DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 444 933 SP 039 382

TITLE	JUSTEC 2000: Japan-United States Teacher Education Consortium International Seminar on Teacher Education (Tokyo, Japan, July 12-15, 2000). Proposals for the Renewal of Teacher Education: Japanese and American Perspectives. Abstract.
PUB DATE	2000-07-00
NOTE	56p.; Papers presented at the International Seminar on Teacher Education (Tokyo, Japan, July 12-15, 2000).
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - General (020)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Beginning Teacher Induction; Beginning Teachers; Behavior Problems; *Constructivism (Learning); Continuing Education; Cultural Differences; Cultural Influences; Disabilities; Educational Change; Educational Improvement; Elementary Secondary Education; Experiential Learning; Faculty Development; Foreign Countries; Graduate Study; Higher Education; Instructional Leadership; Lesson Plans; Masters Degrees; Mathematics Education; Physical Disabilities; Planning; *Preservice Teacher Education; Science Education; *Student Behavior; Student Teachers; Teacher Certification; Teacher Improvement; Teachers
IDENTIFIERS	Asia Pacific Region; Educational Leadership; *Japan; Proprietary Organizations; Reform Efforts

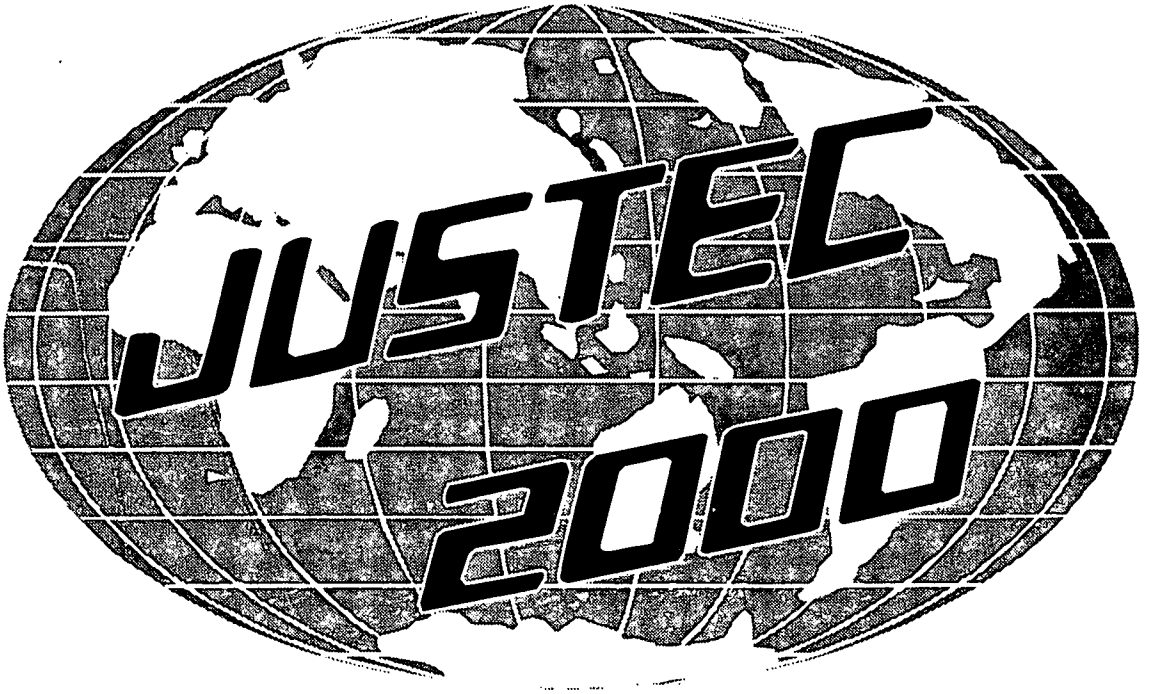
ABSTRACT

This collection of abstracts and papers includes: "Classroom Lesson Planning Using Constructivist Principles" (Richard K. Gordon, Stephen Lee, and Joel Colbert); "Students' Perception of Experiential Learning and Assessment of Own Learning at the Physically Handicapped School" (Shigeru Shimizu; Minoru Umezawa, and Yumiko Ono); "Constructivist Teaching Practices in Japan and the United States: A Preliminary Comparative Study" (Richard K. Gordon, Laura Sicola, and Sharon Durall); "Sustained Reform in Mathematics: A Commentary on the American Perspective of 'What Works' in Japanese Education" (John Woodward and Carol Merz); "Improving Science and Mathematics Education" (Donald E. Pierson); "The Pragmatics of Problem Behavior: Turning Trouble into Teaching" (Richard S. Neel); "Classroom Disruption in Japanese Elementary Schools" (Yasutada Takahashi); "The New System of Teacher's Work Performance Appraisal: The Case of the Tokyo Metropolitan Board of Education" (Yutaka Shiraishi); "The Role of Higher Education in Teacher Professional Development" (Inez Rovegno and Carol Donovan); "Educational Leadership in the Asia/Pacific Region: The Evolution and Structure of a Professional Development Master's Program for Teachers throughout the Asia/Pacific Region" (David P. Ericson); "Recent Developments in the Continuing Education of Teachers in the United States: The Growth of the For-Profit Sector" (Ann Intili Morey); "Teachers' License in the Credential Society, (2)" (Keijiro Tanaka, Norihisa Hashimoto, Kiyoharu Hara, and Yoshitaka Tanigawa); "Teacher Induction/Career Transition: Implications for Japanese and U.S. Teacher Preparation Programs" (Mark W. Clark); and "The Present Situation and Problems of Continue Education of School Teachers in Hokkaido Prefecture" (Yoichi Yazawa, Hiromi Kitamura, Hiroshi Morita, Mika Kamidochi, Yoshiyuki Takehara, and Takanobu Nakamura). (SM)

JAPAN-UNITED STATES TEACHER EDUCATION CONSORTIUM

PROPOSALS FOR THE RENEWAL OF TEACHER EDUCATION:
JAPANESE AND AMERICAN PERSPECTIVES

JUSTEC Y2K



ABSTRACT

INTERNATIONAL SEMINAR ON TEACHER EDUCATION
July 12-15, 2000 Tamagawa University Tokyo, Japan

TAMAGAWA POEM* for the 21st Century

私たちの環境と未来を考えて、これから私たちは再生紙を使用していきます。

*Preserving Our Environment Move

Classroom Lesson Planning Using Constructivist Principles

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Classroom lesson planning constitutes a strategic component of successful teaching and learning. A useful model for teachers to frame their teaching and student learning is found in constructivist learning theory. While constructivism is a learning theory and not an instructional approach, (Airasian & Walsh, 1997), it may be useful for classroom teachers to harness the "power" of constructivist theory during teaching and learning. The use of constructivist theory in developing lesson plans holds promise for realizing cognitive gains attributed to constructivist ideas during instruction.

In the following paper, the constructivist based CSUDH lesson plan model will be discussed. This lesson plan model draws principles and ideas from constructivist theory. The CSUDH lesson plan interpolates constructive theory into a practical schema that classroom teachers can follow during teaching and learning activities.

Students in the teacher-training program at CSUDH receiving training in the theory and practical application of the constructivist based lesson plan in their instructional methods courses as well as in their preliminary Educational Psychology course. These students are also observed implementing constructivist based lesson plan strategies once they begin their field study.

An explanation of each component of the CSUDH constructivist based lesson plan is contained in the proposed paper. Copies of the lesson plan will be available for program participants.

INTRODUCTION

In 1997, a faculty committee met to discuss pedagogical principles guiding instruction in the teacher education program at CSUDH. The committee reached the conclusion that the constructivist theory of learning formed the foundation of instructional practice among

faculty.

Constructivist ideas of prior knowledge structures, context-specific knowledge, students creating their own knowledge, and building a community of learners are but a few of the constructivist concepts teachers in training receive during instruction at CSUDH, (Henriques 1997, Fogarty, 1999; Perkins, 1999). The faculty committee wished to harness the power of these constructivist ideas in order to develop a model lesson plan. The proposed lesson plan, the committee felt, could be utilized to assist teachers in creating constructivist learning environments.

After deliberation on the committee and discussion with all faculty, a constructivist lesson plan was created. In some ways, the CSUDH constructivist lesson plan is not unlike other lesson planning models such as that of Madeline Hunter. Both plans have a linear descriptive style. The components proceed in a seeming sequential fashion. Each plan asks that the teacher think of specific pedagogical cues for each plan component. In building a response to the cue, the teacher creates an instructional schema for use during teaching. For example, when the Hunter model asks that the teacher prepare an "Anticipatory Set," the teacher begins to cognize activities he or she will do when that part of the lesson is initiated.

Similarly, in the CSUDH model there are, just as in the Hunter model, specific areas of the plan that stimulate teacher cognition about that specific aspect of the lesson. However, with the CSUDH plan areas of teacher cognizing are secondary to underlying constructivist theory.

So, unlike the Hunter model where the teacher follows lock step procedures from beginning to end, the constructivist lesson plan model allows for flexibility. The CSUDH plan takes the learning theory inherent in constructivism and utilizes it to form an instructional approach.

The CSUDH constructivist lesson planning form has six steps or stages. Constructivist learning theory suggests that learning does not occur "all at once," or after a series of clearly defined teacher initiated "steps." Constructivist theory suggests that student learning takes place in a dynamic and ever changing environment involving interaction between teacher and student (Strommen & Lincoln, 1992). The CSUDH lesson plan form respects this dynamism.

The CSUDH lesson plan follows a series of interconnected steps. The teacher using the plan understands that each step does not stand on its own. The CSUDH lesson plan exploits the dynamism of classroom teaching and learning to develop and promote a community of learners and active learning not bound by rigid procedures for implementation.

THE CSUDH LESSON PLAN

The CSUDH, constructivist based lesson plan has six distinct teacher orientations to classroom instruction. Those six areas are:

1. Focus and Content lesson
2. Connections
3. Materials and Resources
4. Activities
   - Engagement
   - Development
   - Application
5. Outcomes and Evaluations
6. Extensions

In our program students experience constructivist practices during their classroom interactions with faculty. In their teacher preparation classes, CSUDH students come to understand that the constructivist based lesson plan is dynamic. Students come to understand that the lesson plan provides them with a method to cognize and organize teaching and learning processes. Our students express a desire to teach in the same way once they enter the classroom as teachers. When prospective teachers enter the classroom for the first time or as is the case with many students, when they begin to cognitively organize their teaching experience, they voice a desire to teach constructively.

Teacher education faculty believe that the constructivist based lesson plan facilitates teaching and learning. It is a useful tool for teachers use in creating active learning and a community of learners. The components of the plan assist the teachers' construction of a dynamic learning environment.

The six components of the CSUDH constructivist based lesson plan are significantly interrelated. The lesson plan model is useful in enabling teachers to facilitate learning while simultaneously addressing the urban teachers common concern of managing behavior.

In addition and perhaps most importantly for successful implementation, the CSUDH lesson plan is designed for multi-day application. The plan supports a lesson sequence occurring over 3-5 days. Over a multi-day period, a series of days that the teacher feels necessary to excite student learning, the lesson plan shows its utility. The constructive plan asks for teachers to understand that the day to day interactions between teachers and students helps to develop learners who are actively involved in their learning.

