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New Learning Culture and Challenges to Japanese Teacher Education

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Abstract

Teacher education and training (TET) is destined to be innovated in the newly developed learning cultures. New learning cultures being global within the ICT networks, school teachers have to cope with various tasks that are laid upon them. Teachers and learning facilitators should be well prepared for their new professional jobs. Hence, teacher education and training system has to be innovated. The needs are felt at once nationally and internationally. The best way for innovating TET could be making the whole processes more participatory for all who can be involved in TET. The Regional Teacher Education Unit is proposed by the author.

Keywords:

Multi-literacy, new learning cultures, teaching capabilities, teacher education reform, regional scheme for teacher education

1. New Learning Culture—national, international and global

With the advent of the knowledge society and social involvement into the communication revolution initiated by computer-based information technology, since 1970s, it has been considered that learning should be liberated from the cage of the school room, and become ubiquitous for all who would intend to continue or acquire learning, regardless the diversified time and space. The White paper 21st Century Literacy in a Convergent Media World issued in 2002 by Bertelsmann Foundation is an example which provides such a view on new learning and new literacy. It states that school taught the “three R’s” and that ‘literacy’ was measured in international census data by estimating the percentage of people who could read and write. “As computers became essential in the workplace and dribbled into school, the computer literacy entered the curriculum, usually in the form of an introduction to the new vocabulary of bits and bytes, hardware and software. “Keyboarding replaced typing.”(Murray, 2003, p.1) The term ‘information literacy’ first appeared in the mid-1970s as awareness grew that information was becoming an overwhelming and

unmanageable deluge. In the 1980s, people recognized that computers could be useful tools for organizing and retrieving information. In 1989, the American Library Association codified a definition which provided the basis for subsequent discussion. "To be information literate, a person must be able to recognize when information is needed and have the ability to locate, evaluate, and use effectively the needed information." (American Library Association, 1989) Since then various discussions have taken place, and a variety of new notions of literacy have been coined: visual literacy, media literacy, textual literacy, numerical literacy, technology literacy and network literacy. The 21st Century Literacy Summit reported: "A profound shift is taking place in the way people communicate and express themselves. Fueled by media that increasingly are crafted for a global audience, pervasive access to goods and services from ever more distant locales, access to networks and communication services that span the planet, and generational ties between youth that transcend borders, a new concept of language –and what it means to be literate—is evolving." (The 21st Century Literacy Summit 2005, p.1.). Unlike the traditional notion of language and literacy, which is primarily unimodal and textual, this new form of communication and self-expression occurs in multimodal ways, incorporating visual and aural elements with textual elements, and immediacy which itself is a dimension of 'the new language'. This radical shift in learning with the new language, however, brought about new issues for educational agencies and governments in filling the gaps between institutions, communities, and societies that are well equipped with relevant technological schemes and those not prepared for the fluctuation. Practically, it was hard for the countries or people without sufficient technological provisions to participate in the information centered sphere or advanced and sophisticated communication and learning, which is the core of the Knowledge Society. The gaps were found intra-nationally and inter-nationally. Japan was not the exception.

The ubiquitous learning sphere was, once established, esteemed as a situation with higher potential for advancing education for all. Education for All (EFA), however, covered various educational aims and scopes. For example, it requires something more than universal primary education. In the international context, universal primary education has been the practical target for the governments of many countries, except some, to achieve by the new millennium. As the school life expectancy turned to accommodate more than simple unimodal literacy and people assumed schooling to be the basic condition for getting better jobs and social status to acquire more literacy, the school life expectancy embraced naturally secondary education even in developing countries or regions. As the result, on the global horizon, EFA came to suggest the fuller implementation of secondary education for all. UPE should be re-organized into the scheme for universal secondary education (USE). At the turn of the century from the 20th to the 21st century, more than half of pupils or students, enrolled on the public record, were learning in the sector of higher secondary education, in North America,

Europe and Oceania, while those numbers in Asia and South America were around the one third of the all who were registered. In contrast, more African children's learning terminated at primary school (UNESCO, 2000, UIS, 2012). Within such global situations, it was an urgent task for every national government to implement such policies as could provide more diverse educational opportunities to their people. Against such a radical shift in learning dimensions, teachers are highly required to review, on the global level, their professional status and capabilities.

