

**TEACHER EDUCATION FOR TEACHING ENGLISH
AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE
TO CHILDREN IN JAPAN**

by

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ABSTRACT

The Course of Study which was introduced in Japanese elementary schools in 2002 prescribed English as a foreign language (EFL) activities as a part of international understanding in the “Period for Integrated Study”. By 2008, EFL will be a required subject in Japanese elementary schools. This thesis discusses some of the context and methodology that will be needed to train in-service teachers at Japanese elementary schools so that they will be able to teach EFL despite overwhelming difficulties.

Japanese teachers participate now in teacher professional development in various workshops. However, the Japanese centralized top-down way of teacher professional development occasionally contradicts the “Period for Integrated Studies” policy to develop diversities, creativities, and self-organization in students. The relation between in-service teachers and teachers’ colleges is very weak in Japan. Hokkaido University of Education (HUE) is no exception. HUE will need to establish programs for in-service teacher education to meet teachers’ needs and their own personal educational goals for continuous training. This thesis describes a program that could provide in-service teachers with the opportunity to take programs according to their individual needs and desires in “Negotiated Lifelong Study Plans”. Lifelong education is clearly the key to a

teacher's acquisition of appropriate teaching practices. I argue for a general conceptual framework for addressing some of the teacher professional development needs of elementary school teachers in Japan by means of a modified Activity Theory model provided by the Finnish social scientist Yrjo Engeström (1999) so that teachers may acquire skills and prerequisites to successfully teach EFL to children in Japan.

My argument is that teacher development is a career-long, if not lifelong responsibility. Therefore, HUE needs to provide a program for teachers to engage in continual study. This educational circulation is suggested as the "Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development" in this thesis. In addition, it is suggested that HUE should establish a community college system for practical field studies. Students can teach classes in the community college as students' teachers. In addition, in-service teachers in the professional graduate program can also use them as practical field studies.

DEDICATION

To Tomoko who has let me continue to study.

To Prof. Kelleen Toohey, Senior Advisor, who has not given up teaching me with
patience.

To the Faculty of Education which kept inspiring me.

To HUE who let me study at SFU, especially to President Murayama,

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To many people who have daily supported me in Greater Vancouver.

To Beautiful British Columbia.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Approval	ii
Abstract.....	iii
Dedication.....	v
Acknowledgements.....	vi
Table of Contents.....	viii
List of Figures.....	x
List of Tables	xi
Prologue.....	1
1: Introduction.....	4
2: The Japanese Educational Context.....	13
Introduction.....	13
Brief description of recent Japanese education.....	14
The new view of academic achievement	20
Modern and postmodern ideas influencing Japanese education	26
The “Period for Integrated Study” and in-service teacher professional development using Engeström’s model	35
Summary.....	41
3: In-service Teacher Professional Development for Japanese Elementary School Teachers.....	44
Japanese teachers’ views about education.....	45
In-service teacher professional development for Japanese teachers.....	53
The Japanese teachers show that their training desire is strong	56
Only living creatures, not machines, have the adaptability to grow and change as teachers	58
Education in Hokkaido prefecture and Hokkaido University of Education (HUE)	63
Summary.....	70
4: Elementary School Teacher Professional Development.....	73
“Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development”	73
“Negotiated Lifelong Study Plans”.....	79
A training course for elementary school teachers teaching EFL to children.....	91
The reality of teacher professional development for English education at elementary schools in Japan	91

Unrealistic curriculum for elementary school teachers in Japan.....	91
An example of workshop conducted by the Ministry of Education to train in-service teacher so that they may teach EFL at school.....	94
A general training course.....	97
A model outline of the curriculum	100
Summary	104
5: A Special Training Course by means of Overseas Workshop.....	107
Communication and understanding –case reports of the Japan-United States educational research project from April 1st, 2000 to March 31st, 2003 conducted by Hokkaido University of Education.....	110
Purposes of the project	112
Methodology.....	113
Contents of the project.....	114
Places visited in USA	116
Outcomes	116
Unintentional outcomes in the last year’s project conducted between April, 2002 and March, 2003	122
In the State of Maryland	125
Summary	131
6: Conclusion: action plans for Hokkaido University of Education and education in Japan	133
Hokkaido University of Education should provide a teacher professional development program so that pre/in-service teachers may have the power and motivation to continue to learn for the rest of their lives.	137
Hokkaido University of Education becomes a university to which in-service teachers return.....	139
Hokkaido University of Education builds educational circulation to establish the “Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development”	140
Hokkaido University of Education should establish a community college as a centre for practical field studies.....	142
Conclusion	145
References.....	147

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Engeström's Simplified Model	36
Figure 2: Period for Integrated Study by Engeström's Model	40
Figure 3: Hours which teachers desire to improve themselves (Kutomi, Sato, and Yufu, 1990, p.65)	51
Figure 4: The reality of overtime work at school (Kutomi, Sato, and Yufu, 1990, p.63)	56
Figure 5: Average time of work which teachers bring home per week (Kutomi, Sato, and Yufu, 1990, p.64)	57
Figure 6: Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development	74
Figure 7: Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development: TEFL for Elementary School Teachers	78
Figure 8: The modified Engeström model for lifelong learning of in-service teachers	98
Figure 9: The Organization of the Japan-United States Educational Research Project	111
Figure 10: (=Figure 8) The modified Engeström model for lifelong learning of in-service teachers	138
Figure 11: (=Figure 6) Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development	141
Figure 12: Educational circulation to build up teachers' abilities and motivation so that they can continue to learn for the rest of their lives	144

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1:	Changes in the number of class hours in elementary school and junior high schools	23
Table 2:	The percentage of students in Japan, USA, and China	25
Table 3:	Percentage of students in Japan, USA, and China who answered yes to the following statements	25
Table 4:	Ideas on Education of Japanese Teachers	46
Table 5:	The number of in-service teachers in Hokkaido and the number of graduate students in HUE (As of February 18, 2004)	69
Table 6:	Tentative Curriculum for Elementary School Teachers	92
Table 7:	Content of the Training from Handouts at the Workshop	95

PROLOGUE

My interest in the field of English linguistics and teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) is long standing. Although I have taught English linguistics at the college level for more than 20 years, my concerns for TEFL date back to 1975. At that time I had just begun my teaching career in Sapporo, Japan, the capital city of Hokkaido, as a full-time junior high school teacher. There I taught English as a foreign language (EFL), as well as the Japanese language.

Previously, from April 1971 to March 1975, I majored in Japanese linguistics and minored in English linguistics and I received my Bachelor of Education degree from Hokkaido University of Education Sapporo. Then after teaching EFL and Japanese language in a Junior high school, from September 1982 to June 1984, I continued pursuing my interests in the area by undertaking a Master of Arts program at the Department of Linguistics at Ohio University in the United States where I majored in a linguistic programme with a minor in a TEFL programme.

Upon completing the M.A. degree, I started working for Seishu Women's College in Sapporo and in 1986 became a full-time teacher there. In 1991, I became a full-time professor teaching English linguistics and TEFL at Hokkaido University of Education

Sapporo where I have continued to teach to this day. As a result of these experiences I feel I am well qualified to teach English linguistics, TEFL, and Japanese linguistics at the college level.

My major field of interest used to be in the field of Syntax & Semantics, but I changed my major interest to Cognitive Linguistics because I am convinced that language is meaning. So, for most of the past 10 years my interest has been in the field of cognitive linguistics, especially as it has to do with the way of communicating or conveying meaning among us.

As a faculty member at Hokkaido University of Education Sapporo and teacher of English linguistics and TEFL I am expected to provide some leadership and informed opinions about English education, especially the development of new TEFL curriculum. For instance, a recent curriculum directive from the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (hereafter, the Ministry of Education) concerning the introduction of an EFL curriculum into the elementary schools, led in April, 2002 to the introduction of TEFL in all Japanese elementary schools. This was done, despite the fact that elementary school teachers had little preparation to teach it. While I saw the importance of developing a program for elementary school teacher education for TEFL, I did not think I had enough knowledge with regards to the philosophy of education or the theory of curriculum development to adequately speak to the issue or personally undertake

the development of such a large project. For this reason I decided to enroll in a Ph.D. programme at the Faculty of Education at Simon Fraser University (SFU) where as a thesis topic I could create a model for TEFL teacher education for elementary school teachers in Japan.

While I have been working on this thesis, the project team (I am leader) applied for English education at elementary school level to the Ministry of Education and they approved our application from April 2005 to March 2007. Coincidentally, on October 13 in 2005, the Ministry of Education decided to introduce English as a required subject into elementary schools in two years. This means that my thesis will contribute to the training of in-service elementary school teachers in Japan so that they will be able to teach EFL. The thesis represents my conviction that real educational change is difficult in any circumstances, but that, with serious attention paid to all facets of educational situations, change is possible. In the thesis, I consider a model of educational activity that outlines important aspects of that activity that must be taken into account in encouraging change. I propose specific learning resources and activities that I think will lead to change. My thesis concludes with an example of an educational event that exemplifies the importance of human relationships in educational change.

1:

INTRODUCTION

I have been studying linguistics for more than 30 years. From my experiences, two basic things are lacking in English education of Japanese elementary schools. First, we need a curriculum which provides practical guidance in selecting or designing teaching materials and teaching methods. In this case, a curriculum does not mean simply a way of arranging teaching materials or lessons. A curriculum should have clearly articulated educational goals and philosophy. Second, a pedagogical link between language learning theory and foreign language methodology has, in practice, been very weak for a long time. I will discuss in this paper how to overcome these two deficiencies so as to improve the job we do of training, or retraining, in-service teachers at Japanese elementary schools so that they will be able to more effectively teach EFL.

The educational system in Japan is highly centralized. There is a national curriculum in Japan and all schools, from the elementary to the high school level, must follow the Course of Study issued by the Ministry of Education. For the past fifteen years, a highly competitive atmosphere in Japanese schools has been linked to an increase in the

amount of bullying, an increase in the number of remedial students or dropouts, and an increase in the number of students who refuse to go to school. Recently, the spiritless attitude of students opposed to studying is a significant problem, which in Japan is called the “apathetic student syndrome”.

This thesis explores the barriers and addresses some possible solutions to the implementation of recent curriculum directives of the Ministry of Education with respect to the introduction at the elementary school level of an English learning component as a part of “curriculum for international understanding” in 2002. In addition, in March, 2006, the Ministry of Education decided to introduce English as an academic subject in the 5th and 6th grade in Japanese elementary schools in 2008. Therefore, I also offer a program for the professional development of Japanese elementary school teachers, so that they may cope with their TEFL responsibilities.

In Chapter 2 of the thesis I describe the philosophical, social, and political context of educational policies in contemporary Japan, and show how the directive to teach EFL in the elementary schools is situated in a school system that has undergone, and is still going through, some serious difficulties. Because teacher preparation, student characteristics and Ministry policy framework have had a major impact on Japanese education in the past 15 years, it is necessary to develop a greater understanding of these issues if we are to explore the difficulties associated with the implementation of the new EFL directive. In

Chapter 2, I also discuss the problems brought into Japanese education over the past 15 years as a result of the introduction by the Ministry of Education of new concepts, including their new view of academic achievement and a curriculum based on “the hours of a liberal, flexible, and comfortable school life”. By way of background, the Ministry’s new Course of Study, which began in Japanese elementary schools in 2002, included a new curriculum subject called the “Period for Integrated Study”.

The new “Period for Integrated Study” was created for schools to provide interdisciplinary and integrated learning opportunities, and was intended to meet students’ specific circumstances, along with consideration of local and school circumstances. However, Japanese education has existed in paradigm conflict, confusion, and tension for the last 15 years. I will argue that one of the reasons for these tensions and this confusion has been that the concept of “the hours of a liberal, flexible, and comfortable school life” was produced from a postmodern educational perspective, although Japanese education has been totally based on a modernist perspective. Another reason for the tension and confusion noted above is that the Ministry of Education reduced the academic subject instructional hours in order to create the time needed for “the hours of a liberal, flexible, and comfortable school life”. What limited professional discretion teachers had within the national curriculum was almost entirely eliminated by the need to compress the required instructional content within the reduced number of lesson hours. In fact, while

teachers knew their students were failing to keep up, there was almost nothing that they could do about it. This has produced students who have seemed to stop dreaming about their futures, or at least to stop aspiring to academic success, and who have greatly reduced their studying activities. This in turn has produced a decline in academic achievement throughout the country. These problems need to be addressed and I intend to argue that these can be done by means of incorporating both modernist and postmodern perspectives into the curriculum and not by selecting only one philosophy or the other. To accomplish these shifts in perspective, a life-long learning program including special TEFL skills for teachers will have to be implemented.

In Chapter 3, I will discuss the present situation of in-service teacher professional development in Japan. Whereas a highly centralized top-down way might efficiently deliver teacher professional development, there seems to be some contradictions in an educational policy to develop diversities, creativities, and self-organization for teachers by means of a highly centralized top-down program of teacher professional development. If the Ministry of Education or Boards of Education tell teachers to attend workshops, the teachers cannot refuse to attend the workshops. Many of them are ordered to do so by the Ministry of Education or Boards of Education. That is why even though teachers have the opportunity to cultivate or educate themselves, they do not like to attend compulsory workshops. However, the Ministry of Education and Prefectural Boards of Education

believe that they have been trying to provide teacher professional development for the teachers and they see no contradiction in requiring professional development encouraging creativity and diversity.

In North American professional development, the prevailing view is that change in practice occurs when teachers have a personal commitment to that change, when they “buy into” the new plan. Personal commitment is demonstrated by their choosing to participate in professional development workshops. Typically, workshops are made available and schools are “allowed” spaces in the workshop. If they do not send anyone they lose their space but, since the workshop is not likely to be repeated, it is uncommon for a school to have no one attend important workshops. Since North American teachers readily share their stories of what works and what does not work in their classrooms, the teachers’ colleagues begin hearing about the first teacher’s experiences, and observe the first teacher’s enthusiasm for the new process, and finally they become curious and willing to try the new method themselves. In this way new program are implemented. A good analogy is the ripple effect caused by tossing a pebble into a pool. The initial splash and waves are the largest, but very quickly the ripples spread throughout the entire pool.

Professional development opportunities are available in Japan through Prefectural Boards of Education which implement many in-service teacher training courses. The teachers’ union also holds an educational research workshop every year. Hokkaido

University of Education (HUE) offers special training sessions for teachers with 10-years-of-experience and has a graduate program. In-service teachers attend graduate programs to improve their professional qualifications. Some of the teachers recommended by each prefectural board of education are sent to the graduate program for two years as full-time students and some of them attend evening classes as part-time students, but the number of participating teachers is still very low. As of February 1, 2004, the accumulated number of in-service teachers who enrolled in graduate program was 335 out of 46,240 teachers since 1992. This will be only 0.75% of the teachers in total in Hokkaido.

In Chapter 4, I argue for a general conceptual framework for addressing some of the teacher professional development needs of elementary school teachers in Japan by means of the modified model of the Finnish social scientist Yrjo Engeström (1999) so that they may acquire skills and prerequisites to successfully teach English as a Foreign Language to children in Japan. I suggest that teachers who will teach TEFL need to understand:

- 1) curriculum design,
- 2) linguistics,
- 3) crosscultural communications,
- 4) TEFL theories and practices,
- 5) and they have to have English proficiency.
- 6) Teacher professional development activities, e.g., portfolio.

First, the role of HUE as a teachers' college will be discussed by suggesting a "Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development". The relation between in-service teachers and teachers' colleges is very weak in Japan. HUE is no exception. HUE has not been able to provide an in-service teacher development program and as such is not attractive to in-service teachers who do not keep contact with it. Most of HUE's efforts centre on the education of preservice teachers, both at the graduate and undergraduate levels. Nevertheless, HUE will need to establish programs for in-service teacher education to meet teachers' needs and their own personal educational goals for continuous training. Second, I will refer to such a program that provides in-service teachers the opportunity to take programs according to their individual needs and desires, as the "Negotiated Lifelong Study Plans". While it is true that in Japan teachers have many chances to participate in various training experiences in addition to their obligatory ones, the various training programs that are offered are largely episodic and disjointed and these experiences rarely relate to one another organically. The in-service training programs that teachers receive in Japan are usually temporary in nature, and in many cases they cannot be related to the previous training experiences teacher were involved with, or to the next experiences they will take in the future. Therefore, it is important for HUE to provide continuous and coherent programs so that teachers will be encouraged to engage in professional development for the rest of their lives because it is unrealistic to expect to teach the qualities and attitudes requisite for TEFL to the teachers within a few hours.

Lifelong education is clearly the key to a teacher's acquisition of appropriate teaching practices. I suggest the modified Engeström model to organize a process of lifelong education by triggering the teachers' incentive to start educating themselves by means of adopting the methodologies of "storytelling" based on constructionism in order to evoke an intrinsic motivation to continue to train themselves for the rest of their lives.

In Chapter 5, I will introduce a report of an overseas workshop to learn crosscultural communication. It will be demonstrated in this chapter that the participants in the overseas workshop unconsciously practiced storytelling because they needed to cooperate to resolve any difficulties together. As a result, they were influenced by others' teaching philosophies.

Finally, I will reach the conclusion in Chapter 6 by means of integrating what I have discussed in the first five chapters. The Chapter 6 conclusion contains a specific action plan that would enable HUE to become a leader of Education in Hokkaido Prefecture, Japan. My recommendation for this action plan is that Hokkaido University of Education should inspire (educate) in/pre-service teachers to become self-motivated to continue learning during their whole careers. Teachers should keep learning to continue growing as better qualified teachers. Therefore, HUE needs to provide a program for them to have the "power to continue studying." I also propose that HUE establish a community college system for practical field studies. The community college would provide several courses

such as TOEFL preparation, workshops for in-service teachers, prep-school for entrance examinations, and so on. Students can teach classes in the community college as student teachers. In addition, in-service teachers in the professional graduate program can also work there as part of their practical field studies.

2:

THE JAPANESE EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT

Introduction

Although English is now officially required in Japanese junior high schools, the Ministry of Education in Japan introduced English activities as a part of a curriculum for international understanding into elementary schools in 2002. According to NHK TV news, the public broadcasting service in Japan, on October 13 2005, Japan's Ministry of Education decided to introduce English as a required subject into elementary schools by 2008. This means that it is necessary for in-service elementary school teachers to be able to teach EFL in the near future. This chapter will discuss the conditions of former and current Japanese education which surround in-service elementary school teachers in Japan, and which might affect their implementation of a new elementary school EFL curriculum.

First, I will discuss problems that have developed in Japanese schools over about the past fifteen years since the introduction of a new view of academic achievement promoted by the Japanese Ministry of Education in 1989. This will show various constraints on successful implementation of a new curriculum in Japanese schools. Over the same period of time, the occurrence of some serious problems in schools such as

truancy (refusing to go to school), disruption of class, decline in academic achievement, bullying, impulsive homicide, and so on, has increased. Last, I will explain the possibilities inherent in the “Period for Integrated Study” and present a new model of Japanese in-service elementary school teacher professional development that might improve EFL classes by means of the activity model of the Finnish social scientist Yrjö Engeström (1999).

Brief description of recent Japanese education

This section will provide background on contemporary Japanese education. Japanese education is, and has been traditionally, bureaucratically and hierarchically organized. The Ministry of Education in Japan mandates the teaching objectives, subject content, hours of instruction, as well as a number of other aspects of school, outlined in the “Course of Study”, which originated in 1947 (Yamaguchi, 2001, pp.2-3). All schools from elementary to high schools in Japan are strictly required to use the Course of Study. All students in the same year study the same topics throughout Japan and there are no special classes or groups based on different attainment levels. However, the original Course of Study was not legally binding. According to Shibata (1998, p.18), the first edition of the Course of Study in 1947 and the second edition of the Course of Study in 1951 were published as guides (which reflected the top-down method of decision making common before World War II) but they also allowed for proper curriculum design by

teachers who directly taught students at school. The Encyclopedia of Japan (1993, p. 325)

says that

After defeat in 1945 Japan was placed under the Occupation of the Allied forces until the San Francisco Peace Treaty of 1952. Reports of the United States education missions to Japan, which came to Japan in 1946 and 1950, became the blueprints for educational reform in 1947. The reforms were conducted by the Education Reform Council, consisting of Japanese civilians, under the leadership and advice of the CIE (Civil Information and Education Section of Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers in Japan). The core of the reform was the Fundamental Law of Education in 1947, which took the place of the Imperial Rescript on Education as the basic philosophy of education. The new law stated the goal of education as the development of people healthy in spirit and body, who are filled with an independent spirit, respect the value of individuals, and love truth and justice. Based on this law, the School Education Law of 1947 was promulgated in the same year, and a new school system was established.

However, Shibata (1998, p.18) argues that the concept of the 1947 and 1951 Courses of Study, which were student oriented, was forced to be changed into uniform education in 1958. The core concept shifted drastically as follows. First, the newly revised Course of Study of 1958 was announced publicly as a Ministry of Education notification by means of the official gazette. The Ministry of Education changed the Course of Study from the concept of “guidance” and a “tentative plan” to “order” in the 1958 Course of Study. Therefore, the 1958 Course of Study became the national standard with legal binding force. Second, the Ministry of Education emphasized “attaining formulation of the contents of study”, or “giving much more systemicity to study” with the revisions in 1958. Although the Course of Study in 1947 and 1951 was a student-oriented

curriculum which considered the interests, lives, and experiences of children as main principles with a curriculum of empiricism, the concept was removed in the Course of Study revision in 1958. The reason why the Course of Study revision in 1958 was drastically shifted was the social requirements in those days. The industrial world pressed the government for reform of the educational system for securing the human capability required for technical innovation and economic growth as Shibata (1998, pp.18-19) mentions. From 1958 to now, the Course of Study has outlined a uniform curriculum across Japan. As a result, because teachers are accustomed to work in such a bureaucratic system, it is difficult to raise teachers' abilities to creatively design curriculum or to be flexible in their teaching methodologies.

Japanese teachers are accustomed to control students administratively the same as the Ministry of Education controls teachers. When teachers try to control their classes, they usually use a strategy that divides the whole body of students in the classroom into several smaller groups with leaders. And when the teachers administer their students, they order their instruction to the leaders. In Japan, this kind of bureaucratic decision-making was adopted at every level of the system from the Ministry of Education to every classroom.