For example, on day one of a lesson, the teacher introduces the topic and focus for the lesson (Step 1). In introducing the topic and focus of the lesson, the teacher would simultaneously engage the student (Step 4). At this point in the lesson, student socio-cultural

experiences facilitate dialogue between student and teacher. Introducing the topic without simultaneously engaging the student in meaningful dialogue does little in the way of motivating student interest in the upcoming lesson.

DESCRIPTION OF STEPS

I. Focus and Content:

The topic of instruction, the first element of the constructivist plan can accommodate district standards guidelines as well as other academic instructional desires without limiting effects of constructivist principles applied to teaching and leaning. Here in Step 1 of the plan, the teacher states the "big idea." At this point, the teacher is not in the classroom. This is a planning component of the lesson.

During planning, the teacher is thinking about the topic to be taught as well as what experiential knowledge is available for the students and teacher to draw upon as the lesson unfolds.

II. Connections:

This introductory section is where teacher and student discuss: a) questions posed, b) a "problem" to be solved, and/or c) the visuals, artifacts, or other concrete items that will help activate students' related prior knowledge, experiences, and previously learned vocabulary and skills.

This is a planning component for the teacher, as such he or she is thinking about how these connections will become established during the upcoming lesson.

III. Materials and Resources:

Here the teacher lists or describes needed consumable and nonconsummable items, artifacts, equipment, literary titles, and /or multimedia selections that will be gathered, arranged, displayed, etc., for teacher and student access before during and after the lesson.

IV. Activities:

A. Engagement

In this part, the teacher indicates the kinds of challenges and motivation that will be provided to: a) activate prior knowledge; b) reinforce students' "need to know"; and c) stimulate all students' interest in the topic.

B. Development

This is where the teacher indicates the kinds of instructional strategies and hands-on investigations that will be used to promote development of new skills, vo

cabulary, and stated "big idea" concepts. Activities during this development stage are de signed to help students internalize large and small group dialogue and experi ences that evolve through teacher-students and student-student inter actions as the lesson proceeds.

C. Application

In this section of the lesson plan the teacher shows how individuals and/or small groups of students will collaborate to use the new ideas and information learned during lesson development.

V. Outcomes & Evaluation:

This section helps the teacher to determine that expectations were met and that new learning occurred. Here the teacher is looking for feedback that students made connections between old and new ideas and information; and that students had ample time, space, and resources for independent reflection and creative response to the lesson's content, processes, and outcomes.

VI. Extensions:

This is the point where the teacher introduces new connections that can or will be made as a part of a multiday assignment or a culminating activity.

SUMMARY

The six steps of the CSUDH lesson plan comprise an interrelated set of behaviors found during teaching and learning based a constructivist principles. The steps should be thought of as non-static indicators of a constructivist teaching and learning process.

During a typical school day, classroom life can be described by a myriad of teaching and learning acts. Managing these acts with constructivist principles can lead, according to the theory, to a classroom community of learners and active learning. The constructivist lesson plan enables the teacher to exercise management of the dynamic situations found in the classroom through a dynamic management plan. The teacher utilizing the plan finds a tool that facilitates learning as well as classroom management.

In an urban school district such as those where many of our students will teach, the ability to harness the tremendous socio-cultural factors as well as variables related to cognitive development can be extremely difficult. The constructivist plan provides teachers with an important tool designed to assist them in achieving urban classroom teaching success.

Once in the field, new teachers receive assistance in implementing the plan from their

field supervisors, school administrators, and classroom teacher mentors. These individuals receive training in the implementation of the plan during training sessions held at CSUDH before the beginning of any semester. Each individual receives during this training, directions on how to utilize the California Formative Assessment and Support System for Teachers (CFASST) in conjunction with the constructivist lesson plan.

The Teacher Education department at CSUDH annually credentials 700-800 students. During any given semester there are approximately 350-400 students doing their field-work. Each of these students is monitored for teaching progress by the above-mentioned supervisors, administrators, and mentor teachers. All individuals in this process use the constructivist based lesson plan as a template for measuring teaching success.

A systematic evaluation of the constructivist lesson plan is in its infancy. Once more quantitative data becomes available we will be better able to judge the efficacy of the constructivist lesson plan to positively impact teaching success as measured by student academic and social achievement.

Students' Perception of Experiential Learning and Assessment of Own Learning at the Physically Handicapped School

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In 1996, National Council on Training of Educational Personnel evaluated the then teacher education curriculum as less effective and less practical in relation to development of desposition and competence of teachers.One of the recommendations by the Council was introduction of experiential learning for pre-service teachers. Naruto University of Education requires its pre-service teachers to spend one day at its attached Handicapped School for experiential learning. The students observe classes during morning, and have lunch with the students in classrooms. After lunch, the pre-service teachers have about an hour informal interaction with the handi capped students. The afternoon is scheduled for observation/participation in lessons, and discussionwith the teachers after school. They turn in reflection reports when they return to university classrooms.

Content analysis of reflection reports by participating students has revealed that the students may be grouped in two categories:

Group A : They can easily make friends with handicapped students.
They try to have some conversation with the handicapped students.
They try to understand own behaviors and own psychological / emotional conditions.
They don't regard this as mere requirement, but they try to learn from it.

Group B : They have difficulties in making friends with the handicapped students.
They are less positive in communicating with the handicapped children.
They don't try to inquire own inner mind.
They have concluded that they wouldn't teach those children.
They regard this experience as a requirement.

Based on the analysis, we present a tntative process model of how pre-service teachers perceive the experience and how they assess this experience to construct own perception of teaching or a teacher.

Constructivist Teaching Practices in Japan and the United States: A Preliminary Comparative Study:

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Constructivist based teaching practices promote active student learning. The ability of classroom teachers to either manage and or ignite student activity is a crucial component in implementing constructivist principles. Too much student activity is unmanageable and leads to a hectic learning environment. Too little student activity represents boredom and authoritarian control. A mix of student activity will lead, according to constructivist theory, to a stimulating learning environment where a community of learners flourishes.

The proposed study examines two classrooms to gauge procedures teachers use to promote the constructivist idea of active learning. One is a sixth grade in a racially diverse public school in the United States. The other is an 11th grade class in a public school in Nagoya, Japan. Both teachers are familiar with constructivist theory and the CSUDH constructivist based lesson plan model.

The US teacher's classroom has very active students. In the proposed paper, she will describe efforts instituted since the beginning of the school year to harness her children's enormous energy into a well managed and "active" classroom learning environment.

The Japanese classroom finds students who the teacher believes would benefit from "active" learning. She is an American teaching in Japan. On her first contact with Japanese students, she felt a need to implement constructivist instructional techniques in order to stimulate active learning.

While each teacher has apparently differing instructional challenges each finds that the use of constructivist principals and practices enables them to effectively achieve classroom academic and social goals.

The Constructivist Classroom Environment Questionnaire will be used in each teacher's classroom to gather information on the amount of constructivist techniques utilized. Each

teacher will also describe her classroom demographics as well as provide a description of her students and the classroom-learning environment.

INTRODUCTION

Two teachers in two countries having the instructional goals of organizing their instructional practices along the ideas of two constructivist principles administered a modified version of the Constructivist Leaning Environment Survey (Taylor, Fraser, and Fisher, 2000), to their students. Results of the study could provide information concerning how, if at all, teacher implementation of constructivist principles of "active learning" and "building a community of learners" manifest in two different nations (Bonwell and Eison, 1991; Stage, Miller, Kinzie, and Simmons, 1998; Lenning and Ebbers, 1999; Perkins, 1999).

One of the classroom teachers is a United States citizen teaching high school English in Nagoya Japan. The other is a sixth grade teacher in Altadena, California, a suburb of the city of Los Angeles. Both teachers have experience with constructivist theory and practices, as they have been students in the School of Education at California State University at Dominguez Hills. One question prompting the study of these two classrooms was how the application of constructivist ideas would play out in two different nations.

Perhaps the most intriguing question in the study was related to the application of constructivist principles with seemingly disparate groups of students having teachers who are very similar in their constructivist instructional approach.

This preliminary look at cross-cultural issues involved in constructivist teacher practices exposes salient instructional implementation issues for teachers desiring to use constructivist principles to guide their practice. Typical, Japanese-style instruction and that found in the United States offer, in general, glaring disparities within the teaching and learning ethos of each culture.

Public school classrooms in the United States have a reputation for lively discussions, generally casual teacher-student relationships, and a pragmatic philosophy mixed with current essentialists' concern with academic standards. On the other hand, the Japanese public school classroom can be generally thought of as almost exclusively essentialist (Copley, 1992).

THE JAPANESE CLASSROOM

hese students are in 11th grade at Meito Senior High School, an academic/college track school in the city of Nagoya. They are enrolled in the English Course (*Eigo-ka*) at school. Aside from their standard academic classes, including Japanese-style English classes, they attend classes run by American faculty members between three and four times a week. These

students are considered "English majors." Most of these students intend to use English in their careers and as a vehicle for studying abroad in high school and/or college.

These English classes are intended to help students improve their English language skills through regular interaction with a native speaker. This English class resembles a regular, high school English language arts class in the United States.

This program at Meito High School is unlike a common practice of teaching English in other Japanese middle and high schools, which finds visiting assistant language teachers (native English speaking non-credentialed foreigners) holding conversation-oriented activities in a Japanese teacher's classroom.

The students at Meito are generally middle and upper-middle class in the socio-economic standing. This class has 28 students: nine boys and 17 girls. They are all approximately 16 years old. All but one of the students are Japanese. The one exception is a French exchange student with excellent English skills. Most of the students come from two-parent homes. An educationally significant number (about 25%) of students have lived abroad usually from one to five years. Students with this experience attended either a local public school or a private Japanese school in their host country.

The city of Nagoya is geographically in the center of Japan's main island of Honshu. Nagoya has a population of over two million people, including approximately 44,000 registered foreign residents. It is an urban center for international technology and automotive, aviation, and ceramic production, and is a hub for international trade with an international airport and seaport. Meito Senior High School is located in a suburban section on the eastern side of the city, about twenty minutes by train from the commercial center.

In Japan, our teacher's instructional objective is to prepare students for academic life in a foreign English speaking country. However, American and Japanese curriculum guidelines stress different skills necessary in reaching this goal. The Japanese appear to place an emphasis on factual memorization of large quantities of information and verbatim recall on paper-based tests. In general, although oftentimes teacher dominated, the American classroom could be characterized as stressing application of learned information and creative analysis. Consequently, knowing good English grammar, while an important component of language learning, does not provide a sufficient skill base for the academic survival of Japanese students in the Western educational system.

The English instructor set three main classroom goals for her students in the school term beginning in April. These goals were for her students to think independently, form their own opinions, and question given information. These goals are in line with constructivist principles of learning (Yager, 1991; Ringstaff, Sandholtz, and Dwyer, 1991; Jonassen, 1994.) Observations over an eight-week period in the Japanese school revealed that these

objectives are uppermost in the teacher's day-to-day classroom teaching and learning activities.

