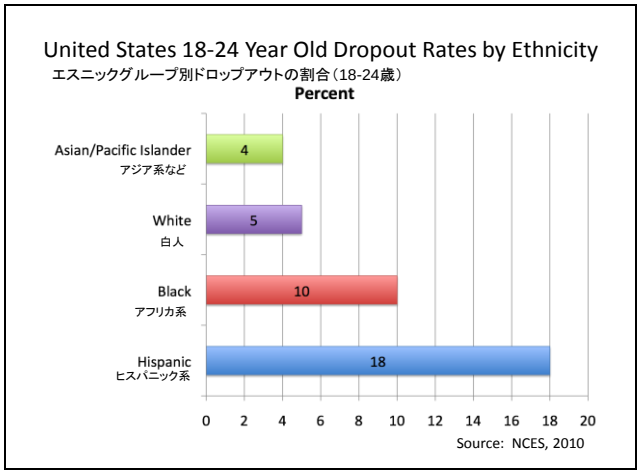

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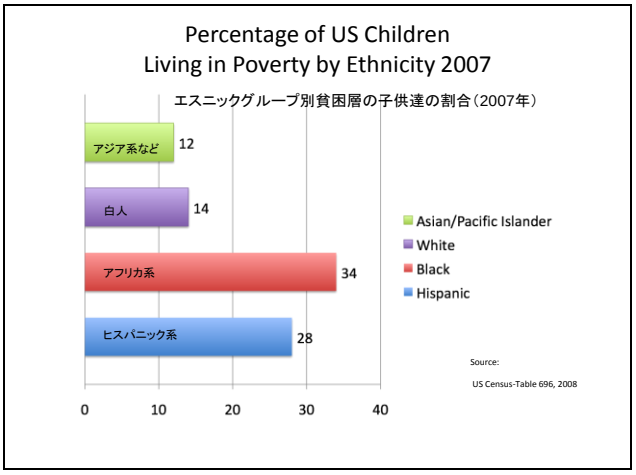

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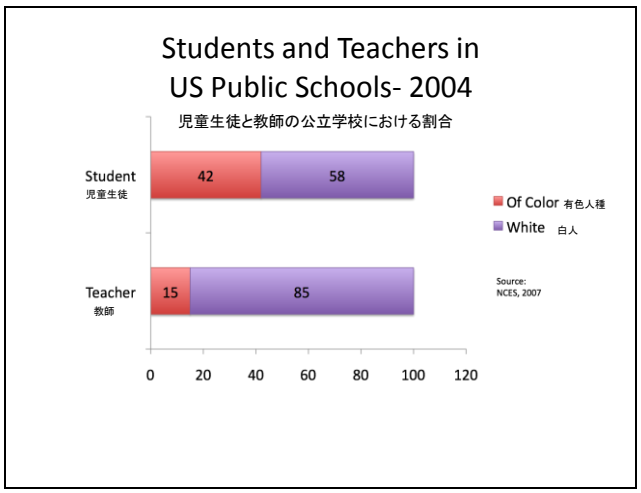

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(スライド 10)

多文化・多言語化する学校現場と教員養成の課題

小野由美子（鳴門教育大学）

はじめに

平成 20 年度学校基本調査によると、平成 20 年 9 月現在、全国の公立学校に在籍する外国人児童生徒は 75,043 人（特別支援学校、中等学校を含む）であり、そのうち日本語指導が必要な児童生徒は 28,575 人（文科省、2009）となっている。日本語を母語としない外国人児童生徒の割合は全児童生徒数の 1%にも満たないが、義務教育諸学校に限ると、3 校に 1 校はこうした児童生徒が在籍していることになる。実際には、外国人児童生徒は滞在の長期化、「集中と分散」傾向を示し、1 人しか外国人児童生徒が在籍しない学校が過半数を占めるものの、その一方で外国人児童生徒が全児童数の 3 割以上を占める学校も存在する。教職生涯において、教員が外国人児童生徒に出会う機会は、われわれの想像以上に高い。

文部科学省は平成 19 年 7 月に「初等中等教育における外国人児童生徒教育の充実のための検討会」を立ち上げ、「外国人児童生徒教育の充実方策について（報告）」（平成 20 年 6 月）をとりまとめた。その中で、教員養成大学に対しては、「外国人児童生徒の指導にあたる教員や支援員等の人材の養成・確保」のため、以下のような取り組みを促した。

ア　教員養成系大学等においては、当該大学等の所在する地域の必要性に応じ、教職課程に在籍する学生等が日本語教育や国際理解教育を履修することを促進する取組を行うとともに、国や都道府県等においては、大学等のこのような取組を支援すること。

（http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/shingi/chousa/shotou/042/houkoku/08070301/005.htm）

これは、外国人児童生徒の多い県に位置する教員養成大学においては、学生に日本語教育や国際理解教育を履修するような取り組みを行うことが望ましい、という提言である。この提言に異存はない。筆者は検討会の提言を一歩進めて、外国人児童生徒の在籍状況と教員採用の現実、教員養成学部生へのアンケート結果をも踏まえて、すべての教職課程において多文化・多言語に配慮した教員養成をすすめる必要があることを論ずる。

外国人児童生徒数と教員採用試験競争率

表 1 は外国人児童生徒が多い都道府県の教員採用試験の競争率を示したものである。外国人児童生徒数が多い上位 10 都道府県は，押し並べて教員採用試験の競争率が低いことが見て取れる。換言すると，外国人児童生徒が多い都道府県は採用試験の応募者が教員に採用される確率が高い，ということを意味する。

表１　外国人児童生徒数の上位県の採用試験競争率　（2009 年度）

都道府県	JSL 児童数	ポルトガル語	中国語	スペイン語	採用試験競争率
愛知	5,844	3,728	489	750	3.0
静岡	2,903	2,045	81	422	3.5
神奈川	2,794	389	661	562	2.4
東京	2,203	40	1,046	83	3.2
大阪	1,819	88	1,191	100	3.0
三重	1,619	1,000	43	392	4.5
埼玉	1,168	266	2 83	137	3.0
千葉	1,162	75	391	145	2.6
岐阜	1,050	719	66	58	4.3
滋賀	998	673	37	203	3.8

一口に外国人児童生徒と言っても，地域によって第一言語に差がみられる。自動車関連産業の多い愛知県，静岡県，神奈川県を中心にポルトガル語，スペイン語を母語とする児童生徒が多いのに対し，東京都や大阪府，千葉県では中国語を母語とする子どもが多数を占める。次に教員採用試験の競争率の高い県の外国人児童生徒数を示したものが表２である。

表２　教員採用試験競争率上位県の外国人児童生徒数　（2009 年度）

都道府県	JSL 児童数	ポルトガル語	中国語	スペイン語	採用試験競争率
青森	16	0	7	0	25.2
岩手	53	10	32	0	22.5
長崎	19	0	4	0	15.2
沖縄	109	7	14	0	13.6
福島	85	1	48	0	12.5
宮崎	33	1	11	3	10.1
秋田	33	0	21	0	10.0
鹿児島	34	0	11	3	9.0
長野	769	413	129	62	8.9
鳥取	21	0	5	0	8.7

教員採用試験競争率の高い上位県では，長野県を除いて外国人児童生徒が少数にとどまっている。教員採用試験の競争率が高いこうした県の教職課程の学生は当然，職を得やすい，すなわち競争率の低い県を目指す。つまり，教員採用の少ない県（赤）の教職課程の学生は，教員採用の多い県（青）へと職を求めて移動することになる。文部科学省の言うように，外国人児童生徒数が多い地域においてのみ，教職課程において日本語教育や国際理解教育が必要というのは，こうした現実を正しく理解していないように思われる。

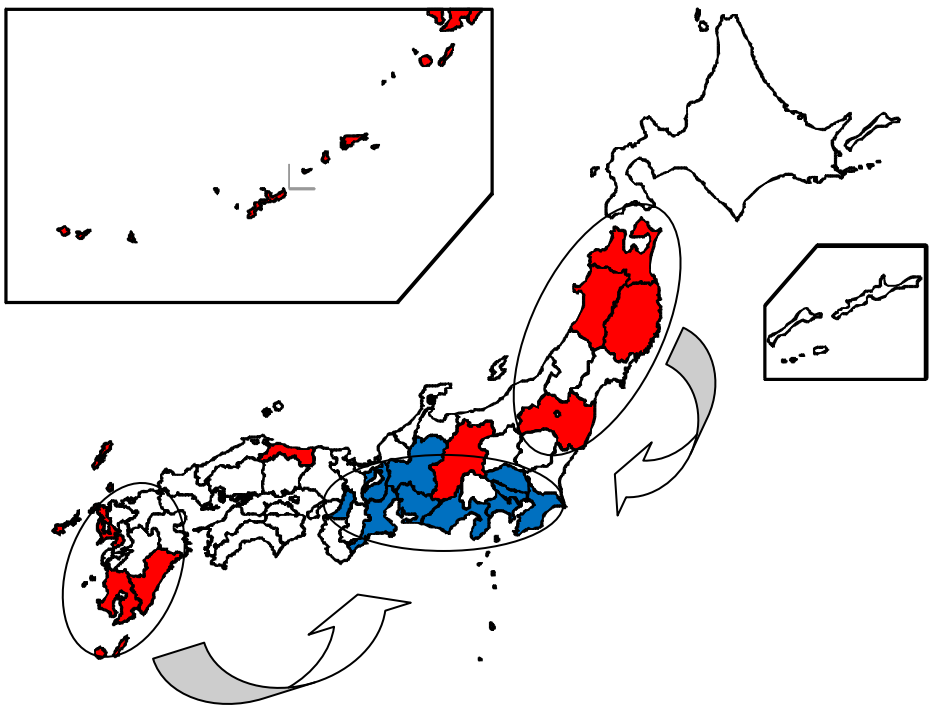

図１　教職を求める学生の移動予想

教員養成学部生の外国人児童生徒に関する意識態度

地方の教員養成大学で学ぶ学生が，外国人児童生徒に対してどのような意識，態度を持っているかを調査した研究では，学生たちが強い規範意識に支えられ，「外国人児童生徒の学習権を保障すべきである」，「外国人児童生徒の文化を尊重すべきである」と回答していた。しかし，外国人児童生徒に特別な支援を与えることに対しては，平等と社会的公正さとを混同し，特別扱いしないこと＝平等であると誤解していることがうかがえた。また，第二言語習得に関する基礎的な知識が不足していること，教室での具体的な指導やかかわりがイメージできず，抽象的な回答が多いことも回答者に共通する特徴であった。

外国人児童生徒を担当した経験のある現職教員の意識態度

実際に外国人児童生徒を担当した経験のある現職教員は，教科指導，生活指導，保護者とのコミュニケーションなど多岐にわたる問題に困難を感じている。たとえば次のような点である。

- 基礎学力の不足

- 家庭の協力が得られないこと，親の教育観が異なること
- 文化習慣の違い（特に食事，金銭感覚）
- 気になる言動がみられる：一斉行動が取れないこと，自己主張が強い，根気がない，責任転嫁する
- 保護者との連絡やコミュニケーションが容易ではない（新倉,2002）

こうした困難に直面して，現職教員が家庭・保護者に要望するものとしては以下のようなものがあげられている。

- 学校へ協力してほしい
- 日本の習慣を受け入れてほしい
- 行事に積極的に参加してほしい
- 日常生活にリズムをつけてほしい
- 日本語を学んでほしい
- いじめられたという先入観で相手に対応してほしくない
- 仕事ばかりでなくもっと子どもに目を向けてほしい
- 子どもが非行に走らないようにもっと気配りをしてほしい（新倉,2002）

終わりに

現職教員が指摘した外国人児童生徒に関する問題や，保護者への要望は，何も外国人児童生徒に限ったものではない。従来日本の学校教育は同質性を前提として，何事も人と同じようにすることが期待され，またその期待がある程度満たされていた。しかし，近年，経済格差が拡大し，生活に追われて，学校や教員の要望にこたえられない家庭は日本人家庭にも増加している。家族のあり方も価値観も多様化した。もはや多様性＝異質性＝外国人という単純な構造ではなく，多様性は，同質性を前提とした伝統的な共同体モデル（日本の学校教育）が直面する課題でもある（恒吉,2008）。多様性を異質性として排除するのではなく，これからの教員養成では多様性にどう対応するかを学ぶことこそ必要であり，外国人児童生徒が教室に持ち込む文化的・言語的多様性も多様性の一つとして認識されねばならない。また，日本でも顕著になりつつある社会階層による格差，個人の属性による格差や差別をなくすため，社会的公正さに対する正しい理解を身につけることも不可欠である。多様性への対応を具体的に，実践的に学ぶことは，一部の地域にある教職課程に在籍する学生にとってのみ必要なのではなく，教職課程に在籍するすべての学生にとって必須なのである。

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小野由美子・渡邉理絵（2009）「多文化に配慮した教員養成をどうすすめるか」『早稲田大学教師教育研究所紀要』第 1 号。
新倉涼子（2002）「外国人児童生徒の受け入れに関わる教師の意識」『千葉大学教育実践研究』第 9 号。
恒吉僚子（2008）『子どもたちの三つ「危機」―国際比較から見る日本の模索』勁草書房。

多文化・多言語化する学校現場と教員養成の課題

Linguistically and Culturally Diverse "Japanese" Public Schools:
A Challenge to Teacher Education

鳴門教育大学
小野由美子

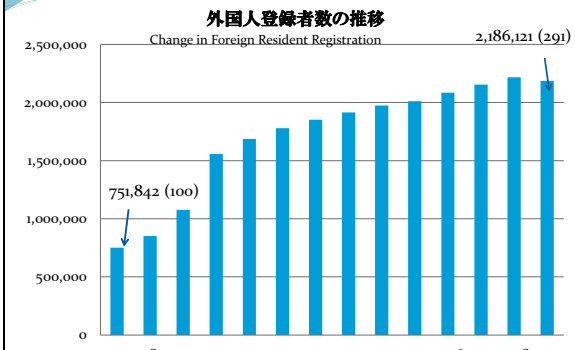
JUSTEC 2010 フォーラム
多様なニーズを持った子どもたちのための支援教育
玉川大学
2010年7月25日

National University Corporation Naruto University of Education

1

外国人登録者数の推移

Change in Foreign Resident Registration

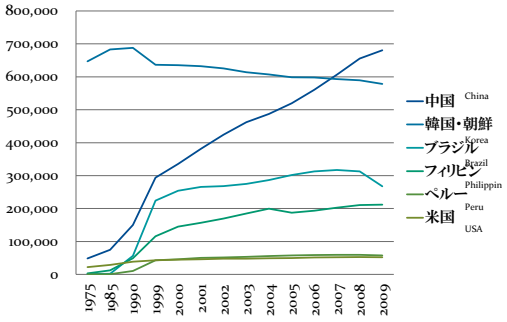


法務省(2009)ほか

2

国籍(出身地)別外国人登録者数の推移

Change in Foreign Resident Registration by Nationality



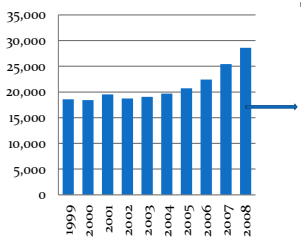
法務省(2009)

3

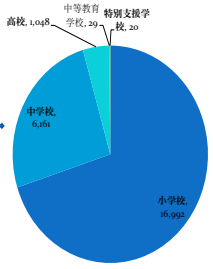
日本語指導が必要な外国人児童生徒数 (2008)

Change in Students with Limited Japanese Proficiency

日本語指導が必要な外国人児童生徒数



Breakdown by school level
校種別在籍数

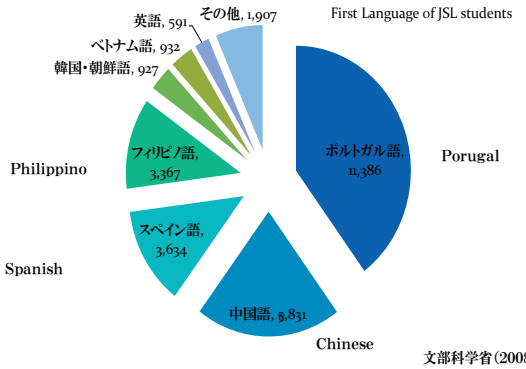


文部科学省(2008)

4

外国人児童生徒の母語 (2008)

First Language of JSL students



文部科学省(2008)

5

ア　教員養成系大学等においては、当該大学等の所在する地域の必要性に応じ、教職課程に在籍する学生等が日本語教育や国際理解教育を履修することを促進する取組を行うとともに、国や都道府県等においては、大学等のこのような取組を支援すること。

(http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/shingi/chousa/shotou/042/houkoku/08070301/005.htm)

6

外国人児童生徒数上位県の採用試験競争率

Teacher

Job Competitiveness in Prefectures with larger JSL Population

都道府県 prefecture	JSL児童数 JSL students	ポルトガル語 Portugal	中国語 Chinese	スペイン語 Spanish	採用試験競争率 Competition
愛知	5,844	3,728	489	750	3.0
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7

採用試験競争率上位県の外国人児童生徒数

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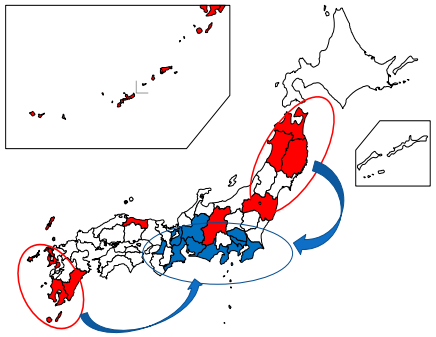
長野	769	413	129	62	8.9
鳥取	21	0	5	0	8.7
徳島	29	0	10	0	5.1

8

教職を希望する学生はどこに職を探すか
Where do teacher-candidate get jobs?



9

Are they prepared for linguistically and culturally diverse public schools?

