



Proceedings and Abstracts of the 24th Japan-U.S. Teacher Education Consortium

July 6th to July 9th, 2012
Naruto University of Education



国立大学法人

鳴門教育大学

Supported by:

The Embassy of the U.S.A, Tokyo;

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Naruto University of Education Campus Map



Remarks

Welcome to the annual JUSTEC conference. JUSTEC began in 1988 as part of a three year grant, but thanks to the continued interest of a core group of members, as well as the enthusiastic contribution and effort of new participating Universities, we have now entered our 24th year. This year we are especially delighted to welcome you to our corner of Japan here at Naruto University of Education. JUSTEC has a long history of sharing ideas and promoting collaboration. We hope that this conference lives up to the high standard set in previous years and paves the way forward for new ideas.

The JUSTEC conference stands apart from other conferences in several key ways. Firstly, all of the conference attendees are also presenters or have actively contributed to the organization of the event. In this way, every single attendee is also a participant. Not only does this contribute to a sense of democratic equality, but it fosters a spirit of kinship and closeness among attendees from divergent backgrounds. The conference is also unique in that it provides ample opportunity to get into schools, view lessons and meet with practitioners, in addition to the theoretical and academic content of the various presentations. Organizers go even further, ensuring real cultural exchange, from providing a range of cuisine to organizing tours to local sites. To my delight, new attendees in the past have often remarked what a thoroughly satisfying and rewarding experience the conference has been.

Preceding JUSTEC this year, the Pacific-Rim International Teacher Education Symposium will be held with the title: “Quality Assurance and the Evaluation of Teaching and Teacher Education: International Perspectives”. Keynote speaker, Dr. Donna Wiseman, Dean at the University of Maryland, Dr. Katsuyuki Sato of Naruto University of Education and Dr. Fred Hamel of the University of Puget Sound will address this theme. Dr. Lin Pei-Jung of Taipei Municipal University of Education, Taiwan, Dr. Kim Hang In of Gyeongin University, Korea and Dr. Narumol Inprasitha of Khon Kaen University, Thailand will also be discussants, following these presentations. This symposium is timely and significant since quality assurance and evaluation of teaching and teacher education is one of the key issues for JUSTEC.

We would also like to express our gratitude to Dr. Yuzo Tanaka, the president of Naruto University of Education and to the faculty and administrative staff at the University for their kind hospitality in hosting JUSTEC 2012; to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan; to the U.S. Embassy in Tokyo; and to the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education for their support. Finally, we thank all of the participants whose contributions have laid the foundation for this conference and JUSTEC.

Kensuke Chikamori

Representative of the JUSTEC Governing Committee,
Professor of Naruto University of Education

About JUSTEC

The Japan-U.S. Teacher Education Consortium (JUSTEC) was established in the late 1980s by deans of education at several universities in the United States and in Japan. The purpose of the Consortium was to foster joint research into teacher education issues of mutual interest. The organization was established under the aegis of AACTE (American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education), and has evolved from being dean-centered to being faculty/researcher-centered. For more than two decades, JUSTEC has continued to hold annual conferences of teacher education professionals in alternate locations in the U.S. and Japan. For much of its history, the annual meetings were sponsored by AACTE and supported by AACTE staff. AACTE's longtime Executive Director, Dr. David Imig played a key role in the establishment and continuing operation of JUSTEC by publishing notices of the annual meetings, dedicating staff to support the planning, and participating in the meetings every year until his retirement. Since 2007, JUSTEC has continued as an independent organization of interested faculty and universities.

The objectives of JUSTEC are to:

- provide opportunities for colleges and graduate schools of education to examine their study and practice;
- serve as an incubator for new ideas, to provide opportunities to give presentations and to engage in discussion and cultural exchange for scholars, graduate students, in-service teachers, policy makers and others who are involved in education;
- facilitate joint study and collaborative projects between US and Japanese scholars/educators and to support scholars' and practitioners' efforts towards better education.; and
- enhance academic networks between Japan and US scholars, educators, and practitioners.

JUSTEC 2010 was a special convocation, as it marked the beginning of a renewal for JUSTEC. With support of their Presidents, Tamagawa University (Tokyo) and University of Puget Sound (Tacoma) became designated as the official hub universities for JUSTEC in Japan and the U.S. These universities have agreed to take the lead in ensuring continuation of JUSTEC. Since 2010, JUSTEC has gained the support of the U.S. Embassy, Tokyo and the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology, Japan (MEXT) as well as AACTE, thereby providing particular educational benefits for Japan-U.S. educators.

The 24th JUSTEC Seminar continues the tradition of Japanese and U.S. teacher educators convening to promote understanding and collaborative research into education issues of interest in both Japan and the U.S. The conference includes 21 interactive presentations by Japanese and American educators, a keynote address and panel discussion with prominent educators, visits to area schools, formal and informal discussions among seminar participants, and cultural activities. The University of Massachusetts Lowell is pleased to host the first JUSTEC conference on the east coast of the United States.

Host Universities for JUSTEC Conferences

Year	University
2011	University of Massachusetts Lowell
2010	Tamagawa University
2009	University of Hawaii at Manoa
2008	Bukkyo University
2007	University of Hawaii at Manoa
2006	Tokyo Gakugei University
2005	Portland State University
2004	Waseda University
2003	California State University-Dominguez Hills
2002	Naruto University of Education
2001	University of Puget Sound
2000	Tamagawa University
1999	University of Hawaii at Manoa
1998	Bukkyo University
1997	San Diego State University
1996	Naruto University of Education
1994	Hiroshima University
1993	University of Hawaii at Manoa
1992	Tamagawa University
1991	Stanford University
1990	University of Tokyo
1989	University of Hawaii at Manoa
1988	Kyoto University



For further Information, Please refer to the JUSTEC web-site:

<http://justec.tamagawa.ac.jp>

24th Annual JUSTEC Conference

July 6th-9th, 2012



Supported by:
The Embassy of the U.S.A., Tokyo;
The Ministry of Education, Culture,
Sports, Science and Technology- Japan; and
The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education
Venue: Naruto University of Education, Tokushima, Japan



★July 5th, Thursday --- Optional Lesson Study Tour

Note: A free JUSTEC microbus leaves the hotels at the scheduled time. If you don't use or miss the bus, please find your own transportation.

- 12:00 Pick up Participants at **Renaissance Naruto Resort**
(The JUSTEC microbus will take you to the school.)
- 12:30 Pick up Participants at **Add Inn**
(The JUSTEC microbus will take you to the school.)
- 13:30 Arrive at Kawauchi Minami Elementary School (河内南小学校)
- 13:50-14:35 Class Observation (math, 3rd grade)
- 14:50-16:30 Lesson Study
- 16:30-17:00 Question and Answer Session
- 18:00- Return to the Hotels

★July 6th, Friday --- Optional Tour

- 8:00 Pick up Participants at **Add Inn**
(JUSTEC microbus)
- 8:30 Pick up Participants at **Renaissance Naruto Resort**
(JUSTEC microbus)

Sightseeing (Tour of Ryozen-ji Temple, whirlpools, Naruto German House.)
- 12:00- Lunch at Naruto University of Education

★July 6th, Friday --- Pacific Rim International Teacher Education Symposium

“Quality Assurance and the Evaluation of Teaching and Teacher Education: International Perspectives”

環太平洋地域教師教育国際シンポジウム「教員養成の質の保証と評価の国際的な動向」

- 12:15- Registration (At the Naruto University of Education Auditorium)
- 13:00- Opening Remark from Dr. Yuzo Tanaka, President of Naruto University of Education
- 13:10-14:10 Keynote Speech: Dr. Donna Wiseman, Dean at University of Maryland
“Teacher Quality in the US: The Intersection of Policy, Reform and Teacher Education”
- 14:10-14:55 Japanese Case Study: Dr. Katsuyuki Sato, Naruto University of Education
“Assuring Quality Teacher Preparation: A Model Curriculum and Assessment of Competence”
- 14:55-15:05 Break (10 minutes)
- 15:05-15:50 U.S. Case Study: Dr. Fred Hamel, University of Puget Sound
“Assuring Quality or Overwhelming Teachers? High Quality Performance Assessments in American Pre-service Teacher Education”
- 15:50-16:35 Comments by Discussants
Dr. Lin Pei-Jung: Taipei Municipal University of Education, Taiwan
Dr. Kim Hang In: Gyeongin University of Education, Korea
Dr. Narumol Inprasitha: Khon Kaen University, Thailand
- 16:35-16:50 Break (15 minutes)
- 16:50-17:50 Open Discussion
- 18:00-20:00 Welcome Reception at Daigaku Kaikan

★July 7th, Saturday --- Presentations

Note: A free JUSTEC microbus leaves the hotels at the scheduled time. If you don't use or miss the bus, please find your own transportation. A taxi from Add Inn takes about 10 minutes and costs around 1000 yen to the University. From Renaissance Naruto Resort it takes about 20 minutes and costs about 2000 yen to the University.

- 8:00AM Pick up the participants at **Add Inn** (JUSTEC micro bus)
- 8:00 AM Pick up the participants at **Renaissance Naruto Resort** (JUSTEC micro bus)
- 8:30 AM- **Registration**

9:00-9:20	Overview of JUSTEC
9:20-9:50	Paper Presentations on Collaborative Research and Projects Presentation 1: Eiji Tomida, Ehime University Thillainatarajan Sivakumaran, University of Louisiana at Monroe Manabu Sumida, Ehime University “What Determines Willingness to Study Abroad in Teacher Training Program?”
9:50-10:20	Presentation 2: Chie Ohtani, Tamagawa University Atsushi Hirano, Fuji Xerox Eriko Tamaru, Fuji Xerox Takeshi Nagamine, Fuji Xerox “Technology as a Tool to Enhance Student-Teachers’ Reflections and Perceptions”
10:20 –10:50	Presentation 3: Yumiko Ono, Naruto University of Education Gerard Marchesseau, Naruto University of Education Jane Williams, Middle Tennessee State University Ben White, Scales Elementary School “A Post-Friendship Program Exchange Trip Between Naruto University of Education and Scales Elementary School”
10:50-11:10	Break (20 min.)
11:10-11:40	Paper Presentations on Teacher Education Practices and Contemporary Issues 1: Presentation 4: Jason White, Himeji High School “Building a Positive Learning Environment”
11:40-12:10	Presentation 5: Steven Lee, University of Southern California, Korea Lasisi Ajayi, San Diego State University “A Comparative Study of Teachers’ Rights and Authority in the United States and Japan”
12:10-13:10	Lunch
13:30-14:00	Presentation 6: Patrick Chin Ng, University of Niigata Prefecture “Contextual Influences on the Socialization of a TESOL Teacher in the Japanese Educational Context”
14:00-14:30	Presentation 7: Eriko Fujita, Purdue University Hiromi Imamura, Chubu University “Incorporating World Englishes into English Education in Japan”
14:30-14:50	Break (20 min.)

- 14:50-15:20 Presentation 8:
Hitomi Oketani, Eastern Michigan University
“Japanese-English Two-Way Immersion Curriculum Design and its Collaborative Implementation”
- 15:20-15:50 Presentation 9:
Sachiko Tosa, Wright State University
Ann M. Farrell, Wright State University
“Revealing Student Difficulties as a Tool to Promote Teacher Growth in Teaching of Mathematics Lessons through Lesson Study”
- 16:00-17:30 Video Observation of a Japanese Elementary Science Lesson
Comparative perspective on education is one of the unique aspects of JUSTEC. For the first time in JUSTEC history, both Japanese and US participants sit down and observe one whole lesson videotaped in a Japanese public school. This session is planned to provide us an opportunity to learn different perspectives on and various interpretations of the same lesson. It is our hope that discussion stimulates reflection on our taken-for-granted assumptions and values in education.
- 18:00 **JUSTEC minibuses to the hotels**
- 18:00- **Social Hour and Dinner on your own
(Board Meeting for the governing board members)**

★July 8th, Sunday --- Presentations

Note: A free JUSTEC minibus leaves the hotels at the scheduled time. If you don't use or miss the bus, please find your own transportation. A taxi from Add Inn takes about 10 minutes and costs around 1000 yen to the University. From Renaissance Naruto Resort it takes about 20 minutes and costs about 2000 yen to the University.

- 8:30 AM Pick up the participants at **Add Inn** (JUSTEC micro bus)
- 8:30AM Pick up the participants at **Renaissance Naruto Resort** (JUSTEC micro bus)
- 9:00-9:30 **Paper Presentations on Professionalism of Teaching and School Leadership:**
Presentation 10:
Richard Gordon, California State University Dominguez Hills
Antoinette Linton, Los Angeles Unified School District
“A Preservice Education Clinical Rotation Model: The Teaching Process
Employing Structured Dialogue Grounded in Socioculturalism Dialogue”
- 9:30-10:00 Presentation 11:
Donald Pierson, University of Massachusetts Lowell
Pate Pierson, Lincoln Public Schools
“Building a Positive School Climate: Concepts for Middle School and University”
- 10:00-10:30 Presentation 12:

Lynn Hammonds, Hawai'i Teacher Standards Board
"Teacher Preparation and Licensure with Aloha"

10:30-10:45 **Break (15 min.)**

10:45-11:15 Presentation 13:
Shiori Nakamura, Naruto University of Education
"A New Viewpoint of "Mentoring": Findings through an Action Research in Hiroshima, Japan"

11:15-11:45 Presentation 14:
Chihiro Kamohara, Kiyose-City Educational Counseling Center
Hideki Sano, Tokyo Gakugei University
"Loss and Grief of Adult Returnees"

11:45-12:45 **Lunch**

13:00-14:15 **Poster Presentations**

Poster Presentation A:
Sachiko Tosa, Wright State University
Ann M. Farrell, Wright State University
"Fusing Japanese Ways of Mathematical Thinking into US Mathematics Lessons through Lesson Study"

Poster Presentation B
Kazutaka Hara, Naruto University of Education
Kazuyuki Tamura, Naruto University of Education
"Reducing Dropouts: Inside the U.S. Education System and Recent Educational Reforms, focusing on the case of Florida"

Poster Presentation C
Mari Hamada, Kyoto University of Education
Hiromi Saito, Tokyo Gakugei University
Tomoko Kaneda, Gakushuin University
"Designing Teacher Education for the In-Service JSL Teachers"

Poster Presentation D
Gerard Marchesseau, Naruto University of Education
"Issues and Challenges in Elementary School English Education in Japan"

Poster Presentation E
Akio Yamamoto, Gakushuin Boys' Senior High School
"Developing Reading Stamina through Extensive Reading in EFL"

Poster Presentation F
Taichi Akutsu, Seisa University/ Tokyo Gakugei University, Doctoral Program
Richard Gordon, California State University Dominguez Hills
Keiko Noguchi, Seisa University
"Towards the Development of Global Pedagogy: An Investigation on Japanese Children's Violin Learning in Community"

- 14:30-15:00 **Paper Presentations on Teacher Education Practices and Contemporary Issues 2:**
Presentation 15:
Eri Imai, Ehime University
Eiji Tomida, Ehime University
Satomi Tamai, Amic International, Japan
Keiko Katsumi, Angel Academy, Japan
“A case study of an in-service Japanese teacher who learns in an American university”
- 15:00-15:30 Presentation 16:
Mika Ito, Tokai University
Nobumi Kanazawa, Komazawa Women’s Junior College
“Fostering ‘the Foundation of Pupils’ Communication Abilities’: An Attempt to Create Assessment Portfolios for Teaching English to Elementary School Children in Japan”
- 15:30-16:00 **JUSTEC 2013 Announcement**
- 16:00-16:30 **JUSTEC minibuses to the hotels**
- 16:30- **Social Hour & Dinner on your own**

★July 9th, Monday --- School Visit

Note: A free JUSTEC minibus leaves the hotels at the scheduled time. If you don't use or miss the bus, please come by yourself.

- 8:30 AM** Pick up at **Renaissance Naruto Resort** (JUSTEC minibus)
- 9:00 AM** Pick up at **Add Inn** (JUSTEC minibus)
*Participants choose either one of the Fuzoku Shogakko (affiliated elementary) or Fuzoku Chugakko (affiliated junior high).
- 9:30- Observation at least 2 lessons
(Only Grade 7 and 8 classes are available in Fuzoku Chugakko due to test.)
Question and Answer session
- 13:00 **JUSTEC minibuses to the hotels and dismiss**

What determines willingness to study abroad in teacher training program?

Eiji Tomida, Associate Professor, Ehime University

Thillainatarajan Sivakumaran, Dean of the College of Education, Arkansas State University

Manabu Sumida, Associate Professor, Ehime University

Study abroad programs provide students, pursuing college degrees of all disciplines, with a unique opportunity to experience cultures around the world. In teacher education programs specifically, giving students the chance to take classes, teach students, and observe cultures throughout the world can provide a first-hand knowledge in a world where cultural boundaries are being transcended in all countries.

The objective of the present study is to explore the factors which determine their level of the motivation to study abroad in two teacher education programs. One teacher education program is of a regional public university in the State of Louisiana, USA, while the second counterpart is of a regional national university in Shikoku, Japan. Many of the students in the teacher education program of the both universities are from surrounding towns and have few opportunities to travel abroad. Especially, most students of the Japanese university are minimally exposed to the diversities of other cultures.

The two teacher education programs located across the Pacific Ocean are trying to initiate a mutually beneficial exchange of teacher education students to learn about the differences and similarities between the education systems. This partnership will be sending 20 students in total from each university to the partnering university for a two-week period. Students will be teaching and attending classes, spending time with students, and observing the educational system in the host country.

In order to design successful programs for those students, it is critical for the professors in the both institutes to know the factors which promote and inhibit the students' motivation for learning abroad. A survey was administered electronically to teacher education students ranging from first year to final year students at both institutions. The survey addressed questions pertaining to level of interest in conducting a study abroad on different continents, what type of study abroad programs would interest them the most, concerns or issues that worried them the most about studying abroad, the past experiences participating in a study abroad program, reasons for wanting to participate in a study abroad program and the financial resources that they are willing to use to participate in a study abroad program.

In the result section, the present study reports the factors that contribute to the students' willingness to go abroad for study in each program. The regression analysis with stepwise procedure was performed for each university's dataset. The two student groups showed different tendencies. The American students' motivation for study abroad is significantly determined by doubt of educational outcome of international programs ($\text{Beta} = .311$), expectation for learning about foreign education systems (.256), and their foreign experience (.295). The adjusted determination coefficient was .171. On the other hand, the Japanese counterpart is significantly determined by motivation to visit foreign schools ($\text{Beta} = .391$), motivation to learn in a foreign university (.262), and expectation for training teaching skills in a foreign language (.155). The adjusted determination coefficient was .452. In the discussion section, the possible program designs corresponded to the each group's interests and attitudes will be discussed.

Technology as a Tool to Enhance Student-Teachers' Reflections and Perceptions in the Classroom

Chie Ohtani, Associate Professor, Tamagawa University

Atsushi Hirano, Fuji Xerox

Eriko Tamaru, Fuji Xerox

Takeshi Nagamine, Fuji Xerox

Teaching occurs in a setting in which many compounding factors affect the effectiveness of teaching such as the needs of the students and teachers, curriculum requirements, the learning environment, and students' condition. However, students pursuing a degree in education usually study teaching methods, education curriculum content, child development, children with special needs, etc. focusing on each learning goal during their university studies.

The purpose of this study is to identify what student-teachers cannot perceive while they are teaching, and to find how technology can support student-teacher's reflection. The subjects are 34 junior students majoring in elementary education (fall semester, 2011) who are planning to go to an elementary school for their student teaching in spring, 2012. After they had learned how to design lesson plans for a period of 8 weeks, each group of 3 to 4 student-teachers was required to demonstrate their lesson based on their lesson plan developed in class. The simulated class setting was clearly described on their lesson plan and each group had at least one student who needed additional support from his/her teacher. In order to make the class environment as realistic as a real school classroom, 4-5 "children" (i.e. fellow students) were instructed to behave and act out like a typical school child. The instructions given to the "children" were written on paper with instructions such as "Look for something interesting in class when the teacher was too wordy and/or talked too long," "When you don't get your teacher's eye contact or attention, begin arranging and playing with your pencil case until you get his/her attention," and so on.

The 40-minute teaching demonstration was videotaped by 3 cameras: a front camera to record the overview of the classroom, a side camera to record how the student-teacher teaches, and a free camera recording the trainer's point of view. The trainer used a tool to record and tag events that the student-teacher continued his/her teaching when some students are not ready to move to next activity, not listening, or engaging other things. Three different videos and the event tags are integrated, so that the student-teachers could reflect on and observe their teaching.

It was found that many student-teachers found difficulty in time management and class management while they were engaged in teaching a class. Although the student-teachers worked hard to identify and examine the needs of the students and support they should provide, they found it was especially difficult to conduct their lesson while they had one or a few students who had a short attention span and needed more teacher attention -- a very common occurrence in Japanese schools.

Regarding the technical effectiveness of this approach to help students improve their teaching skills, it was found that it is effective to provide a few video angles to see the different perspectives in the classroom to reveal the teacher's line of sight, teaching style and habits, and what is going on during class. Adding tags to some good teaching examples and problematic conditions would assist their reflection of the experience. However, it was a little confusing to tag when a few events are occurring at the same time. It would be convenient if tags were linked to Power Point for better review and reflection to provide effective feedback to the student-teachers.

A Post-Friendship Program Exchange Trip Between Naruto University of Education and Scales Elementary School

Yumiko Ono, Professor, Naruto University of Education

Gerard Marchesseau, Associate Professor, Naruto University of Education

Jane Williams, Professor, East Tennessee State University

This paper presentation will report on an exchange trip between Naruto University of Education and Scales Elementary School in Murfreesboro, Tennessee, with support from East Tennessee State University. In previous years, East Tennessee State University (ETSU) had participated on the Friendship Program with Naruto University of Education. Although ETSU has been unable to participate on the Friendship Program in the last two years, the exchange trip this year can be seen as an extension of the Friendship Program and followed the same template that had been established previously under the Friendship Program.

The trip was for a one week duration in February, 2012. Two students from Naruto University of Education participated along with two faculty from the University. Three full days were spent at Scales Elementary School observing lessons and learning about the school. As the Centerpiece of the trip, like the Friendship program, the two students from Naruto taught a lesson about Japanese language and culture to the students of Scales Elementary School. Following our time at Scales, one day was spent at East Tennessee State University and another day was spent touring around Nashville.

This paper presentation will summarize the trip and then discuss the impact on the students from Naruto as well as the elementary school pupils at Scales. We will draw on a range of quantitative data. While on the trip, the participants from Naruto kept journals. Reflection sessions were also held during and after the trip, which were recorded, as were the elementary school lessons about Japan. The participants reflected on their 'model lessons' and made numerous observations about American culture and education as they saw it. This data was triangulated with the faculty participants' observations during and after the trip. We received enormous assistance from the homeroom teachers at Scales elementary school. To assess the impact of the model lesson (and other activities) on the elementary school students, we will rely on qualitative assessment and observations from one of the homeroom teachers in the United States.

Building a Positive Learning Environment

Jason White, Assistant Supervisor of English, Himeji High School

This presentation discusses the importance of a positive learning environment and several strategies that can be implemented by teachers to help create a positive learning environment. To begin the presenter defines the concept of a learning environment and explores the factors that contribute to the positivity or negativity of a classroom environment. Secondly, the presenter discusses motivation and anxiety as key factors in the foreign language classroom. Next, the presenter explains the responsibilities for the different parties involved in creating a learning environment. Finally, the presenter demonstrates several key strategies that can be used to successfully create a positive learning environment, including specific strategies for various age groups.

In order to define the concept of a learning environment I studied research from various sources dating back to the 1970's. Around that time the education community began to realize the impact of various factors such as anxiety and motivation on student achievement. As the field began to expand and progress more focus was directed on the importance of the learning environment as opposed to exclusively focusing on the ability or intelligence of individual learners. I learned that motivation can be a strong determinant of learning success, especially in foreign language classrooms. The two distinct types of motivation that affect EFL learners are intrinsic and extrinsic. The different types of motivation are most recognizable in relation to age group. Another key factor in language learning is anxiety. One of the most difficult problems for foreign language teachers to deal with is anxiety in EFL and ESL students. The research is plentiful on this topic, but the field of EFL and ESL learning is changing rapidly. We are in an unprecedented period in history where globalization has dramatically increased the need for second language learning. Students are faced with a greater demand for second language learning, but they are hindered by the debilitating effects of anxiety in foreign language classrooms.

