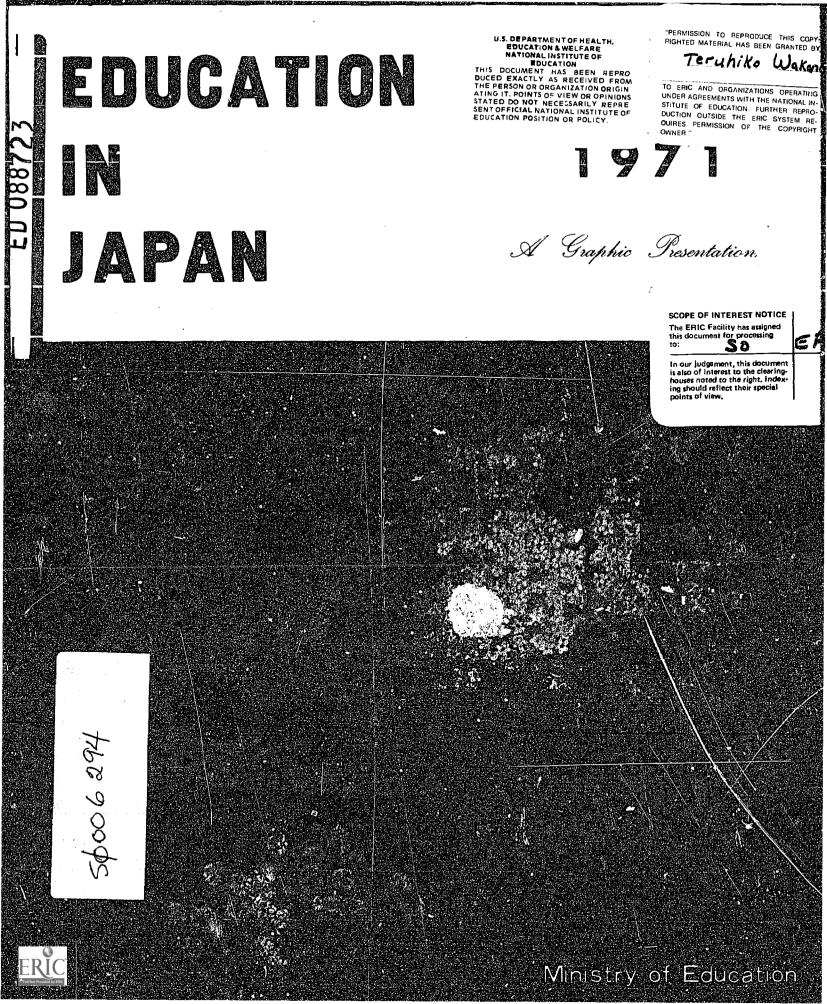
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ABSTRACT

The eighth edition of this publication presents a general description of the educational system in Japan in order to introduce foreign educators and others interested in Japanese education to the fundamental aspects of the Japanese educational system and to certain relevant facets of its cultural and economic context. The major organizational sections are an introduction (general background, principles of the educational system, legal controls, framework, school system development, educational standards, school population statistics), administration and finance, school education (school system, teachers' problems, students' problems), social education (educational facilities, opportunities), and international exchange. Over 50 charts accompany the text. New to this edition are chapters concerning school standards on instructional aids and equipment and organizations of teaching personnel. An appendix lists the universities in Japan. (Author/KSM)





EDUCATION IN JAPAN



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FOREWORD

This is the eight edition of "Education in Japan-A Graphic Presentation", first released in 1954 and subsequently revised and enlarged in 1956, 1957, 1959, 1961, 1964 and 1967. This publication presents a general description of the educational system in Japan in order to introduce foreign educators and others interested in Japanese education to the fundamental aspects of the Japanese educational system and to certain relevant facets of its cultural and economic context.

