

The Culture of Japanese Teacher Competency Formation in the Late 2010s: A Comparison with Italian Teachers

2010年代後半の日本の教師の力量形成に関する文化
—イタリアの教師との比較の観点から—

川村 光*

Akira KAWAMURA

Abstract

This study compared the results of a questionnaire survey of public primary and lower secondary school teachers in Japan and Italy in the latter half of the 2010s to relativise the culture of competence formation in teachers in both countries and to highlight the characteristics of each country.

A survey analysis was conducted and its findings are thus summarised. First, we were able to point to elements that teachers in both countries have in common, namely, the importance of motivation and effort, daily interactions with children and colleagues, and the research and training in the schools with which they are affiliated, which are important for improving the quality of their own educational practices.

Second, for Japanese teachers, good competence formation requires experience in interacting with administrators, students' parents, and people other than school colleagues. For Italian teachers, participation in the activities of Teacher Associations (including the Teachers and Researchers Association) is important. We believe this difference to be caused by the unique working environments of teachers at schools in both countries and the institutions that frame them.

As described above, each country has distinct manners of competence formation, implying equally different solutions for a common sense of crisis in which competence formation through teacher communication in the field—an important aspect—will increasingly fail to meet expectations in the future. We believe that teacher competence formation policies in both countries are beginning to move comprehensively in sound directions under the influence of the education institutional reforms in each country.

I Problem Setting

Since the 2010s, various teacher education reforms have been undertaken in Japan to develop a system to support 'continuing education for teachers'. This has been done through integrating education, recruitment, and training. In teacher training, reforms are underway that are aimed at homogenising teachers for the purpose of ensuring the quality of education, as exemplified by the introduction of the core teacher training curriculum into teacher training courses and the formulation of training indicators by the teacher professional development councils of each local government concerning training for in-service teachers. In addition, from the 2023 school year onwards, a new training system will be launched that will utilise training history as an alternative to courses for renewing teaching licences.

* Researcher at the Research Institute for Education, Kansai University of International Studies

Against these trends in teacher education, our research project has been to conduct ongoing empirical research on teacher competency formation in Japan in the 2010s. This research focuses on teachers' life courses. It highlights the pre-employment experience that forms the basis of their competency formation, and the work environment and collegial relationships involved in improving their abilities after beginning teaching. A cohort analysis and regional comparative analysis were conducted accordingly. We compared competence formation in public primary school teachers and lower secondary school teachers in 2011 and 2017 and traced their transformation in the 2010s (Kawamura, 2019). We also conducted a survey on competence formation among Italian teachers in order to relativise competence formation among Japanese teachers and to examine their characteristics as well as the characteristics of teachers across countries. Based on the items in a questionnaire survey we conducted in Japan, we examined the situation of teachers of public primary and lower secondary schools in Italy (Kawamura, 2022).

In the context of this series of studies, the purpose of this study is to compare the results of a questionnaire survey of schoolteachers in Japan and Italy in the latter half of the 2010s to relativise the culture of competence formation in teachers in both countries and to highlight the characteristics of each country.

To understand the characteristics of teacher groups in Japan, most scholars have conducted their research based on the concept of 'teacher culture'. Teacher culture is defined as 'teachers' vocational awareness and self-awareness, professional knowledge and skills, norms and values that give the feeling of 'being "like a teacher," views and ways of thinking, it is a stylized vocational culture that is peculiar to teachers, such as how they feel and how they behave' (Satō, 1994, p.21). Waller (1932) was a pioneer of teacher culture research. He portrayed the characteristic negative personalities of teachers, such as their authoritarian attitudes and inflexibility. Lortie (1975) also uses important concepts such as endemic uncertainty, which are characteristics of teaching, and points out individualism, presentism, and conservatism as characteristics of teacher culture. Both scholars' findings capture the characteristics of the teaching profession that transcend generations and form the basis of research on teacher culture.