The final portion of the presentation focuses on specific strategies that can be implemented in order to create a positive learning environment, such as pair work, group projects, communication circles, dramatic techniques for analyzing texts, debate, lesson plans involving popular music, and humor, both in daily activities and in the normal interactions of the class. In addition to these specific strategies, the most effective way of building a positive environment is for the teacher to show a high level of awareness regarding all aspects of the classroom.

The responsibility for creating a positive learning environment falls mostly on the shoulders of the foreign language teacher, which is why it is so important for the teacher to be aware of the specific mood of the students as well as the overall feelings of the class. Through increased effort, focused research, and consistent and truthful self-evaluation teachers can increase their ability to create positive learning environments that effectively lower anxiety and successfully foster the learning process for second language learners.

A Comparative Examination of Teachers' Rights and Authority in the U.S. and Japan

Steven K. Lee, Professor, University of Southern California
Lasisi Ajayi, Associate Professor, San Diego State University

This presentation examines and compares teachers' rights and authority in the U.S. and Japan. In recent years, in light of policy transformations in education, especially in the U.S., teachers' rights and authority have re-surfaced as a controversial issue in public education. Teachers' rights pertain to certain rights granted and guaranteed to them as professionals. These include academic freedom, prohibition from discrimination, and protection from employment termination. Teachers' authority refers to the professional authority granted to teachers, affirming confidence in teachers to exercise appropriate decisions and judgments about educating students. These rights and authority generally derive from the corresponding state and federal-level constitutional provisions, statutes, and regulations, as well as the societal norms and expectations.

Since 2001, when the federal legislature, No Child Left Behind, was enacted, modeled after the educationally more competitive countries, such as Korea, Singapore, Taiwan, and Japan, public education in the U.S. has become more standardized and centralized. That is, while the federal government has maintained that it does not assert a national standard, relegating curriculum policy decisions to the individual states, the adoption of No Child Left Behind has effectively given rise to the debate about teachers' rights and authority in the classroom. More specifically, because teacher accountability, based mainly on students' performance on various standardized test scores, has direct implications for tenure and security of employment, teacher autonomy has been significantly reduced. The curricular standardization has caused a major shift in focus whereby decisions about curriculum development, assessment, and other educational matters is no longer an autonomous process centered around teachers as agents, but rather teachers as recipients of mandates prescribed by an external entity.

An examination of the rights and authority in the U.S. and Japan reveal interesting and contrasting perspectives on the perception of what constitutes academic freedom. The Japanese public education is very centralized—the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) decides the national curriculum and controls teacher preparation and education. Teachers' rights to a collective bargaining are also restricted by the National Public Service Personnel Law (NPSPL) in Japan. Yet, despite what seemingly is a severe limitation, many believe Japanese teachers enjoy a significant amount of latitude to teach activities and materials that meet the centrally designed guidelines, while American teachers do not. We believe this contrasting perspective is influenced by two factors: (a) while Japanese public education has historically been a highly centralized and nationally-controlled school system, limiting teachers' rights and authority, this phenomenon is relatively new in U.S. public education and (b) the level of autonomy for Japanese teachers are comparatively greater than most other professions in Japan, while teacher accountability in the U.S. has diminished a significant amount of teacher's rights and authority, including post-tenure dismissal based on student performance.

Contextual Influences on the Socialization of a TESOL Teacher in the Japanese Educational Context

Patrick Chin Ng, Professor, University of Niigata Prefecture

Teacher education programmes usually operated under the assumption that teachers needed discrete amounts of teaching theories, methodology and knowledge to be effective in the classroom. However, the way teachers teach in the classroom is usually influenced not by teaching methodology but by the context in which their teaching takes place. According to Freeman and Johnson (1998), the teaching context such as schools and classrooms are the sociocultural terrains in which the work of teaching is conceptualized, implemented and evaluated (Freeman and Johnson, 1998, p408). Freeman and Johnson suggest that while the school is the physical setting for teaching and learning, the schooling context refers to teachers' socialization as students or the norms and values emphasized by schools in which teacher learning takes place. This paper attempts to fill the missing gap on the effects of contextual factors on the teaching practice of a TESOL teacher in Japan. Thus the research question for this study is,

“What role does the teaching context play in the socialization of a TESOL teacher in the Japanese EFL classroom?”

As a way to reflect on my teaching experiences in Japan, I frequently kept narrative notes of my teaching experiences during my initial teaching years as a TESOL instructor. I recorded my students' reactions to my class activities and also listed down the 'pros and cons' of each activity. In addition, I also jotted down notes on students' learning behaviour in class or comments by students. Adopting a narrative inquiry, I attempt to show that the socialization of TESOL teachers in Japan is influenced by contextual factors such as: *students' linguistic proficiency, language learning attitudes, the learning culture, the sociolinguistic context and personal teaching philosophy and the sociolinguistic context of teaching.*

It is hoped that my story will add on to the existing knowledge of teacher education by encouraging, changing or provoking other EFL professionals to ask new questions about the use of an appropriate contextually teaching approach to achieve the best teaching outcome. I will first provide a literature review on the history of English teaching in Japan. I will then review the literature on the impact of contextual factors on teaching followed by a discussion on the use of narrative inquiry as a research methodology in teacher education. Next, I will discuss the impact of contextual influences on my teaching practice in Japan based on my narrative notes and comments on my teaching experience. I will then reflect on the contextual influences on my teaching practice to draw out some implications for EFL teaching. Through my presentation, it is hoped that other teachers will learn to make sense of their own teaching contexts and to adopt contextually appropriate teaching approaches to achieve the best teaching outcome.

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Incorporating World Englishes into English Education in Japan

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Background

English has spread all over the world and been in use in various areas such as business, academia and personal correspondences. Kachru (1985 and later) represents the spread of English in terms of three concentric circles: the inner circle, the outer circle, and the expanding circle. The inner circle refers to the traditional bases of English – the regions where English is the primary language such as the United States and the United Kingdom. In the outer circle, English has been institutionalized in non-native contexts like in India. The expanding circle includes the rest of the world where English is used as a foreign language. Japan is included in this expanding circle.

Japanese people also recognize the importance of English. However, not so many Japanese English learners can communicate in English after learning it for almost 10 years. One of the obstacles for them is their “nativeness worship”. They cannot be confident enough to communicate in English because their English deviates from “native” English. Therefore, they are reluctant to communicate in English and as a result, do not improve upon it.

Proposal to Incorporate World Englishes in Japanese English Education

Considering that most people base their perception about English through mandatory English education, the following three aspects were investigated. Previous studies on the approved textbooks (Matsuda, 2002), nationalities of ALTs on JET program, and teacher preparation programs (Matsuda, 2009) revealed that even though administrators recognize the importance to introduce varieties of Englishes, they still cannot fully put it into practice. As a result, the students cannot learn that there are varieties of English and that all Englishes are acceptable. Consequently, Japanese people believe the English from the inner circle is the only perfect model, which eventually causes the vicious cycle mentioned above.

If the “nativeness worship” becomes an obstacle for their English improvement, how can we address this issue? World Englishes can be a solution for this problem. Once the Japanese English language learners recognize and accept the varieties of English, they will no longer be ashamed of their own English and their English ability will eventually improve. This study proposes when and what aspects of World Englishes should be introduced in English education in Japan to gain the best effect.

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Japanese-English Two-Way Immersion Curriculum Design and Its Collaborative Implementation¹

Hitomi Oketani, Professor, Eastern Michigan University, USA

What kind of education program promotes additive bilingualism with academic success? Additive bilingualism is a situation where the addition of second language and culture is unlikely to replace or displace the first language and culture (Lambert, 1980). According to Soltero (2004), education programs such as dual language programs (e.g., two-way immersion program) or language maintenance programs (e.g., heritage language program) lead to additive bilingualism.

This study is a part of a larger project (EMU-JASSEM Project) in which we (1) Investigate what ways of curriculum are the most effective in regards to teach Japanese language to children who study at Japanese-English Dual-Language Immersion Programs in the U.S., and (2) Investigate whether there are any causal factors influencing Japanese language achievement and academic development. Although the classroom observations and interviews to teachers and/or administrations of different types of Japanese-English immersion schools only included a limited number of schools in this case study, all programs achieved highly academically. We could observe that there is not much difference in Japanese language outcomes among different types of dual language immersion programs (one-way partial immersion, one-way total immersion or two-way immersion programs). This is mainly because each school has different perspectives towards student outcomes of Japanese language. Most of their concern is students' academic achievement rather than Japanese language achievement. In addition, lack of student enrolment, limited budget, and student individual aspects such as behavior and discipline problems, create different causal factors for schools to have difficulty in maintaining or developing students' Japanese language skills. However, at least the following aspects were confirmed across programs.

1. Parental involvement is crucial to the program (e.g. homework, reading support, school activities and events);
2. Teachers' high expectation to students are critical;
3. Strong leadership with good knowledge on bilingual/multilingual education, is present;
4. Teacher's instruction is developmentally appropriate (e.g. learner's current stage of language development, age, conceptual development, ability, attention span, special aids);
5. Teacher's Instruction is student-centered, content-based, thematic approach and stimulating students' motivation to the real world;
6. Collaboration among teachers themselves (articulation, across curriculum) as well as collaboration among teachers, parents, school administrators, are crucial for students' Japanese and English language development and academic success.

Each individual student's success is the main agenda for schools. School programs that are committed to caring, developing, and engaging all students at all levels are crucial for our facing *Era of Inclusion*. A key part of that commitment is to secure, maintain and develop diverse students and community that can help us meet the continually evolving needs of our society. To reinforce the commitment, in this case study, we investigated the most effective process, strengthened pedagogy, and its implementation. Going forward, we hope that our findings may provide helpful insight for well-designed teaching and schooling towards educating better globally competent citizens. In this presentation, the process of planning and designing a Japanese-English Two Way Immersion Curriculum and its collaborative and strategic implementation project at school are presented.

¹ My sincere and great thanks go to the Japanese-Language Education Research Grant (Fiscal Year 2011-2012) of The Japan Foundation for their generous financial assistance to conduct the case study.

Revealing Student Difficulties as a Tool to Promote Teacher Growth in Teaching of Mathematics Lessons through Lesson Study

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Ann M. Farrell, Professor, Department of Mathematics and Statistics, Wright State University

Since the publication of *The Teaching Gap* by Stigler and Hiebert in 1999, Lesson Study has been gaining in popularity slowly but steadily in the United States as an effective professional development model for in-service teachers. For this Japanese-born model to be successful in the U.S. where the cultural context is very different from that in Japan, it is important to identify essential components in Lesson Study that have the potential to promote teacher growth during the process.

This study examines how teachers' choices of activities and questions in mathematics lessons affect student thinking, and in turn develop teachers' awareness of the importance of student thinking through Lesson Study. Thirty-eight (38) research lessons in K-8 mathematics were designed and implemented during the 2010-11 academic year by 61 teachers in 13 teams in the U.S. Midwest. The lessons and subsequent post-lesson discussions were examined in this study. Videos, field notes, and teacher reflections submitted at the end of the post-lesson discussions were analyzed qualitatively. Three types of lessons were identified in terms of how the lesson reveals student difficulties in carrying out the mathematical tasks incorporated in the lesson: (a) lessons in which student difficulties were obvious because teacher did not provide students with enough instruction in mathematics to carry out the tasks, (b) lessons in which student difficulties were not revealed through activities and/or discussions, and (c) lessons in which student difficulties were revealed through activities and/or discussions. Student difficulties observed in this study were all unintentional by teachers. In other words, teachers did not anticipate student difficulties until they implemented the lessons. Post-lesson discussions were transcribed and coded in order to find patterns in the depth of teachers' reflection on student thinking. Based on the frequencies of teachers' remarks on student thinking, post-lesson discussions were classified into three levels: no attention, shallow awareness, and deeper awareness of student thinking. The relationships between the types of research lessons and the levels of teachers' remarks were examined. Preliminary results indicate that incorporating activities that reveal student difficulties in mathematics is an essential component for increasing teachers' awareness of student thinking. Implications of the findings in the development of a lesson study professional development model in the U.S. are discussed.

During our recent Lesson Study Showcase in which all the teams of lesson study practitioners gathered and exchanged ideas, one of the teachers remarked to the whole group that, contrary to what she believed for her 20 years of teaching, now she sees that it is important to let students struggle so that they can think more deeply about the mathematical concepts on their own. This remark is about an intentional incorporation of student difficulties in the lesson. It is interesting to find that our research findings have a connection with the teacher's realization of a new way of teaching. It seems that when teachers observed student difficulties in lessons, teachers themselves learned more about student thinking and realized that incorporating prompts or questions that make student struggle would be beneficial to them. Lesson Study is still new in the United States. Incorporating teachers' research questions in lesson study or challenges to students during the lesson is not a common practice yet. However, the situation may allow us to identify essential components needed in the Lesson Study process. We found that lessons that went well and smoothly without revealing student difficulties did not seem to help teachers for their growth. It would be interesting to exchange ideas and opinions between US and Japanese educators on the question of how revealing student difficulties is important to promote growth in teacher education.

A Preservice Education Clinical Rotation Model: The Teaching Process Employing Structured Dialogue Grounded in Sociocultural Dialogue

Antoinette Linton, Professor, University of Southern California

Richard K. Gordon, Professor, California State University, Dominguez Hills

This presentation presents a description of a short, guided learning experiences for preservice teachers to facilitate their understanding of teaching as a multidimensional and complex practice. To achieve this understanding, a clinical classroom rotation model was explored that promotes focused inquiry, directed observation, and guided practice as key components of a well planned preservice teacher learning experience. The purpose of the clinical classroom rotation was to begin the process of transforming preservice teachers' understanding of teaching and learning in authentic classroom contexts. The clinical classroom rotation is a guided learning experience having three parts—focus inquiry about a particular skill or body of knowledge; directed observation of a predetermined conceptualization of teaching practice, planned and enacted within a clinical classroom by a practitioner; and the guided enactment of the skill or body of knowledge by the preservice teacher within their field experience classroom.

In this study, we provided a guided opportunity for preservice teachers in an urban residency program to interpret and translate a teaching episode during a clinical rotation. We used a lesson study format, grounded in socioculturalism, to provide coherence between the university coursework and the field experience component of the program. Structured Dialogue (SD) was utilized as a discourse intervention to provide continuity and consistency to discourse during planned interactions. SD provided a scheme for collaborative planning, the interpretation and translation of clinical classroom observations, and the re-planning and re-enacting of future learning experiences for preservice teachers. A directed observation form prompted preservice teachers to describe: a) practitioner's teaching process, b) lesson plan logistics, c) enactment of curriculum, d) evidence of inquiry, e) pedagogical approaches, and f) evidence of student learning.

Results indicate that preservice teachers in the study have a developing understanding of content specific pedagogy and "Nature of Science." Almost half of the preservice teachers could attend to discourse strategies used to facilitate biology students use of academic language, and the teacher processes used to facilitate learning. Preservice teachers needed intense intervention in the areas of understanding practitioner decision making during planning and enacting, teacher-student interactions, facilitating student-student interactions, the enactment of learning theory and the use of rubrics to facilitate learning. Other areas of intervention include discourse strategies, inquiry strategies, and the development of teacher processes.

The enactment of a directed observation in a clinical classroom facilitated the illumination of knowledge and understandings that preservice teachers use to interpret teaching and learning in an urban classroom. This model allowed the practitioner and university faculty to respond to the learning needs of preservice teachers in complex ways that promote pedagogical efficiency.

Building a Positive School Climate: Concepts for Middle School and University

Donald Pierson, Vice-Provost & Professor, University of Massachusetts-Lowell

Pate Pierson, Teacher and 5th Grade Team Leader, Lincoln Public Schools, Massachusetts

Teachers and School Leaders from early childhood to adulthood are concerned with building a positive school culture. In a positive school culture, students feel safe and motivated to learn; they are respectful to each other, and they experience success. Our presentation will describe how one middle school and one university strive to build positive school cultures.

First, we will present The Lincoln Middle School which is located in Lincoln, Massachusetts, about 20 miles west of Boston. Later we will discuss the University which is the University of Massachusetts Lowell, about 30 miles north of Boston.

The Philosophy of the Lincoln Middle School is described in a School Handbook for students, parents, and teachers. It includes:

1. Providing Programs and Activities to address Social and Emotional Needs of Students;
2. Promoting Leadership, Initiative and Civic Engagement among Adults and Students in the School Community.

This philosophy is reinforced daily in classrooms, as well as in teacher workshops and parent-teacher conferences, throughout the year. Several examples will be shared.

The University of Massachusetts Lowell has drafted a Mission Statement with major goals. Each goal has “benchmarks” to chart annual progress toward achieving the goals. Following is a list of three of the goals, and illustrations of benchmarks, which pertain to a positive school climate.

1. Transformational Education
 - a. Graduation rate
 - b. Percent minority students, faculty, and staff
 - c. Ratings of student satisfaction
2. Global Engagement
 - a. Percent international students
 - b. Percent students with international learning experiences
3. Community Partnerships that Spur Innovation
 - a. Recognition by Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching for Community Engagement and Outreach
 - b. Inclusion on U.S. President’s list of Higher Education Community Service Honor Roll.

Teacher Preparation and Licensure with Aloha

Lynn Hammonds, Executive Director, Hawaii Teacher Standards Board

This presentation discusses teacher preparation and licensure in Hawaii. Eight main Hawaiian islands serve as home to the most ethnically and racially diverse population of all the states. The first Japanese immigrants arrived in 1806, and the 2010 census showed 43.9% Asian residents in Honolulu, the largest city. In 1959, Hawaii officially became the “Aloha State” by an act of the legislature. “**Aloha Spirit**” is defined in statute as “the coordination of mind and heart within each person. It brings each person to the self. Each person must think and emot[e] good feelings to others “**Aloha**” is more than a word of greeting or farewell or a salutation. “**Aloha**” means mutual regard and affection and extends warmth in caring with no obligation in return. “**Aloha**” is the essence of relationships in which each person is important to every other person for collective existence.” Furthermore, the Constitution of the State of Hawaii, Article X, Section 4, requires that the State shall promote and provide for a Hawaiian education program consisting of language, culture and history in the public schools, forming the basis for inclusion of the “Aloha Spirit” into state approved teacher education programs (SATEP) and the Hawaii Department of Education.

In August 2011, the Hawaii Teacher Standards Board (HTSB) adopted the revised Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC) Model Core Teaching Standards, developed by the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO), with one addition: in Standard 2(d), Learning Differences, The teacher brings multiple perspectives to the discussion of content, including attention to learners’ personal, family, and community experiences and cultural norms, ***including Native Hawaiian history and culture.*** With this addition, both SATEP and teachers renewing their licenses are required to provide evidence that they incorporate Native Hawaiian history and culture into their practice.

This presentation will focus on how all Hawaii SATEP integrate the Aloha Spirit and Hawaiian history, language and culture into the preparation of teacher candidates to work in Hawaii schools and how in-service teachers in the Hawaii Department of Education and Hawaii Charter Schools infuse Hawaiian history, culture and spirit into their lessons.

It will also include information on the state’s two Indigenous Teacher Preparation programs: Kahuawaiola Indigenous Teacher Education Program based in the College of Hawaiian Language at the University of Hawaii at Hilo and Halau Wanana Teacher Education Program, based in Kanu o ka Aina Learning Ohana (KALO) in Waimea on Hawaii Island.

Finally, the presentation will demonstrate how the HTSB’s Licensing Section supports customer care with Aloha, as required in the Board’s Strategic Plan. The Licensing Section’s seven staff partner with Hawaii Information Consortium, the State’s internet portal provider, to meet the needs of Hawaii’s thirteen thousand-plus teachers with grace and Aloha on a daily basis.

No doubt after this presentation you will feel the Spirit of Aloha beckoning to you to experience it yourself!

A New Viewpoint of “Mentoring”: Findings through an Action Research in Hiroshima, Japan

Shiori Nakamura, Graduate Student, Naruto University of Education

There are many studies on interactions between a mentor and a protégé in various Japanese mentoring programs. Yet, these studies focus more on quantitative data for their analyses, and processes of their interactions (qualitative data) are not well documented. In this research, I conducted an action research through the “Hiroshima Child Support Mentoring Program,” and analyzed their interactions qualitatively.

“Mentoring” means an elder and more experienced mentor and a younger protégé (mentee) are interacting personally for an extended period of time. They build up a fiducial relationship, and a mentor supports a protégé’s growth by being a proper roll model. Originally, a mentoring started in the United States (U.S.) as a child support activity by the Big Brother Big Sister at the beginning of 20th century. In 2003, the mayor, who experienced a mentoring program while living in the U.S., introduced mentoring into Hiroshima. As a part of city administration, an experimental program started in 2004 and upgraded to a full program in the following year. In Hiroshima’s program, any volunteer over 19 years of age can be a “mentor,” and any child between 6 and 15 years old can be a “protégé.” The aims of this program are focused on: 1) activity support (e.g., interaction between different age groups), 2) growth support (e.g., communication skill development), and 3) truancy support (e.g., mental and physical support for children to go out). Program office is operated by government employees of Hiroshima city, and the program is monitored by two advisors (a counseling specialist and Prof. Kayoko Watanabe at Aichi Shukutoku University).

This program is treated as a pioneer example in Japan, and various observation teams are sent in from administrative offices and city councils all over Japan. This program is also documented in papers and magazines. For example, in the Sogo Kyoiku Gijyutsu (General Magazine for Teachers) Dec. 2008 volume, the program is introduced as “the program that every teacher should know”. This article also mentions that a mentor can and will regularly visit a protégé, and therefore it is hoped to be effective in rebuilding a community that used to take care of children as a group.

Mentoring is attracting high attention in Japan, however, there are many ambiguities in current (quantitative) studies. According to Watanabe, some problems lie in: 1) vague definition, 2) limited data samples, 3) low numbers of research studies, and 4) too many factors and elements for consistent analysis. Therefore, as one of mentor in this program, I used an action research by means of a “dynamic system” to study interactions between different mentor-protégé pairs, focusing on a general structure of mentoring process.

I interviewed 10 mentors working over a year, focusing on how they interact with their protégés. An Interpretative Phenomenology Analysis was conducted based on: 1) verbatim records, 2) my impression, 3) abstracts of interview, and 4) findings while creating each abstract.

As a result, “circumstances of mentors and protégés” become much clearer than before. One of the new findings is that a mentor interacts not only with a protégé, but also with his/her parents very closely. This provides an important aspect since most of previous studies focused only on the interaction between a mentor and a protégé. Next, I focus my analysis on the records of interview that helped a protégé through interactions “between a mentor and the parents of a protégé (not with a protégé directly).” At the end, I summarize about “transition of protégés within themselves.” From these results, it becomes clear that a new viewpoint, i.e., “relationship among a mentor, a protégé, and parents” is the key for future studies. Mentoring, originated in the U.S. over a century ago, is not only between a mentor and a protégé, but there is much more complicated “relationships” to it.

Loss and Grief of Adult Returnees

Chihiro Kamohara, Counselor, Kiyose-City Educational Counseling Center

Hideki Sano, Professor, Tokyo Gakugei University

This presentation will present the loss and grief of Japanese Adult Returnees, those who are now adults but has spent significant part of their childhood outside of their parents' culture. Interview method was used for 8 adult returnees (2 males and 6 females) to gather information of their individual and unique experiences. The data was analyzed through using the Grounded Theory Method (Shigeiki, 2008).

There are many kinds of losses in which children experiences, such as the loss of relationship, things, skills, environments, and many more. The loss can be experienced when children move from one country to another. In Japan, Returnees or *Kikoku-shijo* are the people who have lived outside of their passport country during their childhood only due to their parents' work. In the US, such people are called Third Culture Kids, or TCK. Both words denote those people with cross-cultural experiences in their childhood because of their parents' work. Previous studies about TCK indicated that TCKs does experience a sense of loss while moving among host countries and their passport country. However, in Japan, few studies have mentioned the loss and grief among Japanese Returnees. Therefore, this study focused on the loss of Japanese Returnees and their ways of coping with the grief which comes with the loss. One of the participant's experiences as Japanese Returnee will be shown as an example.