On the other side, on the industry and trade horizon, along with the growth of the knowledge society, education came to be taken as new capital, and accelerated global markets let GATS propose the programs of educational services in four modes, which could influence, in turn, national planning of educational services. The four modes are as follows: (1) mode 1, cross-boarder supplying, (2) mode 2, consumption abroad, (3) mode 3, commercial presence, and (4) mode 4, movement of natural person (Sauve, 2000, pp.7-8.). In short, GATS want to make it more flexible to transfer human knowledge resources across the borders of geographical units. In such context, the existing educational provisions could/should be re-assessed as new providers of new learning within lifelong education and training schemes. In this sense, EFA and lifelong learning have to come to be amalgamated as innovative learning institutions. School teachers are thus again subject to scrutiny. "Teachers standards" became a universal topic for almost all of the political and industrial leaders of the countries on the global site (Suzuki, 2006).

UNESCO was quick in envisaging such a radical shift in learning before reaching the 21st century, and requires Jacques Delore to review what new learning should / could be toward the new millennium. The Delore Committee presented its Report to UNESCO in 1996. So-called four pillars of learning (learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together, and learning to be) were proposed and widely discussed. It was interesting to observe that some countries willingly accepted new learning but some others were reluctant, and critical if not rejecting. Within the multifarious cultures and the lags in social developments, the New Learning Culture brought new tensions,

As to new Learning Culture, the Delore Report itself envisaged and stressed the possible tensions that could be central to the problems of the 21st century. These challenges include (Delore, 1996, pp.17-18.):

- The tension between the global and the local
- The tension between the universal and individual
- The tension between the traditional and modernity
- The tension between the need for competition and the concern for the equality of

opportunity

- The tension between the extraordinary expansion of knowledge and human beings' capacity to assimilate it
- The tension between the spiritual and the material

The increasing global interdependence under globalization would require people to be more aware of the other people and the world at large. It suggests that any new learning institution should be innovative enough to tackle new tasks of overcoming various tensions by way of enlightening and making the mass population acquires with and sensitive to diverse cultures. Teachers' professional capabilities are also to be more innovative than ever.

Vladimir Kinelev, the then Director of UNESCO Institute for Information Technologies in Education had once indicated that the distinguishing features of such an evolving educational system would necessitate various alterations as follows (Kinelev, 2001, p.13.):

- A shift of emphasis from 'teaching' to 'education'
- A greater focus on fundamental knowledge and development of an individual's creative potential
- The Utilization of new information and communication technologies in educational innovation for development

We shall discuss from the broader viewpoint what qualifications and professional capabilities Kinelev's prescriptions would require of new teachers.

2. Japanese Response to the New Learning Culture and Teaching Force: first phase

In Japan, from the mid-1980s on, there was intense discussion on the new learning to be requires and on the flexible adaptability of the Japanese society to the innovative challenges from both home and abroad. Knowledge Society has already cast its thick shadows over Japan. The ad hoc Council on Education (1984-87) was unique in that it had proposed educational reforms on the assumption of energy shift and their implications on modern civilization, As a response to the shifts as such, lifelong learning (LLL) was brought into the education system and its administration and the ideal of deregulation allowed the Japanese learning system to diversify, resulting in (1) diversification of universities, (2) higher access to tertiary education and (3) expansion of adult learning. The Japanese basement for EFA and LLL was renovated and newly advanced. It was a reaction to the new age of

innovating new learning culture (Suzuki, 1998a, 2001, 2005a).

Education in Japan has been subject to the influence of society at large. It has not free from social issues, one of which has been an undue assessment of academic background. What mattered was not what anyone could do but which schools he or she belonged to. Such a social climate caused school education to be competitive and more and more children and adolescents were sent to various private tutoring. After a series of struggles, the Monbukagakaku-Sho (Ministry of Education and Science : MES) introduced a revised curriculum into primary and secondary schools in 2003. School days were shortened from 6 to 5 days a week, and the minimum course requirement of each grade was also simplified. The “Yutori” (literally, “room” or “margin”) principle was introduced: lesson hours for free activities of children were scheduled within the annual program for studies. The program intended also to nurture spontaneity of children so that they may live as enduring problem-solving citizens in the future. These innovations required that schools teach to renew or to re-invent new pedagogy and develop pastoral care for both school children and their parents. Teacher education and training should be re-examined and innovated. As to the standards of pupils’ and students’ academic achievements, some of the essentialists, sociologists and the leaders of the industrial circles became anxious about lowering outcomes.