Research on teacher culture in Japan dates to the 1970s. This research also includes studies on culture that is thought to be typical of Japanese teachers. A culture of peer relationships is characterised by collectivist cooperative pacing that prioritises harmony with peers (Nagai, 1977). Here, we have an educational view that places importance on trust-based education as a basis of educational practice (Shimahara & Sakai, 1995), and an attitude that emphasises emotional bonds as a basic for high quality teaching and learning (Hargreaves, 1999). The term *Shidō* signifies the education of all aspects of a child, such as the child's learning experience, their life, and their future career to improve the child's learning experience. The term *Shidō no bunka* ('the culture of *Shidō*') refers to all of these aspects comprehensively (Sakai, 1998). In relation to their teaching identities, Japanese teachers are noted for their 'dual strategy', aimed to prevent direct association with fluctuations in their teaching identities even if they are disturbed by difficulties (Kudomi (ed.), 2008). In the 1990s, Lewis introduced lesson studies, which is undertaken during in-school training, to the United States. Soon after, lesson studies spread to Europe, and was eventually positioned as a culture historically formed by Japanese teachers (Akita & Lewis, 2008).

While aspects of Japanese teacher culture have been uncovered through comparisons with other countries, the culture of teacher competence formation is still obscure. In this paper, we compare and analyse the results of questionnaire surveys of teachers in Japan and Italy. We highlight their differences as well as the common culture of teacher competence formation and identify the characteristics of teachers in each country.

II Comparative study of teacher groups in Japan and Italy

1. Overview of the Survey

The main items in the questionnaire are composed of the pre-employment experiences that form the basis of teacher competence formation and the post-employment teaching life and collegial relationships that are involved in improving their competence.

The survey was conducted between July and September 2017. The subjects were public primary and lower secondary school teachers from one prefecture in each of the Kansai, Chubu, and Kanto regions. One school information survey sheet (1) and questionnaires for teachers (an approximate number) were sent to a random sampling of public primary and lower secondary schools in each prefecture. At the time, we asked the schools that conducted the survey to return the survey sheets together with the collection forms on an individual school basis.

The Italian survey was conducted from April to December 2019. Using snowball sampling, questionnaires and web-based surveys were conducted in primary and lower secondary public comprehensive institutes (istituto comprensivi) in the northern, central, and southern parts of the country, and in public primary schools in the northern part of the country. A questionnaire survey about school information was conducted for school administrators.

Among the questionnaires collected in Japan and Italy from administrators, full-time teachers, and part-time teacher, we covered full-time teachers. The average age of the sample was 39.4 years old for primary school teachers and 41.4 years old for lower secondary school teachers in Japan, and 48.8 years old for primary school teachers and 50.4 years old for lower secondary school teachers in Italy¹.

Table 1. The number of the survey sample

	Japan	Italy
Primary school teachers	1605 people	213 people
Lower secondary school teachers	1030 people	128 people

2. Analysis Results

In this section, we first describe teaching life and collegial relationships with which teachers are involved when improving their competence. Next, we will examine their significance in improving the quality of their current educational practices and gain an understanding of the teacher culture of both countries from the perspective of competency formation.

First, let us consider the attitudes towards life as teachers. The results of the comparison between Japan and Italy are similar for both primary and lower secondary school teachers (see Table 2). More than 90% of primary and lower secondary school teachers in both countries responded ‘Yes’ to the statements ‘I am happy being a teacher’ and ‘I feel my work is worth the effort’, indicating that they view their teaching life positively. More than 90% of teachers answered ‘I am always busy’, while a higher proportion of Japanese teachers responded ‘I feel often tired’, indicating a small regional difference.

The proportion of Italian teachers who responded ‘I am training the citizens of tomorrow’ was extremely high. They appear to be carrying out educational practices with an awareness that they are fostering citizens who will create the society of the future, even more than Japanese teachers do. This seems to be related to the high proportion

Table 2. Attitude toward life as a teacher

	Primary school teachers		Lower secondary school teachers	
	Japan	Italy	Japan	Italy
I am happy being a teacher.	94.6	97.2	93.2 < 98.4	
I am always busy.	98.3	> 95.3	98.2 > 93.7	
I have full freedom in my work.	72.6	78.5	68.2 < 82.9	
I often feel tired.	85.2	> 69.9	84.1 > 75.6	
I feel my work is worth the effort.	94.1	< 97.6	92.1 < 98.4	
I am training the citizens of tomorrow.	76.2	< 98.1	72.6 < 96.8	
Society will improve in the future.	41.1	< 54.0	38.1 < 61.5	

Note 1: Numbers are percentages.