In this edition new chapters have been added concerning school standards on instructional aids and equipment (Chapter 29) and organizations of teaching personnel (Cahpter 42). Various revisions and more current data have been provided to improve the presentation.

Gratitude is expressed to Mr. William K. Cummings, lecturer at Tsuda College, who has given valuable assistance to the staff in reviewing the English expression of this edition.

The Ministry of Education will be gratified if this publication proves to be of use and value to foreign readers.

Sixon Makeda

Kikuo Nishida Director of Planning and Research Minister's Secretariat Ministry of Education



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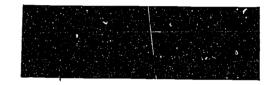
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1. What is the General Background for Japanese Education ?

he first two charts of this publication present various data intended to acquaint the reader with the general context within which the Japanese educational system operates.

Chart I-A and B show Japan's geographical location and land utilization.

Japan is located to the east of the Asiatic Continent and between the Pacific Ocean and the Japan Sea. As Japan is an island country, for many centuries her culture was not influenced much by other countries. But over the last hundred years with advances in the means of communications the cultures of the East and the West have been brought to Japan and have contributed to her cultural progress.

Japan consists of the four principal islands, Honshu, Shikoku, Kyushu and Hokkaido and more than 3,000 smaller islands. The islands of Japan are mainly of seismic and volcanic origin. Their topography consists largely of central ranges and chains of mountains bordered by coastal plains. The main island of Honshu has numerous valley and plateau areas located adjacent to the mountainous interior where peaks average from two to three thousand meters in elevation.

The present status of land utilazation is portrayed in Chart I-B. Japan lies within the north temperate zone and is subject to seasonal winds-from the south-east in summer and from the north-west in winter.

As a result both summer and winter are more extreme than is normal in the temperate zones. Temperature and rainfall vary greatly between the northern and southern areas, and between the Pacific coast and the Japan Sea coast.

The geographic location and characteristics of Japan leave it open to such natural calamities as earthquakes, typhoons, floods and heavy snowfall. But despite these disadvantages, Japan is a land of beauty and its people are energetic and ambitious. The distinct seasons by creating variations in the beauty and esthetic appeal of nature possibly affect the character of the Japanese people. The natural resources of Japan also are varied and extensive, considering the limitations of the land.

Chart I-C & D show some factors related to the population and their employment status. The total population is increasing and amounted to over one hundred million in 1970. The decline in the birth rate, accompanied by a decline in the death rate at all ages has brought about a more normal distribution of population by age. Recent data on population also are shown in Chart I-C. The population of Japan has continuously increased. Chart I-D shows the employment status of the population. About 20 per cent of the employed population of Japan are engaged in primary industries, 34 per cent in secondary industries, and 46 per cent in tertiary industries. A growing percentage of the employed population are in secondary and tertiary industries.

Chart I-E shows some features of industry and economy in Japan. The graph of Chart I-E presents an analysis of the current status of economic development in Japan as expressed by index numbers. G.N.P. and National Income per capita between 1955 and 1965 increased over four times and five times respectively. Japan achieved rapid economic growth in the ten-year period shown.

It is generally believed that the future of Japan's economy depends on greater industrialization coupled with material expansion of international trade through making efficient use of the limited national resources, importing raw materials and exporting finished goods. The percentage distribution of imports and exports by groups of commodities, as of 1968, is presented at the bottom of page 6. The quantity of imported commodities expressed as a percentage of total domestic consumption is also shown.



Chart I-D portrays the democratic structure and organization of the national and local governments established under the Constitution of 1947.

In the central portion of the chart the first part of the Constitution of Japan is reproduced, which declares that sovereign power resides with the people who act through duly elected representatives, and that the Japanese people shall never again be visited with the horrors of war through the action of government.

The left part of the chart shows the operating relationships of the National Diet, the Cabinet, the Supreme Court, and the national administrative agencies.

The pi-graph shows the distribution of the Diet members by political party in the House of Representatives and the House of Councillors.

