Building Networks in Higher Education

Towards the future of faculty development

Edited by
Center for the Promotion of Excellence
in Higher Education at Kyoto University
& Kayo Matsushita

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Foreword

The Standards Approach and the Generative Approach

Kayo Matsushita

"From 4 p.m. today we will be doing FD, and all teaching staff are requested to take part." I have heard this kind of announcement made at faculty meetings. Faculty development, which is called "FD" in Japan, is about "doing" a lecture style training event, and is something quite separate from the everyday practice of teaching. Scenes like this are probably common at many universities.

Since the term "faculty development" made its appearance in the Report of the University Council in 1991, the institutionalization of faculty development has steadily advanced in Japan. In 1999, faculty development became a non-binding obligation, and since 2004 faculty development has been one of the evaluation items of an incorporated national university, and also for accreditation. In 2007 faculty development became mandatory for all higher educational institutions. However, while institutionalization of faculty development has advanced, the increasing formality and ritual behavior involved, such as in the example mentioned above, have also become apparent.

Many people involved with faculty development feel this sort of situation is a problem, and are searching for approaches that will provide a breakthrough. These could be divided broadly into two types.

The first approach is to create a standards framework for improving the ability of university teachers and their teaching, and to implement faculty development through a systematic training program created according to that framework. We shall call this the *standards approach*. For instance, "The Professional Development Framework for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education in Japan" and "FD Map" are typical examples (National Institute for Education Policy Research, 2009). The Framework paved the way for the idea of The HEA (Higher Education Academy)'s "The UK Professional Standards Framework for teaching and supporting learning in higher education" that provides the basis for

the UK's PGCHE (Postgraduate Certificate in Higher Education). In other words, third party institutions supply the basic framework and each university creates a faculty development (in the UK this is called "staff development") program in accordance with the framework and by completing that program a staff member becomes a fully qualified university teacher. The FD Map broadly reformulates the definition of faculty development from "the collective designation for organizational activities designed to improve the lesson contents and teaching methods of teaching staff" (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology) to "the collective designation for organizational activities aimed at improvement of classes, improvement of curricula, and organizational improvement and reform," and is designed to be able to give a complete overview of developments at the micro level (class and teaching methods), middle level (curriculum/programs) and macro level (organization's educational environment/systems). According to this map, every university is expected to grasp the current status of their faculty development programs, compare them to other universities,' and develop new programs. This FD Map builds upon the US POD Network's definition of faculty development (see Chapters 3 and 7). The Professional Development Framework and FD Map are thought to make invisible faculty's teaching abilities and faculty development efforts visible. However, the approach is not just about making already existing realities visible, but it also has the power to create new realities. That is why the name given to this approach is not the "visualization approach," but the "standards approach."

The other type of approach is that of promoting mutual cooperation and interaction between university faculty and further establishing faculty development by supporting each other in the improvement of everyday teaching activities. In order to make the contrast to the standards approach clear, we shall call this the *generative approach*. In this approach, efforts are put into promoting the building of communities and networks, carrying out peer review of other teachers' everyday teaching activities, and providing the tools and the space to share the practical knowledge that emerges out of this process. For example, the ideas and activities of scholarship of teaching and learning (SOTL), constructed mainly by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, and the ideas and activities of *mutual faculty development* by the Center for the Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education at Kyoto University can be placed within the gen-

erative approach. The way of thinking of this generative approach is expressed in a simplified manner in "A circle of knowledge building and sharing" (see Chapter 5) by Toru Iiyoshi, who until 2008 was the director of the Carnegie Foundation's Knowledge Media Laboratory.

Putting together the characteristics of the standards approach and the generative approach can be shown in Table 0.1:

Table 0.1 Characteristics of the two approaches to faculty development

	Standards approach	Generative approach
Goals	Attaining and mastering standards	Generating practical knowledge and collegiality
Opportunities	Training programs	Improving everyday teaching activities
Actors	Specialist model (Major role for "FD-ers")	Collegial model (Emphasis on mutuality among faculty members)

These two approaches are connected to the two models for the implementation of faculty development, the *specialist model* and the *collegial model*. In the specialist model, university teachers are seen as professionals when it comes to research, but novices when it comes to teaching, and a specialist (faculty developer etc.) is considered necessary to raise their skills to a prescribed level. On the other hand, under the collegial model, university teachers are seen as "professionals not only at research but at teaching as well," or are at least assumed to be, and cooperation and interaction between colleagues is thought to be the most effective way of conducting faculty development (see Chapter 7). The contrast between these two approaches corresponds loosely to the two schools of thought about teacher professionalism—"teachers as technical experts" and "teachers as reflective practitioners" (Sato, 1996). The main proponent of the scholarship of teaching and learning, former president of the Carnegie Foundation, Lee S. Shulman, was originally an educational researcher at Stanford University who studied the practical insights of teachers and adhered to the latter school of thought. Based on this, linking the schools of thought in teacher professionalism together with faculty development theory is not so far-fetched after all.

These two approaches are what you would call ideal types; there are more than a few cases where the actual faculty development activities at individual

universities fall somewhere between the two, or combine elements of both, or both types co-exist. In reality, our Center also provides training programs, such as those for graduate students and new faculty. However, given the current trend is to use the standards approach for conducting faculty development, there is not an insignificant value in creating a theoretical basis for the alternative generative approach, and investigating its implementations in actual practice. This is what this book attempts to do.

The impetus for making this book was an international symposium titled "Building the Core in Faculty Development: The Future of Faculty Development in Japan" held by the Center for the Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education at Kyoto University on 24/25 January 2009. Since I was the person responsible for organizing the symposium, I asked the speakers and few others for their contributions, which compile up this book. The three authors who sent their essays from the US, including the already mentioned Toru Iiyoshi, have a deep commitment to the scholarship of teaching and learning and are among those responsible for bringing about its current form. Carnegie Foundation senior scholar emerita Mary T. Huber has worked at the Carnegie for more than 20 years and has been one of the leaders who created the theory and practice of the scholarship of teaching and learning, together with the former president Lee S. Shulman and the former vice-president Pat Hutchings. Indiana University Bloomington (IUB) senior lecturer Jennifer M. Robinson was involved for a long time with putting the scholarship of teaching and learning into practice at IUB, which could be considered one of the core campuses for the scholarship of teaching and learning, and until recently served as the president of ISSOTL (The International Society for the Study of Teaching and Learning). The Japanese contributors Tsunemi Tanaka, Yusaku Otsuka, Hiroyuki Sakai, Mana Taguchi, Shinichi Mizokami, and myself, Kayo Matsushita, are all faculty members at the Kyoto University's Center. We had independently adopted a common approach on the opposite sides of the Pacific, met for the first time during a visit to the U.S. before the symposium, and continued our interactions and collaborative research. This book is the fruit of that cooperation.

In "Part I: Principles of Faculty Development," "Part II: Building Faculty Development Networks," "Part III: Use of Technology in Faculty Development" the Japanese and US scholars discuss various themes related to faculty develop-

ment. In the final part, "Part IV: Who Engages in Faculty Development and for What Purpose?," three themes are taken up that were not directly discussed in the first three parts – the agents who implement faculty development, the role of evaluation in faculty development, and networks for students.

Tatsuya Natsume, professor at the Center for the Studies of Higher Education at Nagoya University, and Aya Yoshida, professor at the Faculty of Education and Integrated Arts and Sciences at Waseda University were asked to provide commentary essays. Both have a deep and profound knowledge of various fields in higher education, such as faculty development, e-learning, vocational education, and professional education. Through their comments, the challenges our research poses and its significance in relation to the formation of university education networks, become much clearer. Tsunemi Tanaka's "Afterword" should be read as a reply to these comments.

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October 2010
Kayo Matsushita, Ph.D.

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Part I

PRINCIPLES OF FACULTY DEVELOPMENT

Chapter 1

The Status of Faculty Development in Japan: Addressing the Question of Mutual Training as a Paradigm of Faculty Development

Tsunemi Tanaka

In recent years in Japan, both undergraduate and graduate programs have undergone a succession of structural revisions on an organization-wide scale, for the purpose of upgrading both the content and methodologies of class instruction and student guidance. This series of innovations known broadly as "Faculty Development"[1] has become official policy. The legal predication of this policy is itself an aberration when viewed within the international context; and the earnestness behind the implementation of this new policy stance is blatantly apparent in a 2008 report entitled *Toward the Construction of a College Preparatory Curriculum* issued by the Ministry of Education's independent advisory council the Central Council of Education. Faculty development is designed to appeal to the teachers' union core values (raison d'être): namely, to successfully guide students from matriculation, completion of the curriculum and on through graduation. This policy covers the entire array of educational institutions in Japan and is manifestly an attempt to create an instructional organization that will execute its core function through the implementation of faculty development.

At the administrative level, each institution of higher education has fallen in step with official policy directives coming out of the central government and taken various measures to implement the policy of Faculty Development. At the same time, these institutions have constructed a network of inter-institutional support mechanisms. Unfortunately, however, in many cases these efforts do not necessarily incorporate the practical considerations of the front-line workers—the teachers. As such, the focus of debate has moved from the question of the merits of faculty development as a policy innovation to the question of the policy's implementation framework. An effective framework for implementation would

entail construction of an organization which, through professional and personal development on both the individual and collective levels, fosters an awareness as an organ of the educational enterprise which is cognizant of and equipped for its role vis-à-vis the student body. We educators view the mutual-training paradigm as the appropriate theoretical outline by which to institutionalize faculty development. In this paper, the circumstances surrounding faculty development will be briefly outlined, followed by progressive argumentation concerning the implications of the mutual-training paradigm as the theoretical basis for faculty development.

1 University Education Today and the Institutionalization of the Faculty Development Policy

Regarding the current status of higher education, a cursory overview has been outlined in the introduction. It is generally understood that higher education is in the throes of an ever-increasingly dire situation, as explained by profound changes in the surrounding milieu of culture, economics, the employment system, government policy and administration, business management, student and faculty populations and the content of education itself. There is also a litany of related factors commonly cited in the same breath: the universalization of higher education, globalization, innovations in the information media, elevated standards and increasing complexity of educational content, diminishing student interest in learning and the like. The persuasiveness of these stock explanations begins to fade, however, when one takes a closer look at their details and what they entail. For example, in contrast to the ongoing mantra of universalization of education, there are signs of a steady decline in the matriculation rate of children of lower income families at institutions of higher learning. Furthermore, it is problematic at this juncture to pass judgment on whether this is a temporary phenomenon due to the economic slump or whether this represents a more permanent shift in the broader culture. The fact that higher education is in the midst of a crisis is indisputable, but the various elements of the crisis such as superficial, short-to-mid-term factors and structural, long-term factors are intermingled and not easily unmeshed. Further complicating the matter is the presence of economic, political and cultural factors in each of these critical elements.

With regard to the superficial, short-to-mid-term crisis, there is an oft-re-

peated and trite cliché on how to deal with the issue. Speaking matter-of-factly, in order to deal with the massive influx of students which resulted from the universalization of higher education, the college/university was forced to take extreme measures such as maximizing the capacity of the existing educational organization. In other words, it was expected that the existing organization would undergo technical rationalization, as though it were simply a tool or implement that could be readily tweaked. This is process I shall dub "schooling," as the antithesis of Ivan Illich's famed expression "Deschooling Society." Strictly speaking, however, I should say the "modern schooling."[2] "Modern schooling" presumes a curriculum based on the differentiation of grade and level and on a clearly differentiated complexity of content. It is a uniquely specialized instrument of modern society with its prevailing characteristics of time and space. The university as it had existed heretofore has now become definable in terms of its degree of compliance or deviation from the modern educational institution. In recent years, regarding university education, such concepts as the credit/unit system, semester system, curriculum, syllabus, instructional method, student evaluation and now faculty development have been explored as means to rationalize the existing educational institution and can be viewed as specific elements of the overriding push to modernization. What remains to be seen is if this evolution of the educational institution is indeed optimally configured to deal with the exigencies—and here I refer to not just the short-term, superficial challenges but also the long-term, structural-cultural challenges—facing education as a component of the larger society.

Every aspect of the educational system in Japan is indeed in a state of crisis. The cause of this crisis in a word is the shock waves that have accompanied Japan's economic evolution from a vibrant emerging economy with robust growth into a mature economy which has plateaued and stagnated. After the second world war, Japanese schools were amalgamated into an enormous educational entity. In the war, this amalgamation had been seen as a crucial component of the national strategy toward general mobilization, and after the war as a measure to favorably position the country as a competitor in the intense post-war economic environment. However, as a byproduct of Japan's economic maturation/stagnation, the intrinsic dynamism of the immediate post-war conglomeration of the educational system, which had a very clearly defined goal to gain economic parity

with more prosperous countries, largely waned, and as a result is now in a deep and extended funk. Manifestations of this are the marked decline in academic achievement, truancy, school bullying, collapse of the class structure and on-premises violence. These symptoms can be traced back to the loss of the inherent motivation of the school conglomeration movement; but even in a fragmented environment one might reasonably anticipate a measure of success were it not for the additional fact that modern education has abandoned the existential needs of its client youth. This oversight of the innate existential/holistic demands of young students in particular is no doubt connected to the decline in scholastic motivation, which in turn produces impairment within the most basic functions of the educational institution.

The long-term, structural crisis which confronts university education is the direct result of these structural changes. The attenuation of student interest in learning, however, is more than simply a matter of an unsuitable learning environment or of a particular omission within the educational structure; it is rather to be surmised that this attenuation is attributable to a fundamental failure in the ability to motivate students' interest in learning. The corralling of students through "schooling" is at best a stopgap measure in ameliorating the subtle unsuitability of the learning environment, but it is entirely inadequate to inspire the creation or discovery of internal motivation within students. The "schooling" of universities produce the opposite effect of enervating students' ability to discover and draw out personal motivation for learning, and as such rather exacerbate the current crisis within education.

The crisis of higher (university) education is worsening. Though the policy of "schooling" has been able to provide temporary relief to some of the maladies resulting from the universalization of higher education, it has not been able to provide answers to the structural changes within Japanese culture as it adapts to the maturation of society. What is required at this juncture is the establishment through unrestrained collaboration among the faculty of an effective and flexible organization which is capable of dealing with issues on an ad hoc basis and which is also capable of deriving possible solutions through differentiating between "schooling" and "deschooling." This is the truest expression of Mutual Faculty Development. In any event, the brisk and dramatic popularization of secondary (university) education since the 1970s has produced a new landscape

in which student interest in education no longer conforms to previous methods of instruction.

This fact is widely recognized; and it is incumbent upon educators to squarely deal with this new reality and to use it as an opportunity to create that flexible and effective educators union through which new exigencies can be addressed in a collaborative and creative manner.

2 Defining Mutual Faculty Development

There are diverse instructional configurations at the university level: for example, lectures, seminars, praxes (practicums) and clinical/laboratory experiments. What typically comes to mind from an educator's standpoint is the scenario of standing behind a lectern lecturing to a crowded room of students.[3] How is it that this obsolete, unidirectional monologue format referred to above as *lectures* managed to gain lasting preeminence as an instructional method? There are several conceivable answers to this. For example, traditionally in the Confucian sphere of East Asia, the *mimetic mode* which emphasizes rote memorization was the prevailing method of instruction in contradistinction to the *transformative mode* which focuses on the development of the student's analytical and critical thinking abilities.[4] Additionally, this authoritarian pedagogical approach was considered for the mass of students towards bureaucrats, industrialists, engineers and other leaders of the modern sector to be most effective in cultivating an educated populace. However, as Japan has peaked as an industrial society and evolved into an IT-based economy, a truly educational method of instruction which will facilitate independent, life-long learning in order to keep pace with the never-ending expansion of knowledge and technology is required. Moreover, the capacity to think creatively and imaginatively so as to enhance and build upon contemporary standards is a critical component of education. Unlike their ancestors, students in Japan today no longer automatically incline toward the mimetic mode of instruction which derived from the prevailing group mentality of previous generations. The value of the lecture method of instruction has become unavoidably relativized, and it is no longer the feasible method it once was. At the same time, in accordance with the high-level advancement in industrialization coupled with globalization, the performance demands on higher education have ballooned to a seemingly unrealistic level, and university educators are hard-pressed to deal

with the situation in which they are untenably sandwiched between diminishing student output and increasing educational demands.

Needless to say, not every educator is confronting this thorny situation head-on. That is because it is viable to be aware of the problems yet pretend not to be. However, it is not tenable to sustain this state of self-denial forever. Nonetheless, even the most run of the mill educator subjugates his natural teaching style in an effort to contrive measures to accommodate the new student of today. The effort of institutions of higher learning to reform and create a subjective curriculum is not executed in a vacuum. There are certain preexisting core foundations upon which every institution must proceed with its reforms. The predicament lies in the fact that there is no collective entity within the faculty body with which to deal with the student body. At present, each educator is left to fend for him/herself. This is precisely the goal of institutionalizing Faculty Development.

As previously mentioned, since the formalization of faculty development as a national policy, related measures have become widely accepted and implemented. This is a positive development. In accordance with this canonization and implementation of faculty development, however there has emerged a certain type of stereotyping of its particulars, namely training courses, faculty retreats, student evaluations and class observations. This prescribed regimen of unique proactive measures which was imported en total principally from America has become perfunctory, and for the most part just another hallow event. This is the fundamental reason for the sense of futility and inefficacy that associates itself with faculty development. What one is inclined to think regarding faculty development is this current state of ambivalence, which is to say, faculty development as an enlightened idea and faculty development as an inept program.

When considering the institutionalization of faculty development, the premise that faculty development as an enlightened instructional tool has nearly run its course is important to keep in mind. At the same time, a new organizational paradigm has yet to be envisioned. The central question today regarding faculty development is how a standardized, irregular form of faculty development can be incorporated within the context of the following goals: improving individual and organizational class instruction, building a system supportive of learning, curriculum reform and other similar regular efforts at educational improvement. I believe the answer lies in defining the training element of faculty development

as mutual faculty development includes the stylistically different methodologies of communicative training courses and mutual study. Additionally, there are the vectoral variations of top-down implementation and bottom-up, self-instituted organizing. When these two paradigms intersect, the result is a four-quadrant hybrid as schematized in diagram 1. The difference between these four quadrants is most dramatic between type I and type III. It is the latter, type III, which I hold to be the optimum scheme. A prerequisite for successful mutual training is the organizing of relevant faculty who are dedicated to educational reform through full candor and openness of their instructional practices.

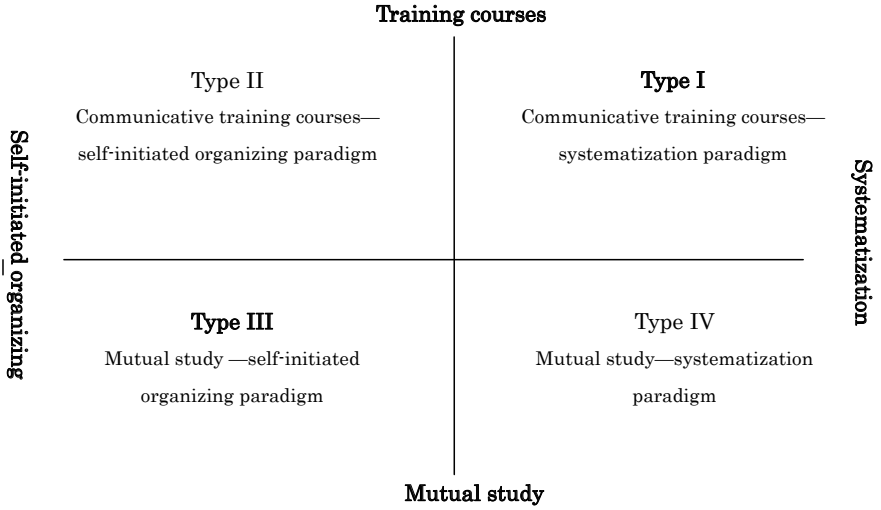

Figure 1.1 Four types of faculty development organizing

As each individual educator and his/her activities are merely components of the larger educational group endeavor of the institution, it is not plausible to pin hopes for educational reform on individuals. What is required from the faculty is nothing less than improvement in personal instruction and a radical breakthrough in smugness, privacy and personal idiosyncrasy. In other words, for reform to be successful, latent educational prowess must be drawn out afresh from both the individual instructors and from the larger educational organization through mutual openness and candor in personal practice and self/peer evalua-

tion.[5] However, compared to training courses, student evaluations and syllabus creation, the practice of auditing classes and forming Instruction Deliberation Group is not yet widely practiced. Liberalizing, or creating transparency, typically involves external coercion; and naturally educators who have traditionally managed to sequester themselves behind the doors of their private offices will not readily welcome such a measure. This coerciveness and discomfort from losing a measure of privacy and autonomy have been the primary obstacles in efforts to renovate and liberalize.

The most significant impediment to the organizing of a faculty union has been the prevailing view that the job of educating university students is fundamentally an individual matter. It has long been the view that the task of university instruction is an individual, self-regulating enterprise. With regard to research, however, it is and has been standard practice to make public one's research and to subject it to peer review. Even with regard to organizational management, a sense of mutual candor and cooperation prevails. Individual educators are components of the faculty union, which purpose it is to stand in opposition to the student union. Liberalization and transparency will invariably make their way into the field of higher education—one of the last holdouts. Whence derives this opposition to liberalization in higher education? Is it possible to overcome the forces of resistance? The answer, I believe, lies in successful implementation of mutual training version of faculty development. I would now like to address the practicability of this ideal while retracing the steps of its formation.

3 The Development of the Mutual Faculty Development

It has now been 15 years since I took a post at Japan's first institution for the promotion of professorial instruction and study known then as *Kyoto University Research Center for Higher Education*, and currently named *The Center for the Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education*. At the time of my appointment, the subject of liberal studies at universities was in the process of being reevaluated based on revisions made to university charters, and in the midst of this fluidity there was some uncertainty about the particular goals of the Center. At the time, the Derek Bok Center for Teaching and Learning at Harvard University was widely referenced as the model for Kyoto University's new Center. At the Derek Bok Center, however, a major portion of the activities included responding to fac-

ulty who were concerned about low student evaluations which are directly tied to the tenure evaluation process. This operational paradigm—one might even say business model—has awkwardly become the new expectation of higher education in Japan despite the profound disparities in traditional faculty development, employment and promotion. With these disparities preempting a tidy overlay of the Derek Bok Center methodologies, there was considerable anxiety among those charged with implementing these changes. Nonetheless, it was virgin territory, and so there was tremendous opportunity for creativity.

Having spent the better part of a year deliberating a wide array of considerations, I decided to open to the public a cross-referenced course which I teach entitled Life Cycle and Education and to launch the Instruction Deliberation Groups. The majority of the tools for improvement in higher education such as syllabus creation and class evaluations are direct adoptions from America; but the model of open classes and deliberation committees is a product of Japan's primary and secondary "open-class laboratory." The introduction of the open-class laboratory into universities seemed a most natural move in light of my background as an instructor of local educators. It was rather precisely because I had already unburdened myself of any delusions of grandeur as an instructor that I was able to open my classes to peer review. It was only appropriate, then, that the Center should decide to launch their experiment in faculty development with my class. There was no shortage of younger, more qualified instructors than I, but it is doubtful that they were mentally prepared to accept the intense demands of the Center's ideal as mutual faculty development. I dare say that it was my somewhat reckless willingness to be the "guinea pig," so to speak, that swayed the Center to abandon the "enlightened" top-down approach in favor of mutual training.

In the open class, we formalized a new vehicle for communication in the development of an "open diary" in which comments and observations could be made in the instructor-student relationship as well as in the intra-student relationships. Additionally, in the Instruction Deliberation Group, instructor and visitors held candid conversations regarding their respective views of the class and included personal reflections.[6] This somewhat convoluted mutual configuring constitutes the typological ideal of the Center's mutual faculty development paradigm. The faculty development paradigm is currently in place on multiple levels—from the departmental level, in which individual educators are the func-

tionaries, to the separate university faculties, and culminating in the inter-university level both on a national scale and on an international scale. We at the Center have tried to proceed with the implementation of faculty development, mindful of the particularities of local conditions, and in collaboration with our colleagues in other locales. On a whole, however, it must be said that most universities still take a top-down approach in the implementation of faculty development out of rigid deference to legal status of this government policy. Unfortunately, however, as one might easily imagine, there is relatively little substance to this type of top-down strategy which allows the letter of the law to be preserved without realizing its intent. We here at Kyoto University feel that the mutual learning model of faculty development which proceeds from the bottom up and from a cultivated sense of collegiality is the truest and most appropriate form reform at the university level. Based on this assessment, intra-university organs for implementation (Faculty Development Committee at Kyoto University), regional organs (Kansai Faculty Development Association), national organs (Kyoto University Conference on Higher Education, Japan Faculty Development Network [JFDN]) and international organs (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, MIT, Indiana University, McGill University, etc.) have taken the lead in advancing this form of faculty development reform.

The Kyoto University Conference on Higher Education (http://www.highedu.kyoto-u.ac.jp/forum/2009/) will enter its 16th year this year and boasts a total of 80 open conferences. In recent years, attendance at these conferences has exceeded 500 specialists from across the country. This is an astounding record for an event of this nature. The conference provides a venue for practitioners with proven track records to get acquainted and exchange ideas. The Japan Faculty Development Network (JFDN) is an organization comprised of leaders of various faculty development-related networks nationwide and also provides a venue for dialogue, exchange of ideas and brainstorming (http://highedu.kyoto-u.ac.jp/fd/project/fdjfdn/). The Center serves as a hub of the numerous faculty development-related networks throughout Japan, conveniently bringing together the numerous regional and subject-specific networks under the aegis of one central clearinghouse. Additionally, the Center offers a forum for young educators and administrators from universities (who have their own specific organization named Young Faculty Development Researchers Network [JFDN Jr.] (http://

www.highedu.kyoto-u.ac.jp/fd/project/fdjfdn-jr/) to pursue professional development through mutual study.

At the regional level, the Center supports the operations of the Kansai Faculty Development Association (http://www.kansai-fd.org/). The Association is comprised of the vast majority of the 130-plus universities and junior colleges in the Kansai district and supports the initiatives of the member institutions and the five working groups in which these initiatives are incubated. It is widely recognized that the faculty development activities of the Kansai Faculty Development Association retain the special characteristics of the mutual faculty development at all levels and that the concept is firmly rooted in the individual working groups.[7]

Besides the institutionalization of these networks, the Center supports those affiliates which seek direct support and sponsors lectures as well as provides consulting services. Regardless of the nature of the Center's activities, it is careful to respect the independence and local characteristics of each entity it supports, and to take into consideration its particular circumstances. The Center has made deliberate efforts on both the personal and organizational levels to collect, coordinate and disseminate the valuable information that each local entity gains from its practical experience and to provide a forum for its constituents to enhance their skills so as to provide substance to the ideal undergirding the mutual facutly development. That notwithstanding, it is tempting to question the degree of effectiveness that this ideology proposes to attain. Taken from the perspective of the current aggregate status of higher education, this ideology is one particular coordinated response to the technical rationality that has thoroughly permeated and overrun contemporary education. What is being questioned, then, is the degree of practicality that this new response is truly possesses.

4 Bureaucracy, Technical Rationality and the Ideal of the Mutual Faculty Development

The present status of higher education in Japan is characterized by a remarkable absence of uniformity and consistency, which makes it nigh impossible to address the topic en masse. More precisely, the incongruence among localities preempts the possibility of a single, simplistic investigation—even in cases where tweaking of research design might be assumed to accommodate such variation.

Proclamations supposing to explicate in simplified terms the condition of higher education most often fail to take into consideration the peculiarities at the local level and are therefore not reliable summations. Is it therefore unfeasible to speak comprehensively of the state of higher education in Japan? Actually not. There are a few aspects about which one can speak definitively. The bureaucratization and technical rationalization of higher education are two such aspects. University instructors are as a rule extremely busy, in large measure owing to the paperwork which attends various compulsory evaluations and external audits as well as to a preponderance of meetings and obligatory data collections. Such data-based reports and conferences are the forte of "bureaucratism," which in turn is the principle cause for the excessive business of educators and the bureaucratization of the university. Weber previously dubbed the separation of administration and research/teaching "the Americanization of the university."[8] I believe the contemporary differentiation of universities (i.e. *research* universities and *teaching* universities) has cemented the chasm between these two components and created a "second Americanization" of the university system here in Japan. This phenomenon, regardless of a particular college or university's unique orientation, has inexorably led to the self-categorization of its educators into one of the two previously mentioned specialties. In any event, the administration's logic is separate from both research and teaching and is quite unrelated to the realities on the ground, as it were. Nonetheless, it is the administrative rationality that ultimately determines the form and content of the student-instructor relationship. The result of the primacy of administrative rationality is bureaucratization of an over-emphasis on paperwork—all of which comprise the technical rationalization of modern education.

As alluded to above, the defining characteristic of "bureaucratism" is technical rationalization with its reports based upon a framework specifying purpose and methodology, which then quantitatively analyze the human and material inputs and outputs. These reports are imbued with the technical rationalization ethos as can be observed through the pervasive example of PDCA (Plan-Do-Check-Action). If the administration is hard-set on analyzing the behavior of instructors (both individually and as a group), there would normally first be the establishment of a general goal followed by an action plan and an appropriate curriculum, which would then be evaluated according to the degree of attainment

of stated goal and an end-of-program evaluation. If these various elements are properly identified, it then becomes feasible utilizing the PDCA cycle to coordinate them in some meaningfully concrete form and thereby promote an advanced level of improvement in the educational process regardless of particular institutional circumstances.

However, in the field of education, it is frequently the case that once specific goals have been set and implementation begun, something quite different to those original goals emerges. Such unpredictable "deviations,"[9] in the business of manufacturing, for example, while unfortunate, can be disposed of as rejects. It goes without saying that in the business of education, no such expedient exists. It might well be the case that the party involved is not simply responding mechanically but rather actively reflecting their subjective nature. As education is fundamentally about the process of forming an independent subject, unforeseen deviations, which are quite likely the active expression of individual subjectivity, cannot nor should be treated as inexpediencies easily disposed. On the contrary, such contingencies should be met with an attitude of respect for the subjectivity of the party involved. It is largely the adeptness of the educator's response to the action of the pupil that will determine the subjective teacher-student relationship which is based upon shared responsibility. What is required of the educator is a particular sensitivity to such subjective expressions, as unpredictable as they may be, in lieu of the expedient of ignoring or abstracting upon/dismissing them. The concept of the PDCA cycle unwittingly obviates the possibility of utilizing such "deviations" as opportunities to construct the organic teacher-student relationship mentioned above.

The PDCA cycle is, frankly speaking, a crude secondary abstraction of the complex, chaotic, organic and convoluted practical reality of education to which educators daily devote themselves. To finesse this practical reality into an abstraction is a dire misrepresentation of the actual situation. The technical rationalistic notion mistakenly takes this abstraction as reality and objectives the actual, organic reality, treating it as though it were a formulaic entity. The problem is that the PDCA cycle was formulated amidst the chaos of the various exigencies embedded in the day-to-day praxis and was never really able find its way out. Then, as extraneous and calcified modalities were introduced, it was inevitable that the essence of the teachers' union, whose members were committed to dealing with

the array of exigencies and were themselves highly motivated to adapt and to try to rewrite those exigencies into a more comprehensible and manageable reality, would ultimately be strangled.

The ideal of mutual faculty development was generated in an attempt to oppose the imposition of technical rationality and bureaucratism and to restore and secure the subjectivity of the educational process. There is, however, quite a compelling context undergirding this present predominance of technical rationality and bureaucratism. Given that, is it reasonable to presume that the alternative of mutual faculty development has any chance of survival? Closer to home, can the efforts of the Center, which work is based upon the mutual faculty development ideal, expect to effect substantive results in its attempt at reforming university education?

5 The Possibilities of the Mutual Faculty Development

The difficulty of ascertaining the true status of higher education in Japan has already been mentioned. Without an accurate comprehension of the true status, any hope of appraising reform measures is relegated to the realm of fantasy. This much is rather elementary. Generally speaking, the existing realities of education have embedded within certain impervious and opaque elements which cannot be addressed by external measures. Any effort to address this dark maze is rather like playing the lottery. The exigencies of university education in particular are remarkably complex and the opaqueness unfathomably entrenched. Against this backdrop, the Center's activities have in fact expanded quite dramatically, with new additions to its network, clarifications of its mission and significant increases in the outreaches and participants. Nonetheless, there remains that dark abyss, into which even we at the Center have not yet succeeded in mustering the necessary courage to leap. What sorts of preliminary commitments have been made in preparation for this leap (or gamble, as it were)? Speaking for myself only, my sense is that after all these years of working to effect change in higher education, very little, if any, significant change has been effected. Despite this, I cannot abandon my efforts for change—for aside from the constant public and governmental demands for reform, the students themselves, most importantly, deserve change. The theoretical framework for the Center's work is mutual faculty development, and the impetus behind the "mutuality" is a firm resistance to the objectifica-

tion of personhood which inheres in the technical rationalistic/ bureaucratic approach. It is also a rejection of the one-sidedness of the "specialist" oriented ruler-ruled paradigm.

First, the resistance to reification. As people are autonomous and independent within the context of interpersonal relations, the proper construction of an educational system would not be based on manipulation or on compartmentalization, but rather on the organic, holistic approach premised upon interpersonal relations in which the autonomy of each person is mutually recognized and appreciated.[10] The notion of mutuality refutes such splicing and objectification and attempts to reinstate the totality and integration of the human being. It is fundamentally opposed to relinquishing its integrity to the supposed superiority of so-called "specialists." Typically, these specialists' ideology is based upon technical rationality, which results in formulaic generalizations and the forfeiture of human personality. There is a strong tendency for such specialists to abstract upon and even completely overlook the very concrete context of the individual in his or her locality. Mutuality, or mutual training, rejects this critical shortcoming. Emphasizing neither the community nor the individual, Mutuality alone makes possible the preservation of respect each other's subjectivity and the particular circumstances which support that subjectivity.

All educators, without exception, are elements/ factors of the given educational conditions within which they practice (the immanent), and yet at the same time transcend these conditions through the power of self-reflection. The subjective basis which enables educational reform is found in the differentiation of this immanence and transcendence. It is precisely in this power of differentiation that praxis and self-reflection can simultaneously be undertaken. Experts who objectify education by atomizing only the transcendent component hamstring themselves through lack of access to the immanent component. Concurrently, the layman who has assumed responsibility for the transcendent component becomes hamstrung, thus creating an unhappy division between the two. In order to prevent this unhealthy dissonance, there must be a respect for "the expertise of the dilettante" who in one being accepts responsibility for both the immanence of praxis and the transcendence of theory. In other words, it is crucial that cooperation among peers be cultivated and preserved. This cooperation is a "cooperation based on complementary strengths (the solidarity of halves),"[11]

and is indeed the very essence of the mutual faculty development based on a bottom-up approach put into effect by a college of peers. "Cooperation based on complementary strengths" is the tenuous posture of the educator who acknowledges the internal dichotomy of immanence and transcendence. This posture is comprised of a bold ownership of the schizophrenic self in which half attacks and half protects. The ideal underpinning the mutual faculty development assumes that faculty development is only effective insofar as it is premised not upon an arrangement featuring an expert mentor and a novice mentee but rather upon the realization that all parties involved are part-expert, part-novice—what I call "the dilettante approach."

Incidentally, the faculty development movement unfolding in countries around the world today is overwhelmingly of the expert mentor/novice mentee ilk. Even at the Professional Development Center, the majority of programs are conducted not by practicing academics but by faculty development specialists. The fact that the majority of associated development centers throughout Japan are operated by practicing academics is a distinguishing factor for Japan. There is a movement afoot in a relatively small number of countries which, propelled by structurally triggered recession, is reverting from the specialist method back to the peer method. Unfortunately, this movement is still small and rather feeble, and here in Japan the Collegial Model looks to be irreversibly losing ground to the Specialist Model. This trend coincides with the larger trend of technical rationality and bureaucratic control throughout society. The question then becomes, is it realistic to hold out any expectation for the future of the mutual training ideal?

It is a mistake, however, to frame the two models in a mutually exclusive relationship. The bottom-up Collegial Model and the top-down Specialist Model each has its strength and weakness. For example, the Specialist Model offers uniformity and some degree of predictability but sacrifices mutual subjectivity. The Collegial Model secures mutual subjectivity in favor of predictability. Either one by itself is incomplete. What is needed is a healthy balance of the two models. The reason we at the Center are strenuously advocating mutuality is because of the lopsided nature of the present status which tilts decidedly in favor unilateral bureaucratic rationalism. Again, balance is our ultimate objective. By pitting the Collegial Model against the predominating Specialist Model, it is our hope to

bring attention to the imbalance and to counteract the ever intensifying trend. The key, I believe, is to awaken the latent power within the concerned parties and to help channel that energy in a productive, meaningful manner in order to achieve the desired balance.[12]

At first glance, the trend toward the Specialist Model and technical rationality, together with bureaucratic control, particularly at the university level, seems dauntingly powerful. Maintenance of the existing coalition of "Dilettantism" (cooperation of complementary strengths) is tenuous at best. This increasingly vexing effort to achieve balance shows little hope for success due to its subjugated status vis-à-vis the specialist model. Nonetheless, the trend toward total reliance upon specialists has not yet fully penetrated the entire realm. What is it that prevents this complete capitulation to specialization? Perhaps the answer lies with the dogged determination of university faculty to preserve their self-determination. And not just the faculty, but really just about everyone involved in the operation of the university exhibits a sense of unease regarding the prevalence of the Specialist Model, technical rationality and bureaucratic control. I observe this phenomenon firsthand in the course of my work. In this regard, it seems reasonable to place our hope in the moral compass and common sense of the university community's overwhelming majority.[13]

Notes

1 Regarding faculty development, refer to chapter five, "The Theory of Faculty Development," Tsunemi Tanaka, *Daigaku Kyouiku Gaku*, Edited by Kyoto University Research Center for Higher Education, Baifukan, 2003. For information regarding the use of the term faculty development in various foreign languages, refer to *Fakaruti Diberoppumento o Koete*, Edited by Tohoku University Center for the Promotion of Research in Higher Education, Tohoku University Press, 2009.

2 Regarding formal education in modernity, refer to "Kyouiku Kankei no Rekishiteki Seisei to Saikousei: Shisutemu to Sougosei," Tsunemi Tanaka, Edited by Morita Naoto, et al., *Kindai Kyoiku Shiso o Yominaosu*, Shin-yo-sha, 1999. For further reference regarding the institutionalization of the university in modernity, see article by Tsunemi Tanaka, Edited by Kyoto University Research Center for Higher Education, *Daigaku Jugyo Kenkyu no Koso: Kako kara Mirai e, Toshindo*, 2002 and "Daigaku no Gakkoka: Daigaku Kyoiku Kaikaku no Yukue to Kyoiku Riron," *Kyoikugaku Nenpo 9: Daigaku Kaikaku*, Seori Shobo, 2002.

3 In connection with the predominance of the lecture format among university faculty, there are two historical considerations that immediately come to mind. The first is the series of lectures given by Kitaro Nishida and Hajime Tanabe who were the core of the famed "Kyoto School" prior to the second world war. Many people attended these lectures, including registered students, alumni and fellow faculty; but it was not uncommon for both Nishida and Tanabe to get lost in their own philosophical musings. At times there would be long pauses as the two lecturers pondered and perhaps even groped for the right diction to intelligibly convey their thoughts and feelings. The capacity audience patiently endured these long periods of silence and hung with baited breath on every word they said. The lectures were overwhelmingly positively received. It is hard to imagine, however, that the lectures were conducted in an instructional, dialogical manner founded upon a sense of mutuality between the accomplished thinker and those still in the process of thought formation. The second is the 1997 book by Morikazu Ushiogi entitled *Kyoto Teikoku Daigaku no Chousen* (Kodansha Gakujutsu Bunko). This thrilling tome reveals how the Law Faculty at Kyoto Imperial University in the 1890s experimented with the German seminar model. However, compared to the lecture format and emphasis on rote memorization predominant at Tokyo Imperial University at the time, this ambitious effort at educational reform yielded extraordinarily poor results of the higher civil service examination and was therefore somewhat downgraded as a viable model.

4 Sato, Manabu, *Kyoiku Hoho Gaku*, Iwanami Shoten, 1996.

5 The staff of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching call the place where faculty can meet and exchange ideas in line with the policy of practicing transparency in education *The Commons*. Other sources on this topic include Pat Hutchings and Mary Taylor Huber, Building the Teaching Commons (http://www.carnegiefoundation.org/index.asp). The idea of building a community by utilizing a designated venue is true "scholarship." This argument is logically consistent but not widely recognized here in Japan. In order to thoroughly argue this point, it would be necessary to conduct a survey of the significance university educators put on their own particular definitions of "scholarship."

I believe the true impetus for the establishment of an faculty development association lies not in the notion of "scholarship" but rather in the fact that faculty belong to a body which can effectively correspond to the student body. This holds true on the inter-university level as well.

Incidentally, the idea of a "commons" was actually taken up here in Japan in the 1960s as arguments raged about how best to transition into a postmodern association. There is still a need to consider the concepts of community, association, mutuality and the like. For lack of space, the direction such discussions should take in the future was

only minimally introduced toward the end of this paper (and in endnote #10). If possible, I would like to expound on this topic at a later date.

6 For further information on public lectures hosted by the Center, see *Hirakareta Daigaku Jugyo o Mezashite: Kyoto Daigaku Kokai Jikken Jugyo no Ichinenkan*, Edited by the Center, Tamagawa University Press, 1997; *Daigaku Jugyo no Fiirudo Waaku: Kyoto Daigaku Kokai Jikken Jugyo*, Edited by the Center, Tamagawa University Press, 2001; *Daigaku Jugyo Kenkyu no Kousou: Kako Kara Mirai e*, Edited by the Center, Toshindo, 2002. Additional information can be obtained by accessing the Center website at http://www.highedu.kyoto-u.ac.jp/index_publication.html

7 The Kansai Faculty Development Association, which will be in its 4th year in 2011, is showing encouraging signs of organizational vitality. In the first place, the majority of related institutions in the Kansai district have organized. The Kansai district network which consists of 130 schools is the largest such network in Japan. Secondly, while other regional faculty development networks are entirely dependent upon government funding, the Kansai network's budget is supplemented by an annual membership fee of ¥20,000. As faculty development has become official government policy, it stands to reason that faculty development networks would seek government funding to implement this mandate. However, insofar as faculty development is an endeavor which organizations themselves ought to independently undertake as a matter of course, it also stands to reason that such organizations would aim to be self-governing and self-sustaining through internal funding. Not only that, the financial investment that members make helps ensure their sense of ownership in the project. As is well known, Freud, the founder of psychoanalysis, strictly forbade free evaluations. This rule continues today. Thirdly, this association's training methodology is consistently based upon the Mutual Training Model. The association's activities are broadly dispersed among five working groups, and all of those working groups take it upon themselves to coordinate and conduct mutual training seminars. Our mutual faculty development ideal is not confined to Kyoto University; it has spread to both the regional and national levels. Our theoretical interest as expressed in this paper regards the question of to what extent the theory of the mutual faculty development is consistent with that of the Carnegie theory and to what extent it is divergent.