Note 2: The figures from 'I am happy being a teacher.' to 'I am training the citizens of tomorrow.' are the sums of 'A lot' and 'Enough'. The figures for 'Society will improve in the future.' are the sums of 'It will get better' and 'May be a little better'.

Note 3: As a result of the chi-square test, items with a significant difference at the 5% level are marked with an inequality sign.

of teachers who responded 'Society will improve in the future'. Many teachers seem to be aware of their role of building a better society through children's education. However, this ratio is not that high, as seen from the 54.0% responses from primary school teachers and 61.5% from lower secondary school teachers. The result may be interpreted as scepticism on the part of teachers in their ability to affect societal change through their teaching practice alone.

About 70–80% of teachers responded 'Yes' to 'I have full freedom in my work', that is, most teachers believe that they can practice their teaching independently. When we look more closely, there is no significant difference between primary school teachers, implying the shared perception between teachers in Japan and Italy. However, among lower secondary school teachers, the percentage of teachers in Italy is higher, and about 70% of Japanese lower secondary school teachers, like primary school teachers, believe that they have high discretion in their work.

Next, we examined relationships with colleagues (see Table 3). Like the results of the survey on teaching and working life, we found similar trends in the comparison between Japanese and Italian primary school and lower secondary school teachers.

First, a high percentage of Italian teachers responded positively to 'Maintain informal relationships with colleagues after leaving school', 'Talk with your colleagues about students and education', 'Mutual advice about teaching practice', 'Talk about teaching practices with colleagues', and 'Organise work groups and similar activities with colleagues'. That is, teachers in Italy are more likely to interact with their colleagues in formal and informal situations, and exchange opinions relating to education than Japanese teachers. A high proportion of Japanese teachers reported 'Attending colleagues' lessons'; these teachers often had discussions based around their observation of each others' lessons.

Table 3. Relationship with colleagues

	Primary school teachers		Lower secondary school teachers	
	Japan	Italy	Japan	Italy
Maintain informal relationships with colleagues after leaving school.	60.8	< 86.4	54.1	< 85.7
Talk with your colleagues about students and education.	87.4	< 97.2	81.0	< 96.1
Attending colleagues' lessons.	62.5	> 44.1	49.2	> 27.2
Mutual advice about teaching practice.	75.4	< 94.3	61.7	< 92.0
Talk about teaching practices with colleagues.	79.8	< 90.1	61.9	< 85.5
Organize work groups and similar activities with colleagues.	28.3	< 69.8	18.5	< 54.8
Actively engage in school management.	84.0	82.5	78.9	79.4
Actively participate in teachers meetings.	50.5	52.1	47.6	60.2
Teach according to one's way of thinking, without confronting others.	30.7	29.4	37.3	46.8

Note 1: Numbers are percentages and the sum of 'Often' and 'Sometimes'.

Note 2: As a result of the chi-squared test, items with a significant difference at the 5% level are marked with an inequality sign.

The survey results demonstrate no significant difference in attitudes relating to school management, such as 'Actively engage in school management' and 'Actively participate in teachers' meetings'. We also found no difference in the proportion of teachers who responded 'Teach according to one's way of thinking, without confronting others', suggesting that about 30–40% of teachers are not interested in the initiatives of their colleagues, and teach the way they see fit instead. In the case of Italian teachers, it could mean that they respect their colleagues who use different teaching methods³.