教員養成学部生は言語的・文化的に多様な学校現実に対処する準備ができているか？

10

地方の教員養成学部で学ぶ学生の外国人児童生徒に関する意識・態度

Pre-service Students Perceptions of JSL Students

- 渡邊(2006)「外国人児童・生徒に対する教員志望学生の意識調査」 →鳴門教育大学・愛知教育大学学部生
  ↕ 比較
- 小野(2010)「外国人児童・生徒に対する教員志望学生の意識調査」→鳴門教育大学学部生
  ↕ 比較
- 市瀬・徳井(2009)「教員養成課程学生の認識」→宮城教育大学・信州大学

11

教員養成学部生調査結果 Results

鳴門教育大学(2006,2010)

- 外国人児童・生徒の増加について聞いたことがある学生は増えているが、大学の授業で聞いたことがある学生(13・2%)は依然として少ない。
- 子どもの文化・習慣の尊重
- 強い規範意識
- 教科学習に必要な日本語習得についての誤解(2～3年で習得可能)
- 権利意識・平等意識は高いが、それを実現するために利用できるサービスやリソースについて知識不足

宮城教育大学・信州大学(2009)

- 64%の学生が、小中学校在籍時、多様な言語背景をもつ子どもとかかわる機会あったと回答
- かかわった機会の有無による教育観の違いはなし
- 相手文化の尊重・文化の相互理解
- 日本の子どもと同じように、特別視しない→差別偏見への配慮
- 教師に必要な能力：異文化理解・共感・英語能力

12

両調査に共通する傾向

Shared Characteristics in Perceptions of Pre-Service Students in Two Surveys

- 強い規範意識（どうあるべきか：学習権の保障、相手文化の尊重）
- 特別扱いしない＝平等と社会的公正さの混同
- 基本的な知識の不足（第一言語、第二言語習得など）
- 具体的な指導、かかわりがイメージできず抽象的な回答が多い
- Very strong norm consciousness (how things should be e.g. right to learn, respect other cultures)
- No extra support, just like other Japanese students : Confusion of equality and social equity
- Lack of basic knowledge (Popular first languages, second language acquisition)
- Unable to think of concrete measures or interaction, provide abstract answers

13

外国人児童生徒を担当したことのある現職教員の意識・態度に関する研究

Teachers' Perceptions of JSL Students

- 教科指導、生活指導、保護者とのコミュニケーションなど多岐にわたる問題に困難を感じている
  - 基礎学力不足
  - 家庭の協力不足、親の教育観が違う
  - 文化習慣の違い：食事、金銭感覚
  - 気になる言動：一斉行動がとれない、自己主張が強い、根気がない、責任転嫁する、
  - 保護者との連絡、コミュニケーションの難しさ

（新倉,2002; 浜田・齋藤,2009; Alfaro, 2010）

Expressed difficulties in a variety of areas: academic instruction, life guidance, communication with parents

- 家庭・保護者への要望
  - 学校へ協力してほしい
  - 日本の習慣を受け入れてほしい
  - 行事に積極的に参加してほしい
  - 日常生活にリズムをつけてほしい
  - 日本語を学んでほしい
  - いじめられたという先入観で相手に対応してほしくない
  - 仕事ばかりでなくもっと子どもに目を向けてほしい
  - 子どもが非行に走らないようにもっと気配りをしてほしい

（新倉,2002）

A long list of requests to families/parents to cooperate/collaborate schools/teachers

14

現職教員が指摘した問題は、外国人児童・生徒に限った問題か？

Are the difficulties identified by in-service teachers specific to JSL students?

日本の学校教育-同質性を前提とした伝統的な共同体モデル（恒吉, 2008）-が直面する課題とも共通

Japanese school education based on a traditional community model (Tsuneyoshi, 2008) that premises homogeneity face common challenges.

15

多様性、多文化を前提にした教員養成

Teacher Education based on diversity and multicultualism

- 多様性＝異質性を排除するのではなく、それにどう対応するかを学ぶ必要性（恒吉,2008）
- 多義的な文化の捉え方の必要性：「一個人は、国籍、人種・民族、ジェンダー、セクシャリティ、社会階層、宗教、思想信条など、さまざまな文化集団に属している」（松尾, 2010）
- 社会階層や個人の属性による格差・差別をなくすための社会的公正さに対する正しい理解
- JUSTECは専門職組織・団体として教員養成の内容・方法に対して積極的に発言

16

軽度の発達障害のある子どもたちへの支援教育と教員養成の課題

阿久澤　栄（玉川大学）

１．我が国における軽度の発達障害のある子どもへの学校教育

我が国では、1990 年代から、小学校や中学校を中心に、それまでの指導法を駆使しても、なかなか指導の難しい子どもたちが徐々に増加してきた。こうした子どもたちの多くは、高機能自閉症、アスペルガー障害、学習障害、注意欠陥多動性障害などの知的には問題のないいわゆる軽度の発達障害といわれる子どもたちであった。

こうしたいわゆる軽度の発達障害児がどのくらいいるのかという全国レベルの調査は、文部科学省が2002 年に行った全国調査があるのみである。その際の調査でも、医師による診断ということではなく、予め文部科学省が示した基準に当てはまる子どもとして複数の教員が認めた数ということであり必ずしも正確な数値ではないが参考にはなる。調査の結果は、幼稚園、小学校、中学校に在籍する子どもたちの６．３％、調査時点の実数として約６８万人が文部科学省が示した基準にあてはまる子どもたちであった。この数字をもとに考えれば、通常の学級１学級には２人から３人の軽度の発達障害児が在籍することになるが、その後のそれぞれの学校での様子を見てみると、現時点での数字はもう少し増えているものと思われる。（パワポ３参照）

こうした状況を受け、学校教育法などの関係法令を改正し、2007 年４月からは、それまでの主として盲・聾・養護学校や小・中学校の特殊学級を中心に行われてきた比較的障害の重い障害児を対象にした「特殊教育」から、通常の学級に在籍する知的障害がなかったりあったとしても軽微ではあるが主として行動上の問題を抱えるいわゆる軽度の発達障害児への支援を加えた「特別支援教育」を制度化しスタートさせた。（パワポ２参照）

我が国の学校では、長い間、主として集団指導という形態で指導が行われてきた。もちろん、集団指導の形態をとりながらも、その中で子どもたち一人一人について細かく実態把握をし、指導が行われてきたはずである。しかし、この指導形態は、学級の子どもたち全員が教師の指示に従い一斉に行動することを前提にしている。また、多くの教師が、それを当たり前のことだと考えて指導を行ってきた。ところが、教師が今までの知識、経験を駆使して指示しても、それを聞いていないかのように、指示に従えない子どもたちが見られるようになり、教師は戸惑い、対応に苦慮している。

こうした戸惑いや、指導に対する困り感は、教師の発達障害そのもの、障害特性やこの子どもたちに特有な感覚の異常などに対する知識のなさに、由来しているのではなだろうか。

２．軽度の発達障害児とはどのような子どもか

それでは軽度の発達障害児とはどのような子どもたちなのだろうか。通常の学級に在籍する軽度の発

達障害児は、主として高機能自閉症、アスペルガー障害、学習障害、注意欠陥多動性障害のある子どもたちである。このうち、高機能自閉症は知的には問題のない自閉症という意味であり、またアスペルガー障害は独自の診断基準は持つものの高機能自閉症の一部ととらえた方がわかりやすいだろう。そこでここでは、高機能自閉症とアスペルガー障害はまとめて「自閉症」として考えていくことにする。

自閉症、学習障害、注意欠陥多動性障害は診断基準上は独立した障害でありながら重なり合った部分があると示されていることが多い（パワポ４参照)。厳密に学問的にいえば違うのだとは思うが、学校教育の現場でその行動などからみていく限り、３つの障害の重なり合いは極めて大きなものである（パワポ５参照)。これを障害特性として見ていけば、大きな重なり合いの部分を知れば、障害特性に合った指導が可能ということになる。

それでは、３つの障害のうち、もっとも研究の進んでいる自閉症から、その障害特性を見てみよう。こうしたことを知っていれば、軽度の発達障害児に対する指導は、それほど難しくはない。

自閉症の障害特性は、「社会性の障害」と「コミュニケーションの障害」そして「想像性の障害」これは「こだわり行動」でもあるが、この３つで示されている。（パワポ６参照）

「社会性の障害」は、対人関係の問題であり、また、暗黙のルールがわからないという障害でもある。

「コミュニケーションの障害」は、話せないということではなく、相手の気持ちが読めなかったり、その場の雰囲気がわからないことによりコミュニケーションが成り立たなかったり、あるいは、興味関心の偏りにより、それだけを主張してしまい、いわゆる話が合わないという状態というように説明されている。

「こだわり行動」は知的に問題のないグループでは、興味関心の偏りや、時間や予定へのこだわり、あるいは自分勝手なルールを作り、それに縛られるといった、強迫神経症的な行動でも見られる。

加えて多くの自閉症児には、感覚の異常が見られる。感覚の異常は、視覚、聴覚、触覚、味覚、嗅覚のいわゆる五感全てに及ぶが、もちろん一人ひとりによって異なることは言うまでもないことである（パワポ７参照)。例えば、視覚では全体を見ているようで興味のある一部しか見ていなかったり、聴覚では耳から入ってくる音の中から必要な音を選択できなかったり、触覚では、肩を軽くトントンと叩かれるとそれを激痛に感じたりする。教師が本人を励ますために肩をトントンと叩いても、知的に高い子どもたちは我慢してくれるが、子どもたち同士なら手を振り払うなどして、喧嘩のもとになってしまうことが多い。

また、触覚の中に「近位感覚」という感覚があるが、これは、簡単に言うと相手との距離感のことである。初対面の相手であっても極端に近づきすぎるなどということが起こり、嫌われてしまう原因の一つにもなっている。

３．障害特性に基づいた指導の基本

このような自閉症児が持っている障害特性をまとめ、教室でどのようにこの子どもたちと接したらよいかを「指導の原則」や「接し方の基本」としてまとめてみた。どれもそれほど難しいことではないのだが、教室の中では実践されているようでできていないことばかりではないのだろうか。（パワポ８～１１参照）

①あいまいな表現は避け、見通しが持てるような言葉かけをする！

→この子どもたちは今以降について何が起こるのかを想像しにくいことが多い。中途半端な表現をせ

ずはっきりと言うことが必要である。また、時計の長い針が「４」のところになったら、いっぱいお話を聞いてあげるね。などと見通しの持てる提示が必要でもある。しかし、時間に対するこだわりには強いものがある。「４」を過ぎてもお話を聞いてあげられないと大変なことになるので、教師自身が見通しをもつことが大切である。

②いやみや皮肉は通用しない！ほめるときには何がよかったのかを明らかにし徹底的にほめる！

→嫌味や皮肉だけでなく、言外に意味のある言葉も通じにくい。また、この子どもたちは、同じようなことを束ねて考えることが苦手である。例えば、他の子を叩く子どもに「叩いてはダメ」「人の嫌がることをしてはいけません」と言うと、叩くことはしなくなるが、その代わりに蹴ったり、噛みついたりすることがある。「人の嫌がること」といった大枠に束ねることが難しいのである。ところが、褒められることは大好きであり、褒められるとまた褒められようとすることが多く見受けられる。そこで、褒める際には、何が良かったのかをきちんと伝え、束ねること、すなわち一般化ということを教えることが大切になってくる。

③ゆっくり短い言葉で指示を出す。一度に複 数の指示を出さない！

→この子どもたちは知的に高いので、指示の一つひとつは理解できるが、まとめて言われると何が何だか分からなくなってしまうという特性がある。みんなに複数の指示を出した後は、その子に一つだけ指示することが大切になる。

④聞くことより見ることが得意な場合が多いので、複数の指示は紙に書く。その際、時間を追って「→」などを使い、わかりやすく簡明なものにする！

⑤全体への指示は、自分に話されているという意識を持ちにくいので、全体に指示した後、個別に声をかける。

⑥禁止や制止よりも、やってほしいことをいう。

→この子どもたちのうち、特に知的に高い子どもたちは、一見すると色々なことが分かっているように見えるのにできないことが多いことから、これまでの育ちの過程の中で。極端にいえば、叱られっぱなしの生活を送ってきたことは容易に想像することができる。従って、禁止や制止よりも、「これをしてくれると嬉しいな」と言い、できたら、いっぱい褒めてあげることが必要になる。

⑦達成可能な個人目標をその子どもと一緒に作る！できたらすぐに褒めることが大切である。

⑧その子自身や周りの子を傷つけるようなことがあったら徹底的に指導する！障害があるからこそ中途半端な対応ではいけない。

⑨離席などは一度認めてしまえばあとからの変更は難しい。だめなことは最初から一貫して学校全体でダメだと指導する。

→ダメなことはダメなのである。障害のない子どもたちに求めることは、この子どもたちにもきちんと求める必要がある。その際「障害があるから仕方ないのかな」などと思ってはならず、障害があるからこそ、時間をかけてでも、きちんと指導する必要がある。ただし、叱るときにはネチネチせずにさらりと済ませることも大切である。

次は、接し方の基本である。

①励ますなどの目的はあっても気楽に 肩などはたたかない。 肩に手を置かない。

→これは、触覚の異常の問題である。このことについては先ほど延べたとおりである。

②気楽に手をつなごうとしない。

→これも、触覚の異常からの問題である。手をつないだり、握手をすると「痛い」と言う子どもが

多くいることを知っておくべきである。

③耳元で大きな声を出さない。

→この子どもたちの中には、耳から入った様々な音から必要な音を選択できないといった聴覚の異常のある子どもたちがかなりの数いる。こうした子どもたちは頭の中で様々な音がグオーンと響いてしまうという。耳元で大きな声を出すと、選択性が悪くなるばかりか、痛いということもあるという。また、選択性をよくするためには、小さな声で、しかもできるだけ低い声話した方が通じやすいということも知っておくべきことの一つだろう。

④無理に目を合わそうとしない。

→この子どもたちの中には、目を合わそうとしなかったり、逆にじーっと目を合わせて外さないという子どももいる。無理に目を合わさなくともしっかり見ているので、そのままにしておけばよい。

⑤体調に気を配る。

→この子どもたちは、体調の面でも鈍感な場合が多く、熱があっても感じないといった感覚の異常があることが多い。体調には十分気を配ることが大切である。

この章で述べてきたことは、すべて障害特性に合わせた対応であるが、こんな簡単なことで良いのかと思った方も多いと思う。こうしたことを実践している学校では、教室の中で軽度の発達障害児が良い意味で目立たなくなってきており、この子どもたちの指導にあたっては、こうした障害特性に合わせた基本的なことの積み重ねが必要であり、大切なことである。

４．母子関係の悪さ

2009 年の４月から１２月の間に東京都内や神奈川県内の小・中学校から、発達障害児がいるのでその指導法を教えてほしいと言われ、教師が困っているという子どもたち７８人を観察した。その結果、どのように観察しても、この内の５６人は発達障害とは言いにくい子どもたちであった（パワポ１２参照)。

観察の跡、教師たちと話し合った結果、この５６人は家庭内での家族関係、とりわけ母子関係の悪さが問題となった。発達障害というよりも、あえて病名をつければ、軽度の「反応性愛着障害」ということになる。この子どもたちには、文字通りのスキンシップが大きな効果をあげる。１日２回握手をするだけで、教室の中での問題行動は大幅に減少する。ただし、母子関係の悪さといった本質的な問題は、これでは解決しない。教育だけではなく、福祉など他の領域とも連携した取り組みが必要になる。

特別支援教育がはじまり、指導の難しい子どもは、みんな「発達障害」になってしまいがちだが、そんなことはない。母子関係の問題かもしれないし、もしかしたら、単に教師の側の指導の問題かもしれないことを教師一人ひとりが押さえておく必要がある。

５．特別支援教育に関する教員研修

それでは、教師はこうした特別支援教育について、どのような勉強をしているのだろうか。

文部科学省では、毎年、どの程度の人数の教員が、特別支援教育に関する研修を受けているのかの全国調査を実施している。2009 年度の調査では、これまでに教員で５３．９％、校長や副校長、教頭な

どの管理職で６８．３％が、特別支援教育関係の研修を受けたとしている。（パワポ１３参照）研修を受けたとする多くの教師に聞くと、受けた研修の内容の多くは、設置が義務付けられている校内委員会や特別支援教育コーディネーターの役割など特別支援教育のシステムに関することが多く、実際の子どもたちの障害特性や、その特性に合わせた具体的な指導の方法等に関する研修は少ないようである。これでは、教師も、こうした発達障害のある子どもたちを理解し、その子どもたちの特性に応じた指導がなかなかできないということが続いてしまうのではないだろうか。

はじめに述べたとおり、教師が今までの知識、経験を駆使して指示しても、それを聞いていないかのように、指示に従えない子どもたちが見られるようになり、教師は戸惑い、その対応に苦慮している。こうした戸惑いや、指導に対する困り感は、教師の発達障害そのもの、障害特性やこの子どもたちに特有な感覚の異常などに対する知識のなさに、由来している。だからこそ、教員研修の中身が問われるのではないだろうか。

６．教員免許習得にかかる課題

さらに問題だと感ずるのは、教員免許に関する問題である。我が国では、教員免許状の習得に当たって、様々な教科・科目の学習が義務づけられている。しかし、特別支援教育に関する科目は、「教育の基礎理論に関する科目」の中に「幼児、児童及び生徒の心身の発達及び学習の過程」があり、この項目の最後に括弧書きで「障害のある幼児、児童及び生徒の心身の発達及び学習の過程を含む」とされているのみで、必修ではないのである（パワポ１４参照）。

教員免許状を取得する過程においても、今、現に多くの教師がその指導に苦慮しているいわゆる軽度の発達障害児についての学習をしないままに教員免許を取得し、教師となったものの目の前の子どもたちの指導に困惑し苦慮しているといった現状がある。こうしたある意味での制度の欠陥でもっと困っているのは、そうした子どもたちであり、その保護者の方々であることに違いないはずである。

まずは、近い将来、遠い将来を見据えて、こうした子どもたちについての学習を教員免許状習得の最低条件とすることが、喫緊の課題であると考える必要があるし、そうしたことになるよう様々な機会や場をとらえて文部科学省に要望していく必要がある。

軽度の発達障害のある子どもたちへの支援教育と教員養成の課題

Educational Support for Children with Mild Developmental Disorders and the Challenges of Preparing Teachers for Schools

阿久澤　栄
Sakae　AKUZAWA

1

特殊教育⇒特別支援教育

Special Education⇒
Special Needs Education

○従来からの特殊教育の対象児（比較的重い障害）に加え・・・・

⇒通常の学級に在籍する
軽度の発達障害児への教育（支援）の充実

Special School／Special Class
＋ All kinds of Schools

2

軽度の発達障害児

Children with Mild Developmental Disorders

軽度の発達障害児
（高機能自閉症・LD・ADHD等）
⇒6．3%程度の在籍率（約68万人）

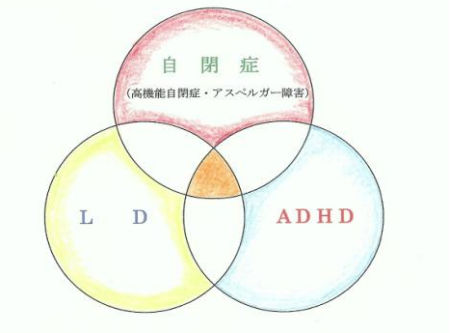
<2002年文部科学省全国調査>

Children with High-functioning Autism、LD、ADHD etc.
⇒6.3% Children of Kindergartens ,primary schools & junior high schools (680thousands of people)
<2002 MEXT>

3

軽度の発達障害児

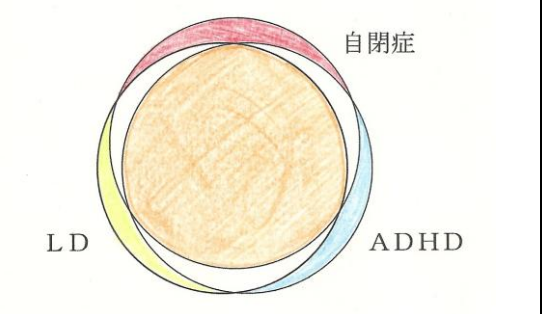
Children with Mild Developmental Disorders