THE UNITED STATES CLASSROOM

The sixth grade at Altadena Elementary School finds our current Dominguez Hills student using constructivist principles during teaching. She has a total of 29 students: eighteen boys and eleven girls. In this class, there are six white males, ten African-American males, six African-American females, seven Hispanic males and other students representing other racial and ethnic backgrounds.

The town of Altadena is set in an unincorporated portion in the northeast section of Los Angeles County, minutes north of the city of Pasadena. It has approximately 50,000 citizens. While generally thought of as a suburb of Los Angeles, the town's schools reflect many of the ills associated with urban school instruction. These include high teacher turnover, low standardized test scores throughout the district, and frequent disciplinary procedures executed on students from the minority population.

Generally speaking, students in urban settings respond to the various improprieties found in urban schools, such as teachers teaching out of their credentialed area and a large number of new and uncredentialled teachers, in a variety of ways. Their behavioral responses to such an uncaring system might be described as severe disappointment combined with unconscious and conscious acts of mini-rebellion that seemingly challenge the school's authority (Hale 1986).

In general, the urban student benefits from the cognitive engaging principles found in constructivist classroom theory. Getting the students to buy into constructivist thought oftentimes requires the teacher to take pedagogical and administrative risks in order to generate active learning. Our teacher in Altadena takes that risk.

The classroom teacher feels that it is necessary to provide students with real-life learning situations within the classroom environment. Her lessons tend to focus on careers and wise career choices, salaries, purchase of homes, affordability of homes, problems in families and how to cope with life's stressors. These issues are integrated in a thematic fashion with the standard elementary curriculum. The focus on "life skills" allows the teacher to feel that the learning community is "ever flourishing," because students and the teacher are learning from each other (Brown et. al, 1989; Lave & Wenger, 1991). On visiting the classroom, it is apparent that whenever a concept or theme is taught many students have shared ways to understand and acquire essential knowledge in ways that facilitate all students' understanding.

Altadena Elementary School has many of the problems oftentimes wrongly associated with many urban schools. There are angry students, after-school fights, and students seeking

revenge. In the class under consideration, the teacher and students frequently bond under a feeling of family in order to shield the individual student from many of these undesired behaviors. Thus there is a strong sense of helping one another, which pervades student-student interactions in this classroom. The teacher of this class describes her students as being extremely flexible, like "rubber bands." She believes that they benefit from consistent reminders of school and class expectations. She also feels that it is important for the students to enjoy meaningful rewards.

A visit to this classroom finds the students and their teacher participating in constructive dialogue. The teacher is providing a mix of instructional and management dialogue. The students are very active and the teacher finds that by managing her class with constructivist principles she can provide the students with academic rigor and behavior management.

The students' role in her class is to participate in all discussions, to be active in-group projects and to collaborate with the classroom family in solving academic and social problems. This is unlike our Japanese students.

Just as the teacher in the American classroom does, the teacher in our Japanese classroom attempts to instill in her pupils trust among each other as well as trust in her. Their teacher tries to foster an environment where students feel the desire to participate. However, the traditional Japanese high school students' accepted role in class tends to be that of a passive learner. More often than not, her students do not even ask questions in class, neither out of curiosity nor for clarification purposes, much less participate in free discussion. Most are afraid of standing out. In many ways, the Japanese proverb, "deru kui wa utareru," or "the nail that sticks out gets hammered down," characterizes classroom life in Meito Senior High School and most other Japanese schools as well.

Conversely, at Altadena Elementary School, "the squeaky wheel gets the grease," may be the most apt proverb for generally describing student behavior. In such an environment, there is a constant search on the part of students to gather attention. Imagine the classroom management skills associated with motivating thirty attention-seeking American students. Imagine the classroom management situation involved in motivating attention-resisting Japanese students to feel the desire to participate and feel safe during their classroom life.

Toning down student individuality at Altadena Elementary and increasing individual student participation at Meito represent two seemingly opposite classroom scenarios. Teachers in each of these classrooms had similarly broad instructional goals. Both implemented a variety of instructional acts to evoke and stimulate active learning and build a community of learners during their teaching.

The Constructivist Learning Environment Survey

Modifications of the CLES for our interests were modest. The original survey was designed

for students in a science class. The CLES was itself modified from an earlier version in order to measure a countervailing emancipatory ethos that gives rise to opportunities for teachers and students to become critically aware of the influence of the repressive myths of objectivism and control that govern the social realities of schools and class rooms (Taylor, Fraser, and Fisher, 1993).

Each teacher in our study was indeed attempting to create an emancipatory ethos with her class. The teachers had a desire to improve classroom dialogue so that the students would apply lessons learned to the community outside of school. The CLES contains five scales: Personal Relevance: This scale focuses on the connectedness of a school subject to student's out-of-school experiences.

Uncertainty: Assess the extent to which opportunities are provided for students to experience scientific knowledge.

Critical Voice: This scale examines the extent to which a social climate has been established in which students feel that it is legitimate and beneficial to question the teacher's pedagogical plans and methods, and to express concerns about any impediments to their learning.

Shared Control: This scale is concerned with students being invited to share with the teacher control of the learning environment, including articulation of learning goals, the design and management of learning activities, and the determination and application of assessment criteria.

Student Negotiation: This scale assesses the extent to which opportunities exist for students to explain and justify to other students their newly developing ideas, to listen attentively and reflect on the viability of other students' ideas and, subsequently, to reflect self-critically on the viability of their own ideas.

Scales measuring the teaching or learning of science were modified to reflect general subject matter. For our purposes, subject-specific questions, as well as the title, needed to be adapted for an English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom.

The survey proved a challenge for the teacher of the Japanese students in other ways as well. Problems inherent in reading material in a foreign language became readily apparent to her. This teacher modified the survey in order to elicit responses from her students that met her understanding of original statements in the CLES. Naturally, since English is not the native language of the participating Japanese students, some of the diction was simplified in attempt to compensate for a possible lack of linguistic proficiency.

Second, the original surveys asked for students' personal information, including their names. In order for Japanese students to answer freely and honestly, they needed to know that

any "negative" answers would not affect their grades or the teacher's opinion of them, so the personal information section on the cover page was deleted.

Third, there were many Western cultural assumptions underlying the majority of the original questions. For example, the survey assumes that student participation and general discussion is an inherent part of constructivist classroom life, along with giving feedback to the teacher regarding the actual topics to be studied. As a result, an important point to consider in any interpretation of the resultant data was not only if the students were participating in such activities, but also if they even knew that these options were available to them.

Fourth, some of the implications of the original questions were that if a student were aware of an opportunity to offer input to the teacher, he/she would naturally take advantage of the situation to the relative level to which he/she felt it was acceptable. Japanese students, however, may have come to know that these options are open to them, yet feel too self-conscious to act accordingly. What becomes important at that point is to determine if there is such a discrepancy, and, if so, *why*. Our modifications reflect Taylor et al's concern that reliable responses could be obtainable from students if the CLES focused on students' attention on the specific learning environment of interest and made the process of responding to items a more meaningful activity.

CULTURALLY BASED SURVEY MODIFICATION

Large and small-scale studies have shown the viability of the CLES as a monitor of the development of constructivist learning environments in school science in Western cultures. What would results look like when administered to Asian students?

Our teacher in Japan made three major additions to the survey on students' classroom perception:

1. The addition of "B" questions that allow for clarification between what a student per ceives he/she is allowed to do and what he/she actually chooses to do;

2. The ending "tag" question, asking students why they chose not to participate in such activities overall, if they had indicated that they often didn't; and

3. A designated space for students to freely write their own comments about anything pertaining to the class and/or this survey. This final addition served an extra purpose as well, insofar as it gave some clear, direct feedback from the students, which helped the resulting culturally based analysis of the survey data.

JAPANESE CLASSROOM CLASSROOM RESULTS

On the Personal Relevance component of the "Student Perceived" survey, students seemed to agree that they "often" or "sometimes" (36.4%-45.5%, respectively) learn interesting things about the world outside of school. The Uncertainty section showed very positive trends, as

more than 70% of the students answered "sometimes" or higher regarding their opportunity to learn about how culture and language change over time and are influenced by people's values and opinions. All students answered that they at least "sometimes" learn about "creating communication and expressing original thought" as part of studying English, with more than half the class responding "almost always" (54.5%).

Critical Voice is an extremely daunting area for Japanese students, but is also a prerequisite hurdle to overcome if the subsequent sections are to be met with any success in the classroom. Over 90% of the students responded "sometimes" or higher when asked if it was "Okay ... to explain why something is difficult for me," yet over two thirds of the students admitted that they "seldom" or "sometimes" actually go as far as to do so. However, nearly half the students (45.5%) mentioned that they "sometimes" told the teacher when they are confused about something. The section on Shared Control reflected the least amount of student consensus. Although exactly half the students said that they "sometimes" were allowed to make suggestions to the teacher regarding what they studied, the rest of the section was very evenly distributed among answer choices.

The most apparently successful section was Student Negotiation. More than half the students answered "often" at the prompts pertaining to talking to other students about solving problems, explaining their ideas to other students, and if other students listened carefully when they were speaking, at 54.5%, 50%, and 59.1%, respectively, showing critical steps in building a community of learners.

Another stronger trend was that for each A/B question set, higher numbers were more often selected for the "A" questions than the corresponding "B" questions, indicating that to whatever extent the students understood that some behavior was allowable, they were not as likely to display it, as demonstrated in the Critical Voice examples above.

According to the answers to the "tag question" regarding why students don't participate in certain activities, if they indeed did not participate in something mentioned in the survey, 41% said that they were embarrassed or too shy to ask or answer questions, etc. in front of their classmates, and 32% agreed that they simply didn't like to do those things for whatever reason.

On the "Student Preferred" survey, the responses were similarly divided among all answer options for most questions. There was no question where a majority of the students chose a common answer. However, there was a general trend for students to express desire to have more say in what and how they studied.

UNITED STATES CLASSROOM RESULTS

For our US based teacher, her objective involving student life skill awareness seems to be

well on the way of accomplishment. Similar interpretations are found in student responses to Critical Voice and Student Communication areas

The Uncertainty category found 65% of students responding that they learn about the different knowledge used by people in other cultures. Learning how learning can be a part of out of school life received 54% of the students responses in the "almost always" category.

Most responses (48%) in the Critical Voice were selected for the "almost always" indicator. Most students (82%) felt that in their class it was almost always ok for them to express opinions.

In the Student Negotiations questions, 35% of the children responded that they almost always have opportunities to interact with and learn from their peers

DISCUSSION

At first glance, the Japanese survey results appear to be inconclusive, as answers for nearly every question are spread freely among "almost always," "almost never," and everything in between. To begin with, this widespread lack of continuity in answers for any single question might be attributed to several factors.

For example, even with certain precautionary measures taken, the students were not taking the survey in their native language, which leaves their interpretations of the questions vulnerable to their own individual proficiency level.

In many cases, Japanese students have never reflected upon *why* they were learning something, much less *how* they were learning it. A common reason given for why certain procedures are followed in Japan tends to be "because that's the way we've always done it." The assumption is that the traditional method used in Japanese classrooms is the most time-efficient way of helping students prepare for entrance examinations. Many students have never bothered to consider if there might actually be an alternative way to teach/learn the same material, or if/why said material is even necessary, important, or correct. Thus, since this may very well be the first time for some of these students to reflect upon their own learning experience, many may not know how to accurately categorize what they have been doing all these months/years, and others may not even have paid attention to it.