We then examined the significance of their attitudes in terms of improving the quality of their current teaching practices (see Table 4). We observed common trends among teachers of primary and lower secondary schools. For instance, primary and lower secondary teachers in both countries gave highly positive responses (over 90%) to the following items: 'Interaction with students' (i.e. daily engagement with students); 'Sharing lessons planning and classroom management with colleagues', 'Atmosphere and human relations in the workplace', and 'Presence of a person (teacher) to share problems with and consult' (i.e. learning environment in the workplace); and 'Personal motivation and commitment' (i.e. contribution to personal motivation).

However, the items that differed between the two countries were as follows: 'Leadership and advice of the principal and/or his/her collaborators', 'Personal advice from more experienced teachers and colleagues', 'Interaction with the parents of the students', and 'Presence of a person (excluding teachers) to share problems with and consult'. Although the percentages were comparatively high in both countries, from 60% to 90%, the percentage was higher among Japanese teachers. More Japanese teachers seem to value advice from school administrators and interactions with parents and other colleagues besides teachers with whom they share their concerns. More Japanese teachers think that 'Having a hobby not directly related to teaching' or 'Reading a particularly significant book' is more significant for personal growth than do Italian teachers.

Table 4. What is significant in improving the quality of teaching practice?

	Primary school teachers		Lower secondary school teachers	
	Japan	Italy	Japan	Italy
Interaction with students.	99.4	100.0	99.0	100.0
Sharing the lesson planning and classroom management with colleagues.	98.2	97.6	94.8	95.3
Leadership and advice of the principal and/or his/her collaborators.	91.4 >	81.6	85.1 >	75.2
Interaction with the parents of the students.	87.2 >	78.5	83.6 >	74.2
Personal advice from more experienced teachers and colleagues.	98.2 >	94.7	95.9 >	86.3
Atmosphere and human relations in the workplace.	98.2	98.1	96.8	96.8
Presence of a person (teacher) to share with problems with and consult.	97.7	97.6	95.0	95.2
Presence of a person (excluding teachers) to share with problems with and consult.	92.1 >	65.4	89.0 >	65.3
Reading a particularly significant book.	76.5 <	86.3	70.9 <	81.1
Personal motivation and commitment.	98.7	99.0	97.7	99.2
Having a hobby not directly related to teaching.	91.5 >	68.3	87.7 >	67.7

Note 1: Numbers are percentages and the sum of 'Rather significant' and 'Significant at a certain extent'.

Note 2: As a result of the chi-square test, items with a significant difference at the 5% level are marked with an inequality sign.

Finally, we examined the significance of their institutions in terms of improving the quality of their current teaching practices (see Table 5). We obtained results similar to the previous surveys of primary and lower secondary school teachers.

More than 80% of primary school teachers in Japan and Italy responded that 'Training organised by the regional school office', 'Training at school', 'Class meetings and department meetings at the school', and 'Research activities at school' are 'meaningful'. This indicates that the training and research system based at one's own school is meaningful for many teachers in both countries, and beyond that, the training organised by their boards of education is also beneficial.

Regarding items with stark differences in responses, we observed that Japanese teachers considered 'Participation in presentations of the results of research activities carried out in other schools' to be significant, while Italian teachers prioritised taking initiative in participation in systems of 'Teacher Associations (including the Teachers and Researchers Association)'⁴.

The items marked 'significant' for lower secondary school teachers in Japan and Italy in ascending order were as follows: 'Training organised by the regional school office', 'Training at school', 'Class meetings and department meetings at the school', and 'Research activities at school'. This result confirms the significance of training and research at one's own school.

Table 5. What is significant in improving the quality of teaching practice (institutional matter)?

	Primary school teachers		Lower secondary school teachers	
	Japan	Italy	Japan	Italy
Training organized by the regional school office.	81.4	80.5	69.2	68.1
Training at school.	92.3	95.2	78.5	< 88.0
Class meetings and department meetings at the school.	92.4	> 83.2	84.0	83.1
Research activities at school.	90.4	91.3	75.0	79.1
Participation in presentations of the results of research activities carried out in other schools.	89.5	> 70.5	75.5	> 62.0
Japan: Study groups by school grade, subject and / or territorial area in the district. Italy: Study groups by school grade, subject and / or territorial area.	80.0	79.0	73.0	69.8
Participation in private educational research organizations and voluntary circles.	72.5	65.2	57.9	55.8
Teacher Associations (including the Teachers and Researchers Association).	48.2	< 63.1	38.1	< 66.7

Note 1: Numbers are percentages and the sum of 'Rather significant' and 'Significant at a certain extent'. Note also that teachers who had not experienced these things were excluded.