The Course of Study between 1958 and 1988 focused on the transmission of knowledge and skills to students. The practice of forcing students to memorize as much

knowledge as possible to get better grades became standard after 1958 in Japanese schools, as the state consciously focused “on making the people who have common knowledge and consciousness of a point of view in development of the Japanese nation-state” (Arai, 1988, p.10). Severe competition to enter top universities was linked to this memorization of knowledge. Entrance examinations are given exceptional weight in Japan’s educational system. There was a saying among Japanese students: “Four you score; five you die”. It means if you sleep five hours at night, instead of four, you will not pass the exam. In Japan an individual’s social and occupational status is said to be determined not only by the level of education completed, but also by the rank and prestige of the particular university attended. Factors such as class, race, religion, and personal wealth, which are important determinants of social status in other societies, are not quite as significant in Japan because of the country’s high level of homogeneity and lack of extreme inequalities in the distribution of wealth. Instead, it is a person’s educational career that provides a convenient determinant of status. With a high percentage of students attending institutions of higher learning, the status distinctions among schools have become increasingly pronounced. As a result of this, the competition to gain entrance to the most prestigious schools has intensified markedly. This situation in the schools has been a driving force for many parents to make their children study extremely hard to pass the entrance exams of higher ranked junior high schools, high schools, and universities. Students have been forced to learn how to pass the exams with rote learning of as much

knowledge as possible, and they have never learned how to cope with the problems before them creatively and originally. As a result, the superheated examination competition has developed two sorts of children, those who are hyper-competitive and those who are apathetic, passive and irresponsible with a lack of interest in study, work, and even play. In fact, fierce examination competition has been an important factor in the development of Japanese students.

Whereas the view of academic achievement from 1958 to the late 1980s emphasized knowledge and skills, a new view of academic achievement was introduced in 1989. This view paid attention to the development of students' "interest, volition, and attitude". I believe that the introduction of this new view of academic achievement including the concept of "a liberal, flexible, and comfortable school life" into the curriculum in 1989 led to a decline in the amount of knowledge and skills students gained. However, this does not necessarily mean that I see the new view of academic achievement as wrong. Nevertheless, the "liberal, flexible, and comfortable school life" gave rise to two main problems. The first problem was caused by the ambiguity of the new view of academic achievement, as the Ministry of Education did not articulate a definition of the new view of academic achievement clearly. According to Suzuki (2001, p. 186), in the early 1990s when schools introduced the new view of academic achievement, many teachers believed that they were not to teach knowledge and skills of the academic subjects

to students because instead, all they were expected to facilitate their students to develop “interest, volition, and attitude”. Those teachers believed that if they facilitated their students’ interest toward academic subjects, the students would automatically start building up their knowledge and skills in the subjects. Suzuki, (2001, p. 186) cautioned teachers that this understanding was oversimplified. However, many teachers who supported the concepts of the Ministry of Education without any criticism never listened to the caution. A few years later after this, the Japanese Ministry of Education said that it was wrong not to teach knowledge and skills of academic subjects. They explained that although teachers should pay attention to raising students’ interest and to develop students’ attitudes, teachers should teach the knowledge and skills of academic subjects to the students. However, they also argued that teachers should not just be experts in the classroom, because in the new curriculum they were required to help the students discover or learn the information. They were supposed to help the students become more active learners. Teachers were not to give the answer to the students before they think about it for themselves.

Another problem was with the new curriculum that the new goals of developing attitudes were supposed to be graded. The act of grading diminished the students’ enthusiasm for the new curriculum and presented difficulties for teachers.

Adopting the new view of academic achievement in 1989 resulted in further confusion in the educational world although the Ministry of Education tried to place an emphasis on not only knowledge and skills but also interest, volition, and attitude. One problem was that the hours of instruction in academic subjects were reduced so to produce time for “a liberal, flexible, and comfortable school life”, which will be discussed in detail in section 2. 3.

Coincidentally, around 1990, the economic bubble in Japan burst. Then the big companies in Japan gradually changed their attitudes when they employed young people because of the influence of the globalization in the United States. The big companies in Japan started requiring individual abilities and specific skills of young people. Speaking English was one of the requirements those companies demanded. Therefore, the financial circle started demanding schools to produce people who could conduct business in English very well. As a result, in 1998 the Ministry of Education again drastically revised the Course of Study. Later, in 2002, they required English activities as a part of international understanding in the “Period for Integrated Study” at elementary schools.

The new view of academic achievement

As already mentioned, the Ministry of Education officially started using the phrase “the new view of academic achievement” in 1989 (Miyahara, 1999a, p. 110). With this phrase, the Ministry wished to point out the importance of development of certain student

abilities, such as the ability to apply oneself and take responsibility for one's own learning. It was the Ministry's view that Japanese education placed too much importance on test results until the 1989 revised Course of Study. The earlier Course of Study had created a simple and clear model that academic achievement was the quantity of knowledge students had memorized.

Important in the 2002 "New Revised Course of Study" for Japanese elementary schools was the introduction of new curriculum, the "Period for Integrated Study". The "Period for Integrated Study" was created for schools to provide interdisciplinary and integrated learning opportunities which were to be developed to meet students' specific circumstances, along with consideration being given to local and school circumstances. The Ministry of Education permitted elementary schools to offer English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education as part of the "Period for Integrated Study." However, few elementary school teachers had the academic or experiential background to teach EFL. In addition, although the Ministry of Education suggested teaching EFL through English conversation and crosscultural activities, the Ministry did not indicate a specific curriculum nor offer teaching materials for teaching EFL at elementary schools. This led to three serious problems for EFL education at elementary schools: first, Japanese elementary school teachers were not experienced enough to create this new curriculum themselves, second, they were not proficient enough in English to adequately develop an

EFL curriculum, and third, they had too limited cross-cultural awareness themselves to address this curricular goal.

The Ministry of Education did not indicate how to use the Period for Integrated Study in any specific way and each school was permitted to design the program freely. However, as mentioned in section 2. 2, the teachers were accustomed to following a prescribed Course of Study. Because they had no experience creating their own curriculum, many teachers across Japan did not know how or what to do.

One of the purposes of the new view of academic achievement was the development of certain student abilities such as self-application and self-development. In addition, students were supposed to develop their “interest, volition, and attitude” as well as “knowledge and skill” during both academic subject periods and the “Period for Integrated Study”. However, although the curriculum of the Period for Integrated Study was developed from the concept of “a liberal, flexible, and comfortable school life” as opposed to the earlier model giving excessive importance to test results, the Japanese Ministry of Education had to keep reducing the number of academic class hours to produce hours for a “liberal, flexible, and comfortable school life” as shown by Table 1 below¹.

¹ By 2002 the Ministry of Education had further cut academic class hours. As a result, they are now down to 2,941 class hours in elementary schools and 1,565 class hours in junior high schools.

Table 1: Changes in the number of class hours in elementary school and junior high schools

Main Subjects	1950s	1960s	1970s	1980s	1990s
Elementary School Arithmetic, Japanese, Social Studies, Science	Hours 3,570 - 3,920	Hours 3,941	Hours 3,941	Hours 3,659	Hours 3,452
Junior High School English, Mathematics, Japanese, Social Studies, Science	Hours 2,100 - 2,415	Hours 2,065	Hours 2,240	Hours 1,925	Hours 1,855 - 1995

[Suzuki, I. (2001). "Kono 10nenkan ni, gakkogenba dewa naniga ushinawaretanoka (What was lost in schools in the past 10 years?)." Bessatsu Takarajima Real 013, pp.180-187.]

The Ministry of Education did not reduce the content of the academic subjects even though they kept reducing the number of academic class hours to create time for a "liberal, flexible, and comfortable school life". According to Yamaguchi (2001, pp. 2-3), "This situation has been giving a hard time to both teachers and students." Shibata (1998, pp. 30-31) notes:

The five-day school week as opposed to the former six-day week has been advanced forcibly without changing the Course of Study from 1992. The Central Council for Education started in April, 1995, in order to advance this reform immediately. The theme was to examine the guideline of education in Japan in preparation for the 21st century. The first finding was submitted to the Ministry of Education in July, 1996. The slogan of the reform was securing "leeway" to a life of a child in order to raise "zest for living". As for the present education, it is clear to say that the training of "zest for living" and "leeway" is greatly missing under the pressure of entrance test competition. Although ten years have passed since the first suggestion by the Central Council for Education, the new curriculum started in 2002 has not brought about any other effects than the decline of academic ability. Although the Ministry of Education sharply criticized education that focused upon only deviation scores

and uniform education, and then mandated that education should develop creativity, the power to consider, and the ability-of-expression, we have not yet reached any conclusions about how effective the changes have been, nor has the Council provided any direction for the future. If the 2002 edition of the Course of Study has not been successful, the Ministry of Education has a strong responsibility to clarify the reason why the educational reform has not been successful. One of the reasons why good results are not found is that analysis and reflection of Japanese education in the past by the Ministry of Education has been insufficient. (author translation)

In April 2005, Prime Minister Koizumi proposed that the Period for Integrated Study should be reduced to increase time for instruction in academic subjects, to cope with the decline of academic achievement of Japanese students. Of course, although the proposal by Prime Minister will not be immediately realized in the curriculum of Japanese schools, it is clear that there is an environment in the educational world in Japan in which the Prime Minister can say that we should abolish the Period for Integrated Study without reflecting on how successful this new curriculum has or has not been. The educational world has been in a state of continual confusion since the Period for Integrated Study was introduced in 2002. If we change the new curriculum without any reflection, additional confusion might arise.

The confusion in Japanese curriculum has had effects on students. A report conducted by the Japan Youth Research Institute in May 2002, shows that 73.0% of Japanese high school students “believe they are useless human beings”, exceeding the 48.3% of students in the U.S.A. and 36.9% of students in China who believe this. The

following table shows the percentage of students in Japan, USA, and China who answered yes to the following statements:

Table 2: The percentage of students in Japan, USA, and China

Items	Japan	USA	China
I do not have anything I can be proud of.	52.7	23.8	22.9
I believe that luck is more important than efforts in order to succeed.	38.9	27.8	20.8
I have ordinary capabilities.	58.0	93.4	93.9
I am satisfied with myself generally	38.7	84.9	65.2
If I once make a plan, I am confident that I will accomplish it.	38.0	86.3	73.5

Table 3: Percentage of students in Japan, USA, and China who answered yes to the following statements

Items	Japan	USA	China
I am a positive human being.	43.4	78.2	75.1
I am not inferior to other people and a person with value.	37.6	89.3	86.4
I think that future goals or plans should be considered firmly.	29.9	42.6	55.8

Youth Research Institute (2002 <http://www..odn.ne.jp/youth-study>)

The number of Japanese high school students is the lowest of the three countries when the questionnaire asked if students believe higher education or ranking in school will affect their futures, i.e. America 68.3%, China 40.3%, and Japan 32.2% even though their

parents believe their children's future will be guaranteed according to the higher the ranking or level of education they receive. And the Youth Research Institute (2002 <http://www.odn.ne.jp/youth-study>), comparing with twenty years before, mentions that Japanese high school students were becoming less interested in higher education. On the other hand, American high school students showed more interest in higher education in 2002 than in 1980. These results show that Japanese youth were more likely to be rejecting higher education in their plans for their futures in 2002 than they were twenty years ago.

In sum, the results of this investigation urge us to consider the character of the education that Japanese educators have given students from elementary to high school during the past 15 or so years. One assumes that most children enter elementary school with dreams and high hopes. The results of the reports tell us that in 2002, not only did 73% of the Japanese high school students think of themselves as useless entities, but also that they had stopped dreaming and aspiring to higher education. It is my belief that the recent confusion in the Japanese education paradigm has contributed to these changing attitudes.

Modern and postmodern ideas influencing Japanese education

The previous section discussed problems in Japanese education that have arisen over the past fifteen years. In this section I provide an overview of both modern and

postmodern perspectives on curriculum which have influenced the current educational situation in Japan. In fact, very few researchers have portrayed Japanese education from the point of view of the contrast between modernism versus post-modernism. However, Japanese education has been demonstrably influenced by educational paradigms in the U.S.A since World War II. Therefore, the introduction of paradigms of modern and postmodern curriculum in Japanese ideas about education seems inevitable.

Until 1989, the Japanese Course of Study was based on modernist curriculum ideas as represented by Tyler's (1949) Rationale. According to Sato (2001, pp. 157-158), curriculum based on this behavioural science is formulated as (1) defining educational objectives, (2) devising learning experiences, (3) organizing learning experiences, and (4) evaluating learning linearly. This was called modernization of educational contents and was adopted in Japanese curriculum late in the 1960s. Oliver (1990, pp. 67-68) argues that a curriculum based on technical rationality defines learning results as actions, skills, and facts that children learn, memorize, and use. Actions, skills and facts are owned by teachers and they are given to children from outside. In this sense the modern curriculum in Japanese education was based on positivism, which is the system formed where knowledge, skills, and attitudes are efficiently mediated from outside. Asanuma (2001, pp. 55-56) explains that modern curriculum exists outside of students, and the students invite the curriculum into themselves. According to Shibata (1998, p. 24), revisions to the

Course of Study in 1968 and 1977 were aimed at coping with the advanced development of technology and, especially in mathematics, it also took into consideration the modernizing trend in mathematics education occurring in many foreign countries at that time. Shibata also notes problems with the modernizing trend in mathematics education in Japan:

What modernization aimed at was fundamental reorganization of the contents of subjects. However, the 1968 [Japanese] Course of Study imitating modernization of U.S. mathematics education was made without selecting old teaching materials and new teaching materials carefully. This caused students maladaptation towards learning. The reason was because the Ministry of Education made a mistake in simply omitting old teaching materials though, in many cases, the fundamental contents of the subject were often contained in the old curriculum. As a result, the 1968 Course of Study made a mistake by introducing difficult applied contents into elementary school education. This curriculum change was a significant factor in students' non-achievement. (author translation, pp. 24-25)

In 1989, the Ministry of Education introduced postmodern ideas in their revision of the Course of Study for the first time (Yamaguchi, pp.2-3). Postmodern curriculum ideas were related to two paradigm shifts that occurred in the USA in 1980s, namely the shift from focus on the curriculum to focus on the teacher. I discuss these research shifts before discussing postmodern innovations.

Sato (2001, pp. 157-158) argues that two dramatic paradigm shifts in curriculum research occurred from the 1970s to the present time in the United States of America. The first of these, a shift from quantitative to qualitative curriculum research, took place from the 1970s up to the middle of the 1980s. Quantitative curriculum research was (and

is) based on behaviourism and includes aspects of social engineering based on technical rationality as represented by Tyler (1949). On the other hand, qualitative studies of curriculum focused on the social meaning of the relations between teachers and children in class activities, through development, practice, and evaluation of the curriculum. Studies relied on syntheses of methods from sociology, political science, ethics, cultural anthropology, ethnomethodology, and so on.

A second paradigm shift in US educational research occurred in the 1980s. The developed countries were moving from industrial societies to post-industrial societies and as a result they were required to reform their political structures to overcome a bureaucratic top-down-system. This movement also influenced the focus of educational research. They paid attention to only making curriculum in education in the industrial societies, not but people using it in the United States. As a result, the roles of teachers at school were never discussed to design curriculum. The second paradigm shift means former research focused on the study of curriculum development to focusing on the study of teachers' knowledge and qualifications. The Japan's introduction of a new (1989) concept of academics suggests that Japanese education was influenced by the paradigm shift in the USA.

The new view of academic achievement was submitted to the Ministry of Education as findings of the Central Council for Education in 1989, and was based on

postmodern curriculum ideas. The traditional and modernist view of academic achievement until 1989 focused on making students learn knowledge and skills. The newer 1989 view of academic achievement focused on raising students' interest and attitudes toward learning subjects. But, to complicate matters, in Japan students were still required to gain technical and scientific knowledge in pedagogy based on positivism.

Oliver (1990, pp. 64) insists that the distinctions between “knowledge-as-separate object” approach to education and the “knowledge-as-intimate relationship” view have had profound implications for curriculum and instruction as follows:

The distinction between these two educational approaches (the technical, knowledge-as-separate object approach vs. the grounded, “knowledge-as-intimate relationship approach) can also be illustrated by the way we usually teach music. Rhythms and sound are certainly primal experiences. The fetus experiences the rhythm of heartbeat and breathing of the mother before it is born. It experiences its own sound at the moment of birth. (p. 67) ... Modern teaching commonly begins the process of “coming to know” from the outside. ... If teaching were as easy and straightforward as transferring pieces of hard information from one person to another, we would have far more success in this enterprise than we do at present. A more nearly adequate way of thinking about learning/knowing, perhaps, requires that there be moments when the separate participants in an occasion – teacher, students, material, classroom – to use a biological-physics metaphor, “collapse in an interaction”, as happens when a photon of light and a green leaf participate in photosynthesis. In such a “collapse”, the essence of reality becomes a relationship between self and other, between the subject and the fact “out there”, rather than simply our observation of the “out there”. Obviously schooling cannot consist of such “occasions”, but the great preponderance of technical knowing planned and engineered by teachers and curriculum makers might well be informed, even inspired, by a modicum of postmodern consciousness in which we provide for, watch for, allow for, a kind of learning and knowing that springs from a presence, those moments when nature and self come together

and construct their own lesson, their own moment of shared understanding.
(pp. 68-69)

In addition, Oliver (1990, p. 65) argues that a curriculum emphasizing presence, i.e., grounded knowing, is necessary to get the most out of current curriculum predominated by technical knowing.

This deeper or grounded quality of knowing allows us to feel a connectedness and continuity with the complex natural and cultural relationships in which we are always enmeshed. Certainly this sense of connectedness between individual and culture and culture and nature leads one to the postmodern insight that there are layers of knowing or degrees of abstraction from a full or grounded human experience (p. 65).

For Oliver, a post-modern curriculum assumes that the essence of reality is not observing things which are outside but is “the relation between self and other people and the relation between subject and facts (p. 65)”. The new academic view in Japan was based on social constructivism, and postmodern ideas underlay the 1989 revisions.

Postmodernism is basically future oriented, based on techno-science and a consumption society (Sato 1995, p. 128). Doll (1993, p. 157) argues that:

We are entering a new, eclectic, post era. In this era, the past will not disappear altogether, but will be reformed continually in the light of an ongoing, changing present. The same metaphor might be applied to a postmodern curriculum: it should be free of past domination, but it does need the roots of history in order to grow and develop.

One could argue, therefore, that modernism will not be replaced by postmodernism in curriculum design because postmodern discourses are a counter-discourse to modernism and not a linear improvement from modernism. In such a sense, postmodernism is still within a framework of modernism.

Therefore, we might not see a new view of academic achievement as in conflict with the modernist traditional view of academic achievement in Japan. Although a new view of academic achievement pays attention to, interest, and attitude, it does not discard knowledge and skills. However, many teachers did not understand this and saw the 1989 view of academic achievement as a totally new concept of education. This confusion, I suggest, has existed for about 15 years.

There is further confusion in Japanese education concerning modern and postmodern curriculum. The Ministry of Education aimed at raising individuality by establishing a curriculum of a liberal, flexible, and comfortable school life, which later changed into the Period for Integrated Study in the 2002 Course of Study, a plan to develop the individuality of a student. However, it was contradictory to emphasize individuality in the framework of a standardized education, even if the Ministry of Education introduced postmodern curriculum reforms into schools. Because the curriculum was systematically made by the Ministry of Education, and intended to be uniform throughout Japan, the curriculum becomes modernist curriculum, based on ideas of universally important

knowledge and skills. The new view of academic achievement advocated by the Japanese Ministry of Education is based on constructivism. Ideas about a liberal, flexible, and comfortable school life have become part of Japanese educational discourse. These liberal postmodern perspectives were in tension with more traditional, modernist scientific and rational ideas about knowledge and curriculum and certainly were different from previous ideas about pedagogy in Japan. Originally, those supporting the development of a liberal, flexible, and comfortable school life and the Period for Integrated Study aimed at building up students' creativity, which was felt to have been neglected in previous curricula. The Japanese Ministry of Education used the phrase "zest-for-living" as a descriptor of creativity. This expression was inserted in the beginning of Chapter 1 of the General Rules in the revision of the Course of Study of 1998. It signified the Ministry's desire to develop students' abilities to learn, think and develop independently. It also aimed at revitalizing personality and it became a phrase to symbolize a new Course of Study. Zest-for-living is explained in the following report of the Central Council for Education (1996).

(1) Qualities and abilities to find problems, to learn about them, to think about them, and finally to independently judge them, and to be able to act in order to solve problems by yourself.

(2) It is human nature to have an open heart and with this open heart one should learn to cooperate with others, sympathize with others, and to have an ability to communicate with each other or to touch each others' feelings.

(Chapter 1 "General Rules" in the Course of Study of 1998. Author translation)

Here, "the heart to sympathize with others and to be touched" is secondary only to "self-responsibility and the spirit of self-help". In other words, "zest-for-living" includes "qualities and abilities" to open up one's future and life without depending on others or organizations. The aim of "zest-for-living" requires people to live more independently. It is ironic that while North American constructivist theorists stress the social creation of knowledge, the Japanese expression of a postmodernist position stresses the individuality of learners.

However, mentioned in the above, the new concept of the educational revision has not been successful yet. If we regard postmodern curriculum as extended varieties of modern curriculum, we might eliminate problems and confusion in current Japanese education more efficiently and establish a new concept of Japanese education.

As Doll (*ibid*) puts it, we are entering a new, eclectic, post era in which the past will not disappear altogether, but will be reformed continually in the light of an ongoing, changing present. The same metaphor might be applied to postmodern curricula. The Japanese Ministry of Education's phrase *zest-for-living* signified the Ministry's desire to

develop students' abilities to learn, think and develop independently. It also aimed at revitalizing personality and it became a phrase to symbolize a new Course of Study.

The “Period for Integrated Study” and in-service teacher professional development using Engeström’s model

In this section I will introduce the “Period for Integrated Study” as articulated in the 1998 revised “Course of Study” and as applied in 2002 to the Elementary school teaching of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and suggest how Engeström’s model of an activity system (1999, p. 31) may apply to the idea of us reeducating Japanese elementary school teachers for EFL instruction.