On one side, mal-behaviors of school children have been a problem. Schools must overcome the matters and teachers cope with the problems. As time went on the problem became diversifies and some turned to be serious. Typical examples were school-phobia, bullying and disorders in school classes. The reasons for these phenomena were rather social and cultural, rooted in the backgrounds of family and community de-cohesiveness. Teachers were expected to solve the issues but they were not always successful in solution. Japanese society required making schools more effective in solving issues and the MRES decided to reorganize state schools as cost-effective manageable organizations as any business institutions. School teachers as professional groups in a given school were re-institutionalized as “line-and-staff”. This policy choice made the state schools management units with stratified manageable staff roles within the large networks of national education. Teaching staff personnel were radically modified. As the result, Japanese teachers became classified into several ‘line and staff’ layers. They were asked to acquire professional capabilities of controlling organized management. Despite such administrative efforts in schools, school-phobia and bullying have never ceased. It was not uncommon to observe that more teachers were burnt out by increased role-performance along with teaching.

Summing up, Japanese school education has to be re-built itself in order that all children can be fully protected from harmful damage stemming from social inequality, which emerged out of the

processes of social reconstruction from the 1960s on to the present century. The ubiquitous learning sphere, in the Japanese case, may be a positive measure to fill the gap and to offer alternative learning opportunities to those not suited for normal schooling, but in reality it has not been smoothly worked out to be open to all. Yet, it allows anyone access to knowledge-providers. The point to be scrutinized is what kind of knowledge providers have offered people opportunities and what people may have in the future.

3. Japanese Response to the New Learning Culture: second phase

Concurrently with the innovation of school education from primary to tertiary, further advancement of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) changed the people's lives fundamentally. The so-called cyberspace, e-learning and virtual learning networks, all of which utilize ICT as the primary tool, widely spread and changed people's attitudes to approaching knowledge, skills and information. Computer-based learning was also introduced in almost all schools from pre-schooling stage to highly advanced colleges. Universities are not the exception. It has been observed outside the school networks that various providers of knowledge developed their own learning networks, by which the providers offered not only private tutoring but also the courses for diverse vocational training and qualifications. Against the wide networks, there have emerged various types of collaborative teaching-learning relationships: collaboration between schools and private providers, those between schools and colleges or universities, and those defined as collaborative provision, where programs of study which are run jointly by more than one institution are spread. Providers are often corporations which run *juku* or cramming schools. In local areas where there can be no independent *juku* it can be a way for school children to have access to private tutoring courses provided by any big providers in urban areas so that the school may offer their students opportunities to have access to the supplementary and compensatory course as such. This type of collaborative provision could be an item about which specific analytical assessment should be legally made because it may require a sum of private expenditure by parents while the education act defines that compulsory education should be free. However, the network based on ICT has already covered almost all of lifelong learning institutions (schools, libraries, child-youth-adult centers), and multifarious programs of private tutoring have been estimated and utilized to a higher degree.

It is clear that the pedagogical dynamics of teacher-student relationship were destined to change. It can also be said that this ubiquitous-ness supported by public and private providers of knowledge and information created a whole new learning culture, which necessitated redefining teachers' and students' roles in learning activities. New definition yielded to cultural interpretation of the mutual

activities of themselves.

Culture is a hard word to define, as it can have different meaning in different social and historical contexts. One way to describe culture is how time, space and relationships are commonly understood and shared, with their own knowledge system. Value-systems work also. In learning, there are always time, space and relationship that are shared and understood among the people involved, and there is a knowledge system that facilitates and promotes the learning activities in closer relation to the values accepted historically by the communities and society at large. The introduction of ICT has promoted the emergence of new learning cultures with a new concept of learning space and time, in which the new dynamics of teacher-student relationships and knowledge systems should evolve. It becomes also quite a new task for social engineering to plan and to place rightly axiological demands from traditional and conventional easy of life within the new ubiquitous learning space-ant-time (Suzuki, 2005b).