However, upon further consideration, the apparent lack of consensus among student answers tells a more consistent story than might be understood simply by looking at the numbers. Had a similar survey been administered at the start of the year when the students had only experienced traditional Japanese-style education (particularly in English/foreign language classes), it would not be overly presumptuous to predict that the vast majority of students would answer "seldom" or "almost never" for virtually all questions in the "learning to speak out," "learning to learn," and "learning to communicate" sections, or more than two-thirds of the "perceived" survey. It is conceivable that the variety of answers for the questions in these

sections is directly proportionate to the relative degree of comfort and understanding each student has reached with this new, interactive style of learning. If so, then this is strong evidence of interpersonal and intrapersonal growth within the class.

Of the students who said "other" to the tag question, some reasons specified included lack of confidence in their own English ability; the fact that the kinds of questions asked in class often didn't have "right or wrong answers," so students had no way of knowing if their answer was "correct" or if they would sound foolish. Similarly, one student mentioned that since no set class time was established for students to express such ideas (although the teacher tries to make it clear that *any time* is a good time for that), students didn't know when they were supposed to give "that kind" of input. One student explained, "I (am not) used to express(ing) my opinion because we seldom have (a) chance to express (our) own feeling or thoughts in Japan." These answers tend to reveal the deep-seated and unchallenged values their education has imposed upon them, primarily that there is always a "right or wrong," from the actual information in the answer (regardless of the question), to the way it is expressed, to the time at which it is expressed. Thus, if a student is not fully confident that he/she is "right" in all of these aspects, then it would be imprudent to speak out in public and risk having everyone know of their embarrassing mistake, whatever it may be, and which may not be soon forgotten.

Furthermore, some voluntary comments were quite detailed and informative. One person explained that while he/she was not particularly shy about speaking, he/she did not like always being the only one to do so and wanted more people to participate openly. Another student, whose survey indicated that he/she did not often feel ready to participate, simply said, "I want to participate in discussions and express my feeling in front of other people in class." One student went much deeper into the psyche of the Japanese student, explaining how "keeping the same as everyone" and being able to repress one's own feeling are said to be Japanese virtues. The student also admitted disagreeing fully with such "old fashioned" ideas, and thinking, "What a waste!" if someone has a good idea but chooses not to share it. He/she confessed that since they have not had a chance to express themselves in almost any class, most students have not given their best effort to do so in this class, but showed his/her determination and desire to change this by closing with, "I believe they can do it, and I can do it."

For our teacher in the United States similar sentiments to those of the other can be found in the preliminary data results. Her students before the beginning of the school year were not very participatory. They had, in her words, "come a long way." What she means is that there was a great deal of effort on constructing an environment of success leading to a strong feeling among all students that they were achieving academic success.

CONCLUSION

Two modified version of the CLES were administered to two sets of students, one in Japan, and the other in the United States. The purpose of the study was to try to determine how teachers having a similar orientation to constructivist practices could use principles of constructivism to generate active learning and build a community of learners.

While the two cultural and socio-cultural environments of the teachers were dissimilar, they each found that teaching with constructivist ideas could lead all students to a very rewarding teaching and learning experience. The application of constructivist principles seems to transcend cultural pedagogic and policy limitations. These principles seem to "work" because each teacher was very sensitive to the instructional and social needs of their students.

Future researchers of the application of constructivist principles in urban classrooms in national and international settings should keep in mind that meaning is derived from not only the cultural group but also individual student experiences. These experiences can nuance every perception that the CLES attempts to investigate.

Sustained Reform in Mathematics : A Commentary on the American Perspective of "What Works" in Japanese Education

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The impending publication of the *Principles and Standards for School Mathematics* (National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 2000) merits special attention if for no other reason than it reflects a decade of sustained reform in mathematics. It is evident that the reform has moved well beyond policy documents to the arena of commercial curricula, which, in many cases, fully reflect the first version of the NCTM *Standards* (NCTM, 1989). While these changes may not be pervasive or "fundamental" in nature in American education (see Tyack & Cuban, 1995), reform-based mathematics now has a presence in many districts throughout the country that is far more substantive than a decade ago.

The forces sustaining mathematics reform in the US are varied and undoubtedly complex. Yet a review of the mathematics education literature over the last decade yields at least three prominent themes. First, there have been pervasive changes in theories of learning and instruction. Specifically, constructivism has superseded earlier behavioral and information processing models. Social constructivism, in particular, has been a highly influential model for characterizing the ideal mathematics classroom (see Ball, 1993; Cobb, 1999; Hiebert et al., 1997; Lampert, Rittenhouse, & Crumbaugh, 1996). Second, the continued and rapid advance of technology reinforces the changing nature of mathematics. Increasingly, traditional mathematical skills – particularly computations – are being performed by computing devices, thus enabling students and workers to focus more on the conceptual and problem solving dimensions of mathematics.

Finally, the literature reflects a longstanding critique by mathematics educators of common instructional practices in K-12 classrooms. These criticisms, which preceded the New Math of the 1960s, have drawn attention to the traditional focus on computational mastery over conceptual understanding and problems that are "solved" in five minutes or less (Hiebert, 1986; Schoenfeld, 1988; Van Lehn, 1990). Most recently, the results of the Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) have been used to extend this critique. The limits of common instructional practices in the US have been carefully contrasted with those in other countries such as Germany and Japan.

In fact, Asian classroom practices – particularly those found in Japan — have had a profound influence on American mathematics educators. A wide range of scholarly publications (Leetsma & Walberg, 1992; Ma, 1999; Reys, Reys, & Koyama, 1996) and popular press accounts (e.g., Stevenson & Stigler, 1992; Stigler & Hiebert, 1999) articulate the relative strengths of Asian curriculum and pedagogy. Yet as much as these accounts are instructive, they also understate the role of other factors that affect student success in countries such as Japan. Specifically, many accounts, especially those in the popular press, tend to ignore the role of juku in the student's academic life. Attendance at juku increases over the intermediate and middle school years as Japanese students prepare for eighth grade exams. Most importantly, one of the main subjects studied in juku is mathematics. Juku not only provides additional daily mathematics instruction, but often affords the kind of "practice to mastery" not described in many accounts of Asian mathematics.

Second, a wider influence on student performance is cultural. The important of education permeates Japanese society, far more so than in the United States. This influence has an inestimable impact on student achievement, and it stands in marked contrast to the dramatic range of conditions in the United States. Extreme variations in the quality of schools and home support are well documented in the professional literature, particularly as it applies to international educational comparisons (e.g., Berliner & Biddle, 1995; Bracey, 1997). These issues – the role of juku and variations in cultural emphasis on education will be described in depth in this paper.

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Improving Science and Mathematics Education

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The Third International Mathematics and Science Study revealed that mathematics and science achievement of United States high school students is well below international norms. State testing in Massachusetts has confirmed the national trend, with a high failure rate in 8th and 10th grade mathematics and science, including a 65% failure rate in 8th grade math for the 25 communities ranked lowest in demographic resources. Additionally, we face a growing shortage of well-qualified science and mathematics teachers at the elementary, middle school, and high school levels. Each year, fewer students are choosing to major in science, mathematics, and engineering programs. Of those who do major in these areas, very few choose to enter teaching. For instance, Massachusetts certified 5,515 new teachers between September 1998 and September 1999; these included only 20 in earth science, 35 in physics, 38 in chemistry, 64 in middle school math, and 177 in high school math, approximately 6% of the total.

The University of Massachusetts Lowell has initiated a program with several activities to meet the need for improved mathematics and science education. These activities include:

1. Participation in state curriculum framework planning.
2. Saturday and after-school courses for middle school teachers.
3. Two-way television college courses for advanced high school students and teachers.
4. Increased requirements in mathematics and science for new elementary teachers.
5. Accelerated preparation and salary bonus for new math and science teachers.
6. Doctoral program with teaching fellowships in mathematics and science education.
7. Proposed job sharing between schools and corporations.

The Pragmatics of Problem Behavior : Turning Trouble Into Teaching

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This paper discusses the problem behavior from an instructional view and provides a general framework in which educators can begin to develop programs that will increase the social competency of children with problem behaviors.

Although comparisons across cultures are difficult, this paper outlines several factors of social behavior, acceptable and unacceptable, that might be common to Japanese and American educators. Special attention is given to the similarities and differences between successful social behaviors and problematic ones. Influences of culture, school structure, social expectations, and academic difficulties on children's behaviors are also discussed.

The notions of behavioral intent and replacement behaviors are presented in general terms, and examples of how they might be used by teachers in reframing the instructional goals and activities of children with behavior problems are provided.

Finally, the paper presents some suggestions on how others can contribute to this initial effort to use problem behaviors as an integral part of social instruction.

Intimidation, threats, abuse, and bullying of students by peers have been a concern to students, parents and teachers for a long time. A student who bullies can affect an entire school, creating a climate of fear and intimidation among victims and fellow students. Recently, the social problems of children in Japanese and American schools have attracted the attention of the media and the public at large in both countries. For example, *The Washington Post* ran an article in January 1999 discussing the relationships between changes in Japanese children and how they affect the current school system. Reporting on a national conference of 16,000 teachers, they indicated that while most classrooms continue to function "normally," discipline was breaking down more frequently and teachers said they

were stressed and overwhelmed by the changes in student behavior. Similar reports can be found about the conditions of American schools. A recent article in the *Boston Globe* decries the increases in frequency and severity of bullying in public schools. They report research that indicates that between 15-20 percent of children "...are involved in bullying more than once or twice a year, either as bullies or as victims. These figures may be low since reporting of bullying by victims to parents or teachers is problematic. Many children are too afraid to speak up for fear of reprisals or further stigmatization.

There are many causes and cures proffered for these problems by researchers and lay alike. Most of the media articles I reviewed gave views on what were the reasons for problem behaviors and what could be done to correct them. The sources for these etiological and curative pronouncements included concerned parents, school personnel, researchers, television and radio talk-show hosts, and the reporters themselves. Crumbling societies, rigid schools, increasing globalization, rising competition and demands of school, and absent or distracted parents were all cited as culprits. Cures ranged from returning to homogenous days of old to scrapping the current educational systems and starting anew.

Although these cites may offer little to help us develop effective programs to teach an increasingly diverse population of school children how to successfully adapt to a rapidly changing world, they do illustrate a central point for this discussion. Problem behavior, in its many forms and features, is a major concern to a wide variety of constituents, and its impact on children and their families is significant enough to demand our attention.

All social behavior is rooted in culture. I do not claim to know enough about Japanese culture to suggest specific acts that Japanese teachers and parents should take to remedy the behavior problems they experience at home and in school. (The many cultural changes in America make it difficult to suggest techniques even in my own country.) The purpose of this paper is not to provide specific remedies. Rather, I would like to discuss some potential "universals" of problem behaviors and suggest an instructional approach that could be used to help solve them.