The result of the study showed that there are common kinds of loss among Japanese Returnees and TCKs, such as the loss of close friends, and the loss of their favorite places. On the other hand, losing a sense of being Japanese, or the loss of their mother tongue were unique aspects only seen within Japanese Returnees. It is possible to assume that the differences in the loss between TCK and Japanese Returnees may be explained by how people of various cultural backgrounds are treated within the society.

When coping with the loss, both TCK and Japanese Returnees had a tendency of denying their grief. The previous studies about TCK claim that the main reason of the denial is due to the disenfranchisement of the grief within the society. It is said that many people in the society are unaware of the loss of those who had cross-cultural experiences during their childhood. Thus, the loss and grief of TCK is left unnoticed. The idea of disenfranchisement seems to fit to Japanese Returnees. In addition, Japanese Returnees tend to think of their loss as a consequence of their lack of effort; many participants of this study answered that they did not work hard enough to prevent their loss.

One Japanese Returnee, the participant of this study, mentioned that when her strategy of re-adjusting to Japan was not effective, she became aware of what she had lost through her cross-cultural experiences. She said that through her loss, she felt as if her experience in the passport country and the host country were split apart. She coped with the grief through sharing the experiences and working to regain her loss. The whole working process has lead to the acceptance of disenfranchised grief and resolving the unsolved grief. Finally, she was able to integrate her experiences of the host country and on going reality of the passport country. She was able to seek the continuity of her experiences in both countries.

In conclusion, in order to cope with the loss and the grief, accepting the disenfranchised grief and regaining discontinuity could be important processes for Japanese Returnees. There are many children with various cultural backgrounds and their reaction to the loss varies. It is important for educators to be aware of the diversity and possibility of them having a sense of loss and the grief. Through such awareness of each one of us, it is possible to break the social tendency of disenfranchising the loss and grief of people with cross-cultural experiences.

A case study of an in-service Japanese teacher who learns in an American university

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Eiji Tomida, Associate Professor, Ehime University
Satomi Tamai, Director, Amic International Inc.
Keiko Katsumi, School Teacher, Angel Academy

In the era of the collaboration across the globe, multi-cultural experience is particularly significant not only for student teachers but also for in-service teachers for their professional development. Many studies have found that overseas teaching experience provides them with positive benefits. Most case studies on professional development overseas performed by Japanese researchers have dealt with Japanese language teachers. Currently, the international professional development for the in-service teachers working at regular schools is not common in Japan. However, the internationally experienced teachers are now becoming rapidly more important in its society.

The authors have studied a Japanese student, who had been working in a Japanese preschool as an in-service teacher and are currently attending a master program at a regional public university in the State of Louisiana, USA. The overall objective of the research project is to examine how she has managed her learning and repositioned her identity as a teacher through her experiences at a university abroad. The aim of the present study is to explicate how she has managed her learning activities so far.

The research participant was an experienced in-service teacher who has worked in a kindergarten in suburban area of a regional city in Japan. She is coming back to the same school after she graduate the program. She has been interviewed from November 2011. Her answers were transcribed and coded with an originally developed scheme based on the framework of self-regulated learning. The scheme has five categories: cognitive strategy, metacognitive strategy, social metacognitive strategy, motivation strategy, and resource management strategy. After the coding process, the strategies closely related to her past professional life were identified to illuminate distinctive self-regulated strategies for an in-service teacher.

As a result, it is found that the participant has been using motivation strategies in a distinctive way. Unlike student teachers without professional experience, she connected the student life in the United States with her regrettable insufficient care for international students of the past, her current reputation as a teacher, and her career path in the future. The authors conclude that she has managed to keep her strong motivation for the advanced learning in the program through such positioning acts of past, present, and future.

Fostering ‘the Foundation of Pupils’ Communication Abilities’: An Attempt to Create Assessment Portfolios for Teaching English to Elementary School Children in Japan

Mika Ito, Associate Professor, Tokai University

Nobumi Kanazawa, Professor, Komazawa Women’s Junior College

This presentation addresses the issues related to an attempt to create assessment portfolios for teaching English to elementary school children in Japan. In particular, the presenters will look into the ambiguous concept of fostering ‘the foundation of pupils’ communication abilities’ as the overall objective of Foreign Language Activities described in the Course of Study 2011 (MEXT 2008a). Under this new protocol, in principle, schools should teach English in grades 5 and 6 for 35 hours per year as a ‘mandatory activity.’ However, each individual school should establish its objectives of English language activities for each grade to meet the needs for the pupils and the community. In other words, there has not yet been any consensus about the purpose and goal of English education at elementary school level. Worse still, one of the main sources of concern is that most English activities are taught by homeroom teachers who do not hold any formal English teaching credentials because it is not treated as an academic subject.

Despite this chaotic situation, MEXT expects secondary EFL teachers to develop students’ ‘basic practical communication abilities’ (MEXT 2008b) on the premise that their students have already actively engaged in communication in English through the English activities in elementary schools. So what is ‘the foundation of communication abilities?’ How are elementary homeroom teachers supposed to do to foster these abilities? How will the elementary school English activities link with the junior high school English language curriculum?

In order to answer these questions, the presenters took a particular note that objectives/goals and assessment of language teaching are two sides of the same coin, and eventually started a three-year grant-in-aid project in 2011 to create assessment portfolios for prospective EFL teachers to teach English in elementary schools. Although evaluation standards and other factors must be clearly defined and rigorously applied when portfolios are to be used for the purposes of assessment (Danielson and Abrutyn: 1997 vii), there are no evaluation standards for teaching elementary school children in Japan. Therefore, the presenters are using the ELD (English Language Development) Portfolio Record, developed by Los Angeles Unified School District (LAUSD) as the springboard to advance the project. Teachers in LAUSD are expected to use this ELD scoring guide to determine a non-native English speaking student’s progress toward mastery of each ELD standard. In this presentation, the rationale behind applying this LAUSD portfolio to the Japanese EFL context in order to foster the foundation of communication abilities of children, and other relevant issues regarding teacher education in Japan will be summarized and discussed.

Fusing Japanese Ways of Mathematical Thinking into US Mathematics Lessons through Lesson Study

Sachiko Tosa, Assistant Professor, Departments of Physics & Teacher Education, Wright State University
Ann M. Farrell, Professor, Department of Mathematics and Statistics, Wright State University

Teaching is a cultural activity in content and pedagogy (Stigler & Hiebert, 1999). Naturally, we expect teachers' pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) is also influenced by culture. However, because of the implicit nature of PCK, it would be more difficult to identify how teachers' PCK is affected by the cultural aspect in their teaching practices. If teachers' PCK is restrained by cultural factors in a certain way, input from a different culture might be helpful for teachers to recognize alternative ways of teaching the concepts.

This study examines how the effect of culture on teachers' PCK in mathematics was revealed in the process of Lesson Study. During the 2011-2012 academic year, a total of 60 teachers in 13 teams at 8 different schools participated in a Lesson Study Project conducted in the U.S. Midwest. Thirteen (13) research lessons were designed and implemented by teams during the first half of the period. Four of the teams used the English version of Japanese elementary mathematics textbooks (Tokyo Shoseki, 2006) as a reference. During the sessions, two facilitators, one is a Japanese and the other is an American, from a higher education institution helped teachers interpret the meaning of Japanese ways of thinking about mathematical concepts and fit it into teachers' more familiar teaching context in U.S. Teachers' discourse in the planning phase is analyzed qualitatively to examine how they perceived and reacted to different ways of teaching mathematical concepts.

The discussion process of a Grade K-1 team is presented as a case study. Teachers noticed that many first graders were unable to decompose and regroup numbers in addition or subtraction problems. Through the textbook study, teachers found that the Japanese textbook emphasizes the idea of making tens, while the US textbook (*Go Math!*, 2011) does not place a particular emphasis on it. It became clear to the teachers that student difficulties with regrouping may be related to the fact that they have not mastered how to make tens. The teachers decided to take "making tens" as their topic for the research lesson. They also decided to use a "Ten Case" which is a single row of ten boxes as a frame for children to work with instead of the typically used "Tens Frame" which has two rows of five boxes. In spite of this effort, however, both the initial and revised lessons did not include teachers' explicit explanation of the meaning of making tens. Little student learning was observed in the lessons. It seemed that the teachers did not fully grasp the importance of making tens yet.

The research findings indicate that the cultural influence on teachers' PCK is so strong that one or two discussion sessions would not impact teachers' understanding of the mathematical concepts. Nevertheless, it was an important step. First grade teachers continued to use the ten case in the subsequent lessons. As reflecting on the lesson study cycle, one of the teachers later mentioned that "I think it has been very beneficial to focus on this skill of making tens in the first grade. These students will have a greater foundation for number sense." It seems that implementation of multiple lessons on the strategy as their own provided teachers with an opportunity to internalize the mathematical concept. A cultural change happens in small increments over time (Stigler & Hiebert, 1999). It is also worth mentioning that the international aspect of the project personnel is contributing to bringing a change in teachers' PCK through human interaction. A cultural change may not happen only through implementation of material.

Reducing Dropouts: Inside the U.S. Education System and Recent Educational Reforms, focusing on the case of Florida

Kazutaka Hara, Graduate Student, Naruto University of Education
Kazuyuki Tamura, Lecturer, Naruto University of Education

School truancy is not a newly arising problem but a continuous matter in Japan. The truancy rate nearly tripled (from ~1% to ~3%) for junior high students in the 90's and then leveled off since then. At the elementary school level, it gradually increased up to ~0.4% by the end of 90's, and keeps the same level today. Statistics for high school truancy started in the past decade, and show a consistent 1.5—2% level.

While it is not exactly same as Japanese “truancy”, absence without permission, extended absence, and dropouts (as not graduating from high school) are also important educational issue in the United States (U.S.). In many school districts and states, statistics of dropout rate are collected; yet, the definition of dropout and exactly how they collect data depends on each school district/region. We, therefore, focused on the state of Florida in this research, where the dropout is defined as “students 16 or over who quits school for any of several reasons cited in law.” Back in the early 90's, Florida's dropout rates are somewhere around 5-6%, but after the state's own education reforms in 1994, dropout rate decreased to ~3%. And with the introduction of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act in 2002, and its results start showing up around 2006, the dropout rate decreased even further down to below 2% by 2010.

In this research, we study what kind of educational reforms have been planed and implemented in Florida and the U.S., as well as what is the basis of their education system. Our aim is to understand whether the U.S. education system and the educational reforms can be a useful example to the Japanese education system.

In Japan, our education system is limited only to the compulsory education system determined by the Japanese government. It is the only kind of schooling and every child is forced to attend either public or private schools (1st through 9th grade). If a school you attend does not suit for any reason, often your educational opportunity has no choice but to refuse to attend school, and therefore results in school truancy. Other than so-called “school”, there are many other types of educational institution and system in Japan. Some examples are private/tutoring schools (where children usually attend during after regular school periods are over), Kumon (after-school math and reading program), schools operated by Non-Profit Organizations, and personal tutors. Yet, these educational systems are not recognized as a proper compulsory education at all in Japan.

In the U.S., education system for children is usually grouped as “K-12” (kindergarten through 12th grade). And after kindergarten, schooling is separated not only to 6-3-3 year system as in Japan, but varies (e.g., 8-4, 5-3-4, or 6-2-4 years) based on school districts. During these K-12 years, there are few big differences between the U.S. and Japanese education systems. First is that while compulsory education is fixed from 1st to 9th grade in Japan, it depends on a school district in the U.S. Second is that methods of providing education are not limited to conventional schools, but there are other methods (e.g., home education, alternative school, and charter school) available.

On the other hand, educational reforms through NCLB Act require schools to report Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) to the U.S. Dept. of Education. To achieve a certain level of academic knowledge for every student, schools have started educational support through various programs and sometimes by modifying curriculums. As a result of these efforts, dropout rates in the U.S. decreased dramatically.

At this conference, we present examples of these educational reforms and alternative school methods, and our thoughts about whether these examples can be useful in Japanese education system to reduce the truancy.

Designing Teacher Education for In-Service JSL Teachers

HAMADA Mari, Professor, Kyoto University of Education

SAITO Hiromi, Professor, Tokyo Gakugei University

KANEDA Tomoko, Professor, Gakushuin University

This poster presents two case studies of in-service Teaching Japanese as a Second Language (TJSL) teacher development program, which were designed under the collaboration between the teachers and the researchers, and discusses what features the in-service TJSL teacher development program should be equipped with.

The number of Japanese learners who speak languages other than Japanese has been increasing in Japan for these two decades. The study reports two cases of professional development for in-service teachers who teach Japanese learners.

There are few opportunities to learn TJSL in the teacher's college in Japan, because TJSL has not yet established as a qualification for schoolteachers in Japanese teacher education system.

As a result, teachers start to learn TJSL, only when they happen to meet Japanese learners in the classroom and feel it necessary to learn TJSL. Thus, in-service teacher education plays an important role in TJSL.

Through the preceding collaborative research with the researcher from an American university, it was found out that second language teachers' development system in Japan was quite different from that of the United States. There are three types of teacher development in Japan, besides teaching certificate renewal course, which was started five years ago.

- (i) Participating training course organized by the supervisors of the board of education: Teachers are not always very enthusiastic with it because in most cases the participation is compulsory for some teachers.
- (ii) Participating workshops or lectures organized by the school: It is common for Japanese schools to have an in-house workshop regularly. They sometimes invite a researcher as an advisor. The effect of these workshops and lectures is also limited and does not last long. The contribution of the researchers is also limited because they often do not have sufficient understanding of the school.
- (iii) Incidental mutual learning among teachers: practical because it is responsive to the educational needs and contextualized in the settings of the school, but not structured. Sometimes ends up with duplication of undesirable beliefs and negative attitude towards the problems.

The study reports two cases of teacher development program designed under the collaboration between the teachers and the researchers. The first case is in-house workshop of an elementary school the researchers have visited many times. They have clear understanding of the problem the school faces.

The second one is the training course on development of JSL curriculum organized by the board of education of a local city in Japan. The case analysis workshop was introduced as a part of the training. In both cases, retrospective reports by the participants are analyzed qualitatively.

It is revealed that it is essential to provide them with an opportunity to exchange their learning experience, because it helps the teachers to relativize their preceding teaching experience and find relevance of newly attained TJSL knowledge to it.

Issues and Challenges in Elementary School English Education in Japan

Gerard Marchesseau, Associate Professor, Naruto University of Education

Over the past decade, elementary school English language education has become very firmly rooted within the educational cultures of Korea, China and other Asian countries. Japan, meanwhile, has sat on the sidelines watching things unfold, while cautiously testing the waters by introducing English language education in a limited capacity in specially selected schools or locales. Then, in the academic year starting in April of 2011, Japan unveiled a brand new curriculum of English language in elementary schools: Grades five and six students across the country now study “Foreign Language Activities” with their regular homeroom teachers.

A couple of conspicuous points might strike the reader at this point. Firstly, the new course has been vaguely called “Foreign Language Activities” rather than “English Language Activities”, or simply, “English”. Secondly, many might doubt the ability of homeroom elementary school teachers to teach English (assuming that is the “foreign language” to be taught) given that they have never been trained as English teachers. Thirdly, one lesson per week for two years adds up to approximately 70 forty-five minute classes spread out over two years after vacations and other scheduling issues are factored in. That would seem to leave little time for serious skill building. Those who are a little more familiar with the course might be left scratching their heads after seeing some of the material or textbooks prepared by the board of education.

The reality is that English language education has been hotly debated for years in Japan and is being introduced in a complicated political climate in the midst of budget and other restraints. By 2011, most schools had been teaching English unofficially to drastically varying degrees such that students were entering high school with very disparate backgrounds in English. “Foreign Language Education”, albeit a seemingly ‘soft’ approach to English language education, is an attempt to put students on equal footing. Various issues remain, of course, but the new curriculum is anything but ad hoc, as some observers might think. It is grounded in theory in as much as it is the product of compromise. It leans towards communicative functions of language in as much as it shuns skill-based learning. It is one of the most studied areas by researchers in education at the moment, in as much as many actual teachers still wish it would just go away!

In this presentation I will outline the background of “Foreign Language Activities” in elementary schools. I’ll describe the program, introducing the goals listed in the “Course of Study” as well as classroom material. Finally, I’ll outline a number of the issues relating to the course within the broader educational context in Japan.

Developing Reading Stamina through Extensive Reading in EFL

Akio Yamamoto, School Teacher, Gakushuin Boys' Senior High School

Stamina is the infrastructure of human activities. However powerful and skillful you are, you cannot win sports games without stamina. It is also possible to say that something in academic activities cannot be done without stamina. However much knowledge and good skills, you cannot achieve the goal of academic activities without stamina of intelligence. We can call such stamina "Intelligence Stamina." Lego is a good example of knowing the importance of "Intelligence Stamina." You may enjoy Lego if the task of making a figure is simple and easy like making a building of three stories with three blocks of Lego. It is, however, quite difficult to make a building of 100 stories with numerous blocks of Lego. You will need stamina as well as skills, planning, and balancing. You will find stamina important in reading, especially in English as a foreign language (EFL), too. It is easy to read a sentence or a paragraph if you know almost all the words and the structures of the sentences, however, you will need stamina of reading when you are to keep reading tens of pages for half an hour or more. This presentation will introduce the concept of "Reading Stamina" in an EFL context and an effective way of developing "Reading Stamina" through an extensive reading class.

"Reading Stamina" is a skill that enables the learners to read a story written in the target language smoothly for a long period of time. If you have less "Reading Stamina," it will be difficult for you to keep reading for a long time. "Reading Stamina" is considered to be developed by reading the target language extensively.

Extensive reading had been thought as one of self-study activities. However, it is not so easy for most Japanese learners of English to keep reading the target language extensively by themselves. First, they are not accustomed to reading long English texts for fun. They usually read a short passage together at the same time at a slow speed in class. Second, they tend to make the wrong choice of books, the level of which is inappropriate for their reading abilities when they can choose books from graded readers and leveled readers. In most cases, they choose ones at more difficult levels than are really appropriate. They believe that reading easy English does not make sense. Most of the Japanese learners of English have had little chance to choose English books by themselves. The book selection is a key to the success of extensive reading. The best choice of book level takes the learners to the state of "flow," which will make the readers get involved in reading the book and provide them with a happy reading experience.

An extensive reading class will help the learners keep reading regularly. In this presentation an effective design of extensive reading class will be introduced, including training sessions of book selection for matching the learners' reading abilities, book reports for sharing favorite books that will assist them to read more books, and reading retrospection in order to build up meta-cognition for reading.

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Towards the Development of Global Pedagogy: An Investigation of Japanese Children's Violin Learning in Community

Taichi Akutsu, Researcher, Seisa University and Graduate Student at Doctoral Course, United Graduate School of Education, Tokyo Gakugei University
Richard K. Gordon, Professor, California State University, Dominguez Hills College
Keiko Noguchi, Associate Professor, Seisa University

An inquiry into music learning starts with why music learning is meaningful for our students, teachers and our society. This pilot study focuses on the videotape of Japanese children's violin learning in community as a source of discussion to explore the qualitative foundation of music learning and teaching from global perspectives.

In the April of 2012, a violinist/ researcher offered a onetime violin session at the afterschool program in a public elementary school in a suburb of Tokyo. During children's free playtime, the violinist begun playing the violin without any notification, and 15 children ages from 6 to 9 who had never seen a real violin interact with the music and explore the violin for one hour. By adapting the methodology of Tobin, Hsueh & Karasawa's "video-cued multivocal ethnography" (2009) we videotaped the session, edited the tape, and collected a series of voices talking about the videos. In addition, this study developed the video-based survey to gather quantitative data from the interviewees (N=23) including Japanese music education major graduate students ($n=5$), non-music major college students ($n=18$), and the voices of three professors of Japan and the U.S.

Although there were limited samples due to time constrains, results demonstrated a high degree of consensus. First, the most participants, 22 of (95%) 23, agreed that the session was playful (95%); unlike typical violin classes (61%); and was more like a free-play session (88%); however, 21(91%) of 23 answered that the children were highly focused on the violin learning; paying attention to teacher's performance (78%); and sharing musical enjoyment (88%). In the interview, children's looks of fascination, their willingness to become engaged, their tiny steps of discovery, willingness to help others, and gradually becoming serious about learning became evident. At the same time, however, when interviewees were asked, "Would you imagine that if the violin session were done in public school's music classes?" some were concerned that it would be challenging to get everyone's participation for a longer-term, and others mentioned there would be a necessity to have more visible educational goals or curriculum if the session were done as a part of the school music classes.

Investigating the Japanese children's violin learning in a community from the global perspective enables us to explore the qualitative foundation of music learning and teaching. Longitudinal study with larger samples will follow based on the findings of this study.

**Teacher Quality in the US:
Stories of Policy, Reform and Responses**

**Dr. Donna Wiseman,
University of Maryland**

Introduction

I am happy to return to Japan--a place where my husband and I spent much time when he worked with American university branch campuses located in Koriyama and Akita Prefecture. During my time in Japan, I learned about the Japanese philosophy of *Mingei* (民芸), which is the hand-crafted art of ordinary people. The philosophy encourages us to discover beauty and craft in everyday ordinary and utilitarian objects. The philosophy of *Mingei* is a wonderful way to think about how to live ones life and a gift I gained by living in Japan.

Toys are considered ordinary and utilitarian objects in *Mingei* philosophy and while in Japan I became fascinated with the folklore associated with Japanese dolls [ningyō (人形). There are *Kokeshi* (こけし) dolls, *Gosho* dolls, *Hina* and *Kimekomi* dolls (木目込人形) and many of the dolls represent Japanese folk culture and certain locations in Japan. One doll, *Hoko-San*, is a character in a folk tale that originated on the island of Shikoku. Her story goes like this:

A long time ago, in Takamatsu, there lived a little girl named *Omaki*. Her family was very poor, so she was sent out to become a servant in the mansion of a local samurai. At the mansion she served the daughter of the house, but her little mistress was afflicted with an incurable disease. *Omaki*, cared for her little mistress day and night and the disease was transferred to her own body instead. *Omaki*, being kind and loyal did not want anyone else to catch the disease so she sailed to some far-off island in order to prevent the disease's contagion to others. She was never seen again.

Ever since then, whenever a village child in Shikoku comes down with an illness, a doll called *Hoko-San* (servant) is put into bed with the sick child for one night and then floated away on the ocean the following morning, as a rite to bring about the child's recovery from the illness. Now the doll that is named after her is one of the things to bring as a charm against sickness at the time of a marriage.

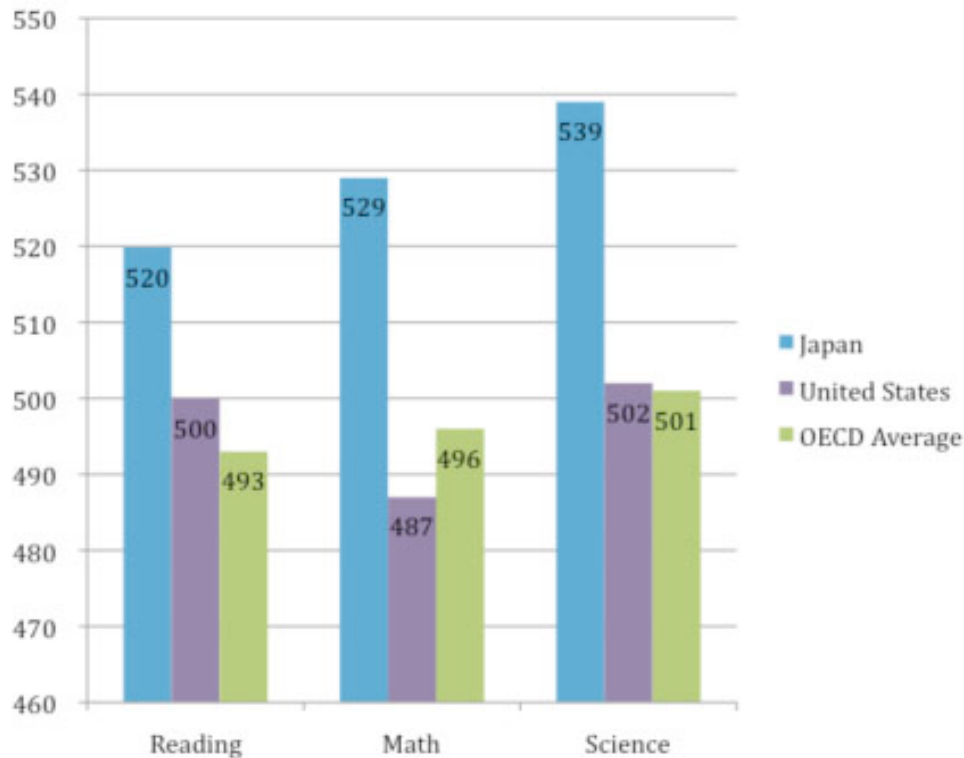
I insert this personal account so you will know how much I learned from the culture of Japan, how honored I am to speak to you today, and how much I look forward to learning from all of you in attendance at this conference.