4. New Pedagogy and Learning Theories: teachers or facilitators' roles

(1) Cyber-space and construct of knowing

In conventional schooling, learning primarily takes place at schools, be it public or private schools as well as alternative schools and home schools. The learner is given a space, often a desk and a chair with textbooks and writing utensils. The learner is “physically present” in the classroom, and the learning takes place only in this environment. Historically, of course, there have been various types of distance learning methods as well as correspondence learning systems which have provided alternative learning environments; however, the learning activity the learner is engaged in is much less interactive. The internet has made it possible for people to communicate almost real-time with other people on the other side of the globe. In the virtual or e-learning environment, the students and teachers communicate with one another, both synchronously and a synchronously, using various types of communication methods. This means that interactive learning can take place anytime, anywhere, unlike any conventional learning that primarily takes place only in a school setting.

The introduction of ICT in education, together with constructivist learning theories demands that the learning process be dramatically changed from the conventional style. This shift can be characterized as the Copernican revolution in the field of learning: just as Copernicus proposed that the earth is circulating around the sun and not the sun around the earth, in the new educational mode, learning takes place with the student in the center, not the instructor (Nistor et al, 2003, p.188.). Under

constructivism, learning is a self-regulated process that requires the active construction of knowledge. Knowledge is constructed by the learners and is not a one-to-one reflection of the teacher's knowledge, but is strongly influenced by the learner's prior knowledge, experiences and beliefs. In constructivist and situated learning environment, the learner takes an active role and the teacher has a reactive position (ibid. pp. 67-76.). This is quite different from the traditional way of teaching and learning, where the teacher plays an active role and the learner the reactive role.

(2) New Roles for Teachers and Students

The emergence of new learning cultures and the shift from teacher-centered to learner-centered, both of which are associated with ICT integration into education, pose new challenges for the teachers as well as the learners. For instance, in the online learning environment, instead of leading a typical discussion in a classroom, teachers are expected to play a moderator role which helps the students to understand the material, to solve problems, and / or to gain experience in network (ibid., p.189.). On the other hand, students are expected to play the primary role in learning, and it requires the students to have already acquired some learning skills, such as goal-setting, self-direction, media competence and so on. Project-based open learning demands that students be capable of learning their own independent works. This cultural shift in learning is not so easy to be undertaken. First of all, most of teacher trainees of today were in schools with very conservative, lecture based formats. Thus, hardly any of the current teachers experienced constructivism, either in their own learning or in continuing education. At the same time, students have been conditioned for many years to accept the instructor as the sole authority figure with unlimited wisdom and are unable to break out of this paradigm (ibid., p. 191.). Not only that, research shows that students encounter great difficulty with independent goal-setting and self-directed work (Lebaron & Collier, 2001, p.83.). Pukkinen and Ruotsalainen, in *Technology in its Place Successful Technology Infusion in Schools*, call this cultural problem, not so much in a national or ethnic sense but as in expectations about learning and teaching. They suggest that the students and tutors should also be introduced to the unfamiliar requirements of new learning cultures before they are immersed in the pressures of a real course (ibid. pp. 84-85.). It is not enough to simply increase the share of telematics and distance education in the overall curriculum; much advance preparation and organization is also required (Suzuki, 2006, 2010.).

5. New Scheme for Teacher Education and Training

Accepting that every teacher and every student is different, and that every school and every classroom is different, and accepting that there is local culture and local context in which learning

activities take place, teachers or learning facilitators are now required an innovative pedagogy: professionally coping with the tasks of constantly thinking how they should teach particular material, to a particular set of students, in particular setting under certain cultural and the local context. It is the teachers who should know most about their students, their personality and how much prior knowledge they possess; who need more attention, who should spend more time on reading, and how the learning objects may be acquired with the particular groups of students. It is the teachers who should be able to choose which teaching format is best suited for their students, or some students in their classes. However, it is unfortunate that teachers are often bombarded with new requirements associated with educational reform, curriculum change and new teaching methods they need to incorporate. They are often torn between the new requirements and the local and cultural context they are in. Barrow suggests, in his book *Giving Teaching back to Teachers*, that the teacher, who is at least in a position to know something about himself, his students and what he is trying to do, must be paramount in deciding how to proceed, rather than the generalized demands of some curriculum design or the imposed rules of educational experts (Barrow, 1984, p.204.). These views could be widely accepted by many a teacher who is working at schools. However, admitting that the new learning culture is necessary in the knowledge-oriented society, the views must also be re-interpreted within the framework of constructivist views because children, adolescents and adult people should be “the center” of the learning communities and learning networks which are enveloped by the new learning culture. What kinds of re-interpretations could be?