8 Weber, M., Wissenschaft als Beruf: Gessammelte Aufsätze zur Wissenschafslehre. J.C.B. Mohl (2.Aufl.) 1951

9 Regarding "deviations," see Kaoru Ueda, *Zure ni Yoru Souzou—Ningen no Tame no Kyoiku* (Ueda, Kaoru Complete Works), Reimei Shobo, 1993. For further reading on Ueda's theory of "deviations" see Tsunemi Tanaka, "Kikigaki : Murai Minoru, Ueda Kaoru Kaikoroku o Yomu," (Kyoiku Tetsugakkai, *Kyoiku Tetsugaku Kenkyu*, No. 101, 2010. Regarding the significance of "deviations" in the context of univer-

sity education see Tsunemi Tanaka, "FD no Kougaku-teki Keieigaku-teki Moderu to Sono Seisei-sei no Kaifuku no Tame ni," *Daigaku Kyouiku Gakkai-shi*, Vol. 30, No. 1, 2008.

10 "Mutuality" is the term used by E. H. Erikson. I am not well versed in his writings, but have long been familiar with his theory of "mutuality." It is my impression that Erikson opts for the term "mutuality" in contexts which the term "love" would be difficult to use (potentially misconstrued). "Mutuality" is a dynamic term which reflects the Judaic nuance involved in the relationship of mutual becoming or mutual formation. This theory of mutuality is directly connected to Buber's *I and Thou* and Fromm's *Productiveness*. I have talked in multiple venues regarding this theory of mutuality. Two publications touching on this subject include Tsunemi Tanaka, *Rinsho-teki Ningen Keisei Ron e: Laifu Saikuru to Sougo Keisei*, Keiso Shobo, 2003; Tsunemi Tanaka, "Kyoiku Genjitsu no Kousei to Kyoiku Tetsugaku no Kousei," (Kyoiku Tetsugaku Gakkai, *Kyoiku Tetsugaku Kenkyu*, No. 101, 2010.

"Mutuality" has a closely related term, "reciprocity." This term is used as a key concept in regard to the Kula trade mentioned in Bronislaw Malinowski's *Nishitaiheiyo Enyo kokaisha (Argonauts of the Western Pacific)*, Edited & translated by Yasuichi Izumi, Chuokoron-sha, 1967. This term is translated in Japanese as "goshusei." It is fair to say that there is a strong sense of economic "give and take" implied in this term. It is important to make clear that the ideal undergirding the Mutual Training Model is indeed "mutuality" and not "reciprocity."

The relationship underpinning Mutual Training for educators is based upon mutual becoming/mutual formation and is not a matter of association based on autonomous individualism but rather on the complicated and complex web of mutuality. The totality of interpersonal relations is only fully reflected in mutuality. The Mutual Training relationship transcends the differentiation of subdivided responsibilities and relies for success entirely on the overarching factor of equally valued human beings in relationship. Precisely because that is the case, the mutuality component is bound to be intricate and quite tricky to navigate. Incidentally, Freud in his 1930 treatise Dissatisfaction with Culture speaks of a cultural community (eine Kulturgemeinschaft) comprised of mutually erotically fulfilled couples—a utopian idea which had not once previously been realized. (Das Unbehagen in der Kultur. In: S. Fischer (Ed.), *Sigmund Freud Gesammelte Werke. Bd. 14*, 1948, S. 467). From this expression, one should be impressed with an image of insurmountable distance between the two terms "mutuality" and "cultural community." To be sure, mutuality is critical of the various component-specific relationships of any given community. That is to say, this criticism assumes that the so-called community is not in fact of the nature of a true community. The "true community" is like the proverbial "pot of gold at the end of the rainbow,"

ever elusive. It is not worthy of consideration due to the true community in its original meaning. It is simply an excuse to evade the ideology of community.

More specifically, "the relationship of mutual becoming/formation" and "the education relationship" must be properly distinguished. Which is to say that the former is a symmetrical mutuality while the latter includes elements of asymmetrical mutuality. Langeveld (Langeveld, M. J., *Die Schule als Weg des Kindes*. Braunschuwieg, 1960) refers to "the dual nature of a child's existence"—that "being unto itself" (Bei-sich-sein) and "being through adults" (Bei-uns-sein). This seeks mutuality from the adult vis-à-vis the child who is "other" on the one hand, and on the other hand it seeks surrogate responsibility toward a dependent child. This unique education fosters responsibility in the child as well as builds symmetrical mutuality from asymmetrical mutuality. Accordingly, "the education relationship" morphs into "the relationship of mutual becoming/formation."

11 Regarding "the solidarity of halves," see chapter five, Tsunemi Tanaka, *Rinsho-teki Ningen Keisei Ron e: Laifu Saikuru to Sougo Keisei*, Keiso Shobo, 2003.

12 Ibid., chapters with following headings: "FD no Kogaku-teki Keieigaku-teki Moderu to Sono Seisei-sei no Kaifuku no Tame ni" and "Kyoiku Genjitsu no Kousei to Kyoiku Tetsugaku no Kousei."

13 This "hope" is the key concept of my book *An Essay on Clinically Shaping People: Lifecycle and Mutual Shaping* (in Japanese). In "The Real Structure of Education and the Structure of the Philosophy of Education" in my above-mentioned book, I discussed this in detail to some extent in relation to Fromm's "paradoxical hope" and "hope" at the end of Benjamin's *Affinities*. Fromm talks about how "it is the paradoxical hope to expect the Messiah every day, yet not to lose heart when he has not come at the predicted time. Comprehensive education that involves faculty development is not realized without the optimism that encouragement is not absurd. However, one of the limits of optimism, a universal theory on education, exacts endless effort from the student, for example blaming a lack of educational success on students by wrongly asserting that they have not exerted enough effort under the principle that anything is possible with a bit of hard work. For the destruction of this type of optimism, objective pessimism at the limit of education is an effective antidote. Messianic hope is optimism that reaches the limit, flips and rebounds – that is, it includes pessimism. As seen in the myth of Pandora and Benjamin's terminology, hope, essentially, has this sense of paradoxical hope. At the root of our argument is this meaning of hope.

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Chapter 2

Building the Teaching Commons in Higher Education

Mary Taylor Huber

Long a quiet backwater, college and university pedagogy today is changing at a rapid pace. In many countries, teaching and learning have moved to the forefront of debates about the future of higher education, while a growing number of faculty, faced with an increasingly diverse student population, new communication technologies, and changing educational priorities, are discovering the power that comes with treating teaching as challenging, intellectual work. This essay examines the scholarship of teaching and learning, an approach that has already begun to guide pedagogical innovation and contribute to the emergence of a teaching commons, a public space where knowledge about teaching and learning is widely shared (Huber and Hutchings, 2005). I look at the important role of disciplinary communities in advancing this work, discuss the trading zones where people from different fields come together to exchange pedagogical ideas and information, and suggest ways in which the higher education community might help transform these transitional trading zones into a permanent teaching commons that becomes an important part of how faculty think and practice as teachers.

1 Building the Teaching Commons in Higher Education

Higher education has been, until recently, a somewhat sleepy place in regard to pedagogical innovation. Professors have cared deeply about their students; they have conscientiously prepared for their lectures, labs, and seminars; and they have participated earnestly in conversations about the curriculum in their department or institution. For most faculty members, however, *pedagogy* has simply not been a topic of interest, much less intellectual discussion and debate. With a few exceptions, doctoral programs paid it little attention, and disciplinary and professional societies gave it little conference time or publication space.

And then, something interesting happened. Today, in higher education circles, there is evidence of interest in teaching and learning everywhere—in Eu-

rope, in the Americas, in the Pacific, and in Asia, including—of course—the path breaking conference on The Future of Faculty Development in Japan at Kyoto University, where this essay was presented as a keynote address in January 2009. Indeed, opportunities like this to meet new colleagues in locations around the world are one of the great pleasures of becoming involved in an emerging field like the scholarship of teaching and learning—and it was particularly exciting to be in the Kyoto in the year of the 1000th anniversary of *The Tale of Genji*.

Indeed, university teaching is almost as old—if one accepts the conventional l1th century founding date for the University of Bologna as the start of our now-global enterprise. Of course, there have been profound changes in university teaching over this near-millennium, including those connected with the invention of the printing press, the emergence of the modern sciences, and most recently, mass higher education. But I am among those who are impressed by the particularly fast pace of change today, and especially by the growing importance of *teaching and learning* in high profile debates about the future of higher education.

In the United States, for example, the National Commission on the Future of Higher Education (2006) has asked tough questions about why so little public information is available on the learning outcomes of students who graduate from our colleges and universities, while the book *Our Underachieving Colleges* by Harvard University's former president Derek Bok (2006) points out that colleges and universities have so far developed very few ways of knowing how well their students are doing. The Committee's hearings and reports were provocative, because they seemed to suggest that higher education might in fact be declining in quality. But Bok saw things differently. The real problem, he maintained, concerns "unfulfilled promises and unrealized opportunities" (2006, p. 57). What data exist suggest that students are not learning as much as they could, and, given the growing complexity of the world they will be living in, they should be learning more.

The physicist Carl Wieman, who won both the Nobel Prize in Physics (2001) and the US Professors of the Year undergraduate teaching award (2004), explained what this means in science fields.

"The purpose of science education is no longer simply to train that tiny fraction of the population who will become the next generation of scientists. We

need a more scientifically literate populace to address the global challenges that humanity now faces and that only science can explain and possibly mitigate, such as global warming, as well as to make wise decisions, informed by scientific understanding, about issues such as genetic modification. Moreover, the modern economy is largely based on science and technology, and for that economy to thrive and for individuals within it to be successful, we need technically literate citizens with complex problem-solving skills. In short, we now need to make science education effective and relevant for a large and necessarily more diverse fraction of the population" (Wieman, 2007, p.9).

No doubt eloquent and distinguished educators have made (or could make) similar cases for the full-range of university-level subjects and skills. But the questions the Secretary's Commission, Bok and Wieman raise are not just how much students are learning, or what students need to learn, but also how to help them achieve these goals. And once you start asking that question, the question of teaching moves center-stage. Indeed, Bok sees hope in the still small but growing number of faculty who are engaging in the kinds of classroom inquiry and innovation that can shed light on these questions about student learning (2006, pp. 342-343). And Wieman, too, has entered the ranks of physics faculty who are approaching "the teaching of science like a science. This means applying to science teaching the essential components of scientific research," including "practices and conclusions based on objective data," "disseminating results in a scholarly manner and copying and building upon what works" (2007, p. 10).

In this essay, I will examine more closely this new approach to pedagogy—the scholarship of teaching and learning, arguably one of the most important recent developments in college and university teaching in recent years. I will talk first about how this work is guiding pedagogical innovation and contributing to the emergence of a teaching commons in higher education, a public space where knowledge about teaching and learning is widely shared (Huber and Hutchings, 2005). I will then look at the role of disciplinary communities in the scholarship of teaching and learning, and the trading zones where people from different fields come together to exchange pedagogical ideas and information. And finally, I will suggest what we might do to transform these often opportunistic and transitional trading zones into a robust, permanent teaching commons that becomes part of how faculty think and practice as teachers.

2 The Growth of The Scholarship of Teaching and Learning

This is a particularly interesting time to be a university teacher. Students are more diverse in all the ways that count in the classroom; new technologies are making inroads in all realms of life, not least education; there are new pedagogies that invite experimentation, from undergraduate research to service learning; new research on learning; new educational priorities (like those Carl Wieman mentioned); and changes in the disciplines themselves. It would be hard to find faculty members just about anywhere whose teaching was not affected by one or more of these developments—and in some cases, people are taking up new approaches to teaching that are starting to make a difference not only in their own classrooms, but also beyond.

Consider Dennis Jacobs, a chemist at Notre Dame University. Until 1997, Jacobs taught organic chemistry in a conscientious but conventional way. Writing about his experience, Jacobs noted that things changed when he "began teaching a large general chemistry course with nearly 1000 students divided in four lecture sections. It was a traditional introductory science course, but…it became a concern when [his] office hours for the course were dominated by students who were struggling" (Jacobs, 2000, p. 41). Poorly prepared in high school, they stumbled on exams that required real problem solving. And, after getting low marks on one or two exams, these students would withdraw from the course. This scene is familiar across the US, where introductory science and math are well known for high rates of attrition (Seymour and Hewitt, 1997; Seymour, 2001).

But Jacobs is one of a growing number of science professors who feels responsible—not for screening out those who are having trouble—but for helping them to succeed. He understands that introductory chemistry is a gateway to a number of careers, and that for many students dropping out of "101" means dropping a dream of being a scientist, an engineer, or a doctor. So instead of just writing off the ones who are struggling as "too dumb" for science (Tobias, 1990), Jacobs put his head to the problem.

Perhaps a few years earlier, he would have just polished his lectures or sought counsel from a colleague down the hall. But not now. Instead, he consulted a growing body of literature about chemistry and physics education; he got help from Notre Dame's teaching and learning center and its office for institutional research; he got ideas and support from an interdisciplinary collection

of colleagues through the Carnegie Academy for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (CASTL), a national fellowship program that, over about 10 years, supported Jacobs and about 150 other "Carnegie Scholars."

Thus informed and inspired, Jacobs created an alternative learning environment for at-risk students, where lectures are interspersed with opportunities for students to work together on challenging problems, defend their ideas, and articulate their understandings. His array of assessments showed that the alternative approach significantly improved retention and achievement in subsequent chemistry courses (Jacobs, 2001; Cox, 2001), and even convinced his colleagues at Notre Dame to adopt a similar model in other science courses.

In fact, in every discipline, you can now find faculty members who are looking closely and critically at familiar routines of teaching in their field, including a growing number like Dennis Jacobs, who are finding that their classrooms pose interesting and consequential questions about learning that invite inquiry and investigation, who are documenting their efforts and sharing the results, and in the process, contributing to the improvement of teaching and learning in their own and their colleagues classrooms. They are, in the words of Lee Shulman, making teaching "public, susceptible to critical review and evaluation, and accessible for exchange and use by other members of [their] scholarly communities" (1998, p. 5).

In so doing, they are also—as Dennis Jacobs' case illustrates—venturing into and helping to create a new space for pedagogical exchange and collaboration that Pat Hutchings and I have called the *teaching commons*, a space in which "communities of educators committed to pedagogical inquiry and innovation come together to exchange ideas about teaching and learning and use them to meet the challenges of educating students for personal, professional, and civic life" (Huber and Hutchings, 2005, p. x).

The idea of a "commons" can be found in a wide range of settings and histories. Indeed, if you Google the word, you'll find many instructive (and sometimes amusing) meanings, from lunch rooms, to venerable institutions like The House of Commons, to Wikimedia Commons, the image and sound-file sharing component of *Wikipedia*—an information commons of the most contemporary kind. But perhaps most paradigmatically, the Commons refers to the open fields that villagers in England maintained for common use in growing crops, graz-

ing, and gathering firewood until the enclosure movement, beginning in the late 1400s and continuing on through the industrial revolution (See Bollier, 2001, pp. 27–28).

We still have many kinds of public assets—parks and greenbelts, natural resources, airwaves, the Internet—that are held for common use. This is their huge benefit—but to maintain that benefit, there are collective responsibilities as well (Ostrom, 1990; Bollier, 2001). Indeed, anyone who has ever visited a national park knows that these resources are not unclaimed. As political scientists have pointed out, they are held in common by particular communities, which organize social cooperation in particular ways and develop their own practices regularizing access and use (See Palumbo and Scott, 2005; Ostrom, 2005). We will return to these critical community responsibilities later on.

Certainly, many kinds of commons can provide useful analogies for the teaching commons, but the one I find most helpful is the commons created by and for sharing scientific and scholarly work in the academic disciplines and professions (Hess and Ostrom, 2006). Originating in the early years of the scientific revolution, this tradition of open exchange is "at the heart of academe" (Bollier, 2003, p.4), essential to the advancement of knowledge and its uses for social improvement. It's one all academics know and care a great deal about, and the propositions I want to explore with you today are that a *teaching commons*, too, is now within our reach, and that there is a lot that those of us in higher education could—and should—be doing to make it grow and thrive.

3 Disciplinary Communities and Trading Zones

To get a sense of this new teaching commons and its structure, it is helpful to recall some of the pedagogical communities that Dennis Jacobs tapped into when he began his efforts to transform General Chemistry 101. Jacobs began in the chemistry education community and the relatively compatible physics education community. He consulted with colleagues in his cohort in the CASTL fellowship program, who put him in touch with psychologists and literary scholars; he consulted with the people at his campus teaching center, and through them found other literature on active learning informed by education research. Through his associate provost, he was also able to get relevant data about a large population of students from his campus's office of institutional research (Jacobs, 2000,

p.45).

This is interesting, because each one of these groups has its own history and internal divisions, and because these communities and sub-communities have not always enjoyed as much interchange as they might have wanted or should have had. While each has something to contribute to the Commons, the most important development in the past ten to fifteen years has been the intensification of interest in teaching and learning by regular faculty members and their crucial role in linking these communities together. This makes sense. As John Seeley Brown and Paul Duguid argue in their important book, *The Social Life of Information* (2002), "information" and the "individuals" who produce and use it, "are inevitably and always part of rich social networks" (p. ix)—and these networks are central to understanding how knowledge circulates, and why it sometimes travels and sometimes does not.

So let us look a little more closely at the kinds of communities that inform the pedagogical imagination of scholars of teaching and learning. I will focus on the disciplines first because that is where most professors are coming from when they start to think seriously about teaching and learning, and it is where many of their best aspirations for students lie. Chemists, economists, and historians may all agree that they want to foster "deep understanding" in their college classrooms, but what they mean by "deep understanding" is different, and so too are the ways they're likely to go about the scholarship of teaching and learning itself (Huber and Morreale, 2002; Donald, 2002; Riordan and Roth, 2005; Gurung, Chick, and Haynie, 2008).

In fact, each discipline has its own intellectual history of agreement and dispute about subject matter and methods that influence what is taught, to whom, when, where, how, and why. Each has a set of widely used, often signature, pedagogies, such as lab instruction and problem sets in the sciences, seminars in the humanities, design projects in engineering, and small group performances in introductory theater classes. Most important to emphasize here, each discipline also has its own community of scholars interested in teaching and learning, often with one or more journals, associations, and face-to-face forums for pedagogical exchange (Huber and Morreale, 2002).

For obvious reasons, these communities—for example, the chemical education community, and the physics education community, whose work Jacobs

consulted, tend to address field-specific issues and try their best to speak in a language their own disciplinary colleagues understand. This language, which I call a disciplinary style (Huber, 2000), involves at its core, what University of Chicago biologist and educator Joseph Schwab elegantly distinguished as substantive and syntactic structures: the conceptions that guide inquiry and the pathways of enquiry scholars use, what they mean by verified knowledge and how they go about this verification" (1954, pp. 24, 21). To put it more plainly, one's discipline's style influences the particular pedagogical problems faculty choose, the methods of inquiry they use, and the arguments they find persuasive.

For Jacobs, as we have seen, the problem of students doing poorly in an introductory class is common in the sciences; the solutions he tried had been developed by other science educators to respond to that problem; his study design was quasi-experimental, comparing the performance of at-risk students in the regular and alternative classes; and his argument was persuasive to colleagues because he could show them the numbers (see Jacobs, 2000, 2001).

For contrast, consider the work of Mariolina Salvatori, an English professor at the University of Pittsburgh. Salvatori's projects have focused on the "role of difficulty in the learning process"(Salvatori, 2000, p. 81) because both her experience as a student and a teacher, and her theoretical commitments in reader-response theory and hermeneutics have taught her that "'moments of difficulty' often contain the seeds of understanding" (Salvatori, 2000, p. 81). What a student might identify as a difficulty in reading a poem—say a change in tone from beginning to end—may actually be a sign of understanding, which the teacher can help students to see.

Thus, Salvatori began regularly asking students to write "difficulty papers," as a way of recognizing their problems with a text and developing strategies to get beyond them. As a scholar of teaching and learning (and a CASTL fellow), she examined the effectiveness of this pedagogy by using the methods of her own field: doing close readings of her students' work and looking for signs that indicate movement toward more complicated forms of thinking. Her CASTL fellowship colleagues in sociology wondered whether her success with the difficulty paper was too personal or discipline-based to travel. To find out, she encouraged colleagues in other humanities fields to adapt the assignment to their own disciplinary and institutional contexts, but her primary interest lay less in whether the

assignment itself could travel, than in articulating a *theory* of learning through difficulty. Indeed, she has collaborated with a colleague to coauthor a book presenting that theory to students as well as teachers, *The Elements (and Pleasures) of Difficulty*, published by the Modern Language Association (Salvatori and Donahue, 2004). Clearly, Salvatori's problems, solutions, methods, and arguments were very different than those of Dennis Jacobs—as were the communities from which she drew her intellectual inspiration.

Disciplinary styles empower inquiry into student learning not only by focusing attention on certain kinds of problems, but also by giving practitioners a ready-made way to imagine projects and present their work—for example, metaphors such as: the classroom as laboratory, as text, as a field site, or even as theater—point people to different methods of inquiry, frameworks of interpretation, and analytical strategies. For all these reasons, it is easier for pedagogical ideas to circulate *within* these disciplinary traditions of teaching than beyond (Stigler and Thompson, 2009, pp. 4–5).

Unfortunately, however, disciplinary communities have not always been particularly hospitable towards pedagogical conversation. To be sure, both the quantity and quality of pedagogical discussion appear to have increased in most disciplines in recent years. But it is not always an easy leap. For many faculty members, student learning is still a new topic of inquiry, and the classroom is not a site that lends itself readily to the conceptual and methodological underpinnings of mainstream scholarship in their fields. So, while it is true that the disciplines provide powerful networks through which special resources and distinctive models of inquiry can flow, it's also clear that no discipline has all the answers or even all the questions, and there is much to be gained beyond the borders of the disciplinary imagination in what, following historian of science Peter Galison (1997, p.46), I call "trading zones" (Huber and Morreale, 2002; Mills and Huber, 2005).

Galison uses the notion to describe the way in which different communities of physicists interact in high energy physics labs: the 'extraordinary diversity of scientific cultures that participate in the production of data," and "the complex dynamics by which common cause is made between and among them" (Galison, 1997, p.781). Across the history of the discipline, Galison shows how the different traditions of 'theorizing, experimenting, and instrument-making and engi-

neering meet—even transform each other" without losing their "separate identities and practices" (p. 782). He suggests that even "without global agreement," the trading partners can "hammer out" a local code or "pidgin" in this trading zone (p. 46–47). And he goes on to suggest that even if full-blown translations between the different sub-cultures of physics and their languages are not possible, the "coordination of action" is (p.783).

When it comes to pedagogy, academics have seldom collaborated in the kinds of large-scale enterprise that require the level of co-ordination that Galison describes. But there are signs of increasing openness to exchange in a variety of forums and projects where cross-disciplinary groups of people interested in teaching and learning meet and greet.

In some cases, exchange is motivated by a recognition of complementary strengths: for instance, one leader in the CASTL campus program cites chemists at his college, who are learning from colleagues in Spanish about rubrics, "a subject on which many language faculty have considerable expertise."[1] Sometimes commonality attracts: a recent collection of essays on *Citizenship Across the Curriculum* features an exchange of ideas about how to teach for civic learning among professors of history, political science, communication, chemistry, mathematics, and literature (Smith, Nowacek, and Bernstein, in press). There are concepts from education and the learning sciences that faculty across the disciplines find useful to explore: Dennis Jacobs was inspired by Wiggins and McTighe's "backward design," (1998, p.7) for example, and many scholars of teaching and learning in the field of history have built on cognitive psychologist Sam Wineberg's explorations of historical expertise (Pace, 2004; Diaz, Middendorf, Pace, and Shopkow, 2008; Wineberg, 2001). More specific pedagogical techniques travel in these zones too. Eric Mazur's "concept questions," for example, appeal beyond the physical sciences: indeed, I've worked with a group of economists to explore the usefulness of such questions—and other techniques that physicists have tried out—in economics classrooms, too (Simkins and Maier, 2008).

Of course, when exchange between more distant disciplines takes place, some less than straightforward translation processes are likely to get involved. Sam Wineberg, the cognitive psychologist, presents his work differently for the historians than for his own colleagues—through narrative argument, not heavy statistics (Calder, Cutler, and Kelly, 2002; Wineberg, 1991; 1992). And I know of

mathematicians in our CASTL group who became intrigued by Salvatori's focus on the role of difficulty in the learning process—but not the hermeneutics that inspired her, connecting "difficulty" instead with work more familiar to them on misconceptions and error patterns in student's scientific and mathematical understanding.

Indeed, it is the case more generally that people who domesticate ideas obtained from "far away" do not always take with them the nuances with which they were endowed by their creators. Anthropologists who have studied the global movement of commodities point out that to understand how these things travel, one must consider not only the knowledge necessary for a particular commodity's production, but the knowledge that goes into its consumption as well. When social distance between producers and consumers is great, traders (and a host of other intermediaries) have historically acted as bridges along which commodities and the knowledge and desire to use them can flow (Appadurai, 1988). A huge literature on the travel of things and ideas—fashion to food, medicine to movies, and cricket to Christianity—charts the complicated paths these innovations take en route to new communities around the world (See Huber, 2009).

Higher education increasingly enjoys the services of intermediaries in the pedagogical trade. Teaching and learning centers, in particular, have been playing crucial roles as brokers, helping faculty find resources and support for innovation, building networks, and encouraging both supply *and* demand for sophisticated, in-depth, local knowledge of what's happening, what's promising, and what's possible in classrooms and programs across particular college and university settings. Initiatives organized by other leaders both on and off campus (for instance, the various science education programs funded by the National Science Foundation, CASTL's national fellowship program, or the Association of American Colleges and Universities' initiative on Liberal Education and America's Promise) have also played this mediating role. But the point is that right now, these trading zones do not just happen by themselves. They require center staff and other "community organizers" to bring faculty together around pedagogy, curricula, assessment and other consequential educational problems.

4 Building the Teaching Commons

What will it take to make these often transitory trading zones into a genuine

commons, one that scholars treat as an integral part of their ways of being teachers in higher education? As John Seeley Brown and Paul Duguid argue, the place to look is not to information itself, but to *practice*. "Become a member of a community," they argue, "engage in its practices, and you can acquire and make use of its knowledge and information" (Brown and Duguid, 2000, p. 126).

How do we expand the circle of practitioners in the scholarship of teaching and learning, and enrich the social life of our classroom inquiries and innovations? I'd like to suggest that we consider the possibilities of what Alison Phipps and Ronald Barnett call "academic hospitality" (2007). In particular, building the commons will require all three of the kinds of hospitality these authors identify: "celebratory," relating to the welcoming of academic guests; "communicative," relating to the channels through which concepts move within and between academic fields and cultures; and "critical," relating to questions about quality, standards, and the like.

The first challenge is to keep the commons open, vital and attractive.[2] We will need to take a "big tent" view of the enterprise to welcome to faculty from a full range of fields and disciplines, who want—even if only occasionally and in modest ways, to contribute to pedagogical inquiry and discussion. This means more and better occasions on campus to talk about learning, informal working groups of faculty experimenting with particular pedagogies, time for departmental conversations about critical learning issues, and institution-wide seminars about important educational questions. It means involving students in most, if not all, of these discussions, so that faculty can learn from their perspectives, but also to help students get smarter about their own learning, and to welcome them into the larger network we hope to build (See Werder and Otis, 2009). Beyond the campus, we need a richer associational life around teaching. Our scholarly societies are already giving more air- and column-space to teaching and learning—and they should be encouraged to do more. In all these forums, teachers get a chance to articulate educational issues, build mutual trust and respect among themselves as educators, and hammer out a common language for the enterprise.

And this brings me to the communicational challenges we face in building this field. In particular, we need to pay attention to how educational work gets "out there," and how it can best be organized to encourage greater use. It is important to publish articles or books when appropriate, but going public doesn't

have to mean publication. There are also conference and poster sessions, and new forms and formats that can better capture the details of classroom practice, like electronic course portfolios and other multimedia representations of teaching that can be shared, critiqued and built upon. We will need to develop habits of citation so that contributors get proper credit, and (of course) we will need a great deal of help from our librarians and information technology colleagues in mapping and managing our collective work in ways that enable faculty to find what they need. Fortunately, some very talented people are at work on this already, experimenting with ways of searching and reviewing an array of electronic teaching and learning resources (See Iiyoshi and Kumar, 2008).

Finally, we will need to revisit our standards if learning from and contributing to the commons is to become part of what it means to be a teacher in higher education today. We will have to recognize that faculty need resources of time and money for the scholarship of teaching and learning, a strong campus infrastructure to support the work, and better preparation for pedagogical scholarship as a component of graduate training. We need to gain experience in the peer review of teaching, and be sure that institutional rewards are properly aligned.

Clearly certain kinds of pedagogical scholarship should be recognized as bona fide "research," but we also need to improve the way in which teaching itself is documented and assessed. Indeed, interesting experiments that might raise institutional expectations for teaching are now underway. For instance, the faculty at Notre Dame, under the leadership of Dennis Jacobs (now vice president and associate provost), are implementing new guidelines for the assessment of teaching to inform tenure and promotion decisions. Rather than base the teaching component of these high-stakes decisions predominantly on student course ratings, Notre Dame now requires in-depth documentation of selected courses over a three-year period, which departmental committees of peers would look at for course design, implementation, and evaluation of student work (University of Notre Dame, 2007). We should all be watching Notre Dame's experiment, because if this works, just think how it could raise the level of knowledge within a department about how students are doing, enrich pedagogical discourse on campus, and help move classroom innovation from the craft mode, in which most teachers in higher education still teach, to the more scholarly mode illustrated by Dennis Jacobs himself.

The challenges of community-building, field-building, and quality mentioned here all point to the need for higher education to see the teaching commons as territory worth tending—as work in which all involved have a collective stake and to which all must cooperatively contribute. If we are to enrich and preserve space for educational experimentation in a period that seems headed for increasingly bottom-line forms of accountability, we will have to work on multiple levels and take advantage of a kind of chicken-and-egg dynamic. The fact of a larger commons where a diverse (even international) community of scholars assembles to trade and build on one another's pedagogical work is a condition for serious work on campuses, which often take their signals about what is important from developments beyond their local borders. Conversely, the development and use of the larger commons will depend on what happens on campuses, in the day-by-day life of faculty as they work with students and colleagues.

It is only by action at these multiple levels, that we'll be able to widen the circulation of pedagogical knowledge, deepen it through debate and critique, and thus better inform the kinds of instructional innovation so important to teachers—and students—in higher education today.

In fact, it's thanks to people like Dennis Jacobs, Mariolina Salvatori, their large network of fellow scholars of teaching and learning, and to reflective teachers everywhere that a robust teaching commons in which the scholarship of teaching and learning can help pedagogical ideas to travel farther and wider is starting, at long last, to take shape.

Notes

1 The 2009 CASTL Survey, "Describing the Impact of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning at Institutional Leadership Campuses," was distributed by e-mail in January 2009 to representatives from the 103 institutions participating in the CASTL Institutional Leadership Program. Its results are described in Ciccone, Huber, Hutchings, and Cambridge (2009).

2 This section draws on the "action agenda" that Pat Hutchings and I outlined in *The Advancement of Learning* (See Huber and Hutchings, 2005, pp. 118-131).

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Part II

BUILDING FACULTY DEVELOPMENT NETWORKS

Chapter 3

Principles and Methods of Building Faculty Development Networks: Mutual Faculty Development and the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning

Kayo Matsushita

The Center for the Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education at Kyoto University (hereafter referred to as "the Center") has been building an faculty development network with its base in the Center since 2008.[1] The Center, ever since its predecessor (the Research Center for Higher Education) was established in 1994, has continuously operated on the principle of *mutual faculty development*. Mutual faculty development is a version of faculty development where teaching staff and organizations in their own contexts seek to mutually influence each other and work collaboratively as an educational organization (see Chapter 1). The scope of mutual faculty development was initially limited to the mutuality between individual teachers, but now that it has expanded to the mutuality between organizations, faculty development networks are being built at institutional level as well as regional, national, and international level.

In setting up these faculty development networks a major inspiration for us was the principles advocated by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (hereafter abbreviated to "the Carnegie Foundation"), the scholarship of teaching and learning (SOTL), and the many activities carried out based on those principles. The scholarship of teaching and learning is an act for advancing teaching and learning through scholarly inquiry into those subjects, and the knowledge gained as a result. This was born out of the intention of broadening the notion of being "scholarly" from research alone, to also include teaching, and to give equal weight to teaching and research. At present the scholarship of teaching and learning is showing signs of international expansion as a principle supporting advancement of teaching at universities and colleges.

In May 2008, we visited the Carnegie Foundation as well as one representative campus of the scholarship of teaching and learning, Indiana University, Bloomington (IUB), and started an exchange with the scholarship of teaching and learning related staff members (Matsushita, 2009a). In January 2009, an international symposium entitled "Building the Core in Faculty Development: The Future of Faculty Development in Japan" was held, which became the basis for this book. Later, an international panel entitled "Mutual FD Meets SOTL: Redefining Faculty Development and Building Faculty Networks" was organized at The International Society for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (ISSOTL) conference in October 2009 at IUB.[2] Through these collaborative works, the commonalities and differences between the mutual faculty development and the scholarship of teaching and learning became progressively clearer.

The goal of this chapter is to illustrate the principles and methods of building faculty development networks that we are currently engaged in, through case studies and comparisons with the scholarship of teaching and learning.

We start this chapter with an overview of the background to faculty development network building and its context. Then we discuss the principles of mutual faculty development as conducted by the Center, and the internal components of a faculty development network, together with an examination of case studies. Finally we demonstrate the characteristics of network building based on the mutual faculty development through comparisons with the scholarship of teaching and learning.

1 Background and Context to the Idea of Faculty Development Networks

Higher Education Policy

Currently in Japan, there are many faculty development networks in existence.[3] Most of them were built after we began to organize faculty development networks in earnest around 2008. Why are faculty development networks necessary at this point in time?

In Japan, like in other developed countries, universities went through a stage of universal access in the first years of the twenty-first century. While academic abilities and aspirations of university entrants declined and became more diverse,

graduates were required to demonstrate much more clearly defined skills than ever before as a result of the "globalized knowledge-based society" (for example, *Shushokukisonoryoku* [Employability] by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *Shakaijinkisoryoku* [Social Basic Capabilities] by the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry, and *Gakushiryoku* [Graduate Skills] by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology) (Matsushita, 2010). The requirement to fill in the gap between student skill levels at the time of entrance to university and graduation means universities and university teachers are faced with more demanding duties than ever before. The mandatory implementation of faculty development from 2008 is a direct manifestation of this trend.

So how do we implement faculty development in practice? In July 2007, the amended Standards for Establishment of Universities stated that "A university shall conduct organized training and research for improving the contents and methodology used to give classes at said university" (Article 25–3). Here, each university bears the obligation to implement faculty development. However, because of the decline in the 18-year-old population, many small to medium-sized private universities are currently on the verge of a financial collapse,[4] so many universities do not have sufficient resources to carry out faculty development. There are also cases where although similar efforts have been made, mutual exchange of knowledge and experience is poor because those efforts are made within the boundary of individual teachers, faculties and universities. It was under such circumstances that the idea of faculty development network was put into practice. In other words, the idea that university teaching staff should transcend the boundaries of the organizations they belong to, mutually examine teaching practice of each other, share resources and create a place where greater improvements can happen.

National educational policy is also providing impetus for building faculty development networks. Two reports released by the Central Council for Education in 2008, "Basic Plan for the Promotion of Education" and "Towards the Enhancement of Undergraduate Education," both insisted that in order to assure the quality of university education, not only "competition" between universities, but also "collaboration and cooperation" are necessary. In 2009 the newly established "Core Center for Education-Related Joint-Use" system clarified the goals of shared usage of resources.

While some changes in direction might have occurred from the 1998 University Council Report "Universities that Shine with Individual Brilliance in a Competitive Environment," it is clearly not the case that competition has diminished. Competition to acquire governmental grants has intensified, and even programs that proclaim the values of collaboration and cooperation are not necessarily exceptions. The phrase that embodies the change over the last 10 years would thus not be "from competition to collaboration and cooperation," but more likely "co-existence between competition and collaboration/cooperation" or "collaboration and cooperation embedded in competition."

In this way, it is sure that the major impetus behind the current situation, where many faculty development networks are being built, has been the governmental support.

Attention to Intermediate Area

This shift in educational policy is a uniquely Japanese cause of faculty development networks. Nevertheless, the creation of number of networks related to university education can be observed even overseas (Tohoku University Center for the Advancement of Higher Education, 2009). So this trend of network building can be placed in a much larger context.

As such a context it is possible to pay attention to networks, as well as communities, commons and social capital. Such increased attention was symbolized by the fact that Elinor Ostrom, a political economist on the faculty of Indiana University, was awarded the 2009 Nobel Memorial Prize in Economic Sciences. Her research revealed that common pool resources called "commons" (water resources, fisheries, pastures, etc.) should not be entrusted to a government or market, but instead they can be independently managed by regional communities. Ostrom's notion of commons is one of the sources for the concept of teaching commons in Huber and Hutchings (2005; see Chapter 2 of this book).

In cognitive science, Lave and Wenger (1991) and Wenger, McDermott and Snyder (2002) theorized that a community of practice fulfills an important role in the transmission, sharing and creation of practical knowledge. Communities of practice are "groups of people who share a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis" (Wenger et al., 2002, p. 4). The concept

of communities of practice has had a large impact in such fields as knowledge management and organizational learning, and this has also exerted an influence on higher education. Brown and Duguid (2000) wrote, "Become a member of a community, engage in its practices, and you can acquire and make use of its knowledge and information" (p. 126).

Hiroi (2009) regards a community as an intermediate group between the individual and society. According to his view, it is in the *dual presence* of internal relationships (homogeneous relations within a group) and external relationships (heterogeneous relations with members of other groups) that the essence of a community exists. His vision is that in an era where the expansion of the marketplace economy and the development of capitalism have entered a stationary phase, this market saturation, together with large developments in an area beyond the marketplace economy, mean that the creation of "a new community" (relationship between individuals which is open to the outside world) will become the central challenge for society. Hiroi's internal and external relationships correspond to two types of social network, called bonding and bridging, respectively, and can be described as a theory of community that incorporates the theory of social networks (Nozawa, 2006). This also includes the theory of social capital (Miyakawa & Omori, 2004; Putnam, 2000) which illuminates the way trust, norms and networks existing within social organizations function as capital.

There is probably no need to point out that this kind of modern networked community owes a great deal to information and communication technology. Of developments in that field, the Creative Commons (Lessig, 2002) project is of great interest both as an idea and a practice. Copyright is the main restriction on sharing resources on the internet. In response, Creative Commons occupies an intermediate area between the extremes of "all rights reserved" and "no rights reserved." By establishing a license that says "some rights reserved," Creative Commons makes it possible for creative work to be shared or re-used on the internet without requiring complex procedures such as verification, negotiation and contracts. In the field of higher education the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) has made its OpenCourseWare (OCW) available online under this kind of license, and the Carnegie Foundation was already engaged in sharing a variety of educational resources, such as snapshots of educational practice, using the KEEP Toolkit developed by its Knowledge Media Laboratory. Creative

Commons is even used in the faculty development support system Mutual Online System for Teaching and Learning (MOST) that the Center provides online (see Chapter 6).

The outline of the situation above provides a good insight into why concepts like networks, communities, commons, social capital, and so on, are being advocated as an intermediate area that bridges the following divides:

Government —— Market
Public —— Private
Society —— Individual

It goes without saying that there are discrepancies between these concepts. Community is a part of networks; commons are both the resources shared by communities and networks, and the space for them to exchange those resources; social capital recasts relationships between people from a viewpoint of capital. However, here it is more important to focus on the commonalities rather than differences in search of an intermediate area.

Redefinition of Faculty Development

We have used the term "faculty development network" so far without a proper explanation. The most well known definition of faculty development is probably the definition formulated by the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (POD Network). In the POD Network, the subject covered by faculty development is divided up into the following three parts: faculty development in the narrow sense (development of an individual faculty member); instructional development (development of the course, the curriculum and student learning); organizational development (development of the organizational structure of the institution and its sub components). Promoting developments in these areas through support programs is then regarded as faculty development.[5] This view formed the basis for the definition of faculty development by Ehime University in Japan as "the collective designation for organizational activities aimed at improvement of classes, improvement of curricula, and organizational improvement and reform." Together with the dissemination of the "FD Map" (National Institute for Educational Policy Research, 2009)

this newly adopted definition has also exerted influence on Japanese universities. Although "faculty development" was originally an expression used mainly in North America, in recent years it has gradually been replaced with the term "educational development."[6]

The reason for nevertheless adopting the expression "faculty development" network in this book is the belief that replacing faculty development, which is finally becoming established, with another word would only invite confusion. That said, faculty development principles cannot be treated as if they have remained unchanged since their inception.

The process of institutionalization of faculty development which leads to legislation in 2007 brought along with it the burden of formalization of faculty development as its byproduct. There are no small number of university teachers who avoid faculty development as something forced upon them that is of no use. For many university teachers, faculty development is nothing more than a one-off event that must be dealt with in order to fulfill their obligations, and see it as something quite separate from their everyday teaching practices.

Accordingly, the building of faculty development networks must be carried out in line with the redefinition of faculty development. I myself would like to define it as "developing one's own teaching abilities, while being involved in educational improvement at an individual and institutional level." In other words, faculty development means that faculty, as an individual and as a collective, develop their teaching abilities through working on educational advancement (e.g., improving class, curriculum, evaluation, etc.). It is not the case that first come training events (lectures and workshops) for developing teaching skills, and subsequently, the question arises of how to apply them to educational improvement. Training events only have meaning when they are placed within the process of advancement of teaching.

This kind of faculty development could be called *faculty development as action learning*. In action learning, participants make practical improvements by taking action to solve problems, and learn by reflecting on the actions taken (Dilworth & Willis, 2003).[7] Active learning represents a form of lesson that generates student's active commitment to learning and their responsibilities. While action research means research through intervening in actors' practices, action learning is the participants' learning through improving their own practices. In faculty

development as action learning, formalization of faculty development does not become a problem, nor does the need for substantiation of faculty development become an issue.

Faculty development networks incorporate a community of practice that shares the process and results of these faculty development activities. Individual universities, faculties and teachers can participate and make use of the commons and social capital provided by the network.

2 Method of Faculty Development Network Building

Multi-layered Faculty Development Network

As stated at the outset, the Center has been building faculty development networks within the institution, in the region, around the entire country as well as internationally since 2008. These four levels are not just different in their scale, but they also have their own individual structures and problems.