We have gathered in beautiful Naruto to talk about the challenges of preparing quality teachers who will thrive in today's classrooms and help develop the next generation of responsible citizens who understand how to play a prime role locally and globally. Whether it is in Japan, the United States, or West Africa, there is an insistence that the performance and effectiveness of teachers must improve (OECD, 2009). Widespread evidence showing that teachers are critical to raising education standards and the impact of teacher quality on the student learning overshadows all other educational investments. The emphasis on teacher quality highlights the importance that those who prepare teachers and provide professional development do so in ways to ensure that all teachers are highly skilled and motivated to perform at their very best. For those of us who prepare teachers, there have never been such high expectations (Goldhaber, 2009; Gordon, Kane & Staiger, 2006; Darling-Hammond, 2010). How we respond to these expectations is important in my country and in yours. Today, in the hopes that you will learn from our experiences, I will share with you the story of the challenges that face teacher education in the U.S. and how we are responding to those challenges.

Demands on Teacher Preparation

In the United States, we are facing an impending crisis in education and the academic performance of our elementary and secondary students. There is evidence that U.S. students are not prepared well for future challenges. Data from the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) that surveys 15 year olds in principal industrialized countries indicates that high school students in the US are not competing at expected levels especially in mathematics and science. In a comparison of US and Japanese student data, the US lags far behind in reading, science and mathematics (Figure 1). In addition, within our own country, there are wide achievement gaps between diverse student groups, such as those between children from low income versus high income communities. For example, only 8% of students growing up in poverty will graduate from college by age 24 versus 80% of students in more affluent areas. Increasingly, students are unable to enter the workforce with the appropriate skills and abilities needed for today's jobs, let alone the jobs of the future. These issues and others have resulted in an urgent examination of our current system of education and how we, as a country, prepare future teachers.

Figure 1: PISA 2009 Mean Scores by Country for Reading, Mathematics, and Science
(Source: OECD)



The trust of the public in our education system is also being diminished. Nowhere else was this so well documented as when the public embraced the film *"Waiting for Superman: How We Can Save America's Public Schools"* (2010). The movie was characterized by poignant examples of worthy students struggling to find good schools and experience excellent teaching, captured the country's attention. Its less than positive characterization of public school classrooms and teachers and its promotion of innovative charter schools and teachers prepared in non-traditional, non-university programs served as a dramatic wake-up call for American schools and focused public discourse on the quality and training of teachers. The movie captured the negative tenor of public conversations and debates around education and the quality and preparation of teachers.

The focus of public policy makers and politicians, philanthropists, the media and "think tanks" across the political spectrum has continued to assert that the quality of teachers must improve. Their insistence is reinforced by research evidence that high quality teachers are critical to raising educational standards and improving the learning of all students. Indeed, many contend that the efficiency and equity of schooling now depends on having highly effective teachers in the classrooms making teacher preparation a target of attention in the discussions. Many feel that our country's problems related to education are directly connected to teacher preparation and the professional development of experienced

teachers. Unfortunately, one of the greatest challenge we as teacher educators face is that we lack a compelling road-map to follow in response to criticism.

Almost everyone agrees that high quality teachers will improve the educational experiences of learners in elementary and high school classrooms. There is less agreement about the nature of the programs that prepare them and how to measure the results of a well-trained, highly qualified teacher. Questions about high quality teacher education programs abound. Are longer programs better than shorter programs? Are programs based in schools, relying on classroom teachers, better than campus centered preparation programs, relying on university faculty? Are programs focused on subject matter knowledge better than those built on a foundation of socio-cultural theory and appropriate pedagogy? Which modes of instruction should be taught? What models of classroom management should be evident? What backgrounds and experiences should future teachers bring to their experience? Do we train or do we educate future teachers? Can we shape the personal dispositions that candidates carry-away from programs?

There are many questions that we cannot answer with the assurance of research support. As a recent study, completed by the prestigious National Research Council concluded, there is little evidence that supports any one way of preparing teachers (National Research Council, 2010). And it is not just colleges and universities who are striving to solve the problems in our current models of teacher preparation and reform our profession. In fact, philanthropists, entrepreneurs and business leaders, conservative politicians, liberal media interests, the Obama administration, and reform groups like Teach for America, the New Teachers Project, Chiefs for Change and Education Trust, are each trying to drive the agenda for teacher education reform in the US.

For these reasons, the nature of teacher preparation and the quality of teachers is the basis for an intense debate in the US. As with every debate, there are two contending forces. On the one side are those labeled “traditionalists”, those who support conventional rigorous university-based teacher preparation and robust clinical experiences for future educators. On the other side are so-called “reformers,” those who emphasize performance over credentials and show skepticism about conventional licensure and preparation.

Each side is determined to recast teacher education in their own image using “their” tools to measure the efficacy of programs and to highlight the success of graduates. And even though the two camps differ significantly on methods, their emergence in the public discourse on education has certainly prompted a renewed commitment to elevating the quality of teacher education programs in an effort to

increase the academic performance of our students. The debate is far-reaching, affecting everything from education policy at the national and state levels, standards development within accreditation bodies, the rise of non-academic non-profit organizations, and program design and delivery at universities. Before I describe some of these developments, it is important to provide a brief comparison of the traditionalist and reformist views within the context of the US education system.

Traditionalists v. Reformers

For the moment, the reformers have coalesced around an agenda that places much more authority in the hands of the state, ensures greater conformity across teacher preparation, and insists on assessing the effectiveness of program graduates in their practice and attributing those successes to their preparation program. Their agenda for action includes standards setting, alignment and accountability, data-driven decision making, performance assessment of teachers, value added or “achievement gain” assessments of students, clinically based preparation, the use of modern technologies, and competition between and among “providers of beginning teachers.” Reformers insist on defining effectiveness in terms having to do with raising student achievement scores as measured by various standardized assessments of student performance. Student retention and student engagement and school and college readiness are important, they argue, but student performance on school system administered tests is primary.

Traditionalists, on the other hand, believe that all learners must acquire the skills and knowledge to succeed in a competitive and fast-changing global society and that teacher education must be “extended” to accommodate such demands. Traditionalists insist on models that require additional resources to prepare teachers to be more effective in teaching diverse learners in a highly technical and media rich society with new, highly sophisticated strategies (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1999). They point to new forms of preparation and greater mastery of content and more lengthy and labor intensive models that rely on clinical preparation, internships, induction programs, and teacher residency models. They envision five and six and even seven year preparation and induction programs that would reshape the relationships between university preparation programs and school-based professional development and create “seamless transitions” between preparation and practice. Unlike reformers who are supportive of non-conventional teacher preparation programs, the traditionalists insist that short term or abbreviated teacher preparation programs fail to produce quality teachers and that only through extended and clinically based preparation programs can they be prepared.

A continued theme in the debates is how to identify and measure high quality teachers and how to hold teacher education programs accountable for their preparation. Race to the Top, as well as other state and federal policies insist that the profession find ways to measure teacher education programs by

linking a teacher's performance with elementary and secondary student learning. One measure, the value-added method of measuring teacher effectiveness has become another area of disagreement between traditionalists and reformers.

Value-added models use complex mathematics to predict how well a student can be expected to perform on an end-of year- test based on several characteristics, such as student's attendance and past performance on tests. Teacher with students who take standardized math and English tests are held accountable for students' performance on the tests. If a teacher's students, on average, fall short of their predicted test-scores, the teacher is generally labeled ineffective, whereas if they as well or better than anticipated, the teacher is deemed effective or highly effective.

A number of states and districts across the country already tie student performance on standardized tests to teacher evaluations; others have plans to do so. Many reformers, including those in the Obama administration, commend the practice. But, skeptics, including teachers unions, researchers and other traditionalists, say that value-added models have reliability problems and don't take into account multiple factors that affect classroom performance. The methods of linking teacher performance and student achievement continues to be a major part of the US debate regarding teacher quality and one that will require a great deal of effort and resources of teacher educators and scholars.

Impact on Education Policy

So how has this rhetoric between the traditionalists and the reformers actually impacted current education policy? The questioning of the value of university-based teacher education programs can be seen in US federal policy. The *No Child Left Behind Act* (NCLB) of 2001 and its efforts to define a highly qualified teacher elevated the discourse on teacher education accountability (Crowe, 2010). NCLB attempted to define highly qualified teachers by focusing on the subject matter preparation of current and future teachers. In making the point of the importance of subject matter preparation and building a case against teacher preparation, a leading philanthropic figure (Bill Gates) asserted that teacher certification did not ensure teacher quality.

More recently, the Obama administration brought forward the Race to the Top Initiative (RTTT) as its answer to educational change and reform. Although focused primarily on elementary and secondary education, RTTT identified the improvement of teacher quality as one of the most pressing issues of educational reform. RTTT continued NCLB's emphasis on subject matter but the teacher education components of RTTT required that students' achievement be linked to their teacher's preparation

programs and suggested that performance in the classroom after their formal teacher education program was the only thing that mattered.

Each of these federal initiatives supported policies related to stronger content and quicker methods of preparation and gave rise to alternative routes to certification and fast track teacher preparation in higher education as well as those located in private and non-profit settings. A popular example of such a program is Teach for America (TFA), which enlists high-achieving recent college graduates to teach two or more years in low-income communities. Praised by Reformers as innovative and effective, Teach for America recruits are prepared in a two month, summer intensive program and placed primarily in urban and rural schools throughout the United States. Teach for America teachers are often in competition for job placements with traditionally trained teachers even though TFA teachers often leave the profession at the end of their two year commitment. Federal and state policies and funding processes often favor Teach for America and many private foundations and corporations have contributed money to the program to make it hugely successful. The Teach for America program has an effective marketing program and successfully recruits students on university campuses and even recruits students away from traditional teacher education programs.

Teach for America is a concrete example of how the Reformer agenda has potential spill-over for nations outside of the US. In April of 2012, Teach for America welcomed its newest partner, Teach for Japan, to its growing global network of independent organizations. Teach for Japan will follow a similar model, recruiting and training high-achievers without traditional preparation as an educator. How will this new “breed” of teacher affect the education system in Japan? What will the response be? Is this model sustainable - or even superior to traditional educator preparation programs? Our Japanese colleagues in this room may very well be faced with wrestling with the same questions that we are.

The ideological differences between Reformers and Traditionalists are perhaps best illustrated by the recent effort of the Obama administration to establish new federal rules for the conduct of teacher education programs. The US Department of Education assembled a panel of 17 representatives drawn from both the Traditionalists and the Reformers in Spring 2012 and asked them to identify high quality teacher preparation and to propose new criteria for identifying high quality and low performing teacher preparation.

Six months of efforts by the panel produced more frustration than results. The traditionalists and the reformers divided as expected on issues having to do with the validity and reliability of measures used to assess beginning teacher performance in classrooms. After much contentious debates, the panel ended

without making any decisions and left the end results in the hands of the federal government raising concerns in a our political system known for “local control” and decentralized decision- making for teacher education. Shaping a federal agenda for teacher education in the US has become a priority for the Obama administration.

Proposed Solutions: Responses from Teacher Preparation

In the midst of the political rhetoric, public demands, and continuous debates the teacher education profession has made a series of moves intended to strengthen university-based teacher education programs and respond to the demand for higher quality preparation programs. I’d like to highlight three such initiatives. The initiatives have to do with outlining conditions for robust clinical practice, standards setting for the teaching profession, and establishing an assessment system that documents the growth of future teachers during their preparation programs.

First, there has been a renewed focus on clinical practice. Nearly two and a half years ago, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) commissioned a Blue Ribbon Panel (BRP) on Clinical Preparation and Partnerships for Improved Student Learning. The purpose of the commission, on which I served, was to provide NCATE and the field with guidance on what changes to make in educator preparation. Ultimately, the goal of the BRP was to establish a framework that would be a key factor in redesigning educator preparation. The NCATE leadership was guided by the belief that there was a gap between how teachers are prepared and what schools need and that the way to reform teacher education was to establish strong clinically based programs.

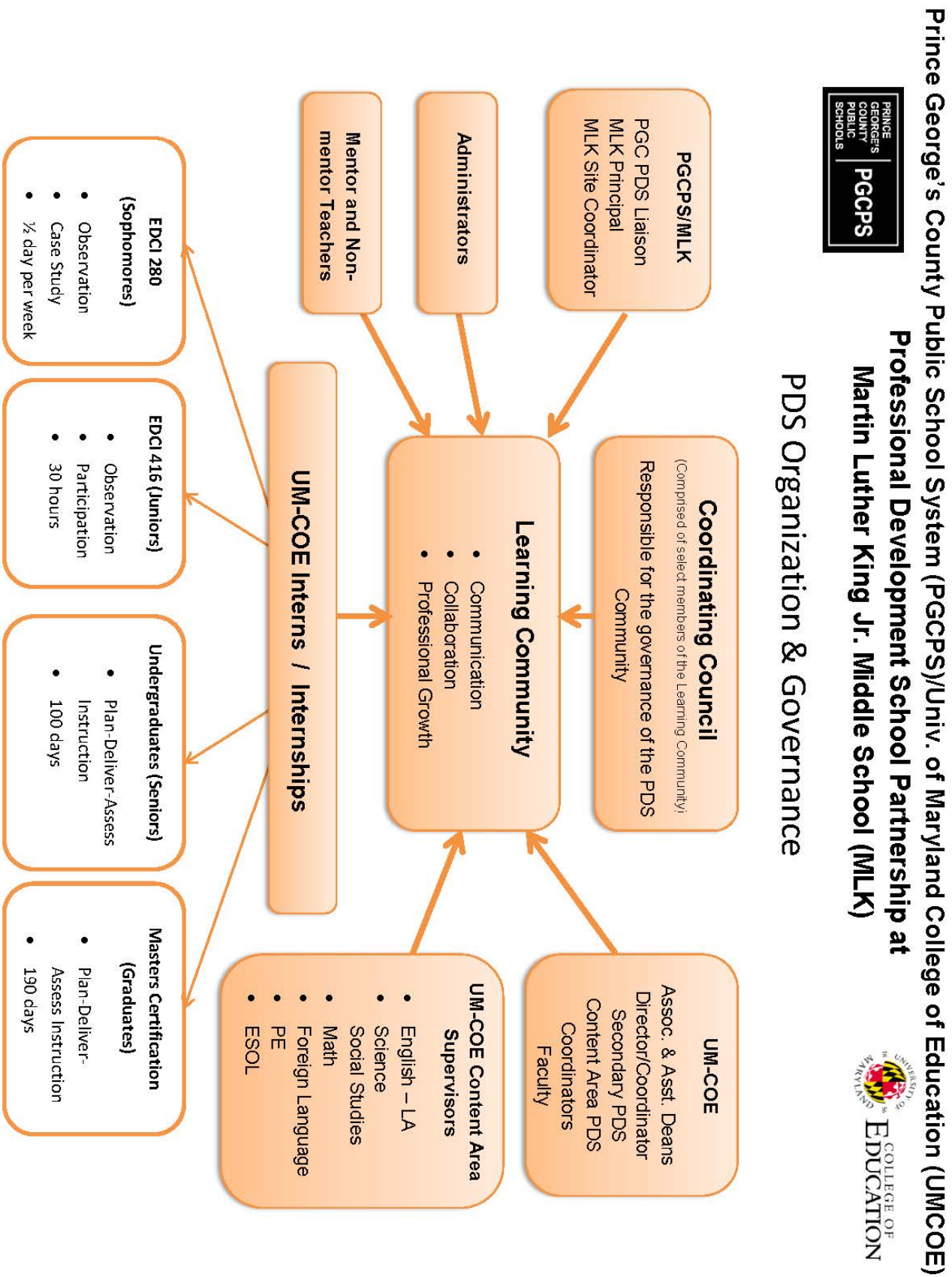
The resulting report (NCATE, 2010) presented examples of excellent clinically-based programs but posited that individual attempts were not enough and that the profession needed an entirely new system of teacher preparation to improve teacher quality. The basic assumption of the BRP was that teacher education programs must work in close partnership with schools and place practice at the center of preparation experiences. The report issued a call to action (Figure 2) and provided several design principles that if implemented would turn “...the education of teachers ‘upside-down’” (p.2).

Figure 2: Recommendations from NCATE Blue Ribbon Panel

<p>FOCUS ON ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY STUDENT LEARNING IN TEACHER PREPARATION</p> <p>Student learning is the focal point for design and implementation of clinically based teacher preparation.</p>	<p>INTEGRATE CLINICAL PREPARATION THROUGHOUT EVERY FACET OF TEACHER EDUCATION</p> <p>Content and pedagogy are integrated with clinical experiences throughout preparation, through coursework, laboratory-based experiences and school-embedded practice.</p>
<p>REVAMP CURRICULUM INCENTIVES AND CLINICAL STAFFING</p> <p>Higher education should develop roles for clinical faculty who have dual assignments as teachers and mentors in schools. Schools should develop new staffing models that would allow veteran teachers to work with prospective teaches.</p>	<p>EXPAND THE KNOWLEDGE BASE</p> <p>Currently there is not a large research base on what makes clinical preparation. New resources must be invested that support new models and determine which are most effective.</p>

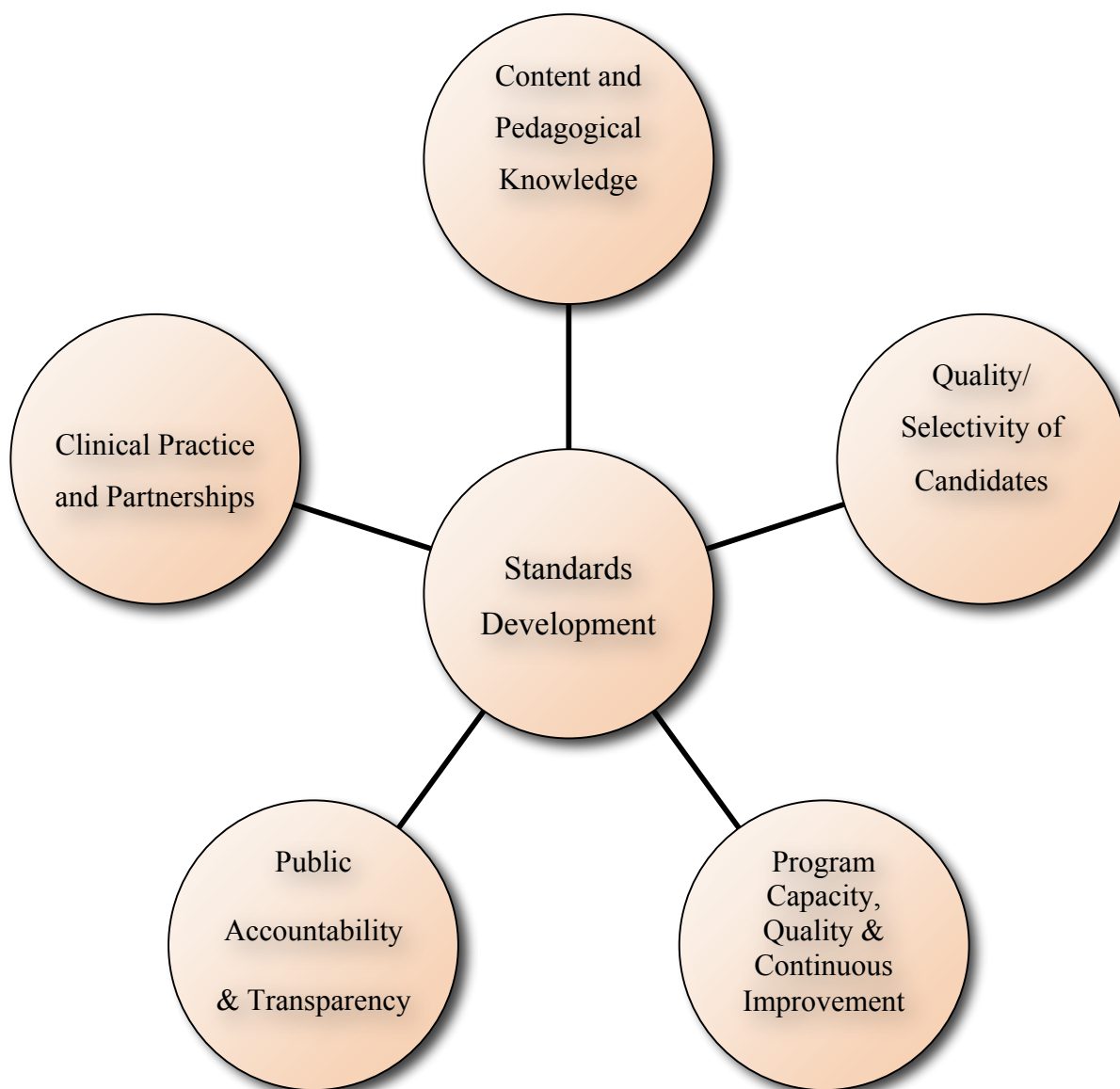
In my home state of Maryland, all future teachers are prepared in Professional Development Schools which are clinical sites that have formal agreements to prepare teachers, design professional development for experienced teachers, improve curriculum in teacher education programs, and develop collaborative research projects that improve teacher preparation and classroom instruction. The graphic in Figure 3 illustrates the complexity of one of our most effective school-university partnerships. The goal of the partnerships is to form a learning community that focuses on communication, collaboration, and professional growth. As you can see, various oversight committees comprised of school and university faculty oversee the activities. University supervisors from all content areas and teachers in the schools are involved guiding university students at all levels of preparation as they observe, participate in day-to-day school activities, plan and deliver lessons, and assess student learning. During their training our students are a part of the school, attend staff and department meetings, and participate in the same professional development offered to teachers at their host school.

Figure 3: University/Community School Partnership



A second initiative taken on by the profession has to do with accreditation and establishing rigorous standards for teacher preparation programs. In 2011, the joining of the two specialized professional accreditation agencies for educator preparation was finalized in 2011, bringing together the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education and the Teacher Education Accreditation Council to form the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP). The merger provides an extraordinary opportunity for the profession to define a common set of specific characteristics of high performing and high quality educator preparation programs. The intent of the new body is to create standards to be used in a unified manner with evidence-based examples of how programs are performing. A Commission of leading educators in the US is currently at work to develop a set of prescriptive standards grounded in research that will guide both traditional and alternative route programs. The Commission is focused on standards development in five areas (Figure 4).

Figure 4: CAEP Standards Development



As a member of this commission, I have been assigned to small group to consider standards related to quality/selectivity of candidates. My small group recently spent two days discussing how we would develop standards that result in recruiting, preparing, and retaining more qualified students into our preparation programs. Our discussions centered around qualifications that novice teachers should possess before being admitted to preparation programs and skills and abilities that should be developed while in the program. We also discussed the importance of collecting data so the profession would be capable of describing the impact of high quality teacher preparation. There were three areas that that my subcommittee spent considerable time discussing: 1) how can standards be written for the variety and diversity of schools in our country, 2) how do standards acknowledge that we may be preparing teachers for technology enriched and media supported environments that may require very different skills than current teachers need, and 3) what basic experiences and dispositions are required of all future teachers.