Note 2: As a result of the chi-square test, items with a significant difference at the 5% level are marked with an inequality sign.

Regarding the items with greater differences in responses, Japanese teachers prioritised 'Participation in presentations of the results of research activities carried out in other schools', while Italian teachers prioritised 'Training at school' (i.e. one's own school). As with primary school teachers, a high percentage of Italian lower secondary school teachers showed a preference for 'Teacher Associations (including the Teachers and Researchers Association)', which indicates that these elements make a certain contribution to their competence formation.

3. Similarities and differences between Japanese and Italian teacher cultures: Teacher life and relationships with colleagues

In this section, we summarise the results of comparisons of teaching life and relationships with colleagues between teachers in the two countries by school grades in primary and lower secondary school. The results of the analysis show similarities above and beyond the school grades.

First, regarding perceptions of teaching life, the similarities were their sense of satisfaction about their teaching life, 'I am glad that I became a teacher', as well as a feeling of being busy every day. However, according to the statistics for lower secondary school teachers in Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) 2018, Japanese teachers worked 56.0 hours during a regular school week, while Italian teachers said they worked 30.0 hours—a difference of 26 hours (National Institute for Educational Policy Research [NIER], 2019, p.72). This difference explains why a greater number of Japanese teachers say they felt tired too often.

Teachers in both countries are allowed a high degree of discretion. Notably, teachers at public primary and lower secondary schools in Japan have little decision-making power in budget allocations and no decision-making power in formulating educational content or selection of textbooks (NIER, 2020, pp.209-220). The autonomy of schools and teachers is relatively low among the countries participating in TALIS 2018, including Italy. However, like Italian teachers, whose schools and teachers have a high degree of autonomy, Japanese teachers are still able to practice without excessive restrictions. In a sense, working hours and the range of discretionary power are different, and while there are differences in the working environment of teachers, it is interesting to note that the perceptions of teachers in both countries are similar.

However, Italian teachers have a brighter outlook for the future of society than their Japanese counterparts. They practice teaching with the perception that they are teaching for the formation of civil society. In comparison, Japanese teachers have less interest in society (NIER, *op. cit.*, 2019, p.162). This explains the difference in attitudes toward the practice of education from the perspective of society.

Regarding relationships with colleagues, teachers in both countries are positive about school management, but opinions are divided about active participation in staff meetings. This falls in line with the finding that 30–40% of teachers practice without restrictions. About 40 years have passed since studies have noted strong collaboration as a characteristic of Japanese teacher culture, that is, high preferences for harmony with colleagues. However, privatisation is beginning to make advances within teacher groups (Yufu, 1994), and with it changes have been observed that may explain our results. It is also possible that Italian teachers might have always had a similar culture to Japanese teachers, and that collaboration is not unique to Japan.

One major difference is that Italian teachers are more likely to interact with their colleagues in formal and informal situations and exchange opinions relating to education. Although Japanese teachers positively interact in formal situations, they seem less active. Exchanges in informal settings are relatively subdued as well.

Japanese teachers tend to observe one another's classes, and most discussions with colleagues relate to information shared from such classroom observations. Thus, Japanese teacher culture values improvements in one's teaching skills through mutual class observations. This result was significant only in comparison with Italian teachers. In a prior study, 74.5%² of teachers in the United Kingdom and 90.5% of teachers in China said they observed colleagues' classes and opened their classroom to observations as well. In contrast, only 62.1% of Japanese teachers answered 'True' or 'Somewhat true' to the item 'I observe my colleague's classes and my colleagues observe my classes' (Kurebayashi, 2007). We may conclude that Japanese teacher culture limits interaction with colleagues, indicating fewer opportunities for close interactions in Japanese culture.