1) Institutional level: The Kyoto University Faculty Development Committee conducting information sharing and collaboration in regard to faculty development was formed within Kyoto University, a large-scale research university with strong departmental independence. The committee also provides support for faculty development and preparing future faculty activities carried out by individual departments.
2) Regional level: Networks are created in the Kansai area between universities and junior colleges, which vary widely in their size and type, through the activities of the Kansai Faculty Development Association.
3) National level: In addition to holding annual forums (Kyoto University Conference on Higher Education, Forum on University Students) where university participants from around the country get together to share their research and experience, the Center also promotes the Japan Faculty Development Network (JFDN), which connects regional faculty development networks, and a network for young researchers involved in faculty development, the Japan Faculty Development Network for Junior Researchers (JFDN Jr.).
4) International level: Research is communicated with organizations and

individuals who develop activities with similar principles to those of the Center, which leads to the deepening of the Center's principles and activities both theoretically and practically.

The most successful of these activities is probably the Conference on Higher Education, which has taken place repeatedly since 1994. The conference is held every year in March for two days, and in recent years more than 500 participants have attended. With the goal of presenting and sharing the results of practical research into university teaching, this is a platform most similar to the scholarship of teaching and learning. Outstanding research project reports have the opportunity to be published in the Center's journal Kyoto University Researches in Higher Education.

Below, I shall raise two project examples that I have been involved with, while discussing the specific details of the Center's network building.

Example 1: Graduate School of Letters Preparing Future Faculty Project

Since 2005, the Center has been running the Teaching Workshop for Graduate Students as a preparing future faculty (PFF) initiative. This program seeks to encourage the graduate students to form themselves toward a university teacher and to build their communities for teaching. It is presented in a one day workshop format with short lectures, group discussions, and so on, aimed at graduate students of Kyoto University (Matsushita, 2009b). In 2008, a new advanced course was set up following a proposal by workshop participants in the previous year. Graduate students were fully involved right from the planning stage, contributing to the course development, but with little or no university teaching experience there were of course limits to the effectiveness of the workshop.

The Graduate School of Letters PFF Project, which commenced in 2009, was able to break through these limits (Taguchi et al., 2010). This is a project where postdoctoral students are employed as part-time lectures by the Graduate School of Letters and to take turns giving lectures in their specialized subject areas. The project provides teaching training for future faculty members, and supports postdoctoral students' future careers.

The idea of this project originated in a proposal by the Dean to guarantee them access to university resources and career support by employing, at least,

a part of many unemployed postdoctoral students of the Graduate School of Letters as part-time lecturers. But how can we assure the quality of lessons by lecturers with little or no teaching history? A solution proposed by one of the teaching staff from the Division of Philosophy was to use those lessons as a venue for PFF program. This staff member was familiar with the teaching workshop for graduate students mentioned above, the Center's activities for peer review of class teaching, and so on. He was also aware that future faculty members were placed in a "mechanism of neglect" (Tsunemi Tanaka), where they received much training as researchers but no training as teachers, hence causing a problem with the replication of teaching methods, where new teachers just teach the way they themselves were taught. That is why this staff member came to the Center for support and in this way the project was initiated in March 2009.

Teaching staff and postdoctoral students affiliated with the Division of Contemporary Culture as well as the Division of Philosophy joined in the project and, in addition, one graduate student took on a liaison role as assistant teaching staff, thereby linking the Center and the Graduate School of Letters. In 2009, 31 postgraduate students participated in this project as part-time lecturers. Lessons consisted mainly of entry level subjects for first and second year students. The participants took turns giving lecturers in three courses in each of the first and the second semester.

The Graduate School of Letters PFF activity is composed of two main pillars: peer reviews of class teaching during semester and workshop format training session after semester. The classes are all open to faculty members as well as other part-time lecturers and video recorded for reflection afterward, and each class is followed directly by a 20 minute short review session. The training sessions incorporate self-reflection upon each recorded lesson, group reflection upon all the lessons for one-minute per each, and discussions about problems encountered during lessons. Lecturers who fulfill the conditions of responsibility for two or more lessons, experience of eight or more review sessions (including review of one's own lessons), and subsequently participate in the workshop will receive a certificate of completion from the Kyoto University President.

The Center's project members carried out the planning and management of the entire PFF activities. Above all, what we aimed to do was make sure that post-lessons reflections were done (a) from multiple perspectives and standpoints,

and (b) based on student learning. In respect of (a), we arranged it so that in the short review sessions the lecturer who gave the lesson received feedback from other participants and the Center staff; furthermore, every lecturer watched the recorded video, performed a self-analysis using worksheet[8] and exchanged details of their results in the training sessions. In regard to (b), at the end of each lesson every student wrote his/her questions and opinions on a reflection sheet (a type of minute paper), and the lecturer shared and discussed these with other participants during the short review session. In addition, interviews with students were carried out at the end of semester, and these were used as a feedback in the workshop format training session. It is thus apparent that faculty development as action learning is being concretely implemented in the way participants make practical improvements by taking action to solve problems and learn by reflecting on the actions taken.

Judging from the results of the survey upon the training completion, the lecturers have evidently formed a community that discusses education, so that they have become self-aware as educators. One lecturer wrote the following: "We have developed as researchers, but by participating in this project we have gained a common awareness that we have to develop as teachers also." Furthermore, there were some lecturers who reported their experiences in an academic society to which they belonged, and there is even an emerging movement to rethink specialized education and university teacher training inside academic societies. As a result, the Graduate School of Letters PFF project has made a great progress regarding the challenge of fostering future faculty members in order to acquire the skills and awareness of being simultaneously researchers and teachers.

Example 2: Kansai FD Pilot Campus

Building a regional level faculty development network has centered around the Kansai Faculty Development Association, which was officially launched in April 2008. In the Kansai area there are 211 universities and junior colleges, more than half of which are members of the Association (131 as of September 2010). The organization is built around 11 administering institutions with Kyoto University being the leading representative institution, and also responsible for management of the Association office.

The Association is a formal organization. It has rules and levies member-

ship fees, and the extent of its membership is clearly defined. Furthermore, it is markedly larger when compared to other faculty development networks. Size is something that should be considered, but at the same time it also involves the dangers of *disadvantages of scale* and *collective irresponsibility*. By setting up internal working groups (WG) of some 10 or so institutions, the Association has managed to prevent these problems arising. At present, there are five working groups dealing with "Joint Faculty Development Implementation," "Collaborative Faculty Development Planning," "Faculty Development Information Support," "Research," and "Public Relations." Each working group manages its own issues and organizational structure.[9] Among them, the most active is one of the subgroups of the Research WG, the FD Media Research Subgroup, which has developed and implemented a tool for checking attendance in large lectures and helping with course evaluations by students, using a mobile phone in place of an input device. This tool was originally developed by a teacher in order to check the attendance at his own lectures. However, a community of practice was formed using the Kansai Faculty Development Association network, and currently teaching and other staff at 10 or more institutions have already joined the community and are testing the device. They are not just popularizing an existing tool, but also improving and expanding the tool itself by using it in the community (Fukunaga, 2010).

The Collaborative Faculty Development Planning WG, to which I belong, is composed of members from six universities with the goal of bringing together universities and teachers sharing common themes, in order to raise awareness and collaboratively tackle issues of concern (e.g., teaching and assessing student writing). Within this working group, there is a Kansai FD Pilot Campus framework. This is a trial project for providing support to organizations (universities, faculties, departments) that want to put into practice a full-scale faculty development structure, and share the process and results with other member institutions. We take up the faculty development structure of one of these, Department of Physical Therapy at Aino University (hereafter abbreviated to "Aino"),[10] as an example below.

At Aino, a spontaneous faculty development practice has been built up from assessment of student learning outcomes. This activity started with one teacher developing a version of Objective Structured Clinical Examination (OSCE) for

physical therapy and using it as a tool for reflection. Later it was named "OSCE-Reflection Method (OSCE-R)."

OSCE was designed to assess medical students' basic clinical competence, and has come to be used to judge whether their ability is sufficient for engaging in clinical clerkship. OSCE has already been standardized as a common test in medical and dental education since 2005. However, the previously mentioned teacher had the feeling that since the university had been reformed from a specialized training college into a university, students' clinical skills had declined, and so her action in response to the problem was to develop a trial a physical therapy version of OSCE.

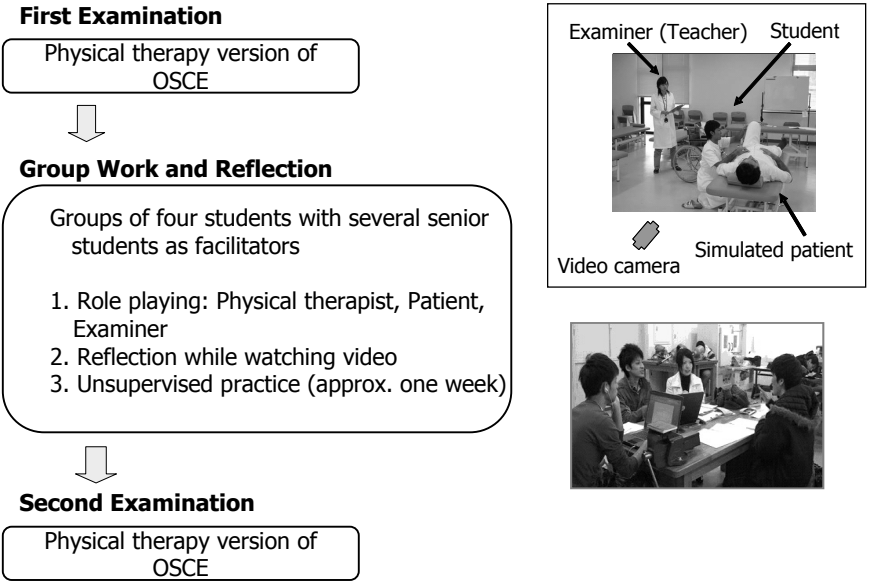

Figure 3.1 The OSCE-R process

OSCE is one type of performance assessment (Harden, 1975; Matsushita, 2010a). Students tackle authentic tasks (e.g., medical interview, various kinds of diagnosis) in respect to simulated patients at each station, and their performance is assessed by the examiners.[11] Additionally, a reflection is incorporated in OSCE-R group work. Students compare teachers' demonstration with their own performance in the OSCE (video recording) while carrying out reflection in groups of

four, thinking of problems and how to improve them. Then, following one week of unsupervised practice, they attempt the OSCE for the second time (see Figure 3.1). In other words, in OSCE-R, the OSCE is used both as a formative evaluation and as a tool for reflection to promote student learning.

OSCE-R brought about a notable change in students. OSCE scores rose markedly from an average of 8.9 to 20.0 (t=27.45, p<.01, n=96), and students started to learn pro-actively by themselves. In an interview after OSCE-R one student had this to say: "All the individual things had been separate before OSCE-R. After I put myself in the patient's position, I thought I would have to study hard to connect them all together as much as possible." OSCE-R required the students to reconsider their way of being as health care providers from the patient's perspective, and made them realize the need for fusing the content of the various subjects they had studied together into workable knowledge and techniques.

This change in the students also brought about a change in the teachers. Teachers, who took part in OSCE-R, where excited by the change in the students and could see with their own eyes their students' independent learning, as well as that the teachers were able to grasp problem areas in lessons and curriculum where the students had difficulties in the OSCE. The teachers who had initially had doubts about the effectiveness of OSCE-R ended up recognizing it following high evaluations from the clinical training sites. In this way, OSCE-R, which started from one teacher's idea, has developed into an initiative of the entire department, and gave birth to a series of innovations, including launching an independent research seminar, restructuring of the curriculum and lessons, and the deployment of clinical instructors (Hirayama & Matsushita, 2009).

Interestingly enough, this activity was not recognized as faculty development at first. This was because there was an equation in the teachers' mind that "faculty development = training event." However, after it was recognized as a Kansai FD Pilot Campus, and the process and results of the activity were publicized, the awareness among the faculty rose to the point that, "Yes! This is what faculty development is all about." Publicizing the activity was the catalyst for re-evaluating the concept of faculty development. Aino's faculty development practice is currently available to the general public in the form of a MOST snapshot (see Chapter 6). Now, the educational challenge for the faculty is to go beyond the limits of OSCE-R and to expand into areas like first year experience.

Also in this Aino example, the point at which faculty development emerges as action learning is the same as with the Graduate School of Letters in example 1. The teacher at the core of the project carried out action research, gathering and analyzing quantitative and qualitative data, as well as inquiring into student learning and teachers' changes, but it is not the case that all the other teachers went so far. The indispensable component of faculty development is not action research but rather action learning.

Moreover, the action learning that took place at Aino and the formation of a faculty development community were much more dynamic than was the case for the Graduate School of Letters. Here reflective learning emerged on the students' side, then through mutuality between students and teachers, action learning also emerged on the staff's side. Meanwhile, the faculty development community was steadily expanding its boundary, broadening the scope of educational improvements and intensifying their quality. In that sense, the example of Aino shows how faculty development based on mutuality between students and teachers ought to look like.

This kind of faculty development practice originated from the assessment of student learning outcomes in the form of OSCE. Various data were collected: OSCE scores, questionnaires, interviews, videos, written assignments (reflection sheets), written impressions, and so on. However, the parts of the faculty development practice that did the most to display student learning were the observations of students who participated in OSCE-R with enthusiasm, engaged in reflection and study of their own accord, and thus received high praise from the clinical training sites. Seen strictly from the research point of view, such observations are not very objective and cannot be considered as scientific evidence, but in faculty development it is these kinds of tangible changes in students that demonstrate the real effect of educational improvements, and give a strong impetus to promoting faculty development. We will return to this point later.

Faculty Development Communities and Networks

The above two examples of faculty development communities and networks have similar structures (see Figure 3.2).

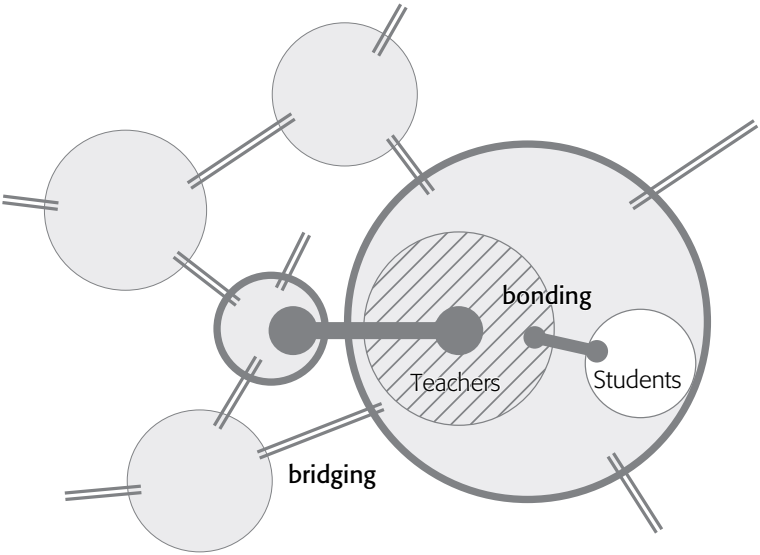

Figure 3.2 FD communities and networks

A community is a supporting part of a network. Community members are bound together by relatively strong bonds of shared interests and problems, with face-to-face relationships being quite common. That said, there are different forms of participation at different levels within communities, from the innermost highly active groups in the core, to peripheral groups on the sidelines. Additionally, each community has one or more coordinators who plan activities and bond the members together (Wenger et al., 2002).

In example 1 a community was formed by the members of the Graduate School of Letters and the Center, whereas in example 2 a community was formed by Aino and the members of the Collaborative Faculty Development Planning WG (the part surrounded by the thick line in Figure 3.2). These examples demonstrate how communities of practice are built across organizational boundaries by members carrying out the same practice.

In Figure 3.2, students are included in the members of the community, which reflects the close-knit mutuality between students and teachers of example 2. On the other hand, students in example 1 are on the receiving side of lessons and no more than loosely tied into the community.

In addition to this kind of internal connectivity, a community also pos-

sesses external connectivity, which creates bridges to other communities and the members who belong to them. In example 1, a connection was made between Kyoto University and other universities carrying out preparing future faculty programs and the participants of the academic societies, in which our program was reported. Moreover, in example 2, bridges were built between various parties, such as the hospitals that were clinical training sites, medical colleges attracted by an interest in OSCE-R, and member institutions of the Kansai Faculty Development Association network. External relationships prevent the community from becoming closed by constantly bringing new stimuli. Hence, faculty development networks are built by two types of connections—*bonding* connections and *bridging* connections.

Mutuality is evident in both internal and external connections, but in general, the former show a tighter and the latter a looser mutuality.

3 Mutual Faculty Development and the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning

What is the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning?

In section 2, we showed how communities and networks based on the mutual faculty development are built, through examining case studies. Below I would like to make the characteristics clearer through a comparison with the scholarship of teaching and learning. You can find out more about most recent content of the scholarship of teaching and learning in Chapters 2, 4 and 5 of this book, but I would like to supplement that with some basic information here.

The genesis of the scholarship of teaching and learning started with the scholarship of teaching proposed by Ernest L. Boyer, who was the president of the Carnegie Foundation (1979–95). "Scholarship" in this sense is usually translated into Japanese as *gakushiki*. However, to rephrase it in a way easier to grasp, scholarship refers to the qualities of teacher as a scholar. Boyer proposed four aspects of scholarship: discovery, integration, application, and teaching. Of these, a narrow definition of research corresponds to the "scholarship of discovery." Boyer's intention was to recognize the other three aspects as part of scholarship's original form, in response to the situation where too heavy an emphasis was placed on research, and to establish the reward system for these other elements.

In the situation, where the research university model dominated the whole higher education, he wanted each college and university to find "its own special niche" and to bring about a situation of "diversity with dignity" in American higher education (Boyer, 1990).

Lee S. Shulman, who succeeded Boyer as the president of the Carnegie Foundation (1997-2008), combined the scholarship of teaching with the element of learning, i.e. the scholarship of teaching and learning.

One additional characteristic of the expansion of the scholarship of teaching to the scholarship of teaching and learning was the emphasis on scholarship as community property. For Shulman (1999, p. 15), scholarship must possess at least three of the following properties.

- It becomes public.
- It becomes an object of critical review and evaluation by members of one's community.
- Members of one's community begin to use, build upon, and develop those acts of mind and creation.

Just as faculty member's scholarship as researchers is secured by the community of academic societies, their scholarship as teachers should be secured by a teaching community, based on their individual disciplines, that discusses teaching using student learning as evidence (Matsushita, 2008).

Commonality

From this point of view, it seems clear that there is a lot of commonality between the two principles of the scholarship of teaching and learning and the mutual faculty development. At minimum, we can identify the following points:

1) The faculty as agent of faculty development and educational improvements

   The agency that plays a central role in faculty development[12] is not a faculty development specialist (faculty developer, etc.), but the faculty itself. From the point of view of the collegial model (see Chapter 7), faculty development and educational improvements should be carried out under

the initiative of the faculty with the support of specialists.

2) Classroom practice is a basic field for faculty development and educational improvements

The most basic field for faculty development and teaching improvements is the classroom. This is the place where teachers and students encounter each other, and it is there that teaching practice happens. This doesn't mean that faculty development and educational improvements are limited only to the micro-level. Problems noted in classroom practice may be solved by improving the lessons of an individual teacher, but there may be cases where it is necessary to improve the curriculum, the teaching environment, or the educational system.[13] In other words, while focusing on educational improvements at the micro-level, improvements at the middle-level and the macro-level can also be tackled through their connection to the micro-level.

3) Teaching practice as public acts

This kind of teaching practice is not limited to private acts. It is made public, and teachers form community and network where members can share and develop their teaching practice through mutual criticism.

The international expansion of activities possessing this commonality is a great encouragement to us. In fact, the creation of the online faculty development support system MOST depends much on the results of research at the Carnegie Foundation.

Differences and prospects

On the other hand, it is impossible to deny that there are some differences between the scholarship of teaching and learning and the mutual faculty development. One of them is how the connection between research and teaching is perceived. In the case of the scholarship of teaching and learning, teaching is seen as part of scholarship, and considered analogous to research. In contrast, while the point of assigning equal value to both teaching and research is common to both approaches, the mutual faculty development does not adopt the perspective of seeing teaching as analogous to research. Among the members of faculty development community there are certainly some who take a scholarly stance with

the intention that their academic works become a property to the community. However, it is not necessary for all members to carry out scholarly research in teaching and learning. In both examples 1 and 2, only a portion of the members conducted academic research (action research) that led to reports in academic societies or scholarly papers. That said, other members certainly carried out faculty development as action learning.

From this difference in perception of the relationship between research and teaching, two related subjects present themselves for examination.

The first is the perception of evidence. In the scholarship of teaching and learning, presenting student learning as evidence of education is favored. It goes without saying that student learning is important as an indicator for faculty development and educational improvements. Also in the mutual faculty development, we consider it essential to put focus on student learning, for example, when the people in different academic disciplines and different educational cultures discuss what makes a good lesson without falling into relativism. We, members of the Center, were reminded of the importance of focus on student learning through the practice in example 1.

Nonetheless, isn't what we would call "evidence" indispensable for understanding student learning? In the field of medicine, the one most permeated by the term "evidence," it refers to the basic facts that demonstrate the effect of treatment and large scale voluminous data occupy a higher level in the hierarchy of evidence (Guyatt & Rennie, 2002). However, as seen in example 2, in faculty development and educational improvements, it is not uncommon that real changes in student learning, observed directly by the teachers, perform an important function. Such perception of student learning—even if it were, for example, data that was not collected in accordance with scientifically rigorous procedures, as long as it is effective in promoting faculty development and educational improvements—really ought to be assigned a value not inferior to that of evidence.

Similar opinions have also been put forward within the scholarship of teaching and learning. For example, Dunn (2008) wrote in a commentary essay in a special scholarship of teaching and learning edition of *Teaching of Psychology* that the aim of "rigor" in the scholarship of teaching and learning was in danger of removing "vigor" from descriptions of classroom practice. Studies that value "vigor" over "rigor," if they involve self-reflection, relate to discipline-specific

knowledge, show innovation, and have significant impact, ought to be recognized as some other form of the scholarship of teaching and learning, he urged.

Due to the emphasis on accountability, the demand for evidence has intensified also in Japanese university teaching. The question of what constitutes evidence is one we ought to consider.

The second subject concerns how the results of faculty development and educational improvements are made public. In the scholarship of teaching and learning the priority has come to be given to publishing each individual teacher's inquiry into teaching practice as an article or in book form. This is because if we assign "scholarship of teaching" a value equal to "scholarship of discovery," publishing articles on inquiry into teaching in the same way as research articles in each academic field is the most effective strategy. On the other hand, even in the mutual faculty development, journals are used to publish the results of studies of teaching practice. However, publishing inquiries into teaching practice has not been ranked as a matter of priority in faculty development activities, as it has been in the scholarship of teaching and learning. Although the act of turning teaching practice into an academic paper promotes university teachers to reflect on their teaching practice and it is an effective method of sharing it with other teachers, requiring this act from all the teachers who have interest in educational improvements is an excessive burden to them. Above all, the parts of teaching practice that can be transmitted by written language are only a small proportion of the whole.[14]

However, even in the scholarship of teaching and learning, going back to the etymology of the word "publish," an alternative to "publication" is being pursued as a way of "going public" (see Chapter 4), and systems and tools for sharing teaching practice in diverse forms have been developed. These include not just written words, but also sound and images. In addition, three levels have been put in place on a continuum from closed (made available only within the community) to open (made available outside the community as well). Still, it is not clear how such expansion of the method of going public will be able to coexist with the principle of scholarship.

Conversely, in the case of mutual faculty development, a necessity emerges to establish independent criteria for deciding what practical knowledge is worth going public and sharing, unless scholarship itself does not become the

criterion. This kind of discussion has yet to occur.

Is it possible to proceed with building communities and networks for the purpose of faculty development and faculty driven educational improvements without relying on the principle of scholarship? If it is possible, then what form should it take? The trials we are currently carrying out are just this kind of original experiment put into practice.

Notes

1 This project received grant from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology and was carried out as a five year plan. The project's name for FY2008 was "Formation of a Model Center for the University Teacher Training." The project's name for FY2009 and thereafter was "Formation of a Core Center of Mutual Faculty Development to Provide Educational Training for University Teachers." In March 2010, it was authorized as a "Core Center of Education-Related Joint Use." The authorization period will last for five years until 2014.

2 It was organized by Toru Iiyoshi. Presenters were Mary T. Huber, Jennifer M. Robinson, and Kayo Matsushita.

3 The Iwate Higher Education Consortium, Tohoku Higher Education Development Consortium, East Japan Regional Interuniversity FD Network "Tsubasa," University Consortium Ishikawa, Fukui Learning Community Consortium (F-LECCS), Nagoya Consortium for Faculty and Staff Development, Kansai Faculty Development Association, Japan Private Universities FD Coalition Forum, Sanin Faculty Development Association, Shikoku Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (SPOD), Kyushu Learning Improvement Network for Staff Member in Higher Education (Q-Links), etc.

4 There are 765 universities and 417 junior colleges in Japan as of 2008. Both national and public (prefectural or municipal) universities each occupy about 10% of that figure. Private universities make up the remaining 80%. Out of that, 47.1% of four-year private universities are under-enrolled and this figure rises to 67.5% for junior colleges (as of May 1 2008, according to a survey by the Promotion and Mutual Aid Corporation for Private Schools of Japan) .

5 See the POD Network web page (Retrieved March 31, 2010 from http://www.podnetwork.org/faculty_development/definitions.htm).

6 For example, ICED, The International Consortium for Educational Development (established in 1993), which is the international network for educational or academic development in higher education, does not use the term "faculty development" in its

title, nor the term "(academic) staff development," common in the UK and Australia," but instead it employs the term "educational development." According to the former POD President Mathew L. Ouellett, who visited the Center at Kyoto University in June 2009, even at POD they are considering whether to change their term from "faculty development" to "educational development." For a theoretical examination of this trend see Taylor & Rege-Colet (2010).

7 In regard to action learning, while there are others who specify this method in detail, in this article, we shall direct our focus on the basic principles of taking action in response to the real world problems and learning from that, rather than at detailed learning methods. Dilworth and Willis (2003) raised the following points as the foundation for action learning: 1) People learn best from and with each other; 2) The learner has the central role in setting the specific agenda for action learning; 3) Action learning occurs best in an atmosphere of trust and mutual support; 4) Real problems are the greatest impetus for learning and the more daunting they are, the greater the impetus can be; 5) Fresh questions are induced most readily when the problems being dealt with unfamiliar and there are many uncertainties; 6) Action learners need to start with the problem at hand and what is happening, not with formulas for problem scoping developed for yesterday's problems (p. 6).

8 Worksheet developed as a framework for teaching design and analysis based on Engeström's (1994) proposed form. Regarding contents, instructional function, instructional format, social mode, and materials & tools, design and analysis can be carried out while following a time line.

9 See the Kansai Faculty Development Association website (http://www.kansai-fd.org/).

10 Aino University is located in Ibaraki city in Osaka prefecture and is a university composed of a single Faculty of Medical and Health Care with three departments (as of 2008), Department of Nursing, Department of Physical Therapy, and Department of Occupational Therapy. The university formerly existed as a three-year specialized training college before becoming a four-year university in 2004.

11 In OSCE, such approach is adopted when ten or more assessment items are established for each task, and each of these is assessed as to whether it is satisfactory or not.

12 In the scholarship of teaching and learning the term "faculty development" is rarely used, however it can be argued that the terms "professional development" and "faculty inquiry" comprise the same content as the faculty development in this paper.

13 Regarding improvements in curriculum and educational organization, see, for instance, example 2 and the activities of the FD Media Research Subgroup.

14 Kira (2010), based on interviews with three professors (B. P. Coppola, R. Bain, J. Bernstein) with experience as Carnegie Scholars, describes "SoTL in a strict sense, including such elements as publishing research papers relating to each practice in academic

society journals, is difficult to make compatible with their research [in their own disciplines]. Therefore, especially in universities with a strong orientation toward research it is essential to first support the establishment of a community of teaching practice that can stimulate reflective teaching and teaching grounded in scholarship" (p. 112).

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Chapter 4

Building Small-Scale Faculty Networks in Support of Scholarship of Teaching and Learning

Jennifer Meta Robinson

Since the first university teaching center for faculty and instructional development in the United States was founded at the University of Michigan in 1962, many campuses in this country have designated professionals to aid the teaching faculty—usually through compiling local wisdom about teaching, assembling the best or most applicable of the published research about it, and creating forums for exchange among instructors whose primary training, time commitments, and even interests might lie elsewhere.[1] At institutions with teaching centers, instructors from all disciplines have been able to turn to pedagogical consultants for help with the everyday work of effective teaching—designing better tests, improving discussions, aligning teaching strategies with learning outcomes, and so on.[2] Some of the central work of teaching centers is accomplished through workshops that disseminate convey the knowledge of staff consultants or other teaching experts to faculty and graduate-student teachers. Some of it is available on-demand from electronic resources, usually accessible by individuals via the internet, and some is accomplished through one-on-one consultations with instructors. Often these consultations are conducted in confidence—occasionally even in secrecy—so that a professor's peers will not suspect that he or she has a problem to "fix" in his or her teaching.[3] Having a place to go to remedy important problems is a very practical and appreciated service at which many consultants excel. However, teaching centers often also hold more far-reaching goals. For example, the web site of the University of Michigan's Center for Research in Learning and Teaching currently offers a toolkit on "Recommendations for Teaching During a Flu Outbreak" even while part of its stated mission is "to promote a university culture that values and rewards teaching."[4]

Increasingly, teaching centers are supporting the new scholarship of teach-

ing and learning (SOTL) as a way to address both the short-term practical teaching concerns of faculty that have long been at the heart of services and their longer-term ambitions regarding values, rewards, and "excellence." However, in a time of scarce resources, a commitment in one direction may mean a decrease of resources dedicated to another. A renewed commitment to influencing the culture of teaching through scholarship of teaching and learning may require teaching centers to shift away from confidential services and how-to workshops toward public problem-solving in all its unpredictability. In addition to sometimes challenging the very subject matter ordinarily presented in pedagogy workshops, this new orientation challenges assumptions about how knowledge is constituted, where it resides, and how it travels, as has been discussed recently in the literature on communities of practice and networks of practice. Knowledge is newly decentralized, contextualized, emergent, and socially constructed by faculty members, graduate students, and instructional support staff to a degree unprecedented in the standard "how to write a syllabus" workshop or the "how do I get them to do the reading" consultation offered by traditional teaching centers. It offers an opportunity for established faculty development centers to retool and new ones to enter at the forefront of pedagogical support—and to do so in ways that increase the number of faculty members involved in developing good teaching practices. This essay describes four case studies of how scholarship of teaching and learning gets accomplished: each is based on a small-scale knowledge building network that was aided by teaching center staff and highlights high-impact areas for future institutional support.

1 Scholarship of Teaching and Learning and the Construction of Knowledge

In a conventional teaching consultation, a faculty member with a teaching problem or question engages teaching center staff to get advice about solutions. Typically, both course expert and teaching consultant have expertise to share from different knowledge domains. Disciplinary expertise—including scholarly trends in theories and methods; findings about the central, leading, and marginal concerns of the course; as well as departmental environments and disciplinary traditions for teaching, what Shulman calls "signature pedagogies"—are held by the professor but often effectively sidelined in teaching center discussions about pedagogy.[5]

Typically, teaching expertise—as demonstrated by specialized language, knowledge of the scholarly literature and practice, range of options and instruments available, and command of generalized, if not attributed, guidelines—tends to reside with the teaching consultant, not the faculty client.

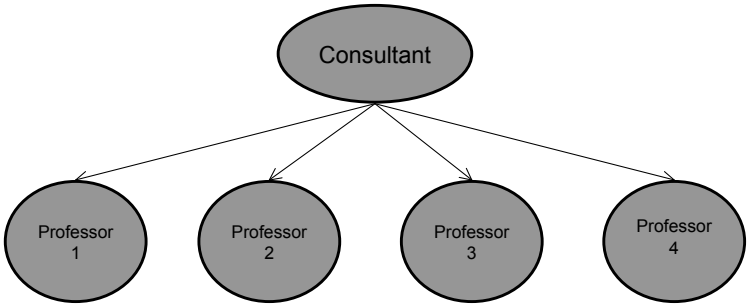

Figure 4.1 In traditional teaching consultation, a pedagogy expert dispenses information to content experts individually or in groups.

In a consultation about a scholarship of teaching and learning project, the balance of expertise shifts. Scholarship of teaching and learning is an inquiry-based initiative that invites faculty members to use the expertise of their disciplinary domain and their practical experience with teaching to decide what is important for their students to learn. It encourages them, then, to use their disciplinary epistemologies and methods to understand how design teaching so that students reach the instructor's goals for their learning. Because scholarship of teaching and learning projects focus on generating new insights about how students learn and the teaching environments that best cultivate learning of specific content, the knowledge of the classroom teacher becomes more important than in traditional instructional consultations. Disciplinary expertise becomes newly significant in the conversation as does what an individual teacher knows about a student population, how he or she prefers to conduct class, what he or she considers to be the most important learning goals for students to achieve during a course, and how he or she perceives the instructor's role in stewarding the discipline and shaping the next generation of practitioners and citizens. The role of the teaching consultant in the scholarship of teaching and learning, then, cannot mean providing "tips and tricks" for good teaching based on amassed anecdote or on "quick and

dirty" transfer of lessons from one context to another. In scholarship of teaching and learning, the importance of context, questions, ambiguities, and site-specific evidence overwhelm easy fixes. The circumstance of "not knowing" is precisely what drives a project. Thus, as teaching centers enter this new area of support, they must re-examine what they add. Not content experts in the field of pedagogy but research consultants, they do not and cannot have all the answers. They must be able to respond to complex uncertainties as they arise and determine what sorts of resources are needed and where they can be found.

Kayo Matsushita notes that instructional development benefits when it is conducted in a mutual fashion—when it invites faculty to build knowledge that is valuable not only for highly contextualized applications within their own courses ("situatedness") but also for transfer to other, quite different subjects and educational situations.[6] Scholarship of teaching and learning is, as Lee Shulman argues, an endeavor that realizes its scholarly potential as it is made public for review, application, and adaptation.[7] Mary Taylor Huber has been central in efforts to recover the etymology of "publication# so that the term is the more descriptive of contemporary notions for how knowledge and its artifacts circulate.[8] She finds that the verb "to publish" has become over-defined as text-based dissemination and proposes the more generative phrase "going public" to describe the act of making one's thinking available to others. To synthesize these scholars' perspectives, one might say that the significance of SOTL is created as it "goes mutual," that is, as its meaning is constructed through the collaborative engagement of participants in a scholarly conversation, whether the instrument of that conversation is verbal, textual, or visual. Such reorientation of the teaching center's activities to a partner in construction rather than dissemination of knowledge requires new tools even as it continues, more broadly, to seek sustainable ways to develop expertise in and diffusion of good teaching practices. By recognizing generative relationships among scholars, consultants can facilitate the replication of these networks and thereby build strong scholarly activity at their institution.[9] The following four case studies of faculty inquiry networks suggest that scholarship of teaching and learning does not marginalize the participation of teaching centers but changes their role and improves their reach.

2 Institutional Background

These cases come from Indiana University, a large research-priority public university in the central United States where I have participated in teaching support activities since 1998. The teaching center there, now called the Office of Campus Instructional Consulting, added support for scholarship of teaching and learning to its repertoire in 1998 when the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching began its national initiatives called Campus Conversations. At Indiana University, these were highly unusual conversations for the faculty development professionals participating, who customarily would survey the literature on teaching and then present it in summary form to faculty members for their application. Instead, the focus of these conversations was very much on what we did not know, what questions faculty had, and how different our teaching contexts were. On that first entry into what Mary Huber and Pat Hutchings would later describe as a "teaching commons," we seemed to have little in common, not even a language for talking about teaching, coming as we did from so many diverse subject areas and teaching traditions.[10]

The response by the teaching center, with Samuel Thompson's leadership, was to identify the kinds of support individual investigators might need to take an evidence-based, inquiry approach to understanding the relationship between teaching and learning. By early 2000, Thompson had assembled grant opportunities, consulting specialists in various research methodologies, access to institutional data, events for showcasing faculty scholarship of teaching and learning projects, and other resources.[11] At the beginning, he was able to tap into a latent pool of professors who were highly committed to teaching and intrinsically curious about teaching and learning. These early adopters operated well with little collegial context; however, the challenge was clearly how to expand the initiative beyond this small group.

When I began directing the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning initiative at Indiana University in 2001, I knew that expanding the number of people involved would require social supports for both knowledge construction and successful organizational change.[12] My approach was to supplement the services of the conventional teaching center, which remained highly valuable and an ethical imperative, with a new emphasis on inquiry and more specifically on faculty inquiry networks. These networks provide controlled visibility for teaching issues

and discussion of what Randy Bass calls good teaching "problems."[13] Populated by faculty whose primary responsibility is for original research, these networks foreground issues of questions, evidence, and argumentation. Some of the most promising inquiry networks that I have observed over the past 10 years at Indiana University include dyads, triads, collaborative teams, and multilayered communities that are complex and recursively informed. In each case described, the teaching center participated by facilitating the formation and work of such teams as they pursued questions about the relationship between teaching and learning through methods and for audiences meaningful to them.

3 Case 1: The Dyad

One case study for supporting faculty members doing scholarship of teaching and learning uses the teaching center's common consultant-instructor dyad. It requires the least change to the ways that teaching centers are accustomed to doing business, even while it engages the consultant in an inquiry process. In this case study, a professor who is an award winning teacher approached the Indiana University teaching center because he wanted to get a more precise understanding of what his students were learning part way through a humanities course. This professor retools his courses regularly and experiments with the pedagogical uses of new technologies. He was already gathering information about student learning from the quantitative data his web site collects automatically and the level of mastery demonstrated through exam questions. However, he still wanted in-progress information about how students were learning to interpret primary historical documents so that he could better configure his teaching methods. He believed that, if he knew more about his students' learning, he could teach them better. In other words, he had a highly contextualized question about the connection between teaching and learning that did not lend itself to an easy answer. He approached the teaching center to develop a way to externalize the learning processes of his students so that they could be analyzed. In consultation with a teaching center staff member, he developed a research protocol for focus groups of students from his class who were asked to interpret a famous historical photograph. So as not to influence the comments that students made or their investment in the process, the professor was not present for the focus groups. Instead, a teaching consultant convened several groups, asked a series of questions developed in collaboration

with the professor, and recorded the group's responses as data. Additionally, a clerical staff member at the center transcribed the recorded conversations to protect the identities of the students and to facilitate data analysis.

Figure 4.2 The dyad commonly employed in instructional consultations can be adapted for scholarship of teaching and learning projects.

For this scholarship of teaching and learning project, this professor found the teaching center staff to be essential not only in terms of their objectivity with regard to the subject matter and power dynamics of the course but also in the personnel resources they could offer. Moreover, his initiative confirmed for the consultant in this professor's interest in scholarship of teaching and learning. Subsequently, she recommended his participation as an externally-funded co-investigator in national study. Thus, what might have been an individual working alone on a teaching problem became a scholarship of teaching and learning study employing a local inquiry dyad and leading to engagement with a large national inquiry network. This adaptation of well-known consultant-faculty dyad offers a familiar way for teaching centers to facilitate knowledge building about teaching and learning.

4 Case 2: The Hub

A second case of building inquiry networks sheds light on how individual faculty members or graduate students can act as important hubs for expanding scholarship of teaching and learning activity. In this case, a professor recruited one of his graduate students to investigate local instances of an academic controversy that was receiving considerable press. Together professor and graduate student surveyed and interviewed faculty from across campus, accessed institutional data, and analyzed both relative to the national situation that was being popularly reported. They presented their study on campus as one of the scholarship of teaching and learning colloquia organized by the teaching center. In addition, the study resulted in two publications, including one with a graduate student as first

author. This example of a dyadic network involving the professor and graduate student did not end there.

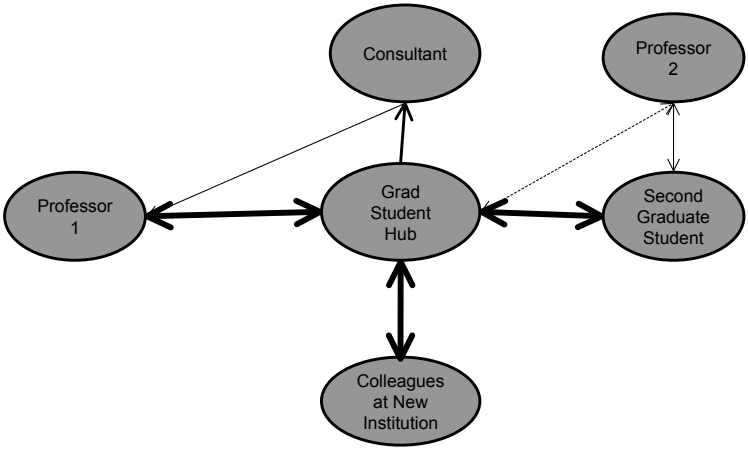

Figure 4.3 A graduate student functions as a hub of activity as she collaborates with several individuals through multiple research projects.

It was not long after the conclusion of this first study at the same graduate student expanded her scholarship of teaching and learning network. She recruited a second graduate student to work with her on a new project. Following her training with the professor, she and her new research partner chose another popular controversy to investigate. Following a similar research path as the original, this study compared national reports with local interviews, surveys, and institutional data. Significantly, these two graduate students were not friends prior to teaming up for this project. Rather, they collaborated as colleagues with complementary skills and perspectives. Moreover, together they recruited a different faculty advisor and again solicited consultation from the teaching center. As with the first project, this project led to several presentations and publications. Thus, a project that began with one individual did not terminate with publication as often occurs with faculty-consultant dyads. Instead, this one expanded into a small network of scholarly activity through the energy and networking skills of the graduate student he recruited. She diffused the practice of scholarship of teaching and learning to her peers, to a second professor, and to colleagues at the institution she was employed by after graduation. Her dense position in the network made

her an influential player in the scholarship of teaching and learning program on campus. And the student-to-student partnership she modeled successfully was adopted by others in her department after she had left. Such hubs of research activity can begin with little fanfare but, with adequate support, can flourish to seed new projects and introduce this area of scholarship to new collaborators.

5 Case 3: The Collaborative

A third case offers a more robust network with a greater number of reciprocal relations within it and less dependence on any single person for its continuity and success. In one example of this type of scenario, five faculty members and one instructional consultant collaborated as a team on a project that received a grant from the University's administration. Logistical support and careful facilitation were especially important because the faculty members participating came from four different departments and had not worked together before. Moreover, not only did the innovative pedagogy they were testing require working across departmental lines but also it included several partners external to the University and teams of undergraduate students who were enrolled in these various courses. The diversity of the departments and courses—in the arts and sciences—meant that the assignments, subject matter, analytical tools, and student products developed in response to assignments varied greatly.

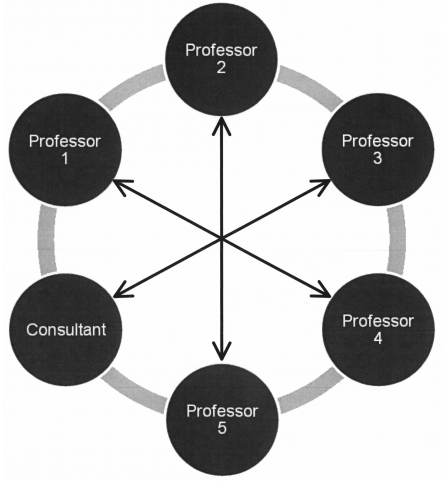

Figure 4.4 A collaborative network offers more connections among its members and greater stability for the whole.