6. Teacher Education in Japan—from normal Schools to Graduate Schools

We have briefly described what Japanese society has had as its urgent needs to cope with the coming of Knowledge Society and its educational tasks. We also overviewed the educational tasks of schooling in Japan. In a word, Japanese education now faces with the condensed tasks of innovation for readapting to swift emergence of the global communities and societies. Education is highly expected to enhance national capacity to cope with such a huge task. This is one of the reasons why teacher education and professional standards have been public concerns and the primary policy task. We describe the historical development of teacher education as a system and selectively show the national and international roles of teacher education.

(1) The backgrounds and redundancy of the system

In Japan, the institutions for teacher education and training were reorganized in the middle of 20th century. The objectives of the reform were twofold: (1) all the future teachers from kindergarten to

high schools (for 5-17 young men and women) should be graduates and (2) kindergarten and primary school teachers should be educated at the Liberal Arts College or the School / Departments of liberal Arts of the Universities, which were planned to be located as the state university at each Local education Authority (47 Local Governments). All Normal Schools (ordinary and higher) were abolished or reorganized as local state universities. Under the renewed scheme it was possible for all types of universities to provide the courses for teaching certificates. Hence, more private universities ventured to open the courses for teaching certificate courses. The courses should be reviewed and approved by the Minister of Education.

By 1980, there were many teacher education institutions all over the country and the number of the graduates who left colleges and universities with teaching certificates increased enormously to supersede the real number of practical need so in schooling systems. Less than 10% of the annually issued certificates encompassing all school subjects were actually brought into the teaching force. Of all kinds of certificates, 90% were left un-practiced. Sociological analyses foretold that the teacher education and training system had already overreached the real demands of the teaching force. The criticism was that the new scheme of teacher education and training on the tertiary level was ideally sound and full of higher aspiration for making the teaching job a profession, but in practice it lacked planning for supplying fully certified candidates to actual teaching force. Universities responded to critical review of the then system (Suzuki, 1973, 1976). Various comparative surveys over the foreign teacher education systems were made. The present author also contributed to the discussions (Suzuki, 1974, 1978, 1980, 1981, 1987b). Some types of a wider range of comparative surveys over teacher education were also carried out by the experts (Suzuki, 1991, Sullivan 1998, Thomas, 2002). The Japanese crisis was of a kind that other countries had had during the 1970s and 1980s. With the rise of a lifelong society in the 1980s, Japanese teacher education was placed on the table of reconstruction. National, public and private universities and academic associations were quick to debate and make proposals (Suzuki, 1976, 1984, 1985). Since then continuous policy-choice and their implementation have been made by the state governments. Major points were (1) revisions of the curriculum standards of initial teacher education courses, (2) system of certificates of teaching and (3) enhancement of OJT for school teachers (Suzuki & Migishima, 1983, Suzuki & Sekine, 1996).

(2) Recent Trends in Teacher Education and Training

In Japan, in the year of 2011, the government suggested introducing 6 year courses for the teaching certificates: a 2 year extension to 4 year undergraduate education. It is about ten years since the state government introduced the professional graduate school system into some practical and professional

fields. The university reform implemented during the 1990s was radical in the sense that universities were set free in reorganizing their first degree courses and that national universities were made independent university corporations. The privatization policy was set through the entire university administration (Suzuki, 2005a). The outcomes of this reform were assessed by the general public as (1) a large increase in people receiving a university education and (2) a lowering of the academic standards of first degrees. Such outcomes assumed invited strong outcries from academic and industrial circles. On the other side, there has long been a wish, among the associations of school principals, to heighten basic qualifications of teaching to the second degree (master course degrees). These policy pressures worked and MES decided to introduce such a policy as mentioned above. Law School at Harvard became a supreme example and the Japanese version of it was introduced as the Law Graduate School. This model was introduced to the OJT first and the Graduate Schools of Teaching Profession were approved by the Minister of MES year by year. Since the government has de-regulated the administrative processes and measures for establishing universities and departments and new tertiary institutions including graduate schools, some institutions and companies have established new type of graduate schools, some of which are teacher education institutions. On the other side, the successive state governments, regardless of the political party, intensified the course requirements and requires practicing teachers of all subjects and of kindergartens to renew their certificates after ten years of service in all grades of schooling for students 3 to 17 years old. The requirements sent more school and kindergarten teachers to graduate schools where they might satisfy the minimum requirements of their OJT established by the Teacher Certificate Law newly enacted in 2007 and brought into force two years later. Head and deputy teachers and mentor teachers are legally exempted from re-training.