4

軽度の発達障害児

Children with Mild Developmental Disorders



5

自閉症（Autism）

①社会性の障害
②コミュニケーションの障害
③想像性の障害（こだわり行動）

Impaired ⇒
①Social development
②Communication
③Restricted & Repetitive behavior

6

自閉症（Autism）

感覚の異常

・視覚　・聴覚　・触覚（近位感覚）
・味覚　・嗅覚

Sensory Abnormalities

sense of vision, audition, touch, distance, taste, smell

7

指導の原則

①あいまいな表現は避け、見通しが持てるような言葉かけをする！

②いやみや皮肉は通用しない！ほめるときには何がよかったのかを明らかにし徹底的にほめる！

③ゆっくり短い言葉で指示を出す。一度に複数の指示を出さない！

8

④聞くことより見ることが得意な場合が多いので、複数の指示は紙に書く。その際時間を追って「→」などを使い、わかりやすく簡明なものにする！

⑤全体への指示は、自分に話されているという意識を持ちにくいので、全体に指示した後、個別に声をかける。

⑥禁止や制止よりも、やってほしいことをいう。

9

⑦達成可能な個人目標をその子どもと一緒に作る！できたらすぐに褒めることが大切である。

⑧その子自身や周りの子を傷つけるようなことがあったら徹底的に指導する！障害があるからこそ中途半端な対応ではいけない。

⑨離席などは一度認めてしまえばあとからの変更は難しい。だめなことは最初から一貫して学校全体でダメだと指導する。

10

接し方の基本

①励ますなどの目的はあっても気楽に 肩などはたたかない。 肩に手を置かない。

②気楽に手をつなごうとしない。

③耳元で大きな声を出さない。

④無理に目を合わそうとしない。

⑤体調に気を配る。

11

母子関係の悪さ

Difficult relationships
with their parents, especially with mother

小・中学校の教員が指導が難しく「発達障害」なのではと感じている子どもたちの多くは発達障害ではなく「母子関係」の悪い子どもたち。

2009年4月から12月　東京都内・神奈川県内の小・中学校から依頼され観察した子どもたち78人中56人（71.8%）が「母子関係」の悪さが原因で問題行動。

12

教員研修
Study and training of Teachers

特別支援教育に関する教員研修

・教　員　　受講済　53．9%
・管理職　　受講済　68．3%

（2009年文部科学省）

Study and training of Teachers
for Special needs education

・teachers　(joined a seminar)　53.9%
・the management　(　〃　)　68.3%

(2009　MEXT)

13

教員免許
The teacher`s license

教員免許取得の必修教科に「特別支援教育」に関する科目がないことが、大きな課題！

現実に多くの教師がその対応や指導に苦慮！

The teachers training system in Japan does not require to learn about special needs education in order to get the teacher`s license.

It`s a problem for immediate solution !

14

Structural Differences in Japanese and US Teacher Education: Implications for Relationships with Subject Matter Content and Schools

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While there is wide recognition in both Japan and the US on the importance of teacher quality and its relation to student learning, there are substantial structural differences in how teachers are prepared in the two countries (Hawley & Hawley, 1997; Stern, 1995). It is likely that these structural differences impact ongoing relationships between teachers, subject matter content, the schools in which they work, and ultimately, student learning.

When considering the full life-cycle of teaching (both pre-service and in-service), in comparison with Japanese programs, US teacher education is far more "front-end loaded" with considerably more education coursework and supervised student teaching. In contrast, there are far greater expectations for continuing professional development in Japanese schools through structured, though informal interactions with experienced teachers, which could be described as more "back-end loaded." There is considerable complexity and interconnectedness associated with these structural differences as they are deeply embedded in a number of systems, including social, cultural, economic, and academic systems in each country.

As with other aspects of education in Japan and the US, a major structural difference in teacher education is related to the existence of a national system of education in Japan, and contrasting prominence of local autonomy and state responsibility in the US. As a result, each US state establishes requirements for teacher licensure, while teacher licensure in Japan is governed by a single national agency, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology.

There is considerable variation in US teacher education programs, with initial teacher licensure associated with bachelor's degrees, master's degrees, post-graduate non-degree certificates, and, more recently, alternative programs such as Teach for America (Levine, 2006). There are far fewer variations in Japan, where prospective teachers complete an education degree at one of the teacher training universities, or a degree in a content area at an "ordinary" university with additional education coursework and two or three weeks of supervised student teaching (Monbusho, 2006). This second pathway is more common for secondary school teaching and is very popular, with

about ten times the number of students completing the licensure requirements than actually work as teachers. US concurrent programs such as Oregon State University's Education Double Degree and the University of Texas UTeach program are similar in structure and emphasis on subject matter content, but in response to state licensure requirements, include more education coursework and supervised experience.

In comparison with their Japanese counterparts, US teachers begin their career with more education coursework, more supervised experience, and somewhat less content knowledge. Meanwhile, teachers in Japanese schools are expected to spend considerable time with each other, participating in professional development together that strengthens their sense of community, but does not typically involve interactions with university faculty or research.

Given the considerable structural differences in teacher education (both pre-service and continuing education) in the US and Japan, both countries will be challenged to be more effective in facilitating greater learning for students with increasingly varied needs, all with greater accountability. To meet these challenges, it is likely that US teacher education will push more of teacher education into the field, sharing the responsibility with school districts, as is proposed in "teacher residency" programs, while Japanese teacher education will be challenged to increase "front-end" professional preparation and supervised field experience, while maintaining the benefits of ongoing professional development in the field.

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Effective Minority Pedagogy: A Japanese Perspective

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One of the largest historically underrepresented and stigmatized minority groups in Japan is the "Buraku" or "hisabetsu chiiki" residents (Hawkins, 1983; Ogbu, 1978; Shimahara, 1991). Historically, they have been considered Japan's "invisible" minority, as they are not easily identifiable by their physical features. These minority students have experienced academic disengagement, as have many minority students in the United States. For example, Shimahara (1991) showed the gap between the 4th and 8th-grade mathematics test scores: While the 4th and 8th grade Buraku students scored 76.4% and 63.4% respectively, the entire 4th and 8th grade students scored 81.6% and 72.5% respectively in Wakayama. Similarly, when comparing the advancement rate to high school (high school education is not obligatory in Japan), the same discrepancy existed between the two groups: In 2001, 81.6% of Buraku junior high school students advanced to high school as compared to 90.7% of the total junior high school students (Osakafu Jinken Kyoiku Kenkyu Kyogikai, 2002).

Based on this urgent need to address the achievement gap, this study examined an effective pedagogical practice of a mathematics teacher at a high minority junior high school in Western Japan, in which approximately 40% of the school population is identified as students from the Buraku origin. In addition, more than 10% of the students have either recently arrived from a foreign country such as China or have Korean heritage. Approximately 40% of the school population receives some form of financial aid in order to attend school. In this junior high school, as a result of multiple challenges or "*shindoi*" (challenging) factors within the school, their teaching staff has been putting an extra effort into connecting to and motivating their students. According to the most recent Academic Performance Report published by Osaka Prefecture (2009), while the junior high schools in Osaka prefecture scored 45.9% on the average, this junior high school's overall average was 39.9%. In contrast, the 8th graders taught by the mathematics teacher in this study scored up to par with the Osaka prefecture average (45.9%) and in some questions, the students scored much higher than the average. For example, on the following question, whereas the Osaka prefecture average was 82.8%, his students' average was 95.7%: $16ax^2 \div 4ax$. Likewise, in the question of $\frac{7a-3b}{8} - \frac{2a-b}{2}$ the Osaka prefecture average was 48.9% while his students' average was 56.5%.

Examples of mathematics activities used in this teacher's 8th grade classrooms included: using snacks to teach linear equations with two variables, teaching X & Y coordinates through a

treasure hunt, and having students create symmetrical shapes of their own choice. In all of these activities, the teacher first provided a meaningful, hands-on experience to the students before introducing the mathematical jargon and abstract symbols. During this process, the teacher's role was to guide his students to discover patterns and rules on their own by posing questions that scaffolded appropriately (i.e. Zone of Proximal Development) step by step. Only after the students engaged in an activity based on the target concept and had time to make sense of the experience using their own words did the teacher explain the concept using mathematical language with abstract symbols.

There were clear foci in the 8th grade mathematics classes to motivate these "*shindoi*" students: 1) establishing clear class structure and high expectations; 2) creating lessons based on "fun in mathematics and fun in understanding"; 3) differentiated and small group instruction based on student mastery of concepts; 4) team teaching; 5) explaining concepts using words that were easy to understand; and 6) focusing on the positive (i.e. what students were able to do instead of what they were unable to do). This combination of methods fostered students' self-efficacy.

In examining the teaching practices of this teacher, salient pedagogical principles emerged: The teacher 1) connected mathematical concepts with students' prior experience and knowledge by providing hands-on tactile (i.e. touch) and kinesthetic (i.e. movement) learning activities; 2) guided students to discover patterns and rules on their own through various activities and inquiry process; and 3) integrated literacy and other subject areas in teaching mathematics. Above all, the teacher facilitated maximal student learning by creating a caring relationship with his students.

Results from this case study offer insights into how to most effectively prepare teachers to teach minority students and academically disengaged populations in mathematics and other content areas.

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Effective Minority Pedagogy: A U.S. Perspective

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The single greatest challenge currently facing teacher education in the United States is the preparation of teachers who can effectively teach diverse populations, students from cultural, language, racial, and ethnic backgrounds different than that of the dominant white culture, including English Language Learners (ELLs) (Cochran-Smith, 2010; Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Hollins, 2008). Nationwide, non-White racial and ethnic students consistently score well below White students on national and state achievement tests in reading and mathematics. For example, while 51% of White fourth-graders scored at or above the proficient level, only 15% of African American, 22% of Hispanic, and 26% of Native-American students reached such levels in mathematics. Similarly in reading, while 42% of White fourth-graders scored at or above the proficient level, only 14% of African American, 17% of Hispanic, and 20% of Native-American students performed at or above proficiency (NCES, 2007).

Overview of Project

In light of this alarming underachievement among non-White racial and ethnic students, the T.R.E.E. (Teachers Radically Enhancing Education) Project was developed to prepare preservice teachers to teach mathematics to low-performing ELLs whose home language was Spanish. Ten preservice teachers were trained intensively by educational experts to develop and implement an evidence-based summer intervention at the E Middle School in an urban district of Southern California. The E Middle School was chosen as the site because its scores were among the lowest in the district with only 7% of ELLs scoring at the proficient level on the California State Language Arts assessment as compared with 21% of all Hispanic students and 9% scoring at the proficient level in mathematics as compared with 19% of all Hispanic students (Standardize Testing and Reporting Results, 2008).

Program Description

Summer school met four and half hours a day, four days a week over eight weeks for a total of 144 hours of instruction. The principal chose the 20 lowest performing sixth graders to participate, allowing for a 1:2 teacher-student ratio. The social constructivist model of learning, supporting dynamic social interactions with peers and adults, represented the theoretical underpinnings of the T.R.E.E. Project (Vygotsky, 1978). The State Standards-based curriculum focused on multisensory approaches to teaching and learning such as the Visual, Auditory, Kinesthetic, and Tactile (VAKT) approach (Ritchey, 2006) and Sheltered Instruction Operation Protocol (SIOP) based on Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English (SDAIE) for ELLs (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2008). The third aspect of the program was a five-step teaching protocol, which has been successful in teaching algebra to underserved middle-school students in the U.S. for 25 years (Moses & Cobb, 2001). This method demonstrates student-centered learning in which students experience a concept through a familiar physical event before learning academic jargon and algorithms. More specifically, students (1) experience a physical event, such as bouncing a ball to a peer during group practice of multiplication facts, (2) draw pictorial representations to reflect on the experience, (3) describe the experience using everyday language, (4) describe the experience using academic language, and (5) construct symbolic representations (e.g. +, -, x, ÷).

Based on the Algebra Project's five steps (Moses & Cobb, 2001), the preservice teachers in the T.R.E.E. Project provided meaningful physical experiences for the students through the use of multisensory approaches to teaching and learning in four rotating stations. The first station, the Speed Zone, works on automaticity of basic facts, which allows students to free up working memory enabling them to work more advanced problems. In the VAKT station, students are taught through a multi-sensory approach which allows students to retain and have a deeper understanding of the mathematic concepts. Many students have difficulty converting a word problem into the mathematical form or deciphering the directions (e.g. "evaluate"). The two literacy stations (Right to Write and Matching Star) help students decipher math "word problems" into mathematical operations necessary to solve the problem. Through the four stations, students were exposed to a variety of learning experiences in both mathematical concepts and related literacy.

Results

Effectiveness of the pedagogy is evidenced in the students' achievement gains from pre- to post-test, presented in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1

Percent of Correct Answers According to Concepts

Basic Operations		Fractions		Negative Numbers		Equations		Rate	
Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
57	78	24	69	36	69	55	97	57	84

Although students gained in all areas of sixth grade math concepts, the greatest gain was in fractions, which are considered the greatest obstacle to learning algebra in the U.S. (Burns, 1993).

Table 2

Percent of Correct Answers According to Reading Skills

Word Problems		Non-word Problems	
Pre	Post	Pre	Post
27	68	51	82

Pre- and post-test results indicate that students made greater gains in word problems than in non-word problems. This suggests effectiveness of pedagogy not only in the area of mathematical concepts but also in math literacy for ELLs.

Conclusion

Achievement outcomes in the T.R.E.E. Project offer insights into how to most effectively prepare teachers to teach diverse populations in the content areas, including mathematics, and how to increase achievement for ELLs even as they acquire English proficiency. Effective teaching integrates literacy in every math activity and builds on students' prior experiences by using multisensory methods and familiar vocabulary prior to the introduction of academic language and abstract concepts. At the core are caring relationships in a community of learners that includes teachers who believe in and are committed to students. Trusting collaborations and high expectations empower ELLs to become critical thinkers through shared knowledge that is collectively constructed and built on students' cultures and experiences (Ladson-Billings, 2009)

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First Contact: Initial Responses to Cultural Disequilibrium in a Short Term Teaching Exchange Program

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In the summer of 2003 at Los Angeles, the JUSTEC meeting triggered the launch of our Friendship Project as well as the formation of the research team. Thus our collaborative research and its outcome are the "child" of JUSTEC. The Friendship Project, conducted from the fall of 2004 until now, is a short term exchange program between one Japanese (Naruto University of Education, Naruto, Tokushima) and two American teacher education universities (Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee and University of Puget Sound, Tacoma, Washington).

On the basis of collected data from the Japanese and American students who participated in the Friendship Project in October 2007 in the United State and in May 2008 in Japan, respectively, this paper examines early aspects of intercultural learning among pre-service teachers from Japan and the United States during the program. Using insights from Taylor's (1994) theory of intercultural development, the research uses qualitative methodology to describe experiences of cultural disequilibrium and various responses to disequilibrium by participants in the exchange. Our research questions are: 1) In what ways do pre-service teachers experience cultural disequilibrium through a short term international exchange program? 2) In what ways do participants respond to or cope with these initial disorienting experiences? 3) To what extent do such experiences suggest ways of planning and/or supporting the development of culturally responsive beginning teachers?

Findings suggest a range of related sources of cultural disequilibrium across culture groups – including unfamiliarity with a new environment, language difficulties, and social relations. In

the school setting disequilibrium was experienced by both culture groups relating to the anticipation of teaching, communication with students, and classroom management. Categories not shared across culture groups were difficulties with student understanding (Japanese) and issues of teacher disposition (American). Eight strategic responses to disequilibrium were identified: 1) Reframing, 2) Managing emotions / self-reassurance, 3) Taking initiative, 4) Experimentation / adaptation, 5) Openness to new things, 6) Observing and mimicking, 7) Defensive walls, and 8) Affirming one's own beliefs and practice. These responses are shared by both culture groups but with differing emphases. For example, Japanese participants engaged more commonly in "reframing," and American participants engaged more often in "managing emotions."

Our findings suggest the central role that emotions play in cultural disequilibrium and in intercultural learning. They also suggest the usefulness of making a range of initial strategies or responses to cultural disequilibrium visible. Such initial strategies appear to be both survival mechanisms and highly valuable in maintaining a learner's connection and openness to a new culture. Greater awareness of hidden, initial strategies can provide a language or vocabulary to assist metacognition, reflection, and dialogue with others in the process of intercultural growth. In addition, the "laboratory" of a short term exchange program provides teacher educators with data which allows us to formulate and experiment with models of intercultural learning. For example, we propose a model based on three broad domains of early intercultural response: "stance," "sense-making," and "action", as given in Figure 1.

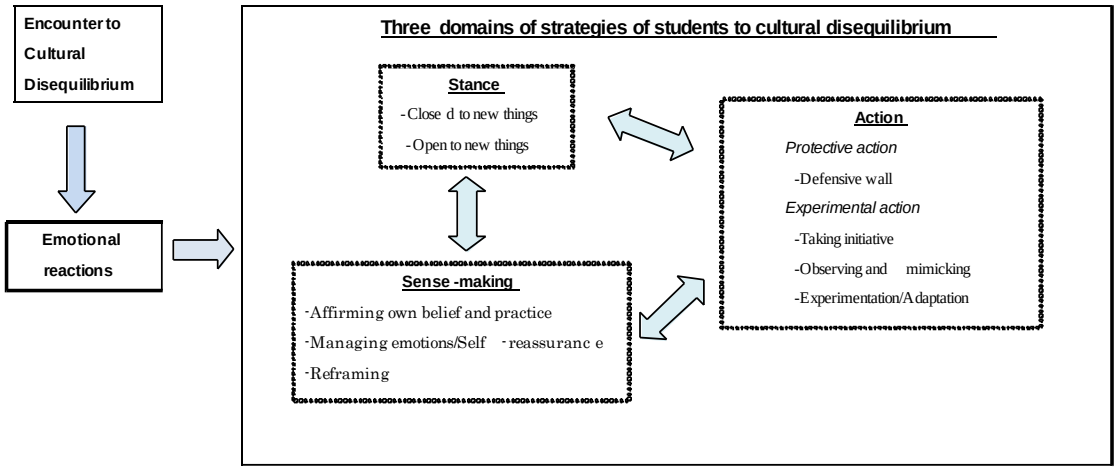

Figure 1: The schematic representation of structure of strategies that Japanese and the U.S. students take to navigate in the new situation. Rectangles with dotted line show three domains of strategies of students. Arrows indicate the possible relationship among domains.

We offer four implications from this study:

- Conceive short term exchange programs as capacity building opportunities.
- Develop and share a vocabulary of initial, strategic intercultural responses.
- Attend to levels of disequilibrium for beginners.