III Discussion

This study examines teaching life and collegial relationships in Japan and Italy. Let us consider the form of competence formation that emerges from our findings. First, primary and lower secondary school teachers in both countries prioritised the importance of motivation and effort, daily interactions with children and colleagues, and research and training in the schools with which they are affiliated for improving the quality of their own educational practices. Although there are differences in the way teachers interact with colleagues in both countries, their experiences at their schools are equally important for them to improve their competence as teachers.

While Italian teachers were active in interacting with colleagues in both formal and informal situations for

competence formation, in Japan, despite active interactions with colleagues through class practice, these interactions were limited to the workplace owing to privatisation.

Notably, administrators, parents, and others (other than teachers) with whom teachers can discuss their concerns play a very important role in Japan. Participation in study groups at other schools is regarded as meaningful. This may be attributed to Japanese teacher culture, according to which the experience of interacting with individuals other than colleagues at one's school leads to the formation of one's competence.

Many Italian teachers consider their experience with institutions and organisations, such as Teacher Associations' activities, as meaningful. The institutions surrounding teachers in both countries and the state of Teacher Associations reveal cultural differences in competence formation. Many Italian teachers also think this way about encountering books that are meaningful to them. This point should be explored with further research.

The differences in our results may be related to overall sociocultural differences in the societies of both countries, such as the state of the community in both countries, degree of penetration of computerisation, and respect for academic studies, which deserve to be better understood. These inquiries were made through observation surveys and interview surveys in our study. For example, Italy is a multicultural country with a historically more diverse culture than Japan, and it also accepts immigrants and refugees. Therefore, there are differences between the class backgrounds and cultures of those employed in the teaching profession in Italy and those of other countries. They are less likely to share backgrounds and culture in daily life. Japan has a more homogeneous population with greater cultural similarity than Italy; thus, teachers are more likely to share a common mindset and attitude. In other words, the lack of relative diversity in Japan may seem like Japanese teachers' better ability to interact with others. Conversely, inter-cultural differences, such as in Italy, may affect interactions between teachers and others, and likely appear as cultural differences related to the growth of teachers.

Many Japanese teachers regard hobbies that are not related to education as meaningful, and they seem to relate experiences that are not directly related to teaching to their growth as teachers. This suggests a private life that is more in tune with teachers' professional work at school, that is, Japanese teachers perceive various aspects of their personal life within the framework of their profession. Notably, Japanese teachers consider interactions with administrators, parents, and individuals besides their colleagues to be important for competence formation. Meanwhile, Italian teachers prioritise participation in Teacher Associations' activities.

The differences outlined above inform our understanding of the teaching institutions in both countries. The importance of school managers and parents for Japanese teachers is not unrelated to the organisation of teacher groups and the aim of closer cooperation with parents and the community. Regarding teachers' networks outside school, teachers before they are hired are systematically trained to develop horizontal connections, such as through group training according to the number of years of teaching experience, four-year training programmes centred on teacher training faculties, and programmes run by prefectures and cities through teacher workshops. However, such open-system teacher training, which was introduced in Japan after World War II, allows national, public, and private universities to be equally involved in teacher training. Under it, courses related to the prescribed credits required for the acquisition of a teacher's licence are established, and students are allowed to complete these courses. It is possible that this programme has inculcated a tolerance of heterogeneity and avoided the creation of a closed vocational group. Thus, it is common to see teachers with outside connections.

By contrast, teachers in Italy improve their abilities through participating in training courses organized by professional associations or educational research centres. Training courses organised by research centres or

professional associations are often more innovative and are more effective for developing the quality of teaching. However, they are not valid for career development. Furthermore, participation in the associations' activities supports teachers' motivations and collaboration between them, it can also give life to their friendships, free from institutional formalities.

This leads us to believe that competence formation is clearly more advanced in Italy than in Japan.