It is anticipated that these new standards and the processes used to examine preparation programs will provide a basis for raising the caliber of programs and securing greater recognition and support for all educator preparation. More prescriptive standards, emphasizing specific features of knowledge acquisition, and learning to teach and practice in clinical settings will “raise the bar” and challenge providers of teacher education.

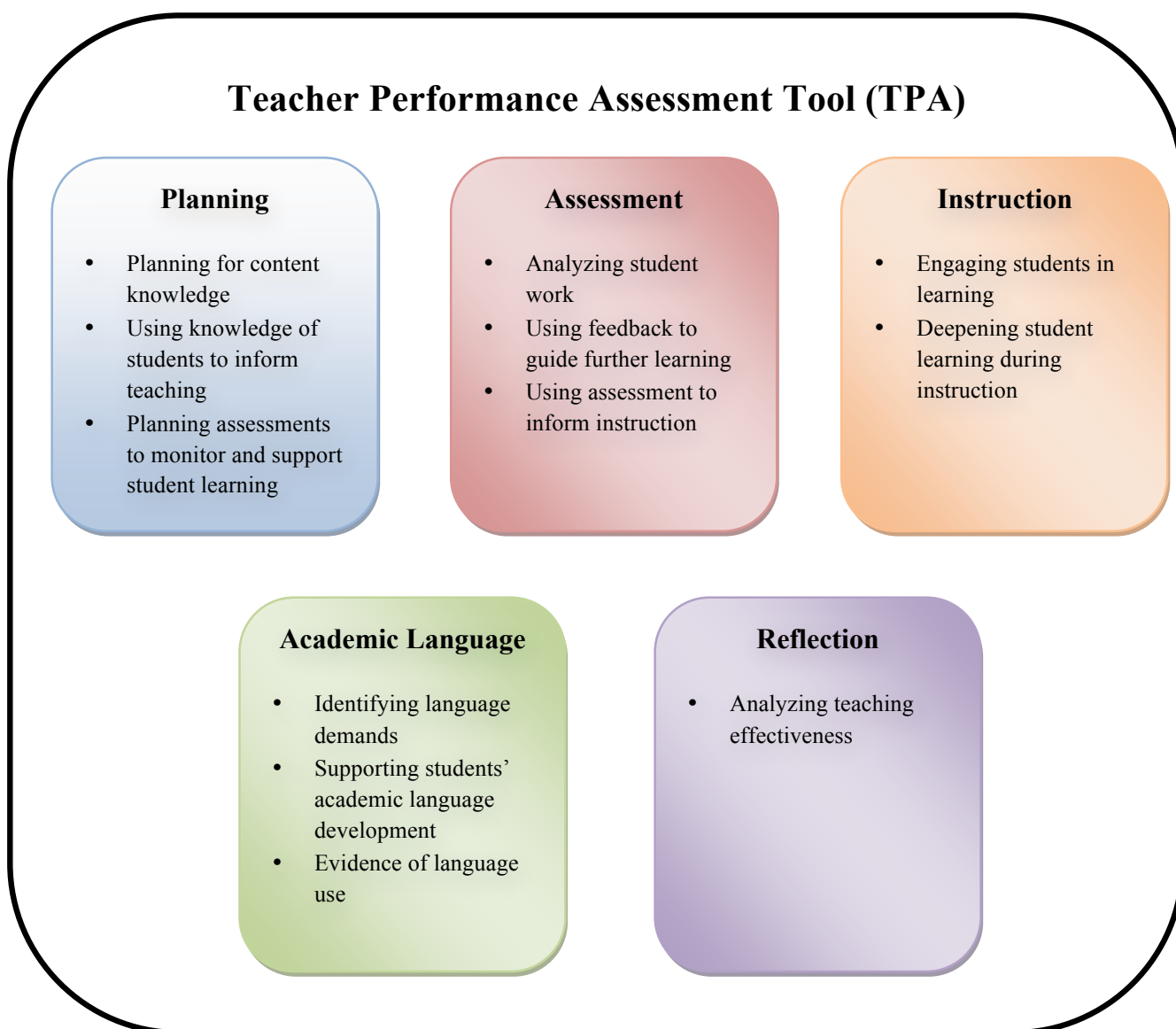
And finally, in response to our critics, the profession is working to develop and implement a way of assessing future teachers that provides evidence of preparation effectiveness, supports program improvement, and informs policy makers about qualities of teaching associated with student learning. U.S. teacher education has relied on various forms of candidate assessment - from standardized admission tests and course-embedded assessments to observations of candidates in classroom settings “doing” student teaching and “technical assessments” of candidates regarding their dispositions and readiness to teach. Student portfolios have emerged in recent years to enable teacher candidates to document their accomplishments and to provide instructors with ways to assess their progress. Exit examinations are used in most states in the US to determine suitability for state licensure. The inadequacy of these measures and their inability to predict later effectiveness in classrooms has led the profession to seek new strategies for evaluating teacher competence.

The American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education (AACTE) and Stanford University formed a partnership to develop the Teacher Performance Assessment (TPA), a 25-state initiative involving more than 140 teacher preparation programs (Figure 5). TPA is an assessment tool that gathers and uses evidence of teaching performance to improve teaching and teacher preparation. These

performance assessments require future teachers to document their plans and teaching for a unit of instruction, videotape and analyze their teaching and collect and evaluate evidence of student learning. All these pieces are assembled and evaluated by highly trained raters who score the materials in a consistent manner against specific criteria that reflect standards of effective practice. These assessments have been found to measure novice teachers' performance and can be used to help them improve their practice.

We are implementing TPA in our own university and have found that it dramatically changes the way our students respond to assignments. It guides their reflection and learning in ways that connect directly to the classroom. The TPA targets the following competences of future teachers in our program.

Figure 5: AACTE and Stanford University Teacher Performance Assessment



Case studies of students, analysis of student learning, and curriculum/teaching analysis are signature TPA assessments. An example of a curriculum/teaching analysis illustrates the difference the assessment process makes in future teachers reflections in classrooms. As you can see from the very short example in Figure 6, future teachers think through their actions and anticipate their students' reactions much more when involved in a curriculum teaching analysis activity guided by the TPA. [You will be learning more about the TPA in a later presentation.

Figure 6: Lesson Comparison

Before TPA Adoption: One Section Describing

Directed Reading Activity: Grade 1

Teacher will gather students onto the circle time rug, and present students with the book “Muncha, Muncha, Muncha” by Candance Fleming. The teacher will explain to students that first students are going to brainstorm what the story will be about. The teacher will show students the cover of the book, and select pages at random to show the students. The teacher will encourage students to study each page, and start thinking about what’s happening on each page.

Example of Assignment After adoption of TPA

Directed Reading Activity: Grade 1

Hello boys and girls! Today we will read “We’re Going on a Lion Hunt” by David Axtell. We are going to practice letter combinations of sw-, sq-, sp-, and –sh. We are going to learn a way to decode words that contain these sound combinations. When we have a better understanding of what sounds each letter combination produces, we will be able to identify words on our own. Before we begin reading the story, we will do a very quick speed writing activity in our reading journals. I will list on the board the 4 letter combinations I want you to focus on. With these letter combinations, I want you to write down any word that contains one of the letter combinations that comes to mind. You can write as many words as you want for each sound combination for 2 minutes. Afterwards we will go around and share the words that we came up with on the board.

Note: I will be reading this book for them because it will be their first time reading it and will be helpful for Gisoo, who has a bit of difficulty reading at times alone. The group reciting of words will engage students, especially Kobi

- Evidence of:
- Planning
 - Instruction
 - Assessment
 - Academic Language
 - Reflection

In spite of the fact that these assessment systems are extremely complex, will require faculty development, student training, and the allocation of greater resources to teacher education, the Teacher Performance Assessments have the potential to document the value of teacher preparation programs, predict future success of our students, and help us understand more about “what works” in teacher preparation programs. While these efforts will not solve the perception problems that the teaching profession faces in the United States, each are critically important to improving academic outcomes of our nation’s children. As a Dean of a college of education, I am optimistic that even these three initiatives will foster an improvement in the way we prepare future educators.

At the same time, we cannot overestimate the challenges that teaching and the teacher education profession are facing in the United States. Currently, the profession is divided by two very different views of teaching. The traditionalists are trying to build a profession while the reformers want highly competent and accountable public sector workers. The efforts of the reformers are succeeding at all levels of policy and government--the traditionalists seem to be reacting more than leading the conversation. Even during our current presidential campaign both candidates take more of a reformist perspective when talking about teaching and teacher education. Whether one adopts a Traditionalist or Reformer paradigm of how the education system should work, there is wholesale agreement that change is necessary. In order to develop agreement on what changes should happen, the two groups must come together in some way and build trust that is built on the common goal of educating our children. Unfortunately, the two groups are a long way from working together so for the foreseeable future, the divisive context surrounding teaching and teacher education will remain at the forefront of education policy and reform. The impact of this potential split cannot be underestimated.

Conclusion

The story of our quest to define quality teaching and teacher preparation in the US is complex, sometimes confusing and often contentious, but our greatest hope comes from our day-to-day efforts and the students in our programs. While the conversations outside colleges and schools of education may have a negative bent, it is different within the hallways and classrooms of higher education. There the caliber, commitment, and energy of students enrolling in undergraduate and graduate classes is remarkable. Cohort after cohort is alive with expectations and a readiness to commit to the challenges of educating our nation’s youth. Are they idealists? Yes, of course and we need them to bring their positive energy to the teaching profession. They are eager to learn the means to best teach all students and the most effective ways to collaborate and partner with colleagues in schools to ensure that all students benefit from their schooling. While education deans (and leaders of the enterprise) worry if there is a future for university

based teacher education, the next generation of teachers eagerly participates in the university program of studies, volunteering to tutor high risk students, observing skilled teachers practice, and undertaking student teaching.

There is no doubt that the challenges related to preparing teachers for the future are great. No matter the location, it is an era of increased accountability for the teaching profession, the ascendancy of a new reform community influencing policy debate and discussion, a growing centrality of standards setting for elementary, secondary, and higher education (and particularly teacher education), competition from alternative providers, and confidence in data gathering and the ability to attribute student learning to teacher performance. Colleges and universities are definitely challenged to respond to the criticism. Here I have told the story of how the American teacher education community is responding with a series of bold interventions. However, we still have a great deal of work ahead of us with continued challenges for teaching and teacher education.

Why is it important for the US to share our challenges and accomplishments at an international conference and why should you be concerned about efforts in the US? Of course, the simplest answer is that we learn from one another and we gain understanding about important issues when we share experiences and solutions. In today's world, brought closer together by the ease of travel and communication, what happens in one of our countries will most likely come about in another country making it even more important for us to work together to answer some of our common questions and consider our connected themes. How much more powerful we could be if we answered important questions related to teaching, learning and teacher preparation together? The very nature of the JUSTEC experience provides opportunities for colleges and schools of education to examine their study and practice and encourages the establishment of networks and joint study projects between Japanese and US scholars, educators, and practitioners.

Preparing teachers who are capable of responding effectively in today's complex educational climate is an international imperative. The demands on teaching are constantly changing and teacher education throughout the world will be continually called upon to rethink curriculum and programs that stay relevant and meet current demands. Those of us in the profession can expect that there will be significant debates about what experiences produce quality teachers. There will be constant policy-driven decisions made from within and outside the profession. The public and political rhetoric will continue and it is safe to say that during the coming years teacher educators throughout the world must be prepared to participate in the debates in an informed and reasoned manner. It will be up to us to contribute scholarly solutions to the policy questions and issues. We can find those scholarly solutions so much better by working together.

**Teacher Training to Guarantee Positive Quality:
A Model Curriculum and Qualified Criteria**

Naruto University of Education

Dr. Katsuyuki Sato

Introduction

After World War II, the Japanese teacher training system was largely changed. In 1949, the normal schools were upgraded to national universities or colleges. Meanwhile, private universities and colleges which were certified by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports and Technology (MEXT) began teacher training.

In the year 2000, the total employment rate for teachers upon graduating from University was 39%. This rate represents graduates who gained permanent employment and does not include substituted or part-time teachers. Breaking down this figure, the employment rate was 60% for elementary schools, 38% in junior high schools (lower secondary schools), 15 % in high schools (upper secondary) and 44 % in special needs schools.

From this situation, we think that national universities for teacher training cannot play their roles. Moreover, we hear reports that new graduating teachers lack practical abilities in the classroom. For example, they can't give good school lessons. In 2001, the central education council advised that national and private universities have to change the curriculum for teacher training. They added that the content of lectures may not be appropriate for teacher training. National universities in particular seem to be the target of this criticism.

There are two main problems with teacher training:

- 1) Insufficient consensus among the professors regarding the curriculum,
- 2) Conflict between academism content and practical teaching ability.

Practical teaching ability refers to skill and knowledge about the teaching profession. Academism refers to the studying academic content in students' respective fields. In English, for example, this might refer to studying American literature or Shakespeare. Academism is the depth of knowledge in a particular field. Students acquire the subject matter and are not taught how to present it as teachers. Moreover, with respect to teacher training, there is no axis that unifies curricula and

consciousness of professors (Yokosuka, 2006). Therefore, some problems remain. We have to work on these problems in order to improve Japanese teacher training in universities.

Let's look at science professors within teacher education colleges in Japan as an example. There are two groups of professors:

1. Those with a background in a specific discipline (physics, chemistry, biology and earth sciences) who were subsequently recruited to teach in a college of education
2. Those whose background is in general education, specializing in science.

The former usually give lectures which are the same as those given in science departments at other universities unrelated to teacher education. The latter prepare lectures on how to teach science. Students then have difficulty unifying the things which they learn and they cannot develop practical abilities as teachers.

Some universities have started to change their curriculum, also started to reconstruct the teacher training system. In Naruto University of Education, the core curriculum for teacher training and the standard for evaluation of teaching ability; lesson planning, practice and assessment, have been developed. We are now trying to implement our curriculum as a model for Japanese teacher training with the support of the government.

Core Curriculum

The core curriculum is shown in Fig. 1. Practical Subjects, Cultural Subjects, Teaching Subjects and Subjects are determined with respect to the core. Practical subjects consist of two parts; the Core Subject and Teaching Practice. Also, the core subject is separated into two parts; Core I and Core II. In Core I, students learn about children's understanding, classroom management, student guidance, the significance of the teaching profession and children's learning. In Core II, students learn about childhood learning and development based on textbook contents.

Core II classes are conducted in conjunction with teacher education speciality professors, academic content speciality professors, and in-service teachers with our attached elementary school and junior high school. There is no such teaching style in the other universities in Japan. These core subjects are very important and unique.

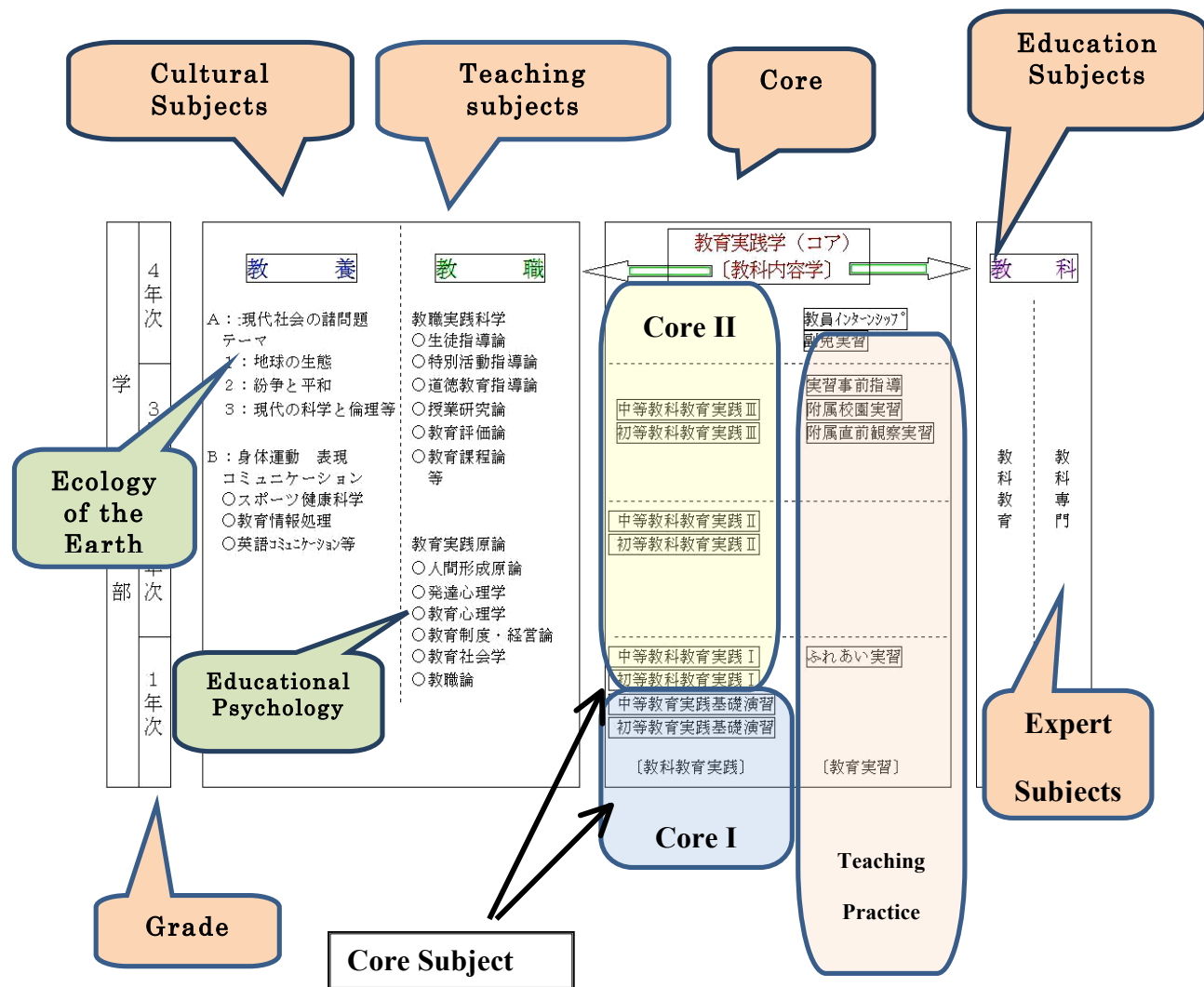


Fig. 1 Outline of Core Curriculum in Naruto University of Education

This system is designed to facilitate integration, especially integration between subject content and teaching practice. The making of this curriculum started in 2002, and has been implemented since 2005.

Evaluation Standard of Practical Teaching Skill

Regarding teaching ability, we considered “Practical teaching skills”, “interpersonal skills”, “ability to understand children”, “classroom management” and “significance of the teaching profession”. We have developed Evaluation Standards for Practical Teaching Skill (Fig. 2).

Stage 1 is during students’ third year of university, just before their teaching practicum. Stage 2 is during students’ fourth year of University, upon graduation. Stage 3 is at the ten year mark in their teaching career.

Practical teaching skill consists of three abilities; Lesson planning ability, Lesson execution and Evaluation ability of teaching. This evaluation standard is in the trial phase at the moment.

Point \ Stage	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3
A. Lesson planning ability			
1. Understanding of Learner			
1) Actual condition of Learner	I grasp an attitude toward learning of the learner as the whole class.	I teach students grasping the actual situation (learning will, interest, knowledge and understanding degrees) of the individual learner.	
2) Rule making of Learning			
2. Objective Setting			
3. Lesson Structure			
1) Configuration of the learning content			
2) Configuration and Selection of Teaching Materials			

Fig. 2 Evaluation Standard of Practical Teaching Skill

This sample is a part of the evaluation standard of science. The part of standard of “Lesson planning ability” is shown.

Questionnaire for graduates to gauge the effectiveness of the core curriculum
(at elevating the practical teaching skills)

Firstly, we investigated the effectiveness of our core curriculum for graduates before and after core curriculum implementation. The questionnaire assesses the following areas;

1. The quantity of educational contents (2 questions)
2. The level of training and the practical contents (3 questions)
3. Student impressions of the teaching practice (3 questions)
4. Student impressions of the core subjects (1 question)
5. The result of having learned in this university (16 questions)

The questionnaire employed a five point Likert scale, where 5 was “strongly agree” and 1 was “strongly disagree”. Secondly, we investigated the effectiveness of the core curriculum by questionnaire

on Naruto University of Education graduates who became teachers in Tokushima Prefecture. Finally, we investigated the effectiveness on our graduates working in Tokushima prefectures by interviewing them and the principals of their schools directly.

From the investigation of our graduates before and after the core curriculum was implemented, there was statistically significant improvement in “Understanding of lecture content”, “Understanding of training and practice content”, and “Leadership and executive ability”.

Also, in second phase of this research, the same tendency was observed. However, there was no significant improvement in “Classroom management skills” or “Ability for student instruction”. We have to improve our core curriculum considering these problems.

Finally, in the interview research, the graduates gave a high evaluation concerning the quality and quantity of education contents, teaching practice and the core subject. Also their principals gave a high evaluation especially for the core subject. The effectiveness of the core subject on educational practice has become clear. Though we still have to improve the core curriculum, this might be better than the old one. Now we are trying to make a model curriculum for teacher training in Japan based on our core curriculum.

Model Curriculum for the Teacher Training

In order to guarantee high quality graduating students, we have roughly produced a model curriculum for teacher training based on our core curriculum. Now we are trying to make a more general one through our current project. This project is supported by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. We want to demonstrate a model curriculum for teacher training that can be used in education faculties around Japan. The model curriculum consists of two parts. One is the “Curriculum Map”, the other is the “Guideline”. We will explain them below.

Curriculum Map

In order to clarify the relationship between the various subjects and qualities or abilities required for teachers, we propose the curriculum map (Fig. 3). In the map, each subject is aligned longitudinally, while the qualities and abilities required for teachers appear horizontally.

If the goal of a specific subject on the vertical column relates directly to some specific ability for teachers, then the goal is written in the corresponding cell. When we check the map, we can easily understand not only the relationship between each subject and the required abilities of teachers, but also the whole structure of the university curriculum. Besides providing a quick summary of the curriculum structure, this map seems to have various functions. The map allows us to check the balance of subjects with respect to the various abilities required for teachers and it allows us to reconstruct the curriculum. Furthermore, students can understand the required abilities for teachers, and see the relationship between

each subject and the required abilities. Therefore, they can choose their subjects according to their abilities. Each individual faculty member has completed the curriculum map for the subjects which they teach.

What qualities or abilities are required for teachers? We propose the following qualities or abilities; Teacher Literacy, Cooperation, Student Leadership, Teaching Competence and Reflection Power. Each quality or ability is then subdivided into subcategories, beside Reflection Power.

Relationships among the qualities and abilities required for teachers

The qualities and abilities required for teachers consist of 5 big categories. Figure 4 illustrates our concept of their relationship. Students possess innate reflection power, even if that power is very small. The four teaching qualities and abilities are developed through lectures that are closely concerned to them. As these four are developed, reflection power also becomes bigger. As reflection power increases, motivation for lectures increases so that in turn, the 4 qualities and abilities develop further. Thus student motivation, the ability to reflect, and teaching competence are mutually dependent and improve in a cyclical way. By the time students graduate, hopefully they are ready to join the workforce as teachers. Of course, these qualities and abilities are expected to develop further after teacher life starts.