There are 47 prefectures in Japan (including Okinawa), one of which, Tokyo, is the national Capital. The authority of the governance over Okinawa is to be returned in 1972. The right part of the chart shows the names and the location of these prefectures. There are 3,271 municipalities within these prefectures. Prefectures and municipalities are local self-governing bodies. Their governmental organization also is shown in this chart. Local residents elect the members of the local assembly as well as the chief of the local administrative agency—the mayor or the governor. Members of boards (e.g., boards of education) are usually appointed by the chief of the local public body with the consent of the assembly.

The administrative branch of the national government functions largely to render advice and assistance to local public bodies, which are vested with broad rights of local autonomy.

However, the individual ministries and other agencies of the national government exercise considerable influence over the conduct of local governments through the issuance of regulations, standards, etc.



Chart I-A MAIN FEATURES OF NATURE, SOCIETY AND ECONOMY IN JAPAN A. Lucation of Japan lanan Arsa-----369, 999km2 Location of Tokya, Capital of Japan 60------ 35"40" N. 139"45" E ß 45° 30° 30. þ 45* 105* 75. **(**5' 120* 150 180. 165* 135. 30. 135* 81 68. 181 **B. Land Utilization** Pasture land 2.5% Urban area & wast D. Distribution of Employed Persons by Industry, 1968 18.4% Agricultural area Transportation and Communication 6.8% Public Service 3.1% Primary Industry 12.0% **Fishery** Secondary Industry 34.0% Services 14.1% Tartiary Industry 48.2% aga 65~ Whatesale, Flashce and Inal Estate 22.2% Manufacturing 18~14 C. Age Pyramid for Japan (1969) 1.1% 75~78 20~74 15-- 61 H-- 64 55~ - 59 50-- 54 Construction 7 45-- 49 -41 40. Mining a.5% 35-3 Pepelation 103, 703, 552 38~34 Density of Population per 1km² 200 25~21 Number of Households 27,052,743 28~24 Average of the Size of 15--19 10~14 a Family 3.7 (1979) 5~9 0~4 Millions of 5

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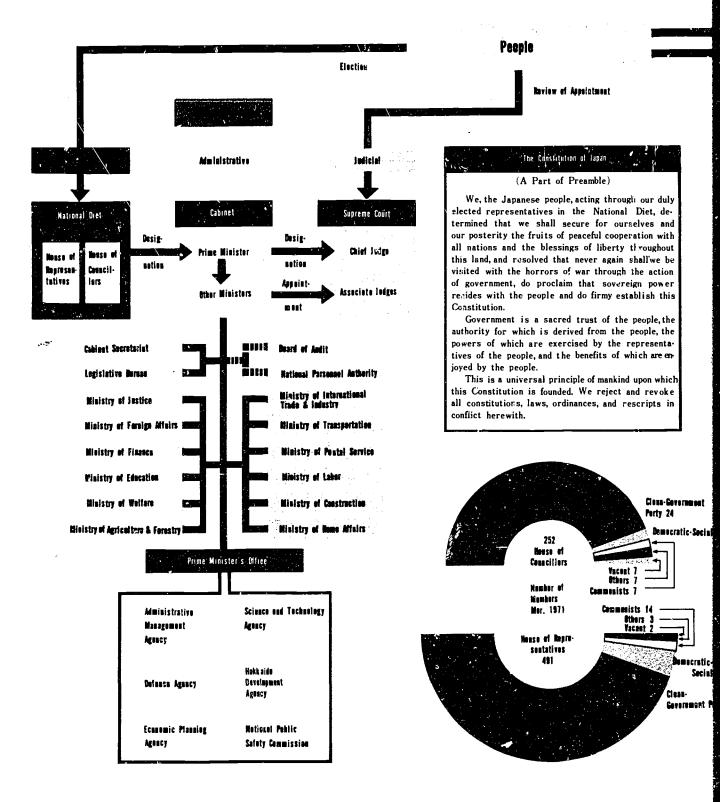
E. Industry and Economy

