

**The 21st Annual Conference
of the
Japan-United States Teacher Education Consortium
(JUSTEC)**

Proceedings

**September 17-20, 2009
University of Hawaii at Manoa Campus
Honolulu, Hawaii**

December, 2009

The 21st Annual Conference of the Japan-United States Teacher Education Consortium (JUSTEC) was convened at the University of Hawaii-Manoa in Honolulu, Hawaii, on the dates of September 17- 20, 2009. Forty-five participants from various universities in Japan and the United States were in attendance, offering paper presentations, panel discussions and poster sessions. In addition, conference attendees participated in community-based activities that included an education-related tour of a local school, an eco-tour of the island of Oahu, and a cultural experience culminating in a private luau provided by the University of Hawaii-Manoa College of Education.

The Japan-U.S. Teacher Education Consortium (JUSTEC) was established in the late 1980s to foster joint research efforts into teacher education issues of mutual interest in both countries. Throughout the years since its inception, JUSTEC has continued to hold annual gatherings of teacher education professionals in alternate locations in the U.S. and Japan. Participation is open to university administrators and faculty, PK – 12 educators, and graduate students. Questions and active discussion are encouraged as part of the presentations.

For the JUSTEC 2009 Annual Conference, a call for proposals was disseminated focusing on the following topics:

1. Teacher Education Issues in Japan and U.S.A.—Topics relating to teacher quality, teacher learning, teacher license renewal system, and pedagogy. Specific topics proposed must be relevant to both sides.
2. Collaborative Research—Topics relating to research and projects recently completed, in progress, or proposed between Japan and U.S. educators. Specific topics proposed must be relevant to both sides.
3. Professionalism of Teaching—Topics relating to accountability, professional development, merit pay, teacher retention, teacher or student stress, mentoring, use of technology in teaching, and evaluation of educator preparation programs. Specific topics proposed must be relevant to both sides.
4. Diversity in the Classroom—Topics relating to multicultural considerations, second language learning, teaching immigrant groups, and gender differences in learning. Specific topics proposed must be relevant to both sides.

The JUSTEC Governing Board members extend our heartfelt thanks to the University of Hawaii-Manoa College of Education, which served as the conference host, and to Dr. David Ericson, Arrangements Chair, for their hospitality and organization of the conference.

Sincerely,

The JUSTEC Governing Board

Ruth Ahn, California Polytechnic University – Pomona

Kensuke Chikamori, Naruto University of Education

David Ericson, University of Hawaii-Manoa

Mario Kelly, Hunter College, City University of New York

Chie Ohtani, Tamagawa University

Yumiko Ono, Naruto University of Education

Hideki Sano, Tokyo Gakugei University

Jane Williams, Middle Tennessee State University (editor, *Proceedings*)

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JUSTEC 2009 Program
September 17-20, 2009
Hawaii Imin International Conference Center
University of Hawaii-Manoa
Honolulu, Hawaii

September 17 (Thursday)

1:00 – 5:00pm Registration and JUSTEC 2010 Planning
 Asia Room, Imin Int. Center, 177 7 East West Rd

2:00 – 3:30pm Panel Presentation-Asia Room

“Seeking a New Framework of Initial
Teacher Education, Professional Development,
and Evaluation for Secondary School EFL
Teachers in Japan.”

Hisamura, Ken (Den-en Chofu University),
Masachika Ishida (Seisen University), Hiromi
Imamura (Chubu University), Mika Ito (Tokai
University), Tsuneo Takanashi (University of
Hirosaki)

Coffee and Tea Break

4:00 – 5:00pm Presentations – Asia Room

Kelly, Mario, Hunter College, City University
of New York
“Assessing Teachers’ Ability to Integrate
Technology into Teaching”

Ohshiro, Tomoko, Okinawa International
University, and Kyoko Hijirida, University of
Hawaii at Manoa
“Current Issues in Japanese Language
Teacher Teaching Practica: A Case Study of
University of Hawaii and Okinawa International
Education”

5:30 – 7:30pm Reception and Conference Welcome
Place: TBA
Hosted by Dean Christine Sorensen, College
of Education, University of Hawaii at Manoa

September 18 (Friday)

8:30 – 11:30am Presentations – Asia Room

Ahn, Ruth, California State Polytechnic
University, Pomona
“Preliminary Analysis of Qualitative Changes in
Pre-service Teacher Reflection Using the
Electronic Discussion Board”

Sano, Hideki and Yuan Xiang Li, Tokyo Gakugei
University
“Children’s Behavior Problems and University
Student Volunteer Work at Schools”

Elliott, Bianca, Linwood, Kansas
“Voices from the Classroom: What Japanese
Teacher Have to Say about a United States
Generated Effective Teacher Survey”

Coffee and Tea Break – 10 – 15 Minutes

Greenland, Felicity, Bukkyo University
“Traditional Songs and Singing in EFL”

Higashiyama, Hiroko and Kiyoharu Hara,
Bukkyo University
“Teachers’ License Renewal System in Japan”

Ohtani, Chie, Tamagawa University
“Problems with the Use of ALT’s for English
Teaching in Japanese Elementary Schools”

11:30am – 12:30pm Lunch – Place TBA

12:30 – 4:00pm **School Tour** – Bus Departs from Imin Center

6:00 – 8:30pm Lu`au Dinner – John Young Museum Grounds,
Krause Hall, UH-M Campus

September 19 (Saturday)

8:30 – 11:30am Presentations – Asia Room

Panel Presentation

Sakai, Shien, Chiba University of Commerce,
Akiko, Takagi, Osaka Kyoiku University, Yoichi
Kiyota, Meisei University, and Natsue
Nakayama, Maebashi Kyoai Gakuen College
“Improving Students’ Learner Autonomy in
Japanese Educational Settings”

Coffee and Tea Break – 10 – 15 minutes

Tanabe, Clifton, University of Hawaii at Manoa
“Educating Homeless Children in Hawaii: The
Kaleuati v. Tonda Case and Its Implications”

Chikamori, Kensuke, Naruto University of
Education, Fred Hamel, University of Puget
Sound, Carol Merz, University of Puget Sound,
Yumiko Ono, Naruto University of Education,
and Jane Williams, Middle Tennessee State
University
“Planning and Teaching Lessons in a Japan-U.S.
Cross-Cultural Teacher Education Exchange:
The Lesson Component of the Friendship
Project”

Sakamoto, Akemi, Kio University, Shiyo Sakamoto, Shitennoji
University, and
Amanda Lippert, Punahou School
“The Effect of an Intercultural Student Teaching
Project that Utilizes Information Communication Technology”

11:30am – 12:30pm Lunch – Place TBA

12:30 – 1pm Poster Session – Asia Room

Nakamura, Akira and Yoichiro Sagara, Chiba
University of Commerce
“A Study on the Relationship between Learner
Autonomy and Academic Grades”

1:00 – 5:00pm Recreational Tour – Bus from Imin Center

Dinner on Your Own

September 20 (Sunday)

9:00am – 12:00pm Presentations – Asia Room

Kelly, Charles, Fayetteville State University
“The Rise of Analytical Performance
Management in Predicting Student Success
in Teacher Education”

Lee, Steven, California State University,
Stanislaus
“Perceptual Difference between Intern Teachers
and University Supervisors on the Expectations
and Effectiveness of Fieldwork/Student
Teaching”

Takahashi, Kiriko, Kelly Roberts, and Hye-Jin
Park, University of Hawaii at Manoa
“Improving Reading Skills and Facilitating Web
Browsing for Students with Learning
Disabilities Using Text to Speech Software –
Results of Studies in the U.S. and Japan –
Implications for Future Joint Research”

Coffee and Tea Break – 10 – 15 Minutes

Matsuoka, Ryoji, University of Hawaii at Manoa

“Inequality Left Behind in Japanese Policy Debates: A Case Study on Mandatory English Education at Public Elementary Schools”

Patmon, Denise, University of Massachusetts, Boston

“The Multiple Faces of the Classroom: Using Endo Shusaku’s Literary Face Theory as a Theoretical Framework for Classroom Based Research and Teacher Reflection”

Helfeldt, John, Texas A&M University and Betty Helfeldt, College Station Independent School District and Texas A&M University

“Evaluating a Full-Time Urban Teacher Internship Program: Focusing on Teacher Quality and Rate of Retention”

12:00 – 1:00pm Lunch and Closing Comments – Place TBA

1:00 – 3:00pm JUSTEC Business and Planning Meeting

Seeking a New Framework of Initial Teacher Education, Professional Development and Evaluation for Secondary School EFL Teachers in Japan

A Panel Presentation

Ken Hisamura, Professor, Den-en Chofu University (dzj01411@nifty.com); Masachika Ishida, Seisen University (imth8788@ga2.so-net.ne.jp); Hiromi Imamura, Chubu University (imamura@isc.chubu.ac.jp); Mika Ito, Tokai University (mikaito@keyaki.cc.u-tokai.ac.jp)

The prime presenter first overviewed some features of teacher education in Japan and explained the two different questionnaire surveys conducted in 2008 by the SIG on English Education of Japan Association of College English Teachers. Next, Prof. Ishida suggested the inherent challenges of ITE by using the first survey results among the ITE providers. After that, Prof. Imamura, Prof. Ito, and the prime presenter provided some major findings regarding factors necessary for teacher education reform in Japan, in-service English teacher training and assessment, and EFL teacher professional competencies respectively based upon the second survey results among the local authorities.