The qualities and abilities required for teachers

Literacy of Teacher

- ①Sense of Duty, ②Sense of ethics, ③Enthusiasm for education,
- ④The spirit of inquiry, ⑤Culture

Cooperation

- ①Interpersonal skills, ②Harmony, ③Sociability

Student Leadership

- ①Fundamental attitude, ②Personal leadership, ③Group leadership

Teaching Competence

- ①Understanding of subject content, ②Conceptual ability
- ③Deployment, ④Evaluation

Reflection Power

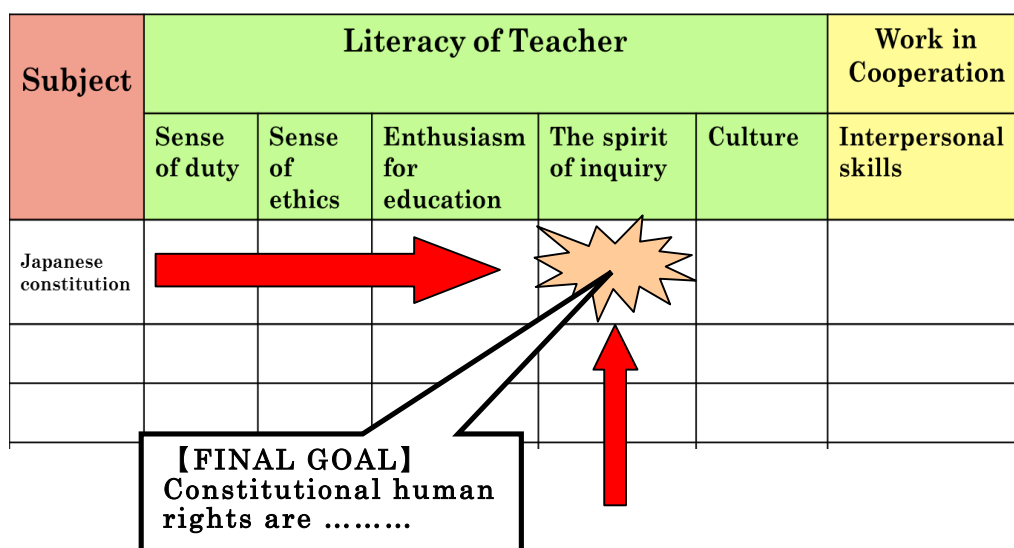


Fig. 3 A part of the Curriculum Map

“Japanese Constitution” a subject in culture subjects is closely concerned with the spirit of inquiry in Literacy of Teacher. In the cell, the final goal is described.

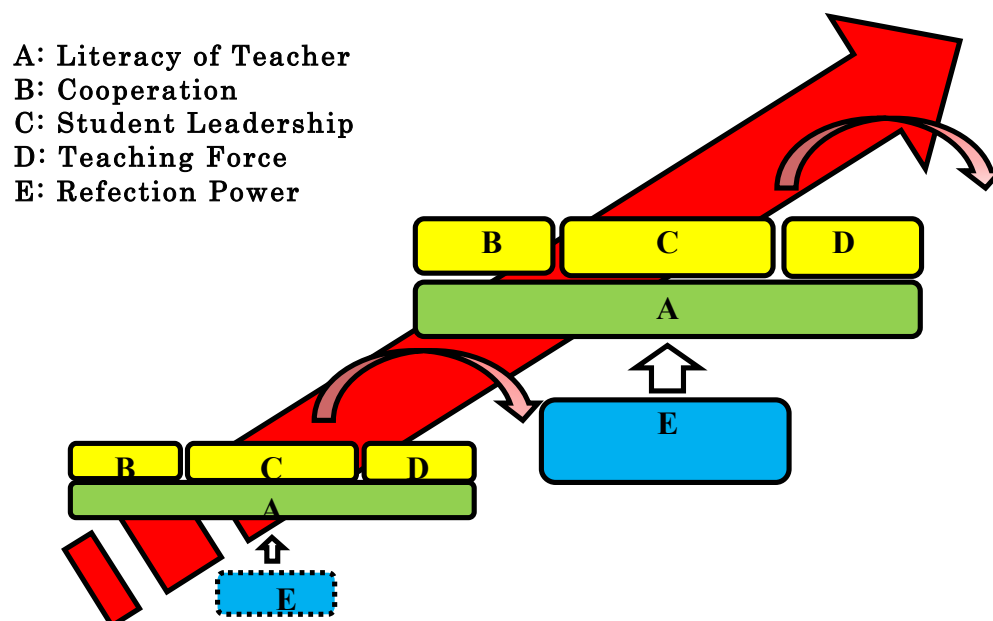


Fig. 4 Relationships among the qualities and abilities required for teachers

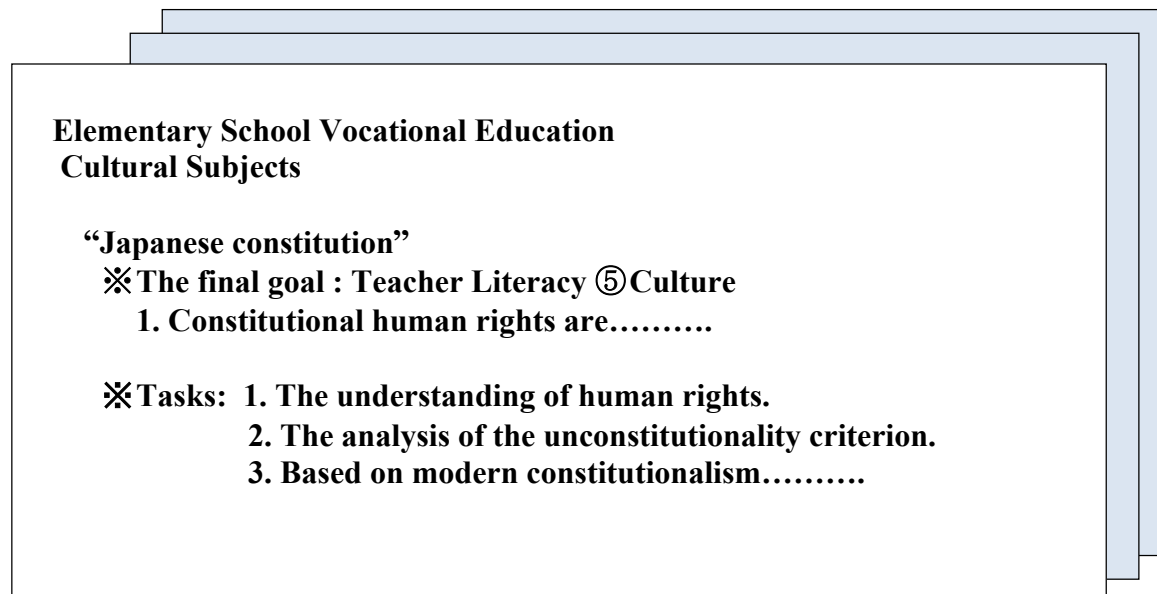


Fig. 5 A sample of Guidelines for teacher training
In this part, the final goal and tasks of the subject “Japanese constitution” are shown.

Guide line for teacher training

The guideline in Figure 5 indicates the final goal and tasks of each subject to the students. The final goal is the same as that written in the curriculum map. If there is more than one final goal, the guideline corresponds. The tasks are conducted to obtain the goal. Each professor evaluates how well the students perform the tasks.

Characteristics in the relationships between subjects and the qualities and abilities required for teachers

If we put our curriculum in the curriculum map, we can understand the characteristic of our curriculum. Cultural Subjects are closely concerned with teacher literacy, especially the spirit of inquiry and culture. Core subjects are concerned with teaching competence, while teaching practice relates to all of the abilities. Education subjects and expert subjects relate to teaching competence, especially the understanding of subject contents.

Assessment of the practical function in curriculum

Even if the curriculum is appropriate, students cannot always develop the abilities required of teachers. We have to check how well they have acquired these abilities. We are now investigating criteria to assess this. As one tool for assessment, we are using the “Career Note” in which each student records their actions in each subject as well as additional action such as volunteer work over the course of their college career. In Core II subjects, we are trying to design criterion checklists to check the practical abilities of students. Because these Core II subjects are concerned with all qualities and abilities required for teachers, these subjects seem to be very useful.

**ASSURING QUALITY OR OVERWHELMING TEACHERS?
HIGH QUALITY PERFORMANCE ASSESSMENT IN AMERICAN PRE-SERVICE TEACHER
EDUCATION**

**Dr. Fred Hamel
University of Puget Sound**

Introduction

Seven years ago, the Japanese U.S. Teacher Education Consortium (JUSTEC) was held in the U.S., in Portland, Oregon, about a two and a half hour drive from where I live. It was a stimulating conference that year, hosted extremely well by our colleagues at Portland State University. As with all JUSTEC conferences, the Japanese and American attendees were invited to experience some local culture and a few city highlights. One of our main tours was to the Portland Japanese Garden, which sits in the beautiful hills just above downtown Portland. The Portland Japanese Garden is a fabulous garden, a remarkable achievement, and as you can read on its website – considered “the most authentic Japanese Garden outside of Japan.” We had a lovely afternoon at the Garden, walking, observing, and conversing with our conference friends. The Portland Japanese Garden website tells us a number of other things about the Portland Japanese Garden– for example, that the garden is “a 5.5 acre haven of tranquil beauty,” and that the Garden is not just one garden but in fact 5 Gardens. There is the Flat Garden, the Strolling Pond Garden, the Tea Garden, the Natural Garden, and the Sand & Stone Garden. We learn that the Japanese garden “is a living reflection of the long history and traditional culture of Japan – being influenced by Shinto, Buddhist, and Taoist philosophies...,” and that simple arrangement of stone, water, and plants are the essential elements of the design.

I am not an expert in gardening, Japanese gardens, or horticulture, but I was struck by a conversation I had with one of my Japanese colleagues that day. As we walked the 5 acre garden, admiring the layout and diverse arrangements of stone, water and plants, my colleague finally admitted that he was somewhat puzzled or surprised by this garden. He said that the Garden was extremely impressive, and in many ways a remarkable reflection of Japanese aesthetics; but, he observed, he had in fact never seen such a garden in Japan. While the art of the Garden seemed authentically Japanese, something concerned him about the scale. It seemed, in a word, too big. “Never,” he said, “have I seen a Japanese garden of this size.” He finally told me, with a kind of amusement, “This is an American-sized Japanese Garden.”

My colleague's comment was illuminating for me – it reflected the reason we get together at international conferences like this— to help remind each other of our own cultural perspectives, of the things we take for granted, and how easily we can impose one cultural ideal onto another, even when we are trying to be “authentic.” Until our conversation, never had I considered that the Portland Garden might be “too big” – or that there was something peculiarly “American” reflected in this Japanese Garden. Our discussion continued briefly, as we talked about the American desire for “big things,” like big homes, cars, boats, and bathrooms. We noted that America certainly has lots of geographic space, but our conversation focused more on a kind of mindset, an American desire to “go big,” to take things “to scale,” to have “big impact.” Although these generalizations are always dangerous, we agreed that Americans sometimes like to maximize, rather than minimize. This mindset, my colleague pointed out, seemed to be reflected even in the authentic Japanese Garden in Portland.

I share this story, because in talking today about a new American assessment for beginning teachers, something called the Teacher Performance Assessment, or the TPA, in some ways I will be describing another American effort to “go big” in what we do, to maximize the notion of assessment, to take something to scale while also attempting to be authentic. Whether this big attempt at assessing teachers is a good idea or not, or the extent to which it is a good idea, is the basic question I want to ask today. In fact, I will share my general thesis here at the start – namely, that the TPA is an ambitious assessment that, in its current form, threatens to overwhelm beginning teachers as much as to improve their practice. Such an assessment needs vigorous, continued debate and refinement, if it is to become meaningful and sustainable for beginning teachers and programs; and the American teacher education community must continue to calculate the potential costs of the TPA as much as its benefits. To go one step further, we may need the insights of an international community of teacher educators like this one here today to help us even see what we are doing. As with my own experience of the Portland Japanese Garden, we may need your insights to help us understand what it is we are creating.

So with these introductory comments, my paper today has three primary aims. First, I want to clarify what the TPA is - to inform my international audience here in Japan of the rationale for, and shape of, a major American teacher assessment for beginning teachers. Second, I want to provide early data from my own teacher education program on the experiences of those using the TPA – especially student teachers and mentors. Finally, I hope to raise a few critical questions for our consideration and discussion.

What is the TPA and Why is it Here?

Background

The Teacher Performance Assessment (TPA) is a summative performance assessment, required of pre-service teachers as part of their student teaching internship. It is part of a national initiative to provide credible and reliable information, both to the wider public and to teacher education programs, on the readiness of pre-service teachers for teacher certification. As the map shows below, roughly 25 states have taken up this assessment and are now involved in a national consortium called TPAC, or the Teacher Performance Assessment Consortium. Many teacher education programs in these states agreed to participate in the pilot of the TPA in spring 2012. States in blue have had state legislative involvement plus some institutions of higher education (IHEs) participating. Accelerated states, in red, have legislative involvement plus wide participation of IHEs in the TPA pilot and field test. For example, in Washington State, all 21 university-based teacher education programs piloted the TPA this spring, and passing the TPA is on track to become a state-level certification requirement in 2013. States in green do not yet have legislative involvement but do have some IHEs participating in the pilot.

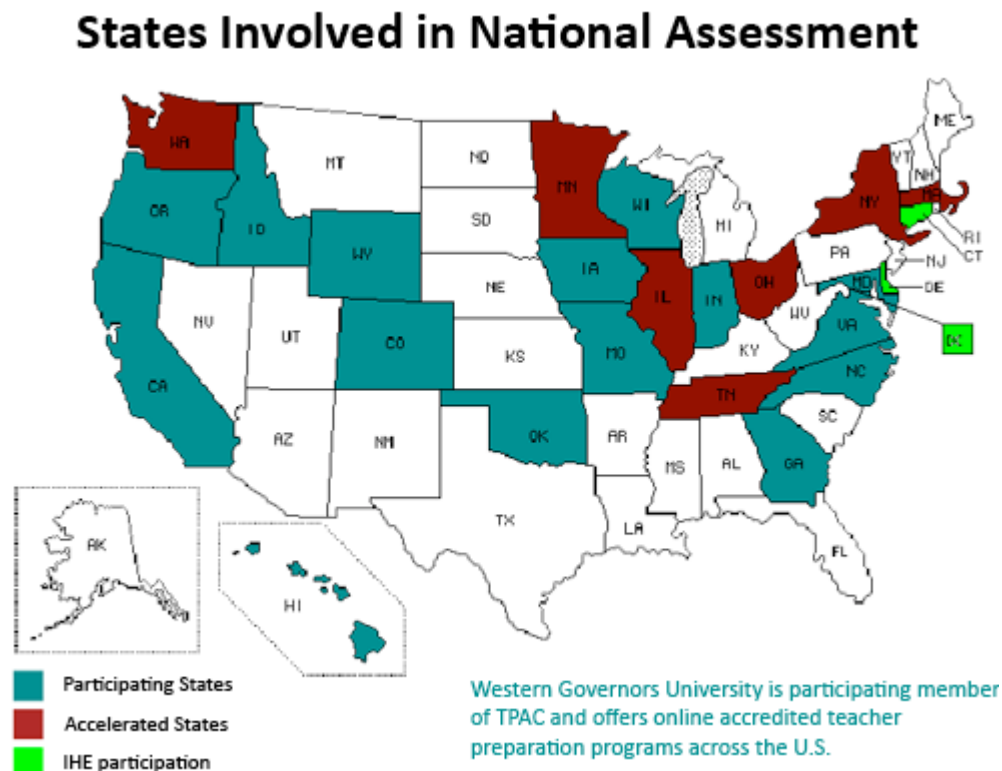


Figure 1: Map of States involved in TPA (from TPAC website)

Based on the Performance Assessment of California Teachers (PACT) which was created by a coalition of California colleges and universities in the early 2000's, the TPA "...uses multiple sources of

data (teacher plans, teacher artifacts, student work samples, video clips of teaching, and personal reflections and commentaries) that are organized on four categories of teaching: planning, instruction, assessment, and reflection (PIAR)” (Pechione & Chung, 2006, p.23). The TPA requires teacher candidates to represent and analyze their own teaching in these four key areas of teacher practice, as part of their student teaching experience. The TPA is considered a “performance assessment,” meaning that it occurs during teaching and is based on collections of evidence of a teachers’ practice. It is thus similar in structure to the National Board Certification process in the US (Ellis et al, forthcoming), which involves evidence from the central practices of good teaching -- planning, engaging students, analyzing student learning, and reflection. Like National Board Certification, the TPA requires a great deal of writing from teacher candidates. In the TPA, teacher evidence is presented in combination with multiple pages of “commentary,” in which a candidate explains and interprets the evidence presented, based on prompts that are provided. A common TPA assessment will have 20-25 pages of single spaced writing – and along with the evidence presented (lesson plans, materials, student evidence), a completed document can easily exceed 40 pages.

The TPA should also be understood as an assessment coming from within the teacher education community in the US – to an extent. It is perhaps best understood as a kind of pre-emptive response – an assessment meant to “head off” the imposition of simplistic measures of teacher quality at the state and even national level. For example, some state legislatures have proposed assessing student teachers by the test scores of their pupils (Archer 2004). Pechione & Chung (2006) likewise point out that the PACT grew because teacher educators in California “were dissatisfied by the content and format of the state’s teacher performance assessment, which was designed as a generic assessment that applies across all grade levels and subject areas” (22). Indeed, across the US, state legislators, under pressure to improve student achievement, have put significant pressure on teacher education programs to clearly identify high standards for teacher preparation – and to assure the quality of beginning teachers to the public. Paper and pencil tests are commonly required at the state level to guarantee that teachers are qualified in basic areas as well as in specific subject areas, but there is broad acknowledgement that these assessments are not predictive of quality teaching.

Fearful that states will impose a simplistic measurement of teacher quality, university-based teacher educators in several states have sought to create a high quality performance assessment that would maintain integrity for teaching programs and reflect teacher development. The PACT, and now the TPA, represent such an attempt – namely, to “develop an integrated, authentic and subject specific assessment that is consistent with the core values of member institutions while meeting the assessment standards required by the state” (Pechione & Chung, 22-23). In this sense, the TPA is sometimes touted as a professionally designed evaluation process coming from within the profession, and to an extent it is. On the other hand, the instrument has at least partly been developed under duress – with the fear that if

teacher educators do not come up with such an assessment, someone else will force an assessment (and probably not a good one) upon us.

What Does the TPA Require?

As mentioned above, to complete the assessment, students must present both evidence of teaching practice and written commentary in four major tasks. Candidates are asked to:

1. Plan a learning segment of 3-5 days
2. Teach the learning segment, videotaping the segment for analysis
3. Assess student learning, collecting and analyzing student work
4. Reflect on the segment as a whole.

For example, in addition to providing detailed lesson plans for the planning segment, students must write up to 10 pages of commentary answering a series of prompts to explain the plans. See Appendix A for a brief description of each task.

We have sometimes found that conceptualizing the entirety of the TPA can be difficult, so one of my colleagues uses the metaphor of a “sandwich” to help explain the TPA to students. In this metaphor, the “meat” of the sandwich is the learning segment, or the 3-5 lessons. As you can see in Figure 2, these lessons must be related to each other within a unit, but not necessarily day to day. Each lesson involves its own plans, materials and assessments, plus daily reflections. The top piece of “bread” of the sandwich is the Planning Commentary (Task 1), in which a candidate explains the goals and rationale for his or her learning segment. Within the “meat” of the sandwich, Tasks 2 & 3 take place – the videotaping of some aspect of the lesson, plus collecting and analyzing one assessment of student work. The bottom piece of bread is the Final Reflection (Task 4). We have found that metaphors like these have helped students make sense of the different dimensions of the TPA as a whole – or as we say, “to see the forest for the trees.”

TPA Overview

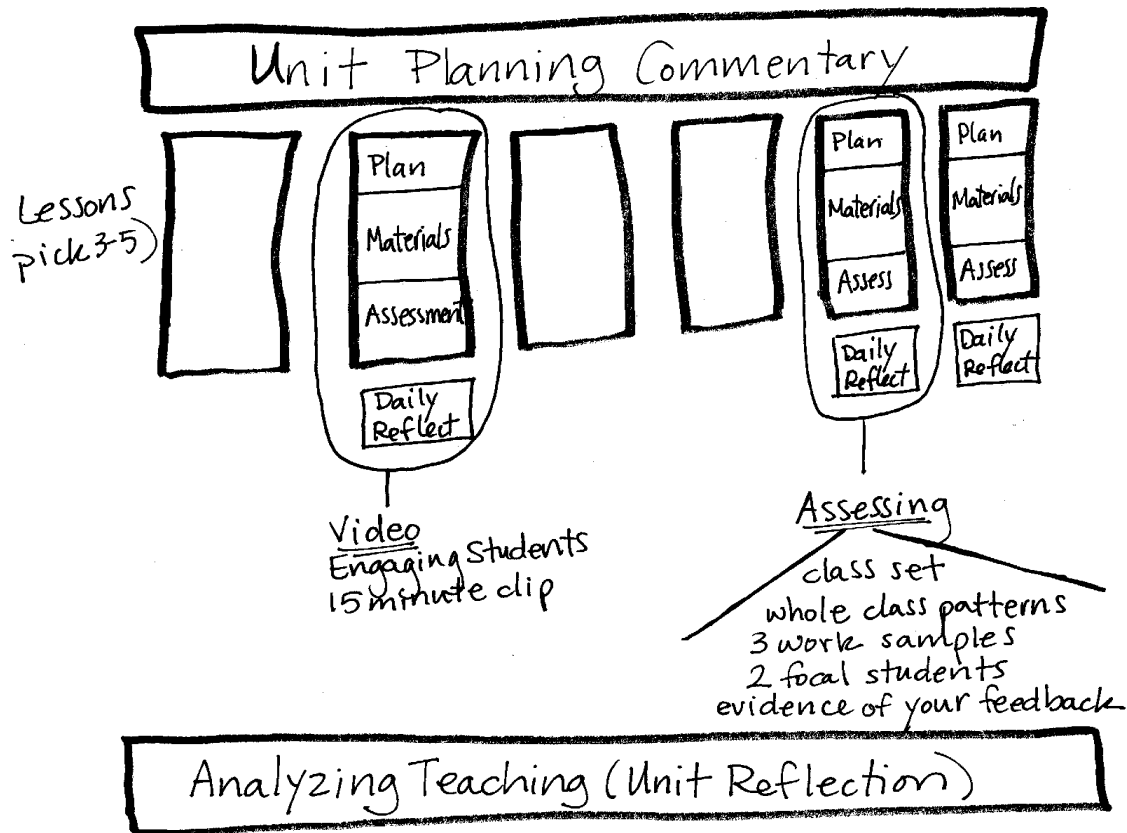


Figure 2: TPA sandwich metaphor

Teacher candidates taking the TPA are given a booklet of about 45 pages in length, which provides detailed explanation of each task, detailed rubrics, plus a glossary of terms.

A few technical aspects of the TPA are also important to clarify. For example, given the scope of the TPA, and the number of states, programs and candidates involved, Stanford University has partnered with Pearson, an educational resource and testing company, to organize the logistics of scoring the TPA for so many candidates and across states. Upon completing the TPA, candidates upload their materials to an online platform, run by Pearson (see <http://tpafieldtest.nesinc.com/>), and each TPA is scored through this system. Scorers are trained by Pearson online (see <http://www.scoretpa.pearson.com/>), and so far

scorers seem to include university supervisors, teacher educators, retired administrators, and anyone who qualifies after going through the training process. In time, the idea is that passing the TPA will be a requirement for receiving a teacher credential at the state level; however, only the “accelerated” or red states in the map above are moving in this direction at the current time.

Certainly, multiple questions are possible at this point -- both technical and philosophical. Some on the technical side are: How long do candidates have to complete the assessment? How are scorers trained exactly? How much are they paid? What does the TPA cost a candidate? What is Pearson’s profit? What happens when a candidate fails? On the more philosophical side, we might ask: What is the relationship between the TPA and improved teaching of beginning teachers? To what extent does this kind of assessment actually bring about changes in teacher education practice, and are the changes for the better or the worse? What are the dangers of initiating an assessment relationship between university programs and a commercial entity like Pearson? Is “objectivity” in assessing teacher performance ever possible?

Answers to these questions go beyond the aim of this paper, although they are being discussed actively at state and national levels. My goal today, instead, is to present the experiences of one small teacher education program, my own, with the TPA pilot this spring. My goal is to provide a portrait of one set of experiences with the TPA – providing a glimpse of how those “on the ground,” especially candidates and mentors, are experiencing this assessment. In what follows, I first provide some context on our program and the data collection we undertook; then I report findings from students and mentor teachers who completed the TPA just a few months ago.