Along with establishing the graduate courses for teaching certificates and teachers' on the job training, we observe now a variety of experiments developed by the universities and the schools. There are some types of internship or other types of cooperation between universities and local enterprises. All of these trails explore new partnership for acceleration of mutual communication among those concerned. University students visit schools as temporary tutors to children or assistants to teachers, or they conjoin with workers in developing the projects in the given regions. In some cases school children, junior and senior, will visit the university classes to observe experiments in natural sciences or to join the workshops and seminars to observe the works therein. Research institutes of the natural sciences and the humanities are more and more open to schools. It is widely observed that public libraries have a closer relationship with school. In this sense, there have emerged various networks of public institutions and they serve as the new network for multifarious learning for all. Initial teacher trainees are now working with children, students, and citizens within the regional networks of open learning which consist in such public institutions. The present author

himself developed an innovative network of partnership at his university in 1995. The network was built between Waseda University (Department of Teaching Certificates) and the Education Committee of Shinjuku District (one of the education authorities of Tokyo) University students were sent to secondary schools in the District to support school teachers and to advise secondary students' extra-curricula activities. They fed back their experiences to the university mentor teachers. Discussions were fruitful for both parties. It was in 1985 when the present author proposed the idea of Regional Training Organization of Teaching at a meeting of the Council on Teacher Education (Ministry of Education and Sciences). He suggested how to build collaborative relationships between universities and local educational administrative units and with school teachers' associations and unions (Suzuki, 1987a). MES introduced a dual scheme of Area Consortia for Enhancement of Teaching Force in 1987-88 for the first trial. The scheme invited universities, junior colleges, education committees and schools to the Consortium in each of 10 regions through Japan, which has sub-divisions. They discussed mainly the matters concerned with teaching practice (Suzuki, 1989a, 1988c, 1991). The scheme ceased in 10 years and MES induced more of the local state universities to develop their respective regional schemes for teacher education (Suzuki, 2002a, 2002b). Almost all of the former state universities in the local settings had developed respectively their networks before the overall experimental zone policy was introduced. This constitutes the background of the most recent policy trends in teacher education, but is it enough to accommodate the very new needs for the teaching profession?

7. New Learning Culture and Emerging Tasks for Japanese Teacher Education

New Learning Culture (NLC) is international in its character. The technical basement of NLC is also international in its essence, skills, and its practicum. It means, however, that NLC could be contradictory to the cultural idioms which every ethnic group should have. The Delore's intentions mentioned above tell the matter clearly and analytically. This is the case with Japan. Why and how does Japan overcome the contradictions?

As described above in the preceding sections, the global networks of economy and politics are such constructs as could be described as "global-national-local" (*glo-n-cal*) schemes, which indicates the fact that almost all of local areas are tightly interwoven into the global relationship through their national spheres, whether or not they are the nation-states. NLC is based and spread upon such networks of national polities.

(1) Tasks for Teacher Education Revisited

As one step toward solving the contradictions, the Japanese governments, the coalition one between the Japan Liberal Democratic Party and the Komei Party, had legislated reform Bills of Education in the last decade of the 20th century, and repealed the Fundamental Law of Education enacted in 1946. They introduced new administrative guidelines of national education which stressed the traditional cultures, ethical values and moral creeds. School curriculum, which has been revised and implemented in 2012 was planned on the same guidelines. The revisions of the school curriculum are necessitated from the viewpoints of (1) clarifying the national identity of future citizens (children), (2) securing creative capabilities of children in the fields of basic sciences and culture, (3) re-adapting human resources to the wider range of needs out of internationalization, (4) establishing renewed Japanese position and status in the international societies. This policy choice was critically assessed as a bit out-of-date state-centrism (task 1).