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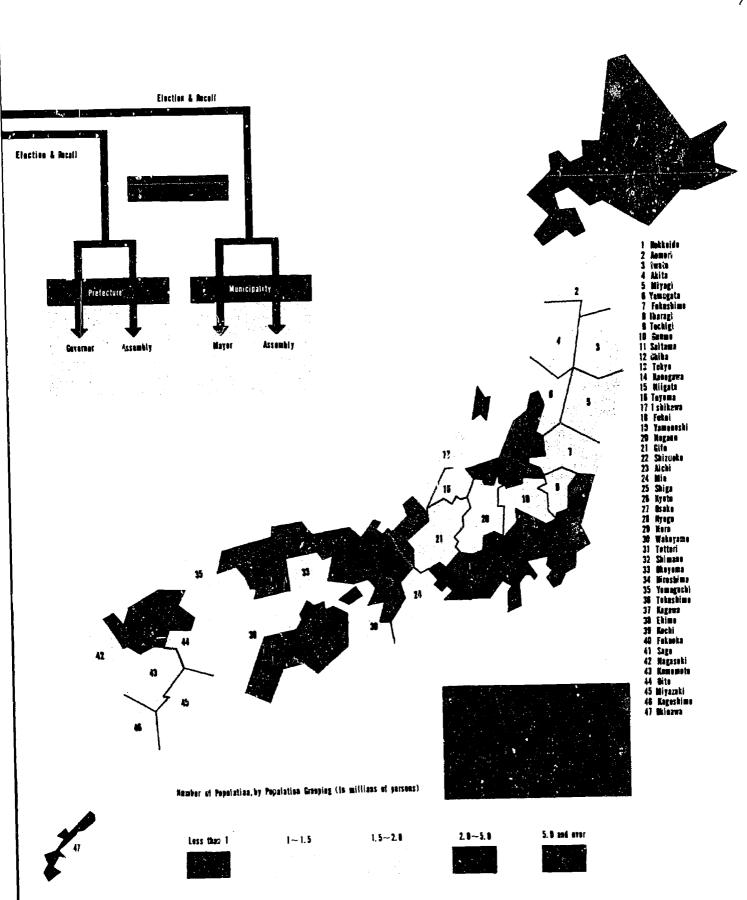
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Chart I-B CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT

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What Principles Guide Japan's Educational

fter World War II, the organization of the various Japanese public institutions and systems shifted to a democratic basis. The educational system was also reformed; the "multi-track" system of school education was changed into a "single-track" system and equal educational opportunity was provided for all people, in keeping with their abilities.

System ?

Imper.al ordinances formerly established basic principles and prescribed the forms and procedures of education in Japan. Since the end of the war, education has been governed by constitutional and statutory laws as implemented by Cabinet orders.

The Constitution sets forth the basic national educational policy, as follows: "All people shall have the right to receive an equal education correspondent to their ability, as provided by law. The people shall be obligated to have all boys and girls under their protection receive ordinary education as provided for by law. Such compulsory education shall be free." (Article 26)

The Fundamental Law of Education, presented in Chart II, sets forth in more detail the aims and principles of education in accordance with the spirit of the Constitution. In it are established as specific national principles of education: equal opportunity, compulsory education, co-education, public education, social education, prohibition of partisan political education or sectarian religious education in the public schools and prohibition of improper control of education.

The enactment in 1947 of the Fundamental Law of Education was followed by a series of educational statutes. The first of these was the School Education Law, which further elaborated the aims, methods and principles of the new system. At present, Japanese education is, in general, established and operated on the basis of educational laws and statutes.



2.



Chart 11 FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATION

THE FUNDAMENTAL LAW OF EDUCATION 1947 (Law No. 25)

Having established the Constitution of Japan, we have shown our resolution to contritube to the peace of the world and welfare of humanity by building a democratic and cultural state. The realization of this ideal shall depend fundamentally on the power of education.