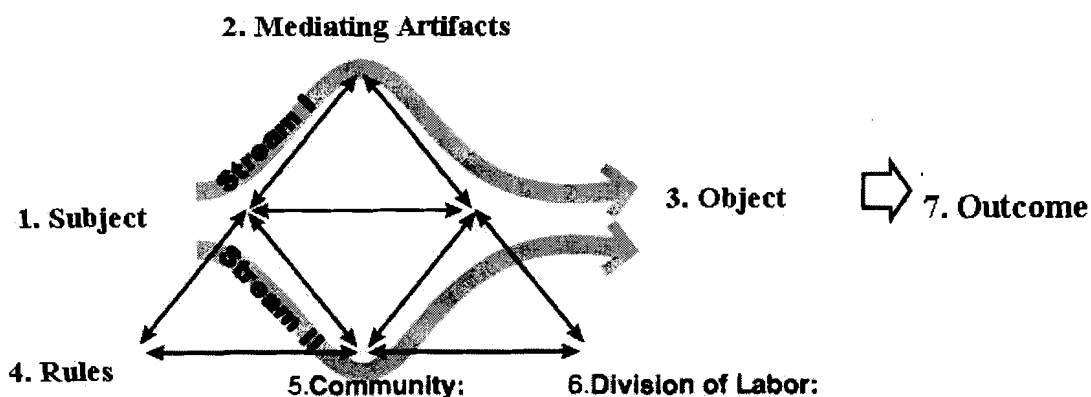
As discussed in section 2. 3, the “Period for Integrated Study” reflects the Ministry’s newer views of academic achievement. Most Japanese teachers experienced great difficulty understanding the “Period for Integrated Study” and the concepts that were embedded in the Ministry’s new view of academic achievement. While it is true that even in the new Course of Study it is necessary for teachers to pay attention to teaching knowledge and skills, as they always had, under the new views of academic achievement teachers talked of being perplexed about both what to and how to teach the “Period for Integrated Study”, despite the fact that the Ministry of Education had given schools somewhat of a free hand to handle it in the way they saw fit. This is because teachers in Japan had long been accustomed to obeying the Ministry’s very detailed courses of study

time, and as a result they lacked basic experience in how to actualize a number of features of the new curriculum.

I have found Activity Theory provides a useful model for examining the relationship between multiple influences in Japanese education. Particularly when considering the implications of change, the graphic representation of an activity model, such as that developed by Engeström (1999) helps to clarify how a change in a single aspect of an educational philosophy has implications for many other aspects.

To better understand issues around the new “Course of Study” and “Period of Integrated Study”, I will adopt Engeström’s (1999, pp 31-32) model of an activity system (see Figure 1) and then suggest how this can apply to the Japanese situation.

Figure 1: Engeström’s Simplified Model



In order to find an application of the model to the situation described here, we should note the relations in the following terms according to Engeström's (1999, pp 31-32):

Subject-Mediating Artifacts-Object: When a Subject works on an Object, it always acts by means of using Mediating Artifacts. In addition, the subject who is motivated toward the object performs the activity.

Subject-Rules-Community: We always belong to a community. There exist conventions and rules between an individual and his/her community. In other words, precisely because they have common rules, the relation between a subject and a community is realized.

Community-Division of Labour-Subject: A community is divided into small groups. And each group has different work. A subject behaves as a member of one of the groups. Mutual agreement with this division of work is required within an Activity System.

Mediating Artifacts-Community: One of the examples of mediating artifacts is language. A language is how a community communicates.

An example of how the six factors, i.e. "subject", "mediating artifacts", "rules", "community", "objects", and "division of labour" are adaptable to this work can be shown in the explanation of a lesson plan using Engestrom's model. In a Math lesson, for example, the "subject" is a student; "mediating artifacts" are textbooks, or computers, etc.; "rules" refers to how activities in the Math class are ordered, sequenced, and managed both by teachers and learners; the "community" is students, teachers, parents, and so on; "objects" are what learners aim at learning; and "division of labour" is how

participant-activity is organized through workshop, lecture, and so on. Although every factor is related to each other, the relative importance of each factor is not always the same.

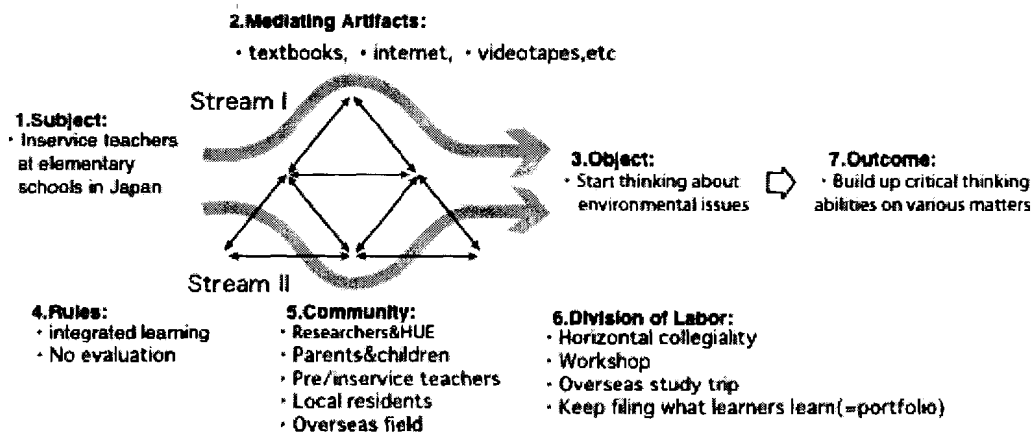
As illustrated in Figure 1 above, in classes of academic subjects, most lessons will take a “stream I” path. All too often in Japan, “mediating artifacts”, such as textbooks and drill-books, become very important. Sometimes the “mediating artifacts” becomes the “object” in Japan because the “outcome” has come to be “passing entrance exams”. Just suppose, for example, we are looking at a geography class. In Engeström’s model, “subjects” are students; “mediating artifacts” are textbooks, audio-visual media, the internet, maps and so on; and, “object” may be knowledge of the climates of the world. “Outcome” might be to guide the students to understand environmental issues by means of learning about the climates of the world. Accordingly, we usually use textbooks, maps, and other teaching materials, both physically and cognitively, in order to achieve the purpose and thus we will arrive at our outcome. However, in Japan the learning of the textbooks and the memorization of the climates of the world are often seen as the “object”. In this way, teachers make their students memorize their textbooks and drill them on their workbooks; the purpose is their high achievement in the intense competition of entrance examinations. As a result, the students are not able to build their abilities to fully understand the reason why a particular environmental issue is a global issue. If, in this case, the students learn features of the Temperate Zone, they will learn that the climate of

various places in the Temperate Zone is very similar from one country to another. They would not have to learn by heart the features of each country. Thus, in practice in Japan students are often given knowledge and skills in a linear way, which leads to the object/outcome that appears to be the same thing, that is, passing entrance exams. Nakai (2001, pp. 333-334) supports this assertion. In his case, his description of typical learning at school can be analyzed by use of Engeström model: that is, the students (= “subject”), make efforts to acquire as much knowledge and skills as possible to realize the “object” required by a society, the passing of entrance examinations, and will study in isolation (= “division of labour”), being forced to overcome competition (= “rule”) in a disorganized collective (= “community”), which is called a classroom.

On the other hand, the “Period for Integrated Study” takes a “stream II” pathway as shown in Figure 2. According to Nakai (2001, pp. 336-338), we do not necessarily have to set up the same attainment object for each student. From this perspective we might not grade the students and a teacher would play a role as a coordinator. For example, if a teacher adopts environmental issues as a topic in the “Period for Integrated Study”, s/he may make arrangements to have students visit an educational institution to learn environmental issues. However, the teacher might not have the same object in mind for all the students. If there are 30 students participating in the class, there might be 30 objects or purposes to learn. Some students may learn how to preserve our environment.

The instructors whom they meet at the educational institution or in the community might influence still other students differently and they would have different objects.

Figure 2: Period for Integrated Study by Engeström's Model



An application of Engeström's model to the Period of Integrated Study is illustrated in Figure 2. We must note first that the "Period for Integrated Study" is neither an interdisciplinary subject nor a work-study program. The themes of the "Period for Integrated Study" are supposed to be modern and current, such as environmental issues, ethnic issues, or international issues. However, the "Period for Integrated Study" does not aim at teaching these issues themselves. Rather, the teacher may make an arrangement to have the students meet someone germane to the topic thorough the process of the "Period for Integrated Study". In this case the students will learn a great deal by themselves by means of encountering these people. An important factor is for them to encounter people and listen to them, and as a result they will learn.

Figure 2 illustrates how students learn about “environmental problems” in the Integrated Study format. They do so by means of field trips, textbooks, internet searching at educational institutions, and elsewhere. Teachers make arrangements for how the students will learn the theme. The teacher may divide the students into small groups and assign them specific environmental problems. The teacher may arrange who each group will meet according to its purpose. Each student is required to take notes, collect data, and so on, as a part of their learning portfolio. The portfolio may contain the story or event that moved the student, the subject matter that impressed the student, the person who impressed the learner, and so on. This process is what is most important. As Nakai (2001, p. 338) says, the “Period for Integrated Study” does not provide learning by doing, but “it establishes learning how to search for the theme.” Namely, a teacher should plan for learning-by-doing, and should help students’ integrate their experiences into one theme in an interdisciplinary way.

For Japan, Engeström’s model yields a reasonable approach to establish the new curriculum such as the “Period for Integrated Study” to fit into everyday Japanese educational practices.

Summary

It can be said that Japanese education has existed in a paradigm conflict for at least the last 15 years and that this conflict presents problems to most teachers. This is

primarily because the Ministry of Education controls nearly all the systems and curriculum in Japanese education. The new curriculum for the “Period for Integrated Study” as introduced into the elementary schools as of 2002, was established as a result of an extension of the “liberal, flexible, and comfortable school life” goals for education that the Ministry of Education had begun developing in 1989 (Miyahara, O. 1999a, p. 110). However, this new discourse, the “liberal, flexible, and comfortable school life”, has yielded serious tensions and confusion in Japanese education, most evident over the last 15 years. One reason for the tensions and confusion is because the concept of a “liberal, flexible, and comfortable school life” was produced from within a postmodern perspective, despite the fact that Japanese education had been and still is primarily based on a modernist perspective. There exists a conflict between the people who advocate for the new view of academic achievement based on the thoughts of postmodern achievement, and people who advocate for the traditional view of academic achievement based on the thoughts of modern curriculum. A second reason for the tension and confusion is more pragmatic; the amount of time given for the content of the academic curriculum became extremely limited because time needed to be given for a “liberal, flexible, and comfortable school life” while at the same time the academic content in the new Course of Study was increased. What the Ministry of Education had done was replace the previous six-day-school week with a bimonthly five-day-school week; yet it not only did not reduce the overall amount of content in the academic curriculum, it added to it. I argue that all of this has led to the

students' weakened academic achievement. I argue that these tensions could be overcome, first by means of admitting that both modern and postmodern perspectives of curriculum have value and we should not to select only one perspective over the other. A lifelong learning program implemented for all teachers can help to accomplish this.

Engeström's model (1999, p. 31) may help us to resolve the fundamental conflict that exists between the new view of the academic achievement and the traditional view of the academic achievement in Japanese education as illustrated by the EFL situation in Elementary schools. What we can do is integrate postmodern discourses into modern curriculum, this because postmodern discourses are varieties of modern curriculum. I also believe six factors Engeström (1999) presents in his model are adaptable enough for us to develop a program for teacher professional development of TEFL teachers at the elementary school level as discussed in Chapter 3.

3:

IN-SERVICE TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR JAPANESE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Two significant factors that have influenced in-service teacher professional development in Japan today are the ideas on education held by Japanese teachers and the highly centralized nature of the Japanese educational system. The first of these will be discussed in section 3.1, the second in section 3.2. It is, of course, the case that the success of formal education depends on the recruitment and placement of well-qualified teachers.

The Japanese Ministry of Education (1997) states that:

After teachers are employed, teachers go through a broad spectrum of training implemented by their Board of Education. All newly employed teachers of national and public elementary, lower secondary and special schools undergo one year of induction training to cultivate practical leadership and a sense of mission as a teacher. (Author translation, p. 11)

In addition, all teachers after they started working are required to take teacher professional training according to their individual abilities and aptitudes. In addition to this, there is also available a system that allows teachers at national and public schools to take leave and study at graduate schools for the purpose of obtaining an advanced class certificate.

Although many Japanese teachers have participated in in-service teacher professional development programs, in reality the idea of in-service teacher professional development as lifelong learning is poorly developed in Japan. Most in-service programs are disjointed, and are not organically connected. This is especially true when considering the contributions made by universities to in-service teacher education. They have played but a small role in in-service teacher professional development in general. Most in-service teacher education in Japan consists of obligatory programs implemented by the Ministry of Education, the National Center for Teacher Training & Education, and prefectural boards of education. Section 3.5 will refer to the role of Hokkaido University of Education (HUE) and will make proposals for future directions in the area of teacher professional development.

Japanese teachers' views about education

Kutomi, Sato, and Yufu (1990, pp. 132-146) discuss differences in ideas about education between Japanese and the U.S. teachers, and summarize Japanese teachers' views about education with respect to teacher ages as shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Ideas on Education of Japanese Teachers

Views on Educational Issues Held by Japanese Teachers of Different Ages		
Teachers' Age	Student Guidance	Curriculum and Instruction
In 20s	Teachers permit the independence of students.	They use various teaching materials.
In 30s	Teachers strengthen the principle of management gradually.	They introduce standardized contents gradually.
In 40s	Teachers use the prescriptive model of education with confidence.	They force students to learn standardized contents with confidence.
More than 50	Teachers now in management positions try to keep a conservative type of curriculum they used to use exclusively.	Management forces both teachers and students to use the standardized curriculum exclusively.

(Kutomi, Sato, and Yufu, 1990: 133, Author translation)

Whereas views on educational issues held by Japanese teachers show characteristic changes with a change of age as noted above, American teachers do not necessarily show similar changes as the age because they do not necessarily keep working as teachers from young age to their retirement. An American teacher is comparatively free to be engaged in the teaching profession and there is not such a rigid custom of lifetime employment such as there is in Japan. In addition, "it is not as common for North American teachers to be employed as teachers for all of their working years, as it is for Japanese teachers" (Kutomi, Sato, and Yufu, 1990, p. 141). Kutomi, Sato, & Yufu, (1990, pp. 141-144) summarize Japanese teachers' views as follows:

- (i) When comparing Japanese teachers and American teachers, Japanese teachers keep an eye on students who cannot catch up with a lesson, and

they teach lessons focusing on low-ranking students, and make efforts in order for the students not to fall behind in the classes. However, in reality, there is so much content that they cannot take good care of every student, and the institutional wall of an entrance examination exists.

(ii) As for student guidance, both teachers of Japan and the United States have a tendency to overly control the students in a bureaucratic or management style. A Japanese teacher presents an ideal student image first and demands the efforts of the other students to become like the ideal students.

(iii) Japanese teachers are trying to meet the expectations of parents above and beyond curricular expectations. However, there are also simultaneous manifestations of “a peace-at-any-price policy” or “the principle of safety first” of the teacher community in Japan. Moreover, in Japanese schools, it is the behavioral pattern of teachers to work well beyond their regulated hours which is the cause of “burn out.”

(iv) Japanese teachers stay together in a faculty room at break hours, and often attend recreation with fellow teachers, etc. The mutual connection of Japanese teachers is strong. However, it remains at the level of informal exchange and an informal “mutual nonintervention policy.” This mutual nonintervention policy has dampened the exchange of ideas about educational theory and practice.

(v) As also shown in Table 4, ideas on education issues held by Japanese teachers are explained as a structural type. When teachers are young, good ideas are observed in instruction. When teachers reach their 40s, there is a growing tendency for them to force students to learn standardized contents using a prescribed method. And the more teachers have a “standard type” of educational concept, the more they have confidence in instruction. However, it should not be regarded as a generational difference. Although Japanese teachers develop deeper confidence in particular instructional methods through experience, it can be said that the confidence is the result of internalizing the standardized instructional view. Namely, the originality and creativity which are in charge of instruction retreat back, and methods become standardized and fixed. (Author translation)

What Kutomi et al. (1990 pp.132-146) argue is that the common feature of Japanese teachers is their sense of “unlimited service”. That is, they will try to meet the needs of children endlessly. They argue that, “In Japan, society requires that teachers should work unendingly in order to meet the expectations of children, parents, and the community. These expectations make teachers exhausted, burned out, and sometimes results in serious senses of powerlessness and their loss of confidence” (1990 pp.132-146).

At the same time, Japanese teachers’ ideas and beliefs about education lead them to believe that they should be able to solve all of their students’ problems. There are a number of problems faced by teachers, such as school violence, bullying, and refusal to attend school. A teacher is required to be counselling students if they have been skipping school and going to a game centre instead. It is not unusual to find teachers standing at the gate to tell students not to be late for school and to check that they are dressed in the correct uniform. Other responsibilities can include having the teacher instead of the parents going to the police station to pick up a student who has committed a crime. In fact, many Japanese parents expect their children’s teachers to do this, that is, to take care of nearly everything. Occasionally, Japanese teachers seem to hold a kind of illusion about themselves that they are actually capable of solving most of the problems of their students. Japanese society in general, and especially the parents of students in particular, have clearly expressed the understanding that teachers should be able to meet all the demands of

society such that, in Japan teachers are responsible not only for curriculum and instruction but also for student guidance. In the case of curriculum and instruction, they have to carry out curriculum development, office work concerning the timetable, planning and administration of examinations, and office work concerning instruction and attendance, all of this in addition to teaching an academic subject, testing, and grading. In the case of student guidance, teachers are involved with counselling and guidance for students, assistance and guidance for students' association activities, assistance and guidance for homeroom activities, and supervision of all extracurricular activities. What we find is that there is a tremendous amount of time and work for teachers in addition to teaching their subjects. While it may be the expectation in Japanese society that teachers attend to their students' problems, as we are aware, teachers are not almighty and schools and society need to become more aware of the natural limits on teachers.

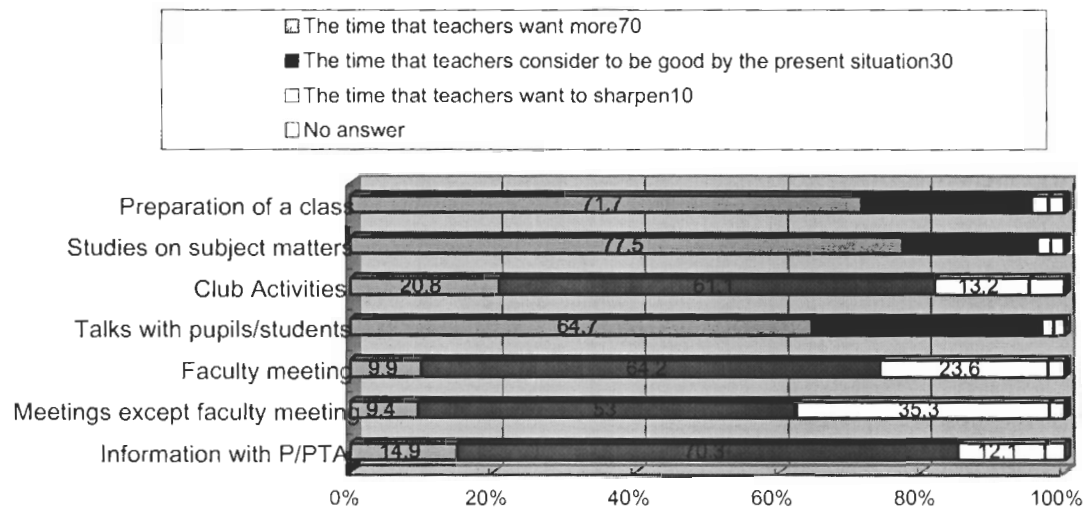
Kutomi, et al. (1990) argue that issues around teachers' conceptions of themselves are compounded by the fact that during the past 100 years or more, many people in Japan have held the illusion of the teacher as being nearly omnipotent. My personal experience supports this perception which makes teachers think that they need to aspire to be a perfect entity. One interesting result of this has been the development of a mutual non-intervention policy in schools whereby teachers believe in the ultimate authority vested in each other and do not pry into another teacher's class or into their lessons. It is

important to note that in the faculty rooms where most teachers in Japanese schools gather, various kinds of information are exchanged privately. There, the relationships between fellow teachers are very strong. However, there is also the tendency for teachers not to interfere in the class of a fellow teacher, including the management of that class. In this environment the natural exchange of ideas becomes restricted and the idea of teachers spreading their educational skills, knowledge, and opinions to one another in a professional manner is nearly unheard of. This so-called “mutual nonintervention policy” is so pervasive that it has regulated the exchange of educational ideas in respect to teachers’ instructional knowledge.

A result of Japanese teachers’ conception of themselves as nearly omnipotent is that they have become very busy people. I have noted so far the many tasks teachers have in addition to instruction, and the stifling of any sharing of educational ideas that occurs because of their non-interventional behaviour in terms of their colleagues. What is important here is that in such a situation there is little time remaining for them to seek teacher professional development activities or other training opportunities. Moreover, there is little opportunity for teachers to take leaves from work for further upgrading or training. However, despite how busy they are and the lack of opportunities for educational leave, teachers’ desire to engage in teacher professional development is very

strong and many do participate in in-service activities eagerly as shown in the following Figure 3.

Figure 3: Hours which teachers desire to improve themselves (Kutomi, Sato, and Yufu, 1990, p.65)



Japan has a long history of an official system of teacher professional development.. However, serious questions have been raised concerning the results of such networks of in-service teacher professional development. Despite the desire on the part of teachers to obtain further teacher professional development and the existence of official programs for teacher professional development, teachers with an interest in professional development do not necessarily participate in the opportunities available in the numbers one might expect. In spite of potential teachers' desires to attendance of workshops, it sometimes appears that only a few teachers participate in these types of training. Sometimes it seems that the same teachers attend the study meetings so that their names and faces will become well

known and recognized by boards of education and by the principals' association. These are the teachers who are seeking promotion. These important study meetings, designed to meet the in-service teachers' educational needs have become little more than tools for specific teachers to acquire advancement.

In general, teachers who are not interested in promotion confine their professional efforts to improve students' instruction in the school itself. This is not necessarily a bad thing. In fact, these teachers often gain a very good reputation and are often regarded by parents and students as reliable. However, what is regrettable is the fact that these teachers' excellent teaching practices do not get spread among the educational world outside of their own classroom and schools. Moreover, since these teachers have often turned down opportunities for official in-service teacher professional development, they have not been able to increase their knowledge of theoretical pedagogy. One result of this is that their teaching practices can be sometimes complacent. And the overall result is that these teachers' educational practices do not lead to development of in-service teacher professional development in the larger sense. These teachers are actually the prime candidates for in-service teachers' education because they have the desire, practice and experience in self-directed growth.

What this all demonstrates is that in Japan there needs to be a reform of the program for in-service teachers' professional development. When we consider that there are 200

or more elementary schools and 100 or more junior high schools in Sapporo City alone, and when we conceive of these schools becoming more cooperative and undertaking a more comprehensive in-service teacher professional development program, then the resulting development of Japanese educational practices could have a huge impact on teacher morale, competence and practice.