It stands to be argued that different solutions for a common sense of crisis, in which competence formation occurs through teacher communication, will eventually fail to meet expectations. While teacher competence formation policies in both countries are beginning to move comprehensively in sound directions under the influence of their respective education institutional reforms, we must reconsider the long-term sustainability of these policies in bettering education and society in Japan and Italy, especially given the realities that have been set in motion.

We thus raise the following points as themes for future research: First, we must examine the competence formation cultures of Italian and Japanese teachers and the contexts of their cultural differences from the viewpoint of hierarchy. Second, we must analyse the influence of institutions and organisations related to the teaching profession on the competence formation of teachers. Third, we must consider the effects of the broader social and cultural characteristics that affect these institutions and organisations. If cultural, institutional, and organisational differences underpin the differences in competence formation across countries, it becomes necessary to conduct interviews, surveys, and fieldwork to examine all educational practices to empirically investigate differences in competence formation.

Notes

1 According to the results of the 2019 statistical survey on schoolteachers (Gakkō kyōin tōkei chōsa) in Japan, which is conducted every three years, the average age of a public primary school teacher was 42.6 years old and was 43.6 years old for a public lower secondary school teacher. As of 2019, about 50% of all primary and lower secondary school teachers in Italy are 50 years of age or older, and there is no significant difference from the national average (eurostat. Classroom teachers and academic staff by education level, programme orientation, sex and age groups. Data Browser, Retrieved October 21, 2022, from https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_PERP01__custom_3649070/default/table?lang=en).

2 The total of the responses of 'True' and 'Somewhat true'.

3 In accordance with the legislation and with the cultural tradition, the principle of freedom of teaching is strongly felt in Italy. Furthermore, Italian teachers are inclined to discuss among themselves the different teaching methods that each one uses.

4 In Italy several teachers take part in Teacher Associations' activities. Such associations organise training courses, meetings, congresses about many topics (scientific, technological, linguistic, pedagogical ones, and so on). Every year the Ministry approves a catalogue of training courses organized by the associations, which are valid for teachers' portfolio.

Acknowledgment: The author is grateful to Silvana Mosca, Elisa Corino, Cristina Onesti, Massimo Perotti and the research cooperators. This work was supported by JSPS KAKENHI Grant Number JP17H02672 and JP20K02599.