1. ITE (By Prof. Ishida)

The ITE educators in Japan are facing the following three challenges. The first one is to examine the focus of content in the TEFL courses. There has been no agreement among the ITE educators as to the core content areas to cover in “TEFL methodology course,” since its areas are so diversified with so many things to be trained. The second challenge is to make English language proficiency a prerequisite for registering for the methodology course and teaching practicum, which the pre-service students must complete by the time when they are accredited with a teaching certificate. The current system of issuing a teaching certificate rather generously should be drastically changed by setting minimum standards for these fundamental components of teaching English. The third challenge is to integrate “theory and practice,” mainly through collaborative partnerships with local schools in the community.

2. Factors necessary for teacher education reform (by Prof. Imamura)

The 13 items considered important by the majority of in-service English teachers in the previous survey regarding the license renewal system are judged acceptable by the local education authorities. This indicates that such factors as “Standardizing professional competencies and teacher evaluation based on classroom teaching” and “Structuring and implementing a flexible framework of professional development” are crucial to teacher education reform in Japan.

3. In-service English Teacher Training and Assessment (by Prof. Ito)

The results and data analyses suggest that the in-service teacher training carried out by the education boards vary widely. However, there are some shared perspectives or criteria for CPD among the education boards. For example, the majority provide regular training held every year

at the training centers and on-site training using demonstration lessons and/or class observations at own school while the items concerning the improvement of pedagogical competencies, such as action research, were deemed more appropriate for individual training. It is worth noting here that about 60% of the education boards do not have any partnership or relationship with local universities, indicating that many universities produce teachers but they are rarely involved in PD for teachers. There are also some shared opinions among the supervisors that teachers' competence stages are correlated with teacher training programs; learning fundamental teaching methodology and skills for novice and/or apprentice teachers, and learning materials, international understanding, counseling skills and assessment for practitioner or mentor teachers. As for assessment, in-school training is perceived as most feasible by more than half of the education boards, such as regular demonstration lessons, portfolio containing a check list of self-assessment, training record and reflection, and action research.

4. Competence Stages of English Teachers (by Prof. Hisamura)

The 22 question items were elaborated by referring to previous survey results and self-assessment descriptors in the EPOSTL (European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages) in order to explore the possibility of developing competence benchmarks for each stage: Novice, Apprentice, Practitioner, and Expert or Mentor. The results and data analyses show that 12 of them are appropriate descriptors of competence stages: four for Novice, five for Apprentice, and three for Practitioner. However, no items are regarded as appropriate for Expert or Mentor. This indicates that the notion of competence stages or professional competence is shared to some degree by superintendents and that more awareness of professional competence and more refinement of descriptors are necessary in order to define satisfactory professional competence stages.

5. Conclusion

5.1 Is it possible to establish a national appraisal framework of English teachers?

For In-service English Teacher Training: (1) On-site training should be maintained as a PD activity, (2) A close partnership between universities and local boards/schools should be built to improve teacher training system, and (3) The notion of four competence stages should be incorporated into the potential designs of the training programs.

For Assessment of PD training: Self-directed PD is necessary to plan a systematic appraisal system by combining practical teacher training and appropriate assessment.

5.2 Is it possible to develop a set of guidelines or dimensions for ITE programs and CPD for EFL teachers?

To make this possible, we will have to continue our research in two ways at present: to elaborate the band of self-assessment descriptors for EFL student teachers and disseminate it among teacher-production institutions and local authorities, and to refine the competence benchmarks stage by stage and promote greater awareness of professional standard(s) among practicing teachers and stakeholders.

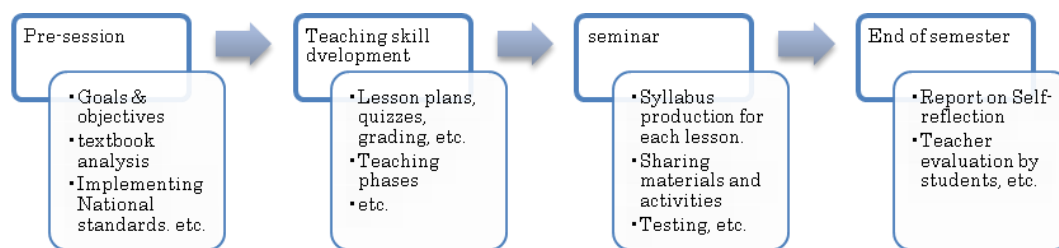
Current issues in Japanese Language Teacher Teaching Practica: A Case Study of University of Hawaii and Okinawa International University

Kyoko Hijirida, University of Hawaii (hijirida@hawaii.edu); Tomoko Oshiro, Okinawa International University (tomokoo@okiu.ac.jp)

In this presentation, the strengths and issues of the Japanese Language Teacher Training(JLTT) at University of Hawaii and Okinawa International University were discussed in order to improve the training program sat both institutions.

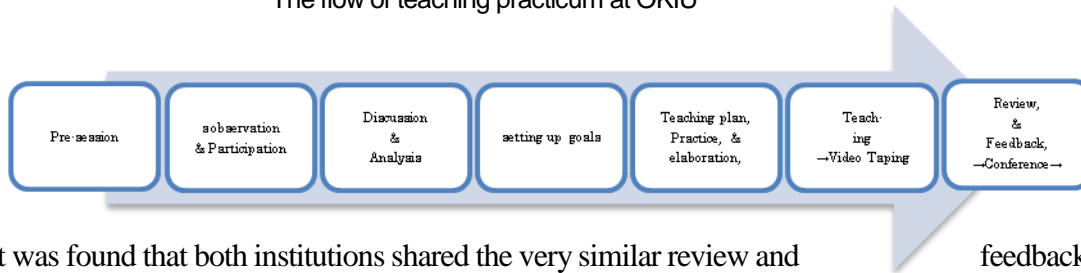
It has been about 10 years since the American National Standards in foreign language learning have been implemented in the U.S.A. and the Educational Content for Japanese Language Teacher Training (JLTT)were implemented in Japan. As for the National Standards, the Five Cs (communications, cultures, connections, comparisons, and communities) was comprised as content guides in language teaching. The JLT Practicum at University of Hawaii has been implemented the guideline as it's foundation. Whereas JLTT course at Okinawa international University employed the guideline suggested in the 1985. However, in 2000, based on more diverse needs of JL learners and of circumstantial change, new guideline was demonstrated. This suggests that the diversity of Japanese language education needs the teachers who have the quality, ability and knowledge, which can work with new demands in Japan. The new guideline has been developed comprised of five components (social aspect/culture/local area, language and society, language and psychology, language and education, and language usage). JLTT program at OKIU has been improving the program content to meet the criteria.

First, the flow of the current UH teaching practicum and OKIU teaching practicum including goals, curricula, syllabi, content and teaching skills development method, assessment, issues and so forth, were compared and verified as shown in the diagrams.



The flow of teaching practicum at UH

The flow of teaching practicum at OKIU



It was found that both institutions shared the very similar review and feedback points such as “clarity of teaching objective” “Appropriateness of instructional tools and materials” “Effective classroom activities” “Attentiveness to individuals” and others to improve student teaching skill.