While this is an unusually ambitious project, it is not unique and similar ones also occur within departments. In all such cases, the number of players suggests that a teaching center consultant can play a key role in advising and coordinating the research team. Indeed, the logistical skills, access to clerical and research help, and knowledge of facilities that a consultant is likely to have complement precisely those resources that many faculty members do not have at their fingertips. In this way, a collaborative network offers an important way for a teaching center staff member to enter a robust conversation with the goal of facilitating knowledge and fostering greater numbers of intentional teachers.

6 Case 4: Collegium Model

A fourth and final case offers a multilayered system—involving faculty, graduate students, faculty content experts, an instructional consultant—that is being piloted as part of the Teagle Collegium on Inquiry in Action at Indiana University.[14] This group has at its core four faculty members from four departments in the humanities, life sciences, social sciences, and learning sciences plus an instructional consultant from the teaching center. Together, they have developed an innovative program for preparing graduate students to be inquiry-driven, evidence-based teachers of higher education. In each year of the pilot program, the four faculty members have assembled small cohorts of graduate students participating from their departments. All members of the collegium read teaching and learning theory, and then each graduate student pursues a scholarship of teaching and learning project of modest scale that is intended to lay the groundwork for a teaching career that incorporates inquiry methods. Now in the second of three years, we are finding that the relationships among collegium participants cut across departmental silos, allowing decentralized peer collaborations and other network configurations to develop.[15] As artifacts of those networks, graduate students have produced presentations within disciplinary groups, among disciplinary groups, and in collaboration with the faculty members and the teaching consultant.

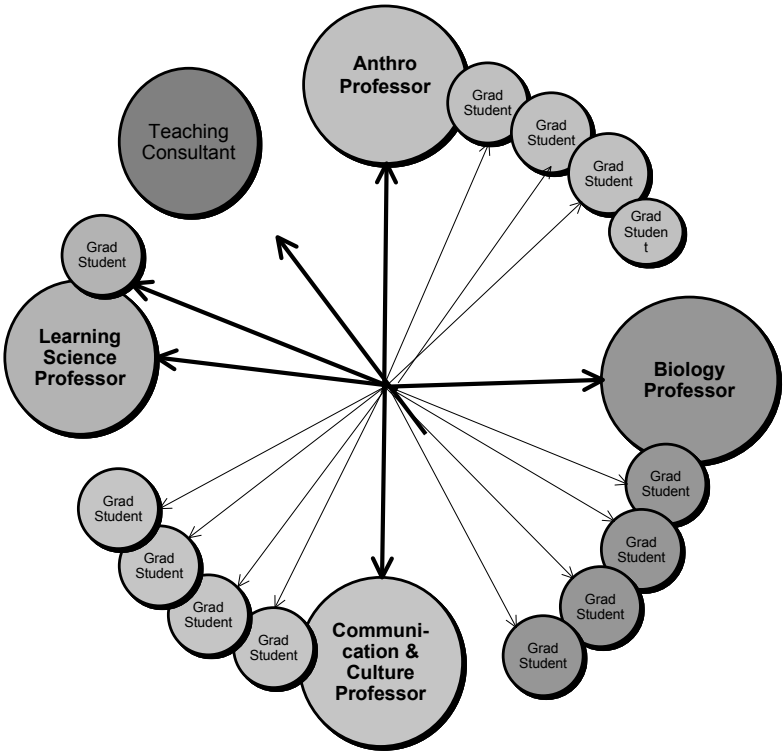

Figure 4.5 The collegium model for networking inquiry brings teams of scholars into a Commons where they can "go mutual" with some colleagues who speak their disciplinary language and others who offer a critically collegial outsider's perspective.

In this network case, as in the others, the role of the teaching consultant is critical to the success and continuity of the research project. With her eye on process and logistics as well as being positioned as an intellectual resource who can move across disciplines, this consultant enhances the quality of the experiences and projects that the graduate students, in particular, and faculty members produce. Although the collegium convenes monthly meetings equal in size to many teaching workshops conducted by teaching center consultants, this person's role in the collegium is quite different from the one she would have for most workshops. With the collegium, she collaborates on an ongoing basis with the faculty to develop the year's curriculum. In addition, she works individually

and in small groups with graduate students to facilitate their 12 individual and several collaborative research projects each year. The degree of impact on teaching and learning for this single consultant includes, potentially, not only the 17 other members of the collegium each year but also all of their current and future students, the future colleagues of these future faculty, and the graduate students that the faculty involved will mentor for years to come. Although the level of commitment on the part of the consultant is high, her impact is clearly substantial through a collegium model.

The small, decentralized networks described by these case studies represent powerful tools for advancing an scholarship of teaching and learning. They can create environments conducive to greater numbers of participants; collegial critique, greater knowledge, and more intellectual resources among participants; and, finally, better student learning through improved teaching. Teaching center consultants can be essential players in facilitating the development of these and other types of peer-to-peer networks. Although a consultant's voice may become less central as multiple lines of communication open and the number of direct relations increases among other participants, his or her importance to the continuity and success of a project is not diminished. Teaching center consultants have the skills and resources that make them crucial players and a network's success. Their knowledge of and access to internal grant funds, their charge to stay current with the literature on teaching, their skills in organizing and disseminating information, their access to models of pedagogy and assessment, their connections with clerical and other support staff, and their ability to approach any discipline as a constructively critical outsider mean that they can be invaluable partners. Moreover, teaching center staff are in a unique institutional position to know faculty in the context of teaching issues and so can connect them efficaciously to each other, to human and other resources, and to conversations beyond those in which they already participate.

Successful networks are social organizations as well as resource- or knowledge-distribution schemes. To expand scholarship of teaching and learning beyond early adopters, we need to understand how people want to work together and how they do work together successfully. If we can foster the kinds of working relationships described here as inquiry networks, then those smaller configurations can, in turn, can be brought together into a larger teaching commons, such

as Huber and Hutchings describe. Such a commons would bring considerable assets to bear on the challenges and opportunities that arise in teaching and learning. Teaching centers are positioned to foster such a commons, well situated to see opportunities and resources that will move the culture of teaching forward at their institutions. With their help, faculty members can develop an inquiry stance that will serve them beyond any particular teaching challenge or short-term educational agenda.

Higher education is a dynamic, evolving project that requires the best thinking of all involved. Scholarship of teaching and learning supports mutual, inquiry-based exchange among faculty so as to engage their interests and research about teaching, to engage them in testing and review of ideas, and to expedite the scholarly exchange of findings. Faculty inquiry networks are one means for creating a climate that supports the exploration and risk-taking inherent in improving teaching while still basing it soundly in theory and evidence.

Notes

1 The University of Michigan's Center for Research on Learning and Teaching is available at: http://www.crlt.umich.edu/ ; See a list of teaching centers in the United States at the University of Kansas' Center for Teaching Excellence web site: http://www.cte.ku.edu/cteInfo/resources/websites/usall.shtml.

2 In general, teaching centers have become more professionalized in the U.S. in recent years, in part through the efforts of the central membership organization, called the Professional and Organizational Development Network (POD) as well as, secondarily, through contact with other professional societies such as the International Society for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning. They typically provide services through group workshops, individual consultations, and programmatic work.

3 The notion of a teaching center as a safe space for faculty in trouble to seek help became a central part of FD identity, to the extent that some teaching centers considered it a point of professional pride never to divulge their clients' identities. Bass, Randy, "The Scholarship of Teaching: What's the Problem?", *Inventio*, 1 (1), 1999.

4 http://www.crlt.umich.edu; accessed March 15, 2010. The best teaching centers in the U.S. manage to create this commons space for open and generative knowledge building and problem solving about teaching and learning. Many centers have this kind of space as an ideal.

5 Shulman, Lee. "Signature pedagogies in the professions," *Daedalus* 134.3 (Summer

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6 Matsushita, Kayo. "Building Multi-Leveled Networks based upon the Concept of Mutual Faculty Development," International Society for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning Conference, Bloomington, Indiana, October 22–25, 2009.

7 Shulman, Lee. "Course anatomy: The dissection and analysis of knowledge through teaching." In P. Hutchings (Ed.), *The Course Portfolio: How Faculty Can Examine Their Teaching To Advance Practice And Improve Student Learning*, pp. 5-12. Washington, DC: American Association for Higher Education, 1998.

8 See Huber, this volume.

9 Wasserman, Stanley, and Katherine Faust. *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications*. Cambridge: Cambridge University press, 1994.

10 Huber, Mary Taylor, & Pat Hutchings. *The Advancement of Learning: Building the Teaching Commons*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 2005. See also Huber, this volume. Faculty inquiry networks employed in scholarship of teaching and learning are one kind of structure that support the creation of such a teaching commons.

11 Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, Indiana University, http://www.indiana.edu/~sotl/. Accessed: March 15, 2010.

12 See also Nelson, C. E., and J. M. Robinson. "The Scholarship of Teaching and Learning and Change in Higher Education." In *Realities of Educational Change: Interventions to Promote Learning and Teaching in Higher Education*. Eds. L. Hunt, A. Bromage, and B. Tomkinson. London: RoutledgeFalmer, 2006.

13 Bass, ibid.

14 Robinson, Jennifer Meta, Miriam Zolan, April Sievert, Melissa Gresalfi. "The Indiana University Collegium: Graduate Student-Faculty Inquiry Communities on Learning and Teaching." http://sites.google.com/a/indiana.edu/iu-teagle-collegium/. This three-year project is funded by the Teagle Foundation.

15 Robinson, Jennifer Meta, Tyler Christensen, Sarah Florini, Melissa Gresalfi, Katie Kearns, Elizabeth Middleton, April Sievert, Deanna Soper, Miriam Zolan. "Supporting Transformations in Graduate Student Teaching through Critical Reflection: An Interdisciplinary Learning Community Approach through Indiana University's Teagle Collegium on Inquiry in Action." Panel presentation at the International Society for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning Conference, Bloomington, Indiana. October 2009.

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Part III

USE OF TECHNOLOGY IN FACULTY DEVELOPMENT

Chapter 5

Promoting Technology-Enhanced Scholarship of Teaching and Learning: Reflections on Open Education and The Carnegie Foundation's Initiatives

Toru Iiyoshi

In recent years, the advancement of information communication technology (ICT)—such as the Internet, multimedia, and transportation and distribution systems—has radically transformed social structure as well as how artifacts, information, and knowledge are created and distributed. Furthermore, in our increasingly complex and fluid society, technology and knowledge becomes obsolete rapidly. In higher education at a time like this, faculty's *professional imperative*, as a member of an academic community of practice which continuously advances itself, should include *contributing to the constant promotion of pedagogical improvement and innovation* in addition to solely disseminating educational and research content and knowledge of the specialized fields of his or her own.

In confronting these challenges, not only nationally but also globally, it is indispensable for this academic community of practice to open up education, and share both tacit and explicit knowledge concerning the processes of teaching and learning as well as the creation and use of educational curricula and resources (Iiyoshi, Richardson, & McGrath, 2006; Iiyoshi, 2006).

This chapter provides an overview of the present state of open education, and discusses how this global movement, which was initiated in the U.S. and has been spreading across the world including Japan, is able to contribute to the educational improvement. Furthermore, it reviews the research and development efforts and their practical outcomes of the Knowledge Media Laboratory at The Carnegie Foundation of the Advancement of Teaching during 1999 through 2008. This initiative, directed by the author, aimed at advancing the scholarship of teaching and learning with technology-enabled open building and sharing of

educational knowledge and experience. Finally, the chapter concludes with the recommendations and implications for the future work based on the insights gained through these efforts.

1 Promoting Educational Quality Assurance and Improvement by Opening Up Education

Impact of Open Educational Resources

It has nearly been a decade since the Massachusetts Institute of Technology initiated the OpenCourseWare Project (http://ocw.mit.edu) in 2001 to make the educational materials—from its approximately 2,000 courses—openly and freely available online. Presently, this kind of effort in opening up education, such as making educational materials and course contents public and shareable, is expanding globally. However, this movement needs to be carried forward further with the recognition of not only the *significant social contribution* by faculty members to disseminating their own course materials as public goods, but also of the *significant educational contribution* to promoting quality improvement of educational resources and course contents. From this perspective, it is critical to explore and examine how various issues in education can be resolved by these efforts as well as to attempt to link them to the continuous pedagogical improvement over time.

For example, "educational quality assurance" is one of the expected outcomes of improvement attained through "opening up education." In the process of developing and publicly publishing the MIT OpenCourseWare website, the project manager once told me that the primary interest of MIT faculty members was "how to enhance the quality of their own course websites." In general, faculty members endeavor to publish their research results in articles or books as "highest possible quality academic publication." Similarly, "open publication" of course websites and materials should mean the significance of "publicizing their own pedagogical contributions" to faculty members. At MIT, when publishing existing online course materials as OpenCourseWare (OCW), sufficient support for improving educational resources is provided by the instructional designers and website designers. This resulted in *quality improvement of online course materials throughout the institute*. Thus, by promoting open content, it is possible

to advance part of the effort in establishing the accountability for *assuring the quality of educational resources*.

Furthermore, faculty members at other universities have reported that "looking at the syllabus and course materials of a MIT's course which is similar to the one I teach helped improve my own course and course materials." In this case, although faculty did not necessarily have to adopt course materials from MIT OCW into their courses, they were able to improve their courses by referring to OCW as an exemplary model of effectively designed courses and course materials." In Japan, making courses public is often conducted by making recorded course videos viewable online. This implementation may be desirable as it enables instructors to "learn about others' teaching and course constructs by simply viewing course videos." Lastly, even an attempt to make course materials openly public through syllabi can be effective as it is relatively easy for faculty members to implement the method.

Improvement of Educational Resources and Pedagogy through Communities of Practice

Furthermore, open education may be effective in promoting the improvement and quality enhancement of educational resources and pedagogy. For example, the "Open Learning Initiative (OLI)" of the Carnegie Mellon University (http://www.cmu.edu/oli) has collaborated with some of the faculty, cognitive scientists, and instructional designers within the university to develop "easy-to-use online educational resources designed guided by cognitive learning theories." This particular effort was made because they thought that "their own course educational materials may be too difficult to use for faculty and students at other universities given the noticeably high level of research and education at the Carnegie Mellon University." In addition, the OLI project invited faculty members from other universities around the world, who had been using the OLI course materials, to workshops held at the Carnegie Mellon University (CMU) to participate in exchanging opinions and discussions with the CMU faculty. The feedback and formative evaluation provided by the workshop participants helped further improve the OLI course materials. Through this process, the quality of the OLI course materials—initially developed for general public—had been improved over time, and eventually, the CMU's faculty themselves also began to use them for their

own students because these course materials became "high-quality and useful even for the CMU students to use." This episode is a good example of "how unexpected educational improvement occurred at an institution which initially made their educational materials openly available for faculty members at other universities to use."

However, ideally, this kind of quality improvement of open educational resources and pedagogy should be carried out continuously, building upon the use experience of a number of faculty and students. In the projects such as MERLOT (http://www.merlot.org) and Connexions (http://www.cnx.org), the educational resources are being made openly available in a way that they are reusable as modules. They also provide support environments to facilitate peer-reviews of the educational resources and online discussions about the use of them for "continuous quality improvement of educational resources and pedagogy based on feedback and exchange of ideas within educational communities of practice."

Furthermore, when implementing this kind of community-of-practice-based approach from the perspective of faculty development, "making courses and educational resources public" can provide a great opportunity for "building and nurturing educational communities of practice within and across universities." For example, at MIT, faculty members within each department started looking at each other's course website, and this "movement" began to spread and eventually became cross-departmental.

Sharing, examining, deepening, and accumulating "knowledge of teaching and learning acquired through practices" is critical to enhance the quality of education through educational communities of practice. Each of these processes can be supported by various faculty development activities, and "making courses and educational resources open" can become a breakthrough. For instance, those Japanese universities that are already making courses and course materials open may follow the Carnegie Mellon University's OLI as a model for "improving educational resources and their use" through communities of practice as part of faculty development activities within and across institutions.

Needs for Practical Promotion of Pedagogical Knowledge Sharing

While an increasing number of educational resources, courses, and learning and teaching tools are becoming openly available and being used, it is necessary to

tackle various challenges to promote the quality improvement of education.

Firstly, we need to consider that "although educational resources and tools are already available online, it would not be trivial to share each other's 'practical knowledge' about the effective use of these resources and tools." Some might argue that "such practical knowledge is already built into open educational resources and tools." Indeed, some educational materials such as a course syllabus contain "pedagogy" within itself. However, educational materials like this are very few, and in most cases, the know-how of making effective use of them remains to be tacit knowledge of the faculty who created and used the resources. Thus, this knowledge is not available to other faculty members. In fact, representing such practical educational knowledge in a comprehensible and transferable way requires enormous effort and intellectual capacity. Therefore, "how to transform individual faculty members' tacit educational knowledge into sharable and useful explicit knowledge" and "how to provide both intellectual and technical support necessary for the knowledge transformation" are critical challenges to be overcome.

In the following section, I will depict and discuss the endeavors of the Knowledge Media Laboratory (KML) at The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching that attempted to respond to these challenges for nearly 10 years, and share some of the gained insights.

2 Technology-Enhanced Scholarship of Teaching and Learning and Supporting Practical Educational Knowledge Sharing

The Carnegie Foundation and the Knowledge Media Laboratory

The Carnegie Foundation was established in 1905 as an independent research institution to conduct academic investigations and policy studies concerning the improvement of education. In its history of over 100 years, the Foundation has led various research, investigation, and development efforts to promote the quality improvement of educational institutions and faculty in the U.S. Its wide-ranging achievements have significantly influenced the American education policy and beyond. These achievements include development of the Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education which has been broadly used in the U.S. higher education, creation of the Carnegie Unit which assesses secondary school

attainment by credit hours, and establishment of the Educational Testing Service (ETS)—the largest public testing institution in the U.S. globally administrating GRE, TOEFL, and other standardized tests—which was started out as a project at the Carnegie Foundation and became an independent non-profit institution in 1947.

The Knowledge Media Laboratory (KML) was founded by the Carnegie Foundation building on the idea of "pursuing the possibilities of educational improvement harnessing technology through research and development" by Lee Schulman, a former president of the Carnegie Foundation (and a former president of the American Educational Research Association and a professor emeritus of Stanford University). In partnership with universities, educational research institutions, and educational ICT organizations primarily in North America, the KML led "research and development to help enhance the quality of educational practice taking advantage of emerging network technologies and multimedia."

One unique aspect of the KML's research and development work is "using technology as support tools and environments, not for teaching and learning, but for educational communities of practice to share knowledge of and experience in educational practice." The various projects of the KML are closely related with the scholarship of teaching and learning (SOTL) which has been diffused in the U.S. higher education over the last ten years. The scholarship of teaching and learning, in general, can be defined as "the act of learning from and building upon each other's practical knowledge and experience of instructional methods and student learning through the process of documenting educational practice, making it visible and sharable, and subjecting it to peer-review among faculty members." The KML carried out action research and development around the theme of "how technology can support faculty members at each stage in this process."

Now, what does it mean specifically "to utilize technology as support tools and environments for educational communities of practice to share knowledge of and experience in educational practice"? For example, in order to "document educational practice and make it visible," an instructor can record classroom teaching and learning using digital video and multimedia, and making it available online with one's own reflections. Or, faculty members are able to use an online collaboration system to delve into the effectiveness of and challenges in each

other's pedagogy through peer-review of teaching practice, exchange their ideas, and discuss. Furthermore, the gained knowledge and insights can be accumulated and structurally organized to help faculty build upon each other's practical knowledge of course improvement as well as teaching and learning.

Visualizing Educational Practices in Collaboration with the CASTL Programs

The KML brought these research and development efforts forward in collaboration with the Carnegie Foundation's fellowship program called the "Carnegie Academy for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning" (CASTL). Every year, the CASTL selected 20 to 40 faculty members, from various disciplinary fields, as the program's participants. They were either recommended by others or applied directly from universities and colleges across the U.S. These faculty cohorts are called "CASTL scholars," and they, throughout their one-year tenure term as a fellow, "actively engaged in improving their own educational practice, and shared the goals, processes, and outcomes of their educational inquiries beyond the borders of institutions and disciplinary fields." Their research themes varied ranging from "empirical investigation of the effectiveness of particular pedagogy and technology" to "development of a new method for evaluating student conceptual understanding."

The Carnegie Foundation provided these faculty fellows with not only their stipends, but also support for deepening their understanding of the scholarship of teaching and learning and inquiry methods through seminars and workshops. These seminars and workshops (usually held for about four weeks a year) were designed and led by prominent scholars of education and Senior Scholars from the Foundation. Also, in addition to such fellowship program targeting at individual faculty members, the "CASTL Campus Program" was developed to support the scholarship of teaching and learning activities at the institutional administration level. These two programs worked together in synergy to advance the diffusion and promotion of the scholarship of teaching and learning both through bottom-up and top-down approaches. Furthermore, at the final stage of the CASTL program, "CASTL Clusters" were autonomously formed by multiple universities and colleges to encourage collaborative activities around mutually shared practical challenges and themes.

Faculty members and educational researchers involved in the CASTL pro-

grams shared research data and resources related to their class improvement projects (e.g., "digital videos recorded for analyzing pedagogical processes," "samples of self-developed online teaching materials and student reports," and "interim research reports") as well as their reflections on those data and resources, through an online collaborative system called the "Carnegie Workspace" (described more in detail later in this chapter) developed by the KML, to help advance each other's effort. Lastly, the CASTL scholars used a online support tool (described more in detail later), also developed by the KML, that helps them organize the "processes and outcomes of their inquiries into educational practices" and summarize them as multimedia portfolios.

Streamlining Multimedia Portfolio Creation with the KEEP Toolkit

The KML's initial efforts (1999–2001) in using multimedia portfolios to represent and share pedagogical knowledge were somewhat "handcrafted." The creation of these multimedia portfolios was very time-consuming, and publishing them online required both technical and intellectual expertise. Over the following few years, interest in "developing and using these portfolios to make visible the experiences of teaching and learning" continued to increase among faculty members, departments, and institutions. However, they asserted that *the creation process needs to be intellectually engaging, efficient, and simple*, because most faculty members do not have sufficient time nor skills to represent their efforts in education practice and educational improvement in this novel way.

In response, the KML developed the Knowledge Exchange Exhibition and Presentation Toolkit (KEEP Toolkit), a set of open source tools that faculty and students can use to represent and share knowledge about the experiences that permeate instructional settings everyday. The underlying "design philosophy" was "while creating engaging online multimedia representations of teaching and learning and sharing them effectively is always intellectually challenging, it need not be technically challenging, and technology must support users cognitively in the intellectual process of this work."

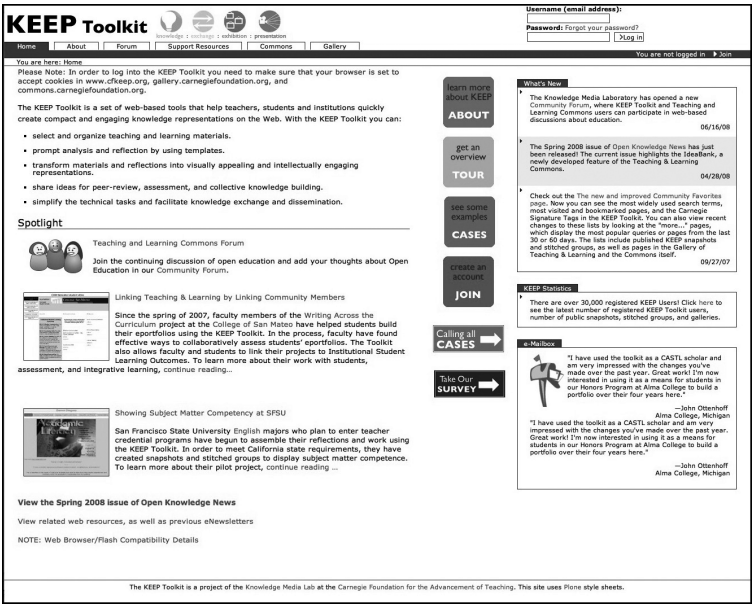

Figure 5.1 The KEEP Toolkit (Website)

The KEEP Toolkit (Figure 5.1) has become an economical and accessible means of achieving this goal, making it possible for users to take advantage of web-based technology in sharing their educational practice and reflections. The primary functions of the KEEP Toolkit provide users with the ability to create "snapshots," succinct online overviews of teaching and learning experiences, along with reflections, supplements, and related resources. To create snapshots, users use a set of web-based tools and templates (either pre-designed or newly created by each user) that allows them to efficiently organize and present the artifacts, data and evidence of teaching and learning (e.g., classroom videos, student work examples, audio recordings of student interviews, and reflective notes) and share their snapshots with others as visually appealing and intellectually engaging representations. Snapshots are delivered primarily online as websites, but they can also be distributed as local electronic files or in the form of printed handouts and posters. The KEEP Toolkit was provided as a free service until 2009 by the Carnegie Foundation and it had more than 38,000 users around the world with more than 140,000 "snapshots" created.

Part of these multimedia portfolios were made public through the Carnegie Foundation's online gallery (described more in detail later) and they are searchable by disciplinary fields and research topics. There is growing interest in multimedia portfolios in the U.S. higher education as a means of "capturing 'multidimensional' aspects of teaching and learning." Multimedia portfolios will most certainly continue to play an essential role in the fields of faculty development and development and evaluation of teaching competences in the future.

While these attempts have been made, the greatest "intellectual challenge" would be how to turn enormous amount of practical educational knowledge and experiences, held by individual faculty members, into "an explicit and transferrable form." Furthermore, how newly created "intellectual property of an educational community of practice" can be accumulated throughout "the process of faculty's sharing each other's knowledge and growing collectively" would be another critical challenge. The high complexity of "mechanisms of teaching and learning" becomes apparent when we try to depict the holistic view of teaching and learning using various data and parameters. For example, even when there is compelling evidence of "ineffective student learning as a result of pedagogical flaws," it would still be enormously intellectually labor-intensive and time-consuming to figure out "what part of the teaching went wrong, and what can be improved" by analyzing the records of teaching and learning processes as well as to explain it to other faculty and researchers in a comprehensible way. How to utilize emerging media and technologies in order to "support such intellectual activities and help form 'intellectual communities of practice' concerning teaching and learning" is indeed one of the greatest challenges for the further advancement of higher education in the future.

At the Carnegie Foundation, the efforts of the CASTL program and the KML's projects were translated into implementation models by some of the partner academic institutions and CASTL scholars, and some of the universities and colleges in the U.S. have already initiated similar programs and projects. The habitual effort of "building a disciplinary field through openly sharing and examining each other's latest achievements" has been common and traditional in research, but has often been neglected in education, particularly in the modern higher education systems. The use of technology could redress this negligence and possibly become the "ignition" to diffuse this "scholarly approach toward

the improvement of educational practice" in higher education.

Collaboration with CID: Sharing Practical Knowledge of Educational Improvement across Disciplinary Boundaries

While the KEEP Toolkit is an effective means to openly share pedagogical experience and knowledge as well as practical "know-how" of educational improvement, making such knowledge understandable to others across disciplinary boundaries requires further efforts and devices. In "a closed community" speaking "a same discipline-specific language" such as one department or one disciplinary field, it seems relatively easy to share pedagogical knowledge and experience because "goals," "directions," and "activities," can be explained and understood using "the discipline-specific language." On the other hand, searching for "a suitable common language" as well as spreading it broadly to share knowledge and experience of educational improvement across disciplinary boundaries, is not an easy task but critical for the advancement of education.

The "Carnegie Initiative on the Doctorate" (CID) utilized the KEEP Toolkit to confront this challenge. The CID worked with the leadership teams from over 80 graduate programs across the U.S. to advance the improvement of doctoral programs in six disciplinary fields; Chemistry, Education, English, History, Mathematics, and Neuroscience. One of the goals of this project was to enable the administrators and faculty members from graduate programs in different disciplines to learn from each other about the processes, outcomes, and challenges in "preparing students to profess their disciplines as researchers, educators, and specialists."

The CID, in collaboration with the KML, developed several sets of prompts for the CID participants to plainly describe and explain their efforts in respective graduate programs. These prompts were provided to the project members through four "snapshot" templates; "Project Summary," "Innovation in Curriculum Improvement," "Exemplary Elements," and "Developing Researchers and Scholars." Responding to these prompts "written in 'a common language' that can transcend disciplines" encouraged each member to easily "reflect" on their curriculum improvement practice as well as summarize the processes and outcomes in a succinct and comprehensible web-based form. Furthermore, the prompts also instructed the project members to include related resources and

data in their "snapshots" which helped them clearly illustrate their practice with tangible evidence.

Through all these efforts, many graduate programs participating the CID were able to successfully share their work—various efforts in doctoral program reform in different disciplines— through the snapshots (created using the KEEP Toolkit) displayed on the CID project online gallery (http://gallery.carnegiefoundation.org/cid/). After the completion of the project, this online gallery still continues to serve as a knowledge-sharing platform for the "cross-disciplinary peer-network for graduate curriculum improvement" built by the CID.

Three Types of Online Support Environments for the Scholarship of Teaching Learning

In addition to the KEEP Toolkit, the KML has also developed three types of technology-supported environments for the scholarship of teaching and learning that make educational knowledge building and sharing more productive, engaging, and sustainable both individually and collectively.

The first environment, called the "Carnegie Workspace," is a platform for incubating ideas and sharing ongoing work for peer-review. The Carnegie Workspace, an open-source Sakai-based online community environment, was developed to support the Carnegie Foundation's programs and their participants in creating and sharing project records, data, and reports online. The Workspace provides online meeting rooms, resource repositories, and information portals to support project activities. It is used for communication, collaboration, and documentation of the work completed during the course of the program, allowing for tentative ideas, outomes, and challenges to be shared along every step of the process. By taking advantage of the KEEP Toolkit and other features of the Workspace, such as Wiki and discussion forums, program participants are able to efficiently document, share, and peer-review the processes and outcomes of their inquiries into teaching and student learning. This "scholarship fo teaching and learning incubation space" is relatively "private" and "secured"--only program participants and invited guests have access--which encourages program participants to freely discuss possibilities, issues, processes, and methods related to their projects. It also enables them to explore, enhance, and build upon each other's knowledge of and experience in effective educational transformation efforts.

Furthermore, it allows program participants to share risks to be taken, design principles developed, and lessons learned and documented without penalty.

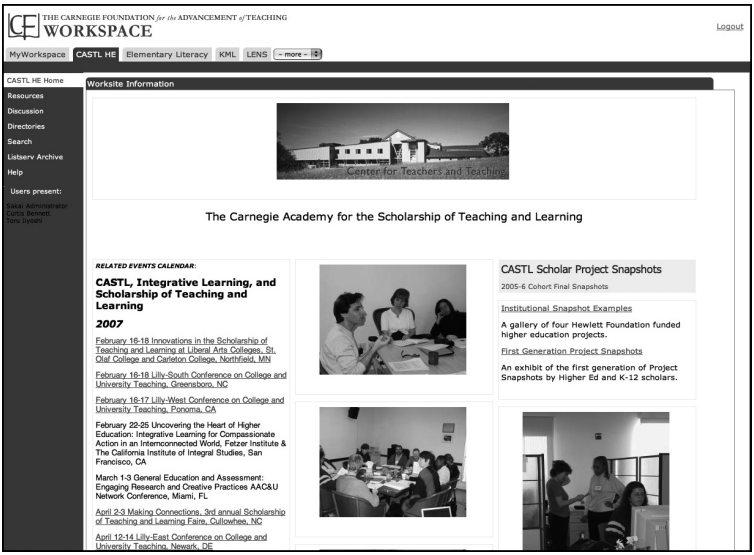

Figure 5.2 The Carnegie Workspace (Website)

The second space, called the Gallery of Teaching and Learning (http://gallery.carnegiefoundation.org), provides faculty members with various sources of inspiration for educational improvement and transformation. Originally created in 2000, the Gallery of Teaching and Learning houses hundreds of exemplary multimedia portfolios and "snapshots" rigorously selected to encourage knowledge sharing across disciplines and topics. These include various case examples of "the scholarship of teaching and learning," "teacher education," "faculty development," "curriculum transformation" in K-12 schools, undergraduate programs, doctoral programs, community colleges, and open education. Most of them were created by the participants of the Carnegie Foundation's programs and partners. These select public examples were built upon "investigation, data collection, analysis, and reflection" through the distillation and articulation processes, such as "idea sharing and peer-review" in the Carnegie Workspace. Meticulously vetted, these examples in the Gallery—"cases of exemplary practice,"

"collections and exhibitions by topics and themes" and "annotated case studies" are meant to inspire new forms of practice and encourage more educators to learn how to improve teaching and student learning.

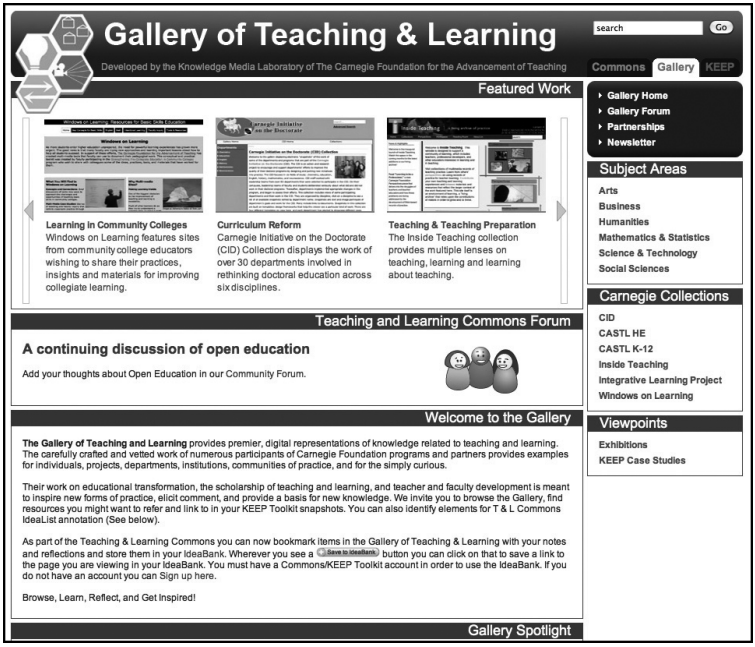

Figure 5.3 The Gallery of Teaching & Learning (Website)

The third environment, called the "Teaching & Learning Commons," accelerates the growth of communities of practice and reflection through open building and exchange of knowledge. Building on Shulman's view of "teaching as community property" (1993), Mary Taylor Huber and Pat Hutchings (2005) advocated the need for creating a conceptual space, called a "teaching commons," which enables communities of educators to exchange pedagogical ideas, inquiries, and innovations to help students better learn (refer to Chapter 2). While the teaching commons can be conceived as a more developed and sustainable form of a "knowledge trading zone," the KML research and development team hypothesized that "such space could be built at various levels in different forms," and thought that it would be critical to theorize how to continuously develop and

sustain "educational knowledge economy" in such "knowledge trading zone." In response to these challenges and visions, the KML started building the Teaching and Learning Commons as a technology-enabled open knowledge environment.

The Teaching and Learning Commons is an open forum where educators from all over the world are able to create and share their own documented and represented practices as well as participate in ongoing discussions about improving teaching and student learning. It also enables the community members to accumulate the "collective knowledge" through sharing own new knowledge and experience building upon what learned from others' efforts.

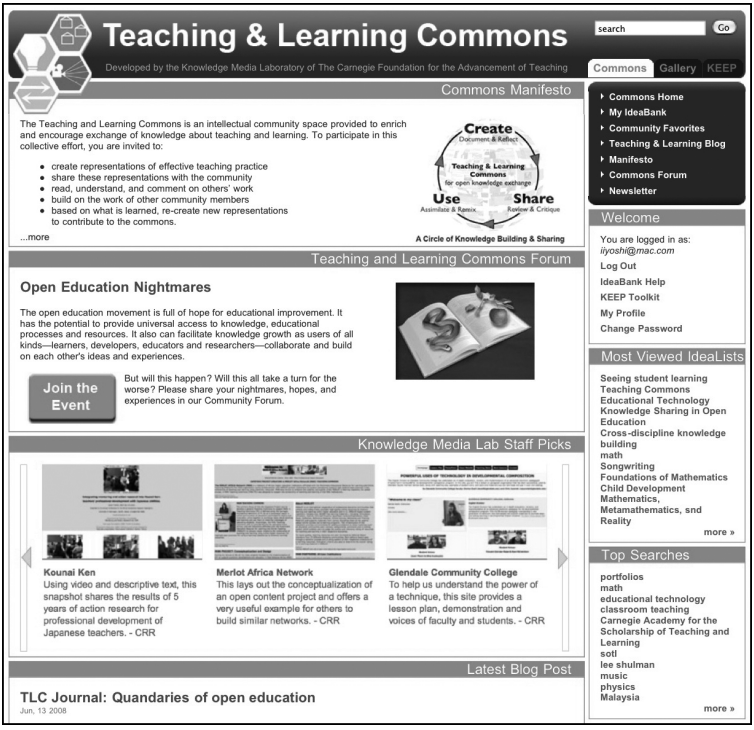

Figure 5.4 The Teaching & Learning Commons (Website)

The Teaching & Learning Commons was designed to support a circle of "creation, sharing, and use" of educational knowledge (Figure 5.5). The underlying notion was that shared educational knowledge, made explicit through "rep-

resentation" and "reflection," could become more useful when the users of the knowledge interpret it through "peer-review" and "critique," and the use of that knowledge through "assimilation" and "remix" helps generate new knowledge (Iiyoshi & Richardson, 2008).

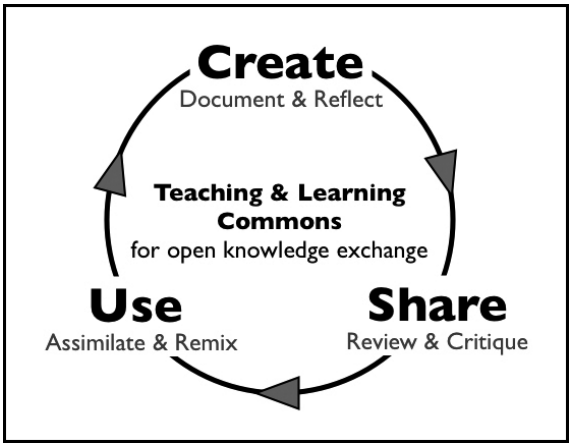

Figure 5.5 A Circle of Knowledge Building and Sharing (Iiyoshi & Richardson, 2008)

To realize this "circle of knowledge building and sharing," Teaching & Learning Commons equipped with "Web 2.0" tools and functions such as "tagging tool," "comment function", "social bookmarking tool," "ranking mechanism and idea lists (which enable a user to harvest knowledge and make it public as a list with his or her annotations)."

Harnessing "passion and engagement for improving everyday practice" and "initiative in learning from each other thorough open sharing" as driving force, "knowledge building and sharing support environments" such as Teaching & Learning Commons are indispensable to supporting "building," "sharing," "utilizing," and "accumulating" educational knowledge for the advancement of community-based faculty development.

3 Supporting the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning through Cultures, Systems, and Communities

Advancing Local and Global Education through Open Education

In addition to the current global movement for open educational resources and technologies, if various kinds of educational knowledge are also openly shared, the quality of education may be enhanced in at least three ways; 1) "evolving resources and tools," 2) "more effective use of these educational resources and technologies," and 3) "pedagogical improvement and greater educational knowledge." Ideally, it would be desirable that all will occur simultaneously and synergistically, from local educational innovations at the level of faculty and lectures through global knowledge sharing.

Furthermore, if "opening up education" proceeds, more educational resources would become shareable, accessible, and adaptable for everyone. If faculty members and students share "trial and error in teaching and learning," they would be able to teach and learn more efficiently and effectively building upon each other's prior knowledge and experiences. This would also help avoid "repetitive mistakes," and make more time and energies available for educational innovation. Consequently, the speed of educational evolution will be accelerated both locally and globally.

Needs for Cultural Transformation, Developing Support Infrastructure, and Building Communities of Practice

The emergence and evolution of the Internet and multimedia technologies has made possible "open sharing of educational resources and course contents" in ways previously impossible with print media. However, even this emerging new movement, not having communities with the culture of "improving education quality" would be just like "ploughing the field and forgetting the seeds." When developing such culture, each university (or department) may start with "systematic reforms." For example, the "effort toward making pedagogy more effective" may be included as a subject of the evaluation for promotion and salary raise of faculty members. The more the scholarship of teaching and learning becomes pervasive, the more American colleges and universities try to place higher values on faculty's achievements in educational practice, in addition to their achieve-

ments in research, for the evaluation of faculty in the tenure system. Also, at some universities, faculty members are encouraged to "investigate into the effectiveness of their own pedagogy and improve it" and voluntarily report out the outcomes, and their work may be recognized through reward systems such as "educational practice awards." For instance, it is possible to extend this kind of evaluation on educational achievements to the area of "making own educational resources openly public, or improving existing open educational resources created by other universities and faculty members," and this attempt would be significant and worthwhile.

In higher education, activities such as scholarly writing and publishing and pursuing new research topics, are generally valued in the faculty reward system. However, given higher education's penchant for originality above all else, adapting or improving another's educational resources and tools is rarely understood to be a creative, valuable contribution. Thus, while researchers continue to build on the work of others in their disciplinary research and advance it collectively, teaching is still broadly regarded as "a private, highly territorial enterprise." If there are no sufficient incentives for faculty to use and enrich open educational resources and tools to transform their teaching and student learning, pedagogical practice will always struggle to advance.

Although these systematic approaches result positive effect on bringing forward educational quality improvement efforts at each university, the impact still remains limited in higher education as a whole. In order to make greater impact, it would be necessary for individual universities to jointly create a "state of balance between competition and collaboration" where universities compete with each other to improve their quality as educational institutions, and yet be open, to form greater communities in which mutual learning occurs through open sharing of knowledge and information about teaching and learning.

In recent years, cross-cultural exchanges and the advancement of science and technology have been accelerated partly due to increasing global traffic of people, products, and information caused by the progress in transportation and information communication systems and technologies. This has also driven stiffer international competition among nations and corporations. However, in general, opening up and sharing knowledge and information has certainly more positive impacts rather than negative ones on our cultures and lives.

Looking at higher education from this perspective, in the field of research, knowledge and information has been opened up and global "communities of knowledge" have been formed; on the other hand, in the field of education, we are still in a "secluded situation." To make it even worse, this "secluded situation" exists in all the levels of "faculty," "university," and "nation." At the end of Edo period, secluded Japan was opened up by foreign countries lead by the United States, largely being pressured by their "military power." Likewise, technology seems to become "disruptive" power for "opening up and sharing knowledge" in higher education. Whether we are able to build a newly cultured community powered by this "tailwind" or not would be a vital and imminent challenge for the future of higher education innovation in Japan.