In-service teacher professional development for Japanese teachers

The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD: 2001, p. 104) points out a paradox exists in Japanese education by noting that “there is some inconsistency in that the Ministry of Education has been trying to promote a diverse, creative, and independent nature in schools and teachers by means of a centralized top-down system”. OECD also identifies “the problem that the Japanese system is currently facing is how to establish a fully open system supporting truly creative and independent schools given the advantage of a centralization-of-power organization” (p.104).

As I have already explained, what exists in Japan is a highly centralized and hierarchical educational system. Moreover, in-service teacher professional development is also highly centralized and is part of the hierarchical educational system of Japan. According to Inagaki (1998, p. 265), in-service teacher professional development in Japan

has a long history, dating back to late Meiji Era (1868-1912), and in a manner that has made it always a special feature at each school site. All prefectures and almost all cities have Institutes for Educational Research and In-service Training, and the Ministry of Education and the Board of Education in all prefectures and each city support the concept of “pilot study schools”.

According to OECD, the Ministry of Education provides financial support to each Board of Education of each prefecture for in-service teacher professional development. OECD also reports that the Institutes for Educational Research and In-service Training in Japan as of 1994 sponsored 8081 workshops. In-service teacher professional development in Japan includes professional development at different time periods in the teachers’ careers. The time periods are as follows:

- (1) training for beginning teachers: 30 days in-service teacher professional development out of schools and 60 days of in-service teacher professional development in school
- (2) seven days of in-service teacher professional development as required for 5-year-experienced teachers in Institutes for Educational Research and In-service Training
- (3) nine days of in-service teacher professional development is required for 10 or 20-year-experienced teachers in Institutes for Educational Research and In-service Training
- (4) workshop for principals and vice-principals
- (5) some teachers are sent to M.A. programs at teachers’ colleges with a curriculum based on advanced educational concepts.

Although it seems logical to assume that teachers' colleges have played some role in in-service teacher education in response to requests by prefectural boards of education and the Ministry of Education in Japan, in fact they have not necessarily made a meaningful or significant contribution to in-service teacher education. It appears that although most teachers in Japan have graduated from teachers' colleges, they rarely maintain any long-term relationship with them. There are several reasons for this. First, the primary activity of the teacher's college is to educate undergraduate students so they can obtain their teacher's license within a four-year period. Even though it is also true that some teachers do have the opportunity to attend M.A. programs at a teacher's college (See 5, above), that option is available to a very limited number of teachers. Teachers' colleges do not always provide an abundance of attractive programs for in-service teacher professional development. In fact, these institutions have only sometimes offered in-service teacher professional development programs in all their histories.

At the same time, teachers in Japan almost never consider their own self-education systematically throughout their whole lives. Although many have participated in various in-service teacher professional development programs, including their initial obligatory teacher training activities, the type of training they did receive was usually of a narrow, short-term and temporary nature that in many cases cannot be related or linked to other

training activities. Teachers can only rarely see the connectedness of their various in-service teacher professional development into the holistic notion of life-long learning.

The Japanese teachers show that their training desire is strong

Kutomi, Satō, and Yufu (1990) report that Japanese in-service teachers have demonstrated a strong desire for teacher professional development, even if they feel that they are always busy and have little free time to pursue it as shown in Figures 3, 4, and 5 (pp.54-55). They point to the 1978 educational white paper of Ibaraki to illustrate the amount of work teachers take home and the overtime work of teachers per week as shown in the following Figures 4 and 5.

Figure 4: The reality of overtime work at school (Kutomi, Sato, and Yufu, 1990, p.63)

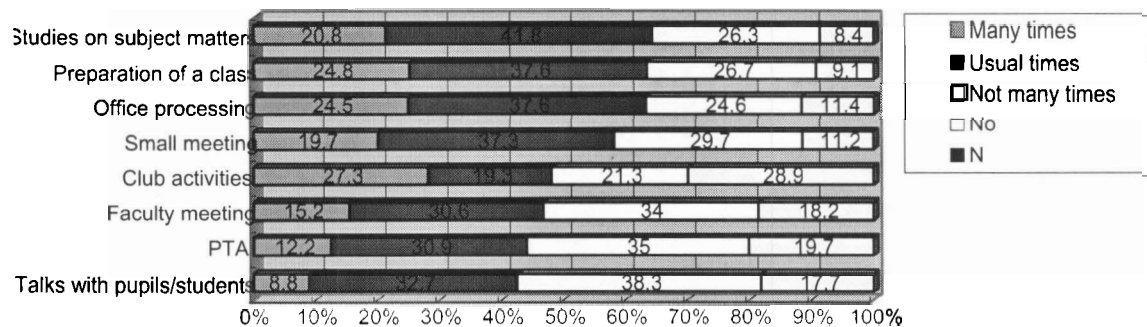
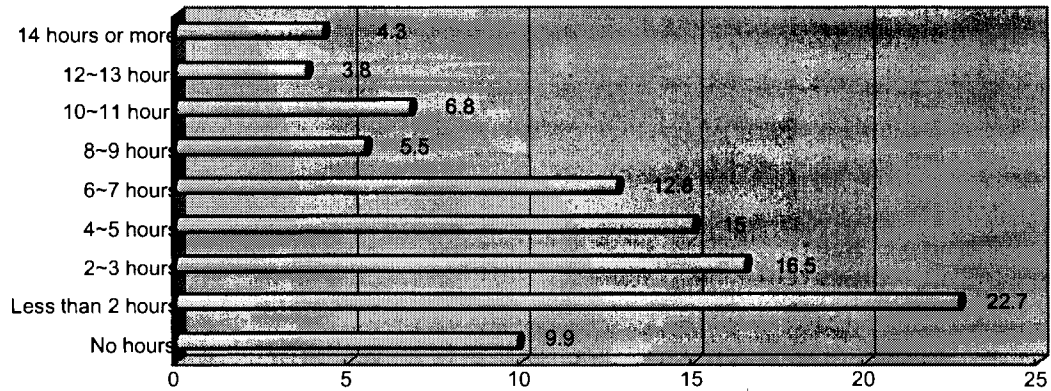


Figure 5: Average time of work which teachers bring home per week (Kutomi, Sato, and Yufu, 1990, p.64)



While the above Figures 4 and 5 demonstrated that the actual condition of teachers is that more than half do between 2 and 14 hours of work at home per week, nevertheless, as Figure 3 vividly demonstrates, the desire for further teacher development is strong indeed.

In addition, Kutomi, Sato, and Yufu (1990, pp. 56-57) shows the teachers' wishes from the 1978 educational white paper in Ibaraki prefecture.

Teachers believe they need more hours for:

- 1) studies on subject matters: 77.5 %
- 2) preparation for classes: 71.7 %
- 3) counselling for students: 64.7 %

Hours which teachers expect to delete:

- 1) various small section meetings except for faculty meetings: 35.5 %

2) faculty meetings: 23.6 %

The above demonstrates that teachers need many hours for studies and preparation on subject matters they teach, even under their situation of having a very busy schedule. And it is true that, despite their busy schedules, Japanese teachers have strong desires to receive training or education for in-service teacher professional development.

Only living creatures, not machines, have the adaptability to grow and change as teachers

Japan currently has a modernistic curriculum based on positivism. Positivists argue that we can understand our world by means of analysis which is why they insist that scientific knowledge is the most important knowledge. Thus, the traditional view of academic achievement in Japan has been to gain as much knowledge as possible. The investment in technology and technological training is consistent with this focus on the acquisition of knowledge. But as important as investments in technology training are as one part of teacher professional development, it is even more important to invest in the professional development of teachers generally. Technology is useful in education but only human teachers, rather than computers, can adapt to the unique and changing needs of individual students and society. In this section I will argue that teachers should have teacher professional development throughout their careers to keep up with social development.

Many people have believed for a long time that constructing a method based on scientifically analyzed knowledge enables us to control nature, enables us to construct a technological society, and enables us to satisfy individual needs and ends. As a result, schools have adopted many technological systems. Certainly, advanced technology has been drastically changing our lives and schools. We can correspond any time by email and cellular phones, students can investigate anything in the world on the internet. However, the highly developed scientific technology has not solved our problems in Japanese education yet. Nobody seems to believe that students and teachers feel happier than before. This means that such modern technology as computers, language laboratory systems, and so on do not provide simple answers to educational problems. At the same time, I do not mean that high technology is not useful for education, either. I argue only that human teachers who know how to utilize high technology in education should be the principal instructors in schools, a higher priority than machines.

Only qualified teachers can understand the different personality of each student, the different ways in which individual students are constrained by many of the requirements in school, and that each student exists in a complicated human society. Ironically, students are restricted by schools although schools are necessary for them. Pinar et al. (2000) mentions that the French philosopher Michel Foucault compared schools to prisons. The analogy of a prison, a hospital, and a school by Foucault reveals to us that the efforts of

“human beings to lead good lives” merely impels us to “monitor, control, demassification, and order” from the point of view of structuralism. Taylor (1991, p.10) warns our society about “the malaise of modernity”. He mentions that there are the three malaises in our society, i.e., the first fear is about what we might call a loss of meaning, the fading of moral horizons, the second concerns the eclipse of ends, in the face of rampant instrumental reason, and the third is about a loss of freedom. Many barriers or constraints also lie in the world of education. In Japanese education, we find uniformity, bureaucracy, and high-stakes entrance exams, and a curriculum organization that makes high performance on such exams increasingly unlikely. Japanese teachers experience the malaises Taylor refers to, as do their students. Schools’ efforts to monitor and control its participants have led to confusion and alienation.

I believe that the modernist notion that students must amass high amounts of factual knowledge will not be discarded in the current world until, at least, we find out a better new curriculum based on a new frame of whatever-ism. Teachers make enormous efforts to have children developed within the many constraints in the schools. Supporting their efforts through teacher professional development is an important goal.

Also, teachers know the students need to have lots of time to think so that they will have their dreams for the future and the ability to realize those dreams. Children need to have more time to draw their interests from their minds. Schools must become the places

to guide the students how to realize self-actualization by means of giving abundant time to children so that they will be able to think and reflect. Teachers should also have time to think and reflect and learn.

We should stop thinking that school is the place that imparts knowledge and skills to students based on positivism. Rather, school should be the place to let the students think about what the world is like. I believe learning is the process by which learners get to know the world. Positivism requires the students to analyze a thing to know it. Positivism teaches us that analyzing is the means to know the world. However, we can learn about the world as it is, occasionally without needing to analyze it. That is why Faure (1972) and Fromm (1976) insist that currently human beings divide something, which should not be divided, into pieces. Fromm (1976) summarizes that the “being” mode is “being active” or “The Will to Give, to Share, to Sacrifice (p.100)”. However, Fromm (1976, p. 16) argues the “having” mode takes the life of objects, a point he illustrates with two poems, one from Tennyson and one from Basho. Tennyson’s verse is:

Flower in a crannied wall,
I pluck you out of the crannies,
I hold you here, root and all, in my hand,
Little flower – but *if* I could understand
What you are, root and all, and all in all,
I should know what God and man is.

Fromm: 1976, p.16

Translated into English, Basho’s haiku runs similar to this:

When I look carefully
I see the *nazuna*-blooming
By the hedge!

Fromm: 1976, p.16

Tennyson “plucks” the flower “root and all” and tries to understand it in the Western scientist’s attitude. However, the life of the flower is deprived by his action. Of course, here, Fromm does not mean that examining life kills it, but means that it is the symbolic meaning. Fromm (1976. p.17) says:

The difference is striking. Tennyson reacts to the flower by wanting to *have* it. He “plucks” the flower “root and all”. And while he ends with an intellectual speculation about the flower’s possible function for his attaining insight into the nature of God and man, the flower itself is killed as a result of his interest in it. Tennyson, as we see him in his poem, may be compared to the Western scientist who seeks the truth by means of dismembering life.

Basho’s reaction to the flower is entirely different. He does not want to pluck it; he does not even touch it. All he does is “look carefully” to “see” it. Tennyson, it appears, needs to possess the flower in order to understand people and nature, and by his *having* it, the flower is destroyed. What Basho wants is to *see*, and not only to look at the flower, but also to be at one, to “one” himself with it – and to let it live.

As another example, too much analysis can lead to significant misunderstandings as with this analysis of the nature of water. Misunderstanding is sometimes caused by dividing it into hydrogen with oxygen. I can put out fire with water. However, oxygen is material to burn, and hydrogen is highly flammable. It does not necessarily tell the true nature of water to resolve it into this oxygen and hydrogen.

Fromm warns that the exclusive analyses of human beings and education do not explain the very being of them but deprive them of their complete lives. Teachers at school should know that we should not divide human beings and we cannot explain human beings by dividing them into discrete disciplines: mathematician, writer, artist, athlete, philosopher... etcetera. I agree that children must learn knowledge and skills because our world keeps requiring us to learn more knowledge and skills to create a better world as the positivists advocate. However, at the same time, it is necessary for us to also realize that humans, including children, can construct knowledge themselves. To participate in knowledge production, it is necessary for teachers to continue to learn in the rest of their lives, to think about the bigger view, the complete life of their students, and the larger purposes of schooling. Because human teachers rather than computers have the ability to evolve and to consider the individual in terms of the big picture, it is important that human teachers continue to exercise that unique ability to learn and to think about what they have learned. Thinking about what has been learned is enhanced by the sharing of stories and learning, of course, is precisely the point of a program of lifelong learning.

Education in Hokkaido prefecture and Hokkaido University of Education (HUE)

Thinking ways and spirits of Japanese teachers were highlighted in sections 3.1 and 3.2. In summary, their thinking ways and spirits are

- 1) although a Japanese teacher strongly wishes to train him/herself, there is a reality is that they do not find any time to study for themselves;
- 2) parents and society have a strong tendency to force responsibility for children on teachers, and teachers feel an obligation to respond to it;
- 3) teachers believe that they can and should solve all children's problems;
- 4) Japanese teachers often help each other and discuss many things about their students and others, but, they do not like other teachers to advise them on their class management and teaching;
- 5) because many in-service workshops are obligatory and mandated, we do not necessarily get effective results;
- 6) some teachers believe that they do not train and cultivate themselves because they are not interested in promotion.

In all social fields, technical progress always demands personal technical improvement in the company. If a new car is developed, the employee engaged in its construction will ask for the new technology corresponding to it. Teachers are no exception.

Even though they are very busy, there is a reality that teachers wish to train and cultivate themselves to become more qualified teachers although they dislike mandated workshops. It is also one of the missions of a university to address the desire of such teachers.

I would like to propose that Hokkaido University of Education can support lifelong learning for teachers by offering “Negotiated Lifelong Study Plans”. There are eleven national teachers’ colleges in Japan including HUE. HUE has a huge influence on education in Hokkaido Prefecture, demonstrated in the following example. HUE adopted essays for its entrance examinations a few years ago. As a result, all high schools across Hokkaido now provide essay classes to cope with HUE’s entrance examinations. What we see is that HUE has an impact on, and responsibility to, both pre-service and in-service teachers’ education for Hokkaido. I will argue in Chapter 4 that HUE must offer to educate as many in-service teachers as possible to take a role to improve education in Hokkaido. In order to give background rationale for the discussion in Chapter 4, the current situation of education in Hokkaido Prefecture and HUE will be introduced here. I will describe the drastic reform implemented by the Japanese government on April 1, 2004, which changed all national universities into national university corporations.

A characteristic of Japan’s system of higher education is that national, public and private universities have gone through various developments. Among them, the national universities have played a central role toward advancing the standards of academic research. In addition, the national universities have contributed to the balanced development of Japan’s higher education system by evenly distributing them among regions and providing a number of fields of study. HUE also has contributed to improving

education in Hokkaido Prefecture as a national teacher college. The Japanese government turned all National Universities into National Universities Corporations on April 1 in 2004 as described in the following information from the website of the Ministry of Education.

The Ministry of Education says that:

In Europe and the United States, universities, including national and state universities, are generally given corporate status, whereas the universities in Japan are categorized as part of the government organization, and do not possess independent corporate status. The national universities in Japan must continue to respond to the accelerated social and economic globalization and intellectualization, as well as high social expectations, and must compete with universities around the world. For this to be possible, it is necessary that they become independent and be granted corporate status so that they may maintain independent and autonomous administration.

The major changes are as follows:

- 1) By turning universities into corporations using the independent administrative institution system, the ex ante regulations shall be reduced, changing over to an ex post facto check system. In addition, each university shall receive appropriate assessments on its efforts and performance in accordance to its unique characteristic, promoting the individual development of national universities.
- 2) By changing the status of the faculty members to non-government employees, flexible system design will become possible at universities. The change will allow each faculty member to receive benefits according to their efforts and performance, and revitalize various activities, including cooperation among industry, academia and the public sector.
- 3) By introducing top-down management under the university president through the board of directors, transparent, flexible and strategic university management will be realized.
- 4) A management council will be newly established as an organ that discusses the management aspects of the corporatized universities. In so doing, over

half of the council members shall be from outside the university, to include external viewpoints in its management.

(http://www.mext.go.jp/english/org/f_formal_28.htm, May 15, 2001)

This reform was not designed with the expressed intent to realize a more qualified education in National Universities in Japan, but it did mean cutbacks in personnel for the purpose of improving efficiency by means of reorganization and consolidation of national universities. In many cases the goals of education are not consistent with the goals of efficiency. However, we should consider that reforming into the corporatized universities gives us a chance to provide education that is more suited to the needs of Hokkaido Prefecture. HUE has a strong responsibility to realize what society expects and to continue to improve education in Hokkaido one way or another.

Prefectural boards of education and various institutes for educational research and in-service teacher professional development mostly implement in-service teacher training. Graduate schools at all teachers' colleges, including HUE, are beginning to play a greater role in in-service teacher professional development. Inagaki (1998, pp. 276-277) mentions that "a graduate school takes up the research subject in the educational practice based on the experience of an in-service teacher, and serves as a place which adds academic consideration and new pedagogical schemes to the practice of a teacher." The teacher who takes up a graduate program leads her/his colleagues in practical research in their school. This means a graduate school at a teacher's college is in a position to

improve the educational quality of schools. However, there are only very limited numbers of in-service teachers who can take leave from official work to become graduate students. HUE has similar problems with all Universities of Education in Japan.

Geographically surrounded by seas on all sides, Hokkaido is located in the north of Japan. Hokkaido consists of a total of 212 municipalities including its capital, Sapporo, which has a population of 1.8 million. The area of Hokkaido is 83,453 square kilometres, about 22% of all Japan, and is almost the same as the area of Austria. Moreover, the 212 cities, towns and villages in Hokkaido, according to the 2000 national census, puts it in 7th place among Japanese prefectures, and has the population of scale similar to Denmark and Hong Kong. Population density is 72.5 persons/square kilometre giving it about 5 times as much room as compared with the national average (340.4 persons).

As of February 2004, the number of public elementary schools in Hokkaido was 1460 with 20,189 teachers. The number of public junior high schools was 724 and the number of teachers was 13,076. The number of public high schools was 280 and the number of teachers was 12,975. HUE has five campuses, one each in the cities of Sapporo, Hakodate, Asahikawa, Kushiro, and Iwamizawa.

Having had responsibility for the education of Hokkaido for over 118 years, HUE celebrated its 100th anniversary in 1986 after its founding as Hokkaido Normal School, the first teacher training school instituted in Hokkaido. HUE was started as Hokkaido

Gakugei Daigaku in 1949, which was a newly established university of education built to train many excellent educators.

As noted below, as of February 1 2004, the number of undergraduate students of HUE is 5,275 and the number of graduate students is 300 in all five campuses in total.

Table 5: The number of in-service teachers in Hokkaido and the number of graduate students in HUE (As of February 18, 2004)

	Elementary Schools	Junior High Schools	High Schools	Sum
The number of in-service teachers in Hokkaido	20,189	13,076	12,975	46,240
The number of in-service teachers graduate students	13 (0.06%)	15 (0.11%)	6 (0.05%)	34 (0.07%)
Cumulative number of in-service teacher graduate students since 1992	108 (0.53%)	128 (0.98%)	99 (0.76%)	335 (0.72%)

As of February 1, 2004, the number of in-service teachers as graduate students was 78 out of 1,622, and the accumulated number of in-service teacher graduate students was 335 out of 46,240 teachers since the graduate school was established in HUE in 1992. This is only 0.75% of the teachers in total which means that it seems unrealistic to improve education in Hokkaido by educating so few teachers. HUE must offer many more classes for the teachers who aim at teacher professional development in various ways such as opening intensive classes during summer and winter holidays, opening evening classes,

and offering classes through correspondence courses, etc. to guarantee to meet teachers' needs and desires to develop professionally throughout their careers, indeed throughout their lives. Unfortunately, HUE is not so attractive for in-service teachers because it is too busy educating preservice teachers.

HUE should offer more attractive programs for in-service teacher professional development. HUE should prepare many kinds of in-service teachers' programs so that any in-service teacher will be able to take courses according which they can fit into their busy schedules. As already mentioned in the previous section, teachers themselves have participated in various training and workshops, including obligatory training. Nevertheless, the training activities which they do participate in are not effectively related to each other organically. In other words, most efforts are largely disjointed temporary training activities that are not related to previously attended sessions and are not related to future sessions. HUE educates not only preservice teachers but also in-service teachers. HUE has a responsibility to provide programs in order to meet in-service teachers' desire for teacher professional development as part of their lifelong learning.

Summary

Japanese society has a strong tendency to expect too much of teachers, and teachers in Japan seem to believe that they should meet the endless expectations of society. In fact, Japanese teachers make extraordinary efforts to fulfil children's needs and their parents'

expectations. There are a number of problems faced by teachers, such as school violence, bullying, and refusal to attend school. These expectations cause many problems such as making teachers exhausted, teachers burning out, and sometimes resulting in serious senses of powerlessness and loss of confidence. Sometimes Japanese teachers seem to hold a kind of illusion about themselves that they are actually capable of solving most of the problems of their students. This results in many people, including teachers in Japan, expecting teachers to be nearly omnipotent. As a result, teachers always feel that they are very busy.

Although they always feel busy, they are very interested in a program for in-service teacher professional development. In Japan, there are many workshops for in-service teacher professional development provided by the Ministry of Education and prefectural boards of education. Unfortunately, these workshops are not related to each other and are not effective because most teachers attend more out of a sense of obligation than enthusiasm. HUE must play an important role to offer a program for in-service teacher professional development.

HUE has a strong responsibility to realize what a society expects and continue to improve education in Hokkaido. HUE must open many kinds of in-service teachers' programs in order for in-service teachers to take the courses as lifelong learning and also accommodate their busy schedules. This represents a fundamental shift in the nature of

inservice teacher education in Japan with a significantly increased role for Japanese teachers' colleges.