COMPARISONS BETWEEN JAPAN AND US ARE DIFFICULT

Any comparison between different countries is fraught with perils. My few visits to Japan have helped me learn about the similarities of our interests, and at the same time begin to appreciate the depth of differences in our cultures. Therefore, it is very important that we approach the sharing of information regarding problem behaviors and our strategies to address them with the

greatest of caution. Generalization of programs and pedagogical techniques that are successful in the United States to schools and communities in Japan is nearly impossible. Strategies that are effective in one country are not likely to work in another. This is due to the fact that social behavior, both good and bad, is culturally developed and controlled. Our social learning environments are vastly different. We have different ways to teach children to get along, and many of the ways children in the United States are expected to act in school are not like the ways of Japanese schools. The formal and informal ways we instruct our children are not similar, and the families and teachers play different roles in the academic and socialization processes.

You will have to actively translate what is suggested in this paper to your own circumstance. How you judge the usefulness of the ideas suggested here will depend upon how much they resonate with your own social experiences. Many of the ideas expressed here have empirical evidence to support them, but this evidence has been derived by studying American children in American schools. Although the data used to formulate these ideas may be useful to my American colleagues, it would provide little direct evidence to help in determining the appropriateness of these ideas for my Japanese friends. Since there are several reviews of how to deal with behavior problems in American journals, I have decided to focus this paper on the translation of these ideas into general principals that might help guide educators on both sides of the Pacific in developing effective responses to troubling behavior in schools.

SOCIAL BEHAVIOR IS HIGHLY CONTEXTUAL

How children interact has been the subject of investigations for centuries. Children's social behavior is a complex phenomenon. Most children learn an amazing repertoire of interwoven words and actions they use for a myriad of purposes in a vast array of social settings. A casual look at children at play or teenagers walking along a busy street can provide an impressive list of actions used to negotiate various social tasks. As children grow up, they learn what is expected, where and how to get their needs met, and how to integrate their needs with the needs of important "others" around them. Learning to be social is one of the defining features of humanity. It is essential for our survival in the world.

As important as social behavior is to the development of children it is hard to define what is appropriate or inappropriate behavior. More than any other thing they do, children's social actions are embedded in their culture. It is impossible to accurately describe how a child behaves without describing the social situation and the people involved. Additionally, a particular action that is appropriate at one time or in one place may not be appropriate at another

time or in another place. The children need information about the context and flow of the interaction before they can choose how to act. The complexity of social interactions and the strong reliance of children on context in choosing how to act are two of the reasons working with children with behavior problems is so challenging.

CULTURE PLAYS AN ENORMOUS PART

Culture also greatly influences how children behave socially. Their behavior reflects their social goals and their interpretation of expectations of those around them. Culture determines, in part, what is valued as good or bad. Culture also shapes how emotional and social thoughts and feelings are expressed and determine how and where social behaviors are learned. To be sure national cultures are abstractions formed by the summing of many local cultures within a country or region. The notion of an American culture becomes almost comical when you visit urban centers like New York, Chicago, or Los Angeles. I am sure that if I knew more about Japan, the notions of a homogenous, national culture would give way to a more complex mix of multiple social communities with differing views and norms. Nevertheless, formal cultures like schools and work places have sets of expectations and preferences that shape how we behave. Although different families, too, have different values, the ways in which their children interact with the formal structures of their community are largely shaped by their culture. Part of the solution for helping children with problem behaviors is to learn about their individual culture and how well it interfaces with the dominant culture of the community.

CULTURE IS CHANGING

Traditionally children learned to express their needs and wants through a complex set of behaviors they learned in their homes, neighborhoods, and schools. More recently many other centers of social learning have been added to these traditional learning environments. Children now learn how to act from the Internet, cell phones, television, movies, and, in some cases, even from video games. Children "chat" with friends in Bahrain, share fashions with teenagers in Paris, discuss schools with fourth graders in Peru, visit friends and families via Internet cafes in Singapore, and discuss the impact of military actions and economic sanctions with acquaintances in Bosnia or Iran.

This rapid change in culture presents two problems for children growing up. First, they must learn a new set of social norms. As the world changes, they and the adults they interact with will learn new ways of negotiating the social landscape. The differences between how you act at home with your parents, in school with your teachers, and on the train with your

peers have increased, and children will need to learn an even more complex set of words and deeds to be successful. Second, the interactions they have had in the past are often more strained. Traditional ways, valued by some, are disdained by others. Interactions that were once mutually beneficial can become defensive and combative. Children need not only to learn new norms, but they also need to learn how to navigate the discordance in the social fabric of the community in a rapidly changing environment. It is important to note that they act from a position of limited power and influence. This often means they need to assert themselves in indirect ways, often with troubling behavior.

ACCEPTABILITY IS RELEVANT ; NOT ABSOLUTE

Another feature of social behavior is the relevancy of its acceptability. I have referred to this somewhat above, but it deserves emphasis. Most social behavior is neither right nor wrong in any absolute sense. Even severe behaviors such as murder and theft are sanctioned in many societies under certain circumstances.

There are many factors that affect acceptability. I have spoken about national and local norms as expressed in expectations and sanctions. Also important is the influence of families on how we behave. As cultures become more diverse, a number of different, and potentially conflicting, family values will be present in schools. This has been true in America where there have been several waves of immigration, and I believe it is becoming truer in Japan in the wake of economic and social globalization.

Social class and financial standing are also potential areas for differences even within the same general ethnic culture. Often the dominant class expectations are expressed formally in school and community agents, such as police, courts, and community support workers. In communities where social class is a major determiner of who accesses the benefits of the common society, the social behaviors of the class serve as entry behaviors for class movement and advancement. For children in the other classes, they have the added burden of learning their own families expectations and the expectations of a social community with which they have limited contact or knowledge.

Age also is an important factor in social behavior. There are the obvious developmental differences in expectations as children grow up. You wouldn't expect a three-year old to show the maturity or sophistication of a high school student. Likewise, you wouldn't expect a high school student to show the judgment and foresight of an adult. A less often acknowledged age factor is inter-generational differences. Each generation experiences a vastly

different world than the one before it. The experiences of each new generation influence its norms, and the differences often cause concerns and conflicts between generations.

While it is possible to note current expectations in various social settings, it is impossible to map the currents of change and modification present in a school, let alone a society. This brings me to another important aspect of our discussion about problem behaviors. One of the skills that seem to differentiate socially competent children from those who have problems is their ability to operate successfully in current situations while always looking at how the picture is changing. They appear to be continually evolving their sociality.

DIFFERENT SITUATIONS & "TASKS" PRODUCE DIFFERENT WINNERS AND LOSERS

The structure of the situation and the task presented to the child contributes to presence or absence of problem behaviors. Every situation or task has certain things inherent in it that predispose who will more easily succeed, and who will not. For example, the northwest part of the United States where I live, logging is a major industry. Logging favors strong muscles and large hands. People who are born with these traits will be more likely to succeed that persons like me. Conversely, university teaching favors reading, writing, and problem solving. Strength does not play a major role. In this arena, intellectual dexterity predicts who will succeed.

When a child is in a situation that does not favor his or her strength, either due to native abilities or previous learning, it is likely that they will do something to shift the situation or task to one in which they are more likely to succeed. In structured situations like schools, where the tasks required are often prescribed by others, often the only way they can control the situation is to misbehave. Misbehavior is effective behavior. It almost always "works," and it allows the student to rearrange the situation to their favor. For children who chronically misbehave, misbehavior is their main way to control or escape a situation. It serves as a form of protection. Thus, when a child is exhibiting problem behaviors, a major component to assess is the match between the social and academic tasks present in the problematic situation and the child's ability to perform them adequately.

BEHAVIORAL INTENT: INSTRUCTIONAL CONTENT FOR STUDENTS WITH BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS

"The goal of misbehavior is to avoid failure."

Linda Albert

Students with behavior problems act in ways that are disruptive, confusing, and often just

plain annoying. In fact, children are often identified for specialized services based upon behaviors that are considered undesirable by others (Kauffman, 1989). Problem behaviors are particularly frustrating to teachers. For example, students who know how to act in ways that bother others can ruin well-planned lessons. Arguments spring up everywhere and extended talks lead nowhere. For some teachers, the classroom is full of tension, and their goal is to just make it to the end of the day without too much anger and confusion. The literature is replete with suggestions for how to handle such behavior. Far too often, however, these discussions fail to address the complexity facing teachers who must manage a classroom of students with behavior problems while providing effective instruction. To begin to plan instructionally for dealing with problem behaviors, we need to look at the problem from the teachers view.

TEACHERS' VIEW OF PROBLEM BEHAVIORS

Teachers do not view problem behaviors as a central part of the curriculum. Instead, misbehavior is considered an interruption in the instructional process. As such they are to be stopped or eliminated, not utilized. Reoccurring problems in a classroom often induce in teachers the desire for increased control.

From this perspective, successful management exists when these behaviors no longer exist, and when the children are going about the real business of school: academics. According to this view, classroom environments are developed to control behaviors, and academics are adjusted to prevent trouble or lessen the number of situations where it occurs. Consequently, success with children with behavior problems is measured in terms of amount of increased academic achievement and reduction or elimination of problem behaviors.

Unfortunately, for a large percentage of students with behavior problems, much of this progress is illusionary. When the structure changes to reflect more natural settings or when a student moves from his/her protected setting, the problems reappear. By controlling behavior and substituting academic success for social competence, we fail to teach the skills necessary to deal effectively with the very situations that elicited problem behavior in the first place. In other words, we have substituted a controlled academic curriculum for a needed social one.

Why does this occur? The problem lies in the behavior problems themselves. We can clarify the situation by looking more closely at the nature of the instructional content children with behavior problems and how it differs from other types of instruction.

NORMAL INSTRUCTIONAL COURSE

Imagine for a moment the typical course of a general academic program: reading in the

elementary grades, for example. The scope and sequence of reading instruction is well articulated. The lessons of any particular year are developed, and the link between the skills taught and reading as a whole is clearly specified. Of course, different approaches will have different lessons, sequences and skills, but each approach consists of a specific set of skills on which the teacher focuses. The content of instruction is defined and the sequence of instruction is logically formulated.

Assessment consists of determining which skills the student knows (in this case, how well he/she reads) and where those skills fit in the instructional sequence. Specific skill areas (e.g., phonics, decoding, vocabulary, comprehension) may be taught and assessed as parallel strands of instruction, but the outcome is still measured through general reading. In other words, there is a strong correspondence between the defined content of instruction and the assessment and evaluation activities.

The planning and delivery of each lesson also follows a predictable format. The teacher plans the lesson, schedules the time, picks the materials, sets up the working space, places stimuli before the student, and corrects responses when necessary. The student's role is also prescribed. He/she comes to the setting expecting to respond to the stimuli (read), receive correction, and modify responses when required. If the child makes progress along the prescribed continuum (in this case, the reading sequence), the lesson has been successfully taught.

INSTRUCTION RELATED TO BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS

How does instruction relating to a behavior problem differ? First, the student schedules the "lesson"(i.e.,the problem behavior)(some teachers claim it is "scheduled" at all the worst times!). The "techniques" used are also the student's choice. In fact, many students will use a type of social sonar to determine which techniques are best to use in various situations and with various teachers. The teacher and other students do most of the responding, and the student shapes their responses with his or her behavior. If the teacher responds in a way that is not what the student wants, misbehavior often continues until the teacher's response changes. Since the driving force behind determining success, as defined by the teacher, is the absence of the problem behavior, this shaping of teacher responses by the student often goes unnoticed. For example, it may be hidden in arguments, removal from class, or any number of other unpleasant interactions;or it may be disguised in the form of changes to the management system or behavioral plan used with a particular student.