Next, what is the practical teaching ability needed was discussed based on the observation of teaching practicum at UH and OKIU comparatively. Then it was concluded that the desired teaching ability differs according to whether the Student Teachers (ST) are native Japanese language speaker or non-native, or where ST teaches, in what circumstances they teach, who they teach and etc. Some of the different needs for practical teaching ability were; for non-native student teacher, to brush up more Japanese Language ability and to increase the quantity of Japanese language use in the classroom were some of the issues to work on, and for native ST, to brush up English as the language of instruction and get to know more about American classroom culture with more Assertiveness are some of the issues. But there were common issues for both non-native and native Japanese language ST. They were to have more knowledge about Japan & Japanese, to have more interaction between students to students, and to practice more effective solicitation of student production. At the same time, the very basic teaching ability as below can be shared among native or non-native at anywhere in any circumstances.

They are as follows:

- Ability to choose necessary items and to present
- Leadership to conduct class
- Ability to gather information
- Ability to cope with troubles
- Knowledge to assess, technology
- Specific knowledge about Japanese language(phonetics, orthography, grammar, etc.)
- Broad knowledge about history, law, etc. of Japan.
- Ability to understand /adapt to/different culture and society, and understand your own culture, etc.

Lastly, how to bridge the gap between current program content and societal needs was discussed focusing on job opportunity, which is becoming more challenging for those students of Japanese teaching programs in both countries

Children's Behavior Problems and University Student Volunteer Work at Schools: Focusing on Children from China

Yuan Xiang, Li, Tokyo Gakugei University (yuanxiang364@gmail.com); Hideki Sano, Tokyo Gakugei University (sano@u-gakugei.ac.jp)

In the 80s, the Japanese government planned to accept 100,000 foreign students. In the 90s, other types of people such as foreign laborers, and people in international marriage started coming to Japan. The number of children of minority decent suddenly increased but Japanese schools were not ready for it. Japan had little experiences in accepting immigrants and its schools had no special teachers for foreign children. Teaching methods and materials were made on trial and error base. In order to grasp the situation, the government started a survey on Japanese language education for foreign children. The Table1 shows the number of minority children in Japanese schools over the past two years. The figure1 shows the number of foreign children who need Japanese language education in 2008. They are grouped by their mother tongue. Portuguese 11,386, Chinese 5,831, Spanish, 3,634 and others, 7,724. The portion of top three languages is about 70%.

Table1. The Number of Foreign Children Who Need Japanese Language Education in Japan (Ministry of Education and Science July,2009)

School Level	2007	2008	Increment
Elementary School	18,142	19,504	7.5%
Junior High School	5,978	7,576	26.7%
Senior High School	1,182	1,365	15.5%
Middle School?	25	32	28.0%
Special Education School	84	98	16.7%
Total	25,411	28,575	12.5

*The Number of Japanese Nationals who need Japanese Education
2007: 4,383 → 2008: 4,895 (11.7% Increase)

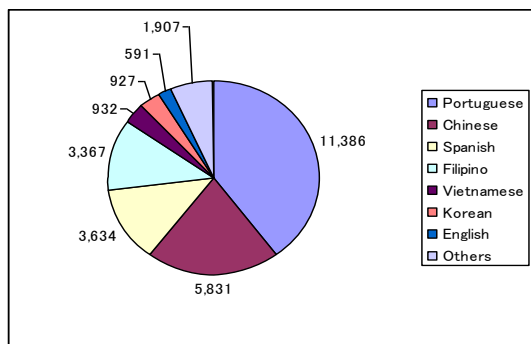


Figure1. Number of Children Who Need Japanese Language Education by Mother Tongue

In the past, Japanese language education is the central task for newly arrived children. Recently, guidance for higher education is also an important task. However, due to such reasons as unstable employment for foreigners and possible relocation, foreigners' lack of knowledge about schools in Japan, and its educational system, some foreign children are not getting the kind of educational instruction they need. On the other hand, because of their low basic ability in the Japanese language, mathematics, English, and science, some children cannot pass high school admission tests. Even if they are admitted, many drop out of school because of a lack of adequate support or personal maladjustment. 97% of Japanese children go to high school, where as only 50% of foreign children in Japan do.

There are about 5,800 Chinese children living in Japan. Their parents have a variety of visa status, such as war orphans, laborers, student visa and spouse visa by marriage. Often, the children lived away from parents. In recent years, because some Chinese remarry to Japanese, their children have new and challenging family environments with cross-cultural conflicts. Many parents with less than enough Japanese language skills do not know enough about Japanese schools and its education systems. It is only when their children come that they find out how difficult it is to educate children in Japan. Japanese school start in March, whereas Chinese schools start in June. Children who finish junior high schools or are older than 15 years of age are not admitted to Japanese junior high schools, nor can they pass the difficult exams necessary to enter high school, which is selective, not compulsive.

From their arrival, children with low ability easily feel helpless about learning because of the language barrier in addition to differences in school subjects. Due to complex family environments such as unstable parents' visa status, children cannot receive proper support from their parents. They face culture shock and future uncertainty. Moreover, schoolteachers are not able to support psychologically and study. Children who could not adjust to the new environment, lose self-confidence, become internet-dependent, depressed, refuse to go to school, and exhibit anti-social behaviors.

Although educational support for foreign-born children is an urgent task, it is very hard for busy teachers to guide and support them. Most qualified supporters are people who understand the child's cultural background and mind and can give care to them. Few people like this exist. In order to solve this problem, we must consider options as to "who can help as well as when and how." One approach started several years ago to help lessen this problem was to have Chinese college students lend support to the Chinese children. These students teach Chinese children at public schools or NPO schools as volunteers. Their main activities of support are in the area of Japanese language learning, translation in classrooms, and counseling. Depending on the necessity, they help bridge the communication gap among teachers, children and parents.

College students share their culture and educational background with children and easily form close relationships. Many children are open with these students. In turn, the volunteer students can discover psychological problems and learning difficulties. Thus, Chinese students can help teachers improve their teaching methods.

Even though students are very valuable, their support must be done under supervision: student volunteers must follow rules and teachers' directions and not make their own judgments. Students encounter a variety of tasks and situations at school, for example, corroborating with teachers, students' privacy, difficult cases, time, and others. It is important not to withhold information about the problem and always report to the teacher

and supervisor. The student volunteers attend case conferences and confer with college advisers.

Foreign students, as a mentor, can give courage and hope by helping language learning and cross-cultural living. On the other hand, for college students who mainly study and part-time work, this kind of volunteering is a social act or contribution that can help the volunteer grow.

Traditional Songs and Singing in EFL

Felicity Greenland, Bukkyo University (felicity.greenland@gmail.com)

This paper presents the findings of recent research and observation at a number of Japanese universities, schools and workshops. Based on these findings, this paper advocates use of traditional songs and singing in EFL teaching, not only on grounds of cultural and linguistic content, but also for the observed beneficial effects on affective filters, community bonding, student confidence and perceived relevance of EFL.

Research Methodology

In situations 1 and 2 below, students returned open feedback forms. These underwent content analysis to identify key themes and provide a grounded theory base for further research. General observation notes were made in situations 1-5. (* = university classes)

1. Regular EFL classes* (9x15 wk courses): one song - supplementary activity (n=263)
2. Lecture/workshop* (one-off): folk songs of UK and US (n=102)
3. Correspondence EFL course* (2-day intensive): songs as supplementary activities
4. English in Elementary Schools (pilot project): songs as supplementary activities
5. Public singalong workshops (*uta goe kissa*)

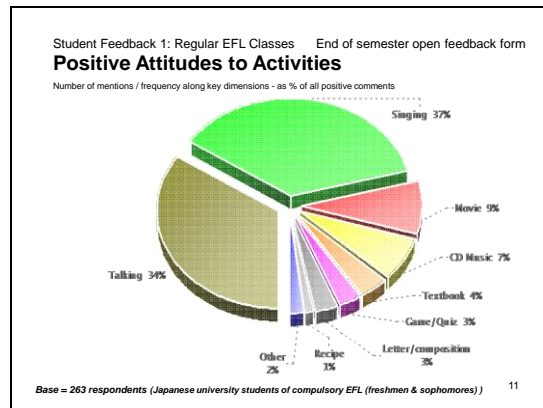
Findings: Student Feedback 1: Regular EFL Classes