- Structure opportunities of shared reflection.

Limitations of the research are discussed. Overall, the research seeks to clarify the role that short term exchange experiences play in the understanding and development of early intercultural competence and to identify connections between such experiences and teacher education.

Inclusion and Diversity in the Classroom: Theoretical and Practical Approaches

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The topics of "inclusion" and "diversity" can have different meanings to different people. "Inclusion" in U.S. K-12 schools is commonly associated with the placement of children who have special education needs in regular classrooms with the typical cross section of children. "Diversity" refers to the range of attributes, such as racial, ethnic, linguistic, etc., found in a given setting. "Inclusion" and "diversity" are often connected because of observations that a disproportionate number of minority children are identified as having special needs. This is true across many cultures, as reported by Dr. Ruth Ahn at previous JUSTEC conferences.

The first part of this presentation described the theoretical and legal rationale for seven aspects of approaches to inclusion and diversity in the classroom. Following is a brief explanation of these seven aspects.

1. Special Education Need refers to challenges to learning that require specialized teaching techniques or program modifications.
2. English Language Learning is the study of English by students who have a native language other than English.
3. Racial Integration involves the systematic elimination of racially segregated schooling in order to allow equal education opportunities for all.
4. No Child Left Behind is the popular title for the 2003 federal legislation that holds schools accountable for the "Adequate Yearly Progress" of all children, including racial subgroups and children with special education needs.
5. Gifted and Talented refers to students who may benefit from special practices due to their precocious abilities.
6. Anti-Bullying involves establishment of policies and procedures to create a safe environment, free from malicious teasing and harmful behaviors.
7. Collaborative Learning is cooperative group work organized to accomplish shared goals.

The second part of our presentation consisted of a description and slide illustrations of a fifth grade teacher's approach to addressing each of these topics. Several examples were described.

We invite brainstorming of ideas for future collaborative research regarding any of these aspects of inclusion and diversity in the classroom.

Helping Child Rearing in a Foreign Country

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Due to globalization and the decrease of Japanese newborns, the number of foreigners allowed to take up residency in Japan has been increased. This has also increased the number of children living in multicultural environments, called Cross Cultural Kid (CCK, Pollock & Van Reken, 2009). Many supports have been provided for CCK in order to help them adapt to the Japanese educational system, such as language education and educational planning. However, through giving support for children, it has become evident that maladjustment of CCK to the Japanese society is closely related to the psychological state of their parents.

Parents of CCK face many difficulties when rearing their child in a foreign country such as seen in Japan. One difficulty is deciding the first language for the CCK. Secondly, many parents feel stressed from difficulties in engaging in school and educational activities. Lastly, foreign parents are always caught in a dilemma between values of their culture and that of the host country. It is difficult for parents to handle the problem because of their difficulties to earn help in a foreign country. When faced with various hardships, foreign parents are likely to have high anxiety and low self-esteem in their child rearing. It is necessary for cross-cultural counselors to provide psychological education concerning child development and guidance on educational systems, as well as offer counseling focusing on the anxiety of the parents.

Issues on first language: Choosing the first language of a CCK is one of the greatest concerns for parents. Difficulties in language usage effect foundation of relationships among friends and family members. Difficulty with language can be due to two reasons, one is a developmental disability, and the other is a temporal result of being exposed to multiple languages.

The following case is about Jia Jia, five-year old semi-bilingual child, depicts difficulty in choosing the first language of a CCK. To protect individual privacy, the name of child has been changed. Jia Jia was born between a Chinese mother and a Japanese father. Although the mother can barely speak Japanese, she uses Japanese to rear Jia Jia. The mother speaks little to her child in public, because she is embarrassed of her bad Japanese. Jia Jia is almost finishing her nursery

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school but she rarely starts a conversation from her own, and seems to have learned much less vocabulary than that of her friends. Although choosing the first language were difficult choice to make, parents and supporters need to be concerned about family communication. Less chance to communicate with a family can hinder psychological development of children (Nakajima, 1998).

Relationship with Japanese schools: It is not easy for parents who were not educated in Japan to understand its ideals, steps, and social rules. Japanese schools sometimes demand more active involvement of parents than some Asian countries' counterparts do. In addition, even when foreign parents understand the system, they have difficulty in being involved because of the language barrier (Goo, 2006). Thus, they cannot easily help CCK adapt to school or give adequate advice for future educational plans. Educational planning is difficult for foreign families not only because of the difference in school systems, but also due to differences in expectations for their child. Japanese schools encourage a child to express his/her opinion, while some Asian families expect their children to follow the parents' wishes. The child will be confused when the opinions of the parents and teachers differ or contradict.

Dilemma between home culture and host culture: Those parents, who are not familiar with the culture of host country, would be confused in what standard should be used as a reference when teaching their child. Parents would feel more confused when the standards of their home country contradict with the standards of host country.

The case about Kim explains how a cooperative relationship between parents and school helped to lessen his problematic behaviors. Kim is a boy of Korean parents attending a Japanese public school. After entering elementary school, he began to have difficulties in a class. He did not play with other classmates, and he was unable to sit still during the class. He also began to get behind from the class in his studies. His homeroom teacher used a correspondence notebook[1] to let his parents know about the difficulties that Kim was facing. However, the mother did not consider Kim as so troublesome and blamed the school for his poor performance since in Korean customs teachers are expected to show strong leadership within the class. School teachers in Japanese schools also felt difficulties in communicating with Kim's parents due to cultural differences.

After taking a developmental test, it was concluded that much of Kim's trouble was due to a language problem. Kim used Korean at home while he used Japanese at school from his parents' wish for Kim to become bilingual. When the mother noticed the importance of a correspondence

[1] Correspondence note book is a major way of communication between parents and school teachers in Japan. Teachers let parents know about how student was in the school, things to bring, and school events. Parents also need to write back to teacher about child's health condition, family event, or things to be aware of.

notebook, and when school teachers noticed what kind of support was needed for Kim, the two groups began to work together in supporting Kim.

The role of cross-cultural counseling: There are three major approaches that cross-cultural counselors could use in helping foreign parents and CCK. Those are to provide psychological education concerning child development, to have guidance on educational systems, and to offer counseling focusing on the anxiety of the parents. We have seen many families face difficulties concerning child rearing in a foreign country. We feel it is important to consider the situation of each family and seek new ways to support them together with the local community.

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Recognizing and Overcoming Dyslexia As a Barrier to Successful English Learning in Japan

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In this inter-connected global age, English has become even more of a barometer for success in school and society in Japan. Furthermore, the need for fluency in English has only become more pronounced with so much information accessed through digital media. In our combined 35 years of teaching English to university students in Japan, we have unfortunately come across far too many students who actively avoid English with the mistaken belief that they cannot learn the language. What discourages these students?

Teachers, and even more so, parents, should be aware that their child's lack of success in the English classroom may stem from a "learning disability" such as dyslexia. Estimates for the number of dyslexics in the general population range from 5% to 20%. However, dyslexics are basically unheard of in countries with pictographic writing systems such as Japan and China. It is when these students encounter written English in junior high school that their problems with visual processing become apparent. We feel that many of these students, who suddenly come face to face with failure for the first time, are actually hidden dyslexics who, with a few techniques, some extra effort and a supportive school and family environment, can develop into able readers and effective communicators.

What is dyslexia? International Dyslexia Association defines dyslexia as the "neurologically based, often familial disorder which interferes with the acquisition and processing of language; varying in degrees of severity, it is manifested by difficulties in receptive and expressive language including phonological processing in reading, writing, spelling, handwriting and sometimes in arithmetic." Basically, this means that dyslexia makes it more difficult for language learners to read and write a language. English, in particular, with its complicated phonology seems to reveal students with phonological processing problems more readily than other languages.

Unfortunately, when students begin to learn how to read and write English in Japanese junior high schools, teachers are usually unaware of the existence of problems like dyslexia and are faced with large classes of 40 plus students in most cases. Students must sink or swim on their own. Parents may try to help, but they, too, are unaware of possible learning disabilities, and have only the rote memorization methods they used to pass on to their children. Children are told to study, to memorize, to work harder, but they are not given the proper tools or strategies they could use to

become successful language learners.

Once teachers know about dyslexia and similar learning disorders, they can begin to screen students for it. Without specific training, however, they may only be able to find the most severely dyslexic students. (Dyslexic students are often found through certain types of spelling mistakes, board to paper copying mistakes, short-term memory problems, etc.). To reach all students with phonological processing difficulties, we suggest that teachers assume everyone needs extra help learning to read and write English. In other words, English language teachers need to incorporate a wide spectrum of approaches. A multi-intelligence approach to English will give students the best chance to find what language learning strategies work best for them. (We will outline several of these strategies in our presentation.)

Moreover, a supportive environment in the home is essential for the student's long-term success. Positive reinforcement and acknowledgement of successful small steps can make a difference in the student's attitude and motivation for continued improvement.

Dyslexia and other learning disabilities are finally gaining recognition in Japan. The Ministry of Education has budgeted for extra assistance with identification and special training for students in every prefecture in Japan, though teachers seem to be unaware of such funding. Changes to the all-powerful "Center" exam for entrance into Japanese universities are also being considered.

However, from our perspective, Japan's English education still faces some inherent problems. First and foremost, English is not seen as a foreign language but as a yardstick for success. English, mostly reading, comprises one-fifth to one-third of the total score on entrance exams for higher education. This creates intense pressure for students to master the basic points of English in their three years of junior high. English is not used as a communication tool but as a screening method to leave behind those students who cannot read well.

In 2009 the percentage of children in the Japanese population declined for the 36th consecutive year. We cannot afford to allow students who may have other special abilities to be abandoned by the Japanese education system because of poor grades/bad scores in English. With some creativity and a broad set of learning strategies available to students, we feel that every student can experience success in English.

Using Autonomous Learning Activities in a Japanese University Setting

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Autonomy has been defined as "the ability to take charge of one's learning" (Holec, 1981: 3). This presentation will report on the development and use of autonomous learning activities in four quite different university courses (Business English, English for Art students, Academic English, and a course in Japanese Cultural Studies). This presentation will highlight common principles in the design of a variety of autonomous learning activities used in those courses. It will also focus on how autonomy can be adapted to other learning situations so that we can gain some critical insights into how students express control over their own learning in different ways. For example this presentation will show how autonomous learning activities can be used in courses introducing Japanese culture and society to foreign students studying in Japan, furthermore the presentation will demonstrate how autonomy is used to introduce Business English students to both product presentations and service presentations. In all four of the above courses the presenter found increased motivation and higher levels of student participation in the learning process. I have two points I would like to discuss in this presentation the first point is the need for teacher autonomy as a prerequisite for the development of autonomy in the classroom. My second point briefly describes how I have used autonomous learning activities in Japanese University courses. Included in this discussion of autonomous learning activities is the necessity of both critical evaluations by the teacher and critical reflections by the students.

In order to promote learner autonomy in the classroom the teacher must have the freedom to decide the pedagogical direction of the students, what are the goals of the course and how they to be achieved. It has been noted that learner autonomy would be difficult to promote in the classroom without first allowing for teacher autonomy in the EFL context (Pinter 2007). In my own teaching circumstances I have been fortunate to have the freedom to decide the learning goals of the courses I have taught without that freedom of choice I would not have been able to explore how effectively autonomy can work in the classroom

An important part of autonomous learning activities are both critical evaluations by the instructor and critical reflections by the students. As for critical evaluations I posed the following question on my course questionnaire: "*Did the instructor's critical evaluations help improve your presentation performance*?" Positive responses to this question by my 3rd year students at a 4-year foreign language university coupled with the overall improvement of their presentation skills reflects how critical evaluations by the instructor can both motivate and improve future presentation performances. The students completed an activity entitled "newspaper talk". In this activity, four students form one group and each student presents an English news article of their choice.

Allowing students to choose their own articles emphasizes some fundamental principles of autonomy, giving the students freedom of choice and responsibility for their own learning (Benson & Voller 1997), therefore stimulating the students` intrinsic motivation.

Critical reflections are completed at the end of the activity and are encouraged by having students write a self-evaluation of their performance. Critical evaluations are given to the students by the instructor in the form of a written evaluation and a numerical score based on the instructor's evaluation criteria. The comments and evaluations are later given to the students.

The instructor's critical evaluations given to the students should be as positive as possible, even when their performance is poor, in order to nurture and encourage the development of the target language. These evaluations can serve to improve students` future presentation performances. Students' responses to the following question "Did you think the critical evaluations of your presentations by the instructor were useful for improving your English ability? Why or why not?" included:

> *Yes, it was very useful, [because]I have no idea what I have to improve while the presentation (sic.).*
>
> *Yes, I didn't notice my weak point of my presentation.*

Critical evaluations are important for students because they promote awareness of the weaknesses in their language skills and hopefully with this awareness, development of improved language skills. In addition to critical evaluations the presenter found student self-evaluations were also important for fostering self-reflection on their presentation performances and possible future improvement in the students` language development.

When students reflect on their learning it helps them to be cognizant of the learning process. Reflection has also been described by Little (1997a in Benson 2001:p.90) as "a key psychological component of autonomy". My own students' reflections mirror Little's point as one student wrote in the self-evaluation of his presentation performance:

> *I was difficult to prepare presentation that audience easly follow*
>
> *my presentation and to speak fluently. I have to practice more! (sic.)*

I believe self-reflection on the learning process can lead to conscious awareness of how to improve one's language ability.

In conclusion I believe learner autonomy and autonomous learning activities are appropriate pedagogical practices for Japanese students. These autonomous learning activities together with critical evaluations and reflections can lead to improved English language ability. As mentioned earlier these activities are ultimately dependent on teacher autonomy for successful implementation and conclusion.

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What Makes Japanese University Students overcome their feelings of demotivation toward English Study?

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Abstract:
Background of this study:
To attain the target language, the learner's motivation plays a crucial role. In the Second Language Acquisition field, researchers and teachers have noticed the importance of and have investigated the constructs of learner motivation to help facilitate the learner's target language learning. How to motivate students by using various motivational strategies and the constructs of the motivation itself have been widely discussed and applied up to the present.

In the 1990's, scholars in SLA shed some light on the 'shadow' part of learner motivation, i.e. 'demotivation,' through interviews and questionnaires given to learners and teachers. Demotivation, however, hasn't been fully discussed yet.
The research question of this study is whether there are any differences between those who lost their motivation and those who regained their motivation during their English study.

Methods:
The participants were 2,229 Japanese students from twenty universities throughout Japan. 1,004 were male students, 1,205 were female students, and 20 were unknown. The majority of them were freshmen (51.8 %).

They were asked to answer multiple-choice questions on their background, such as gender, present grade in university, major, and the amount of time of study outside of classes. The item that relates to our research question was whether they experienced demotivation and if so, when and what were the circumstances. Not all of the students gave written responses, however, a relatively large number of student voices were heard.
The written explanations were coded one-by-one with a tag that describes the content, and then, those coding categories were gathered under broader themes. The concepts of Strauss (1987) and Lincoln and Guba (1985) were referred to in making the categories.

Results:
The results show that 19.7 % of the participants never experienced demotivation, while 20.5 % were once demotivated yet overcame their demotivation. The remaining 58.6 % answered that at some point in the course of their English study, they lost their motivation. (1.2 % chose nothing.)
One of the most prominent factors which saved the demotivated student was meeting 'a good

teacher.' It has already been pointed out that the teacher plays a crucial role in sometimes demotivating students. Yet, we learned here from the participants' that teachers also play the opposite role to once again help their students out of their demotivated state.

In addition, the participants who regained their motivation showed that they developed their own learning strategies. Through trial-and-error they found efficient and appropriate ways to study.

One of the other elements common in this group of students was that they realized that mastering English was important for their future, indicating that viewing English as the lingua franca in a global society also plays an important role in regaining motivation to study English.

For those who answered that they experienced demotivation, the triggers and the period when they experienced that demotivation varied among individuals. For those who lost their motivation during the junior high school years, one of the prominent factors that affected them was the class attitude toward English study. One participant wrote that s/he was teased for her/his native sounding pronunciation of English, causing her/him to lose her/his motivation. Other factors related to demotivation were teachers and lack of understanding. For those who lost their motivation to study English in high school, one prominent element was lack of understanding of the material, accompanied by an inability to comprehend long passages and difficulties in remembering the large number of vocabulary words. All in all, those stated remembering new vocabulary and grammar were beyond their ability.

Discussion:

It was noted that those who remained motivated and those who regained their motivation tended to state strategies, interactions, and a positive attitude toward English as factors in their responses. This indicates to us that teaching various learning strategies is effective. As for the teacher element, it is interesting to note that one of the participants wrote that in order to regain his/her motivation, she/he would try to like his/her teacher.

Since those who continue to like English study and those who regain their motivation seem to view society as a global one, this perspective is worth introducing in the English lessons. It was also mentioned that while the participants critically judged teachers for their teaching techniques and knowledge, they also recognized their empathy and immediacy to them especially when they were demotivated or feeling incompetent.

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Challenges of Diversity within Classroom Learning Communities

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Looking at the 20th century's two great thinkers, Einstein and Gandhi, it is clear that one can change reality by changing one's vision.' Within the classroom, such deconstruction of old attitudes and habits and the reconstruction of more appropriate ones is, to say the least, challenging. 'Like writing on water' or 'convincing the sun there is darkness,' at times it seems futile to consider taking on the challenges involved in getting a whole classroom of students to buy into a 'radical' world view about teaching or learning. It could seem like... an 'impossible dream' or 'tilting at windmills.'

This 'impossible dream' analogy might be used when considering how to respond effectively to the wide diversity among students and their awareness, attitude, knowledge and skills in any classroom. But within a communication-based, second language classroom, the challenges can seem especially formidable. Diversity runs wide and deep; with many first year university students having neither knowledge nor skills that one could assume to be reasonable outcomes of junior high English education, and in the same classroom, there are students who have studied in high schools overseas. This creates not only classrooms with diverse English language backgrounds but also diverse world views towards goals of learning and the role of learners, especially within the classroom.

Considerations when establishing a classroom-based learning community

One concern is how to identify and respond to the diversity of English knowledge and skills while at the same time creating a learning community in which students can engage with academic content and interact with others within the classroom setting. In a traditional classroom, learners receive the knowledge of the expert teacher. By contrast, in a learning community, all members are both learners and experts. By expanding the role of students to include 'learner expert,' it includes the concept that learners are expected to take responsibility for monitoring their own engagement with and comprehension of what is heard and read. For most students this is a major paradigm shift. In high school, it is common for students to wait to be told what to learn, what the meaning of the text is.

Another consideration is that establishing a community of engaged learners is influenced by the world view of both teachers and learners concerning various aspects of teaching and learning.

The learning-teaching environment and learning outcomes are influenced to a large degree by the teacher's vision and expectations of the following 'teacher-planned' aspects of the curriculum:

* goals of the course and goals for the learner
* role of the teacher and of the learners
* principle learning activities
* learner - teacher interaction
* purpose and method of assessment and evaluation

Decisions concerning these can either be active ones based on reason and values or 'de facto decisions,' the result of not bothering to make a decision or not successfully implementing it. Frameworks which help the learners envision the teacher's world view are of great value.