4:

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

In this Chapter I will argue that a teachers' college such as HUE could play a very important role in establishing "Negotiated Lifelong Study Plans" for in-service teachers. These study plans are based on the hypothesis that learning is a process of coming to know the world. In addition, I will adopt the methods of "storytelling" and "portfolio" while applying Engeström's model to the "Negotiated Lifelong Study Plans" for in-service teachers.

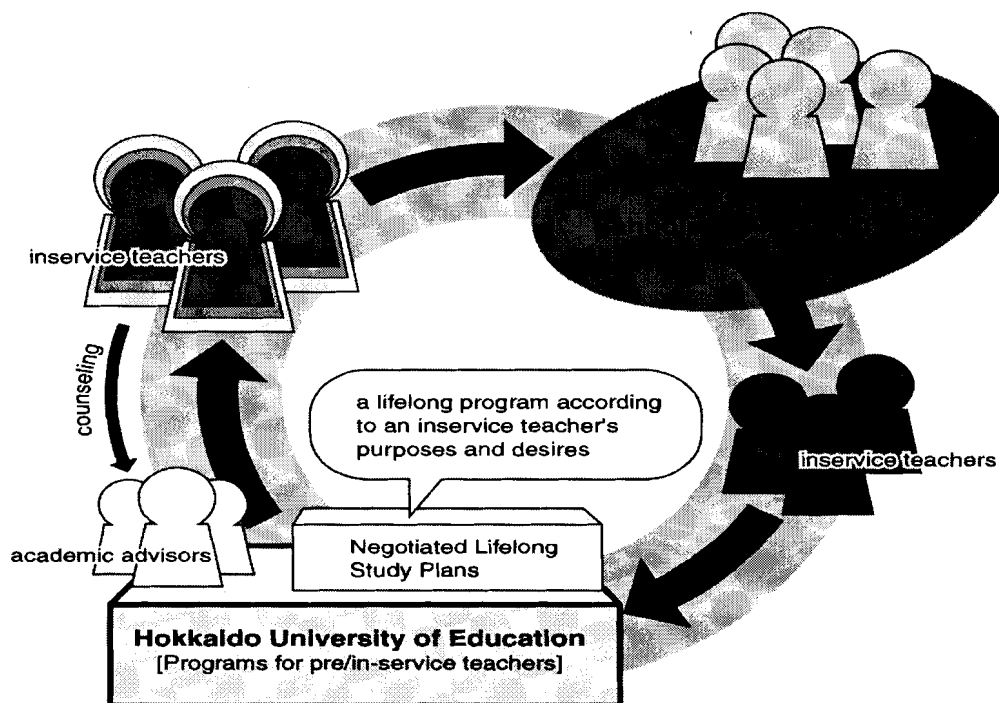
In this Chapter I consider what I believe is necessary for teacher education in Japan to prepare teachers for teaching EFL at the elementary school level. In addition, I outline a framework for teacher professional development, realizing that full-scale implementation of the framework will be a long-term goal.

"Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development"

Figure 6 illustrates the model of teacher professional development which I describe and label the "Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development". Despite Japanese practice with respect to teacher professional development, I believe the first

necessity in EFL teacher education in Japan is to develop the motivation of teachers to continue to train themselves for the rest of their lives, i.e., lifelong learning. At Simon Fraser University, the site of my doctoral studies, a whole administrative unit is devoted to the education of in-service teachers (See <http://www.sfu.ca/fp/wp/index.php>)

Figure 6: Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development



At present, HUE continues to offer many workshops for teacher professional development according to the requests of the Ministry of Education, Hokkaido Prefectural Board of Education, and Sapporo City Board of Education. However, since in-service teachers attend workshops with a feeling of obligation, many do not fully appreciate the benefits of workshops and the opportunities available from HUE. The training comes from a top-down system and is not self-initiated. Moreover, the training sessions are

largely fragmented and are regarded by teachers as not very productive in many cases. As I have discussed earlier, in Japan relations are weak between teachers' colleges and in-service teachers. Although teachers are well prepared after their four years of preservice education, they do not typically engage in extensive professional development afterwards. Thus, one of the most fundamental issues that must be dealt with in professional development of Japanese elementary school teachers is a change in teacher motivation to continue professional development throughout their careers. HUE, like other Universities of Education, has a responsibility to continue to offer teacher education in Hokkaido by means of evoking the teachers' self-motivation and desire to continuously train themselves.

As already mentioned the majority of in-service teachers in Hokkaido Prefecture gained their undergraduate degrees at HUE, but very few consider or return to HUE for further professional development. If HUE can offer teacher professional development for, say, more than 30% of in-service teachers in Hokkaido, the relationships among preservice teachers, HUE, and in-service teachers will become tight and strong.

The Japanese Ministry of Education explains lifelong learning on their website.

The Ministry of Education states that:

In order to create an enriching and dynamic society in the 21st century, it is vital to form a lifelong learning society in which people can freely choose learning opportunities at any time during their lives and in which proper

recognition is accorded to those learning achievements. (2004:
http://www.mext.go.jp/english/org/f_lifelong.htm)

The model of teacher professional development “Negotiated Lifelong Study Plans” I advocate in this thesis is consistent with the Ministry’s goals. The Ministry of Education advocates comprehensive review of various systems including education, in order to create a lifelong learning society. Lifelong learning, from this perspective, encompasses not only structured learning through school and social education but also learning through involvement in such areas as sports, cultural activities, hobbies, recreation and volunteer activities. This means that learning is a process of coming to know the world through a variety of experiences across the lifespan. Negotiated Lifelong Study Plans are congruent with this idea of lifelong learning and give direction for developing the professional abilities of teachers of EFL for elementary school students.

There is a significantly different outcome from the attendance of teachers in professional development programs at North American and Japanese universities. In both cases, promotions require additional university training beyond the initial preservice teacher training. In Japan, however, even if teachers attend programs for teacher professional development at a university, they are not guaranteed a promotion directly. However, as discussed in Chapter 3, more than 70% of Japanese teachers wish to brush up their skills and enroll in a program for teacher professional development at university,

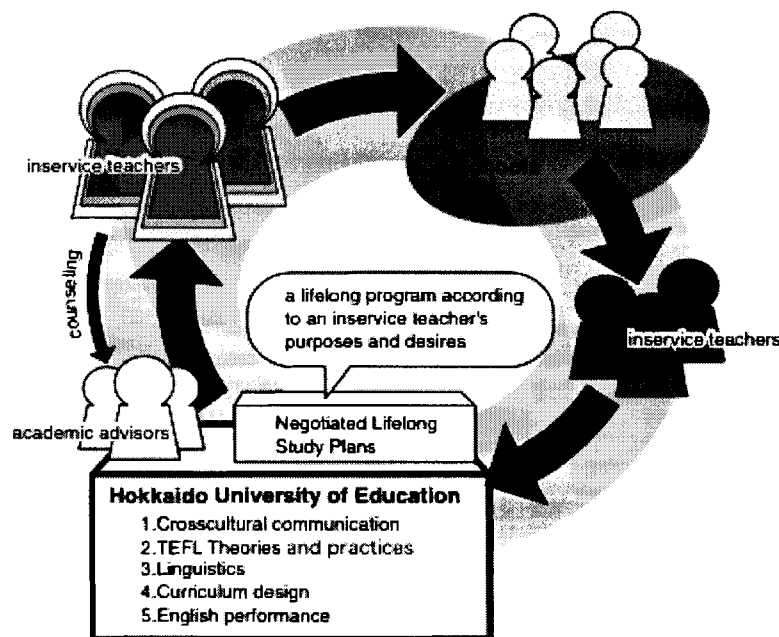
although they do not particularly like to attend the workshops mandated by the Ministry of Education and the Prefectural Boards of Education. Teachers do not like to feel an obligation to study but, even with little free time, they have strong motivation to continue to study to become more competent and qualified. This demonstrates that teachers realize the importance of public enlightenment. By living out such a philosophy, they are raising the awareness of Japanese people towards the significance of lifelong learning and encouraging them to learn for themselves. To support teachers, we should organize conditions of lifelong learning so that they may build up their power to continue to learn.

In order to give teachers the power to keep learning, I suggest that Negotiated Lifelong Study Plans, storytelling, and portfolio assessment, will work very well. Specifically, for teachers of EFL in elementary schools in Japan, I recommend teacher lifelong professional development which would concern five essential knowledge or skills: curriculum design, linguistics, crosscultural communications development, TEFL theories and practices and English performance. Figure 7, Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for EFL Teacher Professional Development, illustrates the continuous development of teachers through lifelong education/learning.

A fundamental assumption in the implementation of Figure 7 is that Japanese Universities of Education, such as HUE, should continue to assist in-service teachers to construct and reconstruct their own curriculum so that they can develop their professional qualifications for the rest of their lives. Teachers can take teacher education courses as a

lifelong study/learning program according to their own curriculum design. Most in-service teacher education courses can be offered in the summer semester and in evening classes when teachers have time to attend at the same time that there is a full time Master's program in education.

Figure 7: Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development: TEFL for Elementary School Teachers



For the time being, most Japanese universities do not offer any regular classes in the summer time because universities guarantee their faculty time to do research in the summer. However, I believe that universities should open classes for teacher professional development in the summer. I believe that whenever teachers want to learn more and become more qualified, Universities of Education such as HUE should arrange with teachers a program to meet their desires for their professional development. This is true

whether a teacher does or does not have enough time to attend courses on a continuous basis. I think that HUE must offer a program of lifelong education so that teachers can stop and go according to their own schedule, while at the same time continuing their teaching at grade schools.

“Negotiated Lifelong Study Plans”

The authors of an OECD study (Education Policy Analysis, OECD, 2003, p. 98) argue that “Lifelong learning is a core strategy for facilitating the transition to a knowledge society, and ensuring that the social and economic benefits of a knowledge society are equitably distributed”. The report also says that “The Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development in Korea established an initiative in 2002 that offers interest rate subsidies to adults (age 27-64) taking out loans to cover the cost of tuition for long-term training (more than one year) in private technical institutions” (p. 95). In addition to financial support, the most important thing in lifelong learning is how a learner can maintain their motivation to learn, and how a learner can find the time to continue to learn. In Japan, the Ministry of Education has adopted the lifetime-employment system for teachers. Once a teacher gives up his position as an in-service teacher, it is very difficult for him/her to return the same position. To encourage lifelong professional development, we must establish the system that a

teacher will freely be able to attend classes to improve his/her teaching skills, even as a part-time learner. I propose a new program for elementary school teacher professional development so that teachers will be able to continue their work with their students at elementary schools while attending courses or workshops as part of their “Negotiated Lifelong Study Plans”.

“Negotiated Lifelong Study Plans” are individualized curriculum programs for personal professional development, which are assisted by HUE. This is a new concept, different from any program that has existed at HUE or even in Japan before. HUE will assist teachers to design individual professional development curricula according to individual desires and needs and purpose for professional development. The following outlines these procedures:

After a teacher decides what s/he wishes to learn through lifelong learning:

- i) a preliminary HUE supervisor will be decided according to the teacher’s needs
- ii) a senior HUE supervisor will be appointed, based on the teacher’s desires and his/her senior supervisor’s schedule
- iii) the teacher officially makes a proposal of her/his own curriculum in order to achieve his/her aims and submits it to HUE
- iv) a supervisor will negotiate with the teacher a plan for completing the curriculum
- v) the teacher starts his/her in-service program during the summer holidays and/or in evening classes
- vi) an introductory course to such essential areas as “curriculum development”, “crosscultural communication development”, and “TEFL theories and practices” is provided by HUE to all in-service teachers
- vii) each in-service teacher works at his/her own pace to complete her/his own program of study.

The procedure (vii) in the above will be very important to activate “Negotiated Lifelong Study Plans” because each teacher will have different goals. If a teacher wishes to add any other courses to her/his curriculum, her/his senior supervisor will help her/him to find relevant courses or workshops from HUE or other institutes based on what s/he expects to learn.

An example of a possible course a teacher could take would be an overseas field study trip in which HUE would take in-service teachers to foreign countries. For example, HUE already offers an overseas field study for in-service teachers so that they will be able to learn about the educational systems and issues in the USA or in Canada. One of the most important purposes of this field study is that in-service teachers learn about a foreign culture from the viewpoint of the foreign culture. The attempt would be to understand a different culture in situ, rather than trying to understand a different culture through the filter of Japanese cultural values.

The methodology of storytelling, advocated by Goodson (1995), is assumed to trigger a teacher’s motivation to continue to train himself or herself by means of listening to others. It becomes a very effective means for teachers to listen to other teachers’ life stories in various situations. Storytelling is a pedagogy that assumes an in-service teacher will learn a great deal by communicating with his/her respected colleagues or senior teacher. In the case of an overseas trip, participants would be more likely to engage in open discussion with colleagues because they would be unrestrained by social inhibitions

based on age or relative positions and would have shared experiences. They will cope with common difficulties and they will share these positive new experiences. Solidarity will be born in a natural way in the group. The shared group experience, and the freedom to discuss that experience, ensures that the experience will be an enduring one and that learning will continue to grow as a consequence of discussion. That is truly an example of on-going learning, a microcosm of the principles of lifelong learning and the sharing of stories.

Let us consider, for example, the case where teachers have to teach English as one of the subjects in elementary school in Japan. First, we have to give the Japanese elementary school teachers in-service teacher professional development for TEFL because most of them are not qualified to teach EFL. However, it is unrealistic for every teacher to learn TEFL theory and practice etcetera right away. Therefore, I suggest here that HUE will establish a program of TEFL at elementary school for preservice teachers, and at the same time, HUE will offer “Negotiated Lifelong Study Plans” to elementary school in-service teachers in order to boost their desires to participate in this process. In Japan, elementary school teachers teach all the subjects. However, they are not expert in all the subjects from the beginning of their teaching careers. They become more qualified to teach all the subjects through their experiences. We can regard the acquisition of English teaching proficiency the same as the acquisition of any other subject proficiency which teachers develop through their experiences.

Suppose that there is an elementary school teacher in Sapporo, whose name is Toshi, a male, 38 years old. It has been fifteen years since he became a teacher. He attends many in-service teachers' training courses implemented by prefectural boards of education and the teachers' union out of a sense of obligation. This is not because he does not like to study for teacher professional development, but he wants to use his time to take care of his students. Additionally Toshi is not keen to attend a study group, because he has had a fellow teacher who is often away from his classroom in order to attend a study group. The management state of the colleague's class is by no means good. Toshi has recently had a dilemma in his mind. Toshi is beginning to feel that he is developing complacent educational beliefs and practices. He is beginning to feel displeased with himself and experience the frustration that comes from not being able to do his job as well as he believes he should. An additional problem will shortly arise in the elementary school in which Toshi teaches. It is that English must be taught as a subject in the near future. As already mentioned in Chapter 2, the Ministry of Education introduced English activities as a part of international understanding into elementary schools in 2002. As a result, every elementary school across Japan has English activities from Grade 3 to Grade 6 for up to fifteen hours in every school year. It can be predicted that the Ministry of Education will decide to bring EFL as a subject into elementary schools in the near future because pilot study schools have already had EFL classes as trials according to the directives of the Ministry of Education. This means our not-so-hypothetical Toshi might have further

difficulties because he has never taught EFL. Therefore, Toshi decides to consult with an advisor at HUE to resolve his problem.

While the Ministry of Education and the local governments in Japan manage in-service education in a top-down way to maintain standard levels of education, all actors in Japanese education need to rethink their concepts of professional development.

Teachers in Japan already recognize that continuing to learn for the rest of their lives helps them become more qualified teachers. Teachers should keep learning in order to connect changing world events with what has been changing in the world of educational pedagogy and practice. OECD (1998, pp. 6-7) discusses worldwide issues which have influenced changes in educational needs and practices. It divides those background issues into six categories as follows:

- (1) The development of the economy with a global perspective
- (2) The wave of internationalization
- (3) The diversity of our social demands
- (4) The collapse of the stable social background and the spread of destabilizing factors such as drug abuse or sex crimes
- (5) The insufficiency of conventional education which is oriented to textbooks
- (6) The raising of the educational level and most students in this process of school education should be concerned

Especially, as mentioned in (3), it is becoming almost impossible for schools not to take social needs into consideration when considering children's intellectual development. As one example to explain this, in the past only a very limited number of children were expected to obtain good results at school, children who came from a privileged class.

Today, children come from many different social backgrounds and are asked for a comparatively high academic ability level and high level of outcome as social demands. This situation has happened in many countries, that is, the recognition that our education systems include students from almost all social backgrounds, and since they fully fit neither the curriculum nor teaching methods originally designed for a more limited, homogenous, student body, a high drop out rate occurs. Thus teachers need to become more qualified teachers because their students have various needs.

Teachers will have to have strong incentives to develop professionally and to make themselves become more qualified teachers. They will have to realize that to learn to teach EFL is a lifelong process and they will expect the government to support them in their efforts. HUE, as well as other Faculties of Education, must play the very important role of encouraging the teachers to continue their participation in teacher development programs as a lifelong education process.

I believe that the method for professional development for teaching EFL at elementary schools in Japan should be built upon the professional experience and knowledge of teachers. Goodson (1995) advocates a methodology for teacher education that incorporates teacher narratives as fundamental in developing this change. He discusses how a “dynamic model of how syllabuses, pedagogy, finance, resources, selection, the economy, and the like all interrelate” (1991, p. 176) in life history. He argues that:

- (i) In one sense the project of studying the teacher's life and work represents an attempt to generate a counter-culture that will resist the tendency to return teachers to the shadows; a counter-culture based upon a research mode that nearly all places teachers at the centre of the action and seeks to sponsor 'the teacher's voice'. The proposal I am recommending is essentially one of reconceptualising educational research so as to assure that the teacher's voice is heard, heard loudly, heard articulate.
- (ii) Beyond the general sponsorship of the teacher's voice there are a range of other rationales for studying the teacher's life and work. First, such work will provide a valuable range of insights into the new moves to restructure and reform schooling and into new policy concerns and directives. ... I have recently examined the importance and salience of the belief in curriculum as prescription (CAP).
- (iii) CAP supports the mystique that expertise and control reside within central governments, educational bureaucracies or the university community. (Goodson 2000, pp. 16-17)

Pinar (2000, p. 769) summarized what Goodson found in life history data from

teachers (*italics added*):

- (1) From the teacher's own accounts, but also more detached research studies, it is clear that the teacher's previous *life experience and background* help shape their view of teaching and essential factors in their practice.
- (2) The teacher's life styles both in and outside schools and his/her latent identities and cultures impact on views of teaching and on practice.
- (3) The teacher's *life cycle* is an important aspect of professional life and development.
- (4) The teacher's *career stages* are important research foci.
- (5) Beyond major career stages, the critical incidents in teachers' lives and specifically their work may crucially affect their perceptions and practice.

Educational literature of the last decade is replete with reports of teachers' life histories. Asano (2001), for example, reports an example of the life history of a biology teacher working for a high school. Asano called him K and illustrated a feature of a social context in which K first formed his ideas about his subject i.e., biology and then how to

teach biology, and later further developed a more independent identity, beyond the simple identity of teaching only an academic subject. Most of K's identity was formed in the frame of biology. After graduation from a high school, he entered the department of biology at a national university because "biology" was his favourite subject. Although he decided to become a teacher after his teaching practicum in his senior year, he continued on to graduate school. He majored in environmental biology at graduate school. The reason why he went to a graduate school is that he had a strong desire to learn almost all he could about biology before he became a teacher. At the same time environmental issues surrounding him made him start thinking about social problems in his childhood. However his interest in environmental issues as social problems was merely part of his potential consciousness at this stage because he had many more unconscious matters in his mind. He attended several workshops to improve his teaching method and approach, and has continued teaching at a high school over the past 12 years. He developed his identity by means of relationships among biology teachers and his research activities. However he was not satisfied with his developed identity and he had internalized conflicts regarding this identity. He frequently said that he did not understand if his students understood what he taught. He felt there was something missing somewhere. In the meantime, one day, he had a chance to talk with a teacher, W, who taught politics. Teacher W had studied integrated learning in a long-term study workshop. W and K started to make a curriculum for integrated learning with their colleagues and started teaching their curriculum based on

integrated learning entitled “environmentology”. When K met and talked with W, he woke himself up and decided he had found the direction that he had been looking for. K was aware of the constraints within the framework of “biology” when he encountered teacher W and began to rethink his teaching. Such a process was passed through, and he learned interdisciplinary curriculum development. Asano (2001) demonstrates that we can have insights into the character of a social context through K’s life history which shows the process of change from “a subject instructor” to “a teacher acquiring individual experience beyond a subject”.

If the purpose of teacher professional development is not simply aimed achieving higher degrees, this development should be seen more as a lifelong quest or at least, career-long process. Thus, the aim of training all Japanese elementary school teachers to teach a previously-untaught subject in a short amount of time is not consistent with effecting substantive long-term change, a condition which requires long-term commitment and, concomitantly, support. It will be necessary to find how to encourage teachers to start learning TEFL methods and techniques and brushing up their professional abilities for the rest of their lives. This is a particular difficulty because many Japanese teachers are reluctant to admit they need improvement in their English proficiency while at the same time they lack confidence in their English proficiency. Their solution has been avoidance; they do not wish to train themselves nor to study English. However we have two positive conditions at work: first, they are well-qualified professional teachers and second, all

teachers in Japan have learned at least some English while they were students. Although in general they do not speak English, nor can they listen with comprehension to English, at least they can read English thanks to their studies for the various entrance examinations they took.

It is therefore possible to build on the experiences of teachers as teachers and as language learners. Their narratives about their experiences can provide a basis for their continuing professional development. A further rationale for studying the teacher's life and work develops out of the literature on teacher socialization. Although Japanese teachers find it difficult to speak to their colleagues or in public, it will be effective to have the teachers develop higher qualifications by means of giving them many chances to tell the stories of their lives and by encouraging them to enlighten each other.

We must listen to the professional opinions held by teachers and encourage them to utilize their professional abilities to continue training themselves in TEFL. Craig (1998, p. 67) gives us direction to do this by means of the methodological approach of storytelling. He argues that storytelling is a personal experience method that has much promise for future research and it is a vehicle for extracting meaning which is of vital importance to the understanding of how beginning teacher knowledge shapes and is shaped by its context. However, this constructivist view may not work well in the context of Japanese teachers' society because talking about themselves is a harder thing to do for Japanese teachers than for North American teachers. Japanese teachers find it difficult to talk about themselves

and their experiences because they were brought up in the tradition that silence is golden. In general, Japanese people are not good at speaking out in public or in workshops.