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Chapter 6

Mutual Faculty Development through Technology: The development of MOST and its future directions

Hiroyuki Sakai

To improve and advance the quality of higher education in Japan, many teaching improvement and faculty development activities based on the idea of "mutuality" have been implemented at diverse levels from individual classroom practices to the inter-university educational training courses. The common goal of these activities is to build communities and networks among teaching professionals that are contextually relevant and conducive to generating new insights through the sharing of practical knowledge and experience related to the advancement of higher education. However, while these activities are rich in practical knowledge and deserve to be shared among faculty members, they sometimes get buried in day-to-day professional life; even though they are shared via various media, these experiences remain in isolated pockets within academia. ICT (Information and Communication Technology) holds the promise of making such practical knowledge visible to fellow professionals, so that they can be organized and utilized as intellectual resources with easy access for those involved in faculty development. As the government has recently statutorily mandated faculty development, many institutions have gained a newfound enthusiasm to conduct such activities, although their efficacy is often questionable. On the other hand, there is a limit as to how much an individual faculty member or a single institution can achieve in terms of improving current teaching practices. A substantial part of pedagogical issues should be tackled cooperatively and collaboratively within academia. By providing an online space where faculty members can work together across institutional boundaries, faculty development and educational improvement practices can be implemented more efficiently and effectively while reducing individual burdens.

As already mentioned in this book, the Center for the Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education at Kyoto University (CPEHE) has been conducting various projects in order to build a core for faculty development at four different levels: institutional, regional, national and international. One of our projects aims at building an online environment to support and promote daily faculty development and educational improvement activities based on the idea of mutuality, and to develop and implement effective training programs with the help of such a system. In this chapter, we discuss the background of this novel online FD support system, named 'MOST', and its potential development in the future.

1 Higher Education Network and Web-Based Class Observation

Our center has been operating the "Higher Education Network" as a portal toward realizing mutual faculty development online (http://www.highedu.kyoto-u.ac.jp/edunet/). This website is comprised of three programs: (1) The "Database of University Class Practices" (since 2003), (2) "Archive and Review: Kyoto University Conference on Higher Education" (since 2006), and (3) "Web-based Peer Review of Teaching System" (since 2006). It has 1,300 to 1,500 accesses a month mainly from higher education institutions in the country.

The "Database of University Class Practices" is a showcase of distinctive university class practices and faculty development activities. It introduces projects developed by practitioners themselves, and includes a variety of information such as the particular context of a case, educational challenges, and reflections on specific practices. "Archive and Review: Kyoto University Conference on Higher Education" is an online PDF repository of individual research presentations given at the Kyoto University Conference on Higher Education hosted annually by our center. It also presents expert reviews on practical trends in each field in the form of academic papers and practical reports. Users of this website see it as a static repository of higher education research; they make use of the content by incorporating parts of it into their own practices, and gain insights from the particular contexts of cases that may interest them. In other words, the archive is a unidirectional conduit of information and knowledge related to faculty development and classroom improvement.

Peer review of class teaching has been conducted at our center since 1996 as part of the mutual training among faculty members on university class prac-

tices. The Web-based Peer Review of Teaching is an online system created to provide a space for peer observations and reviews of classroom teaching in an active participatory form. There are a few examples of ICT-enabled open class observation and peer review of teaching in Japan: (1) the "Open Class Week System" at the University of Marketing and Distribution Sciences, which supports the exchange of comments between teachers and observers and provides online access to the archive (Minaki et al. 2006, in Japanese); and (2) "FD Commons" at Tokyo University of Agriculture and Technology, where participants during a class observation session provide real-time annotations using tablet PCs for use in later discussions among peers (Kato et al, 2009, in Japanese). Both examples are systems that support peer observation and review of teaching within each individual institution. On the other hand, our Web-based Peer Review of Teaching system aims to form a network among faculty members across universities, who can meet online and exchange their viewpoints and interpretations of class practice.

Web-based Peer Review of Teaching is a system for registered faculty members to observe video records of class practices and to share their views in the discussion forum set up for each class. As of the end of the 2009 academic year, about 50 faculty members from different institutions, disciplines and levels of teaching experience have participated. As shown in Figure 6.1, the main screen of the system is comprised of video clips about the classroom, the class outline, downloadable resources, and a link to the discussion board. The primary feature of this system is the dual-viewpoint video recording showing the teacher on one screen (left) and students on the other in order to observe the interactions between the teacher and the students during the class. The 90-minute-long class is divided into six segments. Participants can select any segment they want to observe. Based on the notes and comments posted on the first day of the discussion and the video recordings, participants can discuss the class online for two weeks. When a comment is posted on the discussion forum, it will be sent to all participants on the mailing list so that they would not have to repeatedly log in to the system. The Web-based Peer Review of Teaching system is restricted to members only and registration requires verification of a member's real name.

Figure 6.1 Screen capture of Web-based Peer Review of Teaching system

Conducting peer observation and review online has advantages to both teachers and participants because participants can exchange opinions with faculty members from different universities, academic backgrounds and levels of teaching experience and it is not restricted by time or place. On the other hand, experience with this system has revealed some challenges as described below.

In web-based class observation, participants reflect on and become aware of the particular context of their own teaching through observing class videos and getting involved in online discussions (Sakai et al., 2008, in Japanese). The goal

of online discussion is not to forge consensus among the participants on a certain topic. Instead, it is to provide participants with an opportunity to learn from one another by exchanging interpretations and views on the significance of classes offered, while they acquire specific pedagogical knowledge and knowhow related to actual course design and teaching methods. As such, their learning as a result of participation is contextualized for individual faculty members. While the same can be said in face-to-face class observation practices, it may be difficult for participants to gain an actual feeling of "growth" and "improvement" even though they may be aware of their own learning. Furthermore, although new awareness and reflection arising from participation is difficult to articulate, summarizing the practices and learning of each participant in a visible way will enable them to not only share within the community but also broadcast the results beyond it. This function of publishing and sharing of project results had not been incorporated into the design of our system.

The second challenge is the issue of scale of participation. There were about 20 participants at the initial stage of the Web-based Peer Review of Teaching project and we expected to expand the number of participants by gradually recruiting new registered members. Although faculty members from different institutions and disciplinary fields and with various levels of teaching experience have joined the community as the project progressed, the nature of participant involvement in discussions and the quality of discussions began to change. The number of contributors and posts did not increase, while the discussions became extensive and fragmented as opportunities to exchange views between teachers and particular participants increased. This suggests some limitations of our plan of simply expanding the number of participants in a monolithic community like this system, and explains the difficulty of posting ideas and exchanging opinions when personal acquaintances are few in a community made up of members from different institutional and disciplinary backgrounds, even if the actual names and affiliations of the participants are disclosed.

Furthermore, it is impossible to provide a great variety of class practices that would respond to the needs and issues related to class improvement held by faculty members, because the number of contributions is limited in a single community. As Baraniuk (2008) mentioned, "intellectual ties are often much stronger between colleagues in the same discipline but at different institutions."

A community organized according to disciplines or by teachers having the same pedagogical interests may bring about more focused activities and discussions. It is necessary to consider where the purpose lies when conducting online activities, and what kind of support is needed for such activities. We can deal with broader educational issues by providing a space in which a variety of educational improvement activities that would address participants' actual needs and concerns can be conducted. This accelerates the process of accumulating more practices and making them more visible so that they may be shared among participants.

2 Realizing Mutual Faculty Development Online

In addition to the issues described in the previous section, we made reference to the activities and projects at the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching based on the concept of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SOTL) and the foundation's Knowledge Media Laboratory (KML), which supported such activities using technologies with the perspective of inter-university collaboration in educational improvement and faculty development and its ICT utilization. The KML, as stated in the previous chapter, has conducted various projects studying how technology can support processes in the activities of SOTL practices (Iiyoshi & Richardson, 2008). The laboratory has already brought the project to a close, but it provides many ideas and suggestions as a model of practicing and supporting faculty development utilizing ICT. Below is a summary of prerequisites for building an online environment for mutual faculty development based on the knowledge and experiences of the Foundation and other initiatives in the U.S.

First, it is necessary to make educational practices visible so that they can be shared and peer-reviewed. As Hatch et al. (2004) argue, there are "three critical dimensions of teaching and learning that need to be captured in order to make pedagogical expertise visible so that others can build upon it." They are: "course materials," "student learning," and "faculty reflection."[1] Furthermore, Hatch et al. point out that in making such practices visible, its content should be made visually accessible to people; they point out "how difficult it can be for viewers to make sense of complex materials unless they are presented in carefully organized and readable representations." Based on such ideas, the KML developed an online tool called "KEEP Toolkit" in order to support the process of making practi-

cal knowledge in education visible. In KEEP Toolkit, templates structured for the various purposes of faculty development, such as class improvement, can be used as prompts for articulation of practices and reflections on teaching and learning. By publishing snapshots on the web, readers can create new practical knowledge. To promote the circulation of information, the KEEP Toolkit includes a way for users to attach a Creative Commons license for each snapshot.[2]

Secondly, the practical knowledge represented in expressions and structures useful to others may be made public to colleagues and academic communities for mutual examination. In order to realize this online, it is necessary to build a web-based environment for collaborative activities within academic communities. According to Bass and Bernstein (2008), collaborative activities in academic communities deal with themes such as "innovations," "curriculum reforms," and "dimensions of learning." Among these, curriculum improvement may be relatively public within an institution when it takes place at the departmental level. As they point out, when considering the paradigm shift from teaching to learning, faculty members have to think beyond their own class to the broader curriculum from the perspective of student learning and growth throughout the four years. For example, the University of Nebraska-Lincoln uses course portfolios as a tool for facilitating such activities and conducts peer reviews of teaching among the faculty members (Bernstein et al., 2006). The other two themes may be addressed by promoting the advancement of innovation and collaboration toward problem solving by faculty communities beyond institutional boundaries. If we broaden our view of inter-university collaboration, a wider range of themes may be included such as class improvement and material development in a particular disciplinary field, or joint development of faculty development programs. For faculty communities coming from different institutions and for relatively large communities within an institution, an online space for their collaboration and information sharing may have high-utility value for overcoming the restrictions of time and place that are inherent in face-to-face activities.

Thirdly, the terms "public" and "private" have two different meanings with regard to community: the degree of freedom in joining an activity, and the possibility of accessing resources. It is not always necessary to make every activity within a community open to public view because individuals and communities can crystallize their experience through these activities into practical knowledge

and share them with academic communities at large. Since closed communities are conducive to conducting more in-depth activities, it is thought that knowledge sharing can be more efficient that way. Whether or not to limit access to community activities should be decided by the community leader or by the consensus of participants. Also, the groups to which access is given, the extent to which the results are disclosed, and the licensing conditions on which they are published should be decided by the authors themselves. It is desirable for the latest online platforms to be able to provide a degree of freedom on the level of disclosure of community activities and outcomes.

Finally, "distributed" practical knowledge in higher education made public by individual faculty members or communities should be organized for easy access and interlinked across individuals or communities in order for them to be mutually learnt. Visible records of activities will develop into shareable resources that may fulfill the needs of many faculty members if we make them open to unfettered access. Thus, it is necessary to build an environment in which resources containing a variety of activities are easily accessible and interconnected. For example, the KML offers an online support-environment called the Gallery of Teaching and Learning (http://gallery.carnegiefoundation.org/) in which many snapshots are categorized according to their disciplines, pedagogical themes, and the nature of their programs. However, such kind of online gallery can only be possible after collecting a considerable amount of sharable resources. Therefore, at this early stage in our project, attempts to support content creation based on existing activities and professional connections will take precedence over content organization.

We constructed the online system "MOST" (Mutual Online System for Teaching & Learning: https://online-tl.org) as an online space for mutual training of faculty members. Launched in November 2009, it was designed based on a few important considerations such as the representation of practical knowledge geared for sharing among faculty members, the supportive role of online communities, and the mutual connection of represented practical knowledge.

3 MOST: Online Faculty Development Support System

In this section, an outline of the functions of MOST will be introduced. In order to make practical knowledge of teaching improvement visible, it was decided to

place KEEP Toolkit at the functional core of MOST.[3] To incorporate it into our system, the KEEP Toolkit was localized into Japanese and its database replaced by PEAR: MDB2 for security purposes after consultations with the original system developers at KML. Sakai, an open-source learning management system (LMS), was chosen as the operating environment in which faculty members can collaborate and create communities in MOST. Sakai 2.5.4, provided by Ja Sakai Community (http://confluence.ja-sakai.org/), where its Japanese version was developed, was customized before deployment. During the customizing process, some of the tools inside Sakai provided for classroom support were hidden, whereas tools that support collaborative activities were implemented. As Hatch et al. (2004) pointed out, an LMS can be a digital repository of SOTL. One of the reasons to adopt Sakai as the online environment for faculty development and teaching improvement is to prepare for its potential integration with other information systems that might be deployed within the institution. The synchronization of security authentication between Sakai and KEEP Toolkit is achieved by the SOAP protocol, which uses the user's e-mail address as the common token. Target users of MOST are faculty members across the country who are involved in the improvement and the promotion of higher education, non-academic staff members also involved in these activities, and graduate students who want to become university teachers in the future. An individual meeting any one of these criteria can create an account at MOST upon invitation from a registered user.

Figure 6.2 Screen capture of MOST (with KEEP Toolkit in use)

In MOST, there is an individual working space set up for each registered member called "My Workspace." Activity spaces for online communities to which members belong can be accessed via tabs on the screen (Figure 6.2). KEEP Toolkit can be used as a tool on "My Workspace." Figure 6.2 shows how to edit texts in a snapshot with the help of the KEEP Toolkit. Accessing through a direct link, KEEP Toolkit can be used as a single independent tool without logging into MOST.

To connect activity outcomes or project contents written by individual users and communities, and to support effective collaboration within the communities in MOST, the following customizations have been implemented to Sakai: First, to maintain existing real-life connections between users and to broaden those connections through MOST, features such as "invite" (for inviting new users), "colleague" (for identifying working partners), and "visitor" (for showing access statistics on individual profile pages) were implemented. For example, users who have become "colleagues" by invitation or request can access each other's restricted articles created in MOST. It would also be possible for them to touch upon new teaching improvement ideas or broaden their professional network through the listings of communities, colleagues, and published snapshots shown on other members' profile windows. Furthermore, registered users can freely set up online communities in MOST. By specifying the degree of openness of the community, users can opt for a closed community that limits access, or an open community where users interested in the project can freely participate. Within these communities, tools such as "Note" for exchanging information and activity reports among the participants, "Forum" for discussion, "Resource" for sharing electronic files, "Wiki" for organizing information, and "Message" for personal communication are available for use.[4] Functions in Sakai have been tailored to make them as intuitively accessible as possible to the large number of faculty and staff members expected to use it. Indeed, having to climb a steep learning curve in order to use state-of-the-art technologies may actually hinder participation.

Furthermore, we have developed a tool that would make the aforementioned "W-COS (Web-based Class Observation System)" available to the communities in MOST. The snapshot template for W-COS practice is also available to members through MOST. Since W-COS itself is a simple tool for commenting

and opinion exchange based on video recordings, it can be applied to other purposes of faculty development and teaching improvement beyond peer observation of class.

MOST can thus serve as a space for publishing and sharing project results through the creation of snapshots, and can also be a space for scholars and teacher communities to conduct collaborative activities on faculty development and teaching improvement. By fully utilizing the dual functionality of MOST, we can advance the state of online faculty development.

4 Examples of the Snapshots

It is necessary to create model cases of various educational practices utilizing MOST and KEEP Toolkit for future use, but there are not yet many cases of activities conducted within the communities in MOST. Here will be introduced one of the initial examples of snapshot creation utilizing KEEP Toolkit.[5] Following is the case at Aino University (Refer to Chapter 3 in this book) utilizing templates from KEEP Toolkit and snapshot examples from the Carnegie Foundation as a reference for putting data and contents into a snapshot document with particular attention paid to the composition and the placement of content boxes (Figure 6.3).

The Department of Physical Therapy at Aino University has adapted the Objective Structural Clinical Examination (OSCE), commonly utilized in the field of medicine and dentistry, to their field of physical therapy. They incorporated OSCE Reflection (OSCE-R) into their curriculum in 2007, including students' group work and reflection activities. This snapshot is a documentation of the improvement and transformation of the clinical abilities and skills of their students engendered by the implementation of OSCE-R, and the faculty development activities through collaboration among faculty members within the department that naturally ensued. Following are points considered by the author during the creation of this snapshot.

First, contents described in each box and the composition of the boxes were examined in order to keep this snapshot from becoming one of the mere simple showcases of faculty development activities. Comprising the basic layout, the boxes include "Background and issues for conducting this project," "Implementation and procedures," "Student transformation in learning," "Impact on

the department members," and "Implications gained from this practice." Simple and concise expressions were used in each of the boxes. Also, the snapshot was created in a way that would allow readers to comprehend the entire content within a few minutes. There are hyperlinks on the snapshot for technical terms within the field, supplementary explanations, example videos of course practice, and external webpages for reference so that readers can have access to further information according to their interests and needs. Downloadable electronic files as evidence of change in student performance, quantitative and qualitative data obtained in surveys and interviews, and students' reflective comments collected in the practice have also been made available. In this way, the snapshot becomes a kind of 'primer' to the project. Moreover, this snapshot is published under the Creative Commons "Attribution-Non-Commercial-ShareAlike" license, under the conditions of which visitors may freely utilize the contents. After the snapshot was created, the author commented that "I began without reading the operation manual (of the KEEP Toolkit), but I had no trouble creating it," "Just giving a description about the incident may become subjective, so I included some evidences in the hyper-links," "I feel that by introducing more projects from other universities, we will be able to see what is going on at other institutions as they are progressing, and this would be an effective space for pedagogical training beyond the disciplinary fields."

In connection with this snapshot, a poster session was held at Kansai Faculty Development Association in April 2010 with the purpose of exchanging information relating to the current situation and challenges faced regarding faculty development activities implemented institutionally at affiliate institutions. The majority of the 17 affiliate institutions, including Aino University, created their posters in the form of snapshots so that they could be shared online as activity outcomes. Based on the snapshot created by Aino University, a template for "institutional faculty development portfolio" (Figure 6.4) was developed prior to other snapshots created. This template was created with the purpose of conducting peer reviews on faculty development practices implemented institutionally at each affiliate university. The template is composed of boxes named "Background of the project," "Strategic position of the project," "Design and procedure of practice," "Impact on students and faculty members," "Implications learned from the project," and "Project perspective." These boxes can be customized ac-

cording to the circumstances of each university. Although it is necessary for this template to be continuously refined through the activities of the association, the sharing of pedagogical issues and views on each other's activities will be facilitated by utilizing these common templates.

Figure 6.3 Example of a snapshot (by Associate Professor Tomoko Hirayama at Aino University)

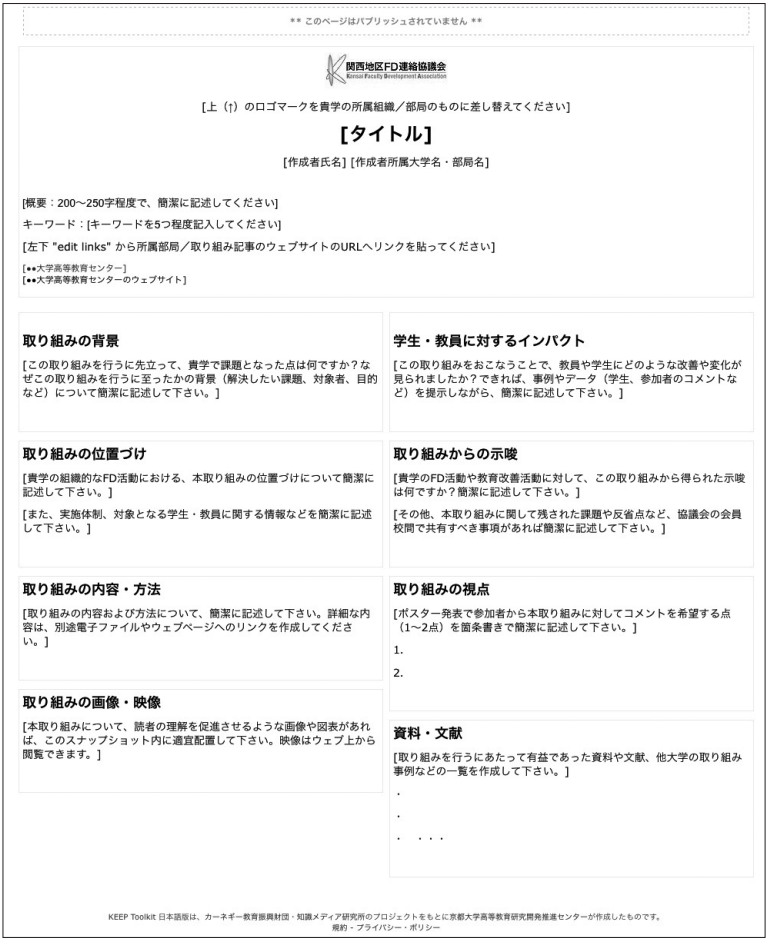

Figure 6.4 The institutional faculty development portfolio template

Featured snapshots created in MOST, such as the institutional faculty development at Aino University, will be made public in the future. A snapshot on web-based class observation practices and another snapshot on a case of class improvement by academic staff working collaboratively can be currently accessed at the website. The former snapshot provides participants with basic information concerning the upcoming class demonstration before the online discussion begins. Comments were also added by the teacher from the demonstration class summarizing the results after the discussion. In this way, participants can

understand the background, purpose, and issues in relation to the class before observing it so that they can be more focused during the observation. Project results can also be made public to people outside the community by publishing snapshots of the teacher's reflections. The latter snapshot is a case study of class improvement involving the conversion to a more interactive course design to enhance students' active learning. Written separately by both the teacher and a pedagogical researcher who worked in collaboration with one another, the two snapshots present both of their perspectives respectively. The possibility exists for this case study to be applied to class improvement activities that involve multiple faculty members, for example comparing classes under the same title offered by different teachers, or in the case of a single course where classes are divided by a number of faculty members teaching in turns. At present, we are at the stage of accumulating snapshots written in Japanese. Based on the experiences we learned from the pilot projects, we will be able to provide a more useful and supportive environment for faculty members who have newly joined MOST by continuously developing templates catering to different purposes.

5 Future Directions

Based on issues arising from our past activities as well as on precedents we learned from the initiatives taken in the United States, MOST was built as a space for supporting mutual faculty development online. We are currently at the stage of accumulating contributions of educational improvement practices that utilize MOST and KEEP Toolkit, and at the same time inquiring how MOST can effectively and efficiently be used to contribute to the activities of faculty development and teaching improvement that will lead to substantial and mutual faculty development. In other words, we need to tackle the challenge of how MOST can support and advance such existing activities and how it can be applied to more effective projects. As Brown & Duguid (1996) noted, "The Net isn't a good place to form communities," "though it's a very good place to keep them going." The starting point would be to carefully examine programs that effectively utilize MOST, and how it should be adapted to existing projects and activities that take place in online communities whose members have real-life connections.

Lastly, we will here describe possible future issues related to the advancement of MOST. Snapshots should ideally be made concise so that others are

able to understand the outline of a project in a short time; at the same time, quality should be maintained and improved for it to become a useful and sharable resource for higher education. In research, the introduction of a peer review process by specialists in relevant fields assured the quality of academic papers. However, this kind of strict peer review process may be unsuited to and close examination almost impossible in teaching improvement and faculty development activities that are daily addressed in response to individual contexts. For example, a website for creating and sharing online teaching materials, Connexions (Baraniuk, 2008), has been developed with a multi-layered peer review structure called the "Lenses", which assigns users to different levels according to their academic organizations, affiliation, and individual access pattern such as the number of times they visit and use materials. It attempts to improve and assure the quality of teaching materials by peer reviews in a community-based, ex post facto manner that is different from conventional review processes. Regarding the snapshots in MOST, community participants mutually examine the implementation of plans so that quality can be improved through feedback. Implementation should also be considered of a structure of multi-layered peer reviews in the vein of Connexions.

Secondly, in addition to publishing ex post facto reports of project results in the form of snapshots, the key challenge toward further developing MOST would be to develop new faculty training programs that yield more effective and efficient activities by organically linking activities on MOST with face-to-face teaching improvement activities and faculty development. For example, in the Carnegie Foundation's CASTL program,[6] individual faculty members make each stage of the yearlong project visible in the form of snapshots and each process is shared by faculty communities in between face-to-face meetings. Also, as Bernstein et al. (2006) mentioned with regard to class improvement utilizing course portfolios created by teacher communities organized within the campus, "typically these electronic forums work well for larger teams, when it can be difficult to schedule a meeting that everyone can attend." How to incorporate online activities into projects according to the size of the communities and the nature of their activities should be carefully considered. In particular, the activities of faculty communities that involve collaborations across institutions may utilize online space such as MOST to effectively supplement face-to-face meetings. Fur-

thermore, it will be essential for faculty members from centers for teaching and learning as well as project leaders to act in a capacity to maintain and initiate these online activities.

Finally, one should consider the sustainability of MOST as an environment that can continuously support and facilitate the qualitative improvement of higher education. It goes without saying that constant funding and continuous improvement of the system that reflects the trends of evolving technologies will be required for maintaining the system. Before even taking this into consideration, however, MOST must first grow into a more valuable space for higher education in order to produce more effective and substantial educational improvement for faculty members, communities and institutions utilizing MOST. A repository that consists of a wide range of practical and shareable knowledge in higher education is surely something that everyone would welcome. However, in order to build such common resources, our next major challenge will be to establish a culture of "open education" (see previous chapter), where the mutual and interactive contributions of faculty members will be indispensable.

Notes

1 The Database of University Class Practices and the Web-based Peer Review of Teaching have dealt with all three of these dimensions. The latter, however, had not put them into a visible form available to others.

2 A flexible license system, positioned between conventional copyright and public domain (renunciation of rights), which gives content users a certain degree of freedom (http://creativecommons.jp/).

3 Refer to the previous chapter for the developmental process of the KEEP Toolkit and the case study utilizing KEEP Toolkit at the Carnegie Foundation. KEEP Toolkit became open source in 2006 and has been provided as an open source through SourceForge since 2008. It is presently managed by the developer's community (http://sourceforge.net/projects/keeptoolkit/). MOST adopted the latest version of KEEP Toolkit 2.5.

4 "Note" and "Forum" were respectively customized out of the Blogger tool and the Forum tool from Sakai. The " " in this chapter indicates the names of tools.

5 The snapshots introduced in this chapter are viewable in "Showcase of faculty development practices" on the MOST website.

6 Representative higher education program at the Carnegie Foundation, "Carnegie Academy for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (CASTL)." Refer to Chapter 5 in this book.

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Part IV

WHO ENGAGES IN FACULTY DEVELOPMENT AND FOR WHAT PURPOSE?

Chapter 7

Determining the "Who" and the "How" of Faculty Development Promotion: An Examination of the Specialist Model and the Collegial model

Mana Taguchi

1 Faculty Development as an Imported Concept

The imported concept of faculty development lacks a natural or succinct translation in Japanese and so has been adopted as is, most commonly represented by the abbreviation FD. It is the common perception among parties involved that faculty development, which was imposed from above by the force of law and mandated throughout Japan, is a burdensome and unpopular policy—something to be avoided if at all possible. I believe that the reason behind this unpopularity stems from the limited definition of faculty development as an effort to upgrade instructional skills by the Ministry of Science and Education; faculty development is an umbrella term describing Faculty's systematic effort aimed at improving both the course content and instructional skills" (Ministry of Science and Education Report, 1996, p. 6).

Interestingly, such a definition of faculty development is not as common in America where the concept was developed. Riegle (1987) observes that for more than a century, faculty development has been associated with Sabbatical and he indicates the increased scope and diversity of the contemporary term's meanings in matrix form in Table 1. Riegle understands faculty development may utilize any combination of the following terms: 1) *Instructional Development*, 2) *Professional Development*, 3) *Organizational Development*, 4) *Career Development*, 5) *Personal Development*. Additionally, the term "development" could refer to any combination of the following: 1) *Improvement* emphasizes general enhancement of skills even when there is no evidence or allegation of incompetence or need to change, 2) *Remediation* emphasizes the need for rectifying incompetence or updating the outdated, 3) *Retraining* emphasizes modification

due to programmatic revisions or changes, 4) *Rejuvenation* emphasizes overcoming stagnation and burnout (Riegle, 1987, p. 54).

Table 7.1 Possible conceptions of faculty development

	Improvement	Remediation	Retraining	Rejuvenation
Instructional	1	2	3	4
Professional	5	6	7	8
Organizational	9	10	11	12
Career	13	14	15	16
Personal	17	18	19	20

Riegle (1987),p55

The definition of faculty development as coined by the Professional and Organizational Development (POD) Network in Higher Education, which was established in America in 1975, can be depicted as in graph 1. In other words, "faculty development" refers to A) Faculty Development, B) Instructional Development, C) Organizational Development, or combination of all three. Within Faculty Development, the support component for the individual faculty member comprises of the following aspects: 1) the faculty member as a teacher (e.g. classroom management and student evaluation, presentation skills and student interaction skills), 2) the faculty member as a scholar and professional (e.g. the researcher support roles comprised of competitive grant writing, publication of research, as well as administrative paperwork and professional career planning), 3) the faculty member as a person (e.g. the personal support roles comprised of personal health maintenance, interpersonal relationship skills building and stress/time management). (http://www.podnetwork.org/).

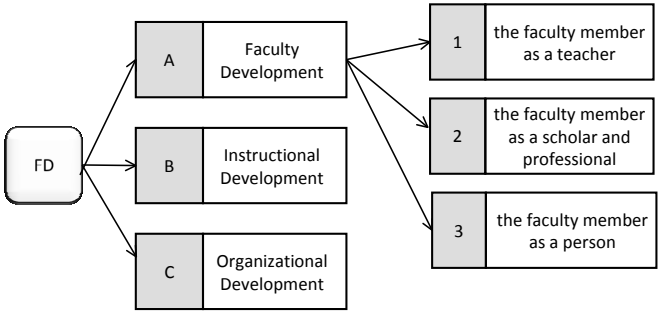


Figure 7.1 Defining Faculty Development in Terms of POD

It is, of course, imperative to be cognizant of this broad range of faculty development components, but by the same token it must be remembered that it was not until the 1960s that faculty development really caught the attention of those involved with higher education in America. Driving this new interest in faculty development as a means of improving the curriculum and pedagogy were such external pressures as widespread student backlash at the preoccupation among faculty with research and publishing, criticism from the community because of the low competency graduates demonstrated and finally economic decline. There is now a movement to replace the negative connotations of "faculty development" by replacing it with a new expression "educational development."

Regardless of what terminology is used or of the particular details surrounding faculty development's adoption by the Japanese educational system, given that faculty development has become official policy, it is now important to consider how best to interpret and apply this foreign borrowing at the individual school or institution level. The implementation rate for faculty development in Japan in 2008 stood at 97%,[1] and a 2009 study by the Ministry of Science and Education found that the number of colleges and universities which have established formal centers for the implementation of faculty development (curriculum and instructional development), as well as those colleges and universities which had established other sorts of internal organizations to implement faculty development reached nearly 80%. The breakdown of colleges/universities which had established formal centers for implementation of faculty development is as follows: 1) national universities—50, 2) public colleges/universities—18, 3) private colleges/universities—114. The breakdown of colleges/universities which had established other sorts of internal organizations for implementation of faculty development is as follows: 1) national—24, 2) public—46, 3) private—354. In this way, even as the number of organizations devoted to the promotion of faculty development increases, the particular role(s) each specific organ performs in pursuit of this policy predictably varies. A multitude of initiatives are well underway throughout Japan which are adapted to both the larger context of Japanese culture and the narrower context of the local institution.

The aim of this paper is to examine and evaluate the differences in two theoretical models of faculty development implementation—the *specialist model* and the *collegial model*—both of which revolve around the question of how the

key component, i.e. the faculty, is viewed. In particular, while touching on the two support models of the *supplementary model of support* and the *self-generating model of support*, I intend to emphasize the crucial importance of the formation of an educators' network.

2 The Specialist Model and the Collegial Model

I was first introduced to faculty development while an intern in 1999 at Kyoto University's Research Center for Higher Education. It was the first institution of higher education in Japan to engage in systematic study of classroom instruction through an open class called "Education and Lifecycle" and a seminar via internet called "Kyoto-Keio Joint seminar Project." With the classroom as the laboratory, it was a time of experimenting with college-level pedagogy using novel methodologies. It was also a time when faculty development was considered to be the cornerstone to a new age of enlightenment within higher education—a time in which faculty development was forcefully diffused among educators by a top-down approach in the form of lectures by specialist advocates in the field and in which the use of student evaluations began to grow in popularity.

Subsequently, from August, 2003 to August, 2004, I was fortunate to have the opportunity to become a visiting researcher at Harvard University's Derek Bok Center for Teaching and Learning where I studied the internal operations and programs of the Center as well as of nearby colleges and universities. With a rather limited background in the routine specifics of Kyoto University's mutual training model of faculty development, as well as ad hoc faculty development seminars organized by other universities, I was quite surprised by the presence of staff at one American Faculty Development Center who averred that "we are the professionals, and it is our job to improve your (the educators') instructional competency." Then, in 2005, I had the opportunity of participating in the previously mentioned POD (Taguchi, 2007a) and learned about the occupation of faculty developer.

Based on these experiences and on the observable differences between America and Japan in the composition of the Center staffs, the services which they provide, as well as how the faculty members are viewed, I schematized the two models with the following titles: the "specialist model" and the "collegial model" (Taguchi, 2005). The specialist model defines each member of the col-

lege/university faculty as a specialist in research but a novice or apprentice in didactics. The collegial model defines each member of the college/university faculty as a professional in both research and didactics (Taguchi, 2007b). The collegial model conceives of the college educator as a reflective practitioner who successfully resolves through reflection challenges on a case-by-case basis amidst the subtle and often complex changes in the teaching environment (Schön, 1983). In the specialist model, the educator is seen as being the beneficiary of the specialist's expertise. In the majority of cases, the faculty developer does not belong to the faculty. Instead, the faculty developer proffers his or her services on a contractual basis, being completely detached from the circumstances particular to each local institution. While there are those faculty developers who have experience as an educator, there are also fresh young graduates who lack this vital experience.

At the time when I was studying these two models, faculty development specialists were virtually absent from Japanese universities' Education Centers. For that reason, open classes and similar practices of faculty development were conducted entirely in-house with members from a designated committee. Faculty development was most typically spearheaded by a researcher somewhat arbitrarily chosen, and most educators affiliated with local Education Centers would not have designated themselves as education specialists.

Some of these Education Centers perhaps deliberately and methodically pursued the collegial model,[2] but most Centers, as Matsushita points out (2008), followed the collegial model because of the lack of faculty development specialists in Japan.

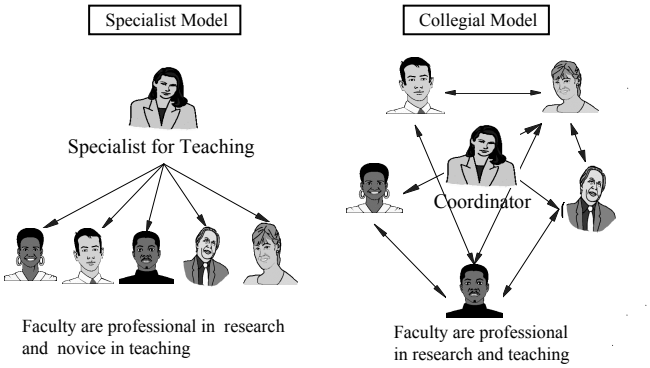


Figure 7.2 Specialist model and collegial model (Taguchi, 2007b, p. 59)

3 The Necessity and Limitations of the Service Provider

The implementation of faculty development in Japan has become mandatory since 2008. With the tremendous momentum that accrues from official institutionalization, faculty development centers and related organs of implementation began their steady climb toward current levels; and a system was devised in short order with the concerted effort of related parties to facilitate the new policy's adoption by university educators. For instance, Dr. Sato of Ehime University who also participated in the 2005 POD session and who has been recognized as the first faculty developer in Japan[3] is affiliated with the Office of Education Planning at Ehime University. That office has posted an impressive record of new services which are available to faculty in order to develop their professional skills. As one example, a consultant gathers students' feedback in a particular class (Midterm Student Feedback, abbr. MSF). Other examples of support services include videotaping the class, class consulting in the form of syllabus creation support, and curriculum consulting in the form of survey results from both students and faculty members regarding issues with course offerings at the faculty as well as department levels. Ehime University's Office of Education Planning offers orientations to new teachers, faculty development/staff development seminars and faculty development refresher courses and systematically rates programs from point of initial proposal (level one) to point of full implementation (level five). Looking at simply the faculty development refresher course offerings for 2008, they include the following themes: 1) Basics of the Mass Lecture Format, 2) Pointers for Group Learning, 3) Writing a Clear Syllabus: An Introduction to Class Design, 4) Introduction to Speaking Skills for Lectures, 5) Methods for Stimulating Interest in Low Motivation Listeners, 6) Introduction to Power Point, 7) Classroom Design From a Psychological Perspective, 8) Research-Lab Management Pointers: Building a Mentor-Mentee System (http://web.opar.ehime-u.ac.jp). These initiatives of Ehime University have expanded to virtually all other institutions of higher education in Shikoku and have resulted in the formation of the Shikoku Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (abbr. SPOD). Furthermore, on the heels of the central government's certification as an accredited Core center for education-related joint-use, Ehime University's Office of Education Planning and its various activities are undergoing expansive growth.

At Nagoya University, a guidebook for faculty regarding tips on improving instruction has been in circulation for some time. In March of 2000, a website entitled "Tips Sensei" (Tips Doctor) was made available online as a resource for nonplussed educators and resulted in publication the following year (Ikeda, et. al.). Nagoya University is aggressively developing a variety of tools for current and aspiring educators in an effort to respond to as broad a swath of career development needs as possible. Some examples include seminars for graduate students and post doctorates who wish to teach at the university level, as well as seminars for teaching various disciplines in English. There is also a text for graduate students entitled *A Preparatory Course for University Educators* (Natsume, et al, 2010) and a guidebook for conducting university classes in English (Nakai, 2010). Yamagata University published a handbook for instructional improvement in 2003 entitled *Atto Odoroku Jugyo Kaizen: Yamagata Daigaku Jissen Hen* (Amazing Collection of University Class Teaching at Yamagata University). Innovating with multi-media, the university also produced an entertaining and easily understandable video based on its accumulated experience featuring tips on instructional improvement entitled *Atto Odoroku Daigaku Jugyo NG Shu* (Amazing Collection of University Class Dont's) (http://www.yamagata-u.ac.jp/gakumu/kyouiku/video.htm) which has garnered immense popularity. Kyoto Faculty Development Center represented by Buddhist University developed a cartoon version of faculty development handbook in 2010 and has both published it in book form and posted it online.

New university educators are often weighed down with concern over teaching methods in particular (Taguchi et al, 2007), but the prevailing tendency has been to avail themselves of the advice of their peers and colleagues while working out a solution primarily through their own efforts (Taguchi & Shinto, 2007). However, with the universalization of higher education, the degree of variance in students' academic competence and motivation has become quite pronounced, and expecting educators to resolve such gaping incongruities on their own is clearly unreasonable. As such, there is every reason to believe that demand for services catering to this need will increase.

If such services are aggressively pursued, however, it begs the question of whether faculty development is truly and properly being promoted. The first reason for asking this is the self-obviating absence of any demand for such remedial

services. There is a huge difference between America and Japan regarding the question of how substantively the tenure system operates; but in America, anyway, one of the contextual factors that engendered the faculty developer is the tenure system itself.[4] The decision of whether a non-tenured educator will be able to join a particular faculty is decided by the members of that faculty. Since not only research credentials but also the question of suitability of instruction style is considered upon application for tenure, candidates who feel less certain about the suitability of their teaching style, as well as those who may be prodded on by their senior colleagues, are likely to seek out support services. Personal emphasis upon the research component or the teaching component naturally varies among individual educators intending to pursue tenure, but the important consideration is living up to the expectations of the faculty or, in other words, reaching the expected minimum standard whether explicitly stated or not. Service providers in America are at a point where they are quite effective at providing service to a variety of recognized needs, but this is not yet so in Japan. Because there is no external standard, educators in Japan are left with the complicated process of determining their own standard. That is my reason for stating that simply because faculty development service is available, it is a mistake to assume that the essence of faculty development is being successfully communicated or conveyed.

The second point relates to the fact that the focus of faculty development service tends to be determined according to a narrow definition of faculty development—namely issues touching solely on instructional competence. Faculty development is not intended to be constrained solely to the development of educator's teaching skills. Faculty development, as the name implies, is an effort focused on developing the professionalism of an entire faculty. So what exactly is the function of the term "faculty?" In Japanese, there is an equivalent of "professor," which is "kyoju," but there is not such a tightly corresponding term for "faculty." The term most commonly used in Japanese for "faculty" is "group of professors" (kyoju-dan). However, faculty's function should not be limited to teaching and research. The role of the faculty can reasonably be considered as one of determining qualifications for student applicants and for graduation, as well as one of career counseling. It should also include determining the particulars of the curriculum and the manner of pedagogy to be employed. The only conceivable entity for deliberating and determining the manner of how faculty

develops is the faculty itself. The tenure system mentioned above serves to create and maintain a consistent standard or baseline for the faculty. The tenure system is by nature precisely the same sort of system used by academic associations, in which research is vetted before publishing and in which critical criteria are developed for evaluation by peers. The structure and nature of the "faculty" will ultimately be determined by the members themselves. In that regard, faculty development can only be carried out collaboratively among the peers who comprise the faculty; and what services can be offered from outside to promote faculty development is extremely limited.

4 Two Support Models

To reiterate, it is only the faculty body itself which can properly promote development within its ranks; and while a full set of complementary faculty development services is still lacking in Japan, it is too simplistic to suppose that once that arrangement of faculty development services comes into place that all will be well. The array of problems besetting university education is very wide; and with the broad diversity of students, each with their particular situation, the problems that could be fixed through improved teaching skills is profoundly limited.

Against that backdrop, it is fair to ask the question, "Besides offering various services, what might be necessary to realize Faculty Development?" One idea is to adopt not just the faculty development concept which is designed to enhance an awareness of the faculty as a single entity but to go one step further by importing the American system en masse. I refer specifically to measures such as the tenure system and the evaluation system of teaching. These innovations will likely yield at least measured success. However, the inherent limitations of these policy choices can already be observed in America where they were conceived. It has already been mentioned how the standard for both research and instruction with regard to tenure is set by existing organizations which then becomes the standard for individual aspirants. However, once an applicant for tenure gets past the first stage, even if a warning sign such as low student evaluation were to appear, the remediation depends only on the individual efforts of the educator himself/herself. The largest contingent of clientele at American faculty development centers is educators who are preparing for tenure application, and the fact that tenured educators are considerably less apt to take advantage of faculty

development services reflects the universal weakness in the system common to both America and Japan.