Statement of beliefs concerning a classroom-based learning community

Recognizing communication as a complex cultural act, characterized by motivational and cognitive dimensions, and due to the diversity within classrooms, it is important to consider the value of interaction-based courses in which students are empowered to engage and interact in English.

The basic goal for the course is to have English used meaningfully in the classroom; receptively and productively.

The basic goals for the learners are to

comprehend - as completely as possible, what is heard or observed
- actively, by asking for clarification and by rephrasing

communicate - ones own ideas as well as possible, in English or in Japanese
- being aware of and comfortable in using various strategies

collaborate - being aware of and helping others comprehend and communicate
- seeking help from others when needed

The teacher is not solely responsible for creating learning opportunities or for initiating classroom interaction. Management of learning is a shared endeavor.

Responsibility for establishing and maintaining the classroom learning community and for creating meaningful learning experiences is to be shared by all within the classroom.

Managing interaction and learning

Managing classroom interaction is the 'likely challenge' that the teacher must be vigilant about; as it is obvious that interaction has to be managed by everyone taking part. Interaction is not something that is done to you or for you. It is something done individually, but together,

collectively. The learning environment and the classroom culture are established and maintained by the quality and the degree of learner engagement and interaction. In a learning community in which students willingly and actively accept the role of ‘expert,’ students can learn

* to seek and provide the language they need,
* to clarify and elaborate their ideas,
* to negotiate the complexities of face to face interaction.

When students are engaged and interacting in communication-based classrooms, one can observe that:

* what learners say changes the input available to other learners
* what learners say (and do) influences the practice opportunities for themselves and others.
* what learners say influences the atmosphere of the learning community.

Handouts given during the presentation will highlight other world view frameworks that have at their core a focus on engagement and interaction; ones that can help empower both teachers and learners to get beyond a feeling of 'tilting at windmills.'

Foreign Language Activities (FLA) in Elementary-University Collaborative Projects

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Background

Under new national curriculum guidelines laid down in March 2008 by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (*Monbukagakusho* or *Monkasho* for short), English is to be taught in the 5th and 6th grades of all elementary schools in Japan from April 2011. More specifically, this English is designated as Foreign Language Activities (FLA) or *gaikokugokatsudo* with the emphasis on "trying the have pupils understand language and culture experientially", in other words, learning by immersion rather than bookwork.

In advance of the target date, some schools have already initiated their own programs, or are experimenting with special projects. Such programs and projects reflect not only instances of eagerness and good preparation but also a certain nervousness on the part of in-service principals and teachers, for whom FLA represents a significant change in job description. If, as the guidelines imply, this program is to be delivered in the main by homeroom teachers, those who have had hitherto no aptitude or interest, not to mention post-school experience, in English may be justifiably alarmed.

Since 2005 Bukkyo University (BU) has been running its 'Field-Based Elementary Schoolteacher Preparation Program' with the co-operation of Kyoto City Government. In this multi-disciplinary program, BU students, faculty, and in-service elementary class teachers work in collaboration to create teaching materials which groups of students then use to practice-teach elementary school classes, again in collaboration with the class teachers and BU faculty staff. In subjects such as math and Japanese the benefits of in-service teachers' experience to undergraduates were obvious, however, in the case FLA (introduced to the program in 2009) it was envisaged that such collaboration would benefit not only the undergraduates, but also the in-service elementary teachers, by appeasing their nervousness surrounding the forthcoming new curriculum.

The Projects

This paper presents findings from two of the above outlined collaborative FLA projects delivered by

BU Faculty of Education undergraduates (pre-service teachers) at two public elementary schools in Kyoto 2009-2010. The undergraduates' remit was to plan and conduct English language activities (ELA) for 3rd/4th and 5th/6th grade elementary classes. In doing so they enlisted the collaboration of in-service teachers and the assistance of a native English speaker to devise and lead action-songs and games as part of their class activities. The activities were specifically designed with a developmental rather than transmissional perspective and approached as 'activities' rather than as a 'subject'. The classes were conducted in an 'all English' total-immersion environment and achievement testing was eschewed in favor of opportunities for interaction with the native speaker, thus providing a summary and consolidating experience, as opposed to an examination.

Data sources

The data derive from a number of sources: reflections of the trainee teachers (undergraduates), feedback from in-post elementary school teachers and elementary school pupils, and our (the presenters') own observations.

Findings

- Data reflect diverse, even opposing, viewpoints.
- Positive and negative findings were closely related.
- There was no precedent to use as a model.
- It was difficult to circumnavigate the pre-conceptions of in-service teachers e.g. transmissional instruction.
- BU students and in-service teachers were apt to advocate progress-testing.
- BU students retrospectively valued the developmental non-testing approach.
- Class plans developed more creatively than previous transmission-type plans.
- Pupils' reception/motivation was best/highest in lower grades (younger).
- Unpredicted variations in reception/motivation between classes and individuals demanded quick-thinking; ad hoc flexibility reaped great rewards.
- Teachers and BU students had varying levels of English and varying attitudes towards English, based on educational and personal history, and this affected their confidence and motivation.
- The vicissitudes of institutional collaboration, and participant ability/confidence created unforeseen extra workload for BU course leaders.

Recommendations

From the above findings we make specific recommendations for better practice in teacher training including FLA.

- FLA should start at an early age (lower grade).
- The definition of FLA as an activity (as opposed to a subject), should be repeatedly clarified, explained and discussed with in-service teachers.
- In-service teachers may need individual attention and support.
- Institutions should endeavor to support FLA with native or second-language English speaker input/participation (e.g. co-opting foreign staff and students).
- Flexibility should be built-in to class plans and practiced.
- Effective practice schedules and media (CDs, videos etc) are required by teachers and students to advance their command of English and confidence in using it (esp. if no native speaker available).
- Preparation should be made for potential extra demands on faculty time.
- It is necessary to continue development FLA and sharing of findings.

We propose to share what has been learned from these projects in order to contribute to the continued enhancement of FLA teaching methodology and materials for the forthcoming new curriculum in Japanese elementary schools.

Investigating Team Teaching Issues at Japanese Senior High Schools

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Research Aims

The purpose of this study was to examine theoretical issues related to team teaching at Japanese senior high schools. Research was based upon a literature review of all available sources related to team teaching as of 2009. In this study, the following team teaching issues were examined in greater depth: underlying principles, effects & benefits, problems, and prerequisites for successful implementation.

Definition

Broadly defined, team teaching is any form of teaching in which two or more teachers regularly and purposefully divide responsibility for the planning, presentation, and evaluation of lessons prepared for a group of students (Davis, 1966). However, under Japanese educational contexts, team teaching is a concerted endeavor between the Japanese teacher and the assistant language teacher to create a foreign language classroom in which students are actively engaged in oral communication (MEXT, 2002).

Terminology

Consequently, throughout this study, the term 'team teaching' (TT) was defined as having either an Assistant Language Teacher (ALT) or Native English Teacher (NET) teaching alongside a Japanese Teacher of English (JTE) within the same class. This can be set out as follows: TT = (ALT + JTE or NET + JTE).

Underlying Principles

Research conducted 20 years ago remarked upon the lack of a cohesive set of principles that could apply to TT practices found at Japanese high schools (Shimaoka & Yashiro, 1990). Even today, it was found that most of the literature still focuses upon TT in general, or the effects of TT in relation to something else. To resolve this problem, 6 general TT principles identified by Buckley (2000) were combined with 3 culture specific TT principles to produce a categorical flow chart illustrating the relationship between TT principles in Japan (see Figure 1). Furthermore, it is possible to classify each principle into 3 categorical decision-making levels: strategic (affects planning & organization features of TT), operational (affects the TT experience as a whole), and tactical (affects the lesson & class). This provides a clearer understanding of the relationship between principles and demonstrates that the TT process can be regarded as being systematic. Moreover, any TT research

or study also requires an understanding of TT patterns encountered in the local environment. This is especially vital when examining lessons under a TT format, as this has an overall effect on the choice of classroom activities (Shimaoka & Yashiro, 1990). This can be examined through: teaching roles performed by ALTs & JTEs (Shimaoka & Yashiro, 1990), interaction patterns of teachers in relation to students (Tajino & Tajino, 2000), or team teaching models (Goetz, 2000; Tonks, 2009).

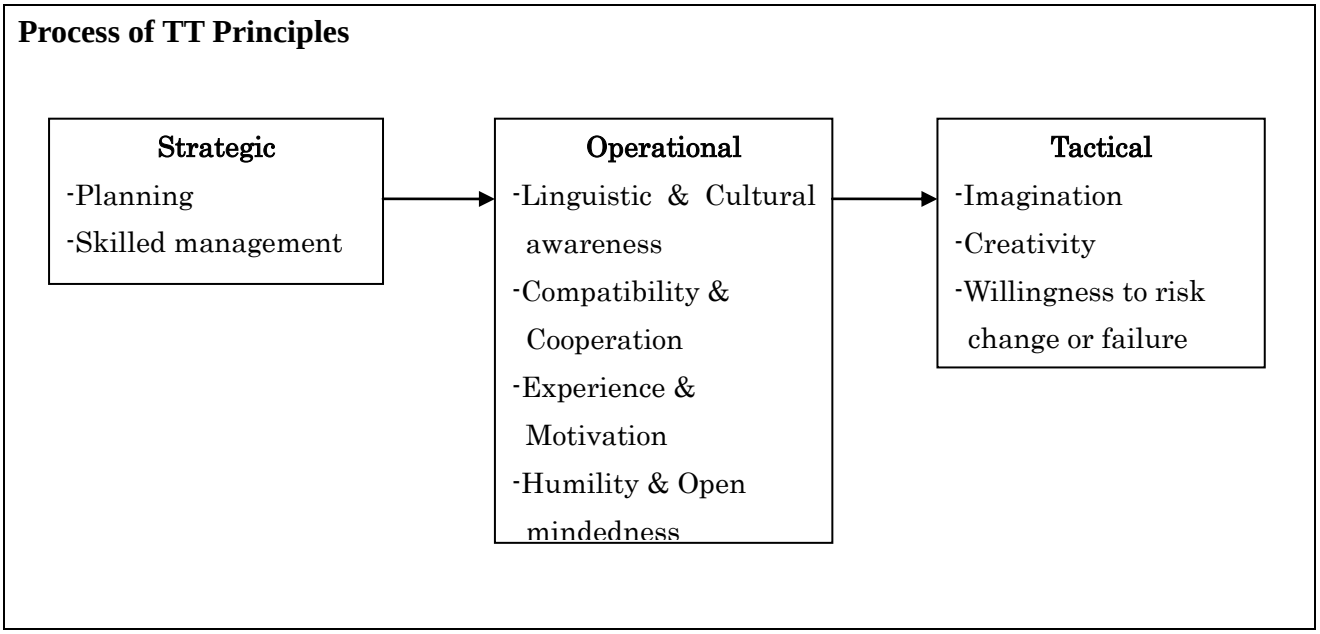

Figure 1. Categorical flow chart showing the relationship between TT principles in Japan.

Effects and Benefits

A total of 21 merits were identified within the literature. It was found that the effects and benefits of using a TT approach were best described by examining some of its stated merits, within 3 mutually inclusive areas: merits gained by teachers, merits gained by students, and merits gained by the administration. The following are 3 common examples found within the literature.

1. Merits gained by teachers: Teaching responsibilities are shared, reducing the burden on each individual teacher (Buckley, 2000).
2. Merits gained by students: Reduces the risk of student-teacher personality problems from occurring (Buckley, 2000).
3. Merits gained by the administration: Promotes cultural exchange & internationalization in schools (MEXT, 2002).

Problems

A total of 17 demerits were identified within the literature. It was equally found that the problems of using a TT approach were best described by using a contrastive approach through examining some of its stated demerits, within the same 3 mutually inclusive areas: demerits incurred by teachers, demerits incurred by students, and demerits incurred by the administration. The following are 3

common examples found within the literature.

1. Demerits incurred by teachers: Causes the potential for disagreement & disunity to occur between teachers, especially if they come from different cultural backgrounds (Kobayashi, 1994).
2. Demerits incurred by students: Has the potential to alienate students who prefer to learn in a highly rigid classroom environment (Buckley, 2000).
3. Demerits incurred by the administration: Increases school costs as the number of teachers per class is increased (Buckley, 2000).

Prerequisites for Successful Implementation

It was found that for TT to be effective and have a positive impact on students' learning, certain prerequisites were necessary. Without these prerequisites, the chances of fostering a successful TT experience are significantly reduced. These prerequisites for successful TT were best described by dividing it into theoretical (individual teacher has limited control over these factors) and practical (individual teacher has full control over these factors) considerations.

1. The main theoretical factors to be considered are: school environment, working conditions, amount of funding for TT, amount of resources for TT, research/training devoted towards TT, and level of cooperation between teachers (Buckley, 2000).
2. The main practical factors to be considered are: lesson planning, lesson activities, lesson evaluation, classroom management, student learning, level of student interaction, eliciting student responses, and teacher performances (Leonard, 1994; MEXT, 2002).

Discussion

Certain discrepancies were found within the literature examined in terms of principles governing TT. One of the main problems was a failure to identify classroom practices by TT model types, making direct comparisons difficult. Additionally, there was a tendency to gloss over the theory or principles behind TT, and focus on the field of interest to the researcher (e.g. native and nonnative teacher roles). While such bipolar studies demonstrate the necessity to explore TT from a multifaceted angle, thus deepening our knowledge of the impact that TT has upon other areas, the failure to base these studies on a common theoretical framework of defined principles significantly mitigates the impact of these studies. Only by adopting a more consistent approach of explaining team teaching principles in relation to the study can a more complete understanding of team teaching be obtained.

Recommendations

Based on this study, certain recommendations can be made:

1. Streamlining of all TT research through a common theoretical framework of defined principles.

2. The establishment of a prescribed methodology explaining the TT process in depth.
3. Importance of providing teachers w/professional training in both theoretical & functional aspects of TT (Goetz, 2000).
4. Close cooperation between teachers and constructive evaluation of the TT process (Leonard, 1994).
5. Desensitizing the teacher evaluation process through the usage of team evaluation checklists (Blue & Grundy, 1996).

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Japanese Secondary Students and English Language Beliefs: A coherent set?

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Background

Education in most secondary schools in Japan is geared towards entrance examinations. On English entrance examinations, many questions are related to receptive or translation skills with reading passages that are considered difficult for even native speakers (Kikuchi, 2006). The traditional teaching method, known locally as *yakudoku*, which is teacher-fronted and word-by-word translation-based, is the default L2 teaching method in secondary schools (Gorsuch, 2000); while communicative language teaching has been found to pose challenges for Japanese English teachers (Nishino, 2009; Sakui, 2003; Yamamori, 2002).

Yet the aims of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology-Japan are summed up as developing students' practical communication abilities, deepening the understanding of language and culture, and instilling a positive attitude toward L2 communication (MEXT, 2003). In its current form, the Course of Study favors the four skills being developed to support communication (MEXT, 2009).

Learner Beliefs

A survey, English Learning Beliefs of Japanese Students (ELBJS) (k = 45) examined the beliefs of university students (Sakui & Gaies, 1999). A four-factor structure was found. Beliefs were similar to traditional, grammar-based teaching, such as 'learning English is mostly a matter of learning grammar rules', and contemporary approaches, such as 'I study English because it is useful to communicate with English-speaking people.' Riley (2006) found a similar four-factor structure with a different cohort of university students. In both of these studies, possible differences by gender or other variables were not considered.

Using L1-Japanese adjectives to describe their impression of English, high school learners were torn, almost equally, between describing English in negative and positive terms (Richard, 2010). Chi-square tests revealed differences on two independent variables, gender and travel abroad experience; with females and those who have traveled abroad being more positive towards English than males and those without overseas experience.

The Present Study

The present study involved 542 high school students (189 females, 353 males) across three

grades, from three high schools, two private and one public, in the Tokyo Metropolitan area. Learners were given a Japanese version of the ELBJS to complete. The survey also gathered biographical data for a number of independent variables (IV): gender, year at school, school, experience at cram school, and overseas travel experience.

Taken as a whole, the beliefs of these were learners appear to be a coherent set. Moreover, the correlations between the rank order of items in this survey with those in the Sakui & Gaies (1999) and Riley (2006) were large; and a similar four-factor structure was found.

However, individual items were subsequently investigated for significant differences according to IV. Nearly two-thirds of all items were found to have significant differences on at least one IV. Factor analyzes were rerun, one grouped variable at a time. The four-factor structure did not hold. Scores from females, those who have been abroad, and senior students were found to hold positive attitude towards contemporary approaches to learning English.

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Sociological and Methodological Issues Concerning English Education at an Elementary School in Japan

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At many private elementary schools in Japan, English education has been implemented as a required subject for years. While Japanese public elementary schools will start compulsory English education only for the 5th and 6th graders once a week in 2011, many private elementary schools have already offered English lessons to the students in all grades (starting from the 1st grade year) once or twice a week.

As a part-time instructor at a private elementary school , the author has observed sociological issues as well as methodological issues of English education at a Japanese elementary school. The author discusses three sociological and two methodological issues, and suggests the possible issues of early English education at both public and private elementary schools in Japan in the future.

Three Sociological Issues:

(1) Since an English teacher is often a lonely figure at an elementary school (Other teachers do not specialize in teaching English.), an English teacher finds it difficult to share the problems with other teachers. In other words, many elementary school teachers do not know the young learners' process of acquiring a foreign language, and such lack of knowledge occasionally causes too much pressure on the students when they are expected to show a certain level of accomplishment. For example, at a school the author was working for, a full-time teacher in charge of coordinating English curriculum asked the students to take a certificate examination although it was too difficult for many students to pass. The author believes that the teacher was very enthusiastic about motivating the students. As an English teacher, however, the author was worried about giving too much pressure of learning English on the students. This kind of miscommunication among the colleagues. should be avoided for the students' educational benefit. To conclude, the cooperation between an English teacher and other teachers is vital for practicing English education at an elementary school.

(2) The home-room teachers' psychological attitudes toward early English education largely affect the students' performance on English studying. In Japan, a home-room teacher has a tremendous influence on his/her classroom students' overall performance at school. Therefore, if the home-room teacher considers learning English seriously, his/her students try hard to meet the home-room teacher's expectations sincerely. If, on the other hand, the teacher thinks that early English

education is not so much necessary, and that the students will learn it in a junior high school any way, his/her students cannot be serious about learning a foreign language.

The following is one example of the influence of the homeroom teachers' ideas on English education. When the author gave a vocabulary (written) test as a term-end test, the result showed that a difference of the average points between the two classes was nearly 30 points. Since the two classes are equally divided according to their previous years' grades, as is often the case with the Japanese school system concerning the classroom organization, such a large difference should not be observed between the classes. Analyzing such test's results, the author has come to the conclusion that what an English teacher can do is limited within a range of how the home-room teachers consider English education.