One Program’s Experience with the TPA

Context

Teacher education programs in the US are not all alike. In fact, dramatic differences in size, program structure, program length, and teaching practices are common. With regard to the University of Puget Sound’s teacher education program, key information includes:

- Masters program at a small liberal arts university (2500 students overall)
- 25-35 teacher candidates each year
- 15 month program
- 6 Full time faculty
- 3 Internship Experiences (two 6-week placements, followed by student teaching for 15 weeks)
- 30-40 mentor teachers in 20-30 schools per year

Our program is highly integrated, with courses that are linked to field experiences – and faculty communicate extensively about courses and often co-teach courses. We develop partnerships with local schools and invite mutual exchange between teacher education faculty and local teachers and principals. One aspect that stands out from our program is its small size. One benefit of this size is that we are able to provide considerable personal attention to our candidates.

Data Collection

In gathering data on the TPA, we have used a few different methods this year. We have collected:

- notes from a focus group that included mentor teachers and student teachers involved in the TPA at the time
- written assessments by students (26 of 26 responding), after the TPA was complete; see Appendix B for the assessment form
- survey data from mentors teachers (20 of 33 responding), after the TPA was complete; see Appendix B for the online survey questions
- informal notes on discussions with mentors, observations of students, & coursework materials

Qualitative data were analyzed using a grounded theory approach, reviewing notes and assessments multiple times, applying initial codes, developing themes, and reviewing materials again in light of themes/codes. We have not received scores back from Pearson on our students' TPAs this year, so I will not be reporting passing rates or scores.

Below, then, are the primary themes of our data. I will first present three aspects of the TPA that candidates and mentors both found valuable and helpful. After this, I will present two aspects of the TPA that candidates and mentors together found problematic. Third, I will draw on the mentor survey specifically to make a few quantitative findings visible regarding mentors' relationship to the TPA.

Finding Value in the TPA

Most candidates and mentors from our program found certain aspects of the TPA valuable and helpful. Even those who claimed to hate the TPA admitted in some form that the TPA also contributed to their growth. As one student asserted in our focus session, "I hate it, but I know it's good for me." It is rare to find either a candidate or mentor who were uniformly negative about the TPA. Several primary themes emerged in the data regarding the benefits of the TPA, and below I focus on three areas: the TPA as a vehicle for reflection, as a support for being intentional in the classroom, and as a way to engage mentors around the curriculum.

Increased Reflection & Questioning: Among the various benefits experienced with the TPA, the most common is that it aided candidates in reflecting on practice. Student teachers were consistent in

saying that the TPA helped them, and sometimes forced them, to see their teaching in new ways. The individual comments below suggest, for example, that without the TPA requirement, such reflection on teaching might not have occurred:

“Helped me reflect a lot on my teaching and assessments – what was working for my students... (otherwise hard to do in student teaching).”

“Forced reflection – reflecting on what worked well, what didn’t – was helpful.”

“Forced us to really plan lessons reflect on them heavily – notice things we wouldn’t if doing a quick reflection.”

“Forced me to think about why I make particular choices when developing a lesson.”

“Planning & reflecting helped me focus and think about my teaching in a productive way.”

The repetition of the term “forced” in these comments suggests that reflection on teaching is not easily afforded during student teaching, and that powerful structures are needed to push such reflection to the forefront. Candidates find this “helpful” and “productive,” even as they find it “stressful” and sometimes “uncomfortable.”

Candidate comments sometimes specified that reflection in particular areas was helpful. This seemed to be especially true for the “video” task (Task 2) and the “assessing student learning” task (Task 3) of the TPA. Students note things like:

“Video reflection – watching myself teach gave me biggest insight ... I grew most from this portion.”

“Watching myself teach then reflecting upon viewing. So much happens that I don’t see, so it was very valuable.”

“Time to reflect on assessment ... very useful.”

“Allowed me to really analyze the assessments that I am giving in the classroom.”

Candidates and mentors also mentioned that the TPA forced them to reflect on multiple aspects of teaching, diversifying their thinking:

“I realized different dimensions of teaching... while I was writing” (candidate)

“The TPA helped me with looking at all sides of a lesson...” (candidate)

“The TPA provided the opportunity to look at the different elements of teaching and learning while simultaneously infusing more practical aspects of the profession.” (mentor)

“The TPA forced them to look at the whole of teaching (the forest) and the trees (specific tasks).” (mentor)

Mentor teachers likewise found that teacher candidates grew in their ability to reflect during student teaching. In the comments below, mentors note candidates' abilities to raise good questions and to consider student learning more carefully:

"I am noticing that [my candidate] is asking good, in-depth questions because of the TPA. I do think TPA is helping to create more reflective practice. It's causing [my candidate] to think: Why do I think that? What am I doing that? It's helping with these habits of mind."

"It appears the TPA does help a great deal with looking at one's teaching and self-analysis of their efforts."

"The TPA seemed to cause my student teacher to be more reflective on student achievements, academically and also on their attitudes."

Although sometimes "forced" into the equation, mentors and candidates both found a variety of ways that the TPA aided reflection on teaching. However, from these brief data, the term reflection itself remains quite broad, and it is sometimes difficult to know precisely what reflection looked like or meant for individual teachers or mentors.

Greater Intentionality & Deliberateness in Planning: The second most commonly mentioned benefit of the TPA, shared by both candidates and mentors, involved intentionality in planning, including an increased focus on students and student learning. Representative comments include:

"We are both being a lot more intentional because of the TPA. Lessons are diverse, making sure there is group dialogue. We're not forcing things but are definitely more intentional in planning." (mentor)

"The TPA IS making me more deliberate in what I do..." (candidate)

"It kept our conversations and student learning goals more grounded because of the accountability attached to the TPA." (mentor)

"Made me be very deliberate in planning & instruction..." (candidate)

In these comments, the TPA brings about deliberate practice in multiple areas, including planning, teaching, assessment, and conversation with mentors.

Leverage to Engage the Curriculum, Stronger Curricular Conversations: In some cases, the TPA also reinforced values of the university program, giving the candidate leverage to suggest changes to otherwise traditional or limited curricula. In the focus group, one candidate spoke of having few ways to raise difficult questions about the curriculum with her mentor teacher. The TPA gave her the power and courage to do so:

"The TPA has been a good resource for curriculum in my class – in deciding what the school or department seems to want vs. what I need to do. It's forced me to talk about the TPA – 'I need certain things in class to do the TPA....' The TPA requires things I didn't see in my class – so I have to build these things in – like a math conversation, actually talking about math."

In this case, when school-based practices differed from student teacher beliefs or goals, the TPA provided permission and agency to speak up regarding the need for “talk about math” in a math classroom. Another candidate in the focus group agreed:

“It reinforces practices in how to teach math. Allows us to speak to something – like when there are disagreements between program and placement. It’s a great way to force that conversation.”

One mentor teacher in the focus group agreed that the TPA sponsored stronger and needed conversations:

“The TPA allowed us to have some deeper level conversations about the importance of proper planning, implementation and evaluation of lessons that we would not have had otherwise.”

Some research suggests that conversations between mentors and candidates focus too often on situational adjustment and emotional support -- “putting out fires”-- at the expense of deeper conversations about teaching, learning, and curriculum, especially in relation to subject matter (Feiman Nemser 2001; Valencia et al 2009). The comments above suggest that the TPA, in some cases, served as a tool for engaging and modifying the curriculum, and for sponsoring richer conversations about teaching and learning subject matter.

Problematic Aspects of the TPA

Despite these strengths, student teachers and mentors were unified in leveling consistent criticisms at the TPA. Although many specific issues were raised in our surveys and evaluations, one criticism was unmistakably clear: Candidates, mentors, and supervisors reported consistently that the TPA requires excessive time and energy during the student teaching experience, and that the net result is to create an overstressed teaching candidate. This critique is particularly worrisome given that student teaching is already one of the most demanding and stressful experiences for beginning teachers. Below I provide qualitative evidence for the following assertions: 1) that pre-service candidates experienced significant stress in completing the TPA, and 2) that the TPA divided their energies during student teaching in problematic ways.

Stressed Candidates: During our focus group, which occurred midway through student teaching and while candidates were managing the TPA, clinical supervisors from our program expressed concern about the demands placed on candidates because of the TPA. One experienced supervisor said:

“I’ve never heard the stress articulated as much as I do now. We’ve addressed the TPA as much as we probably could – but still there’s confusion and an increase in ‘I’m not sure I can do this’ comments. I’m flooded with them now.”

Another supervisor echoed this concern, pointing out that some mentor teachers were alarmed about the increased load expected of their candidate.

“When I’m in the field, mentors are questioning the amount of work the TPA demands during student teaching. People question whether this is a ‘realistic load’ during full-time student teaching.”

Mentors expressed such concerns directly. In our survey following student teaching, one mentor wrote:

“I felt that my teaching candidate was too stressed about the TPA and all its requirements to get a full picture of what teaching full time is all about. I tried to take some of the burdens of full time teaching away from him so that he could focus on the gathering and analyzing and writing portions of the TPA.”

Several mentors echoed this concern, either in individual conversation, during the focus group, or through the survey. The following are representative comments:

“5 weeks of full time teaching is not enough to sufficiently gather the data, analyze it and write all the sections for the TPA. My candidate was very stressed about the depth of the TPA and it affected his teaching, especially towards the end of his tenure.”

“Reflecting is brilliant ... [but] doing the TPA during full time student teaching is insane and counterproductive... My student teacher is already maxed out – and to add in immense writing assignment is unhelpful at best and quite harmful at worst.... How is that helping a student become a student teacher?”

Mentors with National Boards experience suggested, based on their own experience of a major performance assessment, that the amount of work expected of beginning teachers through the TPA may be overwhelming – and one pointed out that National Boards doesn’t even let teachers take on such a major self-assessment during teaching until their 3rd year. In short, mentor teachers showed a high level of concern that the TPA would potentially overwhelm their teacher candidate.

For their part, student teachers consistently pointed out that “time” was a major issue faced in completing the TPA – and that the assessment significantly increased their stress.

“I didn’t really expect the degree of stress and anxiety that came with the TPA ...”
“There isn’t time to do the TPA during student teaching.”

“Incredibly time consuming in a time that was already extremely busy.”
“Very difficult to find the time to write a huge 30 page paper while trying to teach and plan for the day to day stuff.”

“Despite a mentor who gave me time.... I still found myself spending long evenings in the library in order to finish. [The most difficult part was] time and how all-consuming the assessment was.”

Almost all of our student teachers found the workload of the TPA during student teaching to be rather excessive, pushing them in some cases beyond capacity. Even capable candidates whose mentors reduced their teaching schedule to accommodate the TPA found themselves “spending long evenings in the library” to finish.

Divided Energies: Candidates and mentors pinpointed a specific negative effect of the TPA – that it split candidate energies during student teaching. For example, mentors noticed how the time needed to fulfill the TPA diminished possibilities for thorough planning, and it reduced some collegial interactions. One mentor said:

“The TPA has impacted our time significantly. Just the time taken to video has been big – how to tape, when to tape, did it work, reviewing the tape in time to see if we need to tape again – this has taken away planning time. We over-videotaped to be safe, but this took away from lesson planning.”

Another mentor wrote:

“There is a limited amount of energy each person has in a day. As the TPA needed more attention, she didn't have as much energy to spend on lesson planning and relating with students. ... I can't help but wonder how much better she could've been.”

Many candidates for their part felt they were placed in the position of having to choose between the TPA and their students, or between the TPA and other teaching duties like careful planning in areas unrelated to the TPA. For example, after student teaching, one candidate wrote:

“I wasn't able to focus on my student teaching as much, and I sometimes went with vague and not finished lesson plans for the day – right in the height of full time teaching.It's too exhausting...”

Another student wrote:

“Since it was so time consuming, I felt that some of my other instruction suffered. Since I was focusing so much on math I couldn't give everything to reading.”

One student during the focus group elaborated on this point at length:

“I guess I want to say I put my students first, but it's not always true. It's easy to lose sight of the 20-30 kids when doing the TPA – focusing on kids – when you are trying to meet the requirements and get the paper done My TPA area was math, and other subjects have fallen off my radar – I barely have plans for those subjects some days. My math teaching is better, there is intentional assessment & thinking about kids – but to the detriment of everything else. The TPA IS making me more deliberate in what I do, but it's so intense, that it's hard to spread this deliberateness & intentional teaching across the whole day.”

Another student, looking back at TPA, said the following:

“The TPA was the most stressful part of my student teaching experience. During the TPA I was completely scattered. I had to make a choice to turn my attention away from my students to the TPA writing. Rather than being there for my students, I was doing things for me. I felt like I let myself down, my mentor down, and I let my students down during this time. I felt like I was being greedy, asking for things from students – things I needed, like assessment examples.”

Other students wrote similarly:

“It took up all my time! I was so focused on the TPA and the lessons I was doing for it that the other subjects suffered, and my focus was somewhat off. The kids weren’t getting my best, and I wasn’t happy with my lessons in other subjects during that time.”

“I felt as though I was taking precious time and attention off my students and what needed to be done on a daily basis to answer repetitive questions.”

One noticeable aspect of these critical comments is the division that candidates perceive between the TPA and their daily commitment to students. As one student above says, “I had to make a choice to turn my attention away from my students...” As another says, “The kids weren’t getting my best...” A third student felt the TPA put her in an ethical quandary – that she was being “greedy” by focusing more on her own need to complete the TPA requirements than on her students’ learning needs. Although the TPA aims to be an authentic assessment that reflects the actual practices of teachers, one that seamlessly fits into an internship, our candidates in fact struggled to integrate it. They felt it pulling them away from key parts of their classroom teaching. Candidates expressed a concern that the TPA began to compete for precious time – time required for planning, engaging students, and working with their mentor. In light of this competition for resources, time and energy, several candidates stated that the TPA in its current form was too big of a task to complete during student teaching.

“The TPA is a good idea, I just think it is way too much to expect for it to be done during student teaching.”

“The size of the TPA document was overwhelming to me....”

“Would be much more relevant and manageable if it was scaled down.”

“There isn’t time to do the TPA during student teaching.”

Mentors’ Relationship to the TPA

In this section, I provide quantitative data based on our survey of mentor teachers following the student teaching term. Approximately 61% of our mentors responded to the survey (20 of 33), which consisted of 10 questions. This data provides a few basic and early trends regarding mentor teachers’ experience, with and relationship, to the TPA.

Most mentor teachers report having a moderate understanding of the TPA as an assessment. However, the vast majority did not feel that were involved with the assessment in a significant way. Figure 3 shows that 65% of mentors felt they had at least a moderate understanding of the TPA. Such understanding could come from existing National Boards experience (an assessment similar to the TPA), from simply reading through the document or talking with a candidate during student teaching, and/or from a brief orientation to the TPA offered by our program at the beginning of the student teaching

semester – in which we discussed the primary TPA tasks and gave mentors and students time to work with one rubric. Mentors in general felt they could converse adequately with candidates about the TPA, though not with strong confidence. That only 5% of mentors reported having a “thorough” understanding of the TPA almost certainly reflects the early pilot phase of this work – but it also reflects a general mentor detachment from the TPA, which I will discuss below.

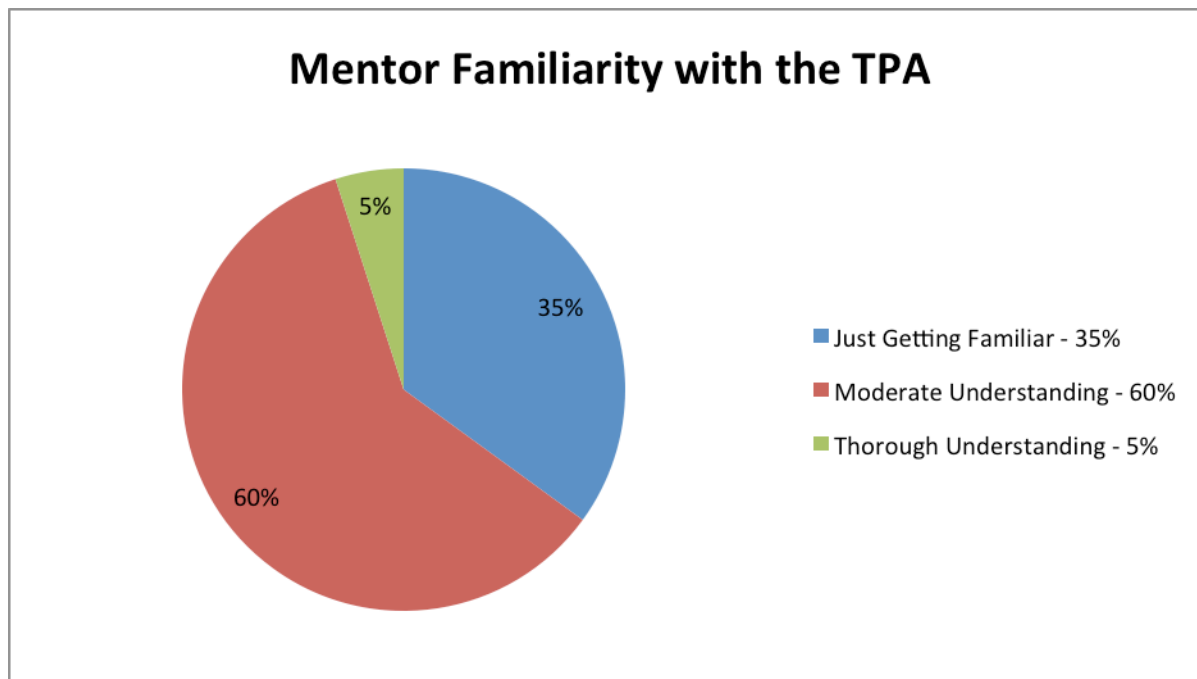


Figure 3: Self-reported Mentor Familiarity with the TPA (N = 20).

Despite mentors’ general familiarity with the document, far fewer reported that they were involved with the TPA process to a significant degree. In Figure 4, the numbers are reversed, with just 35% of mentors reporting that they were, at least, “moderately involved.” Most mentors, it seems, stepped back to let the candidate complete the assessment on their own. There are several possible reasons for this lack of involvement, related to the TPA as a new assessment. For example, mentors were possibly unclear on their role and unsure of how much involvement they should have. As a new assessment, our program provided few parameters for mentors regarding the nature and extent of their involvement, and to a significant extent we were unsure ourselves of what those parameters should be. Can mentors help with TPA lesson plans, coach candidates through a lesson, or review and discuss videos with candidates? Can they read or review TPA writing to make suggestions? Should mentors intentionally “step back” to let the candidate show what they can do independently? We were unsure ourselves, and we left it to mentors to use their own judgment.

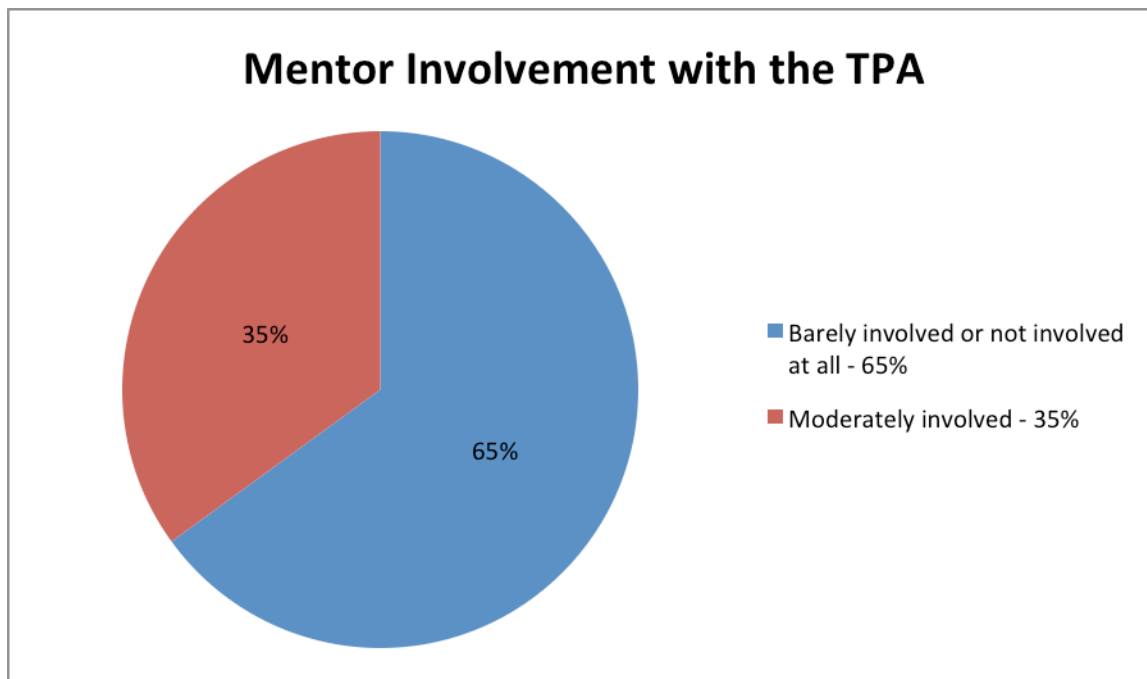


Figure 4: Mentor Involvement in the TPA (N=20)

Other mentors felt they lacked enough understanding about the assessment to become more involved. As one mentor said in the focus group:

“I read through it once – awhile ago. But now I’m getting questions. And I’m nervous answering questions. [My candidate] will ask: ‘What do you think this means?’ And I have an answer, but I always tell her to check with someone else at the university to make sure. Lots of times there are vocabulary issues – what do specific terms mean... I’m worried about giving off-base advice.”

Another mentor said:

“I feel really ignorant of that document. I went to the orientation. I read the example rubrics. We talk on a more surface level: How are you doing? Are you going to video today? Our real conversations are focused on good teaching. I don’t want to get into jumping through hoops, meeting a checklist.”

In this case, the mentor suggested that different factors combined to create a somewhat distanced involvement with the TPA. The first factor was simply her own ignorance of the document, but the second was her sense that she and her candidate already were having “real” conversations about teaching, and the TPA in some sense represented a threat to the integrity of this dialogue, something that would possibly turn their authentic talk about teaching and learning into something artificial or externally motivated. Such comments raise important questions about the ways in which the TPA may affect mentor / candidate interaction during student teaching. Will the TPA increase substantive interaction or potentially decrease such interactions? Will it create a more instrumental or technical set of interactions – focused more on “meeting requirements” and “getting the assessment done?”

Surveyed mentors indicated, interestingly, that the TPA had minimal impact on their own role as a mentor. Figure 5 shows that 75% claimed that the TPA represented “no change” with respect to their role as mentor during student teaching. 70% felt that their relationship with a teacher candidate was not affected by the TPA. The data from the first three questions reinforce the idea that mentors took up a somewhat distant or detached role in relation to the TPA, and that they were not impacted much by the TPA. A small percentage (20-25%) felt that the TPA enhanced their role as mentor, and a very small percentage (5%) found that the TPA detracted from their mentor role.

On the other hand, mentors felt that candidates’ experience was changed significantly by the TPA. Figure 5 shows that mentors found significant and mostly positive changes associated with the TPA regarding candidates’ relationships with students, knowledge of teaching, and engagement with content. Here, for example, over 60% of mentors felt that the TPA affected their candidates’ “knowledge of the teaching profession” for the better. Only 21% felt that there was no change in this category, and 5% felt that the impact was for the worse. Likewise, 65% of mentors felt candidates’ engagement with content knowledge in the classroom was enhanced because of the TPA, compared to 15% who felt there was no change and 15% who felt the TPA detracted.