When reality does not meet expectation, support services designed to supplement the shortfall and bring a practitioner up to par might be called the "Supplementary Model of Support." However, when the practitioner finally gets up to a certain standard, the bar must then be lifted in order for the professional development component of faculty development to remain viable. Knowledge and learning continually advance, students continually change and society continually gives birth to new challenges. If the effort to improve higher education is seen as an unending process, then the expectation of "absolute best" must also be viewed as an ever elusive expectation. However, one is left to wonder whether such expectations can be spontaneously generated. It is here that I would like to examine an alternative support model, called "self-generating model of support" (Figure 7.3).

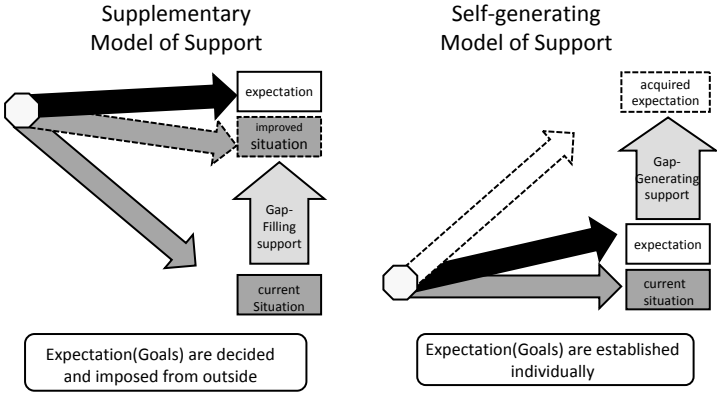
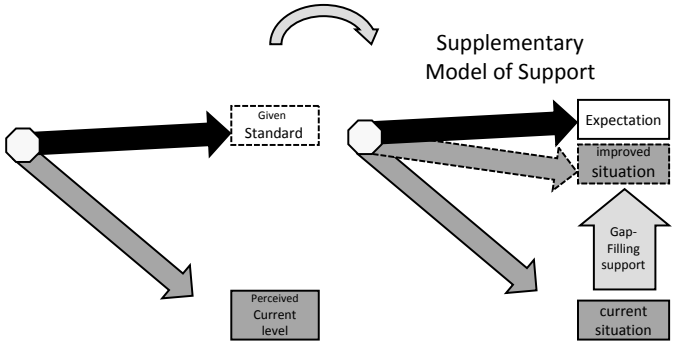


Figure 7.3 Two support models

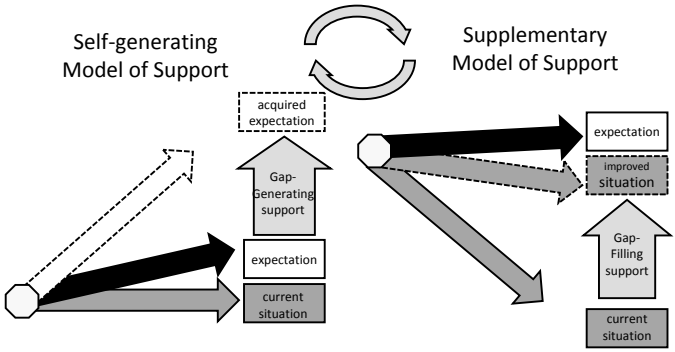
I mentioned earlier that a distinguishing difference between the specialist model of faculty development the collegial model of faculty development lies in how either model construes the entity of the university educator—specifically whether the educator is viewed as an entity expected to move toward a given goal or whether the educator is viewed as an entity who takes it upon him/herself to generate a particular goal. It is possible to accommodate the specialist model of faculty development only within the structure of the supplementary model which

features such standards as PGCHE (a required credential in order to become a university educator) and other national criteria, as well as the tenure system and the system of professional evaluation. In this case, standards are imposed and performance is evaluated from the outside, with the assumption that there will be a full complement of support services to facilitate attainment of stated goals.

Notwithstanding, in the ever evolving world of higher education in which knowledge is continually expanding, it is altogether implausible to assume that someone from outside the academy would be in a position to constantly consider what "absolute best standards" might be. The only imaginable scenario is for members of the academy to continuously set and revisit the standards themselves. In the Collegial model, it is left to the faculty to attain a particular goal. That goal is not a static goal but rather a dynamic one. What might be viewed as an appropriate goal at any given time will be determined by the particular situation and circumstances encompassing any given faculty member; and what is vital for the attainment of these personal goals is the support of the self-generating model. It might be said that the self-generating model of support is support for the creation of a new expectation. Self-generating model of support is particularly emphasized within the collegial model, and when there might arise a discrepancy between the newly emergent expectation and the current situation, then the supplementary model of support naturally becomes appropriate. The self-generating model of support and the supplementary model of support can be viewed as circulatory models, as shown in Figure 7.4.



In case of the Specialist Model



In case of the Collegial Model

Figure 7.4 Relationship of support model between the specialist model and the collegial model

5 The Network Building as Self-generating Model of Support

It is intrinsically difficult to try to describe either the precise nature or methodology of the self-generating model of support. Nonetheless, while the network building might not be entirely sufficient as a contingent of this model it is absolutely necessary. University educators possess multiple affiliations of diverse compositions such as their university, their department, their discipline and even their geographic region; and each of these affiliations typically features its own unique topics of concern (Figure 7.5). In order for faculty development to be promoted in a truly substantive way, a culture of interest in education must be culti-

vated amidst the above mentioned multi-layered network of affiliations. Culture, however, is not something that is deliberately composed or constructed. Cultural change is nothing more than that which is observable from hindsight. What is possible is for members of the network to execute every conceivable means for cultivating that culture and to give definition to the potential value, as well as to construct a space that will be conducive to dialogue. This is what I would like to call the self-generating model of support. This support is only achievable, I believe, through utilization of the collegial model. By formalizing the creation of a network of educators based on a certain type of collegiality (whether that be shared academic area of interest or regional identity or some particular issue of concern), topics of immediate concern will naturally emerge which will engender either a concerted effort for resolution or new expectations.

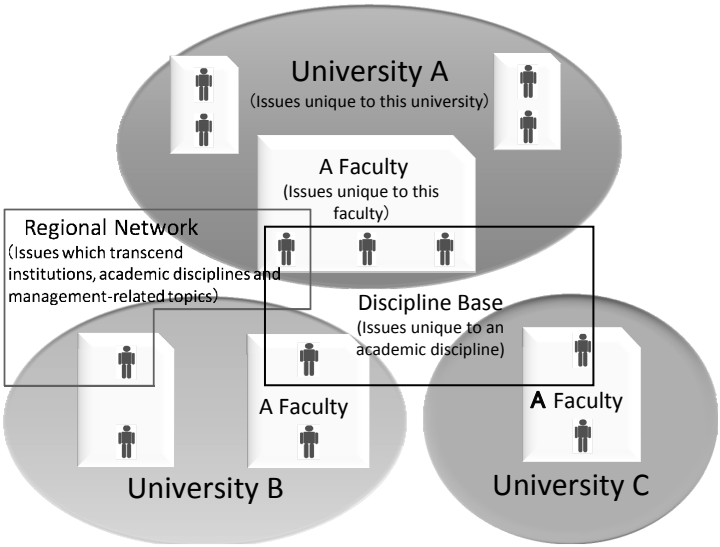


Figure 7.5 Multi-layered network

At present, the Science Council of Japan directs a debate over a programmatic quality assurance, so that academic communities are expected not only to engage in research but also in instruction. Academic research societies exist in many disciplines, but it is difficult to imagine that debate over matters of pedagogy in such research societies will spontaneously well up. Even universities, which

have long been organized for the purpose of instructing students, need support. Human talent and the strength of organizing are both necessary as nodes for successful network building; but how to arrange these two components in practice remains a prominent matter of debate.

6 The Significance of Developing Models

The specialist model and the collegial model along with their two support models are ideals, and it is not realistic to presume that the roles and activities of faculty development directors at colleges and universities across the country fall neatly into one of these models. Practically speaking, it is not always so easy to determine exactly whether goals and standards have been generated from outside or whether they have been attained by one's own personally motivated development. The purpose of developing models is not so that every activity of universities and faculty development centers might be neatly classified, much less to rate them in terms of superiority and inferiority. It is rather to clarify the inadequacies of passive compliance by university educators to "standards set by specialists outside the system" and the merits of the more dynamic organization-level goal setting effort, and to highlight the difficulty and diversity of educational reform, along with its component support system.

Many Japanese educators are astonished when they learn that the oldest component of faculty development in America is the sabbatical system. However, when one understands faculty development as a policy and method designed to encourage the creation of goals, it becomes quite understandable how time away from one's routine might provide the creative energy with which to reengage their professional goals. In the first place, educational reform is not something that can always be measured by short-term, clear and objective results. For that very reason, I think that support for the creation of "a culture fostering our capabilities" should be the focus of our attention.

Will the faculty development phenomenon take the course of generating the energy for educational reform, or will it sap the intrinsic power of the organization, reducing its dynamic energy? Above all, it is critical to ensure the vitality and effort of the stake holders. The key to success, I believe, is to avoid the temptation to become preoccupied with terminology and to focus rather on the "realities of our own students," using their energy to help carry out reforms and

to chart the course for the future.

Notes

1 Ministry of Science and Education, Higher Education Bureau, Section for the Promotion of College and University Education, Office for the Promotion of Reform in University Education. Daigaku ni Okeru Kyouiku Naiyou Nado no Kaikaku Joukyou ni Tsuite (Regarding the Status of Educational Reform at Japanese Universities). (http:///www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/koutou/daigaku/04052801/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2010/05/26/1294057_1_1.pdf (viewed 2010.7.26)

2 Tanaka, who was the original proponent for the peer review of teaching at Kyoto University, said "FD cannot progress with the dichotomy between specialist and amateur models. Each educator is in a sense encompassed within his or her own unique educational environment and context and therefore is most qualified to evaluate the situation. FD is nothing more than the process of autonomous practitioners cooperating with each other to resolve issues as they appear on a daily and individual basis. FD is not so grandiose as to be considered any sort of new enlightenment but is rather much more pedestrian, the so-called Mutual FD (p. 19)." (Tanaka, Tsunemi (2003). "Kyoto Daigaku ni Okeru FD". IDE March issue, 16–20.)

3 Yomiuri Online (2007.7.4) (http://www.yomiuri.co.jp/kyoiku/renai/20070704us41.htm viewed 2010.3.31)

4 The tenure system in America is regulated by the American Association of University Professors (AAUP), specifically in its "1940 Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure," which enumerates regulations such as requiring a period of seven years before qualifying to apply for tenure and establishing a system of mentoring junior faculty. For example, a particular program at MIT is arranged so that the department chair is expected to become a personal mentor and a system is in place whereby colleagues are generally expected to be available for consultation. It is said that in the third year of the tenure track position more time is spent on consultation with one's senior colleagues than on student guidance (Miyakawa, Shigeru, 2007 "On Tenure" GSIC Public Seminar 2007 No. 4, 2007.11.12 at Tokyo Institute of Technology, Global Scientific Information and Computing Center)

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Chapter 8

Formation of Faculty Development Community and the Role of Evaluation: Toward Substantiation of "Organizational Faculty Development"

Yusaku Otsuka

In Japan, "faculty development" was instituted as a requirement for all graduate universities in April 2007 and for all universities and colleges in April 2008. The term faculty development possesses various definitions. Here, the definition of "faculty development" is based on the clause in the standard for the establishment of universities, which states, "universities are to implement organizational training and research intended to improve the contents and methods of university teaching." Furthermore, "requirement" or "legalization" revised the clause to exclude the word "endeavor" from "(universities) should endeavor to practice faculty development," so that it instead reads, "faculty development must be practiced."

This legal obligation of faculty development demands that faculty members, staffs, students and university constituents autonomously engage themselves in their activities in order to further develop, rather than engage in faculty development practices as a "requirement." Here, I will discuss ways of achieving some substantive faculty development activities as well as the desired forms of evaluation of faculty development.

1 Legalization of Faculty Development and University Evaluation

From Faculty Development Awareness toward Legalization

It is not so long ago that faculty development attained public awareness in Japan. The term faculty development was first introduced in the 3rd Report of the National Council on Educational Reform in April 1987, which stated, "as a part of

self-evaluation of universities, the evaluation of faculty members getting actively involved in their own educational and research activities to endeavor for faculty development should be included." At the same time, in the Liberal and General Education Society of Japan, enlightening investigation related to faculty development was conducted pertaining to the provost, general faculty members, and society members (Faculty Development Survey Implementation Committee of Liberal and General Education Society of Japan, 1987) and the term "faculty development" began to be disseminated to faculty members involved in higher education. However, the speed of dissemination was not, at the beginning, significant.

With the "Deregulation of the Standard for the Establishment of Universities" in 1991, national universities gained freedom as educational departments were disassembled and new departments were established. However, universities were to do self check and evaluation in carrying out the responsibilities that accompanied this freedom. The University Council report, "Improvement of Higher Education" and the introduction of self check and evaluation, which lead to the reform, may suggest that awareness of faculty development was evolving not only in terms of the responsibilities accompanying freedom, but also in terms of people assuming responsibility of their own volition for facilitating the improvement of educational research.

However, while self check and evaluation reports began to be published in many universities, these measures did not, generally speaking, lead to improvement in educational research. As a result, in the University Council report of October 1998 entitled, "A Vision of Universities in the 21st Century and Reform Measures," emphasis was placed on the need for faculty development with regards to content and methods of higher education, as well as on the necessity for implementation of a third-party evaluation system. Subsequently, regarding the latter, the National Institution for Academic Degrees and University Evaluation was established in 2000. Concerning the former, a "Mandatory Implementation of Faculty Development Clause" was included in the Standards for the Establishment of Universities in 1999.

In the year 2000, initiatives were launched concerning university evaluations, but before they were actually put into effect, certified evaluation and accreditation, which conducted by organizations certificated by the Minister of Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), be-

came a requirement for all universities in the year 2003 for the purpose of assuring quality in higher education. Furthermore, also in the year 2003, professional graduate schools were established in response to the need for nurturing highly professional experts in a knowledge-based society. Leading the higher education institutions, these professional graduate schools placed faculty development as a requirement in their standard of establishment. Professional graduate schools were to employ "professional faculties (faculties with social and professional experience)." Faculty development was implemented as a requirement as part of the "quality assurance" that professional graduate schools wanted to ensure because "professional faculties" generally have rich specialized practical experience but little teaching experience.

As can be seen from the establishment of professional graduate schools, highly specialized knowledge became required in various fields, and, in answer to this, varieties for graduate schools were established and there was a resulting massive increase in the number of graduate students. In September of 2005, the Central Council for Education report entitled "Graduate School Education in the New Era—Toward building internationally attractive post-graduate education—(postgraduate report)" placed graduate schools as "educational institutions" and the need for faculty development was also emphasized in postgraduate education. It is likely that faculty members of many research universities consider graduate schools to be research institutions, not educational institutions. In that sense, faculty development was unexpectedly legalized to graduate schools before it was to universities, but it clearly exhibited the fact that the wave of universalization and globalization was surging toward higher education in Japan. Faculty development was eventually legalized to the entirety of higher education in 2008, as expected, a year after it was legalized to all graduate schools in 2007.

Faculty Development Drawn Along by "Evaluation"

When we trace the path of faculty development legalization as above, we can infer that faculty development has earned its place by being closely intertwined with "evaluation."

For example, the first report of the National Council on Educational Reform regarding faculty development in 1987 stated that faculty development would be necessary in order to implement "faculty evaluation" placing greater

importance on education for the innovation of higher education. Indeed, it was at this time that a column for educational background was established on documents required for an application to become a faculty member. This, however, was not enough to firmly establish faculty evaluation with an emphasis on education. Back then, one of the reasons for the slow promulgation of faculty development was the existence of a deeply rooted culture of placing greater importance on research background, resulting in little or no change in faculty evaluation.

At the time of the initial implementation of self check and evaluation in the 1990s, "class evaluation" was disseminated to universities across the country. In 1992, less than 10% of universities practiced class evaluation. However, by 1998, it was in practice at the majority of universities. Particularly in national universities, the numbers greatly increased as it was in practice at only 9 universities (9%) in 1992, but at 85 universities (85%) by the year 1998 (Otsuka, 2007). However, the effectiveness of self check and evaluation were questioned in the "21st Century Report" in 1998 which stated that evaluation was not leading to actual improvement. Rather, there was a sense that evaluation was acting as a substitute for improvement. At this time, "class evaluation" was emblematic of faculty development.

With the mandatory implementation of faculty development, faculty development has been implemented at almost all universities in Japan mainly because of the university evaluations that were initiated in the year 2000. In certified evaluation and accreditation, the evaluation standard included whether or not each and every university was appropriately conducting faculty development, and the result of investigations by the MEXT showed that only 1/3 of the universities practiced faculty development in 1997. However, this number increased to more than 86% of universities by the year 2004. Class evaluation was primarily to be implemented as a tool for faculty development practices. However, class evaluations were being conducted at 97.5% of all universities in the year 2004; the numbers exhibiting the reverse situation of class evaluation being disseminated prior to the dissemination of faculty development.

University evaluation, in general, is being practiced with two goals—the improvement of universities and the accountability to society of university activities. In reality, having both "improvement" and "accountability" as goals for one evaluation is difficult (Vroeijenstijn, 1998). While there is no need to point out

the need for improvement, it would be necessary to point out the advantages of carrying out accountability. Furthermore, the individual information relying on the context specific to the project for improvement is often difficult to quantify; it is mainly represented in dialects and writings. On the other hand, accountability would be easily accepted in quantified representations. Thus, evaluation should fundamentally be represented in different forms according to the specific goals of evaluation. However, socially practiced evaluations are often conducted similarly to running after two hares and catching neither. To solve this contradiction, there would be a perceived need to create a flow such that appropriately conducted improvement would naturally give rise to accountability, which would in turn invite support from society, which would then lead to further improvement. In reality, however, this is not easily accomplished as "evaluation" usually flows outward, often bringing about projects for accountability rather than for improvement. It is undeniably clear that faculty development had been practiced because of evaluations, as indicated above.

From Routinized Faculty Development to Substantive Faculty Development

Along with this expansion of faculty development, faculty development lecture sessions came to be conducted at universities. Investigations in 2006 by the MEXT showed 416 universities (about 2/3) out of 628 universities implementing faculty development were conducting lecture sessions. An hour or two hours of lectures corresponding to university evaluation would be relatively easy to carry out. At the same time, evaluations take into account the number of faculty development lecture and workshops conducted, the number of participants, and the rate of faculty-member participation. Also, from the organizational point of view, whether or not organizations such as an Faculty Development Committee have been established on campus is considered. Under these circumstances, Faculty Development Committees are established and faculty development lecture sessions hosted by the Committees are planned and practiced in many universities. The challenge of education differs in each university and there are various approaches toward actual improvement. However, "routinized" faculty development projects such as the establishment of Faculty Development Committees, the hosting of faculty development lecture sessions and practicing of class evaluations, which can be implemented in any university, were rapidly disseminated

throughout Japan.

It is easy to imagine, however, that faculty development conducted in this way will not easily lead to actual educational improvement. The report of the Central Council in 2008, "Toward Building of Undergraduate Education (Undergraduate Report)" summarized the situation of this routine faculty development that was not necessarily leading to educational improvement and it emphasized the need for the promulgation of substantive faculty development. As such, transformations became evident as seen in the new ways of pointing out matters of concern related to faculty development as reported by the Committee for Investigating Implementation Plans of the Council for University Establishment, which investigated whether the establishment plans were being successfully implemented during the academic years from the establishment to the first students' graduation at universities authorized to do so, in the results for their investigations of the year 2009. Initially, in the year 2004, the investigation committee was to check the number of lecture sessions and workshops being conducted at each university, as well as the rate of participation, with special attention placed on the degree of preparedness for implementing faculty development measures. However, in 2009, it was pointed out that "simply conducting lecture sessions does not correspond to faculty development," and this was followed by more statements to facilitate "substantive" faculty development, implying that simply conducting routinized faculty development would not be enough.

It is difficult for many universities, however, to determine what measures other than lecture sessions, workshops and class evaluations would correspond to substantive faculty development. On the other hand, if these reports and evaluations preceded substantive faculty development, the substantive faculty development could easily be transformed into routinized faculty development. Substantive faculty development should not be provided top down, it should be constructed from bottom up, building upon discussions conforming to the respective content of specific educational practices to attain consensus that respects the diversity included in these discussions. The time is now ripe for this to take place.

2 How to Approach Substantive Faculty Development

How to approach Faculty Development

As it had been defined by the clause in the standard of establishment of universities, the term "faculty development" has a narrow definition in Japan that emphasizes aiming for the "improvement of content and teaching methods." Although there are various means of attaining this goal, such as lecture sessions and workshops, some workshops were conducted according to certain specific standards that caused an increasing number of people to equate the conducting of workshops with faculty development implementation. At the same time, the tendency for faculty development to be implemented within the framework of "evaluation" created a negative situation where faculty members, especially those who are research oriented, felt forced to practice faculty development.

However, faculty development originally got its start in the 19th century when sabbaticals were implemented at Harvard University. Initially, it focused on developing faculty members' research capabilities. Presently in America, faculty development focuses on education. However, this began during the 1970s. The POD (Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education), a network organization related to faculty development in America, defines faculty development as development of faculty members as educators, researchers and also as human beings. Its comprehensive definition also includes organizational development for smoothly promoting educational activities and the development of teaching materials.

In Japan, the diversity of the definition of faculty development has been known from the start as the glossary of reports and the standard of the establishment of universities always included a note stating, "There are various definitions of faculty development." However, this was forgotten as faculty development was implemented at universities in the specialized form of "education." The "Report of Undergraduate Education" in 2008, however, has reinterpreted the definition of "faculty development," stating "it would be appropriate to broadly interpret faculty development as competence development of the faculty with the aim of innovation of undergraduate education in Japan, rather than narrowly treating it solely as training for teaching improvement." This attempt facilitated internal movement as it stated, "autonomous projects by the faculties are indispensible

for substantiation of faculty development." At the same time, there were external policies through evaluation such as "inadequate evaluation of achievements in education as compared to research," and "placement of faculty development activities into the PDCA cycle of educational management" as challenges for substantive faculty development. How these external policies affect "autonomous" internal movement is, as shown previously, unknown.

Faculty development can literally be seen as the "development, training, and fostering of qualities of faculty members or faculties." However, "education" is not directly included. Generally speaking, faculty members hold several tasks other than teaching, such as research, university management, social contributions and the development of faculty members; faculties should fundamentally be related to these tasks as a whole. In this sense, if faculty development contributes to study and the improvement of faculty members themselves, it should be a desired opportunity rather than something to be avoided. In reality, many faculty members desire opportunities for study and research, such as participating in conferences and visiting universities overseas, and these opportunities are not considered a burden.

However, the shifting of the emphasis of faculty development toward education occurred in response to rapid globalization, universalization, change in students, and a diversifying of learning content, and it was not unique to Japan; it was a global trend. As a faculty member, it would be unreasonable to ignore this movement and devote oneself to research only. Of course, continued research is also necessary. Recently, however, many conferences are being held, and web and international exchanges are expanding as networks are formed at various levels, making it easier to gain opportunities for everyday study within the research communities in these networks. It is thus natural for education to be particularly emphasized as a necessary object of study. But this is only relative, as "education" and "research" should grow integrally; something that has been true from the past and to the present. The quality assurance and improvement that has become a current social issue can essentially be attained by broadly treating faculty development as integrative development. Whether or not the term "faculty development" will continue to be used in the future is unknown, however, at the very least, a reinterpretation of the concept of faculty development should take place among faculty members themselves as an internal approach to facing the

legalization of faculty development.

How to approach Teaching Improvement

Another factor lending a negative impression to faculty development is that it carries a message for all faculty members to "get better at teaching." But we have not yet fully discussed what it would mean to actually get better at teaching, or what "teaching improvement" would entail.

Regarding faculty development, teaching tips for faculty members have been published recently and many faculty members have great needs. Of course, all of this how-to knowledge is helpful and, needless to say, there is a great difference between knowing and not knowing. However, university teaching differs at each university, and the students and curriculums also differ according to university background and the context of classes. Furthermore, general tips are not always applicable, and even if they were, they won't necessarily bring about improvements. "Better" teaching for one semester may improve the class evaluation, but "better" teaching does not necessarily mean "improved (good)" teaching.

For example, Figure 8,1 is the "Introductory Educational Evaluation" (General Education Course, and its main attendees are freshmen) conducted during the second semester of the year 2009 by the author. The graph exhibits the transition of the average rating in 7 criteria (4 level rating system of "(4) True" to "(1) Not true"; the average rating of close to (4) implies many students answered "(4) True") included in the "minutes paper" conducted every class. We can infer from looking at the graph that the average rating fluctuates throughout more than ten classes within a semester taught by the same teacher. This fluctuation is not limited to the year 2009; similar fluctuation occurs every year. And the fluctuation is not random; it fluctuates according to the content and methods operating in the class. For example, in the graph fluctuating high and low overall, a relatively higher average rating of "overall satisfaction" is shown in the 1st, 4th, 6th, 8th, and 10th classes. The 1st class, as an introduction, used a rather accessible example of the changes in the rating rules in figure skating to show that evaluations are conducted around us every day with many challenges that need to be addressed. The 4th class divided 70 students into groups of 5 to 6 students to have them discuss whether "relative evaluation" is preferable to "absolute evaluation." The 6th class showed a video of a primary school in Aichi (Hi-

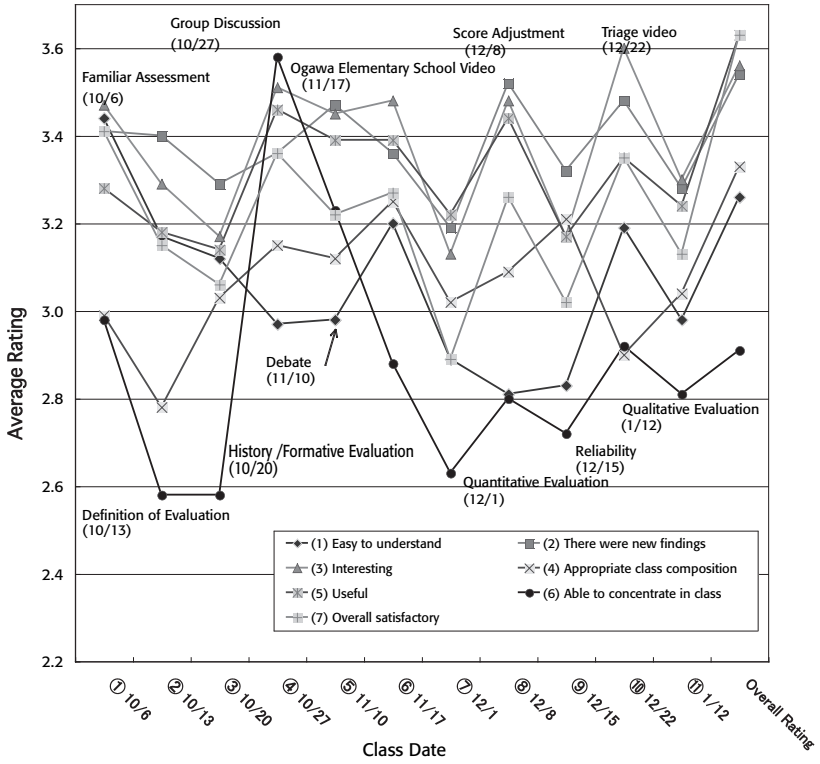

Figure 8.1 Transition of average rating in 2009 second semester "introductory educational evaluation"

gashiura-choritsu Ogawa Primary School) with wall-free classrooms conducting open education centering on comprehensive learning. And the 10th class showed a video related to the triage conducted by a medical team at the scene of the train accident in Fukuchiyama. The 8th class dealt with adjustments in the grading of entrance examinations, which proved to be of interest for this class made up of a majority of freshmen.

All of these utilized the kind of tips that "create associations to things around us," "let students participate and think" and "use audiovisual media." (Ito, Otsuka, 1999) However, the ratings were not high in each of the 7 criteria. For example, group discussions had the students working autonomously, so the rating was high for "concentration in class." Conversely, the rating was not very

high for "easy to understand" because they were not used to group discussions. The triage video in the 10th class received a high "interesting" rating, but a low "appropriate class composition" rating because this class also included many other aspects. We can thus see a necessity for recognizing that each idea is perhaps applicable to only one aspect of teaching.

Also, preparing videos with impact may raise the overall average rating, but using videos for every class will not necessarily produce a "good" course. Moreover, it could end up creating the impression among students that only classes using videos and student discussions are "good" classes and that classes conducted in conventional lecture form, on the contrary, would be monotonous. These aspects are not reflected in class surveys and average ratings; we need to note the fact that such aspects may exist in some latent form that is not detectable from the usual student atmosphere.

Still more, the average rating of class surveys used as guidelines here depends on its placement in class content, curriculum and also on student groups. Fundamentally speaking, these high and low ratings are not sufficient for evaluating whether or not a class is actually good. Additionally, teaching improvement is considered to have been achieved once a certain level of completion has been reached, and there are survey criteria that represent the type of class that should be aimed for, so simply raising the average rating does not necessarily indicate improvement. As shown here, classes contain various elements, and if the rating is high in one criterion, efforts should be made to continue to devise ideas for further improvement. At this point, something might be required above and beyond just applying the tips. It would be desirable for a commonly shared attitude to exist that treats faculty development as a process of improvement brought about by never-ending challenges.

The Concept of Faculty Development Connection—What is Organization

The overall rating in the right column of Figure 8.1 exhibits the average rating of the entire semester at the end of the course. This overall rating indicates the intermediate rating of each class with large fluctuations in the average rating, or indicates an even higher rating. It is probably safe to say that when a low average rating continues, there is a greater possibility that the overall rating will be low as well. On the other hand, however, it is not necessary that there always be a

higher rating, and even some low ratings did not affect the entire impression of the course. In Figure 8.1, the 7th to 9th classes were taught mainly in lecture form covering numerical formulas which may have been too difficult for humanities students as the average rating of the "easy to understand" criterion was low. The result confirmed, however, that even in classes like this it is possible to ensure sufficient opportunities for transmitting knowledge.

The relationship between the average rating of each class and the entire semester is exhibited with almost the same tendency every year and, if we purposely tried to bring it about, the same would apply for the relationship of each individual subject to a curriculum that included these subjects or to the entire course. In other words, even if one subject is composed of relatively monotonous classes such as lectures systematically covering theory and devoted to conducting exercises resulting in low ratings in class surveys, this does not mean that such classes should be changed into forms that are considered acceptable by the students. Of course, monotonous and difficult subjects may hinder continual learning for students, and this tendency can be seen recently in universities. That is the reason why faculty development has been emphasized. Balancing various features of each subject would prevent faculty development from placing pressure on faculty members. Even in one-way lectures, if we could provide meaning to studying such subjects, or, at least, if one could experience situations outside the classroom where the knowledge and skills gained through such lectures would be helpful, the students themselves might then come to realize the importance of such classes after completing the curriculum or course. The essential thing is that the improvement of education should not necessarily require every subject to be a "good" class or every faculty member to be a "good" teacher. Put differently, if "good" education could be achieved by having all "good" classes and "good" teachers, we could just prepare teaching machines for every subject, thus resulting in inflexible education. There is a need for higher education to create something new by connecting these classes to create a whole that includes a wide variety of classes.

Based on the above, faculty development does not require the classes of each individual faculty member to improve. Rather, it would be essential for the quality of education to improve as a whole while maintaining the uniqueness and originality of each faculty member. In other words, the primary goal of faculty

development should be for faculty members to break away from the idea that one should improve their class teaching, and instead start creating connections with other faculty members so that you compliment one another while recognizing the role your classes should play in the process. It is there that we will find what is meant by the term "organizational" in the obligatory clause regarding faculty development(Otsuka, 2005).

The idea of a "Community of practice" (Wenger et al., 2002) comes into play here. In the context of faculty development, we choose to call it an "faculty development community." "Organizational" should not simply be interpreted as conducting faculty development lecture sessions within the campus; the lectures should hold a place within the community of practice. If we applied this concept of community, substantive faculty development for faculty members would come to mean discovering a place of their own within the community and fulfilling their role there. As such, for students, finding a place of their own and fulfilling their role within a "learning community" comprised of such faculty members could be considered the results of learning. The formation of such a community could in and of itself be considered faculty development, and securing one's place within such a community could, for individuals, be considered both a form of learning as well as a form of faculty development. Creating "connections," as well as a "network," is the equivalent of forming a community and placing oneself within it.

Participation in Faculty Development community and Substantive Faculty Development

The concept of "Community of Practice" and "Learning Community" can be applied in various areas. In relation to higher education, participation in an "faculty development community" matches particularly well with the features of a university. It involves the fact that higher education should respond to various needs; simply focusing on enlarging a single aspect would not be appropriate. Rather, emphasis should be placed on generative aspects for creating new knowledge.

Regarding the former, it is essential to create educational measures based on the specific context and uniqueness of the respective diverse disciplinary fields, students, universities and backgrounds of the departments. This coincides with the fact that "routinized" faculty development, which often adopts general "how

to" principles related to higher education, is not always successful. To respond to this diversity in a university, it would be effective to start with having faculty members share local educational challenges rooted in everyday class practices. Furthermore, similar projects, which are not necessarily recognized as faculty development, are being implemented in meetings of educational committees at the departmental level and in the daily gatherings of faculty members. Such daily and mutual interaction leading to substantive vitalization of faculty members and students involved in the field of education should certainly be taken into consideration.

Faculty members primarily feel resentment to top-down orders or to teaching according to standardized textbooks and teaching materials; they prefer using their own originality in devising teaching tools. Thus, it is essential that they develop individual perspectives and become enlightened in a way that leads to some kind of educational improvement activities. Such opportunities can often be gained from colleagues in everyday situations, exchanging opinions with research colleagues in the same field, and through mutual interaction. This is one of the reasons why "mutual faculty development," where faculty members mutually learn and teach, can be so effective (Tanaka, 2003).

In the latter, regarding the "creation of new knowledge," the network building functions effectively within the concept of a faculty development community. For new things to be created, one must break out of existing frameworks through mutual interaction with others in order to incorporate views from differing perspectives. Such interaction can appear to be static, and it may sometimes seem that no improvement is being made, but there may also come a time when new forms "emerge," so to speak. A sense of learning and understanding may be experienced when phenomena of emergence are brought about not only through the incorporation of externally produced information into our own minds as knowledge, but also through the interaction of existing knowledge and external stimuli. This interaction with the external world is the "connection" among human beings, and should be the basis for "network" building. These connections would also serve as substantial stimuli for the development of faculty members with regard to faculty development. In this sense, it is meaningful to treat the formation of a faculty development community, and participation in such a community, as substantive faculty development.

3 Core Network and Faculty Development Evaluation

Inter-University Faculty Development Network and its significance.
What kind of activities should be promoted based on the perspective of faculty development stated above? Presently, data is being accumulated through various means of trial and error according to the respective locality where each educational practice is being conducted. For example, at Kyoto University, the networks building was launched on diverse levels in 2008 based on the philosophy of mutual faculty development. Within the campus, Faculty Development Committees have been established at the campus level as a space for sharing information pertaining to the faculty development conducted in each department. Vitalization of faculty development from the bottom up rather than from the top down, as well as collaborative implementation, was also designed through supporting projects in some departments. While there are some difficulties in a mutual and bottom up approach, as the expected results will not necessarily be achieved and the scope may be limited, the committee does produce a catalytic effect for vitalization. Also, at the national level, the Forum of University Research is held every year as a place for sharing different research approaches to educational practices in a form similar to that of the philosophy of the scholarship of teaching and learning. About 500 participants involved in higher education institutions across the nation gather creating a place for interaction to stimulate network building. At the international level, information is being accumulated for network building by mutual interaction with university institutions overseas, and situations encountered when implementing faculty development at Kyoto University are being shared rather than simply conducting one-way investigations of faculty development related situations in Europe and the United States.

In the building of these various networks, relatively new projects to form inter-university networks have been gaining attention in Japan. Kyoto University has been involved in the Kansai Faculty Development Association established on April 26, 2008 as a representative coordinating institution. More than 110 universities from the Western part of Japan are affiliated with the Kansai Faculty Development Association, including universities in Kyoto, Osaka, Hyogo, Wakayama, Nara, and Shiga, and it has become the largest faculty development network in Japan. Specifically, there are 5 working groups (WG): 1) Informa-

tion Support WG, for sharing information related to situations encountered in faculty development at each university, as well as on faculty development trends, 2) Joint Faculty Development Implementation WG, for holding faculty development events such as lecture sessions and symposiums at other universities, and also for planning and conducting joint workshops, 3) Collaborative Planning WG, for collaboration between universities facing common challenges, and for planning and holding symposiums, workshops and pilot studies related to those challenges, 4) Research WG, for planning and conducting joint research related to faculty development, and 5) Public Relations WG, for disseminating information via newsletters and a web page. For example, the Collaborative Planning WG takes up relatively unique themes, such as how to write reports, while holding symposiums in an attempt to create networks of universities and faculty members for the construction of faculty development communities. In fact, the Kansai Faculty Development Association has been promoting activities consisting of class evaluation "research sub-groups" as part of the Research WG aiming for research development of policies on effective class evaluation for teaching improvement based on the results of class evaluation workshops held in January 2008 (Center for the Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education at Kyoto University, 2008).

The building of such networks allows universities to receive support and various types of information by getting involved in the promotion of faculty development activities. Furthermore, it is expected to promote both recognition and a sharing of the concept that substantive faculty development should be based on the formation of communities that induce the kind of interaction between faculties that cannot be attained by simply conducting lecture sessions and class evaluations. The accumulated experience that would be gained by putting these concepts into practice within the community would make it possible to develop a shared idea of how to determine what constitutes substantive faculty development and good faculty development. That is precisely the matter regarding "evaluation" that needs to be looked at, and I will touch upon it more concretely below.

"PDCA" and the "Rashomon Approach"

How to evaluate "connective" faculty development would be an especially im-

portant challenge in the future. In the present framework of "evaluation," there is a limit on evaluations of creative phenomena generated through connections and interactions within the community because they are, by nature, difficult to evaluate. The generation of new phenomena does not occur in a premeditated manner; they are seldom produced and may be judged negatively if not occurring at the time an evaluation is taking place. It would thus be required that an evaluation framework exist to ascertain and detect the possibility of such phenomena occurring.

Present evaluation often uses PDCA (Plan-Do-Check-Action) as a keyword. This allows for extrapolation of the cycle-drafting plans of activities according to goals, acting according to the plans and, as a result, confirming the distance from achieving the goal (evaluation), and making a revision of an activity's direction to lessen the distance. Since the university evaluation was initiated with the broad goal of improving university activities, PDCA, which emphasizes the "Act" of dealing with the result of "evaluation," may be considered more applicable than PDS (Plan-Do-See) to the context of university evaluation.

However, the element that is not necessarily compatible with situations involving new creation is contained within PDCA itself. To start with, new creation may not be specifically reported or described, and if we possess a goal of creating something as of yet unknown, it may not lead to a concrete plan. Even if it was conducted as planned, new creation may not be produced. Of course, the creation of new things requires a firm foundation that can itself become a specific goal and hence easy to establish a plan for. This is something that can be acquired by simply becoming aware of PDCA. There may be a ways to go if this is to be included in university goals, but we certainly need to focus more on exceeding PDCA if we are going to allow the originality of a university to play a role in new creation.

At this point, I would like to focus on the "Rashomon Approach," something that has not become widespread even years after it was first introduced by J.M. Atkins, then a Professor of Illinois University. This concept was compiled into a report delivered at the 2nd sectional meeting of the International Seminar on Curriculum Development held in 1974 in Tokyo. At that time, in comparison to the Rashomon Approach, a "Technological Approach" was introduced and PDCA was subsumed into this trend.

In the development of curriculum and educational processes, a somewhat highly abstract general objective was established. The two divergent approaches, Technological Approach and Rashomon Approach, were introduced for the attainment of this goal.

In the Technological Approach, the flow of PDCA is extrapolated such that specific goals and behavioral objectives were analytically structured to attain general objectives, teaching materials were designed according to the minimum goals, and the success of the curriculum was measured by evaluating it based upon the behavioral objectives.

On the other hand, in the Rashomon Approach, it was extrapolated that the teacher would implement creative teaching activities with full understanding of the general objectives as a professional. Here, the term "creative," as stated above, includes the fact that flexibility is required in dealing with varieties of participating learners, as well as the fact that there is a need for consideration of other aspects that might have been worsened by the improvement of one aspect. It also takes into consideration the possibility that learners will acquire unexpected by-products from the curriculum.

With regards to the evaluation, in the Technological Approach, evaluation standards are established according to specific goals represented in the level of activity from the stand point of "no goals, no evaluation," and an "objective" evaluation based on quantitative measurement is sought. In comparison, the Rashomon Approach takes the standpoint of "goal-free evaluation," which calls for overall documentation of activities in teaching and learning processes irrespective of goals. In response to this documentation, various perspectives from differing standpoints are compiled as evaluation information. The perspective is subjective and biased, but the various perspectives from differing standpoints allow new discoveries to be made and changes to curriculums enacted.

This comparison corresponds with the classification attempted by Yasuhiro Oyama in the external evaluation report at the Center for the Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education at Kyoto University entitled, "evaluation as a measurement" and "evaluation as a prompter" (CPEHE, 2000). Evaluation of the Technological Approach corresponds to the "evaluation as a measurement"; judgment of evaluation is conducted based on quantitative measures. The "evaluation as a prompter" compiles information for "prompting" improvement to

bring out ideas and facilitate improvement activities. Even if biases are included in the different viewpoints, we need to try to share them as one perspective rather than abstracting them as "noise." This is the evaluation corresponding to the Rashomon Approach, and the biases are looked upon as a positive function for the discovery of action that will subsequently need to be taken.

In the context of university evaluation, only one objective aspect of evaluation is being implemented, and quantitative presentations are often required. However, if we place greater importance on creativity, there will be a need to share the significance of the Rashomon approach; otherwise, higher education may become more mechanical and will, in due course, lose its power.

Faculty Development Community and Connoisseurship Evaluation

Within the framework of faculty development connections, how should the Rashomon Approach and evaluation as a prompter be conducted? And how should the power of evaluation be nurtured? On this point, I will focus on the evaluation itself once more from the perspective of the "connoisseurship evaluation" (Matsushita, 2002). Matsushita differentiated "study" from "learning." "Study" was described as something to be conducted in artificial space apart from historical and sociological contexts, and "learning" was described as something to be conducted within "practices" supported by historical and sociological traditions. "Learning" itself was specified to be something necessary for putting things into practice, and the evaluation standards adjusting and altering its direction are to be determined by inter-subjective consensus within the community that shares and implements such practices. "Connoisseurship" is the power to ascertain the quality of practices based on such standards.

This concept of "Connoisseurship" may be applied in the context of a university's educational practices, as well as to faculty development aimed at improving such practices and evaluations. That is to say, the quality of class practices should be ascertained and improved using the connoisseurship nurtured through mutual evaluation among faculty members within the local community of practice of their respective fields. Furthermore, the quality of faculty development pertaining to such improvement should be determined through refinement of connoisseurship through mutual evaluation among faculty members within the community of practice, or, "faculty development community." This should

bring about substantive faculty development rooted in practice.