The teaching of alternatives to behavior problems also differs from the teaching of academics in that the scope and sequence of what is to be taught is not clearly defined. Admonitions for problem behavior are general or vague. Favorite American examples include "When are you going to grow up?", "Act your age", or "Stop that!". The instructional goal of many programs is the elimination of problem behaviors and control of the student.

Ample instructions on how to stop behavior may be found in the literature (see Nelson and Rutherford, 1988, for a review), but only a limited number of programs focus on instruction in new, desired behaviors. Further, even plans that do promote individual skills often fail to provide developmental, long-term sequences of instruction. At best, skills modules are matched to specific problem areas (Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gershaw, & Klien 1980; Walker, McConnell, Holmes, Todis, Walker, & Golden, 1983). Progress is gauged in terms of skills learned, rather than movement toward maturity and social competency. This type of instruction is like teaching phonics or vocabulary without ever having the student integrate these skills into reading. Such instruction usually fails to generalize to non-instructional settings (Gresham, 1981).

Finally, assessment of behavior problems identifies what needs to be eliminated. Rarely do assessment reports include social skills to be taught. When individual skills or behaviors are specified, they fail to reflect the context or social task required (Dodge, 1985; Ladd, 1985). Unless a clearer connection between desired actions and instructional goals is drawn, these goals provide little or no guidance to the teacher.

Behavior problems, therefore, do not fall within the usual concepts of instruction. Programs developed to remediate them are reduction programs that focus on control or elimination of troublesome behaviors. They are rarely viewed as a normal instructional function of schools. If we are going to provide effective, long-term, developmental instruction for students with behavior problems, we must develop curricula for teachers that clearly identify content, sequence, and instructional methods to teach students to be socially competent in various settings. Additionally, such programs must be able to be effectively delivered in classrooms.

REFRAMING OUR VIEW

"You cannot use the same thinking process to solve a problem you used to create it."
Albert Einstein

"He who cannot change the very fabric of his thought
will never be able to change reality." Anwar Sadat

When a problem behavior exists, it is an indication that something within the existing context or instructional design is not working for that child. Something must change for the problem to improve. The task of the teacher and interested others is to decide what needs to change. As Laing points out in The Divided Self, one of the main goals for a teacher or parent trying to help a person in trouble is to try to understand the motivation and thinking used by that person. Laing claims that the act, no matter how different from those of others or outside the expectations of the group, makes "sense" to the actor. Our job is to learn to what the child achieves from behaving the way they do. When we can determine the outcome(s) achieved through problem behavior, we can begin to develop instructional strategies to teach the child a different and more socially successful way to reach the same end.

To do this I, and some of my colleagues at the University of Washington and in the State of Colorado, have borrowed a series of concepts from linguistics. We have begun to develop a pragmatics of problem behaviors. We believe that this pragmatic structure can help us use problem behavior to help determine motivation and intent. We seek a sort of communicative aspect of behavior. We have found that behavior "talks" and our task is to learn how to listen in an instructional way. It is beyond the scope of this discussion to provide a detailed review of our work. I can present, however, a brief overview of some of the major tenants that have emerged from it. I would like to again caution my Japanese colleagues to remember that these concepts were based upon data collected in American schools. Your experience may very likely be different. Your are invited to treat this part of the paper as a menu of ideas that may help you develop effective programs for your students who are experiencing trouble in school, not a prescription for cure or a roadmap to improved schools.

BEHAVIORAL INTENT

Providing effective instruction for students with behavior problems requires a system that can use the behaviors presented by the student (both desired and undesired) to develop and implement instruction. An initial first step in such a system necessitates that behavior problems be viewed in a new way.

Behavior problems are a diagnostic of the student's social goal or intent at any given point in time. My colleagues and I call this desired goal "behavioral intent." When students act, even demonstrating behaviors that we view as disordered, they act for a purpose. "Behavioral intent" refers to the purpose sought by the student as inferred from analyzing a series of overt behaviors in various situations. (The purposefulness of the action may or may not be apparent to the child. For those of you who have some difficulty with the imputing of conscious purpose from behavior, you may substitute the words "outcome

achieved" for "purpose sought.")

The work of Krasnor (1982), Neel, Jenkins, and Meadows (1990) with American and Canadian children has shown that most seek similar goals in social situations. Thus, the behavioral intents of most students with behavior problems are the same as those of socially competent students. The difference is that behaviors used to achieve the outcome (goal) by students with behavior problems are not accepted nor desired by others. It is important to remember, however, that this lack of acceptance does not, in and of itself, suggest that the behavior is less successful in achieving the desired intent for the student.

The selection of the word "intent" to describe the student's desired outcome might suggest a retrenchment from empirical, data-based instructional planning. This is not so. An analysis of the behavioral intent requires an empirical base. All intents, once inferred, must be verified through empirical means. Using behavioral terminology, behavioral intent describes a generalized reinforcer that is accessed through a range of activities. Intents are more than descriptions of the relationship between a specific behavior and the reward(s) that reinforce it. That is, the intents are descriptions of outcomes a student attempts to achieve through a series of social interactions, using a set of behaviors (skills) in a variety of situations and settings.

Some students always use the same series of behaviors to achieve a particular intent. For example, many aggressive students have found that striking an intimidating pose or uttering a few well-chosen words allows them to escape an unpleasant assignment. Other students have developed a refined set of behaviors that they can use to achieve their social goal. Students who are known to manipulate adults are good

examples of this second type. They have a wide repertoire of techniques they can use to establish control over someone.

Behavioral intent differs from a description of specific behaviors as it involves determining the connection between observed behaviors and the outcomes expected by the student. Thus, several incidents are observed in an attempt to discover the connection between a set of troublesome behaviors and the result(s) achieved for the student. It is from the pattern(s) developed by these observations that intent is inferred.

The process is analogous to the communicative intent inferred from the pragmatic language behavior of young children (see Neel & Billingsley, 1989). Specific behavioral sequences are

viewed as exemplars of a class of sequences or behaviors that indicate behavioral intents. The functional relationship between a particular behavior and its likely reinforcer is no longer the sole focus of instruction. Rather, they are considered as part of a larger class of intents.

Sometimes behavioral intent is not readily apparent, but requires frequent observations of several different interactions to be reliably determined. A provocative example of using behavioral intent as a way of viewing disordered behavior can be found in the work of Wahler and Dumas (1986). In households where abuse had been passed down from generation to generation, these authors found several instances of family members acting aggressively towards each other in response to physical abuse from the head of the household. Such aggression between victims was difficult to explain in traditional behavioral terms of observed behavior and probable rewards. Instead, Wahler and Dumas found that the reinforcing intent (our word) for the behavior was consistency and predictability. In other words, the family members preferred to act aggressively because they "knew" aggression and it was a predictable behavior.

By observing several iterations of family interactions, Wahler and Dumas were able to infer probable intent and make sense out of what otherwise appeared to be senseless behavior. In this case, consistency could be viewed as a generalized reinforcer for a series of behavioral chains.

The work of Wahler and Dumas brings up an important question. Are the intents achieved through use of problem behaviors pathological or disordered? Neel and his associates found that when 60 teachers, administrators, and related service personnel were asked to infer the intent of several behaviors of problem students with whom they had worked, the list reflected intents shared by most everyone in our society (Neel, Cessna, Swize, & Borock, 1993). A list of the intents identified across these studies is shown in Table 1. If replicated more widely by others, these findings may lead to a new definition for problem behavior. Problem behaviors would be a special case exemplar of a class of behaviors that achieved a particular intent. Each of us selects behaviors from a class of behaviors to achieve our social ends. We usually select the easiest and most fluent behavior in our repertoire. If it does not work to our satisfaction, we usually alter what we do based upon our reading of the feedback from others. In short, we "select" our best case from the class and use it. Children with problem behaviors do the same thing. Their problem behaviors could be viewed as the "best case" from their point of view. The problem behaviors would be the particular set of behaviors that reliably achieved the desired intent for that student in the settings and situations where the problem occurs. In other words, behavior problems become effective exemplars of a behavioral class.

From this perspective, problem behaviors are not different from their more desired counterparts. Rather, they are those behaviors that are not valued/desired by significant others, but have been determined by the student to be the most effective means of achieving a given objective in a particular situation or setting. As teachers, our task is not to deny or refocus the intent, but to establish a competing set of more desirable behaviors that achieves the intent sought by the student. In other words, the focus of instruction is to replace problem behaviors with other behaviors in the same class that will effectively achieve the student's desired intent.

TABLE 1 OUTCOMES INFERRED FROM PROBLEM BEHAVIOR REPLACEMENT BEHAVIOR

Outcome	Description
Power / Control	When Child's outcome is the control of events and / or situations. Characterized by child acting to stay in situation and keep control.
Protection / Escape Avoidance	When child's outcome is to avoid a task, activity; escape a consequence; erminate or leave a situation.
Attention	When a child becomes the focus of a situation; draws attention to self; result is that the child puts himself/herself in the foreground of a situation; discriminates self from group for a period of time; distinguishing feature is "becoming the focus" as the end product of the behavior.
Acceptance / Affiliation	When a child connects / relates with others; mutuality of benefit is present.
Expression of self	When a child develops a forum of expression; could be statements of needs or perceptions, or demonstration of skills and talents.
Gratification	When a child is self-rewarded or pleasedp; distinguishing characteristic is that reward is self-determined; others may play agent role.
Justice / revenge	When a child settles a difference; provides restitution, or cemonstrates contrition; setting the score.

The notion of teaching replacement behaviors is based upon two assumptions. First, all behavior has meaning for the person engaging in it. This may seem to be a trivial claim, but it is fundamental to any instructional approach to helping children with behavioral problems. Laing

(1975) would argue that it is only when we understand its purpose that we will be able to effectively help students. My position is that behavior has purpose, that such purpose is valid, and that an understanding of that purpose is critical to instructional design.

My second assumption is that meaning and function precede form. In other words, behavior is not only purposeful (i.e., achieves a particular outcome); it is also intentional (i.e., is directed toward a perceived outcome or reward). Although intents must at present by their nature remain as inferences, it does not mean that they cannot be empirically verified. For example, Neel and Billingsley (1989) demonstrated that it is possible to reliably infer behavioral intents with children who are nonverbal and who have limited social interactions. This work is supported by similar findings with different types of behavior problems (Dodge, 1985; Krasnor & Rubin, 1983; Neel, Jenkins, & Meadows, 1990).

The measurement of intents is difficult, especially with older students who tend to produce what Lewin (1935) called the "socially acceptable response in observed situations" (p. 67). Difficulty of measurement should not, however, be taken as evidence of the invalidity of the critical roles of intent and perceived reward in problem behavior. It is the interaction between the desired outcome (intent) and the environmental response to the behaviors tested that produces the specific behavior(s) we call disordered. When interventions focus on reducing or eliminating a particular behavior, the principal intent of the behavior is also affected. Far too often, the desired intent is denied or disregarded because attention is focused solely on the behavior that is being used to achieve it.