References

- Akita, K. & Lewis, C. C. *Jyugō no kenkyū kyōshi no gakushū: Lesson study heno izanai*, Akashi shoten, 2008 (Japanese)
- Hargreaves, A. “Classrooms, Colleagues, Communities, and Change: The Sociology of Teaching at the Turn of the Century” (Original work published 1999) (Japanese translation by Nishitai, Y.) In Fujita, H. & Shimizu, K. (eds.), *Hendōshakai nonakano kyōiku, chishiki, kenryoku: Mondai toshiteno kyōikukaikaku, kyōshi, gakkōbunka*, Shinyōsha, 262-299, 2000 (Japanese)
- Kawamura, A. “Competence Formation of Teachers in Primary Schools and Lower Secondary Schools in Italy: Results of the 2019 Teacher Questionnaire Survey” *Kansai kokusai daigaku kyōiku sōgō kenkyū sōsho*, 15, 15-43, 2022 (Japanese)
- Kawamura, A., Kurebayashi, N., Kaneko, M., Mochizuki, K. “Kyōshi no rikiryō keisei no henyō: 2011 nendo • 2017 nendo shitsumonshi chōsa no kekka kara (The Change of Teachers’ Professional Development)” *Kansai kokusai daigaku kiyō* (The bulletin of Kansai University of International Studies), 20, 13-32, 2019 (Japanese)
- Kudomi, Y. (ed.), *Kyōshi no senmonsei to aidenthithi: kyōikukaikaku jidai no kokusai hikaku chōsa to kokusai shinpojiumu kara*, Keisō shobō, 2008 (Japanese)
- Kurebayashi, N. “Kyōdō no dōryōsei toshiteno "Team": Gakkō rinshō shakaigaku kara ("Team" as Collaborative Collegiality : A Perspective from Clinical Sociology of Schooling)”, *Kyōikugaku kenkyū* (The Japanese journal of educational research) , 74(2), 174-188, 2007 (Japanese)
- Lortie, D. C. *Schoolteacher: A Sociological Study* (with a new Preface), The University of Chicago Press, 2002 (Original work published 1975)
- Machida, K. “Sengo no Kaihōsei yōsei no igi to kadai: liberal arts kyōiku wo kiban toshita kyōinyōsei no saikō (Significance and Problem of the Postwar Opening System Training: Reconsideration of the teacher training based on liberal arts education) ”, *Nihon kyōshi kyōikugakkai nenpō* (The Bulletin of the Japanese Society for the Study on Teacher Education) , 28, 8-17, 2019 (Japanese)
- Nagai, S., “Nihon no kyōinbunka: kyōin no shokugyōteki shakaika (I) (An Analysis of Culture Among Primary School Teachers in Japan)” *Kyōiku shakaigaku kenkyū* (The Journal of Educational Sociology), 32, 93-103, 1977 (Japanese)
- National Institute for Educational Policy Research (ed.), *Kyōin kankyō no kokusai hikaku OECD kokudai kyōin shidō kankyō chōsa (TALIS) 2018 hōkokusho: manabi tsudukeru kyōin to kōchō*, Gyōsei, 2019 (Japanese)
- National Institute for Educational Policy Research (ed.), *Kyōin kankyō no kokusai hikaku OECD kokudai kyōin shidō kankyō chōsa (TALIS) 2018 hōkokusho: senmonshoku toshiteno kyōin to kōchō*, Akashi shoten, 2020 (Japanese)
- Sakai, A. *Tabōmondai wo meguru kyōshibunka no konnichiteki yōsō*. In Shimizu, K. (ed.), *kyōiku no Ethnography: Gakkōgenba no ima*, Saganoshoin, 223-248, 1998 (Japanese)

- Satō, M. Kyōshibunka no kōzō: Kyōiku jissen kenkyū no tachiba kara. In Inagaki, T. and Kudomi, Y. (eds.), Nihon no kyōshi bunka (The culture of teachers and teaching in Japan), University of Tokyo Press, 21-41, 1994 (Japanese)
- Shimahara, N. & Sakai, A. Learning to teach in two cultures: Japan and the United States, Routledge, 2018 (Original work published 1995)
- Waller, W. The Sociology of Teaching, Martino Fine Books, 2014 (Original work published 1932)
- Yufu, S., Privatization to kyōinbunka, In Kudomi, Y. (ed.), Nihon no kyōinbunka: sono shakaigakuteki kenkyū, Taga shuppan, 357-383, 1994 (Japanese)

【抄録】

本論文の目的は、2010年代後半の日本とイタリアの公立小・中学校教師を対象とした質問紙調査の結果を比較することによって、両国の教師の力量形成に関する文化のあり方を相対化し、各国の特徴を浮き彫りにすることである。

調査分析の結果、次のことが分かった。まず、両国の教師の共通点は、自身の意欲や努力とともに、子どもや同僚との日常的な交流、所属校での研究や研修が自身の教育実践の質を高めるうえで重要なこととして指摘されていることである。

一方、相違点は、日本の教師にとっては管理職や保護者、勤務校の同僚以外の他者との交流経験が力量形成上重要であるのに対し、イタリアの教師の場合は教員組合（教員・研究者協会含む）が意義深いものになっていることである。その差は、両国の教師の学校現場での労働環境と、それを組織している制度の違いにより生み出されていると考えられる。

以上のように、両国の力量形成は異なった特徴を示している。それは、教師にとって最も重要な現場での教師のコミュニケーションを通じた力量形成が今後ますます期待できなくなっていくのではないかという共通の危機に基づく、異なる解法なのである。そして、両国の教師の力量形成施策は、いずれもそれぞれの国が行っている様々な教員制度改革の影響を受けて、総合的に、確実にある種の方角に進み始めているということを示していると考えられる。