Student Feedback 1: Regular EFL Classes End of semester open feedback form

Content Analysis

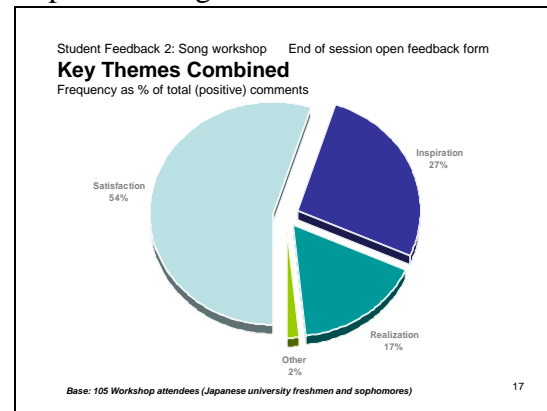
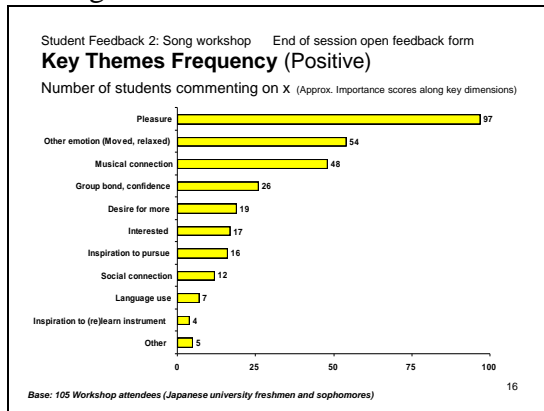
POSITIVE / LIKES	DISLIKES/SUGGESTIONS
1. ACTIVITIES/TOPICS 128% of students commented on x I SINGING 46% II TALKING 44% III MOVIES/TV 11% IV CD MUSIC 9% V TEXTBOOK 5% VI GAMES/QUIZZES 4% VII OTHER 9% VIII HOMEWORK 0%	1. ACTIVITIES 33% I SINGING 1% II TALKING 11% NONE III TEXTBOOK 8% NONE IV OTHER 1% I HOMEWORK 12%
2. STYLE/ATMOSPHERE 51% Enjoyable, friendly, relaxed Teaching approach	4. STYLE/ATMOSPHERE 8% Be more strict Student chatter
3. PRACTICAL ASPECTS 44% Useful, Relevant, Interesting Well taught	2. PRACTICAL ASPECTS 24% Level - Difficult (Easy) Unclear
4. OTHER 3%	3. OTHER 13% Timing College organization, Classroom

Base = 263 respondents (Japanese university students of compulsory EFL (freshmen & sophomores)) 10



Content analysis on 263 end-of-semester open feedback forms from nine regular EFL courses revealed that singing one song had been a (for some courses, the most) popular activity and a highly memorable part of the 15 week semester. The percentage of students in a class mentioning the song in their positive feedback ranged from 67% to 23%, with some suggestion of correlation with year and major (to be followed up). As well as acting as a linguistic and cultural vector, the act of singing appeared to benefit relationships between students, and between students and teacher, thus facilitating both student and teacher enjoyment of EFL classes and lowering students' affective filters.

Findings: Student Feedback 2: Lecture/workshop - folk songs of UK and USA



Content analysis on 105 end-of-session open feedback forms revealed ten key themes ranging from simple ‘pleasure’ (mentioned by 97 students), through making connections with other musical knowledge (48), to wanting to (re)learn a musical instrument (4). Themes were combined into four groups and represented as a proportion of the total positive comments (there were no negative comments) with the following results: satisfaction (64%), inspiration (27%), realization of connections (17%), other (2%). On average, students each reported two different expressions of satisfaction from singing, along with 0.6 and 0.3 frequencies for inspiration and realization respectively.

Conclusions

Music is known to impart physical and neurological benefits such as relaxation and improved concentration/retention (‘the Mozart effect’). Quite aside from linguistic or cultural content-value, pop music is a popular tool with students and teachers, in lending atmosphere, pace, and ‘street cred’ to EFL. We call these EFL applications ‘activities’, but they are often passive and consumerist. The research in this paper finds that traditional songs and active singing afford additional benefits over simply listening to pop. Active singing stimulated participation and creation, bonding and empowering diverse groups of learners, including nervous and struggling students. Individual silence was broken under the melodic shield, resulting in comfortable L2 vocalization, and self-affirmation. Learners made links between songs (and thus EFL) and other aspects of their lives. All these contributed to reduction in affective filters. As a postscript, the social value of this repertoire and skill for students may be mentioned, as well as the benefits of including teacher-reality in the classroom.

Problems with the Use of ALTs for English Teaching in Japanese Elementary Schools

Chie Ohtani, Tamagawa University (chie@edu.tamagawa.ac.jp)

English education is always a topic of discussion in Japan. However, since the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) will make English education activities compulsory at Japanese public elementary schools beginning in 2011, the topic of English education has become an even more popular and controversial.

In 2002, the MEXT released the Rainbow Plan as the educational reform plan for the 21st century. The purpose of the Rainbow Plan is to establish a system in which Japanese students would become functional in English within a five years period. In preparation, many Japanese schools have been working hard since 2002 to establish new systems, develop curricula, and acquire human resources to accommodate the educational reform plan.

Pushed by the Rainbow Plan, more than 97% of public elementary schools have already started English activities through the integrated study class *Sougouteki-na Gakusyu-no-jikan* in 2007. Currently the purpose of English education activities in elementary schools is to increase “international understanding.” Therefore native English speaking Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) are dispatched to public elementary schools by local governments to assist in these activities. The MEXT promotes utilizing ALTs and over 80% of English activity periods at elementary schools used ALTs (MEXT, 2008).

However, despite the fact that ALTs are valued as integral to MEXT’s educational reform, many ALTs report that they have been isolated or excluded from lesson planning because of poor communication and the lack of input from Japanese teachers. Furthermore, many Japanese teachers have found problems team teaching with ALTs because they feel that some ALTs are not really interested in teaching. Clearly there are a number of problems with the current ALT system that need to be addressed.

ALT issues are often discussed in English Education or Team Teaching studies, but this study focuses on the ALT system and the reality of using ALTs at Japanese schools. In addition, this study focuses on the JET (Japan Exchange and Teaching) program because the JET program has originally started the ALT system (supported by local authorities in cooperation with the council of local authorities for international relations and three governmental ministries since 1987). In concrete terms, this study examines ALT qualifications, the training system, and the role expectations in the JET program. In addition to the close examination of the JET program and ALT system, this study also examines cultural sensitivity at elementary schools in order to critically analyze English activity at elementary schools from the point of international understanding and cross-cultural understanding.

Data for this study were based on secondary surveys of ALTs and on in-depth interviews and e-mail exchanges conducted by this researcher with JET ALTs and Non-JET ALTs (ALTs not hired from the JET program) from February to March in 2009.

The data suggest critical problems with how ALTs are utilized. First, the JET program does not require any educational teaching experience or qualifications for their

ALT eligibility criteria. For less experienced ALTs there is only one staff development training for team teaching. Another systemic problem is an inconsistency between the JET program schedule and the school calendar. In addition, contradictions between the expected role of the ALT and the reality of the situation at schools are found. As for the Japanese school site problems, ALT teachers tend to feel isolated at school because many teachers are not willing to work with ALTs because of the language barrier. The low level of English/Japanese communication skills only allows for minimum, simple communication that tends to cause misunderstanding and isolation of ALT teachers. Consequently, many lessons are conducted without sufficient communication between Japanese teacher(s) and an ALT teacher. This lack of English communication skill affects the content and structure of English educational activities in the classroom. I contend that unless these problems are addressed, the quality of English activities in the classroom will suffer at the expense of the children and schools who have high expectations to be functional English speakers.

Improving Students' Learner Autonomy in Japanese Educational Settings

A Symposium

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The symposium was presented by four speakers. First, Prof. Sakai overviewed the research on the relationship between learner autonomy and English language proficiency of Japanese university students conducted by him and Prof. Takagi. Following him, Prof. Kiyota spoke on how to motivate students to study English. Then, Prof. Takagi talked about teacher autonomy for teachers which should be autonomous when they help their students improve autonomy. Finally, Prof. Nakayama discussed how the mentoring program worked in order to enhance teacher autonomy by looking into the case of Arizona State. Then implications towards Japanese education system through the mentoring program were made.