(3) Although the hours of English classes at school are much less than other required subjects', an English teacher is often expected to show the outcomes of her/his teaching, such as the number of students who pass STEP Test. At a school the author worked for, the students learn English for two class hours a week: one hour with a native speaker of English and one hour with a Japanese English teacher. The former class mainly focuses on listening and speaking, the latter on reading and writing. The two English class hours is far less than the class hours at a junior high school, at which they usually have three to six English hours a week. Despite the fact that more than 90% of the author's students pass the 5^{th} grade of STEP Test before graduating from the elementary school, students should not simply think that the primary goal of English education is to pass a test, nor should an English teacher be obsessed with showing the test results. What is important is for students to develop confidence in communicating in English.

Two Methodological Issues:

(1) It is difficult to evaluate the students' performance in English classes in order not to make the students unhappy about English learning. At the school the author worked for, an English teacher has to evaluate the students' performance in the area of listening, speaking, reading, writing, and the overall attitudes, with the three grades. It is often a "heart-breaking" job to give grades especially to the younger graders because some students cannot get good points on a written test or a reading test although they actively participate in the classroom, such as raising their hands and presenting their ideas. In a reverse case of the younger graders, the senior graders, especially girls become less orally active in the class. Many of those quiet students get a high score on a written test. In both cases, the author is always worried about "how the evaluation will imprint the image of English learning upon the young students". How to evaluate elementary school students' performance in an English class should be discussed more.

(2) To teach how to write is extremely difficult in the environment of limited teaching hours. It is needless to say that young students need a lot of time to practice writing and reading; ideally, they should practice every day as they do with the Japanese learning, such as writing Kanji, and reading

aloud activities. The author gave them homework consistently throughout the year. I devoted much time to checking their assignments other than my working hours though. As a result of both the students' and the author's hard work with much help from their home-room teachers, the percentage of passing the STEP Test has increased approximately by 15% (the 5th Grade Test) compared with the previous year's. We have to remember one thing that we cannot always expect an English teacher's voluntary hours at school.

Conclusions:

To make an English education at a Japanese elementary school successful, the author suggests the following two points:

(1) School as a whole should hold a consensus of ideas on how important the English education is. Both an English teacher and other teachers have to cooperate and be patient with the students' accomplishment in English learning. We should not haste our students to develop their competence in a foreign language. It is important to maintain their interest in the English language and to develop their confidence in using it.

(2) The way of evaluating English competence should be improved at an elementary school. In addition, how to teach writing and reading is difficult in a present situation of the Japanese elementary school. To provide the students with more efficient and sufficient English learning environment, school should hire a full-time English teacher so that he/she can devote more energy to teaching writing and reading as well as speaking and listening.

In conclusion, the author hopes that the above discussions will give some suggestions on the future curriculum development of English education at an elementary school in Japan.

There is a Better Way: Whole-Brain Language Learning

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I. Rapid language learning

For centuries, there have been reports of startling successes in language teaching. Typical reports say the teaching begins with oral learning, focuses on concrete objects, obtains rapid results, and works for all ages (see, e.g., Howatt, 2004, pp. 210-227). The reports are often dismissed as aberrations, but the number of sightings continues to grow. As William James said, if you wish to prove that there are such things as white crows, you do not need large numbers; "it is enough if you prove one single crow to be white" (1896, p. 131). By now, it is clear that rapid language learning is within the range of human capabilities. A healthy reaction is to try to figure out how it happens, and to search for ways of making it happen.

II. Language processing in the brain

For over a century, behavioral neurologists thought that the left cortical hemisphere, and in particular Broca's and Wernicke's areas, performed all language functions (Cytowic, 1996, pp. 468-470). Now, however, it is evident that the contribution of the right hemisphere is to flesh out a skeletal message with a whole working body of meaning complete with subtle curves and implications. Jill Bolte Taylor (described the different language functions of the hemispheres:

> With language, for example, our left hemisphere understands the details making up the structure and semantics of the sentence – and the meaning of the words. . . . It then strings words together in a linear fashion to create sentences and paragraphs capable of conveying very complex messages. (33)

But the right hemisphere, a silent partner, furnishes and interprets meaning:

> Our right hemisphere complements the action of our left hemisphere language centers by interpreting non-verbal communication. Our right mind evaluates the more subtle cues of language including tone of voice, facial expression, and body language. Our right hemisphere looks at the big picture of communication, and assesses the congruity of the overall expression. (33-34)

The problem is that language teaching and learning are too often designed as left-brain

activities. They leave out the right-brain things – vivid impressions and associations, subtleties for use in the meeting of minds – that are vital for using and remembering a language. There is no evil intent, but left-brain kinds of activities are congenial to the way schools organize learning activities as explicit, organized knowledge. This approach works nicely for subjects such as mathematics and chemistry. But achieving fluency in a language by left-brain activities is likely to be many times slower than teaching it as a whole-brain activity.

III. Organization of language classes

Knowing what we do now, it seems reasonable gradually to introduce whole-brain language classes as opportunities present themselves and resources become available. A good guideline for curriculum design was offered by Palmer (1929), who based his ideas in an intuitive understanding of whole-brain language learning, and made recommendations specifically for the Japanese situation. Palmer said that if he could control the first six weeks of a junior high school student's encounter with English, he could acclimate students to the basic sounds, rhythms, and structures of English, set the student's accent in a way that does not need to be unlearned. This, he said, would optimize the student's preparation for English in the Japanese situation, which, he understood, requires English mainly for reading and for tests.

Let us imagine two classroom stereotypes, which I will call "decontextualized" and "contextualized."

1. A decontextualized classroom is typically an arid, ugly place where abstract knowledge about a language is dispensed. Students are thought to internalize the dispensed knowledge to the extent they are able. The knowledge that is projected into the classroom air is typical left-brain content: those aspects of language that can be written down and memorized.

2. A contextualized classroom is one in which everything in the classroom – not only the teacher but also other students, the desks, the floor, the walls, the lights, the windows (oh, the windows!) – can be the either conversation partners or subjects of discussion. By this means, the student approaches and crosses the threshold from not speaking the language to speaking the language.

IV. Summary

Reports of rapid language learning describe classes that increase both the speed and richness of language learning. They appear to accomplish this with teaching methods that engage the right hemisphere as well as the left hemisphere.

We can introduce whole-brain language classes. If we work it right, a classroom need not be

a place where students drag themselves to assigned desks and wait to be told something. It can be a place where students have many new experiences and talk about them in a new way. Teaching can be more efficient and students more enthusiastic.

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Ready for an Avalanche?: Public Discourse and Foreign Language Teaching Policy at Japanese K-12 Schools.

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The term Native Speaker has been one of the critical items in the discourse of English language teaching (ELT). It has been used not only by those involved in ELT profession but by general public. In many cases, the term symbolizes the ideal speakers of English whose use of the language is considered the model the learners have to follow. In the early 1960s when ELT began to spread all over the world from 'Inner Circle' countries (Kachru 1982), there were prevailing discourses in the profession that such as 'English should be taught monolingually in English" and "The ideal English teacher is a native speaker' . Phillipson, in his seminal publication titled *Linguistic Imperialism* (1992) considered these along with other tenets 'five fallacies' and challenged them mainly from historical points of view. Since then, the issue has received more attention from researchers (See Braine 2010). However, the notion of Native Speaker still intact among the Japanese general public which significantly affects the Japanese people's attitudes towards various aspects of learning English

In EFL contexts or 'Expanding Circle' countries, a majority of EFL teachers are locals. Japan is not an exception. This means that in most cases, the teachers themselves have learned English as a second or a foreign language. They are non-native speakers of English and often stigmatized by the prevailing discourses that still remain among the Japanese general public (Oda 2007, Seargeant 2009).

The purpose of this paper is to discuss the relationship between the formation of public discourses and the ELT policy making in Japan, with a special attention to the notion of 'native speakers'. The paper consists of two parts.

In the first half, I will discuss the prevailing discourses on ELT among the Japanese university students based on the results of the survey asking them how they perceive the major problems in ELT they had received before they entered the university. The open-ended responses of the questionnaire have been coded and analysed qualitatively in order to illustrate what these college students believe. I will particularly focus on responses related native speakers.

In the second part, I will investigate how the prevailing discourses on native speakers in ELT

discussed in the first section have been formulated. Using excerpts from newspaper articles and press releases on the issues above, the presenter will demonstrate how to analyse the circular structure of power relations behind the prevailing discourses concerning learning English involving policy makers, politicians, mass-media and general public. A special attention will be paid to the way public discourses are gradually formulated in order to achieve the hidden agenda without being noticed.

In August 2007, the government announced that it would start "Foreign language activities" in elementary schools in which English is the only choice available in most of the schools (4^{th} – 6^{th} grades) starting from 2011 academic year, partly with strong support of public discourse. However the majority of current elementary school teachers have neither taught nor received any training to teach English. Unlike many other countries where learning English is encouraged for national benefits, however, making learning of English mandatory for everyone is supposed to be difficult to legitimate in Japan: In most cases, Japanese, the dominant language, functions well enough to deal with various aspects of daily life in Japan, and being a monolingual in Japanese is not likely to cause very little inconvenience in Japanese daily life.

In conclusion, it is important that everyone will become familiar the ways to deal with discourses formulated by media and thus become able to critically analyse if learning English would truly beneficial for children

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A Critical Analysis of Teaching Performance Assessment and its Implications on Teacher Education Curricula and Instruction

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The purpose of this study was to examine the curricular and instructional implications of the adoption of Teaching Performance Assessment (TPA) for preliminary Multiple and Single Subject candidates in California. Since July 2008, California statute requires that all teacher candidates pass a comprehensive set of assessment, measuring the candidate's knowledge and skills as prescribed in the California Teaching Performance Expectations (TPEs), as well as their familiarity with Student Academic Content Standards. The TPEs are the knowledge, skills, and abilities that the state requires of its teacher candidates before they are certified. The knowledge, skills, and abilities assessed include: making subject matter comprehensible, assessing student learning, engaging and supporting students, planning instruction and designing learning experiences for students, creating and maintaining effective environments for student learning, and developing as a professional educator.

The goal of the TPA is to better assess the candidates' ability to, among others, plan and deliver subject-specific pedagogy and design and implement instruction and student assessment, inclusive of English language learners. Candidate performances are evaluated by trained assessors using the pre-defined rubrics.

There are three models/types of TPA: California Teaching Performance Assessment (CalTPA), Fresno Assessment of Student Teachers (FAST), and Performance Assessment for California Teachers (PACT). In PACT, there are five tasks: context for learning, planning instruction and assessment, instructing students and supporting learning, assessing student learning, and reflecting on teaching and learning. These tasks are intended to help teacher candidates to be able to respond to the question, "What are you views regarding whether PACT and TPA have adequately prepared you to close students' achievement gap, engage in culturally responsive practices, and promote critical thinking skills?".

For this study, anecdotal notes from more than a dozen students currently enrolled in the teacher education program were collected. While a few students felt that the TPA helped to establish goals in the classroom, the majority of the students responded that the TPA interfered with their ability to be creative and innovative. Many students also thought that TPA was removed from classroom reality, and that it provided very little time for professional growth.

What is most disturbing was that an examination of six public teacher education programs and three private programs revealed that the curricula in these programs have virtually unchanged

since the implementation of TPA. In addition, the majority of the faculty in these teacher education programs reported little knowledge of or interest in the TPA. Many faculty believed that TPA was important only for those who work directly with teacher candidates in the implementation of TPA; i.e. University Supervisors. Hence, there appeared to be a gap between what was taught in the teacher education programs and the objectives of the TPA. In other words, the curricula and instruction in the teacher education programs have remained virtually unchanged; yet, teacher candidates are expected to be better prepared for the Teaching Performance Assessment. It appears that while the Teaching Performance Assessment is useful for outlining the skills evaluated during student teaching/fieldwork, the adoption of TPA has not been accompanied by significant changes or improvements in teacher education curricula and instruction to support the development of those knowledge, skills, and abilities assessed in the Teaching Performance Assessment.

Videotape Technology and Evidence-based Practice: Alternative Licensed Teachers' Use of Videotape for Reflection on (and in) Practice

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Introduction

Researchers argue that effective teacher preparation is germane to effective teaching (Darling-Hammond, Chung & Frelow 2002). The challenge is that most existing models of teacher preparation emphasize the theory-to-practice approach – where instructors stimulate the transfer of theory, methods, and skills to candidates with the hope that they will apply them in classrooms (Korthagen 2001). Furthermore, there is the growing call for accountability, program accreditation and effectiveness. For example, No Child Left Behind Act emphasizes standards-based teaching and mandates high-stakes testing in K-12 schools. The California Commission on Teacher Credentialing and the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education also set specific standards that universities must meet for program accreditation. However, the need to understand how teachers interpret teaching and make decisions to improve student learning has motivated researchers to call for evidence-based practice in teacher education (Moss & Piety 2007; Marsh, Pane & Hamilton 2006). For example, California now requires teacher candidates to provide video clips to provide evidence of student engagement in learning activities and how they support learning through active monitoring, interaction and response to student concerns, questions, or needs during fieldwork in at least 30 universities across the state (www.pact.org).

Research Objective: The research objective of this study is to assess how alternative licensed teachers (ALTs) use videotape for evidence-based reflective practice. Two research questions guide the study: (a) In what ways do the ALTs use evidence in their videotapes to deconstruct practices during reflection? (b) In what ways do they use videotape evidence to make connections between teaching and contexts of teaching?

Significance: Despite the rhetoric and mandates for schools to use data-based decision making to improve student learning, how ALTs engaged in evidence-based practice is woefully under-researched, under-theorized even though such teachers teach in schools across California.

Definition of Term: ALTs refers to individuals who are actively teaching while pursuing their certification at universities.

A Theoretical Framework

The three levels of reflection proposed by van Manen (1977) – *technical*, *practical* and *critical* – were discussed. In addition, the class discussed Schon's (1987) two levels of theory of action: *reflection-on-action* and *reflection-in-action.*" Therefore, the possible role of videotape is that evidence captured on the technology can provide a visual-auditory frame of reference of actions

and dialogues as a basis for observations, analyses and critiques of classroom practices.

Methodology

The Participants: Cecelia Reyes, Lisa Hopkins, Ray Lopez & Monica Jones (pseudonyms) participated based on two criteria: they were full-time teachers and available for interviews. They were selected from a pool of 45 candidates enrolled in the two courses.

The Preparation for a Videotape Reflective Practice

The research (and this author) led a whole-class discussion of four levels of critical reflection:

Level 1: describing: (a) Describe, explain concrete teaching events, (b) find the meaning of the event and (c) provide an account of how the event happened as a basis for analysis.

Level 2: Informing: (a) Discover/explore principles that inform classroom, (b) interpret the event, and (c) develop theory-in-use.

Level 3: confronting (a): Ask questions about theory/practice, (b) interrogate your assumptions, views, and (c) situate your theory/practice in broader context.

Level 4: Reconstructing: (a) Describe what action you will take to change the situation, (b) take a position about teaching, and (d) argue for the importance of teaching/learning.

During the third week, the ALTs were taught videotape analytic method: (a) identifying and reflecting on significant learning events, (b) categorizing and coding events, (c) developing hypotheses and providing explanations. During the fourth to14th week, the researcher scaffolded and modeled reflective practice using the four levels of reflection. During the 15th week, the ALTs made a 20-minute videotape of their classrooms. Each wrote a five-page self-reflection essay answering five questions and participated in follow-up interviews.

Data Analysis: The reflection essays and interviews were analyzed using micro-analytic method (Strauss & Corbin 1998). This involves a line-by-line analysis of the data. Words, phrases, sentences and vignettes were sorted into two categories as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: A Summary of Evidence Shown in the Videotapes

self-analysis and self-reflection	Cecelia	• Had trouble activating the students' prior knowledge. • Did not understand how to prepare an engaging introductory activity. • Unsure whether students understand a lesson. • More worried about lesson delivery than student learning.
	Lisa	• Inexperienced and need a lot of practice in teaching • Had trouble keeping students engaged in learning activities. • Focus on one student while others were not doing their work • Not giving clear instruction.

	Ray	• Needed improvement on modeling learning activities. • Needed to understand students' social and cultural background. • Some students were not paying attention or following directions. • Students at the back – talking and distracting others.
	Monica	• Had problems wording my questions and making them simple for students. • Had problem managing instructional time • Forgot to review the worksheet before students started working on it. • Needed more organizational skills – to manage materials and time.
Situating teaching within broader contexts	Cecelia	• I used visual images, realia, and artifacts to connect with the students' background • Many of my students are ELLs with varying skills from beginning to advanced level. • The students also have different interests and prior experiences. • The students who participated were the ones who speak English with no accent.
	Lisa	• Used rich visual environment to make my lesson appealing to my students. • Students have differences: monolingual, bilingual/bicultural, diverse life experiences. • My students are Latinos with rural border experiences. I connect my lesson to rural issues in the community.
	Ray	• I used activity that did not appeal to students' interests. • Teaching activity did not connect with the students' background knowledge • I used textbook material that was not interesting to students. • The language level of the textbook was too high for my students.
	Monica	• Did not communicate in ways that allow students to understand my lesson. • I understand that my students' English language level is low. • I do not know very much about the background of the students. • I am learning about activities that will appeal to the interest of class members.

Findings

Preliminary findings in this study show the possibility of systematic videotape observations and analyses to provide an understanding of how each ALT develops a unique approach to reflection, *what* and *how* they learn to teach with a focus on student learning.

Developing a Self-assessment Tool for EFL Teachers in Japan

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Background (Ito)

English has been the primary foreign language learned in junior high schools and high schools in Japan. In 2002, MEXT launched *The Strategic Plan* for English educational reform, followed by *The Action Plan* of 2003. As one of the six strategies listed in this plan was to improve the quality of English teachers, it set targets for the expected English-language abilities of English teachers: equivalent to STEP Grade pre-1, TOEFL PBT 550, and TOEIC 730. Although this was the first time for MEXT to establish a desired level of English for English teachers, a big question arises as to whether it is appropriate to use these standardized tests of English proficiency for assessing English teachers.

Objectives (Ito)

This presentation:

- describes the problems and challenges of the current status of teacher education in Japan in terms of professional standards and competences,
- explains how an adaptation of the EPOSTL check list was elaborated, and
- discuss what is required to refine and disseminate it

1. Problems and challenges of teacher education in Japan (Imamura)

Teacher education reform is now under way in Japan. The action plans formulated by MEXT require every EFL teacher at a secondary school to take retraining programs designed and provided by local authorities between 2002 and 2007 to improve their English ability and teaching skills. However, the effectiveness of the programs has never been monitored or assessed. Also, neither professional standards for teacher education nor the frame of reference for professional competences has been specified or defined.