As implied by Matsushita, connoisseurship evaluation corresponds to the characteristics of complexity and diversity of practices themselves; quantitative evaluation reflecting only one aspect of it would fundamentally not conform. Rather, total and qualitative evaluation of information related to diverse aspects according to each respective context would be required. Also, "learning" itself is a means for practice which does not necessarily contain an objective. In that sense, we can infer that the Rashomon Approach and evaluation as a prompter can conform to this situation. It is here that we see that "improvement" in one aspect and the "areas requiring improvement" in other aspects become totally compatible. Rather, this ambiguous evaluation serves as evidence that live practices are being conducted.

Wenger et al., (2002) have made suggestions related to the evaluation of a community of practice. The knowledge cannot be quantified and such guidelines may be effective only in the context of "narration" where the path of cause and effect leading to that guideline is exhibited. They suggest qualitative explanations as "narrative" regarding community activities and the results. "Narration" is effective for creating a cycle of sharing knowledge acquired through a community of practice and applying it to the community of practice. This corresponds to the evaluation as a prompter. Furthermore, the border of the community is difficult to define and it is often tacit. Due to its dynamically changing nature, "it is impossible to discover by simply practicing according to a concrete plan even if the plan were theoretical and comprehensive." This part corresponds to the Rashomon Approach. Furthermore, the value of knowledge is case-dependent and possesses the feature that it may dynamically change. The community of practice itself evaluates it as is necessary and effective corresponding "self-discovery" would be essential; a point similar to evaluation by connoisseurship.

The Kansai Faculty Development Association provides opportunities for peer reviews in the form of poster sessions at the annual meeting in 2010 that, utilizing the online faculty development support tool known as MOST (Mutual Online System for Teaching & Learning; refer to chapter 6), summarize faculty development activities being implemented at each university in a compact sheet called a "snapshot." The mutual exchange and sharing of information relating to faculty development activities may be viewed as "evaluation as a prompter" for

they play an integral part in the suggestion of how faculty development activities in universities can be improved. And as the comments are based on perspectives from different viewpoints, one can consider these evaluation opportunities as corresponding to the Rashomon Approach. Furthermore, through compilation of such peer reviews, connoisseurship pertaining to the quality of practice in faculty development is expected to mature. If this increased connoisseurship could be shared on a broad basis within the Kansai Faculty Development Association, it would naturally follow that the quality of Faculty Development itself would improve.

Of course, there are various phases to evaluation. If class evaluation is successfully conducted, that is fine. At the very least, it would be meaningful if it served as a resource of "narration" documenting the faculty development community. And the fact that the PDCA approach is effective in some parts of educational activities is undeniable. On the other hand, from the perspective of forming and vitalizing the faculty development community, mechanisms for new evaluations that lead to mutual improvement of connoisseurship and mutual interactions, including opportunities for peer reviews as indicated above, should be considered in the future. It would be impossible for everything to succeed within the framework of a "community," and there will be successes and failures along the way. In this current age of rapid reform, implementing faculty development and conducting evaluations within this framework are challenges faced by faculty members in the field of higher education. I hope that faculties and universities will work together, without fear of this kind of trial and error, to accumulate data that will serve as a valuable asset in this field.

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Chapter 9

Reconsidering Faculty/Educational Development and Career Education from the Perspective of Student Lives: Through the Practices of *the Kyoto Career Seminar*

Shinichi Mizokami

In this chapter, I focus on student life and theoretically and practically discuss "*the Kyoto Career Seminar*" (hereafter, the Seminar) that is an extra-curricular intercollegiate seminar to support student's academic performance and career development (establishing career design and acquiring social basic skills). The student life is set as a space bridging between faculty/educational development and career education that had been gaining momentum in recent years, which is considered to have relevance to the "*Career Guidance*" interim report by the Central Council for Education ("*Daigaku ni okeru Shakaiteki Shokugyoteki Jiritsu ni kansuru Shido nado (Career Guidance) no Jisshi ni tsuite*," published on December 15, 2009).

1 The Kyoto Career Seminar as a Regional Base: Intercollegiate Network

One global trend in higher education that has appeared in recent years is the reforms of teaching and curriculum to reflect the slogan, "from teaching to learning" (cf. Barr & Tagg, 1995). This slogan is based on the idea of conducting faculty/educational development using as a benchmark what students have learned, as opposed to what teachers have taught. It was not too long ago that the school-to-work transition could be successfully achieved simply by graduating university and college. What is now in question, however, is whether or not university education can actually contribute to learning and growth of students.

The Center for the Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education at Kyoto

University received a policy-response budget from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology for FY 2008 to establish a model base for the educational training of university academic staff, and a special budget for FY 2009 to establish a mutual faculty development base for the educational training of university academic staff. These budgets have been applied to creating a base for mutual faculty development on the intra-collegiate, regional, national and international levels (Center for the Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education at Kyoto University, 2010).We were also approved as a joint-use educational base in March 2010.

While faculty development is the primary goal in establishing a base for mutual faculty development, it includes approaches both directly and indirectly related to faculty development. Of the approaches relevant to this paper, "*the Student Career Development Survey*" and "*The University Student Forum*" (see http://www.dentsu-ikueikai.or.jp/ for the results of both), that are organized jointly with the Dentsu Ikueikai, examine university education and faculty development from the student perspectives and student lives, and they make up part of the measures to establish a national base for mutual faculty development.

The Seminar is one of the measures to establish a regional base for mutual faculty development, and began with the results obtained from the Student Career Development Survey and with discussions between presenters and participants in the University Student Forum. The achievements through the Seminar are given feedback to higher education institutions and relevant persons involved in faculty/educational development, teaching improvement and career education as well as to observers ar the Seminar, who reconsider university education, programs, classes, and career education from the student perspectives.

2 Focus on Student Life: Background of the Kyoto Career Seminar

With earnest attempts at faculty/educational development that are currently made at all universities and colleges, teachers' pedagogy, teaching method, class contents, curricula, etc. are drastically improved and developed. The student life recently is more focusing on academics (attending classes) than it did in the past (Mizokami 2004, 2009; Takeuchi 2003), suggesting that we have achieved rather positive results from faculty/educational development.

Career education is also rapidly improved and developed by various cur-

ricular and extracurricular programs provided by career support centers (here and hereinafter including relevant organizations) such as seminars, internships and other programs for career design. These programs allow students to learn about society and develop their personal views of occupation and career design.

The general trend to date is that universities and colleges approach faculty/educational development and career education separately: the faculty/educational development is rather on the regular curriculum basis, while career education is on the extra-curriculum basis. The faculty/educational development mainly focuses on teaching and curricula in general and specialized educations, and universities and colleges did not try to integrate them with student career development. On the other hand, career education is mainly provided in extracurricular programs, in which universities and colleges did not try to relate it to regular courses and curricula even when credits were given.

Now universities and colleges should reconsider their educational activities and explore a new method to integrate faculty/educational development and career education on the basis of students' learning experience and daily life. They should read the aforementioned "Career Guidance" interim report not simply for student career support but for establishing measures to ensuring quality assurance in undergraduate programs with student development including their career development. They should bridge regular curricula and career education.

From the perspectives of student experience and their daily lives, academics and career development issues have not been sufficiently linked and integrated yet. The majority of students earnestly participate in classes, gaining knowledge and completing given assignments. They participate in career education to think about their future career design and society. Thus, students are provided with a lot of opportunities for studying in classes and career education, however, we must say that it is very difficult for them to get a unified view of their own lives and careers just through such activities.

According to the results of *the Student Career Development Survey 2007* administered by the Center for the Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education, Kyoto University and the Dentsu Ikueikai (http://www.dentsu-ikueikai.or.jp/research/), 70% of students answered that they did in fact possess their career designs for the future. This likely reflects on positive effects of career education provided in junior high and high schools before university, or their increasing

anxiety over the future in light of the current severe job market. The problem, however, is that only 20% of students are actually making efforts in their daily lives to realize their career designs (Mizokami, 2009). What's more, in similar surveys that I have personally conducted, I have discovered that this number usually falls below 20%, suggesting that there is in fact a very large group of students whose futures and career designs are not linked with their daily lives (also see Mizokami, 2010). Despite this, however, students spend their lives focusing on academics (attending classes) while university educational reform takes place around them and they are faced with a difficult job market (Mizokami, 2009, 2010; Takeuchi, 2003). This disparity is an issue drawing concern today.

One possible approach would be to integrate regular courses and career education on the curriculum. There are, in fact, a growing number of universities and colleges developing an "integrated curriculum" by reorganizing and integrating their existing curricula from the perspective of career education. Some of these universities were selected as models of educational Good Practice (GP) and received highly positive evaluations. Of course, the concept of an integrated curriculum does not always reflect on student experience and their daily lives and it stands to reason that its applicability should be examined and verified. It is expected that curriculum that truly enables students to learn and develop can be constructed by putting the concept together with actual circumstances and repeating the PDCA cycle.

For more traditional and comprehensive universities and departments, creating this kind of integrated curriculum might prove difficult and unrealistic in many respects. Integrating regular curricula with career education, however, is not the only possible approach to the problem, and universities and colleges can develop their own measures.

In this paper, I also would like to explore a new measure to integrate an existing regular curriculum with career education. That is "the Kyoto Career Seminar." This Seminar is an extracurricular and intercollegiate program designed to support students' academics and career development focusing on student life. As mentioned above, this program is one of the local activities carried out by the Center for the Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education at Kyoto University. While it is a seminar aimed at students, however, it is also significant as part of the action research aimed at discovering measures to link experience and daily

lives of students with the regular curricula and career education.

Although the intercollegiate is not always required at the Seminar, a holistic space in student life must be a required view. Students are involved with a variety of studies in classes and career education during their 4 years (6 years) of programs universities and colleges provide with, but they are also involved with extracurricular activities (clubs, part-time jobs, volunteer work, community programs, etc.), all of which can develop them (Kuh, 1993; 1995; 2000). Thus, the student life can be seen as a holistic space that encompasses all curricular and extra-curricular activities including career education.

While universities should continue educational reforms regarding teaching, career education, curriculum, and so on respectively, I would add that the time has come to integrate them in a holistic space of student life. The Seminar seeked to realize this idea practically.

3 How Is the Kyoto Career Seminar Relevant to the Programs Provided by Universities and Colleges?

While various programs are provided at the Seminar, they presuppose that participants have joined the existing regular and career development programs at their universities and colleges. For example, almost all universities and colleges recently provide career development programs that are directly linked with job hunting (*ex*. how to fill out an entry sheet, proper business manners and behavior, etc.), and invite guest business people, etc. The Seminar does not provide such programs basically. Participants who are interested in such programs can be told to visit the career support center at their universities and colleges and see what programs are available. Regarding academics as well, it would be meaningful to participate in the Seminar only when students can study well in the classes and projects provided by their universities and colleges.

Relating it to educational programs provided by universities and colleges this way, the Seminar aims to support participants' academics and career development (establishing career design and acquiring social basic skills). Furthermore, the following two conditions are added:

(1) To base students' career development on their daily lives drastically
(2) To bridge academics and career development

Although I already mentioned these, here I will more talk about the ideas underlying the relationship between social basic skills and daily lives for students. Universities and colleges have already provided many career development programs to cultivate student social basic skills, and they have achieved a degree of success with them. At the Kyoto Career Seminar, however, students are urged to reexamine their overall daily life patterns before taking those special programs, and to take them only if they still feel them necessary. Students are given many opportunities to cultivate their social basic skills in their usual day-to-day academics and extracurricular activities. We hope students to discover their own goals and tasks in their daily lives and to take actions to realize them.

Here below I will outline the programs of the Kyoto Career Seminar that has started based upon the aforementioned background, and report participants' attributes, life situations, submitted reports, etc.

4 Overview of *the Kyoto Career Seminar*

Participants

Some limited conditions were given to participants: (1) they were first to third year students at 4-year universities and colleges, (2) their universities and colleges lied in the Kansai region (including Kyoto, Osaka, Nara, Shiga, Hyogo and Wakayama prefectures, but excluding Mie prefecture).

The purpose of Seminar is not to support students' success in finding jobs, but to support the construction or reconstruction of their daily lives that will allow them to continue learning and working energetically even after graduation. Therefore, in principle, third- (in Fall Semester) and fourth-year students in which their job-hunting has already started or are about to finish their university programs were not eligible for the Seminar. But actually, such students were allowed to participate if they hoped, as well as students from other regions.

Programs

There are two cycles (for half a year respectively) in a year. A single cycle is comprised of three core programs in "*the Career Seminar*" (3 hours program), and other supplementary programs called "*the Learning Salon*" (2 hours program) that is roughly held once every two weeks.

Each program in the Career Seminar has its focus topic. Program 1 focuses on the link between student life and career design: Program 2 focuses on the link between academics and career design: and Program 3 focuses on creative thinking and expressing oneself in English. The Learning Salon is where participants can freely discuss and make presentations on what they study in university and college, what books they read, what goals and tasks they tackle with and what visions they hold for the future, based on what they have learned and checked through the Career Seminar.

Raising an example, Table 1 shows the schedule for the first cycle that was held in 2010. The program started before the new semester started because we hoped students to reflect on how they spent their last semester and to discover their tasks for a new semester. The basis of student experience and life is our policy at the Kyoto Career Seminar.

Table 9.1 Schedule of *the Kyoto Career Seminar* (the 1st cycle in 2010)

Date (2010)	Day	Year of Participants	Program Name	Focus Objective
February 6	Sat.	1, 2	Career Seminar 1	Linking student life with career design
April 17	Sat.	2, 3	Career Seminar 2	Linking academics with career design
April 25	Sun.	2, 3	Learning Salon	
May 8	Sat.	1	Career Seminar 1	Linking student life with career design
May 22	Sat.	1, 2, 3	Learning Salon	
May 29	Sat.	1, 2, 3	Learning Salon	
June 12	Sat.	1, 2, 3	Learning Salon	
June 19	Sat.	2, 3	Career Seminar 3	Creative thinking and expressing oneself in English
June 26	Sat.	1	Career Seminar 2	Linking academics with career design
June 27	Sun.	2, 3	Learning Salon	
August 3	Tue.	1, 2, 3	Career Seminar Final	Reflecting on the last semester and discovering tasks for the coming semester

5 Attributes of Participants

What attributes of students participated in the Seminar? I will show them from the Career Seminar held on February 6th and the Career Seminar held on April 17th. Table 2 shows the universities and colleges of participants, Table 3 shows their majors, Table 4 shows the number of participants by year, and Table 5 shows the gender of participants.

Table 2 shows that there were 30 participants (out of 38 applicants) from 14 universities and colleges in Career Seminar 1, and 37 participants (out of 48 applicants) from 15 universities and colleges in Career Seminar 2. No students participated from Wakayama prefecture. Table 3 shows that many participants are humanities majors (arts and social sciences), but that there are also a fair number coming from sciences (science and engineering, medical sciences, etc.). Comparisons by year and the ratio of males to females can be seen in Table 4 and 5.

Table 9.2 Universities and colleges of participants

	February 6th	No. of Students	April 17th	No. of Students
1	Ritsumeikan University	5	Kyoto University	6
2	Shiga University	5	Ritsumeikan University	4
3	Kyoto University	5	Kwansei Gakuin University	4
4	Kobe University	3	Nara Prefectural University	3
5	Doshisha University	2	Otemon Gakuin University	3
6	Otemon Gakuin University	2	Osaka Shoin Women's University	3
7	Osaka City University	1	Kobe University	3
8	University of Marketing and Distribution Sciences	1	Kobe Tokiwa University	2
9	Kobe University	1	Shiga University	2
10	Kinki University	1	Kinki University	2
11	Kyoto University of Art and Design	1	University of Marketing and Distribution Sciences	1
12	Kyoto University of Education	1	Doshisha University	1
13	Kyoto Notre Dame University	1	Kobe University	1
14	Rikkyo University	1	Kansai University	1
15			Rikkyo University	1
	Total	30	Total	37

Table 9.3 Major of participants

	February 6th	April 17th
Humanities/Social Sciences	22	30
Sciences	7	5
Humanities/Social Sciences and Sciences	1	2
Total	30	37

Table 9.4 Year of participating students

	February 6th	April 17th
1st	15	1
2nd	15	15
3rd	–	21
Total	30	37

Table 9.5 Gender of participating students

	February 6th	April 17th
Male	11	18
Female	19	19
Total	30	37

Figure 9.1 Career Seminar 1

Figure 9.2 Career Seminar 2

6 Why Did the Students Participate in the Seminar?

In order to know why the students participated in the Seminar, we asked the participants in the survey about what they expected to improve or develop by the Seminar. Table 6 is a result.

We can realize from the table that the students were particularly interested in improving their "Job/Career Design" (N=23) as well as their "Academics" (N=21). These responses are in line with the Kyoto Career Seminar's objectives and the focus objective (linking academics with career design) of the Career Seminar 2 (April 17th). The students were also particularly interested in developing their "Interpersonal Relationship (N=24). Many students were concerned about a lack of interaction between different universities and academic departments, as written by the following student, "There are many similar types of people in my university (department) and I wanted more opportunities to interact with people from different universities and departments." This suggests that students can be motivated to participate in the Kyoto Career Seminar because it is an intercollegiate event.

Most of the comments on "Job/Career Design," were related to the programs career support centers at most universities and colleges are providing, while the comments on the other categories such as "Student Life," "Academics," and "Interpersonal Relationship" were specific to the Seminar. For example:

"I want to find something other than part-time job that I can really apply myself to." (Student Life)
"I enjoy my life buy may lack a large goal in myself." (Student Life)
"I wonder if what I'm studying at university will have any bearing on my future and whether or not I will be able to apply it." (Academics)
"I want to be able to explain to people what it is I'm studying at university." (Academics)
"I'm basically passive, so I want to actively get involved with people." (Interpersonal Relationship)

These comments indicate that the participants were motivated to improve or develop themselves in a holistic life space of students about academics and career design. They are the very main objective of the Kyoto Career Seminar.

Table 9.6 Why did the students participate in the seminar? (for improvement/for further development)

	For Improvement (They are not satisfied with their present conditions, so they want to improve them)	N=37	**For Further Development** (They are somewhat satisfied with their present conditions but want to have higher objectives)	N=37
Student Life	•I want to fully apply myself to something and achieve something from doing so •I want to make more effective use of time •I want to prepare on my way to school •I want to improve lifestyle habits •I want to find something other than part-time job that I can really apply myself to	15	•I enjoy my life buy may lack a large goal in myself. •I want to add some activities to my present life that will allow me to interact with more people •I want to lose my waste of time in the classes and the club activity.	21
Academics	•I want to improve my currently poor grades •Recently I don't study hard. I need to improve my studying. •I wonder if what I'm studying at university will have any bearing on my future and whether or not I will be able to apply it. •I want to actively participate in classes •I have goals such as to raise my TOEIC score but am not actively pursuing them	21	•I want to apply myself more to studying for certifications (bookkeeping and TOEIC) •I want to develop my own opinions •I want to be able to explain to people what it is I'm studying at university. •I want to spend more time studying outside of my major field •I want to enhance my thinking abilities	15

Job/ Career Design	•I don't know what I want to pursue •I don't think much about my future •I want to increase my knowledge of society and vocations •I know what direction I want to go in but don't have a concrete idea of an occupation •I can't decide whether to seek employment or continue on to graduate school	23	•I know what I want to do. Now I want to narrow down how to go about doing it. •I want to polish my social basic skills •I have many things I want to do and am having trouble narrowing them down.	14
Interpersonal Relationship	•I want to improve my communication skills •I want to develop broader and deeper relationships with people •I'm basically passive, so I want to actively get involved with people. •I want to actively speak with people when meeting them for the first time	13	•I'm sociable but want to deepen my relationship with others •I want to increase opportunities to meet people from other major fields •I want to interact with people of different ages •I want to exchange information with people from other universities and colleges	24

Note: Students made multiple responses

7 Types of Participants: From the Perspectives of Spending a Week and the Two Lives

Let's take a look here at what types of students participated in the Seminar, from the perspectives of how students spend a week and the two lives. Figures 3 and 4 shows the types of participants for Career Seminar 1 (February 6th) and Figures 5 and 6 shows the types of participants for Career Seminar 2 (April 17th). Only six students participated in both seminars, so we can see the participants in both seminars were overall two different groups.

In comparison with the "four student types," we see that students who participated in the Career Seminar 1 (February 6th) spent more time in "Attending Classes and Experiments," "Spending with Friends of the Same Sex," "Club Activities," and "Part-Time Work as Tutor." (see Figure 3) Taken with the fact that they spent little time in out-of-class study (preparation, homework, assignment, or extra-curricular study) and reading, they displayed the pattern close to Type 4 students. Type 4 students are adaptive and enjoy their lives, but they do not

actively study and do not have very clear future perspectives and career designs (Mizokami, 2009). Furthermore, looking at their two lives (see Figure 4), we see that they "Have Future Perspectives, Understand What to Do in Their Daily Lives, and Take Actions" less than any of the four types of students (6.7%), and that they "Have Future Perspectives, but Don't Understand What to Do in Their Daily Lives" (40.0%) more than the four types of students. We can thus conclude that the students who participated in the Career Seminar 1 (February 6th) were adaptive but faced some serious problems regarding the two lives.

Similarly, we see that students who participated in Career Seminar 2 (April 17th) spent more time in "Attending Classes and Experiments," "Extra-Curricular Study," "Spending with Friends of the Same-Sex," "Club Activities," "Working Part-Time as Tutor," "Working Part-time," and "Reading for Study" in comparison with the four students types (see Figure 5). They displayed the pattern somewhat close to Type 3 students. Type 3 students spend more time in study both in and out of class, read, and further meeting with friends and participating in club activities that the other types of students. Overall, they play well and work well. Of the four student types, Type 3 students work hard toward their futures and feel their personal development (Mizokami, 2009).

From the perspective of spending a week, the students who attended the Career Seminar 2 (April 17th) appear to be very superior performers compared with the average student. In contrast, however, they revealed poorer future orientations than the adaptive Type 3 and Type 4 student from the perspective of the two lives (see Figure 6): that is, they "Have Future Perspectives, but Don't Understand What to Do in Their Daily Lives" (21.6%) and "Have No Future Perspectives" (27.0%). These portraits are close to those of Type 1 and 2 students, rather than Type 3 and 4 students. Taken together with the survey results of why students participated in the Seminar, we can understand the characteristics of these students in the ways that, firstly, they can do what they should do, but secondly, they did not have an idea of what they should do, so they participated in the Seminar.

It is too early to generalize it because we have data only for a few seminars, but at least the data we have suggest that most participants are relatively adaptive regarding student life and academics, while others are not. The interaction between those two different groups of students may have a good practical effect

at the Seminar. Actually, it would be difficult to run the Seminar if all participants have serious problems and difficulties, so we can say that there was relatively a good balance among participants overall at the Seminar.

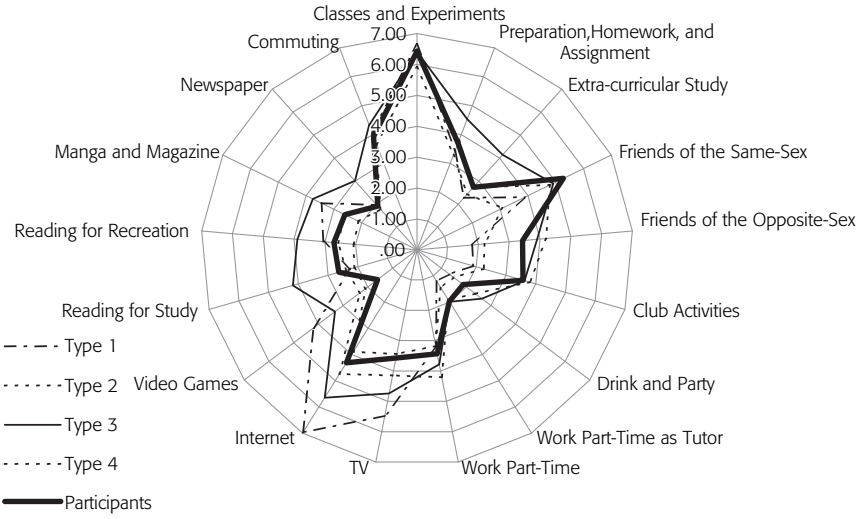

Figure 9.3 How do the participants spend a week? (Career Seminar 1, February, 6th)

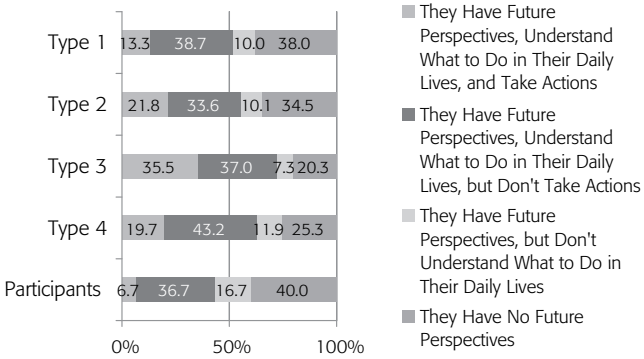

Figure 9.4 How are the two lives for the participants? (Career Seminar 1, February 6th)

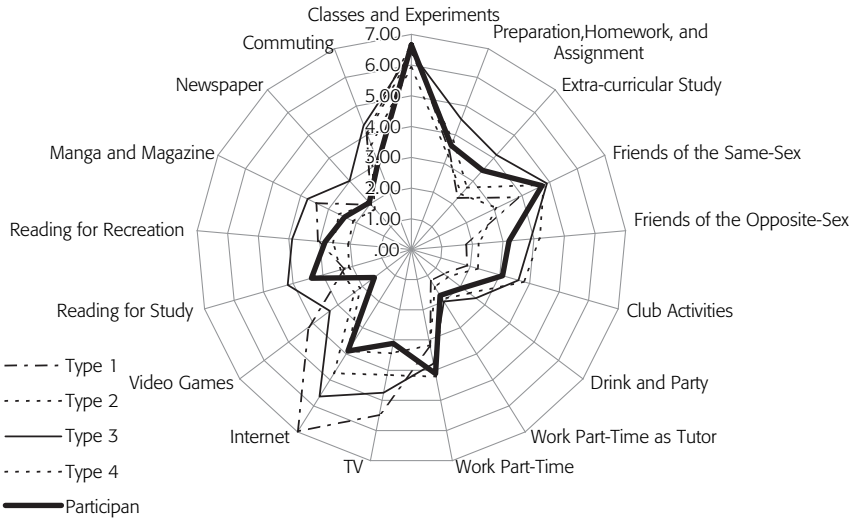

Figure 9.5 How do the participants spend a week? (Career Seminar 2, April 17th)

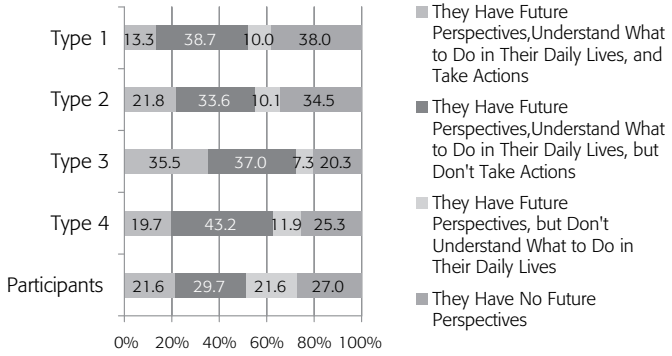

Figure 9.6 How are the two lives for the participants? (Career Seminar 2, April 17th)

8. How Did the Participants Spend Their Time at the Seminar?

Lastly, we will examine how the participants spent their time during the Seminar from the results of the questionnaire after the Seminar and the homework reports. The questionnaire was administered first at Career Seminar 2 (April 17th), so the results will be shown here for two Career Seminars (April 17th and May 8th) (See Figures 7 to 11). And, the results for the homework reports will be

shown for Career Seminar 2 (April 17th).

Firstly, looking at Figures 7 and 9, we see that the overall satisfaction ratings were very high. Figures 8 and 10 also show that almost every program was rated highly.

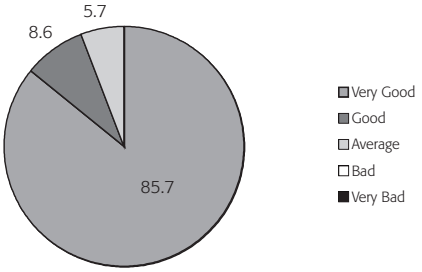

Figure 9.7 Satisfaction with the seminar for the participants (N=35) (Career Seminar 2, April 17th)

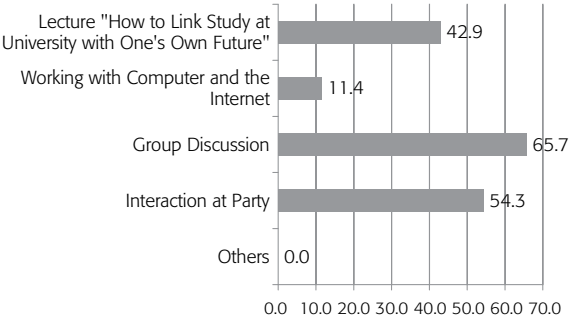

Figure 9.8 Which programs pleased you? (N=35) (Career Seminar 2, April 17th)

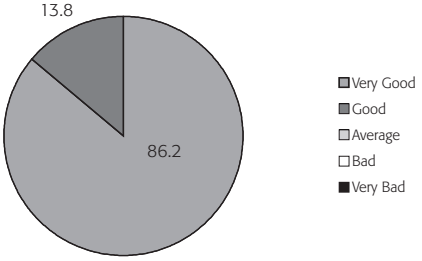

Figure 9.9 Satisfaction with the seminar (N=29) (Career Seminar 1, May 8th)

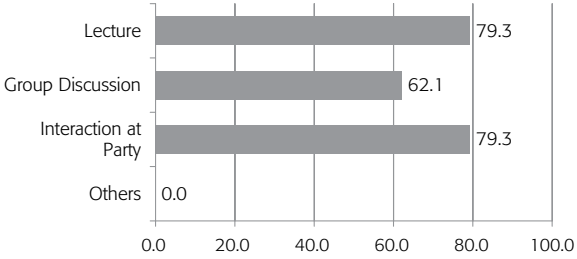

Figure 9.10 Which programs pleased you? (N=29) (Career Seminar 2, May 8th) (Career Seminar 1, May 8th)

Next, I will select three of the homework reports submitted after the Career Seminar 2 (April 17th; the focus objective, "Linking academics with career design"), and introduce them (see the boxes in the below).

The program of this Seminar consisted of two sessions. In Session 1, the participants formed groups of three and made presentations to other members about what they had recently studied in classes and what interesting books they were reading (the participants were informed of this in advance and came prepared). They were told there that it was important to use their own words in talking about what they have learned. Afterwards, they made free discussions about their discussions such as questions or impressions.

In the next presentation of Session 2, the participants were asked to link their presentations in Session 1 to one of the following topics. This is a training program to distance and look at something from a bird's-eye view.

1) Society or what is going on around them (*e.g.*, Prime Minister Hatoyama's policies, global warming, the Internet, mobile telephones, child abuse, English education in elementary school, economic disparities, the citizen judge system, homeless people, temp staff, etc.)
2) General knowledge (in humanities, social sciences, and sciences)
3) One's own future, career design, or personal interests

Before Session 2, the participants were allowed to use Google or Yahoo via the Internet for preparing for the session. The participants searched the definition or the meaning of their unclear words and concepts they had found in the presentations of Session 1, or to discover what kind of topics what they talked about in Session 1 would be linked with. This seemed to be a rather useful preparation for

the participants as indicated below (see the boxes in the below).

Before introducing three reports, I will also make theoretical implication of the programs at Sessions 1 and 2.

The first implication is about the significance of two sessions. When we talk with people in a public space, the contents or the involved contexts in conversation are not generally shared among speakers. Under such conditions, the speakers should begin conversation by guessing and confirming listeners' attributes (*ex*. specialty, job, history, etc.) or their knowledge/experience and gradually bring their topic toward a focus. During this process, the speakers are required to take bird's eye views about their own speeches. They are not allowed to talk without considering listeners' attributes or knowledge/experience. Sessions 1 and 2 assumed this kind of a communication setting in a public space.

The second implication is about the significance of letting participants use academic knowledge in presentations and discussions. In a public space, we talk with people in many cases using, not "everyday knowledge" that is familiar among speakers like used when we talk with close friends, but knowledge somewhat far from our everyday life. In Sessions 1 and 2, the participants used "academic knowledge" they had learned in classes at university and college or from books in presentations and discussions, because it can helps them enhance their communication skills for interacting with people in society in the future or for job interviews.

As far as I can see, the kind of communication and discussion that actually takes place in society is not as high level as discussions involving academic knowledge, however discussion using everyday knowledge or something similar would not train participants' communication skills that are expected of in society. It is for this reason that we let participants use academic knowledge at the Seminar. The fact that participants use what they have actually learned gives them opportunities to re-examine their study methods and daily living practices, as well as further develop an intellectual sense of curiosity and motivation. This training to enhance communication skills also benefits participants in many other ways.

The following three reports display how the participants spend time in these kinds of two sessions and how they viewed their own academic performance and student life.

3rd Year Student, Male, Department of Policy Science, Ritsumeikan University

Particular emphasis in this seminar was given to explaining things in one's own words. That was quite a surprise to me as I expected the focus to be more on such themes as how to change one's attitude. At any rate, while I am rather serious about attending classes and studying, it is true that I am not really aware of having benefited from it, and I agree that that is because I am not able to express what I have learned in my own words and thus what I have learned has not really become part of my own store of knowledge. People don't usually have opportunities to explain what they learned, and, aside from tests, neither do they have any opportunities to apply it. While putting what you have learned at university into words is not in and of itself enough to allow you to grow, it seems that it would be one of the ways to break out of a state of stagnation.

So it was that we worked in groups to develop presentations on what we had learned in classes over the last week and I was absolutely shocked to realize that I hadn't gained a thing. It's true that classes had just started and that we really hadn't yet gotten much into the content, but how little I had absorbed was deplorable and I expected to have remembered at least a little more. I was confident that I would be able to give explanations without having to look at my notes, but it turned out there were some lectures that I couldn't even think of a thing to say about. There were some people around me occasionally glancing at notes they had prepared as they talked quite seriously about things such as what they had felt or what kind of teachers they had, and I got the impression that they listened rather attentively in class.

In the second group work session, we were given the very challenging task of talking about our own academic field and how it related to society at large. I ended up giving a standard type of response that touched on the academic and social significance of my field, but I was impressed by someone else who gave an unembellished description of the classes he was taking, talking about the good points from a down-to-earth point of view and without breaking into a haughty discussion. It struck me that this was the difference between having and not having the ability to speak in your own words about what you were learning day-to-day and whether or not you had fully managed to make that a part of your own personal store of knowledge.

What I became particularly aware of was not what the people around me were saying, but just how terrible my own powers of retention were and how poor my attitude was toward class. It's not that I intended to just be half-listening in class, but the fact that I wasn't retaining anything means that I might as well have been asleep during class. I felt that very poignantly, so I came up with a possible solution. Seeing that I wasn't going to be remembering much anyway, I decided to summarize the key points and things I felt were important after every class. I believe that if you use your own words in picking out things that seem important or interesting to you, you will definitely learn to be able to explain them to others. I'm going to continue doing this so that I don't have to feel that I gained nothing from my studies at university and so that I am not at a loss for an answer when people ask me questions.

3rd Year Student, Female, Faculty of Education, Kyoto University

I looked at the "*Participant Record*" that I had filled out in advance of starting the discussions with the other participants and found that I had a lot of reflecting to do on things such as the content of my studies, my approach and how I spent my time. I think it was a good opportunity to stop and redefine my studies from the perspective of my own field of specialty. I have a general idea of what kind of career I want to pursue and in what kind of environment I want to find myself in the future but everything is still too vague. That's why, from winter break until now, I was approaching things that I found I had been avoiding. I felt I had been progressing in my studies, but I also realized that I wasn't really directly approaching my field of specialty, which I seriously wanted to nurture and develop. I had never felt so strongly about wanting to learn and experience a broad range of things, but I had not delved deeply enough into any one of them. So I felt, here, that I had one more thing I needed to think about; namely, how to best manage and use the limited time I had.

The people in the groups with whom I had discussions all came from different universities and colleges, some had transferred, some were thinking of transferring etc. and this gave me the opportunity to hear what students studying in different environments had to say about their learning environments and what they were studying. When we started thinking about our future occupations, people inevitably put too much emphasis on how they would relate the specialized study they were pursuing now to their futures, but I found it very refreshing to find that some of the people I spoke with were furthering their studies or doing research simply because they liked the particular field.

After talking about a class that had left an impression on me, the 15 minutes that we were given to examine how to apply that in any way possible to our daily lives was extremely enlightening. Every class is taught from a particular perspective, and you can follow that perspective to delve deeper into the subject. But looking at things from a different angle made me discover so many other issues and ways to link things that I couldn't put my pen down I was taking so many notes. I felt a keen sense that things just link to other things. I realized that, from this point of view, there is a big difference between knowing and not knowing how to go about linking things with one another.

It's very difficult to talk about things in your own words, and I'm personally not very confident doing so. I did feel, however, that repeatedly trying to do so gradually made it less difficult. The people I had discussions with were students that I had no previous interaction with. I knew nothing about them and they knew nothing about me. It was under these circumstances and with limited time that, like it or not, I had to force myself to think. And precisely because it was something I wasn't very good at, I took care as a listener to create an atmosphere that made it easy for others to speak as well.

I had many things to think about and wasn't able to collect my thoughts very well at the time, but the thing I felt most poignantly was that I would realize just how useful this all was only long after I had continued to work at it. I felt this listening to the people I had discussions with as well as when looking back on my own student life. And I also feel that having had this experience even once will allow me to redefine my studies from a higher perspective than when I was a freshman, and allow me to move forward with confidence. It makes me a bit nervous to have discussions with people, but doing so was stimulating and broadened my sphere of thought.

3rd Year Student, Female, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Osaka Shoin Women's University

I noticed four things from participating in this *Career Seminar*.

The first is that we have lots of time. When we started the group work, we each had 60 seconds to introduce ourselves. I thought 60 seconds already passed when I finished giving information about myself, my school, my department and where I was from, but I was surprised to find that only 30 seconds passed. When we later had 10 minutes to make a speech in the group, I tried to explain things in a variety of ways but found that I had nothing else to say after just 5 minutes. I have often been troubled by how fast time passes, but this was the first time I ever experienced being troubled by having too much time. We often feel pressed day to day by not having enough time, but I felt that changing how you think could make you feel that you have plenty of time.

The second is how difficult it is to express your thoughts to others. When we had to give speeches during group work about what we had learned, I didn't know where to begin. While I knew what I had learned and what classes were like, I just couldn't put them into words. When I finally did manage to get some words out, I found that I had a very difficult time arranging my thoughts coherently. I think that is probably because I have very few opportunities to arrange my thoughts and express them in my everyday life at college. I realized that to remedy this situation would require that I become more conscious of what I'm saying when talking with friends on a regular basis.

The third is that your classes at university have a bearing on your future. I used to think that what you learned at university had nothing to do with society at large, but listening to Professor Mizokami and doing group work made me see that that was not true. I had never thought how writing in cursive script or how classical Chinese literature could be useful to me in the future, and actually thought it wouldn't be. But changing my perspective made me see that it does have a bearing on my future. I also learned that it's difficult to broaden your outlook if you don't try changing how you view your employment research when seeking employment, and that it's important to broaden your outlook not only with regard to job searching, but also with regards to life in general.

The fourth is the importance of interacting with people. There are only 17 students, including myself, majoring in history and culture in the Department of Japanese Literature, and we have almost no opportunities to interact with people in different departments. The party after the Seminar was pleasantly stimulating for me because I talked with different kinds of people and heard about what those people were studying. There wouldn't be any opportunities like this when you're isolated inside university, and I felt that I would like to find more opportunities to interact with a variety of people and turn that interaction into something that everyone involved could benefit from.

I want to apply these four things to my everyday life so that people around me will say some day that I have changed in a positive way. My goal in the next Seminar is not to get confused and to discuss well during the group work session!

Summary

In this chapter, I focused on student life and theoretically and practically discussed "the Kyoto Career Seminar" that was an extra-curricular intercollegiate seminar to support student's academic performance and career development (establishing career design and acquiring social basic skills). The student life was a space bridging between faculty/educational development and career education that had been gaining momentum in recent years, which was based on the views that considering student life, academics, career design, and other areas related to student development could enrich all measures in university education.

The general trend to date is to approach faculty/educational development within the framework of the regular curriculum, while career education has a more extracurricular status. Both are treated separately. Attempts are now being made to integrate the two. The Seminar was an action research program seeking to discover solutions for combining these two while supporting participants to support their academics and career development (establishing career design and acquiring social basic skills).

The Kyoto Career Seminar targeted students of between first- and third-years at universities and colleges in the Kansai region. There were two cycles (for half a year respectively) in a year. A single cycle was comprised of three core programs in "the Career Seminar," and other supplementary programs called "*the Learning Salon*" that was roughly held once every two weeks. Most of the participants relatively adjusted to student life and academics, but there were also a fair number of participants to hope to improve their problems in those areas. We felt that the interaction between these two groups of students led to practical results at the Seminar. The participants' satisfaction ratings were very high, and finally the participants' reports on how they spent time during the Seminar and how they reflected on their student lives and academics.

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Comment 1

The Possibilities for Mutual/ Collegial Faculty Development Model and the Networking

Tatsuya Natsume

In this chapter, we shall investigate whether the mutual and collegial faculty development model advocated by the Center for the Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education at Kyoto University (hereafter referred to as "the Center") is capable of being a model for implementing faculty development. To state the conclusion in advance, it is capable of being such a model. However, in reaching this conclusion, there are various problems that need to be investigated, and I think it is essential to demonstrate some solution to those. The kinds of problems needing to be investigated are identified in the following pages, through a critical examination of the articles included in this book.

1 The Meaning of Emphasizing Mutual Faculty Development

Tanaka points out the following in relation to mutual faculty development. "It is because the principles of mutual faculty development are rooted in a bottom up approach and in collegial approach that they are appropriate for higher education institutions and also practical principles" (see Chapter 1, p. 11).

In the background to Tanaka's emphasis on the bottom up approach and collegial approach, is that faculty development frequently becomes a one-off event, the reality of which is that it does not become something which can support initiatives to improve everyday teaching. He contends that to break this deadlock, it is necessary to shift faculty development to a mutual model, "how a standardized, irregular form of FD can be incorporated within the context of the following goals: improving individual and organizational class instruction, building a system supportive of learning, curriculum reform and other similar regular efforts at educational improvement" (see Chapter 1, p. 7).

However, looming larger than this, is concern at the fact that faculty development must be placed under "bureaucratic control." According to Tanaka,

there is a "trend toward the Specialist Model and technical rationalism, together with bureaucratic control, particularly at the university level, seems dauntingly powerful" (see Chapter 1, p. 17).