1. Relationship between learner autonomy and English language proficiency of Japanese learners

Shien Sakai, Chiba University of Commerce

The present study investigates the relationship between learner autonomy and English language proficiency of Japanese students from various universities. Specifically, the following objectives was addressed: If 721 students from 16 universities are divided into three levels according to their score in a vocabulary test, what differences in perceptions regarding responsibility and autonomy do students have among these three groups?

After conducting factor analysis several times, the students' features of three groups were obtained. The top students are autonomous learners. The intermediate students are not independent users of English outside the classroom, but can be seen as learners in their classrooms. The poor performers remain dependent learners under teachers' direction.

Under each nation's educational system, learner autonomy has developed in its own way. However, in the end, various developments will converge on Holec's definition (1981), for there are many autonomous learners who have been educated in the Japanese educational setting.

2. English Learning Motivation of Japanese University Learners for Developmental Education Related to Self-esteem

Yoichi Kiyota, Meisei University

In Japan, students who cannot keep up with English lessons in their universities have become a problem. A lot of universities have started to work on English developmental education in order to improve their English ability. However, considering their long-term unsuccessful experiences in English learning, attention should be paid to the problems of learning motivation and attitudes at the same time as improving proficiency. If the learners have been influenced negatively in their self-esteem through

long-term English learning at school, it is necessary to design teaching lessons in relation to the learners' general self-esteem.

As a result of the investigations, correlation was recognized between English learning motivation factors and self-esteem factors. This suggests that it is necessary to enhance learners' self-esteem in conducting English developmental education and not merely improve their basic knowledge and skills.

3. How to develop teacher autonomy in EFL context

Akiko Takagi, Osaka Kyoiku University

Clearly, teachers play an important role in promoting learner autonomy, and teacher autonomy seems to be precondition for fostering learner autonomy. However, there is little empirical research on teacher autonomy in EFL context. In order to find out some implication for future study regarding development of teacher autonomy in pre-service and in-service teacher training, I conducted intensive literature review on the definition of teacher autonomy as well as links between teacher and learner autonomy. Defining teacher autonomy is an easy task, but we have to keep in mind that there are at least six dimensions on teacher autonomy as Smith (2003) points out. Especially, fostering capacity for self-directed professional development has a strong impact on developing students' learner autonomy and negotiation, critical reflective inquiry, dialogue, and empowerment will be key terms in development of teacher autonomy in teacher education.

4. A Study on Mentoring System at Northern Arizona University and its Implications to Japanese Teacher Education

Natsue Nakayama, Maebashi Kyoai Gakuen College

There are some researchers who explain the teachers' role is important in promoting students' autonomy. However, if a teacher did not have a concept of autonomy or has never received such training, we could easily imagine it would be very difficult for the teacher to lead learners to become autonomous. Then, what would be necessary to promote teacher/learner autonomy?

One answer will be training on meta-cognitive strategy of the teachers. Good mentors would help them learn the abilities more smoothly. However, in Japan, we do not have the concept of how to train mentors.

This March, we visited Northern Arizona University (NAU) to observe the role of mentor in teacher induction program (TIP). Through the visit we found that (1) TIP includes many aspects to enhance meta-cognitive strategies of the beginning teachers, and (2) the mentor plays an important role in enhancing them. Therefore, the purpose of this presentation is to (1) report about this mentoring system in NAU and (2) to make some implications towards the Japanese teacher education system.

Planning and Teaching Lessons in a Japan-U.S. Cross-Cultural Teacher Education Exchange: The Lesson Component of the Friendship Project

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The Friendship Project (FP) is a joint project of one Japanese university and two American universities. Project activities encompass annual exchanges of teacher education students and faculty members in weeklong visits to both countries. While in the partner country, the teacher education students teach lessons in a local school, participate in home stays with local families, and experience various aspects of the national and local culture. These activities are collaborative in nature and promote understanding of education-related issues not only among the exchange students but also among the participating professors. The FP has been an on-going project since 2004.

Across the years of the project, the collaborating researchers have collected data from students relating to their reactions to the immersion experiences in the other culture and have reported results of these data at previous JUSTEC seminars. At the 21st JUSTEC, the researchers presented plans for an additional research focus: the lessons the FP teacher education students teach at the local schools in the host country. The FP researchers presented a preliminary plan for the new research focus and invited responses and advice from the JUSTEC participants.

The preliminary research plan, to be summarized in the presentation, is as follows:

1. The rationale for conducting lessons in local host country schools
2. A brief description of lessons that have been taught over the years, including
 - The objectives and content of the lessons (data source: students' lesson plans)
 - Patterns of similarity and difference among the lessons provided by the Japanese and U.S. sides (data source: students' lesson plans)
 - FP teacher education students' perceptions on what they learned from teaching the lessons in the other culture (data source: written and oral reflections of FP students)
 - The processes of lesson planning/preparation at the home university prior to the exchange visit and FP faculty support during planning and implementation of the lessons in the host country
3. FP faculty members' learnings as a result of the planning and implementation of the lessons
4. A discussion of the processes to be considered that will capture the above learnings/perceptions
 - The central question of the research?
 - The research framework?
 - The data sources?

- Data analysis techniques?

This new focus is in the planning stage. Discussion of the above issues during the presentation served as an “incubator” of various methodology-related ideas from the expertise of the JUSTEC participants.

Implications of Findings for the Educational Community in Japan and the U.S.: The ultimate goals of this phase of the FP research are:

- (a) to learn from our students about what was best in the FP activities to enhance the “first contact” practicum experiences teacher education students receive in their own communities by using FP model/ideas/methodology/what worked best in creating more culturally responsive novices and
- (b) to better design and plan curriculum in schools of education that promote culturally responsive teaching in beginning teachers
- (c) to learn about essential differences and similarities in how U.S. and Japanese teachers plan for instruction in the host countries in order to expand possibilities in our ways of conceiving lessons

The Effect of Intercultural Student Teaching Project that Utilizes Information Communication Technology

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The presentation reported on a research project whose purpose was to examine the educational effects of an online intercultural student teaching project.

The online intercultural student teaching project took place between April 22 and April 24, 2009, as a partial requirement for a Music Pedagogy course at a teacher-training program at a university in Nara, Japan. Six groups of college students enrolled in the course, three to seven students per each group, participated in the project. Each group planned and taught a lesson on traditional Japanese music to elementary school students in Hawaii. Internet-based free videoconferencing software called Skype was used for the lessons. Each side used a PC with a microphone, video camera and projector attached to it. The image from the other side was shown on a large screen by means of the projector. Table 1 below shows the teaching objective (musical element) and materials (songs) each group had chosen for their lesson.

Table 1:

Group	Teaching Objectives	Teaching Materials
A	Japanese pentatonic scale	<i>Daruma-san, Nabe-nabe, Tanko-bushi</i>
B	Japanese pentatonic scale	<i>Genkotsu-yama, Otera-no Osho-san</i>
C	<i>Kobushi</i> (Japanese singing style similar to vibrato)	<i>Soran-bushi, Nabe-nabe, Amagi-goe</i>
D	Japanese pentatonic scale	<i>Daruma-san, Agarime Sagarime, Nabe-nabe</i>
E	Japanese pentatonic scale	<i>Daruma-san, Nabe-nabe</i>
F	<i>Kobushi</i> (Japanese singing style similar to vibrato)	<i>Soran-bushi, Sakura Sakura, Nabe-nabe, Amagi-goe</i>

Each lesson was video-recorded. The recordings were later used in reflection sessions where all the students enrolled in the course, including those who had not participated in the actual teaching, watched the recordings, wrote comments in a questionnaire and had discussions based on the written comments. The written comments have been collected and the discussions have been recorded for analysis.

The analysis of the data has shown that the online intercultural student teaching project had positive effects in terms of raising students' awareness towards their teaching techniques because of its problem-solving nature. Although the students had had some experience in practice teaching in other pedagogy classes, their experience had been limited to teaching peer college students pretending to be elementary school children. Compared to such peer-to-peer practice teaching experience, the online intercultural student teaching project placed restrictions on the teaching techniques the students have

been relying on, in addition to providing experience in teaching actual elementary school children. The restrictions mentioned in the written and oral comments have fallen into the following three categories: (1) the language of instruction was not their native language, (2) the elementary school students did not share the same cultural background, and (3) the internet-based video conferencing system allowed only limited interaction with the elementary school students.