What have been implemented in the school curriculum revisions denotes that Japanese school education would and should enrich children's capabilities of learning in many ways. Taking the issues as enhancing children's literacy, it should cover not only 'basic literacy' but more such as 'numeracy', 'science literacy' 'graphicacy', 'oracy' and 'literacy in foreign languages'. Finally, literacy in the school curriculum should embrace 'computer literacy'. Any easily manipulated machine or tool like 'Smart Phone' may offer children and adults various routes to knowledge. Children and adults should become proficient in manipulating such machines and tools by obtaining the basic and advanced skills requires. However, it is another question: how to provide all school children with tools and opportunities without any bias (task 2).

Accepting these prerequisites for overcoming the contradictions between global and national cultures, Japan has now rather a complicated culture-based idiom-problem because there are more and more people who have immigrated from abroad. They live outside metropolitan areas. So far as they are concerned, the literacy is dual: (1) basic Japanese for many of them and (2) professional idioms of the selected few (medical doctors, care-takers, nurse and so on). School teachers have to face these issues. Besides, there are not a few inhabitants whose nationality is not Japanese but Korean and Chinese. Some of them are descendants of migrants from Korea or China forced to come to Japan by the then Japanese government. Their cultural and ethnic identities can be an educational issue in school settings (task 3).

This may suggest that Japanese school teachers happen to be well acquainted with the cultural backgrounds of migrated children, youth and adults. In addition, from the viewpoints of assumed global citizens (or *glo-n-cal* citizens, mentioned above), which the Japanese people should become,

school teachers should be well prepared for motivating children and adolescents to acquire ‘international knowledge and skills’ and, further, for persuading mature parents and adults in adapting themselves to the new pattern of life by way of facilitating lifelong learning for them. This is a huge task for anyone if he or she be a teacher (task 4).

Besides, when school teachers plan and develop their study programs, it will be required to attend to what have been internationally discussed as the universal and common tasks of all future citizens. UNESCO or UNICEF or international organizations have often warned the global reading public against the threatened circumstances surrounding children and adolescents. Despite the Convention on the Right of the Child, more children are deprived of their rights. Simplifying the points for discussion that have been raised into a list of tasks for teachers, we get the following table (UNESCO, 2001, 2012, UNICEF, 1999, 2005, 2012, United Nations, 2000, 2005) (task 5).

- a, mal-nutrition: necessity of breastfeeding, dirty water
- b, child poverty: discrimination, in-equality in opportunity
- c, violence: war, child-soldiers, peace, domestic violence
- d, HIV/AIDS: diseases, neglect, protection
- e, unemployment: jobless youth, poverty of women
- f, right to education: disparity between sexes

As mentioned already, in the new mode of culture based on ICT, new cultures of learning have emerged. It requires the teachers and the students to incorporate and mutual cooperation necessarily required new ‘teaching and learning skills’. The Revised Teaching Certificates required the introduction of details of teachers’ practicum into the initial training courses and the Revised School Curriculum reinforced the subject-centered learning. It must be noted here that there is a crucial lack of participation by teachers and learners in the decision-making processes of these educational changes. It is usually the educational experts and the policy-makers who make such important decisions about educational changes. It is not seldom that local culture and the classroom context are not well considered, worse yet, the new educational mode and the learning cultures are often ‘universal’ in that they apply to everybody regardless of the diversity in cultures and local contexts. In the international sense, Barrow suggests that the best way for a teacher to proceed must depend upon the particular context in which he is operating, his own personality and knowledge, that of his children, and the situation they are all in as individuals and as a group. It may be a matter of concern that some teachers, probably many, are not in fact in a strong position to exercise such judgment. But if that is so, it is because teacher training, particularly in so far as it is concerned to perpetuate the idea of a science of teaching, has done little to foster a capacity for articulating a coherent view of

what one is doing and why, and a capacity for recognizing the complexity and subtlety of human interaction (Barrow, 1084, p. 264.). The point is also undermined by Delors who says teachers should be more closely involved in decision-making on educational matters (Delors, op. cit. p.152.). To what extent can the policy proposed of the Japanese model of 6 year teacher education and training courses be adaptive to these requirements and situations thereof?