Tanaka does not explicitly state what exactly this bureaucratic control is. Probably what is depicted in his mind is the government policy for higher education of recent years and what they have brought about in reality. From the 1990s onward, government policy for higher education has been turned out in rapid succession. While on the one hand, the extent of universities' discretionary powers has increased somewhat with the progress of deregulation, control over universities has actually been strengthened. As part of that cycle, government re-examined how university evaluations and public finance for higher education should be conducted. At present, things go ahead from the point of view of university education reform and the quality assurance. In regard to the necessity for this, the government and the universities are in agreement. That said, the adoption of these strategies is directed by the government, which frequently leads to results contrary to the interest of those on the university side. This applies equally to faculty development. Faculty development has been made a non-binding mandate in the Standards for Establishment of Universities. Standards have made it mandatory to implement, and so on. Although the purpose of these regulations is the improvement of university education, they may be more likely to hinder than help the independent efforts of people connected to the university, depending on the method of implementation.

Improving university teaching requires more than anything the independence and initiative of people involved with universities. This applies equally to faculty development, which is one of the measures for improving teaching. If these self-evident facts are always the most difficult to put into practice, then a word of warning needs to be sounded here about the current state of faculty development. Further, it is important to assert the principles of mutual faculty development, which makes collegiality its criterion, as showing one way of training teachers that involves freedom and spontaneity.

2 Regarding "Technical Rationality"

With this as a precondition, the next question to ask is about the content of "technical rationality." "Technical rationality" is, judging from Tanaka's pre-

vious essays, faculty development carried out accompanying the PDCA cycle. However the PDCA cycle itself is not thought to be something that should be denied. PDCA consists of setting goals and targets before an activity and checking how well they are being achieved during and after its implementation. It also involves thinking up strategies for improving content and methods of implementation based on the results of the checks, and implementing those strategies. This is not limited to educational activities, it can be used in any field at all. In groups, unexpected ideas and proposals are often born from discussions held in an atmosphere of freedom, and this kind of environment is often in place inside and outside of universities. There are also occasions where clear goals and targets might not be set.

However, even in this case, goals and targets that produce bold ideas, untrammeled by convention are still put in place for the most part. If that were not the case, the discussion would simply become idle chatter (Even with idle chatter, it is conceivable that the participants have some kind of object, and also conceivable that they are capable of evaluating its results). If the setting of goals and targets, and the constant improvement of activities—a sequential process—is to be rejected as technological rationalism, goal oriented activities will never come about. While faculty development involves busy academics, centers for teaching and learning as faculty development units are responsible for goal oriented activities, evaluating the condition of activities, and making continual improvements. This is so that the valuable time and energy of both sides is not wasted. The same point can be made in this way even about Mutual faculty development.

3 Is Individuality an Appropriate Target for Conquest?: Faculty Development by Group and by Individual

Let's try taking a look at concrete activity content of "mutual faculty development" and the "collegial model." If we judge by past results, the faculty development carried out by the Center are activities such as peer review of class teaching, training aimed at Graduate Students, and faculty development using ICT. Further, on the basis of these internal activities at Kyoto University, the Center is pursuing the network building at the regional, national and international levels. The faculty development activities they have carried out until now, and the faculty development activities they aim to carry out in the future, are mostly faculty

development by group.

The question we have raised here is, "What position is accorded to the individual learning by faculty members?" For example, we can regard peer review of class teaching as formally faculty development by group. The knowledge and hints for teaching improvement are mostly brought out in group discussion. That notwithstanding, they are also brought out from individual reflection. On top of that, if you try to use it in your own educational practice (which equals your own classes) it is impossible to avoid individual reflection in the process. In other words, decisions such as whether the knowledge and hints can be used in your own classes, or what parts need to be re-arranged in order for you to use them, are ultimately made based on consideration at the individual level. If that were not the case it is doubtful whether the material could be used in a real classroom situation. Although teaching takes place in a public space, for the teachers it is something carried out on their individual responsibility. Application of knowledge gained in group faculty development, and improving teaching based on that knowledge, are all ultimately undertaken on teachers' individual responsibility.

If this is so, then university teachers' learning does not necessarily have to take the form of group faculty development. Of course, it is conceivable that there may be cases where group faculty development is appropriate. New teachers, in most cases, lack the basic knowledge connected with delivering their classes. They have the need to learn a fixed amount of information and skills in a short period of time. Further, teachers moving from another institution will need to learn knowledge related to the educational environment in their new university. And even teachers who have accumulated some degree of practice, when moving into a new field, they may arrive at the necessity of observing a colleague's practice. In these types of case, group faculty development is appropriate. However, teachers are extremely busy, even when they admit the effectiveness of group faculty deelopment, it is conceivable that they might not be able to take part in it. Further, when the knowledge or skill one requires is clear, and it is required to be learned effectively in a short period of time, individual faculty development is superior to group training. For individual faculty development, there is no particular need to make time to attend a training location. To the extent the sense of purpose, learning objectives, and targets, are clear, information can be greedily absorbed from conversation with the lecturer. Further, faculty members are in the

main very experienced in the work of acquisition and internalization of knowledge. For them, even without listening to the opinions of others and exchanging opinions, they can absorb knowledge and come out with new ideas based on it. There are more than a few cases where individual research, where the learner can review things any number of times at their own pace, is more appropriate.

4 The Validity of Observations Regarding Effectiveness of Faculty Development Center Services and Their Limits

Taguchi introduces Ehime University, which provides faculty development skill-up lectures and various other kinds of training, and also introduces various services provided by other universities for the purpose of improving the teaching abilities of teaching staff. Beyond that she raises the question of whether "in an faculty development center, if it fully provides all these services, is faculty development actually furthered?" Taguchi's answer is "That alone is not enough." She identifies the reasons as firstly, that even though the services are provided, the structure to use them effectively is not available. Secondly, services tend to be limited by problems related to teaching techniques. In other words the center is incapable of providing services that respond to the essential demands of the faculty. In other words, "Faculty development can only be carried out collaboratively among the peers who comprise the faculty; and what services can be offered from outside to promote faculty development is extremely limited" (see Chapter 7, p. 132).

If asked whether the provision of "services" improves a teacher's teaching abilities, most teachers would say no. Probably even members of the center staff would give a similar response. That is a problem that comes before other issues, such as a "tenure system" like that existing in America that Taguchi discusses, or the related problem of "external standards," which are standards and the like, that the faculty has to meet. The main issue is that there are not enough incentives to produce the desire to take part in teaching improvement activities. In the background to this, is the fact that accurate evaluation of teaching activity is technically difficult. What degree of quality is required for educational activity? What criteria should be needed to be judged as outstanding teaching? What should be the standards for evaluating this? These are just some of the many undefined problems in regard to teaching activities. Accordingly, it is not easy for universities to carry out evaluation, which is the prerequisite for incentives.

The fact that a teacher's efforts alone do not advance education reform, is something that teachers are made well aware of, whether they like it or not, through their daily practice. This is one of the reasons that make it difficult to have the desire to improve their teaching. As a medium for the transmission of specialized skills and knowledge, classes are places filled with tension, created by teachers and students occupying the same time and place. Class quality is mediated by an extremely large number of elements. There are individual elements involved with all parties involved in a class: teacher, student, and the university administration. For example, in respect of teachers, the content and extent of their specialist knowledge, and their class planning; for students, their preparation, how well they are managing their physical condition, and so on; and for the university administration, the curriculum as a whole and maintenance of the classroom environment, are all involved. Most of these matters are not under the control of the teacher. There are operational problems as well; maintenance of the classroom environment at each university has not progressed. Responsibility for 10 periods of lessons per week, and a great number of large lectures, has become normal. The decisions relevant to this are outside the authority and discretion of the teachers. While these reforms to the teaching environment go ignored, it is obvious that a teacher's motivation to improve their classes is going to be difficult to find. Even if they did have the desire to make improvements, in a reality where their non-teaching workload is increasing, guaranteeing they had the time necessary to do so would be difficult.

Even in this difficult environment, there are many conscientious teachers who work hard to provide better classes to students. Support for these teachers so that their valuable efforts are not wasted is required to the people responsible for faculty development.

5 The Positive Significance of Scholarship of Teacfhing and Learning and Some Reservations

What is the aim of the scholarship of teaching and learning as an initiative? What is its significance? In regard to these points, Jennifer Meta Robinson said as follows: "Scholarship of teaching and learning is an inquiry-based initiative that invites faculty members to use the expertise of their disciplinary domain and their practical experience with teaching to decide is important for their students

to learn" (see Chapter 4, p. 72).

According to this observation, scholarship of teaching and learning appears to be an activity with so many subjects needing to be understood, that it could be called research. To put this another way, it could also be called an activity of arousing intellectual curiosity as researchers by embracing many unknown fields. In that sense, we could say it is about providing new viewpoints in response to one conception of education. That conception is that education can be understood as an activity in which its content and methods are set without regard to one's intentions (and at times against one's intentions) and teachers silently implement them. Even without going to that extreme, education can be understood as boring work for university teachers who are also researchers, no more than a duty to be carried out. This concept of teaching has been continuously embraced by more than a few university teachers, and it is difficult to say, even now, that it has been completely overturned. Teaching that is approached like this, even if it conceivably exists in fact, is a long way from the original spirit of university education. University education is the activity of teachers and students confronting each other as equals with the best knowledge and wisdom they possess; creating new value and knowledge—an intellectual activity overflowing with tension. The values and knowledge that can be created in this way are potentially unlimited depending on the effort applied.

Actually achieving this kind of education is not easy—the number of problems needing to be overcome are numerous. For example, what kind of skills and qualities do teachers and students need to have? What education content and methods are appropriate to the realities facing both sides? What kind of environment and conditions produce any kind of value or knowledge? Clearing up these and other questions, and continuing to improve the quality of education, requires research as a thread to guide activity, and support from below. If facutly development is treated as a research centered activity, it is necessary to encourage teachers' voluntary participation. Depending on the type of encouragement, this could be easy. These results in urging the creation of a community aimed at improving teaching through the creation of a network of teacher groups. This overlaps in many ways with what Mary Taylor Huber identifies as "teaching commons" —"spaces where all people involved can receive benefits and a space in which all of those people should contribute cooperatively." Further, it seems

likely that what the Center is aiming for with "mutual faculty development" is the creation of this kind of community.

In creating this sort of community, there are some points that have to be borne in mind. First of all, we should confirm that the goal of research is ultimately teaching improvements. Research normally requires the researcher's whole energy to be devoted to it. Obviously, production of evidence is also important. Evidence needs to be evidence capable of withstanding scientific scrutiny. In order to meet those requirements a large amount of energy and time need to be devoted to it. As a result, it is impossible to deny that research inevitably diverges from its original purpose of producing quality improvements in teaching, and heads into a dimension where it easily becomes an end unto itself. The production of research results; and genuinely using them in actual teaching, making adjustments and improvements between research and teaching as necessary, are two things that should be relatively well distinguished from each other. In that sense, Matsushita's explanation is suggestive. She points out that injunctions against the strictness of scholarship of teaching and learning are alluding to the danger of losing the liveliness of actual teaching practice, and that we should be attentive to tension to over-adherence to evidence.

The second thing that needs to be pointed out is related to members of communities. Making research into teaching as the scholarship of teaching and learning does, means teachers have to conduct as the main actors of the community. It is possible that a portion of the members will also be graduate students, but their role will be inherently limited. In the collegial model that Robinson gives as one of her examples, graduate students are included among the members. This is because one the aims of the program as set out is turning graduate students into higher education instructors. Although it has to be admitted there is a latent possibility that they will be future colleagues, at the present point in time they are not colleagues, and not members with equal standing to the teachers (However, the collegial model of Robinson is very interesting as a good example of Preparing Future Faculty Program, because the fact that university teachers from different specialist fields are teaching in close proximity to each other seems effective to develop teaching ability of graduate students).

The work of education is not composed of teachers alone. Independent, voluntary contributions from a diverse range of actors connected with education

are indispensable. Actors other than teachers, for example non-academic staff, and even the students being taught, have important roles to play in the work of teaching and improving its quality. If the community does not change its goals to research, but remains as the improvement of teaching, membership does not have to be limited to teachers alone and could be extended to these other actors as well. In Japan in recent years, awareness among non-academic staff at universities of their role in university reform is increasing and the number of those proactively participating is increasing. Academic societies for higher education also exist. Further, movement toward proactive involvement in educational reform even among students has spread to several universities around the country. These facts could be said to suggest the necessity and possibility for diversification of the membership of educational reform communities. The question is how this is thought of in "mutual faculty development"?

6 The Status and Role of Staff Belonging to Center for Teaching and Learning

In order for individual teachers to improve their teaching practice, they require comrades with the same intentions, and starting an initiative together with those partners to improve their teaching, deepening and sharing their knowledge essential for improving their teaching as they increase their circle of partners, and transmitting that knowledge to others, are the first steps to creating a network. However, any or all of these activities are unlikely to spontaneously occur. This point is exactly as Huber correctly identifies (see Chapter 2).

So an agency to act as the medium for all this is essential. The first thing that comes to mind for that agency is a center for teaching and learning. On this point there is no difference between Japan and the US. According to Huber the center in USA "have been playing crucial roles as brokers, helping faculty find resources and support for innovation, building networks, and encouraging both supply and demand for sophisticated, in-depth, local knowledge of what's happening, what's promising, and what's possible in classrooms and programs across particular college and university settings" (see Chapter 2, p. 63).

Their roles equate to supporting and encouraging the faculty members to enhance their teaching and to conduct research needed to achieve that. In the end it comes down to the role of providing a service to the faculty members. As

long as the staff who belong to the center have clearly differentiated status and roles from the faculty, and are limited to the status of service providers, there is a logical base for devoting themselves exclusively to that work and being able to polish the necessary skills and knowledge to carry out that work in a high degree. However, the position occupied by staff who are this kind of service provider, in an scholarship of teaching and learning community, inevitably becomes complicated. Are the center staff regarded by the teaching staff as colleagues? Will they be able to participate in research with teaching staff on an equal footing.

On the other hand, in Japanese universities, the center staff are teachers. Since the only difference is whether they belong to a faculty, or graduate school, or center, on the point of being a teacher, their status and position is the same as those teachers belonging to a graduate school or faculty. In other words, they are colleagues. If they define themselves as colleagues, the same as teachers belonging to a faculty or graduate school, they are required to have their own specialist knowledge related to the specialized field they belong to, are responsible for delivering classes, and possess experience and knowledge to support students study and student life. On top of that, they are required to take responsibility for performing the necessary work to improve teaching (planning and implementation and so on for faculty development by group). In actual fact, teaching staff belonging to these centers, in most cases, fulfill all of these responsibilities in the conduct of their work. On this point, the nature and role of the center and its staff is different to those of their US counterparts. While Japanese center staff have the advantage of proceeding with teaching reform as colleagues, the other side of the coin is that they end up bearing excessive responsibility.

Based on these points, I want to discuss the appropriateness of this thesis of "specialist model" and "collegial model." Teaching staff attached to the centers, carrying out faculty development activity for the benefit of teaching staff attached to the various faculties and graduate schools, are demonstrating the behavior of colleagues. Tanaka and Taguchi present the "specialist model" and the "collegial model" in opposition to each other, but the reality in Japan is that there ought to be no room at all to establish a specialist model. In particular, as long as there is no insistence that it is necessary to distinguish center staff as "specialists" from the teachers attached to faculties and graduate schools, it is impossible for faculty development as carried out in Japanese universities to depend on anything other

than the "collegial model." In the first place, what is meant by "specialists" or "specialists in education" in the case of the "specialist model" anyway? If it means people possessing specialist knowledge and skills in relation to teaching, then doesn't this require all university teachers to be specialists in teaching? Combined with research, teaching is the most fundamental specialist skill of university teaching staff. Lacking the specialist knowledge and skills related to teaching is normally impossible. In that sense, it is difficult for the "specialist model" to exist in Japan. Even so, if we were going to stress the specialization of the teachers attached to the center, to avoid misunderstanding, at least the label of "specialist" would have to be changed.

Let us also refer to "supplementary model of support" and "self-generating model of support." "Supplementary model of support" is, according to Matsushita's words, the "standards approach." (see Foreword) This is, as represented by the "faculty development map," is an approach consisting of composing a list of the abilities necessary to undertake teaching and the programs to learn them, and supporting teachers in learning those skills they lack. Even the representative example that has been given of the center at Ehime University, does not only provide "supplementary model of support." The diverse support provided by coordinators and others, includes some support that could be called "self-generating model." In order for support to be capable of being support in the literal sense of the word, it is necessary to have content and methods based on teachers needs and to closely adhering to those needs. There are also teachers who think they would like to learn necessary skills in a limited time (new teachers, teachers responsible for an unfamiliar subject, and so on). For these teachers, the "standards approach" or "supplementary model of support" is appropriate. Choosing the type and methods of support to provide according to the recipients needs is a matter of course for a support provider. It is definitely not the case that support is being provided according to a "specialist model with top down approach" (Tanaka, Chapter 1, p. 17)

7 Building Faculty Development Networks

The Center aims to build faculty development networks at every level, within the university, regionally, nationwide, and internationally. Already, at the regional level, the Kansai Faculty Development Association has been formed. The As-

sociation links universities and junior colleges in the Kansai Region, with the aim of promoting educational reform and faculty development. As of September 2010, 131 institutions have joined. It is a large scale organization which covers almost all universities in the Kansai Region. In regard to the merits of this kind of network, Tanaka, the representative of the leading representative institution, explains it as "developing with the help of colleagues faculty development activities that a single institution cannot do, and eliminating the waste that would come if each institution tried to do the same activities separately," in other words "supplementing and labor saving."[1]

In general, network structures, in addition to the merit of mutual support identified by Tanaka, have possessed many other merits.[2] That is exactly why in fact there exist a wide variety of networks at a university, both internal and external (and of course in society as well). These networks are not confined to academics, they exist in large numbers among non-academic staff and students too.

However, merit is something latent, in order to bring it out and use it in reality, there are many problems to surmount. There is no space here to point them out concretely. We shall limit ourselves to pointing out a few points.

Firstly, there is the question of how to set up the object of the network. This is not limited only to networks it is a major precondition to setting up any organization. However, it is not so simple that it could be said to be straightforward. Whether or not this is put in place as an official position, the questions of how rooted it is in intrinsic demands, how agreement can be formed between individual component members, while basing it on the actual situation and challenges of every component member, are definitely not easy. Further, it may be necessary to ask whether any value can in fact be created, and whether a network is really necessary to create that value.

Secondly, the understanding of the huge amounts of energy and time required to set up and maintain the network structure. The larger the scale of the network, the bigger the cost required to maintain it. The intentional and voluntary work of component members, starting with the core members, is indispensable. How much cost they are required to bear is an important problem (they are busy with a lot of other work inside and outside the university).

Thirdly, in order to bring out the latent merits, a certain amount of knowl-

edge and practical know-how about organizational management is essential. The individual peculiarities of component members (selected goals and targets, values to be pursued, pressing problems, and so on) are normally different, and it is definitely not exceptional to have complexly intertwined interests. It is entirely possible that even members who seem at first sight to have opposing interests, may combined to produce a large profit overall. However, this only becomes a possibility when the knowledge and know-how to realize this has been developed, accumulated and shared. If these can not be supplied, not only will the merits not be realized, but demerits are invited, and it even becomes likely that the network may disappear.

The Center, aims to be the basis of a network that transcends regions—at the national or international level.[3] In which case, clear awareness and consensus building in relation to these challenges is required first of all. As far as faculty development networks go, the center has only just begun the activity of setting up regional organizations in every region. In order to expand this to a national and international level, new high level knowledge and knowhow are required that goes beyond a regional level. The expectations placed on the Center are huge.

Summary: Clarification of the Role of Center for Teaching and Learning

Taguchi points out that: "The only conceivable entity for deliberating and determining the manner of how faculty develops is the faculty itself" and "faculty development can only be carried out collaboratively among the peers who comprise the faculty"(see Chapter 7, pp. 131-132).

In order not to have faculty development be imposed compulsorily from outside the university, it is important that the university teachers as a group work independently and voluntarily on giving form to an improvement of their abilities as professionals. If consideration was given to this, most people would agree with Taguchi's intentions.

As pointed out in this essay, If faculty development is going to be organized at each faculty at a university, or at an inter-university network that transcends the framework of an individual university, a structure at the center of the network to bear the administrative tasks is essential. The main agency (or at least the main component) is, looking at the reality of Japan, most likely a center for

teaching and learning. At the least, we can see that every university is able to try to entrust it to a center for teaching and learning. The teachers belonging to these centers are themselves university teachers, meaning that if they are defined as "the peers who comprise the faculty," there is no need for hesitation in proactively filling that role. In which case, the question that should be asked is what role should be entrusted to the center and its staff. If the staff are required to belong to a center independent of faculties and graduate schools, and if while there, they are required to have a different specialty to staff at faculties and graduate schools, while fulfilling basic conditions as university teachers, what support can the center provide? Genuine answers to that question will have to be sought from the members of the center staff.

Notes

1 Tsunemi Tanaka, "General Overview of the Association: Greetings from the Leading Representative Institution" (Kansai Faculty Development Association Website. Retrieved September 12, 2010 from http://www.kansai-fd.org/council/greeting.html

2 In relation to the merits and demerits of networks, see Naoki Wakabayashi (2009), *Network Organization*, Minerva Shobo.

3 See Kayo Matsushita (2009), Building intra- and inter-university faculty development networks, Symposium Report from the 15th Kyoto University Conference on Higher Education, *Kyoto University Researches in Higher Education*, Vol.15, 2009.

Comment 2

The Affinity Between Faculty Development and ICT: Possibilities and Challenges

Aya Yoshida

In recent years, the role of universities and university faculty has become a trio of activities: education, research, and social services. Of these, it goes without saying that the most traditional role is education. However, with the strengthening of universities' role as centers of intellectual production through research, the attraction to faculty of their role as educators has receded. Nevertheless, faced with rising numbers of university entrants, and diversifying in student body, the importance of universities' educational role is growing. The extent to which this gap in expectations, where a role that is essential for the university is not entirely attractive to faculty, can be filled, is the background to the demand for faculty development. This situation occurred in the US context in the 1970s, and in the Japanese context in the 1990s, where education received new emphasis as an important role for university faculty (Arimoto, 2005).

The rapid technological advances and widespread dissemination of ICT starting from the second half of the 1990s, have also had a more than a little to do with the promotion of faculty development. While many useful ideas how to use ICT are examined more in detail in Chapter five and Chapter six, the purpose of this comment is to consider why faculty development and ICT (which on the face of it appear to have no connection at all) have an affinity, what merits there are in using ICT in faculty development, and in contrast, whether there are any problems in using ICT to implement faculty development.

1 Opening and Sharing of Knowledge Through ICT

One reason that faculty do not consider education to be their fundamental role in their heart of hearts is that the process of teaching and learning are closed in the classroom and is not exposed to the evaluation from colleagues. Due to it, even if faculty do go searching for a good teaching model, it may happen that an appro-

priate model simply cannot be found. In the preface of this book, two conceptual arrangements, the "Standards Approach" and the "Generative Approach," were set out as methods of conducting faculty development. It would be fair to say that both of these share the common purpose of opening teaching and learning process which is shut up in the classroom to colleagues.

The first requirement to start faculty development is "Opening Education." Using ICT in order to do it has the dual merit of not only broadening its scope, in the sense of showing the process to people who aren't physically present, but also improving education quality. Let me allow to provide explanation regarding the latter benefit. This is quality improvement in both senses: 1) those who open up their teaching will be exposed to the evaluation of their colleagues, and work to improve the quality of their teaching, 2) that it becomes possible for faculty to improve their teaching by searching for and finding appropriate models. The goals of faculty development, that is opening education from the classroom and sharing it with others, possess an affinity with the special characteristics of ICT.

Teaching and learning process that is closed to the classroom is limited to people who attend that particular time and place. By using ICT, however, the know-how accumulated by individuals is made available to others. Then, it becomes possible to separate the process of teaching and learning into its individual components such as educational contents, teaching method, educational materials, evaluation of students' progress, etc, to record them and to examine the relation between them. Teaching and learning can be analyzed and transmitted to others, and accumulated through the examination by others. ICT is deeply involved in this transformation from individual experience to "knowledge" which is shared by a large number of people, and thus finds its place as a useful tool for conducting faculty development.

2 Transmission of Information by Individuals and Building Network

The characteristic of ICT, as represented by the Internet, is that individuals can transmit information to unlimited numbers of people. It is true that newspapers, books & magazines, TV, and other pre-existing media are also tools for transmitting information to large numbers of people, but they do not give individuals the freedom to transmit information through them. ICT make it possible for

individuals to transmit information to any number of other people and for any number of other people to access that information as individuals.

ICT is a superior tool to any of other media in terms that it can transmit large volumes of information, mixing different media—text, audio, picture—at low cost and reducing time to transmit to the maximum (Aiba, 2003). Network of individuals through ICT can easily be formed and can be expanded without limit.

This function corresponds to the goals of faculty development. Since teaching and learning in the classroom is carried out on the authority and responsibility of each faculty, opening and improving the process of teaching and learning which is the goal of faculty development is achieved by the initiative of each faculty. It depends on each faculty's own intention that analyzes the process of teaching and learning and turns it into knowledge. By using ICT for faculty development, individual faculty involved in teaching and learning become easier to be seen, and it becomes easier to make connections between faculty members. In other words, if we take (in the terms of this paper) the "generative approach," building network based on initiative of individuals is essential to faculty development, and ICT is a useful tool to that end.

3 Limits of the Web of "Initiative" and Its Blind Spots

It is true that the key to faculty development using ICT is expanding these networks on the basis of initiatives taken spontaneously by individual faculty without relying on institutional structures. The question however arises of whether the web of connections formed by such a spontaneous method is in fact all-encompassing. There is one study that considers this question. According to a 2006 survey of approximately 4,400 faculty at 4-year universities in Japan, it showed that the number of courses faculty teach, and the institutionalization of the university's faculty development system correspond to the rank of institution to which faculty belong. That is, at universities where the academic ability of students was ranked high, 70% had an faculty development system in place, where institutional level was mid-range, this figure was 57%, and where academic ability was low ranked, 46%. Regarding teaching load, a half of faculty whose students' academic ability was highly ranked taught 3 courses or less, but at lower ranking universities 45% of faculty teach over seven courses (Yoshida, 2008).

Universities where the students academic ability is high have an abundance of material and human resources, so the process of setting up faculty development in the university proceeds smoothly and the teaching load on faculty is not heavy. On the other hand, universities where the level of students academic ability is low is not blessed with a variety of resources, the faculty's teaching load is heavy, and a university faculty development system is not enough. Faculty who work at universities where they need to put the most effort into what and how they teach students are in an environment where it is difficult to get teaching resources in their universities and where they have only limited time to apply for a share of the resources that are available.

How can a faculty development network based on individuals help faculty in this environment? Precisely because it originates in individual initiative, it can spread its mesh as wide as possible, becoming a network that goes beyond university organization. On the other hand, because it depends on individual initiative, it might be that the mesh does not extend to where it is needed. Faculty with individual initiative might also be those with the latitude to adopt a network approach. How to approach the faculty who need information about faculty development but who don't possess the latitude to search for the information is one of the issues to be considered.

Conversely, together with the freedom to participate in this kind of network, it is essential to have a framework that guarantees the freedom to withdraw from it. We tend to positively evaluate both individual initiative and the networks formed from it. The participants' sense of mutual solidarity is deeply woven into the mesh of the network and there are many cases where a participant's action to withdraw from the mesh receives a negative evaluation from the other participants. Even though there is no organizational compulsion present in the network itself, it is conceivable that a network might transform to one where invisible compulsion is at work.

4 The Systemic Nature of University Teaching and Faculty Development

Faculty development network which is based on individual faculty's initiative are able to expand its scale beyond university organization. Although it may be one of the merits to extend the network, faculty who are not interested in faculty

development are allowed to participate in faculty development network. How should we consider this situation? It goes without saying that university education is composed of educational programs or curricula, it is then subdivided into courses which faculty teach. The goal of faculty development is often thought to be improving teaching ability of individual faculty. If we, however, shift the focus back to university education in general, it becomes necessary to go beyond individual faculty's teaching, and focus on grasping the overall structure of university education and how to improve it. By using ICT, networks of individuals have the ability to expand without limit. Then the question is how to put together a focus on improving educational programs and curricula at the level of the individual university.

When using ICT, a convenient tool for activities with an individual basis, the question also arises of how to combine the spontaneity of individual initiative and the systemic structures of university education. Involving faculty without 'initiative' is probably also necessary and the systemic nature of university education probably takes precedence over individual initiative. In this process, networks may end up taking on a different character to the initial intention. Considering individual faculty's problems on one hand and considering the problems of educational programs and curricula on the other hand become tasks of entirely different dimensions. The cumulative effect of developing individual faculty' skills does not translate directly into the solution to universities' teaching problem. How should universities look for the solution to discrepancies and conflicts when they emerge?

5 The Challenge for Faculty Development in Student Learning Outcomes

The reason for raising this issue is that there has been a strong movement in recent years to require to show student learning outcomes rather than individual faculty teaching or the university's teaching program as a quality assurance of university education (Yoshida 2009). As the university's position in a society becomes more large and important, requiring for results of university education cannot be avoided. Those who require 'accountability' directly focus on student learning outcomes.

What then becomes a issue is how to show the students learning outcomes.

At one end of the axis there is the standardized test which is a method of measuring results according to one dimensional criterion. On the opposite end there is the method of recording student progress and showing their individual growth. The biggest problem in the former method is that there is no need to examine the teaching contents or the learning process. The only thing to be required is how well some external criteria are cleared. This method is often rejected as focusing on results only.

Recording individual progress which is the antithesis of this method often receives much approval. However, this method forces the rejection of existing one-to-many forms of university education that are a precondition of educational programs and curricula. There is an idea that every student has a right to progress in its own direction as much as possible at the back of recording individual progress. This idea conflicts with the one-to-many forms of education. Because a university lecture, or even a seminar leads a certain number of students to a goal of it, diversity of individual students' progress is sometimes restricted in this situation.

The method of accumulating processes in order to examine the growth of individuals has a high affinity with ICT as an e-Portfolio, so there are a lot of possibilities for adoption as a method of measuring faculty development implementation. However there needs to be careful that it is not just being recommended on the merits of it being a convenient tool.

In this way, it is necessary to recognize that faculty development does not just stop at the extent of teaching carried out by individual faculty but expands the boundaries of its coverage. We need to inquire these issues which faculty development implies. We also need to consider whether the merits of ICT can continue to be applied and whether ICT continues to keep its affinity with faculty development when the range of faculty development expands.

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Afterword

Tsunemi Tanaka

The international symposium, "The Future of Faculty Development in Japan: Building the Core in Faculty Development," from which this book is drawn, was held in January 2009. In May of the previous year, together with a handful of staff from the Center for the Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education at Kyoto University, I visited the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and several other educational institutions in the United States. This research tour was our first chance to directly exchange views with the US participants in the International Symposium.

The Carnegie Foundation was the first location we visited. While we were chatting on the first day after exchanging research and opinions, Toru Iiyoshi, who was at that time one of the leading staff at the research center, suddenly (well that was my impression at the time) treated us to the information that "The Foundation is withdrawing from research in the field of higher education." This was a dizzying mental blow that even now I remember vividly. It was as if the person we had come across the sea to seek cooperation from suddenly fell into a massive crack in the ground and disappeared right in front of our eyes.

On this research tour, after our visit to the Foundation, we visited Indiana University (Bloomington campus), and North Carolina University at Chapel Hill. Through these investigations, we received the strong impression that the idea of the "Scholarship of Teaching and Learning" was in the process of shifting from a proper noun, inextricably tied to the Carnegie Foundation, to a common noun. Now that I think about it, we unexpectedly walked straight into the start of a dramatic situation where "The Scholarship of Teaching and Learning was becoming a common noun as a result of the Carnegie Institution retiring from Higher Education." All of the US contributors to this book are valued friends and colleagues, to whose help we have been indebted during and after our research tour.

This "familiarity" is in fact the initial strong impression I received at the point that I first laid eyes on their work, well before the US research tour. As has already been stated several times in this book, we called our own organizational principle in relation to faculty development, which we had been putting together from public trial lessons together with many other projects since the time of the former Center (Research Center for Higher Education), "mutual training." It is the principle that university lecturers should work together to help each other grow while respecting each others' independence and the every day context that they each operate in. The familiarity I felt that, with the Carnegie scholars, work was simple surprise mixed with a sense of relief that "There are people here just like us, who love the independence, and contextuality, and everydayness of teachers."

A perusal of this book will make clear that, while the ideas of the Center staff and the ideas of the staff at Carnegie are largely in agreement, there are also some eye-popping differences. This is made obvious due to the large differences in the context in which we work. Not only are similar variations apparent between Japanese contributors to this book, they are even apparent between different contributors from the Center. It is because these differences exist that we each work to understand the other and aim for mutual training.

Even looking at the "words" that make up a "text," the meaning of specific "words" are not found by applying a definition or usage instructions (Wittgenstein), nor is meaning fixed from the outset. It is determined by the context in which the words are actually used. Our ability to understand each other comes when people belonging to different contexts understand properly the differences in meaning of their words (or texts), which come from the differences in their contexts, while transcending those differences to stretch out their hands to one another and make a mutual connection.

In attempting to achieve mutual understanding, the fact that we can feel "familiarity" about the other party in advance is something to be grateful for. The reason that the theories of scholars from the Carnegie Foundation seem familiar to us, is that there is a strong commonality in our basic contexts when it comes to getting hold of university teachers. In Japan, we have encountered a lot of strident theories from which we can sense very little of this kind of familiarity. We surmise that the scholars from the Carnegie Foundation have probably felt

the same kind of feeling of frustration in the United States as we have in Japan. In the discussions in this book, where both of us meet the other, there is none of this frustration as far as I can see. Accordingly, in our discussions there were no foreign elements such as strategic and tactical positions at all. In this book I think that we are, so to speak, simply piling unreserved statement upon unreserved statement, and so were able to develop what you might call "pure" arguments.

The commentators presenting the essays in the various chapters of the book were participants at the seminar, as well as being people involved with faculty development in Japan, with whom we were "familiar," that is, we were able to feel we had a basic connection. As you can see at a glance, there are those who take a different stance to the Center staff and Carnegie staff, but the essays of all of these people are strongly impressed with individual locality that is tightly woven into the context of higher education in Japan. There is no other option than to value these as much as we possibly can.

The publication of this book is an incredibly timely enterprise, coming as it does at a time when the realization of faculty development is now urgently required after faculty development was made a compulsory legal requirement in Japan. There can be no mistaking this. The realization of faculty development needs to be done according to the context of the everyday teaching practice to which the institutional participants, comprising teaching staff aiming at the reform of university education, belong. To that end the principles of mutual training in faculty development need to be held up to thorough scrutiny, in both their applicability and their realism. This book tries to respond to this challenge of theoretical scrutiny by cross-examining the principles of mutual learning in faculty development and the "Scholarship of Teaching and Learning." To what degree can this book respond to this epoch-making fundamental challenge? There is, at this point, no choice but to leave this to the judgment of the readers. In any case, I would like to express my deep gratitude to Shimoda Katsuji of Toshindo for offering us the chance, today, when the business of publishing is standing at the edge of a precipice, to do this kind of unpretentious, in some senses, unexciting, theoretical work. Finally, I would also like to express my gratitude to Professor Kayo Matsushita, who was engaged in the unspectacular business of planning and organizing the international seminar and putting together this book, for her unstinting efforts.

Finally, I would like to acknowledge the assistance received in our visit to the US, the international symposium, and the publication of this book, from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology through the "Formation of a Model Center for the University Teacher Training" Strategic Challenge Response Grant (FY2008), "Formation of a Core Center of Mutual Faculty Development to Provide Educational Training for University Teachers" Special Education Research Grant (FY2009/2010) and the Kyoto University Global COE Program "Revitalizing Education for Dynamic Hearts and Minds."

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About the Authors

Kayo Matsushita has been a professor at the Center for the Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education, Kyoto University since 2004. She holds a Ph.D. in education from Kyoto University. Her recent research focus is on the concept of ability in late modernity and its impact on curriculum, teaching & learning, and student assessment. Her latest publications include the edited volume *Does a New Concept of Ability Change Education?: Gakuryoku, Literacy, and Competency* (in Japanese, Minerva Shobo, 2010), and the book Performance Assessment (in Japanese, Nippon Hyojun, 2007).

Tsunemi Tanaka has been a professor at the Center for the Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education, Kyoto University since 1995, and also been the director of the Center since 2006. He received his doctorate in education from Kyoto University. He has been studying in the philosophy of education, the history of the educational thoughts and the university pedagogy. His books include *Towards the Clinical Theory on Human Becoming* (in Japanese, Keiso Shobo, 2003) and *The Development of the Pädagogische Anthropologie* (in Japanese, Hokuju Shuppan, 2009).

Mary Taylor Huber is a senior scholar emerita and consulting scholar at the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, where she was involved in research since 1985. Also a cultural anthropologist, with degrees from Bucknell University and the University of Pittsburgh, she directed projects on cultures of teaching in higher education and on integrative learning in undergraduate education, and worked closely with the Carnegie Academy for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning. Her Carnegie Foundation publications include the co-authored report *Scholarship Assessed: Evaluation of the Professoriate* (1997), the co-edited volume *Disciplinary Styles in the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning: Exploring Common Ground* (Stylus, 2002), the book *Balancing Acts: The Scholarship of Teaching and Learning in Academic Careers* (Stylus, 2004), and the coauthored studies *The Advancement of Learning: Building the Teaching Commons* and *The Scholarship of Teaching and Learning Reconsidered: Institutional Integration and Impact* (Jossey-Bass, 2005, 2011).

Jennifer Robinson is a senior lecturer in the Indiana University Department of Communication and Culture. She served for 8 years as director of Indiana University's Campus Instructional Consulting office, which received a TIAA-CREF Hesburgh Award for faculty

development in 2003. She is a founding member and past president of the International Society for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning. In addition to research on teaching and learning, she studies social performance of self in place and community. She is primary author of *The Farmers' Market Book: Growing Food, Cultivating Community* (Indiana University Press, 2007) and co-editor of the books *Teaching Environmental Literacy: Across Campus and Across the Curriculum* (Indiana University Press, 2009) and *A Cultural Approach to Interpersonal Communication* (Wiley-Blackwell, 2012).

Toru Iiyoshi is a senior strategist at the Office of Educational Innovation and Technology at Massachusetts Institute of Technology. At MIT, Dr. Iiyoshi leads research, development, and outreach efforts that take advantage of emerging technologies to enable educational institutions, programs, and faculty to transform the knowledge implicit in effective practice into ideas, theories, and resources that can be shared widely to advance teaching and student learning. Formerly, he was a Senior Scholar at The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching where he served as the Director of the Knowledge Media Laboratory. He is a co-editor of the Carnegie Foundation's book, *Opening Up Education* (MIT Press, 2008) and has held visiting professor appointments at the Japan Advanced Institute of Science and Technology as well as the Graduate School of Interdisciplinary Information Studies at the University of Tokyo. He also served as a member of the World Economic Forum's Global Agenda Council on Technology and Education.

Hiroyuki Sakai has been a program-specific associate professor at the Center for the Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education, Kyoto University since 2008. He served in Graduate School of Science and Technology, Kobe University as an assistant professor from 1996 until 2001, following one year in Asahi Glass Sound Proof System Co. He graduated in architecture at Kobe University in 1995, and received his Ph.D. from Kobe University in 2001. He specializes in room acoustics and educational technology. His books include *Encyclopedia of Sound* (in Japanese, Maruzen, 2006; co-editor and co-author), Practices for Faculty Development Using ICT at Kyoto University: "Online Joint Seminar" and "Web-based Class Observation System" (in Japanese, *Journal of Multimedia Aided Educational Research*, 4(1), 2007), and Web-based Open Class System for University Teacher Training to Promote Awareness and Self-reflection (in Japanese, *Japan Journal of Educational Technology*, 32(suppl.), 2008; co-author).

Mana Taguchi has been an associate professor at the Center for the Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education, Kyoto University since 2008. After receiving her Ph.D. from Osaka University, she served as an associate professor at the National Institute of Multimedia Education. During 2003-2004 she was a visiting scholar of Derek Bok Teaching

and Learning Center at Harvard University. Now she specializes in educational technology and higher education. Her books include *Management Strategy of University e-Learning* (in Japanese, Tokyo Denki University Press, 2005; co-editor and co-author), *In Search of e-Learning* (in Japanese, Toshindo, 2005; co-editor and co-author), *Handbook for Student Evaluation of Teaching* (in Japanese, Tamagawa University Press, 2007; co-author).

Yusaku Otsuka has been a professor at the Center for the Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education, Kyoto University since 2004. He specializes in educational psychology and educational evaluation. He worked for the Research Division at the National Center for University Entrance Examinations, the Research and Development Division at the National Institute of Multimedia Education and the Research Division at the National Institution for Academic Degrees and University Evaluation. His publications include "Challenges of Class Evaluation toward Learning Community Formation" in S. Mizokami & T. Fujita (Eds.), *Psychologists, the Challenge of Higher Education* (in Japanese, Nakanishiya, 2005); "Class Evaluation and Accountability" in H. Yamaji (Ed.), *Handbook for Utilizing Class Evaluation* (in Japanese, Tamagawa University Press, 2007).

Shinichi Mizokami has been an associate professor at the Center for the Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education, Kyoto University since 2003. He received his doctorate in education from Kyoto University. His recent research focuses on student learning and development in higher education. His latest publications include the books *The Psychology of Self Formation: The Self is Developed by Going Through the Forest of Others* (in Japanese, Sekaishisosha, 2008) and *The Psychology of Contemporary Adolescence: The Age of Adjustment to Self Formation* (in Japanese, Yuhikaku, 2010).

Tatsuya Natsume has been a professor at the Center for the Studies of Higher Education, Nagoya University since 2004. He received his master's degree in education at Nagoya University. His previous position was a professor of the Admission Research Center at Tohoku University after being associate professor at Hokkaido University of Education (in charge of teaching methodology of vocational education). He specializes in higher education and vocational education. He is the co-editor of the books *Lecture for Preparing Future Faculty* (in Japanese, Tamagawa University Press, 2010), and *Beyond Faculty Development* (in Japanese, Tohoku University Press, 2009), and the co-author of book *Tradition and Innovation of Education in France* (in Japanese, Daigakukyoiku-shuppan, 2009).

Aya Yoshida has been a professor at the Faculty of Education and Integrated Arts and Science, Waseda University since 2008. She received Ph. D. in Education from Tokyo University. She served as an associate professor and also a professor at the National Institute of

Multimedia Education. She specializes in educational sociology. Her books include *Professional School in Japan at the time of Starting* (in Japanese, Toshindo, 2010), *Do Science in University Education: An International Comparative Study on Assessment of Education for Student* (in Japanese, Toshindo, 2009; co-author), *The Strategy of Training IT Education Professionals* (in Japanese, Toshindo, 2008; co-author).