(1) Language of instruction

98% of the students have made comments relating to this category. Although the students have studied English for 6 years, none of them had had much experience in using English in oral communication and lacked confidence in their English competence. Typical comments in this category are “We revised the visual aids several times in order to make sure that the children would understand the Japanese scale without much verbal explanation,” “We made our instructions and directions as short as possible because we couldn’t memorize them,” and “We had to think hard what was really necessary to teach and what was not because we wanted to limit the amount of verbal instructions.” The most common solutions taken by students were (a) using visual aids, mentioned by 86% of the students, (b) minimizing the amount of verbal explanation, mentioned by 68% of the students, and (c) focusing on the teaching objectives, mentioned by 52% of the students.

(2) Different cultural background

32% of the students have made comments relating to this category. The students had to teach foreign children living in a foreign country and it made them wonder how much knowledge they can assume that the children would have. Typical comments in this category are “We thought *Ocharaka* would be a nice and fun song for teaching Japanese scale, but realized that it would be too difficult because the children might not be familiar with the game,” “I’ve never realized that this simple song had so many culturally-laden aspects,” and “It was difficult to imagine how the children would feel when they listened to this song because they might not share the same feeling towards cherry blossoms.” The most common solutions taken by students were (a) doubting the knowledge that they took for granted, mentioned by 28% of the students, and (b) not selecting materials that might be too culturally-laden and required much explanation, mentioned by 18% of the students.

(3) Limited interaction

86% of the students have made comments relating to this category. There was a time lag between each utterance and the response because of the distance. Although the video camera used in Japan was capable of zooming in and out, the video camera used in Hawaii was built into the PC and the students were only able to see the children at a fixed distance. Typical comments in this category are “It was the first time I realized how much information I was getting from just being in the same classroom,” “We tried to ask as often as possible if they really understood what we were saying because we couldn’t see their reactions well,” and “I tried to focus on each child as much as possible because it was very difficult to tell if there were some confused children.” The most common solutions taken by students were (a) making frequent comprehension checks, mentioned

by 82% of the students, and (b) wait for the teacher in Hawaii to help out, mentioned by 46% of the students.

The above-mentioned restrictions have forced the students from the planning stage to reconsider and revise their teaching techniques, some of which they had taken for granted and had not been consciously aware of. According to their comments, it made them realize the importance of focusing on the teaching objectives when making lesson plans (34%), using non-verbal communication such as visual aids and gestures (78%), thoroughly studying the materials (62%), monitoring students' understanding (74%), and paying attention to individual students (32%). Although the importance of such points have been taught in various courses in the teacher training program, it seems that the immense impact of the experience of the online intercultural student teaching project helped considerably in raising their awareness. Considering the fact that only four weeks of teaching practicum is being required to earn an elementary school teacher's license in Japan, it can be expected that raising students' awareness on such aspects of teaching before the practicum will have a strong positive effect.

A Study on the Relationship between Learner Autonomy and Academic Grades

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Objective

The present study investigates the relationship between learner autonomy and English language proficiency of Japanese students from one university. Specifically, the following one objective was addressed: How does the level of autonomy influence the relationship between English proficiency, cognitive strategy use, and self- efficacy?

METHOD

Participants

The participants were 454 freshman aged between 18 and 20 years (363 male and 89 female), whose majors are commerce, economics, or management in a private university.

Measures

The questionnaire was composed of three scales: self-efficacy, cognitive strategy use, and learner autonomy. Question items of self-efficacy and cognitive strategy use were from Motivation Strategies for Learning Questionnaire [MSLQ] which was originally made by Pintrich and De Groot (1990) and Mori (2004) translated it into Japanese. We used some items out of Mori's translation. As for learner autonomy, we used some of the revised version of Sakai et al. (2008). English proficiency was measured by Mochizuki Test, which is frequently used in Japan to measure students' vocabulary size.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Analysis of each scale

The scale of cognitive strategy use seemed to contain some aspects. Therefore, in order to analyze the construction of this scale, factor analysis with the promax rotation was applied. Three factors were extracted with reference to scree plot in addition to Kaisere's criteria (eigenvalue > 1).

The three items loading on Factor 1 seem to involve the usage of the knowledge the students already had, hence this factor was labeled "application of the knowledge". Factor 2 consisted of five items which reflected repeated practice, and this factor was named "rehearsal". Factor 3 revealed an underlying theme of metacognitive strategies, so this factor was labeled "metacognitive strategy." Subscale scores were computed for each of the three factors by summing the items in the scale. Internal consistencies of each scale were assessed by Cronbach's coefficient alpha. The obtained coefficients were satisfactory, so the reliabilities of these scales were confirmed.

Relationship between self-efficacy, cognitive strategy use, learner autonomy, and English proficiency

Self-efficacy correlated positively with cognitive strategy use, and learner autonomy. On the other hand, the correlations between English proficiency and the other scales were weak ($r(454) = -.054 \sim .181$). These results indicated that use of cognitive strategy was related with high self-efficacy, but not with English proficiency.

Comparison between High autonomy group and Low autonomy group

For the purpose of making categories, the subjects were ranked into five categories according to their degree of learner autonomy. Each group consisted of almost the same number of subjects. The relationships among the English proficiency, cognitive strategy use, and self-efficacy were analyzed in the highest level of learner autonomy (AH – group, Autonomy score ≥ 31 , $n = 70$, Table 2) and the lowest (AL – group, learner autonomy score ≤ 21 , $n = 111$, Table 1), respectively. In both groups, self-efficacy was not correlated with English proficiency significantly. As for cognitive strategy use, application of the knowledge did not correlate with English proficiency and self-efficacy. Rehearsal was correlated with self-efficacy, though not with English proficiency. These results suggested that frequent use of rehearsal strategy was related with high self-efficacy, however it did not always lead to good English performance. The difference between the AL – group and the AH – group was observed in the results of metacognitive strategy. In both groups, metacognitive strategy was positively correlated with self-efficacy. On the other hand, metacognitive strategy was positively correlated with the English proficiency in the AH – group, though not in the AL – group. This means that the students with low learner autonomy: the use of metacognitive strategy does not always link with high performance, the students with high autonomy: the use of metacognitive strategy lead to good English performance.

Many Japanese students try to repeat and do rehearsal when they study English subjects. However, the obtained results suggest that the rehearsal strategy has a strong relationship with self-efficacy, but does not contribute to students' performance. Similar phenomena are seen as to metacognitive strategy, but only in group with low learner autonomy. When students with high learner autonomy make efforts in using metacognitive strategy, they succeed. In conclusion, students with poor performance in English as a foreign language should improve learner autonomy as well as acquire metacognitive strategies.

Table 1. Relationships among self-efficacy, cognitive strategy use and the English performance in AL – group

	Self - efficacy	Application	Rehearsal	Metacogniti ve
English performance	.13	.09	-.06	.15
Self – efficacy		.18	.28**	.51***

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Table 2. Relationships among self-efficacy, cognitive strategy use and the English performance in AH – group

	Self - efficacy	Application	Rehearsal	Metacogniti ve
English performance	.13	.09	-.01	.26*
Self – efficacy		.16	.37**	.59***

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

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Improving Reading Skills and Facilitating Web Browsing for Students with Learning Disabilities using Text-to-Speech Software – Results of Studies in the U.S. and Japan – Implications for Future Joint Research

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Two studies were highlighted on the use of Text to Speech (TTS) software by individuals with learning disabilities (LD) and discuss implications for future joint study by the U.S. and Japan. The empirical research conducted in Hawai'i looked at the use of TTS software as a tool for improving unaided reading comprehension and vocabulary of high school students with LD. The study conducted in Japan analyzed the effectiveness of added features to the existing IBM Easy Web Browsing (EWB) software by individuals with LD.

Many poor readers, who have LD, exhibit slow and effortful word decoding (Lundberg, 1995; Torgesen, 1998). Such “lower-level” decoding problems lead to poor comprehension of written materials. This is a definitive area of concern for students with LD both in the U.S. and in Japan.

TTS software, a computer based assistive technology, has become a familiar tool to access print for students with visual impairments in many countries. In fact EWB is one of the many TTS software initially developed for people with low vision and senior citizens. Now, TTS has become an emergent tool for students with LD, AD/HD, and other cognitive disorders. Several studies in the U.S. and in Europe have attested to the immediate impact of TTS use on reading comprehension and skills, but how well the impact is sustained for students with LD has not been thoroughly investigated. In Japan, this type of study on TTS is still limited.