There is no single answer to the questions of how to develop intelligence, how to enhance learning in general, and how to develop creative or critical minds, or how to develop skills needed to survive in the global knowledge society. What we know is that there are children who need to be educated and teachers who are willing to be involved in this educational process. Isn't it that we must make sure that they participate in the formation of new sphere of learning and cultures? Indeed, it is critical for any country to survive through the hardening environments on the globe. And politicians and leaders of the industrial circles think that school education should be effective in providing sufficient human resources. In line with such an idea or desire, they may say that nations should undertake a wide range of reforms to prepare children for the higher educational demands of life and work in the 21st century. Angel Gurría, OECD Secretary-General left the following remarks: to answer these questions we need to rethink many aspects of our educational systems: the quality of the recruiting system; the type of education recruit obtain before they start working; how they are monitored and what education and support they get; how their compensation is structured; how to improve performance of struggling teachers and enhance development among the best ones (Gurría, cited in Schleicher 2012). Is it easy to find in these remarks how to enhance teachers' positive participation in the final decision-making of prime education policies for people? The present author thinks not because both children and teachers are not placed in the just center of the total procedures.

(2) Necessity of Professional Independence of Teaching

In Japan school teachers have a variety of associations and societies, but they do not have a General Teaching Council, which might support teachers' independence as professional bodies. The requirement of lengthening the certificate courses to 6 years covering the MA course of Advanced Higher Education Diploma has been supported for long since 1960s by the Association of secondary Schools' Principals. One of the reasons why they asserted the idea so strongly was that teaching has not been recognized socially as genuinely independent as law and medicine.

In the Japanese social circumstances of excessive urbanization and where basic human relationships base on community have been threatened with decay for more than half a century, age-long wisdom of child rearing is lost at home and this causes some young mothers to be helpless in bringing up

babies and infants. Left in utter solitude they end up neglecting their children and committing physical violence against them. In such circumstances, the role of teachers, regardless the type and levels of learning, become more and more comprehensive in the sense that they have to perform the roles of instructors, care-takers, guidance or pastoral and career adviser, manager of learning groups inside and outside of schools, planners of local community activities for both children and adults and a part of policing the neighborhood. Are these still roles for a single teacher or a group of teachers in the coming near future? If not, how comprehensive can or should their role performance be? Mere institutional innovation is not enough. The debates should be organized to become more participatory. There are many tasks as mentioned above that must be overcome by teachers. Interpreting their roles as an example of personality building, we may say that an ideal teacher should be at once a political philosopher, a social scientist, a psychologist, a medical adviser, a sociologist and a historian. In a word he or she should be educated fully to be highly learned intellect. We think that this prescription is very important in reflecting on the New Learning Culture and teachers' profession in the near future of human civilization. The first thing that we have to strive for is ensuring equal educational participation among those concerned in this endeavor so that school teachers may be independent intellects in the very near future.

To support teachers and educational staff at the local education authorities, and to encourage children, adolescents and parents to achieve more positive participation to consultations and discussions with the professional groups, the present author would propose again to build new consultation and role-performance organizations in each local government unit. The past examples were partially successful but not all. Therefore, the present author would design such a regional compound consisting of various stakeholders and academic experts. He names it "Chiiki-Kyoiku-Kiko" (Regional Education Institute), whose constitution and its articles should decide (1) membership of all concerned on equal participation, (2) the aims and scopes of the organization. The present author assumes that by way of consultation with medical scientists, brain scientists, and scientists in advancing natural sciences, a new knowledge-base of learning-teaching processes could be extensively provided for teachers and that an innovative knowledge-base for teachers to cultivate, enrich, and deepen their own international understanding and exploring new world view should be constructively developed by the positive participation of the most recently advanced human and social scientists in open consultations within the regime. Feedback from children and students is indispensable (cf. Suzuki, 1998c). This type of participatory scheme may support the assessment of teachers and advancement of initial teacher education and training. For example, school-based teacher training is one important participatory way to enhance quality of teacher education and training (White & Jarvis, 2013). It can be easily introduced and based on this regional scheme. The newly proposed 6 year initial teacher education courses should be base upon

such participatory principles as is described here. Academically, scientific child studies should be placed at the core of all programs of this scheme. The ubiquitous leaning sphere could be fully achieved and utilized within the networks of these proposed local schemes for teacher education.

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