Therefore, in the case of a TEFL workshop or a training session for elementary school teachers, enough time should be given for them to introduce themselves to each other initially. It is also essential for the teachers to be given enough time to speak out freely in the workshop environment. If these opportunities make them uncomfortable, a written introduction can also be used and written feedback can be encouraged. That is, teachers could read their pre-written introductions to each other. Then, as a step towards collegial conversation, fellow participants could ask the presenter about his or her intentions. The progression from writing before speaking to more spontaneous conversation may or may not have to be more gradual than in this example, but the important point is the *process* of getting teachers to feel relaxed in speaking out before others. This process of storytelling about themselves is often overlooked but it is an essential condition for each teacher to be able to move on to the next stage of their training and encourage the teachers to continue to study even more. As a result, everybody's life history can be generalized as curriculum which leads us towards both what to learn and how to learn.

A training course for elementary school teachers teaching EFL to children

In sections 4.1 and 4.2, I proposed that universities have a key role in initiating, supervising, and providing programs for ongoing professional development while teachers continue their work in schools. The program of Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development suggested is offered for in-service teachers to continuously learn for the rest of their lives. In the next section I will introduce the reality of teacher professional development for elementary school teachers for EFL in Japan. Then, in section 4.4.2, I will propose a general training example for elementary school teachers teaching EFL at school.

The reality of teacher professional development for English education at elementary schools in Japan

I would like to demonstrate the reality of teacher professional development for English education at elementary schools in Japan by means of introducing two examples concerning TEFL. One is introduced as an unrealistic curriculum for training teachers of EFL at elementary school level. The other one is an exemplary workshop to train teachers by the Ministry of Education.

Unrealistic curriculum for elementary school teachers in Japan

When we design a curriculum for teacher professional course of EFL, we must not forget that there is a reality in Japan that elementary school teachers have never taught EFL

at schools and a long time has passed since they last studied English at school. As I argue in section 4. 2, some essentials of the qualities and attitudes requisite for the teachers of TEFL in elementary schools in Japan include the five essential components of curriculum design: linguistics, crosscultural communications development, TEFL theory and practice, and English performance. Matsukawa (2001, pp. 57-58) suggests the image of a teacher as a curriculum designer in Table 6.

Table 6: Tentative Curriculum for Elementary School Teachers

Main Field	Purpose	Contents
Fundamental English Skills	To develop English performance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - four skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) - conversation - pronunciation - grammar
TEFL International Understanding Education	To learn second language acquisition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - psycholinguistics - second language acquisition (SLA) - first language acquisition - SLA for children
	To learn about TEFL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - TEFL theory (Method, Approach, & Technique) - study of teaching materials - media use - testing theory
	To learn about international understanding and crosscultural communication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - international understanding education - cross-cultural communication

		- regional studies
Curriculum design	To develop integrated designing abilities to become a curriculum designer	- curriculum design - syllabus design - plan for a curriculum of integrated learning - evaluation for curriculum
	To develop reflective practical abilities	- action research - case study - micro teaching - team teaching practicum - teaching materials development - international exchange programs

(Matsukawa 2001, p. 58 translation by author)

I totally agree with the “Tentative Curriculum for Elementary School Teachers” that Matsukawa (2001, p. 58) suggested in Table 6, but I believe it is impossible for elementary school teachers to learn the curriculum in Table 6 in the very short time period of two or three weeks in a series of workshops or even a longer time period of several months. Even high school teachers of English have never been able to complete such an extensive curriculum as shown in Table 6. One of the most important things for teacher education is that it should be planned according to the current challenges teachers must face in teaching. In addition, we must realize that it is very important and effective for teachers to continue learning for the rest of their lives, i.e., lifelong study. A curriculum should be created to encourage and motivate teachers to continue to learn about TEFL for the rest of their lives.

An example of workshop conducted by the Ministry of Education to train in-service teacher so that they may teach EFL at school

Although it may be predicted that elementary schools will have an EFL program as an academic subject in the near future, it will be almost impossible to train all of the 413,890 elementary school teachers to teach EFL in a short workshop. However, it is possible to encourage all the 413,890 elementary teachers in Japan to learn how to teach EFL at elementary schools by means of using such a lifelong learning program as “Negotiated Lifelong Study Plans” as stated in the previous Chapters.

In 2003 the Japanese National Center for Teachers’ Development, supported by the Ministry of Education, implemented TEFL training for 549 of the 413,890 elementary teachers in all Japan. However, this training will not be repeated as the design permitted too few teachers, 0.13%, to take the TEFL training sessions. Realistically, most of the program’s TEFL professional development goals were impossible to implement during the series of part-time workshops and lectures. By way of example, I would like to describe this training.

1) Purpose of the Training

The National Center for Teachers’ Development offers guidance and assistance concerning fundamental pedagogy, knowledge, and the skills of TEFL to elementary school teachers holding positions as leaders and teacher consultants so that they can effectively carry out English activities and management as a part of international understanding in the Period for Integrated Study.

2) Sponsorship

- The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology
- The National Center for Teachers' Development

3) Date and Period

The 1st time: From May 13, 2003 to May 17, 2003.

The 2nd time: From July 22, 2003 to July 25, 2003.

The 3rd time: From August 25, 2003 to August 29, 2003.

The 4th time: From October 28, 2003 to November 1, 2003.

Table 7: Content of the Training from Handouts at the Workshop

Classification	Outline of Workshop
Fundamental knowledge of English activities	- The theories and methods of English performances
Practical knowledge of English activity.	- Annual teaching plan. - Creation of teaching materials and tools
Introduction of some practice of English activity	- micro-teaching and discussion

Teachers received three to five days of lectures and workshops. The workshops were carried out to demonstrate to teachers how to use English in their programs from the beginning to the end of the EFL class and consisted of a number of reports given by the teachers at pilot study schools and a theoretical workshop given by college professors. An example of a workshop was one given by Osamu Kageura, one of the professors of Miyazaki University, who gave a lecture to the teachers who attended the third training

workshop for TEFL from August 25, 2003 to August 29, 2003. Professor Kageura said that the fundamental idea of English activities is that teachers do not produce “elementary-school students who hate English”. He additionally mentioned that the method is “to employ a feeling of play and the content is to meet the children’s needs”. That is, it is a method of teaching to meet children’s needs by means of using play, games, and songs, etc.

We must ask, how can elementary school teachers offer English activities in their classes without having taught EFL before and without recent use of English themselves? Even if English activities are carried out at the elementary school level, how do the teachers perform English activities by using songs and games to meet children’s needs? Of course, teachers can play games and sing songs with their students, but they will never meet or satisfy children’s needs - in English - if they do not use English.

I have already argued there are many essential factors required for the qualities and attitudes requisite to teach EFL at elementary schools, i.e., some English proficiency, theories of first/second language acquisition, theories and practices of TEFL, theory of cognitive linguistics, understanding of crosscultural communication, some ability to design curriculum, and the reflective qualities necessary to modify curriculum in light of practical experience, and so on. Although it is understood that the first priority in terms of required skills for the qualities and attitudes requisite to teach EFL at elementary schools is English competence, it is unrealistic to expect the teachers to learn how to speak English in

a short time. In addition, all the requirements for the elementary school teachers will be learned in “Negotiated Lifelong Study Plans” as part of their lifelong learning. In the following sections it will be suggested for teacher professional development for elementary school teachers so that they will be able to teach EFL. In section 4.4.2, I will suggest one of the examples to train in-service teachers in a general way. If many examples are accumulated by teachers, a training course for teachers will be established.

A general training course

Although learning activities in EFL classes at elementary schools should be characterized as a mutual process and a shared experience between a teacher and his/her students, a teacher should organize curriculum and prepare the learning activities in advance in order to let the children participate in constructive and meaningful learning.

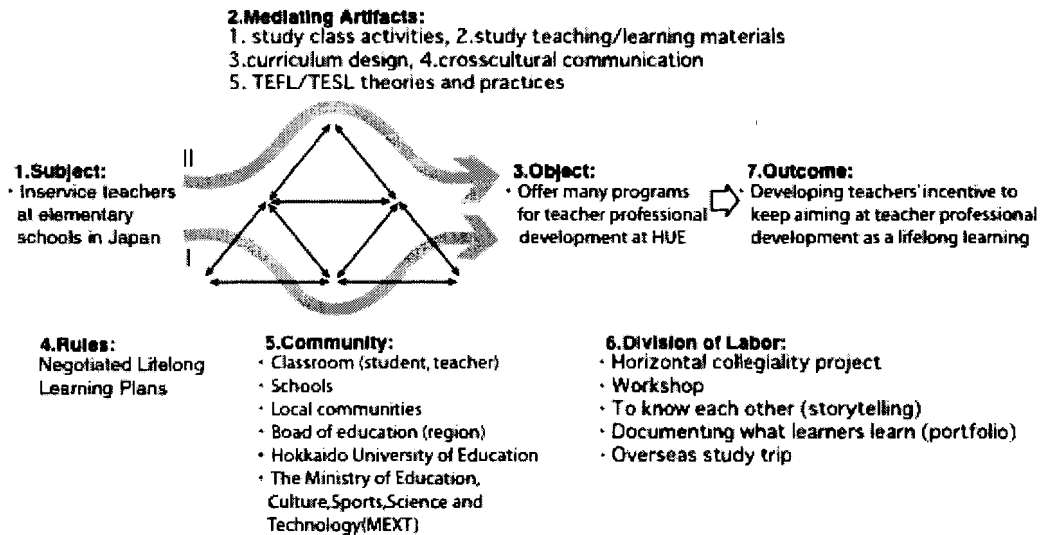
Littleyke (1998b, pp. 26-27) mentions that:

The principles of constructive teaching and learning apply particularly to approaches to children’s learning, but teachers are also involved in constructing views and strategies for teaching as part of their own teacher professional development. A learning classroom can be seen as a collaborative process and a shared experience where children and teachers are learning together, though the primary focus of the learning is different. In this, the children engage in developing meaningful constructs from the planned curriculum while teachers form constructs about how to help them learn.

In order to conceptualize the “Period for Integrated Study”, I used the model of Engeström (1999). Here, I will adopt the modified Engeström model in order to conceptualize how to

cope with the lifelong learning for in-service teachers as illustrated in Figure 8. Figure 8 shows that it is very important to look at the in-service teacher professional development from the viewpoint that an in-service teacher is a member of a society.

Figure 8: The modified Engeström model for lifelong learning of in-service teachers



Murphey (2003) suggests that primary school teachers should learn with students as peer role models through collaborative playfulness that can stimulate their teaching and learning. In addition, he also suggests that “we also need scaffolding for professionals in other circumstances to meet cultural and situational zones of proximal development; those zones that flow when learning happens more than teaching” (p. 6). He argues we should make teacher professional development curriculum that is responsive to teachers’ changing circumstances and that emphasizes teacher learning. The courses we offer must trigger the teachers to move towards their educational goals for the rest of their lives.

It is totally possible for us to design an idealistic curriculum to train a small sample of teachers of English in an idealized setting, but given the limited amount of time and large number of teachers, to implement or expect success from such an idealistic plan is unrealistic. In addition, it is sometimes difficult for teachers to adapt recommended class activities to their own class situations and their English proficiencies. Therefore, I will propose a training course which enables in-service teachers to design their EFL class curriculum according to their reality. However, I will not try to introduce a new method for TEFL classes here. There are many examples of class activities for EFL, methods, and techniques proposed until now which many teachers already find difficult to adapt to their classes. The program will not be too specific but will present guidelines that should be applicable to each school's condition. The method I propose here is to enhance each teacher's teaching ability developed through their experiences by means of using existing teaching materials and techniques.

First, the concept of "storytelling" is used in the curriculum in order to demonstrate each teacher's teaching ability and to develop their self-training ability for EFL. Second, we should use teachers' professional skills as elementary school practitioners who refine and improve their procedures through their experiences. I use the term of a practitioner to indicate a real expert teacher here. Although they have never taught EFL at elementary school, they are practitioners as far as teaching. At elementary school level in Japan, a teacher must teach all subjects, but nobody can teach all subjects with confidence when

s/he is a novice teacher. With such freshman teachers it is much more common that they cannot play the piano very well when they first teach music, nor perform the forward upward flip of an iron bar when teaching physical education. Over time, they learn how to teach music although they do not become musicians. They learn to teach all subjects as practitioners. In the same way, teachers will be able to overcome the difficulty to teach EFL for elementary school children. An instructor of this program extracts their awareness that as professional teachers this is what they already do and adapts their realization to teaching EFL.

A model outline of the curriculum

Although the curriculum will include the following nine steps, precise learning hours is not decided here because the learning hours may be decided according to a kind of a programme or workshops.

Step 1: selection of target learners

When we plan to offer a course of teacher professional development for EFL at elementary school, we choose the target learners as follows:

- i) In-service elementary school teachers in Japan who have little or no experience of teaching EFL to children, but with some EFL experience and training
- ii) In-service elementary school teachers in Japan who have little or no experience of teaching EFL to children.

Step 2: making small groups

Step 2 is organizing small groups. Each group has four heterogeneous members to easily discuss given agenda.

Step 3: introduction time

The introduction time is very important to successfully develop this programme. Therefore, it is necessary for in-service teachers to take enough time to introduce themselves to everyone. Probably, written introductions can be adapted according to the atmosphere.

Step 4: decision of aims for teaching EFL

It is necessary for all attending members to recognize common aims for teaching EFL at elementary school level in Japan. The purpose of learning English should be different at each learning level such as elementary schools, junior high schools, high schools, business persons, etc. Elementary school children officially learn English as a foreign language (EFL) for the first time. In addition, a development degree is completely different by the first grader and sixth grader in case of elementary school. Therefore, in-service teachers attending this programme should decide why they teach EFL at the elementary school level. Before getting into discussion, we would ask the in-service teachers to write the aims or purposes of teaching EFL at elementary schools. Then, the instructor will make photocopies of all the teachers' aims or purposes of teaching EFL and deliver it to each of them. They will discuss each aim according to their teaching experiences as elementary school practitioners until each group has a conclusion. Then

each group presents each conclusion and discuss each group's conclusions altogether. The participants will have many chances to listen to other in-service teachers. We do not necessarily need to have one conclusion.

Step 5: knowing other teachers' interests concerning teaching EFL

Here each participant must learn from each other what s/he needs to know or what s/he is interested in learning to teach while deciding personal aims for teaching EFL at the same time. A questionnaire administered by HUE in July, 2005 surveyed about 1400 elementary schools, and 48% of elementary schools answered the questions. One of the questions is "What do you need to know about EFL teaching at elementary school". The main answers are summarized as the following six:

Wish 1. to get the teaching materials which can be used immediately.

Wish 2. to know how to make a curriculum.

Wish 3. to know more about crosscultural communication.

Wish 4. to know teaching methods.

Wish 5. to get theoretical English knowledge.

Wish 6. to know the place to learn how to speak English for elementary school teachers.

The wishes from 1 to 6 in the above can be realized by taking other organized classes, that is, as part of the Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development, which encourages teachers to continue to train themselves for the rest of their lives.

Step 6: decision of teaching materials

The participants/learners (in-service teachers) must decide what teaching materials they need to realize the aims or purposes they decided at step 4. First, it is very important to address the six wishes in step 5 in order to decide on the appropriate teaching materials. However, here, those five wishes will be addressed in other programs. The next step here is to know the needs of children. Teachers should know what kind of materials children should learn from.

Step 7: what to teach by teaching materials

Next, the in-service teachers are to discuss what can be taught by using the decided teaching materials.

Step 8: connection with other academic subjects

Step 8 is deciding how the teaching materials can be integrated with other academic subjects such as math, science, social studies, music, arts, etc.

Step 9: teaching techniques:

Step 9 is to learn techniques used in classes. It is very useful for learners to recite old children's songs such as Mother Goose. Even if the phrases in songs are beyond learner's English proficiency, they will learn natural English unconsciously.

Note that it should be guaranteed that they have enough time to discuss the agenda at each step. Each step, first, will be discussed by a small group, and then will be discussed by all members. First, they will listen to others, then start speaking out, and then seek for the

common compromise point. In conclusion, it is necessary for in-service teachers to share their experiences of teaching elementary school children EFL so that they can realize they share common issues and challenges in the teaching of EFL in their own regional context, which is called “community” in Figure 8: The modified Engeström model for lifelong learning of in-service teachers. Then, it is important to continue to encourage in-service teachers by means of making a network of teachers and using the Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development.

Summary

First, I suggest that the Model of Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development should be used for elementary school teacher professional development in Japan. In general, teacher’s colleges in Japan have not enthusiastically devoted their attention to in-service teacher education although they keep graduating teachers from pre-service programs. As a result, in-service teachers have rarely looked back to their teacher’s colleges after they graduated. Another reason in-service teachers are not interested in attending programs for teacher professional development at a university is that they are not guaranteed a promotion directly. However, it is very important for in-service teachers to continuously brush up their skills and knowledge. Teacher’s colleges must play important roles to educate in-service teachers as well as pre-service teachers. If teacher’s colleges seriously look at in-service teachers, they also start looking

at the teacher's colleges. And one hopes, such a social phenomenon will trigger the circulation of education in our society. This idea is realized as the Model of Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development in this Chapter. In case of training TEFL theories and practices for elementary school teachers, it illustrates the continuous development of teachers through lifelong education/learning for TEFL for elementary school teachers. In other words, the Model of Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development shows how in-service teachers can take teacher education courses as a lifelong study/learning program according to their own curriculum design. I propose a new program for elementary school teacher professional development so that teachers will be able to work with their students at elementary schools while attending courses or workshops as part of their "Negotiated Lifelong Study Plans".

Second, we should consider a realistic curriculum to train in-service teachers so that they will be able to teach EFL at elementary schools. Occasionally, an unrealistic curriculum for training teachers of EFL is introduced in workshops to seduce teachers to buy teaching materials. Therefore, it is necessary to establish the appropriate way of teacher professional development so that elementary school teachers in Japan can learn, teach, and perform EFL. In Japan, although most of elementary school teachers do not have any experiences to teach EFL to their students, we can utilize their experience, knowledge and professional skills as a basis. They were not qualified elementary school teacher for every academic subject and treatment of children from the beginning. They

have learned how to teach their unfamiliar subject even if music, arts, and PE. Teachers can learn how to teach EFL as well as how to use English for the rest of their lives as well by using the Model of Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development Teachers. The strategy of storytelling advocated by Goodson (1995) will be used to trigger a teacher's motivation to continue to train himself or herself by means of listening to others at every step in a teacher professional program.

5:

**A SPECIAL TRAINING COURSE
BY MEANS OF OVERSEAS WORKSHOP**

In this Chapter, I will outline a specific training course for teachers by means of an overseas workshop trip. I see the workshop providing teachers a meaningful context to effectively combine such elements as “storytelling”, “learning crosscultural communication”, and “learning language”.

It goes without saying that it is necessary to learn about the culture and society of the target language. For the time being, English activities in elementary schools are supposed to be taught as a part of international understanding and include English conversation. English is taught as a subject at the junior high and high school level. Crosscultural communication should be taught at any level one way or the other. However, it is often very difficult for teachers and adults learners to learn about different cultures through books, videos, and even through virtual reality. This is because teachers and adults understand different cultures through filters of their own culture, beliefs, and values; Japanese teachers look at Canadian culture through their own values and beliefs. However, learning a different culture means that learners should accept it based on the

values of the different culture. The study trip to the United States discussed in section 4.2 has shown that it is very difficult for teachers to learn crosscultural communication. However, if a leader of the study trip program knows that there is a tendency for the teachers to learn the different culture through their own values, s/he can work to deliberately make the teachers conscious of a differing perspective. A study trip to a foreign country is a valuable and tried and true method for learning the culture, even in the short term. There are two meaningful results to introduce here. First, it is clear that study trip participants will be able to learn about different cultural perspectives. Second, participants will be able to get to know each other very well. The second effect is very important because participants will have much opportunity to talk to each other, so that they will listen to other participants earnestly. These are not artificial classes of storytelling, but someone is listening to another naturally. The third effect is that the teachers begin to see their own Japanese education system from their comparative educational cultural context. This third effect ensures their professional teaching orientation will be self-analyzed possibly disengaged comfortably and collegially before they return to Japan.

Seelye (1993) shows how several common, apparently purposeless, activities can be established relevant goals. He notes that there are emotional and evaluative goals concerning languages and life patterns in addition to cognitive goals, in language teaching. For him, the goals should be interpreted such that the objectives to be learned do not

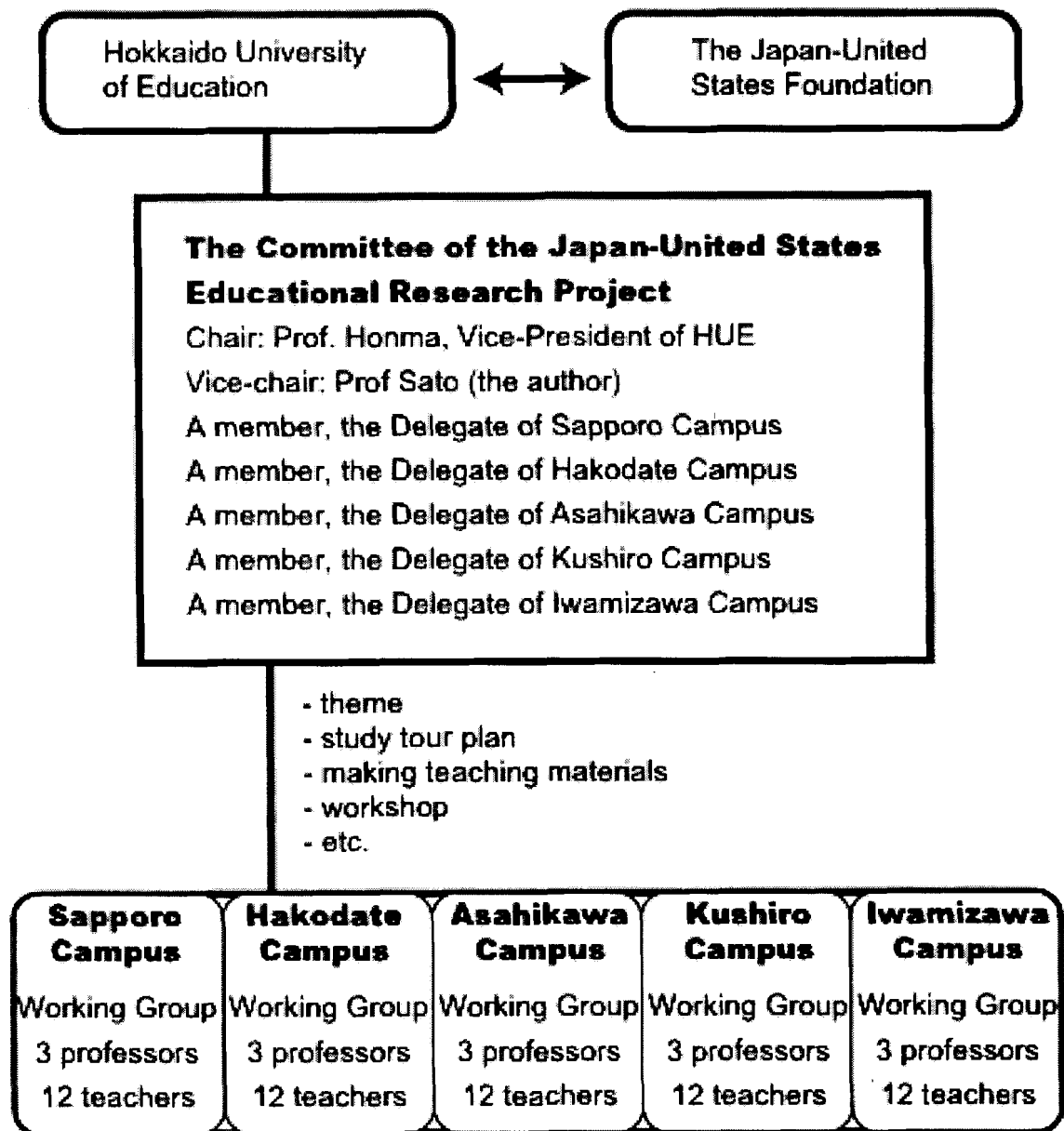
pre-exist inside the learners, but should be constructed in keeping with learners' inner sensitivity. That is, rather than reinforcing something the learner already knows or believes to be true, a higher level of cognitive awareness will be developed if the learner interprets events from a growing awareness of a new perspective. This is especially so in the case of intercultural communication where we should not make students learn existing matter as a set of pre-determined facts, but we should let them think, interpret and learn.