By failing to include the concept of intent in our instructional design, we communicate a disinterest (and, in some cases, a genuine disregard) for the validity of the student's intent. But if, as we have shown (Neel et al., 1993), intents are not pathological and are shared by many, such disinterest reflects a competition of values between the intents of the teacher and those of the child. The message sent to the student, therefore, is "My intent in this situation is more important than yours." If this is true, then the teacher must work to establish the value of her/his intent within the child. Telling a child they should value something is not sufficient, regardless of whether or not it is true. The teacher must try to engender his/her value in the child to be successful. Until the child accepts the value, the teacher will always be teaching two parallel curricula: the value and the skill.

The failure to validate the student's perspective is a fundamental element of improper instruction of students with behavior problems. Therefore, to provide more effective instruction to these students, we must learn to accept the curriculum presented by the student

through his/her behavior as the content of instruction for that student. In other words, we need to develop a more student-driven curriculum for that student in those areas where problem behaviors occur. Such a curriculum is based upon understanding intents and teaching replacement behaviors. This is much different from typical curricula where content, scope, and sequence are just developed and students are then exposed to them.

WHAT ARE REPLACEMENT BEHAVIORS?

Replacement behaviors are members of a class of behaviors that achieve the same intent as that achieved by the problem behavior. However, while achieving the desired outcome for the student, these behaviors are socially acceptable to significant others in the settings and situations being considered. To be effective, replacement behaviors need to reliably achieve the desired intent otherwise achieved by the problem behavior. An important distinction is that replacement behaviors are a class of behavior sequences that are taught to reach a particular event. A highly generalized, undesired behavior, therefore, couldn't be replaced with a single, more socially acceptable one. Few socially acceptable behaviors would be effective enough to compete one-on-one with a problem behavior. Socially competent individuals bring a complex array of behaviors and strategies to any situation. It is the effective use of these complex sets of behaviors that differentiates socially competent individuals from those with behavior problems. The term "replacement behavior" is a shorthand for the array of skills that need to be taught to successfully compete with the problem behaviors.

It is important that we make a distinction between teaching replacement behaviors and reducing problem behaviors. Replacement behaviors are not academic behaviors that are reinforced to compete with problem ones. True, it is possible to develop a classroom structure that would increase academic behaviors and reduce one or more problem behaviors at the same time. However, to do so would be to switch intents, not replace behaviors. Take, for example, a student who wants to escape from a math assignment, and does so by throwing a tantrum every time he is given a set of problems to complete. We could set up a reward system to enable him to finish the problems and reduce the throwing of tantrums. However, this would not teach him how to learn to work on something hard, or to develop the discipline to work on something he does not want to do, or even more importantly to learn to renegotiate his work more effectively. Whenever the need to escape returned, so would the tantrums.

In some circumstances, however, academics can be a successful replacement behavior. Consider the student who wants to affiliate with the teacher and does so by pestering the

teacher with inane questions. If a program were set up so that the student was taught to finish a set of math problems to receive praise, then finishing math could become a replacement for inane questions. As mentioned, usually more than one replacement would have to be taught to effectively compete with inane questioning. But in this case, academics could be one of them. This partially explains why academics are an effective competitor for some behavior problems and not with others. The important point is that whether or not a particular behavior is a replacement behavior depends upon the outcome achieved rather than the behavior itself.

Planning instructional content for students with behavior problems relies on identifying the behavioral intent achieved by the problem behavior and then arranging the environment so that other, more socially acceptable behaviors can be taught to replace the problem behaviors while still allowing the student to achieve his/her original intent. This differs from the common practice of reducing problem behaviors through external controls and highly structured environments, which allows little opportunity for error or by substituting academic content with significant rewards and severe sanctions.

When the instructional focus is adjusted to reflect the student's perspective, responses to problem behaviors take on a different look. Problem behaviors are used diagnostically to determine a critical intent of the student, as in the case above, escape from frustration. The teacher acknowledges the intent, and a more acceptable way of achieving the intent can be taught. Alternately, when instruction focuses on reducing behaviors, the intent is often ignored or denied, the behaviors are punished or ignored, and other activities or goals are rewarded as the "desired intent and behaviors" for the student. For example, American teachers commonly complain that students argue when asked to do something. Specifically, teachers report "He always argues with me when I tell him to . . . (sit down, stop talking, line up, get ready for the bus, etc.)." When asked about the desired response teachers typically answer, "Well, I just want him to stop arguing and follow directions." Programs are set up to reward "following directions" and punish (or at least not reward as often) arguing. The problem with this approach is that it assumes that the intent desired by the teacher (in this case, approval through compliance with instructions) is the same as the intent desired by the student. Often this is not the case.

Another problem with ignoring the intent of the student is the resulting reinforcement of problem behaviors. Often these students use behaviors that produce consistent responses in others. If such behaviors are not acknowledged, and if other behaviors are taught that fail to address the needs of the student as the student sees them, a withdrawal state is initiated. Assume for a minute that the problem student was arguing because it was the only reliable

way he/she had to control the situation. If the student were to agree to follow directions, what would be the effect? It is likely that teacher contact would be less, and from the student's point of view he/she would be less in control, waiting for the next event (command) to occur. Such uncertainty may be too much for some students to handle, leading to situations where commands are met with arguments. Arguments are known events to the student (he/she has been in thousands of them!), and it is easier to deal with them than deal with the lack of control that results from complying with teacher requests. In attempting to correct the situation, therefore, the teacher has inadvertently contributed to it.

ONE FINAL THOUGHT

The idea of teaching replacement behavior is a deceptively simple notion. Applying the concepts of behavioral intent and replacement behaviors, although difficult, can have a profound effect on the content of instruction for students with behavior problems. Specifically, the instructional focus switches from instructing a set of convergent social behaviors to developing various sets of acceptable behaviors that achieve the many social outcomes desired by us all. Instruction becomes a series of planned responses to various situations that arise in the child's world, rather than a highly controlled environment designed to reward only a limited set of social behaviors that only apply to instructional settings. Reliance on formal instruction is lessened, while informal instruction takes precedence. Social behaviors (even problem behaviors), previously seen as interruptions of important tasks, are now viewed as opportunities for instruction.

I hope I have provided some ideas that have captured your imagination as you think about ways to help children with behavior problems. Although our many social contexts are different, our goal of helping these children develop social and academic competence is the same. As we struggle to provide effective education to all children who enter our schools, we will need to learn to listen to the "language of problem behaviors" spoken by our children and then translate it into instructional practices in our schools.

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CLASSROOM DISRUPTION IN JAPANESE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

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The purpose of this paper is to describe the outline of a problem of Japanese education called "classroom disruption." The paper focuses on meaning of classroom disruption, its present situation, important factors relating the problem, and some implications in terms of teacher education to solve the problem.

The word "classroom disruption" has been widely used since 1997 and is generally recognized as an important problem of education. Referring to Ogi's definition (1999, p.81), I would like to define classroom disruption as a phenomenon in which elementary classroom teachers hardly conduct instruction because of children's willful behavior such as private talks, walking about, etc. This phenomenon is characterized as : 1) It is seen in elementary schools. 2) Failure of instruction is essential. 3) The problem is recognized not as given children's behavioral problem but rather as failure of a teacher's teaching and guidance over his or her classroom as a whole.

The children's behaviors commonly seen in the disrupted classroom are: 1) Walking around during the instruction, 2) Dropping articles such as writing materials, 3) Using violence on classmates.

A group of researchers conducted a survey study in 1998 and 1999, and published in 2000 a report entitled Problems and Measures in Classroom Management (Research Committee on Classroom Management, 2000). In the study data of the 150 dysfunctional classrooms results were collected and divided into ten typical cases. The report of the study lists three factors, which relate, they think, to the problem of classroom disruption; 1) Immature children in a group and in human relations, 2) Inappropriate responses to children who need special care and support, 3) Lack of competency of classroom teachers.

Generally it is understood that the children's change of behavior and life styles have been brought about by the change of home environment. The report identified an increase of isolated children due to fewer brothers and sisters. "Since children are not cared for at home, they ask for care from teachers. After all, there is home disruption behind the classroom disruption. "

Regarding to factors relating to teachers, teachers' way of teaching, classroom man-

agement, and relationship with children, and so on may closely relate to the disruption. The ability and quality needed for teachers, which are recommended by the report, may be put into three areas; 1) counseling mind for children who need special care and support, and scientific knowledge about them, 2) Teaching ability to help children feel enjoy the classroom, relax, and feel a sense of accomplishment, 3) Knowledge and skills of classroom management.

As far as teacher education is concerned, the report emphasizes two aspects: the content and organizational scheme. The former contains understanding "classroom management" and "children in their group." The latter includes in service training of classroom management for all teachers in a school, and systematic support for the in-service training.

I would like to emphasize the two aspects of teachers' competence in terms of a classroom management.

First, classroom teachers need to change their view of instruction and to develop new attitudes and skills. This might best be characterized as change "from teacher-centered to child-centered," "from knowledge-centered to holistic development" and "from uniform to diversity." Such an approach tries to foster individuality and independence. Children's interest in and will to learning should be more respected and emphasized. These recommendations have been made for a long time, especially since the end of World War II. Today they are more important than ever.

Second, teacher competency to manage their classes is essential. Through the process of training, employment, and in-service of teachers, their competency for class management should be regard as one of the most important qualifications. In Japan it has been thought that classroom management can be learned with experience. Japanese teachers tend to put less importance on the study of classroom management than American teachers do (Takahashi and others, 1997).

Management of a class is not just for teaching subjects. It is itself an important process of education. Once most of the Japanese elementary classes went well without teachers' efforts. Well-ordered classrooms were everywhere. Today this is not the case. Classrooms can only be managed with the sincere efforts of teachers.

To understand each child in his/her class is essential, including that of children who need special attention and care. In addition, teachers have to know how their students and themselves make a class community. So far most prospective teachers in Japanese colleges and universities have not received this type of education.

The New System of Teacher's Work Performance Appraisal - The Case of the Tokyo Metropolitan Board of Education -

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IMPROVING THE TEACHER'S QUALITY OF GUIDANCE

The Tokyo Metropolitan Board of Education(TMBE) has implemented the new system of teacher's work performance appraisal(TWPA) as of April 1, 2000. This newly enacted system is quite different from the traditional one in that the new system has incorporated teacher's ability and work performance into the system of TWPA with the aim of improving the quality of teachers, while the former system based on the seniority - oriented system had uniformly appraised teachers in terms of their work without paying much attention to the teacher's ability and work performance. This new system of TMBE seems to have had considerable impact on almost other local governments concerned with the quality of teachers under its jurisdiction.

Under the former traditional TWPA of TMBE, it was required that the principal alone appraise teachers and the result of the appraisal was not applicable to the personnel changes and salaries, thus it was unable to implement the objective and fair work performance appraisal being short of incentives to improve teacher's morale and the quality of teaching and guidance.