We shall esteem individual dignity and endeavour to bring up the people who love truth and peace, while education which aims at the creation of culture, general and rich in individuality shall be spread far and wide.

We hereby enact this Law, in accordance with the spirit of the Constitution of Japan, with a view to clarifying the aim of education and establishing the foundation of education for new Japan.

Article 1. Aim of Education Education shall aim at the full development of personality, striving for the rearing of the people, sound in mind and body, who shall love truth and justice, esteem individual value, respect labour and have a deep sense of responsibility, and be imbued with the independent spirit, as buiders of the peaceful state and society.

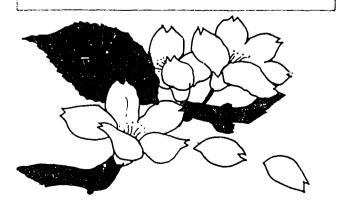
Article 2. Educational Principle The aim of education shall be realized on all occasions and in all places. In order to achieve the aim, we shall endeavour to contribute to the creation and development of culture by mutual esteem and co-operation, respecting academic freedom, having a segard for actual life and cultivating a spontaneous spirit.

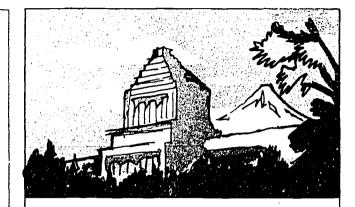
Article 3. Equal Opportunity in Education The people shall all be given equal opportunities of receiving education according to their ability, and they shall not be subject to educational discrimination on account of race, creed, sex, social status, economic position, or family origin.

The state and local public bodies shall take measures to give financial assistance to those who have, in spite of their ability, difficulty in receiving education for economic reasons.

Article 4. Compulsory Education The people shall be obligated to have boys and girls under their protection receive nine years' general education.

No tuition fee shall be charged for compulsory education in schools established by the state and local public bodies.





Article 5. Co-education Men and women shall esteem and co-operate with each other. Co-education, therefore, shall be recognized in education.

Article 6. School Education The schools prescribed by law shall be of public nature and, besides the state and local public bodies, only the juridical persons prescribed by law shall be entitled to establish such schools.

Teachers of the schools prescribed by law shall be servants of the whole community. They shall be conscious of their mission and endeavour to discharge their duties. For this purpose, the status of teachers shall be respected and their fair and appropriate treatment shall be secured.

Article 7. Social Education The state and local public bodies shall encourage home education and education carried out in places or work or elsewhere in society.

The state and local public bodies shall endeavour to attain the aim of education by the establishment of such institutions as libraries, museums, civic halls, by the utilization of school institutions, and by other appropriate methods.

Article 8. Political Education The political knowledge necessary for intelligent citizenship shall be valued in education.

The schools prescribed by law, shall refrain from political education or other political activities for or against any specific political party.

Article 9. Religious Education The attitude of religious tolerance and the position of religion in social life shall be valued in education.

The schools established by the state and local public bodies shall refrain from religious education or other activities for a specific religion.

Article 10. School Administration Education shall not be subject to improper control, but it shall be directly responsible to the whole people.

School administration shall, on the basis of this realization, aim at the adjustment and establishment of the various conditions required for the pursuit of the aim of education.

Article 11. Additional Rule In case of necessity appropriate laws shall be enacted to carry the foregoing stipulations into effect.



What Are the Legal Controls over Education 3. in Japan?

s in all constitutional democracies, in Japan the Constitution is the fundamental law. All laws directly or indirectly affecting education must accord with the basic educational provisions of the Constitution. Statutes enacted by the National Diet, and ordinances, directives and regulations issued by the executive branch of the national government under authorization of such statutes, constitute the legal basis for the national government's regulation of education.