In Hawai'i TTS study, data (Woodcock-Johnson III scores and independent use of the software) was collected at three time points over one academic year in two high schools that have different demographic, economic, and academic standings. The data was analyzed by general linear model-repeated measures using SPSS, and orthogonal polynomial transformation was chosen in transforming the within-subject factors into linear and quadratic variables to examine a trend of the observed measures. Results of this study showed TTS software has significant influence on unaided vocabulary building, but not on reading comprehension.

In Japan study, qualitative study was conducted on the effectiveness of EWB functions. One-on-one interviews were conducted with individuals with LD based on trial use of the EWB software. The results of the interviews were analyzed and matched with specific processing deficits. The functions found most helpful by individuals with LD were reading out loud, line ruler, colored overlay, and improved line spacing for both English and Japanese text. Specific to Japanese text, the furigana function and function to add spaces between words were identified as most helpful in comprehension and readability of the text.

One possible joint research is to implement EWB software for students with LD in Hawai'i and compare whether specific functions identified as most effective by individuals with LD in Japan will also be found most effective by students in Hawai'i. Data collected can also be analyzed to see whether use of one specific function improves vocabulary and reading comprehension more than other functions.

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Inequality Left Behind in Japanese Policy Debates: A Case Study on Mandatory English Education at Public Elementary Schools

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Mandatory English classes called “foreign language activities” will be implemented at all public elementary schools from an academic year of 2011 in Japan. Fifth and sixth graders will receive about one period of mandatory English education per week. This case study will discuss this policy from the perspectives of the opportunity gap, which is a major important issue for educational policy debates in the United States.

Supporters of this mandatory English education policy are business community, general public, English education industry, academic societies in English Education and MEXT (Otsu, 2004). Their main argument is that Japanese should be able to communicate in English because of the intensifying globalization and its effects. Most opponents seem to be some professionals in teaching English and professors in social sciences, especially linguistics. Professor Otsu, majoring linguistics, actively opposes the policy. He edits three books and publishes one book about the policy. Otsu and his colleagues argue that teaching English to elementary pupils is not only meaningless but also harmful. Their discussions can be classified into five main arguments: a shortage of capable teachers, meaningless and negative effects on pupils’ English ability, multilingualism, falling academic standards in Japanese, cutting other subjects. Neither side mentions the opportunity gap based on social categories like social class. Kariya (2001) argues that discussing inequality on educational achievement has been avoided in Japan because merit system in schools is considered as discriminative education, while inequality based on social stratum in achievement has consistently existed in the postwar period.

An indication of the achievement gap based on social class differences can be seen at the elementary school level as the learning opportunity gap intensified by private education market called “shadow education.” Benesse (2007), the biggest private company in K-12 correspondence education in Japan, conducted a basic survey about English education in 2006. The data suggests that mothers with higher educational background are more likely to send their children to take English lessons in the shadow education industry. In addition, private elementary schools that require expensive tuition also offer English lessons as parts of their curricula. This private sector also seems to contribute the opportunity gap.

Considering the opportunity gap of studying English due to shadow education and private schools, the policy seems to give some opportunities to pupils without any opportunity because of their low social classes. The mandatory English lessons may prepare these pupils for doing well in English course at the middle school level. As some opponents of the policy may argue, the thirty five periods of the activities may be insufficient to narrow the opportunity gap, but these activities could benefit pupils without any opportunity outside of public schools if the quality of teaching is comparatively high. Therefore, teacher education and professional development programs for elementary school teachers in English education are expected to prepare student

teachers and the current teachers for teaching effective English classes so as to weaken the effect of the opportunity gap.

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The Multiple Faces of the Classroom: Using Endo's Literary Face Theory for Critical Teacher Reflection

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Born out of the work of Endo Shusaku, late Japanese author, his Face Theory was originally designed to help Japanese writers and readers analyze character roles in fiction. The role of literature in Japan may serve the purpose of eliciting conversations about “hard subjects” through the voices and experiences of characters in stories, unlike the role of literature in the west. The protection of family honor is so critical in this cultural context that talk about intimacy beyond the family about personal challenges is absolutely off limits. Endo argued therefore, that the Japanese novelist has a particular responsibility to provide readers with opportunities to gain various perspectives about any one issue from the experiences of characters in their stories to serve as a springboard for inquiry and discussion of real life problems and conditions. Hence, Endo proposed that this literary character analysis be done through the exploration of four major faces that we all don at different times throughout our lives.

Having learned this theoretical construct from Endo-san when he was alive, this researcher has since used this paradigm to assist teachers in reflecting about their classroom practice and pedagogy throughout the United States through her involvement as a leader in the National Writing Project at the University of California/Berkeley and specifically at the University of Massachusetts/Boston with teachers from schools in the Greater Boston area. The purpose of this study was to investigate the application of this Japanese construct with teachers in the United States from a variety of geographical areas and have used Endo's lens to look and re-look at their classrooms in the teaching of writing. The researcher's hypothesis was that teachers from around the United States could better focus deliberate teaching once aware of what already exists in their classrooms.

Theoretical Constructs – On Face Work

The research of Moffett and Britton were the cornerstone theories of the teaching of writing. The 3 basic areas of expressive, transactional, and poetic writing encompassed the non-traditional genres in composition theory for the purposes of this study. In addition regarding research about face theory in the west, Nisbett (2003) posits that “East Asians are supposed to be less concerned with personal goals or self-aggrandizement than are Westerners. Group goals and coordinated action are more often the concerns. Maintaining harmonious social relations is likely to take precedence over achieving personal success.” Goffman (2001) suggests that “Face is defined as the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact. Face is an image of the self, delineated in reference to approved social values.” Rodriguez (1999) underscores the importance of masking the face in purporting that, “Masks are socially constructed disguises that veil the self. The mask allows one to be seen precisely by hiding oneself behind the institutional face.” Finally Anzaldúa (1990) states that “Face is the surface of the body that is the most noticeably inscribed by social structures. We are written all over – carved and tattooed

with the sharp needles of experience.” Western researchers have thought deeply about the importance of face and power in society. We in the West have much to learn from scholars in the East. Too often the Western paradigm of meaning making dominates the conversation. The application, analysis and synthesis of Endo’s Face Theory to western teachers were another purpose of this study. Professional development and helping teachers take an inquiry stance in establishing a teacher centered learning community was an outgrowth of the use of Endo’s theoretical construct.

TEACHER POPULATIONS: N = 120 teacher practitioners; K-12 classrooms, licensed teachers

Time Period – 2000-2008; Specific Geographic Areas of Teachers’ Classrooms: MA, RI, CT, CA, TX

Endo’s Face Theory

Outside Face – The face we don to the external world; the face we use to negotiate our way through life on a day to day basis

Inside Face – The face we don to those with whom we are intimate

Pure Face – The self-reflective face that only you see

Unknown Face – The face that is inside of us that only reveals itself under extraordinary circumstances

PATMON’S ADAPTATION OF ENDO’S FACE THEORY

“With Different Languages and Cultural Lens” - Reflective Teaching/Classroom Practice Worksheet

OUTSIDE FACE – What does a visitor notice/observe/sense about my school/classroom and the promotion of teaching once s/he enters the environment?

INSIDE FACE – What do my students and I recognize about our teaching/learning environment that is unknown to the outsider’s eyes?

PURE FACE – What do I alone see about my classroom and the promotion of teaching and learning in direct relation to my student population?

UNKNOWN FACE – What might be a true surprise to learn about teaching and learning in my classroom in relation to my distinct population of children? What new risk(s)/strategies might I try in order to best serve this population?

OBSERVATIONS

As a direct result of experiencing Patmon’s Adaptation of Endo’s Face Theory, individual teachers from around the United States designed the classroom inquiry projects. A sampling of four such projects are:

1. How can I create a community of listeners in my classroom in order to foster language development and higher level thinking skills?
2. In what ways does communication/interaction differ with less verbal children as opposed to verbal children?
3. Is it fair to try to measure a preschooler’s understanding of story time narratives, or is it better simply to accept their enjoyment, engagement, comments about, and build upon the concepts and vocabulary of stories at other times of the day?