However, it is very difficult for teachers to invite a target culture into their inner worlds as is shown in the discussion of the project that follows. The case report in the following section demonstrates that gaining knowledge of a culture is different from accepting a culture. Even if one has abundant knowledge about a culture through such virtual realities such as the internet, TV, and pictures, it does not necessarily mean that one can understand a culture. If one obtains only facts or observations about a culture without any awareness of the history or values of that culture, then one's understanding and interpretations are probably doomed to be mistaken. I will discuss the difficulties in learning about a culture through reports of a particular project, while remembering that it is very important for learners to have cross-cultural experiences. The methodology of "storytelling" was used in the project in order to trigger the teachers to build up their sense of cultural relativity, communication, and so on through the experience of their study tour.

Communication and understanding –case reports of the Japan-United States educational research project from April 1st, 2000 to March 31st, 2003 conducted by Hokkaido University of Education

Hokkaido University of Education conducted the Japan-United States Educational Research Project (hereinafter, the research project) from April 1st, 2000 to March 31st, 2003 supported by the Japan-United States Foundation. This project aimed at teaching students about the United States of America by means of understanding the current United States culture. The organization of the research project is as follows:

Figure 9: The Organization of the Japan-United States Educational Research Project



As mentioned previously, Hokkaido University of Education has five campuses and is responsible for providing education across Hokkaido Island. The research project is composed of five working groups according to the location of the campuses. As shown in Figure 9, the research project consists of the Committee of the Japan-United States

Educational Research Project (hereinafter, the Committee) and five working groups. Each working group was composed of 3 professors and 12 in-service teachers. One professor and four teachers from each campus were supposed to participate in a study tour to the US. The total number who participated in the study tour was 25 teachers per year. Thus, the total number of participants in the study tour over three years was 75 teachers. All the expenses were paid from US\$ 400,000 donated by the Japan-United States Foundation to Hokkaido University of Education. The Committee had a tele-meeting once a month to create a program in detail in order to carry out the proposed plan. Each working group had several meetings once a month according to determinations made by the Committee. As a vice-chair of the research project, I was in charge of designing the original plans and I proposed them to the Committee. Because I participated in the study tour every year for three years in a row, the total number of people was actually 26 including me. I was required to make an original plan in detail to submit to the Committee and the Japan-United States Foundation, to execute the determined plan, and to review what we did. Therefore, only the chairman and I were in the unique position of knowing almost all the stories from this project.

Purposes of the project

This curriculum project for understanding the USA was aimed at junior and senior public high school teachers, and teachers of the elementary schools and junior high schools

which are attached to Hokkaido University of Education. The teachers visited and experienced the US in order to change their perceptions and to teach students about what they experienced. We established the following three main purposes for the project:

(1) To compare the similarities and differences between the island of Hokkaido as the new world in Japan and the US because Hokkaido, like the United States, has been developing for the past one hundred years in a fashion similar to the American frontier.

(2) To let the teachers learn and experience current American thoughts, culture, social manners, and so on from four different perspectives -- industry, history (opening up a new world), the development of communities, and current issues of importance (environmental problems, multiculturalism, establishment of communities, and so on).

(3) To make teaching materials and teach students about what the teachers experienced from their study tour in the US.

Methodology

The storytelling method, based on constructionism, was used as a methodology when we had meetings to plan for what the participants would learn and experience in the US. The three professors at each campus were in the role of leaders and let the groups discuss each year's theme several times before and after the study tours. For example, there was a meeting once a week before and after each study tour at each campus for six months. The teachers talked about what they thought, what they believed, what they had

experienced in their lives, and what they knew about the US in the meetings before and after each study tour. Upon their return, they gave conference speeches, in front of all the participants, on what they had experienced in the US.

The theme of study for the first year of research, from April 2000 to March 2001, was “Environmental Issues in the United States”. In the second year, from April 2001 to March 2002, the theme was “Industry in the US” with a specific focus on environmental issues. April 2002 to March 2003 was the third year of the project. We set the final theme as “Lives and Opinion in the USA: Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow”. In doing so, we could not help but be affected by the events of September 11, 2001, when the USA experienced a terrible act of terrorism. We, the members of the project team, asked ourselves how would people in the USA overcome this, and what were they going to do in the future? Many of the teachers who participated in the project wondered how they were going to open up a dialogue with the American teachers, which direction society is going to take in the future, and also how to reflect on past history.

Contents of the project

The project lasted for three years. Our project team produced specific results based on innovative and new approaches in teaching about the United States. The results were realized as follows:

The First Year (2000 - 2001):

- a. We researched regional industry, the data of education and culture and pedagogical science in the United States.
- b. We recorded and arranged what was learned from the American studies of geography and industry, etc. into regional studies.
- c. One of the joint research projects was initiated and involved the University of Idaho, Pocatello and Iwamizawa campus. Live classes were given by satellite communication.

The Second Year (2001 - 2002):

- a. We created teaching materials based on what was researched in the elementary and junior high schools and used the teaching materials in the classrooms.
- b. In order to realize the above, we discussed every issue raised by the American teachers.
- c. We performed exchange classes of regional industries and culture in the United States and Hokkaido by using a satellite system. We promoted collaboration between in-service teachers in the United States and in-service teachers in Hokkaido using various communication mediums such as E-mail and real-time communication such as TV-conferencing and satellite communications.

The Third Year (2002 - 2003):

- a. We finalized matters left over from the past two years such as Lives and Opinions in the USA: Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow from the point of view of current issues.
- b. We compared peace education in Japan and in the US.

Places visited in USA

We did a field study in order to create teaching materials to have students understand the United States of America as follows:

April 2000 - March 2001: We visited Seattle (WA), Pocatello (ID), and Bloomington-Normal (IL).

April 2001 - March 2002: We visited Seattle (WA), Fairbanks (AK), and Bloomington-Normal (IL).

April 2002 - March 2003: We visited Seattle (WA), College Park (MD), and Bloomington-Normal (IL).

The reason why we chose these areas is that they are similar to Hokkaido in various respects. Even though there are many different aspects such as people, culture, lifestyle, and educational systems, similarities are found in the climate, farming, salmon fisheries, industry, etc. We were very interested in how different regions organize, think, make a living, and educate students in these fields. Therefore, we decided to research each location with a view to noting cultural differences in the West and the Mid-West.

Outcomes

The main purpose of the project was to establish lesson plans and teaching materials so that as many students as possible are able to learn about the United States. In order to realize this purpose, seventy-five teachers went to the U.S.A. to learn the current situation in the U.S. during the past three years. In addition, the teachers who participated in study tours transformed themselves into more qualified teachers by means of reporting their

experiences in various ways such as a written report, making teaching materials, making a curriculum, and/or a demonstration lesson for understanding the USA.

Consequently, the field studies in the U.S. for these three years brought us great results. From various fields and from many viewpoints, many teaching materials and lesson plans were completed and teachers participated in a study tour developed by and for themselves. We have already published, in Japanese, our results that describe in detail the reports and lesson plans with teaching materials. Actually, every teacher who participated in this project gave a demonstration of a model lesson plan based on their understanding of the US in the published reports. Some of the teaching for educational studies was reported in the press. I will report on what we did for those three years very briefly focusing on Seattle.

One of the main reasons we selected Seattle as a field study for the three years in a row is that it is one of the cities that symbolizes the new U.S., continuing to develop with much vigour. First of all, the city of Seattle and the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) have been aggressively tackling the issue of environmental education. We went to many places to learn about environmental issues including the EPA. One facility, the Environmental Education Office, is one of the organizations belonging to the State of Washington and it provides information about how to teach environmental education and what environmental issues to teach at schools. We found instructional materials to teach students about environmental problems, but there are also books that show how to design

curriculum and how to integrate environmental concerns into each subject. This is referred to as “Curriculum Integration” to provide “Correlating Guidelines.” The state of Washington began to tackle environmental problems from the beginning of the 1970s with the development of industry. The state’s theme is “human and natural harmony.” Specifically, the salmon industry serves as a metaphorical symbol of the environmental problem. About 100 elementary schools in the State of Washington have project teams working on the theme of ecology and the environmental problems in rivers. Moreover, the State Government, local governments, and a non-government organization cooperate with each other to cope with the environmental problems from various angles. Every organization concerned with environmental issues has a program for guiding teachers, and always has a connection with the schools. Very recently, at the college level, they started to have a curriculum concerning the environmental issues in order to produce teachers who can teach environmental issues in their future classes. In Japan, we have not established such “Curriculum Integration” and “Correlating Guidelines”. In addition, we have learned that there are standards of environmental education, i.e., i) Fairness and Accuracy ii) What are the strengths of the materials related to Fairness and Accuracy? iii) What are the weakness of the materials related to Fairness and Accuracy?

Second, we focused on “Industries in the US” in 2001-2002. It is impossible to discuss the key industries in the Seattle area without referring to Boeing and Microsoft as primary industries, industries with major national and international influence. We visited

Boeing three times, each time thinking about a different angle. We learned how Boeing engaged in environmental issues in 2000. In 2001, we visited the production department in Boeing. The Boeing Corporation is one of several exemplar industries in Seattle. The Boeing Commercial Airplanes (BCA) Product Development team has been the source for ideas and products that have changed commercial aviation history. But as we learned, history was only the starting place for this diverse and creative team that spends more time thinking about tomorrow than dwelling on the past. The latest concept to emerge from the BCA Product Development drawing boards into international headlines is the Sonic Cruiser, an all-new airplane concept focused on bringing faster flight to the average passenger. We also undertook field study research into different industries in the Seattle area. We visited “Hale Ales” Brewery and “Chateau Ste. Michelle Vineyards & Winery” in Woodinville.

The last reason we chose Seattle as the place of field study for three years in a row is that the perspective on multiculturalism in Seattle is different from many big cities on the west coast such as Los Angeles. The former has the “English Plus” program which stands for multilingualism, but the latter has the “English Only” program which means only English should be used as the official language in schools. Dr. Lorraine, a historian at the Museum of History and Industries, gave us a lecture concerning history and industries in Seattle and the United States. She briefly explained about Seattle and its 150 year-old history. In addition, she referred to the history of the imprisonment of the Japanese

Americans in World War II. She explained the contributions of the Japanese Americans in Seattle in World War II. In those days, Japanese people were not allowed to own land. Cameras were taken away in order to prevent information from flowing out. Loyalty to the Japanese Emperor was prohibited. Of course, people were forced to fight against Japan and people who refused were immediately sent to prison.

Through the field studies in Seattle we visited many kinds of facilities such as schools, museums, a zoo, a botanical garden, a winery, a brewery, and so on. We learned that the history of the United States is like a series of waves, one after another since the founding of the country. Historically, the United States tried to lead the world in one direction based on its sense of value in history, and tried to create one American culture; however, the United States ended up creating a multi-diverse culture even though that was not always its original aim. This diverse culture is a result of the melting pot of cultures and cultural values and it is probably what has kept giving the U.S. its source of infinite energy. Recently, as a world leader, the U.S. has aimed at globalizing the world. However, ironically, the U.S. has been criticized for judging the world only with the U.S. value system under the name of globalization. The U.S. portrays itself as a nation centering on the values of an English speaker. On the other hand, the United States is a multicultural society, since it is a nation of immigrants and avows respect for the individual cultural background of its citizens. American scholars have criticized policies such as assimilation. So in the US, there are two major forces at work, one for cultural relativism

and one against. Seattle is one of the cities that advocates cultural relativism. In such a sense, Seattle is one of the cities that we can say is looking towards the future and not at the past.

Many Japanese teachers who participated in the study tour learned cross-cultural differences intentionally and unintentionally by means of experiencing the US and telling about their experiences in the US to their colleagues at working groups, to the students in their classes, and by giving speeches at workshops. They also taught a demonstration class based on the teaching materials they made.

- They had chances to tell about themselves and their beliefs at meetings before they went to the US;
- They had a chance to produce what they experienced in the study tour in the US by means of making teaching materials to understand the US;
- They had opportunities during meetings to tell what they experienced in the study tour in the US;
- They had opportunities to give a lecture about what they experienced in the US in front of the teachers from all the working groups.

The teachers' activities of producing teaching materials and presentations based upon their experiences in the US definitely transformed them into more qualified teachers. In addition, it is noted that a leader of the group, Prof. Tanaka, influenced teachers very much because everybody gradually started listening to him and trusting him since he had

accompanied them during the study trip. He was helpful to the teachers as they discussed their attitudes to US culture.

Unintentional outcomes in the last year's project conducted between April, 2002 and March, 2003

This section will focus on the evolution of peace education that Japanese teachers developed. I will adopt some of the stories told by Professor Yoshiya Tanaka, one of the lead professors of a working group at Sapporo Campus, concerning two working groups in Sapporo Campus and Kushiro Campus that went to the State of Maryland. While we felt that the field studies in the U.S. for these three years brought us great results, we learned that cross-cultural understanding was not achieved by anything so simple as overseas travel. This year's project illustrated this dramatically.

Both working groups in Sapporo campus and Kushiro campus visited the University of Maryland, College Park, several schools in Maryland, Washington D.C., and NY City after they finished their field study in Seattle. Professor Tanaka, one of the leaders at Sapporo Campus, guided and organized a workshop for 12 in-service teachers from the beginning to the end of the project according to the theme and purposes decided by the Committee. Because he had previously studied at the College of Education, University of Maryland, he had a strong connection with Professor Barbara Finkelstein, at the International Center of the University of Maryland. Prof. B. Finkelstein coordinated the

group's learning experiences about current education in the USA. Because Prof. Tanaka and I work on the same campus, I came to know the detailed activities of the both groups from the beginning to the end.

Before visiting the State of Maryland, both working groups had several issues that concerned them. They are as follows:

- 1) They wished to make teaching materials by observing peace education from teachers in the US. In addition, they had questions about the issues surrounding 9/11, Afghanistan, and Iraq.
- 2) They wished to investigate Americans' sense of justice. The United States justified its attack on Afghanistan in order to attempt to put an end to terrorism. And the United States justified dropping the atomic bomb on Japan in World War II for a similar reason, in order to end the war. When comparing these two facts, how do American people explain a sense of justice?
- 3) They wished to have a discussion concerning "peace education" with high school students at Wheaton High School in College Park City. In addition, they wished to show the contamination photographs of the atomic bomb attack in Hiroshima to the high school students.

Japanese teachers came to learn that there were different ways to think about peace education, although peace education has usually been regarded as anti-war education in Japan. Let's consider (iii) above. The Japanese teachers in both working groups asked a high school teacher who taught peace education at Wheaton High School if Japanese teachers could have a discussion with her students after they showed the contamination

photographs of the atomic bomb in Hiroshima. The teacher agreed to have a discussion concerning peace education but she refused the proposal to show the contamination photographs of the atomic bomb in Hiroshima by the Japanese teachers to her students.

The reason for her refusal of permission to show the Hiroshima pictures to her students is that she taught a version of peace education which made students understand that a measure of peace should be if a place is more peaceful in the future than it was in the past. In other words, she taught that sometimes force is necessary to secure a future peace. The Japanese teachers got angry with her version of peace education because the Japanese teachers believed that there was only one criteria to judge what peace education is. At first (before they went to the US), the Japanese teachers thought that the U.S. teachers did not consider the issue of peace seriously. Japanese teachers even insisted that the US dropped the atomic bombs in Japan because of racial discrimination. They said that the US couldn't have done it if Japanese were white. In Japan, there are many people who believe that "peace" is a state where war is not performed. In addition, in mainstream Japanese education, "peace education" is comprehended as "anti-war education" based on this paradigm. The Japanese teachers of the working groups had never thought that there existed peace education based on different standards.

In the State of Maryland

The Japanese teachers were beginning to realize the existence of a different standard or version of peace education during their stay in Seattle. And then they began to fully realize the depths of cultural differences that exist in peace education and which were brought out by their visit to the State of Maryland.

One of the most fundamental misunderstandings was that Japanese teachers saw Americans as being as homogeneous a national group as many Americans think Japanese are. Actually, Japan is not a homogeneous country either. This tendency to see the US as homogenous is most common amongst those Japanese people who have never visited the U.S., or who visit the U.S. for a short-term trip only. But through their extended stay in the US and the depth with which they considered several issues, the Japanese participants came to see Americans as a more diverse group than they had originally imagined. I will introduce their main activities in field studies in the State of Maryland in brief summaries as follows.

Visiting Wheaton High School in Maryland

The Japanese teachers observed the peace education class with the American teacher who refused to let them show the contamination photographs of the atomic bomb in Hiroshima to her students. The Japanese teachers listened to her version of peace education that she had been teaching. As mentioned above, she teaches a kind of peace

education which is very different from the traditional type of Japanese peace education, i.e., anti-war education = peace education. Some of the teachers got interested in the poetry, and other works of art aimed at peace education that the American students had made, and sympathized with this teacher's version of peace education. However, the teachers who were angry before visiting the U.S. continued to be angry about her version of peace education. They did not understand the differences in the frameworks of peace education in both countries, and felt the American version was invalid.

The visit to an Islamic school system in Maryland

The Japanese teachers experienced another example of the diversity of American culture. In visiting an Islamic school, the Japanese teachers learned such realities as the harassment of Muslims, and the problems of images of Muslims in press reports. The principal stated: "We accept nearly all things unless it is contradictory to the Koran. We are very tolerant since we accept even what the U.S. President says as long as his speech is not contradictory to the Koran". Some of the Japanese teachers were surprised, the others thought of the principal's comments as an interesting example of cross-cultural understanding among Islamic people, American, and Japanese.

The visit to the Congressional Think Tank in Maryland

The third example is of a lecture given by a representative of the Congressional Think Tank. The representative showed that, in the present age, more people die of street

fighting, terrorism, and everyday violence than in large-scale wars. He argued that we should consider war as one method for solving disputes, although it must be avoided as much as possible. A few teachers understood the difference between the United States and Japan. They considered the international position of the USA and the meaning of Japan's peace constitution. However, the teachers who were angry before the visit to America got increasingly angry, saying "This research institute that affirms war does not consider the issue of peace seriously. The US government is unbelievable and ridiculous". Furthermore, the criticism from some of teachers was also turned toward this project, saying "Was the purpose of this project the one-sided propaganda only from the US which was widely different from peace education in Japan and now it was being forced on us?"

The lecture by Dr. B. Finkelstein and the discussion with graduate students

The last example is of a lecture and discussion led by Professor B. Finkelstein of University of Maryland, a historian of education who examines historical and cultural dimensions of education policies and practices. She said that it was regrettable that the high school teacher refused to let Japanese teachers show atomic bomb photographs to her students. In addition, she taught Japanese teachers about the diversity of views in peace education and the importance of anti-war education. Finally, one of the Japanese teachers had a chance to give a lecture showing atomic bomb photographs in Hiroshima to the

graduate class and discussed peace education based on the photographs. The graduate students evaluated the lecture in a friendly way. There was one graduate student who is an in-service teacher and she said that she would show the pictures in her classes.

This event showed the teachers that people in the United States have various ideas and different ways of thinking about peace education. However, some of the Japanese teachers still tended to understand a simplistic version of the USA, thinking that all Americans fall into one of two camps: people who seriously consider peace education or people who believe in American-centred hegemony. For example, an argument can be made that “the objection to Afghan bombing = the objection to the attack of Iraq = people who believe that real peace education is anti-war education” versus “the support of Afghan bombing = the support of the attack of Iraq = hypocritical peace education”. The Japanese teachers were surprised when they learned that peace education was grasped in the US as the issues related to peace in cities and neighbourhood relations. They learned that there was a different standard or version of peace education when they visited the US for the first time that reflected the views of some, but not all, Americans.

After returning to Japan

One of the teachers in the working groups taught a demonstration lesson in an eighth grade class at a Japanese junior high school. Teacher A critically introduced the existence of opinions of the affirmation of war in the US to his students in spite of various opinions

about the meaning of peace. He emphasized that no members of the Self-Defence Force in Japan had died fighting a war, but many US soldiers had died trying to create peaceful resolutions because they had no peace constitution. However, the lesson took an unexpected direction. After the lesson, a number of students revealed they would also go to war in order to protect their families and their nation and this feeling was dramatically different from the expectation of Teacher A. Teacher A was greatly surprised that the lesson had had an opposite outcome from what he had intended.

A study meeting was held after this demonstration lesson. Many teachers observing the demonstration lesson pointed out that the students noticed that we should not condemn the US by citing the peace constitution of Japan because the USA has a different culture and a different way of thinking. And they suggested that the teacher should not directly apply the constitution of Japan as a standard in order to talk about a universal meaning of peace, but the teacher should lead a discussion towards the universal value of peace after teaching the various views of peace according to different cultures. In addition, they referred to the problem of treating the sacrifice of a combatant and a non-combatant in the same rank. Later, this teacher revised his lesson plan and gave the revised lesson to the students after this study meeting.