The Fundamental Law of Education is the basic educational law. Other educational laws, statutes, and orders are derived from this Law.

There are two types of national laws which affect the administration of public education. One type deals directly with education, e.g., the Law Concerning the Organization and Functions of Local Educational Administration, and the Law Concerning the National Treasury's Share of Compulsory Education Expenses. The other type includes general statutes related to administration and finance, e.g., the Local Autonomy Law and the Local Allocation Tax Law, which affect public education.

Chart III shows the several major laws and regulations directly related to education as well as the more important general laws affecting the educational system.

While the Fundamental Law of Education advances aims and principles, the School Education Law deals with the organization and management of the school system, and the Social Education Law regulates the activities of social education. These three statutes are among the most important of Japan's direct educational laws.



Chart III LEGAL BASES OF EDUCATION

Basic Laws for Education		Education ional Measures for Securing of Compulsory Education
	General	School Education Law, Enforcement Regulations for School Education Law.
	School Standards	Standards for the Establishment of Kindergartens, Standards for the Establishment of Upper Secondary Schools, Standards for the Establishment of Technical Colleges, Standards for the Establishment of Junior Colleges, Standards for the Establish ment of Universities. National School Establishment Law Law Concerning Class-size and the Standard of Fixed Number of Educational Personnel in Public Compulsory Schools, Law Concerning the Planned Establishment of, and the Standard of Fixed Number of Educational Personnel in, Public Upper Secondary Schools.
School Education 〈	Textbooks	Law Governing Provisional Measures on Publication of Text books, Law Concerning Free Textbooks in Compulsory Schools, Regulations for Textbook Authorization.
	Promotion of Schoo! Education	Vocational Education Promotion Law, School Library Law, Law for Promotion of Science Education, Law for Promotion of Upper Secondary Part-time and Correspondence Education. Law for Encouragement of Special School Attendance, Law for Promotion of Education in Isolated Areas, Japan Scholar- ship Foundation Law, Law Concerning National Treasury's Share for the Encouragement of School Attendance of Pupils Having Financial Difficulties, School Lunch Law, Japan School Lunch Association Law, School Hygiene Law, Japan School Safety Association Law, Daily Life Protection Law Child Welfare Law.
	Private Schools	Private School Law, Private School Promotion Foundation Law Private School Personnel Mutual Aid Association Law.
Social Education		Social Education Law, Law for Promotion of Youth Classes Library Law, Museum Law, National Stadium Law, Sport Promotion Law, Olympics Memorial Youth Center Law.
Educational Administration		National government Organization Law, Ministry of Education Establishment Law, Ministry of Education Organization Order, Local Autonomy Law, Law Concerning Organization and Functions of Local Educational Administration, Law for Emergency Measures Concerning Operation of Universities.
Educational Personnel		National Public Service Law, Law Concerning Salaries of Employees in the Regular Governmental Service, Local Public Service Law, Law for Special Regulations Concerning Edu- cational Personnel, Educational Personnel Certification Law Pension Law, National Public Service Mutual Aid Association Law, Local Public Service Mutual Aid Association Law.
Educational Finance		Finance Law, Local Finance Law, Local Allocation Tax Law Law Concerning the National Treasury's Share of Compulsory Education Expenses, Law Governing the Share of Salaries o Municipal School Personnel, Law Concerning the Nationa Treasury's Share of Compulsory School Construction, Law Concerning the National Treasury's Share of Reconstruction of Natural Calamity-damaged Fublic Schools, Law Governing Provisional Measures on the Promotion of Reconstruction o Worn-out Buildings of Public Upper Secondary Schools, Law Governing Special Measures for Construction of Public Special Schools Otherwise Blind and Deaf.



4. What Is the Framework of Education in Japan?

Chart IV shows the framework of the school system in Japan. The shaded parts of the chart represent compulsory education, which lasts nine years.