According to the TMBE, there are serious education problems, such as class destruction at school, behind the adoption of the new appraisal system. In addition to taking such steps as the abolishment of the school zones and the rethinking of the school management rules in order to tackle these problems, TMBE thought it necessary to enhance the teacher's awareness and to improve the teacher's quality of guidance. Thus it says that the aims of the new TWPA are to improve the teacher's quality of guidance and to vitalize the school organization under its jurisdiction by the adequate appraisal of teachers based on ability and work performance.

OUTLINE OF THE NEW TWPA

The new TWPA is composed of two sub - systems of teacher's self - statement and work Performance appraisal by the principal and vice principal at school and the superintendent of the board of education the schools belongs to.

The self - statement is conducted three times a year. In early April, teachers report to the principal their prospective attainment of each purpose of school in the areas of guidance of instruction, guidance of school life and guidance for entry to upper school and job, school man-

agement, special activities and so on. Each area includes three elements ; ability, emotion and will, and performance. Then, in October, they may add or change their attainment of purpose based on their performance. Through these steps of statement, it is expected that teachers carry out their work on their initiatives, find their abilities and things to be rectified, thus developing and improving their capabilities to carry out work.

The teacher's work performance is appraised throughout the year. The work performance Appraisal is composed of two appraisals ; the absolute appraisal and the relative appraisal. The absolute appraisal is conducted first by the vice principal and next by the principal, aiming to find ways to guide and foster teachers. The comprehensive appraisal is conducted based on the absolute appraisal by the principal and the vice principal, taking into consideration the school problems and the school policy. The relative appraisal is conducted by the superintendent for the purpose of using the appraisal for the salaries and the promotion.

The items of appraisal are the same as those of self - statement ; they cover the same areas and the same elements. The ratings of absolute appraisal are A(excellent), B(ordinary), C(inferior), and the ratings of comprehensive one are S(superb), A(excellent), B(ordinary), C(less ordinary) and D(inferior).

Finally, in addition to the adoption of the new TWPA, the in - service training of ability development program in accordance with the work experience and role is being taken under consideration at the TMBE.

DISCUSSION

The system adopted by the TMBE is quite challenging and may open a door for the STWP in Japan with the incorporation of ability and work performance into the appraisal system. In the Tokyo Metropolitan Government, the ability and work performance oriented system regarding personnel affairs has already been installed. In that sense the TWPA may be one of the reform agendas regarding personnel administration.

With this system, teachers will find it easier to find their own abilities, aptitudes and the ways to solve various educational problems. Thus, teachers quality of guidance is expected to improve. The principal and administrators also may find ways to guide and help teachers having trouble with teaching and guiding children , and they will be able to put the right person in the right place. And also the objectiveness and fairness of TWPA is expected.

On the other hand, there are some problems likely to emerge in the new TWPA .For example, first, teachers will be worried about too much detailed appraisal and try to defend himself or herself from severe appraisals. As a result, vivid and ambitious educational activities may be discouraged.

Second, the reward system for salaries and promotion may not function well. It may be difficult in practice to reward teachers based on their abilities and work performance. Will some teachers be highly paid and some teachers less paid or have their salaries reduced?

Third, this individual reward system may discourage cooperation among teachers began in the late 1980s, to introduce a teachers performance system based on merit. However, the system is now shifting from a system of appraisal of individual teachers movement in mind when it considers implementing its own system.

However, in spite of the problems and difficulties mentioned above, it is worth trying. Through a process of trial-error, we can expect to find solutions to any difficulties encountered along the way.

The Role of Higher Education in Teacher Professional Development

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In this session we discuss the role of higher education and the difficulties facing faculty in supporting the continued professional development of teachers. As an example, we will discuss our experiences with an in-service program instituted by the State Department of Education. We begin our discussion by considering issues and problems facing colleges of education at research universities in providing in-service programs for the Department of Education. These problems arise from the different missions of research universities, such as The University of Alabama, and State Departments of Education. We then shift our discussion to the difficulties faced in supporting teachers' implementation of curriculum presented during professional development experiences, which are due in part to the scope of the changes being suggested and the lack of long-term support for these changes. Each of these topics will be presented with a general overview of the problem and related research followed by specific examples from our experiences with the Alabama Reading Initiative (ARI).

DIFFERENT MISSIONS FOR RESARCH UNIVERSITIES AND STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

In the United States universities typically have three missions: teaching, research, and service. At research universities such as The University of Alabama, pay increases, tenure, and promotion are based first and foremost on research, followed by teaching. Service is by far the least important. While faculty members can get tenure with very little service, they cannot be tenured without research. Thus, providing in-service programs for the State Department of Education does not mesh well with the research-orientation of flagship universities.

The primary mission of State Departments of Education is to regulate and provide service to public schools. Like State Departments, Colleges of Education are deeply concerned with the quality of schools, teachers, and teacher education. However, in-service teacher education seems to fall between the cracks—university faculty have the expertise for providing in-service programs about curriculum and instruction that is needed, but due to the focus on research, do not have the time, funding, or responsibility to focus on the delivery of such in-service programs.

DIFFICULTIES FACILITATING TEACHER LEARNING AND CHANGE

Research has long reported that effective in-service professional development programs include the active role of the teacher, training that occurs over time, and on-site support and feedback. Nevertheless, traditional forms of in-service programs such as single conference sessions, one-day programs, and short-term workshops remain prevalent. One reason these short-term programs have little impact is because teachers have problems transferring workshop ideas into their classrooms without long-term, expert support.

OUR EXPERIENCES WITH THE ALABAMA READING INTIATIVE

The goal of this initiative is to provide professional development in the "best practices" of reading instruction to every teacher in the state. The objective of this training is to provide teachers with the knowledge and skills they need to deliver effective reading instruction so that evqery child is reading on grade level by the end of third grade. We will describe the Alabama Reading Initiative and provide examples of the issues mentioned above from our experiences with this initiative over the past three years.

"Educational Leadership in the Asia/Pacific Region: The Evolution and Structure of a Professional Development Master's Program for Teachers throughout the Asia / Pacific Region"

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University of Hawaii at Manoa

This paper falls under the JUSTEC 2000 conference theme of "Continuing Education." It describes the genesis and development of a new, innovative, and now national award-winning summer master's program for inservice teachers and other educators. As indicative in the title of the program — "Educational Leadership in the Asia/Pacific Region" - the focus throughout is on education in the Pacific basin and features concentrated study on the cultural, multicultural, and cross-national and international aspects of education in the area.

"Educational Leadership in the Asia/Pacific Region" is a special strand of the M.Ed. program in the Department of Educational Foundations, College of Education, University of Hawaii at Manoa. It combines an intensive summer residential educational experience over two summers connected by a distance learning educational experience during the intervening academic year and culminates in a student-developed project and paper (thesis) designed to enhance the professional development of students and the advancement of their home institutions. Though the program is open to school administrators and other school personnel, nearly all participants to date have been inservice teachers seeking to develop their understanding of the cultural, multicultural, diversity, and international aspects of education, as well as developing their leadership skills in the teaching profession. And because on-campus residential study is confined to the summers, the program is open to teachers and other educators from throughout the world who might find the University of Hawaii and the state an attractive place to pursue professional development during a common break between traditional academic years.

The paper, then, focuses upon the considerations that led to the program's development, its cohorted structure, its social and intellectual atmosphere, and its ongoing evolution as the faculty experiment with new features introduced as a result of program evaluation. And while planned evolution is built into the program, it has already been sufficiently successful during its young life in receiving the 1999 Exemplary Program Award from the North American Association of Summer Sessions.

Recent Developments in the Continuing Education of Teachers in the United States : the Growth of the For-profit Sector

Ann Intili Morey
Distinguished Research Professor, San Diego State University

The paper presents the results of a study that examines the recent growth of continuing education opportunities for teachers offered by for-profit companies and universities in the United States. It provides information about current providers, the types of programs they are offering and perceptions about the quality of the programs. The paper concludes with a discussion of the implications of these developments for traditional colleges and universities. The study is part of the larger research effort on for-profit higher education being conducted by the Center for Educational leadership, Innovation and Policy at San Diego State University.

TEACHERS' LICENSE IN THE CREDENTIAL SOCIETY ,(2)

Keijiro Tanaka, Norihisa Hashimoto, Kiyoharu Hara, and Yoshitaka Tanigawa
BUKKYO UNIVERSITY

Last year we presented :

In Japan, so many university students want to get the teachers' license, but it is very hard to obtain the teachers' profession. In fact, the number of students who can become teachers is very small today. Nevertheless why do so many students try to obtain the teacher's license? Does teachers' license have multiple social functions as the vocational qualifications?

Firstly, we analyzed the general functions of vocational qualifications as the premise of analysis of the teaching license :

Classification of functions

1. to prove vocational ability

   This function is the basis of all functions. This function is divided into two.

   1 - 1 to prove ability as teachers

   1 - 2 to prove general vocational ability

2. to control entering to profession
3. to accelerate to change job
4. to stable income, or insurance
5. to create vocational-ability-centered society
6. to make equality between two sexes
7. to improve working conditions
8. to develop man-power
9. to symbolize authorities
10. to live a fruitful life

Secondly, we carried the questionnaire to all students of the Faculty of Education in Bukkyo University. And we analyzed the teachers' license on the social functions as the vocational qualifications.

This year we carried the same questionnaire as last year to students of five universities in Kyoto. And we analyze the social functions. (the common functions in five universities and the features of individual university)

Teacher Induction / Career Transition : Implications for Japanese and U.S. Teacher Preparation Programs

Mark W. Clark
Northeastern State University

Many questions have recently been raised by business community leaders, politicians and other "stake holders" in the educational environment about the preparation of teachers. Are they being prepared in the best way possible to enter the classroom in an effective manner? Educational agencies, teacher preparation programs and school districts have talked about first year induction programs, mentoring and professional development activities as ways of addressing better preparation. In a previous presentation to this group, I outlined what the state of Oklahoma is doing in regards to formalized induction programming. Using a career transition approach, this presentation will build on that work and indicate what one teacher preparation program is doing to combine mentoring, feedback into preservice field experiences and the extention of the induction the process (3-5 year period) to strengthen the effectiveness of teachers. Utilization of a new "institutional warrantee" for teacher educators, student teaching internships, National Board for Professional Teaching Standards programming and related types of university follow-up and professional development are the bases of this evolving program.

This presentation hopes to share where we are at and generate discussion related to best practice and cultural implications in both Japan and United States.

The Present Situation And Problems of Continue Education of School Teachers in Hokkaido Prefecture

Yoichi Yazawa1), Hiromi Kitamura1), Hiroshi Morita1), Mika Kamidochi2),
Yoshiyuki Takehara3), and Takanobu Nakamura4)

The total number of public school teacher (the elementary, the junior high and high schools) in Hokkaido prefecture is 43,038. The continuing education of many school teachers have been practiced in the education training institutions. There are 60 institutions in Hokkaido prefecture. Hokkaido science education center is one of them and practices the positive action about the continuing science education of teachers, especially.

After we introduce the present situations of Hokkaido science education center and Kamikawa education training center in this study, we consider the promises and problems of continuing teacher education.

1) Hokkaido University of Education at Asahikawa
2) Asahikawa Medical College
3) Kamikawa Education Training Center
4) Hokkaido Science Education Center

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