Another of the teachers in the working group gave a demonstration lesson to a sixth grade class at an elementary school. This teacher tried to lead his students to the conclusion that the US was wrong because they did not consider peace as anti-war. He

kept giving data which was “peace = anti-war” through the lesson. As a result, the students were guided into the direction the teacher intended.

Thus, although we have learned many things throughout the project in understanding the US, we have also learned how complex it is to truly understand cross-cultural education and to teach cross-cultural differences to students. At the same time, this project proves that it is very important for teachers to experience cultural differences by means of visiting the culturally different places. We believe that travel effectively educates and allows teachers to experience a different culture and to teach what they experience in the different culture.

In-service teachers had real life experiences in American culture in the United States and learned about the diversity of American culture, so they in turn were better able to teach their students what the United States is like from having experienced it themselves. Also in-service teachers learned how American educators teach about the United States and how they use teaching materials concerning the past and present of American industry and its culture. In addition, such discussions between American and Japanese educators as how teachers should portray their own country to students were also productive. These helped Japanese in-service teachers propose original suggestions to reorganize the Japanese educational system on how to teach certain subjects. It would mean creating a new style of teaching such as the integrative way practiced in the USA. The Japanese

educational system has long lacked fieldwork, integrated learning, and discovery learning. Through conversations with a diversity of Americans such as American teachers, pupils, students, college teachers, graduate students, an Islamic system school principal, representatives of the Congressional Think Tank, and the Smithsonian Institution, Japanese teachers were able to survey American peace education from many different angles. The teachers saw a variety of positions and opinions that exist in the U.S. and they learned to greatly extend their concepts of “nation” and “culture”. Of course, although some of the teachers found it difficult to change their concepts, they recognized through discussion at the end of the day’s field study that there were many versions of peace education.

Summary

Hokkaido University of Education sponsored study tours for in-service teachers to learn about the different cultures in the United States of America from April 1st, 2000 to March 31st, 2003 supported by the Japan-United States Foundation. This project aimed at teaching students about the U.S.A. by means of understanding the current United States culture. Each working group was composed of 3 professors and 12 in-service teachers. The total number who participated in the study tour was 25 teachers per year.

Japanese teachers encountered cultural differences in how each group views peace education. Though the Japanese teachers came to learn that there were different ways to

think about peace education, peace education has usually been regarded as anti-war education in Japan. The Japanese teachers believed that there was only one criterion to judge what peace education is. The Japanese teachers of the working groups had never thought that there existed peace education based on different standards.

As a result, most of the Japanese teachers learned to judge a culture in a relative way, i.e., to realize that each culture has its own value system. Whenever the teachers experienced different customs and culture, they helped each other and listened to their colleagues throughout the tour. Whenever they met with a different view and a different custom, they continued the discussion. We came to respect these conversations as important means for the teachers to learn from one another, and this has led to the recommendation in this thesis to engage teachers in storytelling during their professional development.

6:

CONCLUSION: ACTION PLANS FOR HOKKAIDO UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION AND EDUCATION IN JAPAN

I have discussed how teachers cope with teaching English as a foreign language at elementary schools without prior experience during their careers. The Ministry of Education in Japan introduced English activities as a part of a curriculum for international understanding into elementary schools in 2002, which did not necessarily require the adoption of EFL as a mandatory subject. Japan's Ministry of Education announced, on October 13, 2005, their decision to introduce English as a required subject into elementary schools by 2008. This means that it is now necessary for in-service elementary school teachers to be able to teach EFL in the near future.

In Chapter 2 I outlined the larger picture, how a new view of academic achievement promoted by the Japanese Ministry of Education in 1989 has produced some problems in Japanese schools during the past fifteen years. The Ministry of Education in Japan administrate the teaching objectives, subject content, hours of instruction, as well as a number of other aspects of school as outlined in the "Course of Study", which originated

in 1947. Japanese education has existed in a paradigm conflict for at least the last 15 years and this conflict presents problems to most teachers. For example, the new philosophy of a “liberal, flexible, and comfortable school life” has yielded serious tensions and confusion in Japanese education, most evident over the last 15 years because the concept was produced from within a postmodern perspective despite the fact that Japanese education had been and still is primarily based on a modernist perspective. The other reason for the tension and confusion is more pragmatic; the amount of time given for the content of the academic curriculum became extremely limited because time needed to be given for a “liberal, flexible, and comfortable school life” while at the same time the academic content in the new Course of Study was increased. The occurrence of some serious problems in schools such as truancy, disruption of class, decline in academic achievement, bullying, impulsive homicide, and so on, has increased during this time.

In Chapter 2 I also presented a new model of Japanese in-service elementary school teacher professional development that might improve EFL classes by means of the activity model of the Finnish social scientist Yrjo Engeström (1999). I have found Activity Theory provides a useful model for examining the relationship between multiple influences in Japanese education. Engeström’s model (1999, p. 31) may help us to resolve the fundamental conflict that exists between the new view of the academic achievement and the traditional view of the academic achievement in Japanese education as illustrated

by the EFL situation in Elementary schools. I argue that a lifelong learning program implemented for all teachers can help to accomplish this.

In Chapter 3 I discussed in-service teacher professional development for Japanese elementary school teachers as it is currently practiced. Teachers in Japan always feel too busy. I argue that one of the main reasons is that Japanese society frequently expects a great deal of teachers, and teachers in Japan seem to believe that they should meet the endless expectations of society. Japanese teachers make extraordinary efforts to satisfy children's needs and their parents' expectations. Sometimes Japanese teachers seem to hold a kind of illusion about themselves that they are supermen (or superwomen). However, in spite of their feeling of being busy, they are very interested in a program for in-service teacher professional development. In Japan, there are many workshops for in-service teacher professional development provided by the Ministry of Education and prefectural boards of education. Unfortunately, these workshops are not related to each other and are not effective because most teachers attend more out of a sense of obligation than enthusiasm. HUE should have an important role to play in offering a program for in-service teacher professional development.

In Chapter 4 I described a model of lifelong teacher professional development to train elementary school teachers. In Japan, in-service teachers rarely look back to their teacher's colleges after they graduate. However, it is very important for in-service

teachers to continuously brush up their skills and knowledge. HUE must play an important role in educating in-service teachers as well as pre-service teachers. If teachers start looking to us, we will be able to trigger the circulation of education in our society, which is called the Model of Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development. The Model of Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development shows how in-service teachers can take teacher education courses as a lifelong study/learning program according to their own curriculum design. I propose a new program for elementary school teacher professional development so that teachers will be able to work for their students at elementary schools while attending courses or workshops as part of their “Negotiated Lifelong Study Plans”.

In this Chapter, I would like to propose an action plan for Hokkaido University of Education based on the discussion in this thesis. The action plan consists of the following five items:

- (1) Hokkaido University of Education should provide a teacher professional development program so that pre/in-service teachers may have the power and motivation to continue to learn for the rest of their lives,
- (2) Hokkaido University of Education should be a university where in-service teachers return for continuing professional development,

- (3) Hokkaido University of Education should develop a climate of lifelong learning to establish the “Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development”,
- (4) Hokkaido University of Education should establish a community college as a centre for practical field studies, and
- (5) Hokkaido University of Education should develop a method of measuring a teacher's leadership. In addition, Hokkaido Prefectural Board of Education should provide job security guarantees for teachers who undertake long-term training, or teachers who work during a fixed period at a university as associate teachers.

Hokkaido University of Education should provide a teacher professional development program so that pre/in-service teachers may have the power and motivation to continue to learn for the rest of their lives.

My first recommendation for this action plan is that Hokkaido University of Education should inspire (educate) in/pre-service teachers to become self-motivated to continue learning during their whole careers. My thesis argues that study is a process in which learners go from the known to the unknown in order to better understand the world. As we develop competence in one area, we must continue to learn matters in new areas or in greater depth. Teachers should continue to learn in order to continue growing as better

qualified teachers. Therefore, one of the biggest missions of HUE is that, in order for pre/in-teachers to continue being teachers, HUE needs to develop the attitude that education is a lifelong process, and to provide the means for them to have the “power to continue studying”.

In Chapter 4 I described a model of in-service teachers’ professional development by using the Engeström model as in Figure 8 (= Figure 10).

Figure 10: (=Figure 8) The modified Engeström model for lifelong learning of in-service teachers

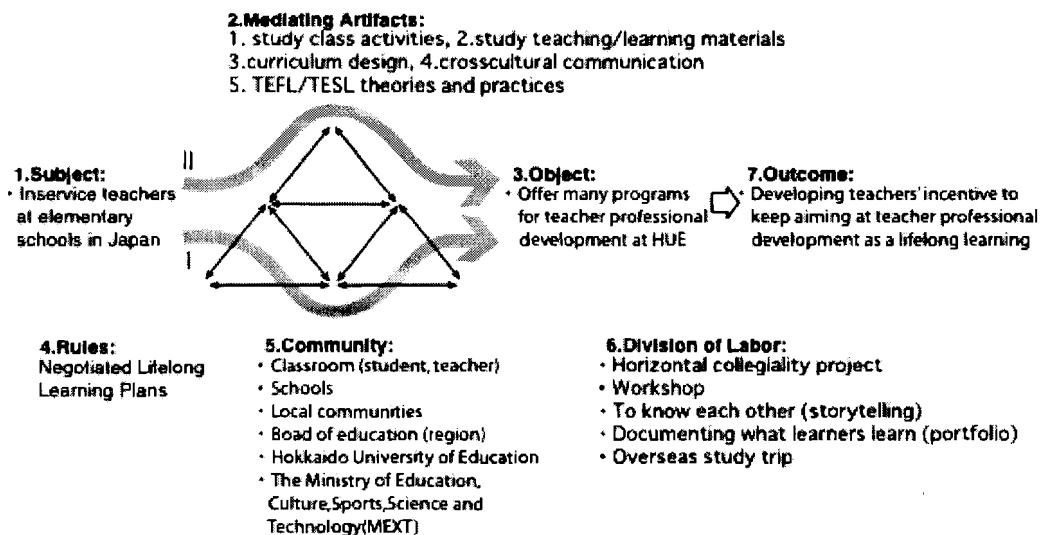


Figure 10 shows how pre/in-service teachers are to be trained by HUE. Number 1 in the model shows learners such as undergraduate students, graduate students, in-service teachers, post high school students. Number 2 shows learning materials. Number 3 shows aims. Number 4 shows methodology, lesson plans, e.g., Negotiated Lifelong Learning Plans. Number 5 shows the communities where learners learn. Number 6 shows learning

forms such as exercises, lectures, trainings, field studies, local activities, storytellings, portfolio, etc. All learners will be offered lessons arranged with sufficient balance of the elements 1 to 6 in Figure 10, based on individual assessments of teachers' needs. I argue that a teacher or a curriculum designer can decide which element should require more emphasis but still other elements should be closely related to each other.

Hokkaido University of Education becomes a university to which in-service teachers return

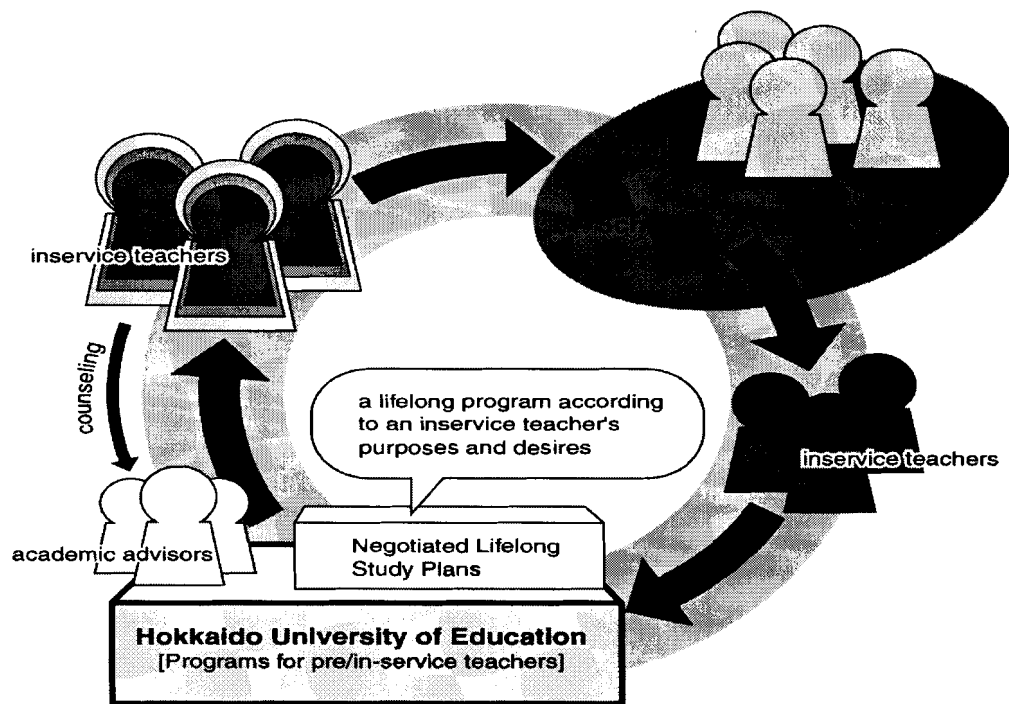
As I have discussed in this thesis, although eleven teachers colleges in Japan have produced teachers for a long time, in-service teachers typically do not return to their colleges, and the colleges have neither provided further training nor appeared concerned about the situation. Although Hokkaido University of Education has also produced teachers for more than 100 years, it is not strongly related with in-service teachers in daily activities. It is crucial to make a connection between Hokkaido University of Education and in-service teachers. That Hokkaido University of Education and teachers do cooperate and engage in professional development becomes the first step that makes the educational relationship circular. This educational circulation is suggested as the “Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development” in this thesis.

Hokkaido University of Education builds educational circulation to establish the “Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development”

Hokkaido University of Education has grown older being unable to fulfil the social responsibility of providing lifelong training while knowing that schools have many problems. Hokkaido University of Education continues to produce large numbers of excellent teachers in the educational world, and has done for over 120 years or more, but the relationship between teachers and the university is weak. Those who once became teachers do not return to their graduating school. Teacher professional development programs, which Hokkaido University of Education has opened for in-service teachers, are seldom appreciated by the teachers who take them. For example, based on directions from the Ministry of Education, Hokkaido University of Education has offered teacher training programs to teachers in their 10th year after becoming a teacher, but these programs are not well-received. Teachers may dislike the workshops because all the teachers were gathered to attend workshops by top-down mandate. They did not want to take lectures on teacher professional development program offered by Hokkaido University of Education, but attended them because it was required by the board of education. As a result, although Hokkaido University of Education produces many teachers as a teachers college, it has been less effective contributing to the educational world directly. It will better meet this responsibility when it can offer education directly to in-service teachers and schools. By doing so, we can produce circulation of education

such as “Hokkaido University of Education → school site → Hokkaido University of Education →.” In Chapter 4, I have suggested Hokkaido University of Education builds educational circulation to establish the “Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development” as in Figure 11 (=Figure 6) below.

Figure 11: (=Figure 6) Lifelong Dynamic Cycle for Teacher Professional Development



This educational circulation functions very effectively not only in the institutional field of HUE but also in raising teachers’ motivation to study for the rest of their lives. If Hokkaido University of Education can realize this educational circulation, it will take a very important role not only in our educational system but also in our society. Therefore, the future curriculum of Hokkaido University of Education should, I argue, follow this model. Three means are proposed to realize it as follows:

1. establishing negotiated lifelong study plans for in-service teachers in HUE,
2. establishing a professional graduate program in HUE,
3. establishing delivery of in-service teacher professional development programs in HUE.

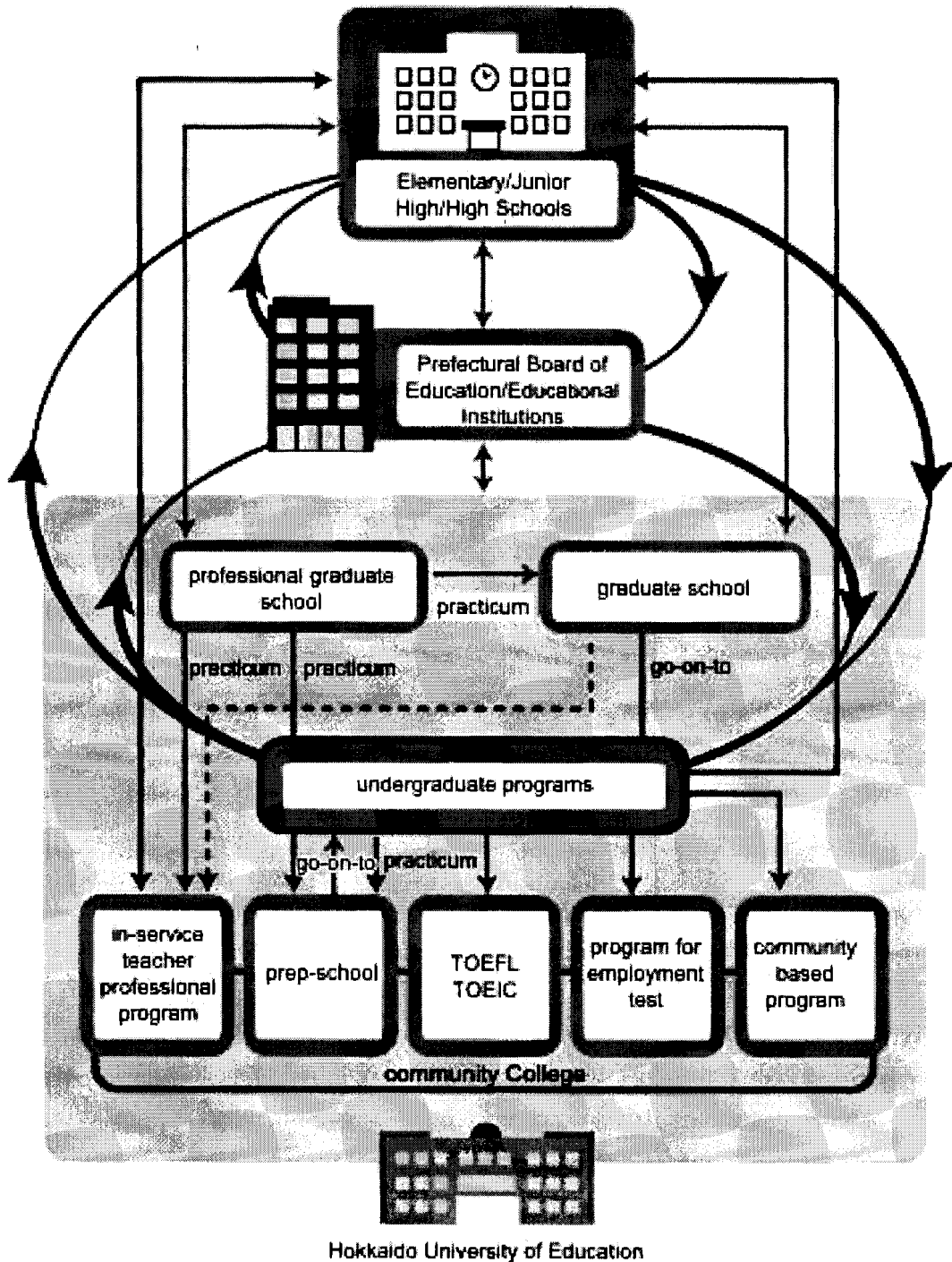
The “negotiated lifelong study plan” is a program where a teacher can take lectures or courses on every campus at various times. This program is a system designed so that an in-service teacher takes necessary credits under the guidance of his or her academic teacher over eight years. A degree or a certificate is given to the in-service teacher who completes it. The “professional graduate program” aims at the teacher education in the practical graduate school level corresponding to the modern subject for which there is the greatest demand. The delivery of the in-service teacher professional development program is the service that our university performs by providing training courses to school districts.

Hokkaido University of Education should establish a community college as a centre for practical field studies

I also propose that HUE establish a community college system. The community college would offer several courses such as TOEFL preparation, workshops for in-service teachers, prep-school for entrance examinations, prep-school for teacher examinations to become a teacher, and so on. Pre-service teachers can teach there as practicum. In-service teachers who enroll in the professional graduate program can work there as a

centre for practical field studies. Figure 12 illustrates the concept of educational circulation including a community college established by HUE so that teachers can build up their abilities and motivation to continue to learn for the rest of their lives.

Figure 12: Educational circulation to build up teachers' abilities and motivation so that they can continue to learn for the rest of their lives



Conclusion

A review of the developments which have led to current practices in Japanese public education, a review of those practices, and a specific look at imminent expectations for EFL instruction in Japanese elementary schools lead to the conclusion that we must establish a system of educational circulation in the near future in Japan in such a way that teachers' colleges in Japan will continue to support teachers for the rest of their lives after they graduate from universities and become in-service teachers. I believe that this thesis demonstrates how to realize a system of educational circulation.

First, my thesis proposes a way in which teachers' training colleges in Japan should change themselves so that they will be able to establish a system of educational circulation. Namely, teachers' training colleges should have professional teacher development program not only for pre-service teachers but also in-service teachers as outlined in an action plan here.

Second, the Ministry of Education and Japanese government must improve teachers' labour conditions so that they will be able to easily enroll in a teacher professional development programme. That is, the Ministry of Education should guarantee advanced status for teachers who takes long-term training, or teachers who work during a fixed period at a university as an associate teacher.

At the same, the Ministry of Education should develop a method for measuring a teacher's leadership. For the time being there are no criteria that evaluate in-service teachers of elementary schools and junior and senior high schools. Therefore, evaluation of the teacher of a public school is, in many cases, based on the arbitrary results of the prefectural board of education which is an employer. For example, a wonderful teacher who attracts attention from students, parents, and also co-workers in his/her school will not necessarily get a high evaluation from the prefectural board of education which has rights of personnel management. An invidious thing sometimes happens to a teacher concerning his/her evaluation. For example, suppose that there was a teacher frantic about attending study sessions outside a school while neglecting his or her class. Such teachers may thus gain familiarity with the prefectural board of education, and they often receive high evaluations. Of course, it is clear that there is a big problem in any evaluation model in which off-campus study session attendance is the only criterion. Hokkaido University of Education has undertaken the duty to change this arbitrary teacher evaluation model into an objective and reliable one. My thesis contributes for HUE to establish a system of educational circulation, as illustrated in Figure 11 (=Figure 6) in this Chapter, by demonstrating the need and providing both the rationale and implementation plan for this model to be actualized.

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