Members of JACET SIG on English Education came to realize, after a ten-year research period

involving consultations at home and abroad, that the present teacher education paradigm should be shifted to one in which teachers could take ownership of professional development and promote autonomy. Thus, it was decided by the SIG members to adapt the self-assessment checklist in the EPOSTL as an educational and motivational instrument in Japan.

2. Adapting the self-assessment section of the EPOSTL (Imamura and Osaki)

The EPOSTL stands for the European Profile for Student Teachers of Languages, which is based on CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages), ELP (European Language Portfolio), and Profile (European Profile for Language Teacher Education). It is a reflection tool for language teacher education, and consists of three main sections: a personal statement section, a self-assessment section and a dossier.

The self-assessment section consists of 193 'can-do' descriptors of competences related to language teaching at the heart of the EPOSTL. These descriptors are grouped into seven general categories: Context, Methodology, Resources, Lesson Planning, Conducting a Lesson, Independent Learning, Assessment of Learning. The top priority must be to adapt these descriptors to the Japanese educational context.
With the context as well as the previous findings in mind, the first adaptation of the self-assessment section was elaborated in the procedure as follows:
・193 descriptors in the EPOSTL were translated into Japanese,
・the descriptors apparently incompatible with the Japanese educational context were deleted, modified, or integrated,
・144 descriptors left after the above treatment were examined by English teacher trainers at several universities.
As a result, 100 descriptors were found appropriate, and the SIG members took the next step to administer a pilot study to examine and improve the first adaptation.

3. Refinement and dissemination of the EPOSTL descriptors for the Japanese educational context (Ito)

A pilot survey was conducted between July 2009 and January 2010 in order to look at the validity and reliability of the 100 self-assessment descriptors created by the SIG, and to attempt to make them more appropriate for the Japanese EFL setting. The participants of this survey were 178 prospective secondary-school EFL teachers at 16 Japanese universities who had completed their teaching practicum as student teachers. The 100 descriptors were scaled (1-5) in the survey.

The results showed that there were six descriptors indicating ceiling effects, which means that they are not suitable as 'can-do' items. It was also found that 17 descriptors had no correlation with

others and three descriptors had showed with low internal reliability. Therefore, these 26 descriptors are now in question as to whether they should be deleted from the checklist because of the nature of the participants. For example, a descriptor indicating a ceiling effect, *"I can accept feedback from my peers and mentors, and build it into my teaching* (Item 11, C: The role of the teachers of English)*,"* may be appropriate for students with teaching experience, like the participants of this survey, but not for inexperienced students. Thus, these pilot survey results suggest that further research and discussion is definitely needed for developing an appropriate self-assessment tool for EFL teachers in Japan.

Conceptualizing Teacher Learning in an EFL University Lesson Study Initiative

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Educators stress that professional development is central to changed pedagogical practices and learning (e.g.Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999). One form of professional development, lesson study, is common in Japanese elementary and middle schools, and is rapidly gaining attention around the globe (Fang & Lee, 2009). This is a study of the implementation of an exploratory lesson study, where teachers examined their practices to design, implement and then reflect upon a research lesson, collaboratively making positive changes in instructional processes and learning outcomes (Stigler & Hiebert, 1999). Japanese teachers consistently credit this process as key to moving Japanese mathematics and science education from "teaching as telling " to "teaching as understanding" (Lewis, 2002).

As interest grows worldwide, we are seeing instantiations of this practice that vary from place to place, as well as a growing body of evidence aimed at understanding how lesson studies work (Payne, 2009). At the heart of lesson studies is the notion that it will not only encourage teacher's to learn regularly from each other's lesson study experiences but also that over time, it will lead to gradual, incremental improvements in teaching (Yoshida, 1999; Stigler & Hiebert, 1999). Yet, evidence is still sparse about how lesson studies contribute to teachers' professional learning in universities (Lewis, Perry & Hurd, 2009).

The study takes place in a private Tokyo university; a school where there is a two year compulsory academic English program for English majors. In one of these courses, Intensive English, students are expected to read two books and to report on them. One section of their book report requires use of 7 literary terms to evaluate these books. Three Intensive English teachers participated in this intensive lesson study, largely to help students increase their understandings of the literary terms. This study explores how the lesson study was implemented and discusses preliminary outcomes.

Data Collection and Analysis: Data collection and analyses were ongoing, iterative processes. Data were drawn from diverse sources, including field notes, pre tests, lesson plans and lesson observations. Lewis (et al, 2009) three theorized professional development outcomes--changes in teachers' knowledge and beliefs; changes in professional community; and changes in teaching–learning resources were used to code and categorize data. Data triangularization enhanced the credibility of the findings.

Findings: From the start, the lesson study consisted of a cycle of lesson activities that maintained many, but not all of the components of the traditional Japanese process. Stage 1, extensive planning, began when a group of teachers came together to work on a topic preselected by one of the participants. Unlike the Japanese process, stage two consisted of 3-6 different *research lessons*. These lessons were conducted at different times and on different campuses. Lessons were observed by team members or video-taped for later viewing. Stage three consisted of post-lesson reflections. In the final stage, findings were made public via a literary terms tool kit and through a presentation at the departmental professional development conference.

Preliminary evidence suggest all three types of changes theorized by Lewis, et al. (2009). Regarding the first change, we created numerous teaching/learning resources. If one looks at these materials more closely, we see the development of three multi-leveled pre and post-tests to align student needs with instructional materials and teaching enactments. During the test construction process, we had to reconstruct our test knowledge to learn about student's levels of understanding and how to assess it and guide instruction.

Evidence also suggests that participants experienced changes in their knowledge and beliefs, which empowered them to make changes in the classroom. During one observation, for example, Teacher B asked the class to read for 15 minutes and then to complete the sentence stems written on the blackboard. In the post-lesson meeting, Teacher's A and C gave her feedback regarding ways in which this explicit instruction engaged students and helped them to learn from each other. At the same time, a larger benefit emerged--a new shared vision that the intended lesson outcome was to provide support for students so that they could write the reports, rather than to teach the terms.

Another important concept to note was that the lesson study brought together knowledge residing in different communities and that these outside experts helped to extend participants knowledge and skills. For example, when a question was raised in regard to whether the literary terms were used in Japanese high schools, the three Native speakers turned to their Japanese Intensive English colleagues for answers. Among these teachers, a lengthy online discussion ensued, which lead to the creation of a bilingual literary terms glossary.

Strengthened collaborative activities were also inherent in lesson study, as theorized by Lewis, et al. (2009). Participants, who all had prior positive experiences working in professional learning communities, still had to develop shared norms of interaction or, as described by Lave & Wenger (1991), to apprentice in a lesson study community of practice. The intensive collaboration benefitted experienced and novice teachers. Novice Teacher B's discourse, for example, was peppered with comments recounting how "new trusting relationships made her feel safe to ask questions, reduced her stress and increased her confidence." Collaboration appeared to have nurtured a process that contributed to personal, social and professional renewal (Lewis & Tsuchida,

1997).

Conclusion and Implications: Three conclusions are offered. First, while universities are places that value independence and teacher autonomy, they are places where teachers need to grow. When diverse faculty came together as this professional learning community, they developed a lesson study process model to reflect their local situation. And, as in other teacher research, tacit theory emerged from practitioners situated experiences, with learning taking place in, from and for practice (Little, 2003). Additionally, as suggested in prior research, lesson study contributed to changes in teachers' knowledge and beliefs; changes in professional community; and teaching–learning resources which in turn, influence instruction (Lewis et al, 2009). Moreover, resources were shared in a way that is not common in academic work. Third, positioning participants as lesson researchers served as a way to draw problems from practice, helped teachers in their decision making (Dewey, 1933) and provided an opportunity for them to learn, grow, and improve their practices together (OECD, 2005).

Potential barriers faced during lesson study are well documented. Substantial time is one such problem. Another is observational skills, which are not generally a part of teacher's everyday lives. Moreover, limitations to study of professional development must be noted. Specifically, caution in interpretation is advised because appreciation of the complexities of lesson study requires both more extensive and longer-term data. Quite naturally, because much data are impressionist and self-reports, generalizations cannot be made. The findings raise questions about the extent to which the process is sustainable, along with longer-term teacher and student outcomes. On the other hand, scholars stress that these data are potentially powerful tools because practitioner research can contribute to a coherent, rigorous knowledge base (Anderson, 1998).

At the present time, faculty members are negotiating a new lesson study. It is important to remember that knowledge-in-practice comes through experiences and that opportunities to engage in lesson study can influence change in a steady way (Stigler & Hiebert, 1999). In the words of Akita (2005), a brighter future might lie in constructing learning systems, such as lesson study, wherein teachers can discover possibilities, autonomously and mutually, and in constructing such systems collaboratively in universities.

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The Role of Teacher Quality, Working Hours and Conditions on Japanese Educational Inefficiency

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Japanese education has undergone a number of reforms since the modernization of society began after the Meiji Restoration. These reforms have been driven by internal as well as external pressures and needs. The Ministry of Education in Japan has reformed the school curriculum periodically in order to reflect changes in society and pressures within the educational system. External organizations such as the OECD have also pushed for reform. Few of these reforms, however, have had long-lasting positive impacts because they have failed to make fundamental changes that are at the core of problems in Japanese education.

The Japanese government tried to make education more efficient and less examination driven with reforms enacted in the 1990s. As expected, in the PISA 2003 test, conducted by the OECD, the ranking of Japan had declined and Finland was the top performing nation, a distinction that Japan once held. The Ministry of Education in Japan responded to these results by recommending new reforms increasing both instruction time and the amount of curriculum that must be covered. However, Finland which was reported as the top nation in the PISA, has fewer class hours (19.8) and a less content to cover in the curriculum than Japan (28.2). The hours of the annual classes in Finland (5,500) are the shortest in the world, and school hour and level of achievement is the highest. In contrast, Japan has 6,300 standard school hours. More worrisome is that the PISA test showed that the Japanese students' motivation and interest toward science was in the lowest level compared to other countries.

Our contention is that the Japanese education system has been inefficient and that increasing classroom instruction time may improve achievement but will not address the fundamental problems with Japanese schools. Memorization is the core activity of the examination focused Japanese system. Critical thinking skills and creativity are not emphasized. Busy work such as copying sentences from a textbook and making vocabulary notebooks by handwriting are emphasized over more efficient modes of learning. This busy work is considered valuable by many Japanese teachers as a way to cultivate diligence and attention to detail. But can also be said to be is inefficient. The memorization-centered educational system is effective in terms of the Japanese examination system but supplementary institutions are also utilized by many students in the evening and during weekends and holidays. This system of cramming information is actually not well-suited to the information society. Reflecting this understanding, the PISA is weighted

toward critical thinking and not memorization of facts. Because Japanese tests are usually memorization based, Japanese may not score as well.

We contend that Japanese teachers as a whole are not effectively utilized and that has been the core problem with reforms. The hours in front of the classroom of teachers in Japan and Finland do not show much difference. However, Japanese teachers tend to feel that time for class preparations is not enough and feel much more stress at work compare to Finish teachers. According to the research of the number of students per class and enrollment for the teacher, Japan is located in low level compared to many other countries. (OECD, 2009) Research by Ministry of Education in Japan found that the working time after working hours for Japanese teachers is 2 hours and 30 minutes on average for teachers in junior high. This means that Japanese teachers have many extra duties that distract from the core activity of teaching and preparation. Long working hours, tasks that are not related to improving instructional ability, too many students in class, job stress make Japanese teachers vulnerable to job burnout and depression. These conditions do not support a efficient teaching workforce and educational environment.

Helping Students who Need it the Most with Direct One-on-one Instruction: Slow Learners in the EFL Classroom

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An issue all teachers face at one time or another is having one or more "slow learners" in the their classrooms. This also includes EFL teachers. In fact, the problem may be more compounded, as it may be easier for an EFL teacher, who may not see their students regularly, to teach without noticing the slower students in the class. Additionally, as it is often the first time young learners will make direct contact with English language lessons, it may be even more important to intervene and give additional support as these students are forming what may become lifelong attitudes towards English study.

My growing awareness of "slow learners" followed an evolutionary path from complete unawareness to finally noticing and making several small attempts to help. Having taught young EFL learners for five years, my evolution went something like this:

Stage 1: Can I manage the class and get through the lesson?
Stage 2: Is my lesson good? Are students enjoying the class?
Stage 3: Are the students learning anything? (With a focus on strong learners.)
Stage 4: Can everyone understand and follow today's lesson? (No!)
Stage 5: What actions can I take to help the "slow learners" in my classroom?

While using a bit of intuition and common sense, I did take some steps during my five years of teaching at Tamagawa First Division to intervene and help. These included working one on one with several students when I had the luxury of having a second teacher in the class and additionally included sitting "slow learners" next to my desk allowing me to give continued support throughout my lessons once the other students were underway with a given task. With both types of intervention, it became abundantly clear that these types of direct actions were helpful. While giving these students my undivided attention I was able to witness first hand that they could indeed understand and do a given activity with the right guidance and support. These empirical results gave me hope and excitement that I might indeed be able to help my students make progress where they hadn't been able to previously. Reflection and some background reading have given me more ideas to work with, that I've reduced to a five-step plan as follows:

Step 1. Take the time to notice which students are having difficulty in the class.
Step 2. Keep track of these students and notice any patterns or trouble spots.
Step 3. Talk with co-teachers, homeroom teachers and former teachers if possible.

Step 4. Change seating arrangements and keep these students in close proximity.
Step 5. Make use of repetition, differentiated instruction and peer tutoring.

Since my tenure with young learners at Tamagawa has come to a pause, I have yet to be able to carry out more extensive research and implementation of ideas to help “slow learners”. That said, I am now working with Education students and believe it might be a viable option to have these students spend time working in class with Tamagawa’s young learners and to provide assistance to the EFL teachers.

My upcoming presentation aims to look at the above issue and ideas in more detail and to explore other thoughts and ideas among attendees. Together we can help all students to make progress and feel successful in their EFL classrooms.

SEL for Creating Full Value Classroom

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The founder of Tamagawa-Gakuen, Kuniyoshi Obara, advocated Zenjin education, whole person education, which is structured by six concepts of value: truth, goodness, beauty, holiness, health, and wealth. Tamagawa education is based on the Zenjin philosophy to foster students to be a human being with the harmony in these values. Within that philosophy, The Center for Tamagawa Adventure Program (TAP) was established on April 2000, and it has been just 10 years since then. We offer adventure based learning programs to K-12, University, teachers, parents, sports teams, and corporations to enhance moral development, personal growth, group development, leadership development, and life skill development. The origin of this program was from Project Adventure, which was established in 1971 in Hamilton, MA. The important concepts of adventure program: Full Value Contract, Challenge by (of) Choice, and Experiential Learning Cycle, and the adventure facilities: Challenge Course were originally came from Project Adventure. Full Value Contract is a commitment for a group to not discount each other, but respect to create safe learning environment to maximize the leaning opportunity. Learning environment is a basic foundation of a group to work as a team, and learn form experiences. Challenge by (of) Choice provides students with the right to choose the level of challenge that best supports their learning goals, and this teaches them how to make positive decision and helps them become lifelong learner. Experiential Learning Cycle is a common learning theory by David Kolb (1984) that supports students to learn from experiences. There are four phases: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation.

TAP offers adventure based learning programs for all different age and type of groups according to their needs and goals. In first division (K-4th), students learn about the rules to have fun with others, caring, and corporation through Physical Education and Moral Education. They learn how to choose positive words through activities. In middle division (5-8th), students learn how to communicate with others and be mixed up with other students as a team. They experience diversities and learn the importance of respect. In Upper division (9-12th), the focus is more on individual, and students learn about life skills to live in the society, or learn about self to find out their careers. The keywords are leadership skill, self-discovery, goal setting, health, and wellness. In University, students experience TAP in freshman orientations, First Year Programs, seminars, outdoor education courses, and extracurricular activities. Getting know each other and making friends are especially important for freshmen to start their new university life, and it may relate to university retention rate. The Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry announced “Basic skills to

be a member of society", which are Action, Thinking, and Teamwork. TAP takes a part of those skills training for students. Especially at Education Department, TAP provides teacher-training programs for students to improve their communication skills and leadership skills.

The recent study shows that possessing social and emotional skills is important on academic achievement in school. Social Emotional Learning (SEL) is described in five skills: self-awareness, social-awareness, self-management, relationship skill, and responsible decision-making (Elias, 1997). These skills promote students healthy social and emotional development that is the foundation of success in their school and their life. To enhance these skills, Full Value leaning environment is necessary. In addition, stepping out from the comfort-zone and challenge to risks is important to discover about self, and learn from others. TAP's challenge after being 10 years is to create more continues curriculum of SEL in K-12 education and prove the improvement of students and importance of SEL at Tamagawa.

Multicultural Literacy Education in a Prefectural University: Traversing Comfort Zones and Putting Knowledge into Action

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Multicultural literacy may be simply defined as the knowledge about multiple cultures and understanding about cultures different from one's own in terms of language, history/geography, customs and values. In addition, multicultural literacy also includes the ability to compare other cultures with one's own culture, and to understand and assess the differences (Source: UNP Multicultural Literacy in Niigata). In the context of Japanese educational policy, multicultural literacy education is part of the overall objectives of Monbusho`s educational goal to develop Japanese students with communicative abilities in foreign languages and to adopt an international perspective through interests in foreign cultures (Monbusho:1989).

The aim of this paper is to describe the implementation of a multicultural literacy programme in the University of Niigata. The newly-established University of Niigata Prefecture opened in April 2009 and currently operates as a local independent administrative institution (public university corporation). The university comprises two faculties: the Faculty of International Studies and Regional Development and the Faculty of Human Life Studies. In 2009, the University of Niigata Prefecture applied to and was then adopted as one of the distinctive efforts in the Program for Promoting University Education Reform ("Theme A" in the Project for Promoting University Education and Student Support for Fiscal Year (2009), by the Ministry of Education, Sports, Science and Technology. The university was awarded the Good Practice Award for its programme, “Multicultural Literacy Education in Niigata, the Gateway to the Northeast Asian Region (環日本海圏新潟発の多文化リテラシー教育) : Nurturing English Ability to Challenge the Local Globalization."

The main objective of the ‘Multicultural Literacy Education in Niigata’ programme is to foster human resources that will be capable of utilizing the local potential and develop the area in Niigata Prefecture which is strategically situated as the gateway to Northeast Asia on the Sea of Japan side. The programme consists of the following three pillars:

(i) To strengthen practical English ability from the perspective that English is "the international lingua franca" as well as "the common language of Northeast Asia."