Mentor Perceptions of the Impact of the TPA

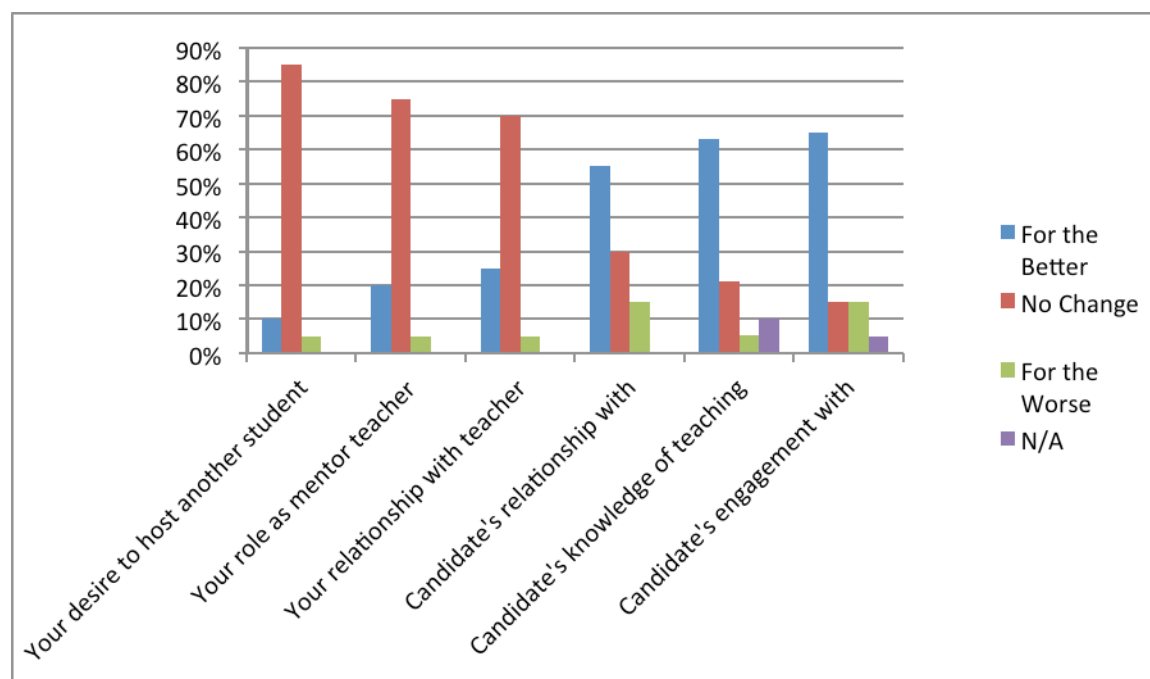


Figure 5. Mentor Responses to the Question: To what extent did the inclusion of the TPA in student teaching affect.... ?

Discussion

As reminder, the TPA is in a pilot stage this year, and the data above reflects just one semester from one small program, with responses from 26 teacher candidates and 20 mentor teachers. However, the themes suggested here raise important questions that require our careful consideration and discussion. I am especially interested in the international perspectives and insights of those gathered here today.

The TPA seems to be an ambitious, multi-faceted assessment, focusing on crucial areas of teacher development. The assessment clarifies important dimensions of quality teaching and promotes significant reflection on practice. The TPA has well-specified rubrics (growing from the PACT) that have the potential to focus teachers productively – for example, on connecting knowledge of students with lesson planning, on eliciting thinking through discussion, on analyzing student understandings, and on using such knowledge to anticipate next steps in teaching. The TPA is currently supported by our core institutions like AACTE and by some of the most respected members of our teacher education profession, like Linda Darling-Hammond. As indicated above, candidates and mentors in my own program believe that the TPA, in certain ways, led to significant reflection on teaching and to greater deliberateness in the classroom. Mentor teachers felt on average that the TPA led to stronger engagements with content in the classroom. In this sense, the TPA shows potential for raising standards for beginning teachers. As an example, when our program did a “pre-pilot” of the TPA in 2011, 10 of our 32 candidates did not pass the assessment, when graded by our own faculty, and each of these students had to revisit and rewrite some aspect of the TPA. Each of these 10 students had otherwise “passed” student teaching, but the TPA gave us the leverage and focused criteria to push these students further and in positive ways.

However, the overall impact of the TPA is less clear. From the perspective of candidates and mentors, our data reflect a conflicted mixture of strengths as well as significantly problematic aspects. A primary finding of this study is that, despite its virtues as an assessment, in its current form the TPA is likely to be overwhelming to student teachers. A term one of my teacher education colleagues has used is “unsustainable.” Both teacher candidates and mentors were consistent in this response – that student teachers were pushed to the extreme mentally and physically, and that candidates often had to sacrifice important aspects of their student teaching experience (planning of other subjects, conversations with mentors, focusing on students, attending after-school activities) to complete the process. As one mentor teacher wrote: *“There is a limited amount of energy each person has in a day. As the TPA needed more attention, she didn't have as much energy to spend on lesson planning and relating with students.”* In the words of one candidate: *“It's too exhausting.”* This dividing of energies, the collateral effect on other areas of student teaching, raises concerns about the ambitious nature of the TPA as an assessment and its overall impact on teacher learning. Here we return to my story about the Portland Japanese Garden -- how something impressive and well intended and even in many ways “authentic” can

compromise some of its authenticity and impact as it becomes “big,” as it tries to accomplish perhaps too much.

Two interpretations of the issue are possible here. One is that the TPA is over-ambitious and should be pared down in some way. Another is that student teaching itself must be changed or reduced in light of the TPA – that teacher education programs can no longer proceed with “business as usual” when it comes to a traditional student teaching experience. In this view, the “overwhelming” nature of the TPA is more of a technical problem that requires a set of program adjustments. My sense is that both interpretations are probably correct. On the hand, programs must make changes to the structure of student teaching in light of the TPA. However, the experience of our candidates and mentors reflects something deeper and more insidious—an ongoing tendency to add “too much” to teachers’ plates, to neglect the extensive labor involved in teaching. Apple (1986) argues that teachers are vulnerable to gradually increasing workloads and responsibilities, which he labels as forms of “intensification.” Intensification is described as:

...[having] many symptoms, from the trivial to the more complex – ranging from being allowed no time at all even to ... have a cup of coffee or relax, to having a total absence of time to keep up with one’s field. We can see intensification most visibly in mental labor in the chronic sense of work overload that has escalated over time (p.41).

Feiman-Nemser (2012) likewise has claimed that the student teaching experience can produce in student teachers “a utilitarian perspective where getting through the day... [is one of] the main priorities” (36). Given that student teaching is already uniquely demanding, to what extent will the TPA simply encourage teachers to “survive” – or, as we have seen, to sacrifice some parts of their teaching for others? To what extent will beginning teachers simply learn that, in teaching, “too much” will be asked of them? What costs do we as a profession incur if we overtax pre-service teachers in this way, at the onset of their careers?

Two specific aspects of the TPA, based on the data above, certainly require more attention. First, much attention has been given to the TPA document (tasks, prompts, and rubrics) and the scoring process, but surprisingly little attention has been given to the how teaching programs might have to restructure the student teaching experience as a whole to accommodate the TPA. Student teaching is a major teacher education structure, implicating multiple stakeholders, including districts, principals, mentor teachers, parents, and K-12 students. Yet, most programs like ours have been left to our own devices to “make the TPA work” with student teaching. Our program, for example, is currently in the process of deciding whether to shorten student teaching to allow time to write the TPA, have all candidates student teach half time, or lengthen student teaching. These are major decisions which will significantly impact stakeholders. Each option has serious pros and cons, and our answers to these questions will shape different conditions for completing the TPA. One question raised is about the very purpose of student

teaching, and the extent to which the development and training intended during student teaching can become overshadowed by this major assessment. We need, it seems, a more rigorous national conversation about the very structure and purpose of student teaching in light of a major assessment like the TPA – from which suggested and recommended models can emerge. Indeed, international insights on this question would be useful, particularly in light of the fact that student teaching, in Japanese pre-service teacher education, is given less emphasis than in the U.S..

Second, the role of the mentor teacher has not been conceptualized enough in relation to the TPA. Our survey data suggests that most mentors were “barely involved” with the TPA, for several plausible reasons. While a few mentors claimed that the TPA led to more substantive conversations, most indicated that the TPA had a negligible effect on their role. The relative absence of the mentor from the TPA raises important issues. For example, it suggests that the TPA itself has seemingly been conceptualized without the mentor teacher in mind, although mentor teachers play a significant role in the learning of student teachers (Brockbank & McGill 2006; Bullough et al 2008; Feiman-Nemser 2012, 2001; Orland, 2001; Valencia et al 2009). Feiman-Nemser (2012), for example, asserts that the mentor teacher plays a crucial role for student teachers, particularly by framing questions, modeling how to probe and extend candidate thinking, and prompting student teachers “to talk about reasons for their decisions and actions” (232). With the TPA, at least at this early stage, mentors seem to be understandably unsure of their role, but one potential problem in the future is how much mentors will feel the need to “step back” from the process to let the student teacher do the TPA “on their own.” To what extent will the TPA increase or decrease crucial interactions around teaching and learning? Will conversations between mentors and candidates be transformed substantively for the better, or in a more utilitarian fashion? Again, surprisingly little has been forthcoming about such questions. In some ways, mentors remain hidden players in this drama, reflecting again the relative invisibility of pre-service mentoring (Hamel & Jaasko-Fisher 2011), even within the teacher education community.

Finally, we must ask, what are the pros and cons of taking something like the TPA “to scale?” For some in the U.S., the TPA is on a trajectory to become a national assessment, where in theory every state will be using the TPA. Some see such an expansion as beneficial – creating a uniformity of high standards across the profession. Ironically, despite the American fascination with “the bigger the better,” our generous hosts in Japan are even more familiar and experienced with nationalized systems of curriculum and assessment. In this sense, you may be in a unique position to help American teacher educators see the benefits and costs of “going to scale.” For example, at least from an American perspective – and we are far less culturally homogeneous than Japan – creating a national assessment leads to predictable problems. One issue is that assessment loses its local character – the nuances and relationships that reflect a particular learning context, program, or even region. As some students at the University of Massachusetts have complained publically (Winerip 2012), a large-scale assessment like

the TPA can become a blind instrument disconnected from the unique conditions and teaching relationships that have shaped one's learning. They can be experienced as "corporate" rather than "communal" (Emdin 2008), producing in both students and teachers a set of distant and utilitarian attitudes. What might be the strengths of the TPA as a national assessment? What might be the problems? Today, I invite my Japanese and other international colleagues to draw on your experience to weigh in on these questions.

Conclusion

The Portland Japanese Garden is an impressive place. Whether it is "authentic" is a harder, more complex question. Similarly, the ambitiousness of the TPA is its strength and weakness. Social and political forces have pushed our profession to create a powerful assessment, and many of our most important values do emerge in the TPA – that teaching is reflective and intellectual activity, and that understanding students and reflecting on student learning is at the center of good teaching. But these same forces are also shaping something very big—something complex and multi-faceted, apparently burdensome for student teachers, high stakes, involved with a corporation (Pearson), something possibly national. The danger, as we take something to this size and scale, is that critical, local, and intimate dimensions of the work of teacher development can be lost, marginalized, or forgotten.

Questions we should continue to ask are:

- What is the relationship between learning to teach effectively and assessing effective teaching?
- What should the purpose of student teaching be in a teacher candidate's overall development?
- What kind of learning relationships do we want between student teachers and mentors?
- How can we keep the actual daily labor of teachers in mind in our effort to assure quality in the profession?

Is the TPA "assuring quality" or "overwhelming teachers"? The answer seems to be "yes." Our data suggests that the TPA is a work in progress. We in America may need the insights and reflections precisely from those outside of our American system – from an international group like this one today – to help us see whether we've gone a bit too big, and whether we are asking too much from those entering the teaching profession.

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APPENDIX A

Teacher Performance Assessment (TPA) *Assessment Components at a Glance*

Task 1: Planning Instruction and Assessment

- Provide relevant information about your instructional context.
- Select a learning segment of 3–5 sequential lessons that supports students in building conceptual understanding and content knowledge. Create an instruction and assessment plan for the learning segment, and write lesson plans.
- RESPOND TO COMMENTARY PROMPTS (10 pages maximum, single spaced) to explain what you know about your students and the thinking behind your plans. Prompts are found in TPA booklet.
- Make daily notes about the effectiveness of your teaching for your students' learning.

Task 2: Instructing and Engaging Students in Learning

- Video-record at least one lesson of your learning segment
- Video-recording must show an instructional conversation where you are engaging students in conceptual understandings
- Submit one or two clips that do not exceed 15 minutes in total.
- RESPOND TO COMMENTARY PROMPTS (5 pages maximum, single spaced) to analyze your teaching and your students' learning in the video clip(s). Prompts are found in TPA booklet.

Task 3: Assessing Student Learning

- Select an assessment task from the learning segment and identify evaluation criteria for this task.
- Analyze class performance (an entire class set) using the criteria.
- Identify three student work samples that illustrate trends in student understanding within the class.
- Analyze the learning of focus students in more depth, based on both work samples.
- RESPOND TO COMMENTARY PROMPTS (8 pages maximum, single spaced). Prompts are found in TPA booklet.
- Identify next steps in instruction based on your analysis.

Task 4: Analyzing Teaching

- RESPOND TO COMMENTARY PROMPTS (2 pages). Using notes you have recorded throughout the learning segment, explain what you have learned about your teaching practice and two or three things you would do differently if you could teach the learning segment over. Explain why the changes would improve your students' learning.

APPENDIX B

TPA Candidate Feedback Form

What was most valuable about the TPA process?

What was most problematic, frustrating, or least valuable?

What suggestions do you have for how the program might better support students with the TPA process?

What other comments do you have?

Mentor Online Survey Questions

1. How would you describe your awareness and understanding of the Teacher Performance Assessment (TPA)?

- ☐ I know nothing about the assessment (did not engage with it or was not involved)
- ☐ I am just learning about the assessment (heard about it at mentor orientation, have glanced at parts of the document, and/or have briefly talked about it with candidate)
- ☐ I have a moderate understanding and awareness (i.e. through reading the document, talking with candidate, and/or National Boards experience).
- ☐ Thorough understanding and awareness.

Other (please specify)

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2. How would you describe your role with the Teacher Performance Assessment (TPA) as your candidate went through the process this spring?

- ☐ Not involved at all
- ☐ Barely involved
- ☐ Moderately involved
- ☐ Highly involved

Other (please specify)

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3. To what extent did the inclusion of the TPA in the student teaching semester affect:

[illegible]

responsibility for
planning and teaching
subjects or sections

your ability to practice
co-teaching methods

☐☐☐☐☐☐

Other (please specify)

4. Describe any challenges or difficulties with the TPA this term.

5. Describe any positive impact of the TPA on the student teaching term this semester.

6. Which description best captures your feelings about hosting a future teacher candidate during the completion of their TPA?

- ☐ Now more than ever it is important that I host a candidate
- ☐ The TPA did not impact my thinking about future mentoring
- ☐ Somewhat, I am still thinking it over
- ☐ I do not plan to host another candidate because of the TPA
- ☐ I will wait to decide whether to host another candidate until the TPA is fully understood
- ☐ Not sure

Other (please specify)

7. Did your candidate have a positive impact on the students in your classroom?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Not sure

Other (please specify)

8. Which best describes your overall assessment of your candidate's readiness to be an effective first year

teacher? (your response will NOT be factored into any evaluation, nor will it be shared with a candidate)

- ☐ Will exceed expectations for beginning teacher (highly accomplished)
- ☐ Solid foundation in knowledge and skills for effective teaching
- ☐ Acceptable level to begin teaching effectively
- ☐ Some skill but needs more practice to be a teacher of record
- ☐ Will struggle, not ready to teach
- ☐ Not sure

Other (please specify)

9. What suggestions do you have that would help us improve the student teaching experience for you, as the mentor teacher?

10. Is there anything else you would like to share about your experience as a mentor teacher this semester?

National Policies on Assuring Teacher Quality: The Case in Korea

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Introduction

Korea's education system is based on the 6-3-3-4 ladder structure. Compulsory education at middle school level has been implemented in rural areas since 1985, extended at last to the entire country in 2002. Recently teacher education reform has been a hot issue in the Korean education. The Korean government has tried to change the teacher education policy to raise school teachers' competence. Teaching profession in South Korea is a stable occupation with relatively abundant free time. Teacher as a job is favored by many young people and adolescents because all school teachers are supposed to retire at 62 years old. Major paths of teacher training are somewhat different for each type of teacher. Most of elementary school teachers are trained by 10 universities of education across the country. Secondary school teachers are trained through several divisions: colleges of education, department of education in comprehensive universities, teacher education courses in comprehensive universities, and graduate schools of education. Teachers are employed by regional authorities. After graduating from the teacher education institutions and thereby acquiring the teacher certificate, a teacher candidate has to pass the teacher employment examination administered by metropolitan or provincial offices of education in order to be a teacher. Being a teacher is so competitive that many applicants from universities of education are apt to fail to pass the teacher employment examination.

The Government believes that teachers' expertise is closely correlated with the satisfaction of students and parent. Accordingly, the government has conducted national teacher evaluation, with students and parents' participation, to build up teachers' professional capacity. Teacher evaluation involves students, parents, peer teachers and principal.

National Assessment of Educational Achievement

The government of Korea emphasizing students' academic achievement implemented the National Assessment of Educational Achievement (NAEA) and opened the results of the assessment to the public. According to the NAEA results, schools with a significant number of underachieving students are designated as "creative management schools for academic improvement." The government supports the selected schools with intern teachers for learning assistance, special

supplementary lectures, and teaching materials to guarantee that every student meets the standard for basic academic skills. Purposes of the NAEA are divided into four: first diagnosing the educational achievements of elementary, middle and high school students and the trends of the achievements systematically and scientifically, second, providing basic reference data of improving a curriculum by analyzing the degrees of students' achieving educational goals of the curriculum and checking the problems of the embodiments of the curriculum in the classroom, third, improving the teaching and learning methods and produce basic data used to set up a learning encouragement policy by analyzing assessment items and the relationships between achievements and background variables, last guiding the schools toward better assessment methods by developing and utilizing new and appropriate assessment methods

Teacher Evaluation

The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST) is implementing teacher evaluation nationwide. Teacher's Union and teacher's associations have tried to resist the government policy. However, public opinion including parents' voice supported the government policy criticizing the teachers' resistance as egoistic action. Eventually teachers accepted the evaluation policy with MEST's promise that the results of the teacher evaluation will not be opened to public.

After the evaluation, teachers with poor results receive supplementary training that is tailored to their needs, while teachers with high performances are given opportunities for personal research or education at universities and relevant institutions at home and abroad for them to upgrade their expertise. Currently 50 teachers are enrolling the teacher training program at Gyeongin National University of Education for their sabbatical year. They are attending college and graduate courses while implementing independent research individually.

Teachers with professional expertise can later obtain the leading position at schools through the open principal recruitment system. They can also be designated as Master teachers- a title given to teachers who are recognized for their professional excellence. These teachers' give consultation to peers and develop and distribute effective teaching methods.

Teacher Promotion

Development of Teacher Education (2011) and Policy for Teacher Promotion (2004) have been implemented for the change from hierarchical and year based promotion system to teachers' competence based system by Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (MEST). The minimum year for promotion to school principal was reduced from 25 years as a teacher to 20 years.

Additionally job as school principal was opened to not only vice principal but also competent teacher or outside person by open recruit system for it.

The positions of teachers are divided into teacher, vice-principal, and principal. Many teachers seek promotion to become school administrators. Teacher promotion is so competitive that it is decided based on various sources of evaluation, including length of service, performance score, research achievement, and the bonus points for various educational activities.

Discursive Questions

- Is other country also experiencing the teacher education reform like the Korean educational change?
- What are the advantages and the disadvantages of teacher evaluation policy?
- How would the teacher evaluation policy influence on teacher education?

National Policies on Assuring Teacher Quality: The Case of Thailand

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Introduction

One of the major problems in Educational Management of Thailand as a cause of big Educational Reform in 1997, was the problems regarding to the teachers as well as Educational Staffs. Those problems were the problems from the production, usage, development, and maintenance in teaching professional standard. Consequently, the Constitution of Kingdom of Thailand 1997, Section 81, also enacted the provision for teaching profession development. In addition, in National Education Act 1999, Section 9 (4), enacted the provision to include principles for enhancing the professional standard of teachers, instructors, and Educational Staffs continuously which were important rationales in specifying guidelines for teaching professional development as a part of Educational Reform in Thailand.

Teacher's Quality Development

The teacher's quality development consisted of following guidelines:

1. The system and process of production and development for teachers, instructors, as well as Educational Staffs was organized with quality appropriately for being higher level of Vocational Education, obtaining readiness and strength in preparing new staffs, and in-service staffs regularly, and establish the fund for developing the teachers, instructors, and Educational Staffs.
2. The control and maintenance of standard in teaching professional practice by establishing the teaching professional organization, and teaching professional council were organized, to be responsible for determining the teaching standard, certifying and getting back the professional license, and developing the teaching profession, school administrators.
3. The central organization for staff management of official teachers was organized. The teachers and Educational Staffs from both of Educational Work Unit in public school level, and Educational Service Area Level were the government officials under jurisdiction of central organization for staff management of government officials based on principle of decentralization in staff management into the Educational Service Area, and Educational institutions.

4. The laws of salary, revenue, welfare, and other fringe benefits were enacted for the official teachers as well as Educational Staffs so that they would obtain sufficient income appropriate with their social and professional status.
5. The funds enhancing teachers, instructors, and Educational Staffs were set up for allocation as the grant for creative work, excellent performances, and honorable award for teachers, instructors, and Educational Staffs.
6. The Educational Work Units united the human resources to participate in Educational Management by applying the persons' experience, expertise, skillful, and local wisdom to be useful for Education as well as providing honor and respect those who enhanced and supported the Educational Management.

Teaching Professional Standards

The guidelines for implementation as the above especially the control and maintenance of professional standard, were determined in implementation for the first time teaching profession. The professional standards were specified for giving as well as taking back the professional license, controlling, and monitoring the practices based on standards, and professional code of ethics as well as professional development.

Teaching Professional Standards were the regulations regarding to the desirable characteristics and quality needed to be occurred in teaching profession. Those who performed the teaching profession had to bring professional standard as rationale for teacher council teaching profession as the Teaching Professional Organization based on the Teacher Act 1945 which determined 3 aspects of teaching professional standard as:

1. Standards of Knowledge and Professional Experience.
2. Standards of Work Practice.
3. Standards of Conduct.

Standards of Knowledge and Professional Experience specified as follows:

1. Bachelor's Degree in Education as certified by Professional Council or
2. Bachelor's Degree in other academics or professions, and the study in Education or Professional Training in Education not less than 24 credits.
3. Experience in teaching in schools which were certified by professional council as well as being evaluated one's teaching practice based on specified criteria by professional council.

Standards of Work Practice consisted the criteria of teaching professional standard certified by teaching council (The Teachers Council of Thailand) including 12 standard criteria as follows:

- Standard 1: Practice the academic activities in teaching professional development regularly.
- Standard 2: Make decision in practicing different activities by considering the potential effect to be occurred with students.
- Standard 3: Persist in developing the students with full potentiality.
- Standard 4: Develop the lesson plan for being able to be effective.
- Standard 5: Develop the instructional media to be efficient throughout the time.
- Standard 6: Organize the instructional activities by focusing on the students' sustainable effect.
- Standard 7: Report the findings of students' quality development systematically.
- Standard 8: Behave oneself as role model for students.
- Standard 9: Collaborate with the others in school creatively.
- Standard 10: Collaborate with the others creatively in community.
- Standard 11: Search for and use the information and news for development.
- Standard 12: Create opportunity for students to learn from every situation.

Standards of Conduct were based on teacher' code of ethics specified by professional council (The Teachers Council of Thailand) in the present time as follows:

- 1) The teachers had to love and be mercy for students by caring, supporting, and encouraging them in studying equally.
- 2) The teachers had to teach, train, practice, develop knowledge, skill, good habit of good teachers for their students with full competency and sincerity.
- 3) The teachers had to behave themselves as role model for the students in physical, verbal, and mental aspects.
- 4) The teachers should not behave themselves against the students' physical, intellectual, mental, emotional, and social development.
- 5) The teachers should not take advantage from students such as money in practicing duty, or asking the students to do things for their benefit dishonestly.
- 6) The teachers should develop themselves in professional, personality, and vision in order to keep pace with development of technology, economic, social, and politics regularly.
- 7) The teachers should love and be faith with their teaching profession as well as be good members of teaching professional organization.

- 8) The teachers should help and support the other teachers and community creatively.
- 9) The teachers should behave themselves as leaders in conservation and development of wisdom and Thai Culture.

Teaching Professional Standards were major principles in determining the characteristics of those who would have their right to obtain the teaching professional license, or renew the teaching professional license. Those persons who would receive the teaching professional license needed to have the above characteristics based on teaching professional standards.