4. How do we assess language progress across grade levels?

Such inquiry projects provided teachers and in some instances school faculty with a deeper level of examination of classroom practice leading to change in one's teaching and an improvement in learning. Teachers' voices about their learning and findings are: "It was the outside face of my classroom that conflicted with the inside face that brought about a change towards more rigor, criticism, and explicit focus on equity."

"Endo's Face Theory requires multiple points of view on one's work. Face Theory work allows us to stand in different places at different times to look at our work which must constantly change as it remains the same."

"I was afraid of telling the truth – it was like a confession to a Catholic priest in a confessional box. How far was I going to be allowed to tell the truth [in my responses to the Face Theory key questions]?"

"Face Theory work can transform a classroom to see with new lenses."

"It makes you stand in a different place to look at your work."

"I'd like to do this exercise more consistently. It was affirming and surprising."

"The Face Theory is easily adapted to help students analyze characters in literature. It really helped me teach character analysis."

"It gave me a new paradigm for thinking about and new language for talking about the culture of relationships and classroom teaching."

"It gives us an expanded view of what a writing project can do to align work with a desire for change."

"It's a powerful tool that invites conversation about how we [as people] do not have a unified vision/understanding. We bring ourselves, our backgrounds, cultures and experiences to our views. We actually present ourselves in different ways to different people."

"It invites a variety of voices into the classroom."

IMPLICATIONS

Relationships are at the core of effective teaching and learning. Examining those relationships through the lens of diverse perspectives that is platformed through the use of Endo's Face Theory provides teachers with opportunities for reflection and professional development. Outcomes of this study suggest that:

1. U.S. teachers (K-12) are open to learning non-Western theories and approaches to teaching and learning and are starving for such knowledge.
2. Teachers are eager to take an inquiry stance to deepen their pedagogy and are guided by tools to help them perform classroom based research of their practice.
3. Classroom based protocol for teachers, developed in the U.S. based on Japanese literary theory reflects the globalization of education in today's times.

CONCLUSION

While western thought dominates most literary tradition and ways of knowing in the world, the adaptation of Endo's Face theory locates professional development for teachers K-16 in Japanese literary tradition – a shift in thinking. Is Endo's Face Theory applicable to K-12 teacher reflection in Japan?

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Evaluating a Full-time Urban Teacher Internship Program: Focusing on Teacher Quality and Retention

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Introduction and Background Information

While a highly qualified teacher in every classroom is an entitlement for *every* child, as well as a cornerstone of “No Child Left Behind”, this essential educational goal has been set in the midst of a nationwide teacher shortage, which is exacerbated in our nation’s urban schools, as teachers leave these schools at a 30% higher rate (Ingersoll, 2001).

The high teacher turnover rate contributes to a loss of cohesiveness, continuity and community that are essential to high performing schools (National Commission on Teaching for America’s Future, 2003). It also negatively impacts the quality of teaching, as individuals do not stay in the profession long enough to develop the skills and dispositions required to become expert teachers. There is a growing body of evidence indicating a direct relationship between teacher quality and student achievement (Darling-Hammond, 2001). In addition to human capital, it is estimated that \$7.34 Billion dollars are spent in the U. S. to hire, recruit, and train teachers to replace those who retire, change schools, and leave the profession (Barnes, Crowe, and Schaefer, 2007). Within the past few years, much attention has been given to induction programs that make extensive use of assigning experienced teachers to mentoring new teachers. Smith and Ingersoll (2004) and others have reported the positive impact that comprehensive induction programs can have on lowering teacher turnover rates.

Program Description and Rationale

The internship program is based on a partnership between a university and six urban area school districts. Unlike other teacher internship programs described in the professional literature describing various means of sharing classroom responsibilities with other interns or mentor teachers, the interns in our program serve as the teacher of record, while they assume full teaching responsibilities, and earn approximately 80% of a first year teacher salary. Each intern received intensive support from varied sources. They became a member of a cohort group of 5-6 interns, with an assigned full-time mentor who was a teacher with a Master’s degree, and 5 years of experience. The interns were also members of an electronic learning community that participated in university facilitated video-conferences and Blackboard-vista discussions.

Program Results

The interns manifested significant increases in their self perceived levels of readiness, self-efficacy, and confidence as a teacher. The interns were also assessed by school administrators using the Professional Development and Assessment System (PDAS), a state endorsed instrument. Overall, the group of interns was ranked high within the proficient range in each of eight major teaching domains. The results are summarized in the table below.

PDAS Teaching Performances of Interns

Year/Domain	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Score Range	12-19	23-36	15-24	20-33	15-24	9 -15	9 -12	23-36
Proficient Level								
1 st Year Mean	17.93	33.43	21.87	30.34	24.15	15.11	11.59	34.54
SD	3.81	4.90	4.90	7.33	4.50	3.24	2.71	5.81
2 nd Year Mean	19.88	34.44	23.76	31.80	24.64	15.45	11.50	36.00
SD	3.41	5.97	4.72	5.86	4.46	2.91	2.35	5.53
3 rd Year Mean	19.45	35.65	23.76	32.45	25.94	16.48	11.48	35.21
SD	2.87	4.99	4.24	4.90	3.95	2.63	2.28	5.77
4 th Year Mean	19.07	34.93	23.63	31.11	25.48	15.78	12.26	38.07
SD	3.05	6.01	3.89	5.91	4.58	3.21	2.57	7.09

The intern turnover rates were lower than the teacher turnover rates for the schools in which they completed their internship. For the first year of the internship program, for example 84% of the interns returned to their schools to teach for their second year. During this same time, 65% of the teachers in these schools returned to teach in these schools the next year.

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Educating Homeless Children in Hawaii: The Kaleuati v. Tonda Case and Its Implications

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The United States Supreme Court has determined that the Constitution does not require that individuals receive a free public education.ⁱ In the U.S. Supreme Court case called *Plyler v. Doe*, Justice Brennan states, “[p]ublic education is not a ‘right’ granted to individuals by the Constitution.”ⁱⁱⁱ However, he goes on to qualify this harsh statement when he writes, “but, neither is [public education] some governmental ‘benefit’ indistinguishable from other forms of social welfare legislation.”ⁱⁱⁱ In fact, Justice Brennan asserts that education has a fundamental role in “maintaining the fabric of our society.”^{iv}

The tension between the idea that education is a privilege rather than a right, and the idea that education carries a special importance for individuals and society, is reflected in our nation’s continuing struggle to provide all children, *and especially homeless children*, an adequate education. This troubling issue is the focus of this paper. Specifically, this paper addresses two basic questions; 1) what is the primary legal remedy for homeless children seeking an adequate education, and 2) how has this remedy been pursued to advocate for the educational well-being of children in Hawaii?

In addressing these questions, this paper begins with a brief description and analysis of the federal McKinney-Vento Homeless Assistance Act. The analysis focuses on the strong language of the Act and the specific ways in which it seeks to address the problems faced by homeless students. For example, key issues such as transportation and bureaucratic hurdles are addressed in the Act with language that mandates school districts to insure that such hurdles do not prevent homeless children from attending school. Beyond this, the analysis in this paper points to two key problems with the Act. The first is that the Act amounts to a severely underfunded mandate. Even with recent increases in funding that came as part of the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009, the amount of funding pales in comparison to the needs it seeks to remedy. The second problem is with language in the overriding No Child Left Behind Act that raises the possibility of a litigation limitation to enforcing the provisions of McKinney-Vento.

Next, this paper focuses on a specific case centered on McKinney-Vento, in which the problem of a litigation limitation was not addressed. The case took place in Hawaii and is called, *Kaleuati v. Tonda*. After a brief description of the case and the plight of its homeless plaintiffs, this paper looks closely at the settlement agreement hashed out between the state and the plaintiffs before the court could make its final decision.

Ultimately, this paper seeks to show that homeless children and families in Hawaii, as well as the rest of the nation, face a number of debilitating barriers to receiving an adequate education and that while the available legal remedies to these barriers have offered some relief, they are not without problems.

ⁱ San Antonio Independent School District v. Rodriguez, 411 U.S. 1 (1973); Plyler v. Doe, 457 U.S. 202 (1982).

ⁱⁱ Plyler v. Doe, 457 U.S. 202 at 221 (1982).

ⁱⁱⁱ *Id.*

^{iv} *Id.*