(ii) To cultivate the multicultural literacy, especially understanding the society, culture, and languages of Northeast Asia

(iii) To support career formation in the Faculty of International Studies and Regional Development with the ultimate goal to produce graduates who can perform on an international level and contribute to regional development in response to globalization

(Source: UNP Multicultural Literacy in Niigata)

The explanation and implementation of the "Multicultural Literacy Education in Niigata' programme will be discussed in greater details during the presentation. In addition, the presenter will also describe and explain the rationale of the various aspects of this programme such as the Multicultural Literacy Lecture Series (special lectures by global and regional leaders), the Northeast Asian foreign language curriculum (Russian, Korean, Chinese and English), the establishment of the Self Access Language Center and the Overseas Language Study programme. The paper concludes that multicultural literacy education is primarily motivated by the view that language is both an economic resource as well as an emblem of culture (Chew:2007) and thus necessitates careful planning by tertiary educational institutions in Japan.

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JUSTEC 2010 Program

July 22nd, Thursday

Optional Tour

9:45 Meet at the entrance gate of Tamagawa Gakuen
10:00 School Visit: Tamagawa Academy
12:00 Lunch (provided) and Free Dialogue Session
13:00 Juku "cram school" Visit (focused on the quality of cram school teachers)
15:00 End tour in Machida downtown

July 23rd, Friday

JUSTEC Opening

9:00- 9:30 Registration **Room: B104, Daikentou**

9:30- 9:40 JUSTEC Opening
Greeting from President Yoshiaki Obara, Tamagawa University

9:40- 9:50 Overview of JUSTEC

Session 1: Japan and U.S. Approaches to Teaching and Teacher Education

Room: B104, Daikentou

Chair: Donald Pierson (Vice Provost for Graduate Education University of Massachusetts, Lowell)

9:50-10:20 Presentation 1
Sam Stern (Professor & Dean, College of Education, Oregon State University)
Toshiki Matsuda (Associate Professor, Tokyo Institute of Technology)

"Structural Differences in Japanese and U.S. Teacher Education: Implications for Relationships with Subject Matter Content and Schools"

10:20-10:50 Presentation 2
Akira Teragawa (Akegawa Junior High School)
Ruth Ahn (Assistant Professor, California State Polytechnic University, Pomona)

"Effective Minority Pedagogy: A Japanese Perspective"

10:50-11:20 Presentation 3
Ruth Ahn (Assistant Professor, California State Polytechnic University, Pomona)
Pamela Walker (Assistant Professor, California State Polytechnic University, Pomona)
Paula Catbagan (Graduate Student, California State Polytechnic University, Pomona)
Gisela Shimabukuro (Graduate Student, California State Polytechnic University, Pomona)

"Effective Minority Pedagogy: A U.S. Perspective"

11:20-11:50 Presentation 4
Fred L.Hamel (Associate Professor, University of Puget Sound)
Kathleen Burriss (Professor, Middle Tennessee State University)
Kensuke Chikamori (Professor, Naruto University of Education)
Carol Merz (Professor Emeritus, University of Puget Sound)
Yumiko Ono (Professor, Naruto University of Education)
Donald Snead (Associate Professor, Middle Tennessee State University)
Jane Williams (Professor, Middle Tennessee State University)

"First Contact: Initial Responses to Cultural Disequilibrium in a Short Term Teaching Exchange Program"

July 23rd, Friday

11:50-13:00 Lunch **Room: B101, Daikentou**

Session 2: Culture and Other Issues of Diversity

Room: B104, Daikentou

Chair: Kensuke Chikamori (Professor, Naruto University of Education)

13:00-13:30 Presentation 5
Donald Pierson (Vice Provost for Graduate Education University of Massachusetts, Lowell)
Patrese Pierson (Lincoln Public Schools, Lincoln, Massachusetts)

"Theoretical and Practical Approaches to Inclusion and Diversity In the Classroom"

13:30-14:00 Presentation 6
Li Yuan Xiang (Graduate Student, Tokyo Gakugei University)
YoungHee Goo (Graduate Student, Ochanomizu University)
Chihiro Kamohara (Graduate Student, Tokyo Gakugei University)
Hideki Sano (Professor, Tokyo Gakugei University)

"Helping Child Rearing in a Foreign Country"

14:00-14:30 Presentation 7
Sandra Tanahashi (Associate Professor, Bunkyo Gakuin University)
Rebecca Ikawa (Lecturer, Bunkyo Gakuin University)

"Recognizing and Overcoming Dyslexia as a Barrier to Successful English Learning in Japan"

14:30-14:50 Refreshment (20 min.) **Room: B107, Daikentou**

Session 3 : English Language Instruction in Higher Education

Room: B104, Daikentou

Chair: Hideki Sano (Professor, Gakugei University)

14:50-15:20 Presentation 8
Peter Mizuki (Associate Professor, Nihon University)

"Using Autonomous Learning Activities in a Japanese University Setting"

15:20-15:50 Presentation 9
Mami Ueda (Associcate Professor, Tokyo University of Technology)
Emika Abe (Lecturer, Daito Bunka University)
Mika Ishizuka (Associate Professor, Tokyo University of Technology)
Sachiko Okuda (Professor, Daito Bunka University)
Sunao Shimizu (Lecturer, Rikkyo University)

"What Makes Japanese University Students Overcome Their Feelings of Demotivation toward English Study?"

15:50-16:20 Presentation 10
Barry Mateer (Associate Professor, Tamagawa University)

"Challenges of Diversity within Classroom Learning Communities

16:20-16:50 Presentation 11
Shoko Nishioka (Professor, Bukkyo University)
Felicity Greenland (Assistant Professor, Bukkyo University)

"Foreign Language Activities (FLA) in Elementary-University Collaborative Projects"

July 23rd, Friday	**Welcome Dinner** **Cafeteria "Sakufu"** 17:45- Greeting from Shinji Sakano (Professor & Chief Researcher, Tamagawa University Research Institute, Tamagawa University) Greeting from Yasutada Takahashi (Professor Emeritus, Tamagawa University) 19:00-20:00 Tamagawa Taiko (Japanese drum) & Dance Performance by the students in the Performing Arts Department, Tamagawa University
July 24th, Saturday	**Session 4: K-12 English Language Education** **Room: B104, Daikentou** Chair: Ruth Ahn (Assistant Professor, California State Polytechnic University, Pomona) 9:00 -9:30 Presentation 12 Tomonori Ono (Doctoral Candidate, International Christian University) **"Investigating Team Teaching Issues at Japanese Senior High Schools"** 9:30-10:00 Presentation 13 Jean-Pierre Joseph Richard (Doctoral Student, Temple University, Japan) **"Japanese Secondary Students and English Language Beliefs: a Coherent Set?"** 10:00-10:30 Presentation 14 Mika Nishizawa (Monterey Institute of International Studies) **"Sociological and Methodological Issues Concerning English Education at an Elementary School in Japan"** 10:30-11:00 Presentation 15 Marshall R. Childs (Adjunct Professor, Temple University, Japan) **"There is a Better Way: Whole-Brain Language Learning"** 11:00-11:30 Presentation 16 Masaki Oda (Professor & Director, Center for University International Programs, Tamagawa University) **"Ready for an Avalanche?: Public Discourse and Foreign Language Teaching Policy at Japanese K-12 schools"** 11:40-13:00 Lunch at Cafeteria "Sakufu" **Session 5: Teacher Assessment and Technology** **Room: B104, Daikentou** Chair: Donald Pierson (Vice Provost for Graduate Education University of Massachusetts, Lowell) 13:00-13:30 Presentation 17 Steven Lee (Professor, University of Southern California, Director of USC Korea) Lasisi Ajayi (Assistant Professor, San Diego State University) **"A Critical Analysis of Teaching Performance Assessment and its Implications on Teacher Education Curricula and Instruction"**

July 24th, Saturday

13:30-14:00 Presentation 18
Lasisi Ajayi (Assistant Professor, San Diego State University)

"Videotape Technology and Evidence-based Practice: Alternative Licensed Teachers' Use of Videotape for Reflection on (and in) Practice"

14:00-14:30 Presentation 19
Mika Ito (Associate Professor, Tokai University)
Satsuki Osaki (Lecturer, Soka University)
Hiromi Imamura (Professor, Chubu University)

"Developing a Self-assessment Tool for EFL Teachers in Japan"

14:30-14:50 Refreshment (20 min.) **Room: B107, Daikentou**

Session 6: Responses to Teaching Challenges

Room: B104, Daikentou
Chair: Kiyoharu Hara (Professor, Bukkyo University)

14:50-15:20 Presentation 20
Jeanne M. Wolf (Lecturer , Sophia University)

"Conceptualizing Teacher Learning in an EFL University Lesson Study Initiative"

15:20-15:50 Presentation 21
Kando Eriguchi (Associate Professor, Tamagawa University)
Douglas Trelfa (Associate Professor, Tamagawa University)
Makoto Kobayashi (Professor, Tamagawa University)
Susumu Onodera (Researcher, KISHIMOTO Education Research Center)
Keita Ogasawara (Graduate student, Graduate School of Education, Tamagawa University)
Yuichiro Kato (Graduate student, Graduate School of Education, Tamagawa University)
Nigisa Tanaka (Graduate student, Graduate School of Education, Tamagawa University)

"The Role of Teacher Quality, Working Hours and Conditions on Japanese Educational Inefficiency"

15:50-16:20 Presentation 22
David Juteau (Lecturer, Tamagawa University)

"Helping Students who Need it the Most with Direct One-on-one Instruction: Slow Learners in the EFL Classroom"

16:20-16:50 Presentation 23
Ryoji Fujikashi (Research Assistant, The Center for Tamagawa Adventure Program, Tamagawa University Research Institute)
Katsumi Namba (Associate Professor, The Center for Tamagawa Adventure Program, Tamagawa University Research Institute)

"S.E.L. for Creating Full Value Classrooms"

16:50-17:20 Presentation 24
Patrick NG (Assistant Professor, University of Niigata Prefecture)

"Multicultural Literacy Education in a Prefectural University : Traversing Comfort Zones and Putting Knowledge into Action"

July 24th, Saturday	**Reception** **Venue: Higashiyama** 18:00-20:00 Reception with President Yoshiaki Obara and Professor Marilyn Cochran-Smith
July 25th, Sunday	**Business Meeting** **Room:104, Shichokaku (AV Center)** 11:00-11:30 Business Meeting Announcement of JUSTEC 2011 11:30-12:30 Lunch **Room: 400, University Building**
July 25th, Sunday	**JUSTEC 2010 Forum** **Venue: Auditorium, Tamagawa University** **Theme: "Providing Educational Support for Students with Diverse Needs"** 12:30-13:00 Registration for the Forum 13: 00-13:05 Introduction by President Yoshiaki Obara, Tamagawa University 13: 05-14:05 Keynote Address by Marilyn Cochran-Smith John E. Cawthorne Endowed Professor of Teacher Education for Urban Schools Director, Ph.D. Program in Curriculum & Instruction Lynch School of Education, Boston College "**Preparing Teachers for the Challenges of Diversity"** 14:05-14:15 Break (10 min) 14:15-15:15 Forum with Japanese Panelists Coordinator: Ikuo Komatsu Professor, Graduate School of Education, Tamagawa University Panelist : Yumiko Ono Professor, Naruto University of Education **"Linguistically and Culturally Diverse Public Schools:** **A Challenge to Teacher Education"** Panelist : Sakae Akuzawa Associate Professor, Graduate School of Education, Tamagawa University "**Educational Support for Children with Mild Developmental Disorders and the Challenges of Preparing Teachers for Schools"** 15:15-15:25 Break (10 min) 15:25-16:00 Q & A

Biographies of the Keynote Speaker and Panelists

Keynote Speaker:

Marilyn Cochran-Smith, PhD.

John E. Cawthorne Endowed Professor of Teacher Education for Urban Schools

Director, Ph.D. Program in Curriculum and Instruction
Lynch School of Education, Boston College

Marilyn Cochran-Smith is the Cawthorne Professor of Teacher Education for Urban Schools and Director of the Doctoral Program in Curriculum and Instruction at the Lynch School of Education at Boston College (Boston, Massachusetts, USA). She is an elected member of the National Academy of Education and a former President of the American Educational Research Association (AERA). Cochran-Smith is co-editor (with Ken Zeichner) of *Studying Teacher Education: The Report of the AERA Panel on Research and Teacher Education* and co-editor (with Sharon Feiman Nemser, John McINtyre, and Kelly Demers) of the *Third Handbook of Research on Teacher Education.* Cochran-Smith was editor of AACTE's *Journal of Teacher Education* from 2000-2006. Her 9th book, *Inquiry as Stance: Practitioner Research for the Next Generation* (co-authored with Susan Lytle), was published in 2009. Dr. Cochran-Smith, who earned her doctorate in Language in Education at the University of Pennsylvania in 1982, has been a recipient of many awards, including AACTE's Pomeroy Award, Margaret Lindsey Award, and the Outstanding Writing Award in both 1995 and 2005 as well as AERA's Research to Practice Award in 2006, the National Association of Multicultural Education's Research Award in 2004, and the New York Association of Colleges for Teacher Education's first annual impact award in 2006. Cochran-Smith was the inaugural holder of the C.J. Koh Endowed Distinguished Professorship at the National Institute of Education in Singapore in 2006.

Panelist:

Yumiko Ono

Professor, Naruto University of Education

Yumiko Ono specializes in intercultural education and professional teacher development. Her research interests include international adoption of Japanese educational practices, especially lesson study, to developing countries as well as reframing teacher learning from adult learning perspective. She had been a member of the Mpumalanga Secondary Science Initiative in South Africa (1999-2006), and the Strengthening Teacher Education Project in Afghanistan (STEP, 2005-), both of which are education projects funded by Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA).

Panelist:

Sakae Akuzawa

Associate Professor, Tamagawa Graduate School of Education, Tamagawa University

After 16 years of teaching experience as a teacher, vice-principal, and principal, Sakae Akuzawa contributed tremendously to the education in Kanagawa as a teacher consultant (Syuji), section chief (Kacyo), and a director of the Kanagawa Board of Education. He is a professor at Tamagawa Graduate School of Education (Teaching Profession) and one of the leading experts in education for children with special needs. He has numerous publications within the specialty of special needs education.

Coordinator:

Ikuo Komatsu

Professor, Tamagawa Graduate School of Education, Tamagawa University
Emeritus Researcher, National Institute for Educational Policy Research
Inspection Adviser for Primary and Secondary Education Department of MEXT

Ikuo Komatsu specializes in comparative research on Japanese and British educational policy and school administration. He has been involved in several overseas surveys including more than 70 surveys done in the UK and has recently developed an interest in school management and school evaluation. As an honorary visiting research fellow at the School of Education of the University of Birmingham in the UK in 1986 and 1998, he engaged in research about British educational reform and educational management. Apart from his membership in the British organizations, National Association of Head Teachers (NAHT) and Association of School and College Leaders (ASCL), he is also affiliated with UK-based educational groups and is on the international editorial board of the journal published by the British Educational Leadership, Management & Administration Society (BELMAS). In addition, Mr. Komatsu served as director of both The Japan Educational Administration Society and The Japanese Association for the Study of Education Administration. He is a member and vice-chairman of the Research Committee on the Promotion of School Evaluation and is on the School Evaluation committee of the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology（MEXT）. He heads the school management committee for three community schools (for Suginami public elementary school in Tokyo, public junior high school in Yokohama and elementary and junior high school in Kyoto). He is a member of Board of Education Committee of Adachi Ward in Metropolitan Tokyo. He has numerous publications within the educational administration and educational policy.

プロフィール

基調講演者：

マリリン・コクランスミス 氏

教授、ボストン・カレッジ大学院

マリリン・コクランスミス教授は、Cawthorne Professor of Teacher Education for Urban Schools という特別な称号をお持ちで、ボストン・カレッジの博士プログラムのデイレクターを務めています。アメリカ教育研究協会（AERA）の前会長で、National Academy of Education のメンバーにも選ばれました。Ken Zeichner 教授と共に *Studying Teacher Education: The Report of the AERA Panel on Research and Teacher Education* を編集し、又、Sharon Feiman Nemser、John McINtyre、Kelly Demers ら学者と共に *Third Handbook of Research on Teacher Education* を編集し、AACTE の機関誌 *Journal of Teacher Education* の編集長を 2000 年から 2006 年まで務めました。2009 年に 9 冊目の著書 *Inquiry as Stance: Practitioner Research for the Next Generation* を Susan Lytle と一緒に出版しました。1982 年に Pennsylvania 大学で教育学の博士号をとった後、多くの学術賞も受賞しています。AACTE の Pomeroy 賞、Margaret Lindsey 賞、又 1995 年と 2005 年に優秀論文賞を受賞しています。その他 AERA、NAME 等の研究実践賞(2006、 2004 年)、又ニューヨーク教員養成大学連盟のその年に多くの影響力を与えた人に贈られる賞を 2006 年に受賞しています。更に、2006 年にシンガポールの National Institute of Education では C.J. Koh Endowed Distinguished Professorship という名誉ある教授職に就任し、国際的にも活躍されています。

指定討論者：

小野 由美子 氏

教授、鳴門教育大学大学院

専門分野は、文化間教育・異文化間コミュニケーション、国際教育協力、教師の力量発達と変容など。南アフリカ中等理数科プロジェクト・メンバー(1999-2006)やアフガニスタン教師教育強化プロジェクト・メンバー(2005-現在)として、国際教育の分野で活躍している。”A case study of continuing teacher professional development through lesson study in South Africa (South African Journal of Education. 2010)”など、論文多数。

指定討論者：

阿久澤 栄

准教授、玉川大学教職大学院

専門分野は、特別支援教育・不登校。神奈川県鎌倉市の公立小学校教諭16年（この間、11年間は特殊学級で自閉症児を中心とした障害児への指導に携わる。また途 中、3カ月間、国立特殊教育研究所にて情緒障害児について専門研修を受講）。神奈川県教育委員会で特殊教育課指導主事、障害児教育課課長代理、障害児教育 課長、学校教育担当部長を歴任。またこの間、公立小学校教頭、知的障害養護学校長を歴任。玉川大学教育学部准教授を経て現職。「特別支援教育は特別なの？」（玉川大学出版部、2009）など、支援教育の分野の著書多数。

コーディネーター：

小松郁夫

教授、玉川大学教職大学院

国立教育政策研究所名誉所員（前・教育政策・評価研究部長）

文部科学省初等中等教育局視学委員

日英を中心とした国内外の教育政策や学校経営に関する比較研究が専門。70回を越す英国調査を含む、数多くの海外調査を経験しており、最近では学校経営、学校評価に関心を持っている。1986年と1998年には英国バーミンガム大学教育学部客員研究員として、英国の教育改革や教育経営について研究に従事。英国初等学校校長会（NAHT）および英国中等学校校長会（ASCL）会員他、英国における教育関係諸団体に所属し、英国教育経営行政学会（BELMAS）では紀要の国際編集顧問を務めている。日本教育行政学会および日本教育経営学会常任理事。東京都足立区教育委員。文部科学省「学校評価の推進に関する調査研究協力者会議」委員・副座長。「学校評価委員」（文部科学省）。3校の地域運営学校の学校運営協議会会長・委員（東京都杉並区立小学校と横浜市立中学校の会長。京都市立小中学校委員）。学校経営、教育行政に関する著書・論文多数。