Chart IV also shows the structural organization of the present Japanese system of public education, and indicates the normal age of admission to each grade of the educational system.

In upper secondary schools there are various optional courses such as in agricultural, industrial training, business, and general education.

The curriculum of part-time and correspondence upper secondary schools generally require four years or more to complete. Graduates of these schools qualify for college entrance examinations, on an equal basis with graduates of full-time upper secondary schools.

Technical colleges are institutions inaugurated in 1962.

Admission to local upper secondary schools and technical colleges is generally based on the reports of pupils' records from lower secondary schools and the results of examinations administered by the local education boards. In the national and private upper secondary schools and private technical colleges, exams are administered by the individual schools.

Junior colleges are of two types; one offering a two-year and the other a three-year curriculum.

The evening course programs in universities take four or more years to complete. The curriculum in departments of dentistry and medicine take six years or more to complete.

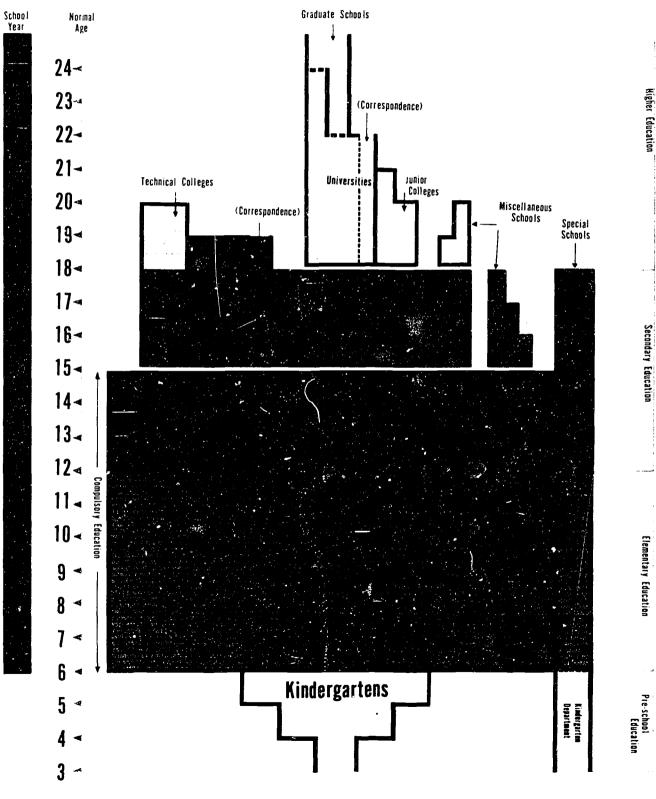
Selection for university entrance is based on school reports and the results of entrance examinations given by the individual universities.

Special schools are those for the blind, the deaf, and other handicapped children.

There are also a number of "miscellaneous schools" other than the regular schools mentioned above.







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5. How Has the School System Been Developed?

During the long feudal period under the Tokugawa regime private schools (Terakoya) where the three R's were taught to the common people and other educational establishments developed.

The "Government Order of Education" promulgated in 1872 established the first system of public education in J_pan. This system was the foundation of modern education in this country. There were frequent changes in the educational system leading up to the contemporary democratic school system.

The period of introduction of the modern educational system. (1872–85)

1872 The Government Order of Education was promulgated. By this Order the school system was organized in three progressive stages of elementary school, middle school and university. Thus the modern educational system was introduced.

The period of systematization of the modern educational system. (1886–98)

- 1886 The Elementary School Order, Middle School Order, Imperial University Order and Normal School Order were issued, and fundamental educational institutions were organized. Three or four years of compulsory elementary education were intended.
- 1894 The Higher School Order was issued and higher schools were organized.
- 1897 The Teacher Education Order was issued and higher normal schools and training colleges were organized as teacher training institutions.

The period of consolidation of the modern educational system. (1899-1916)

- 1899 The Girls' High School Order and Vocational School Order were issued and girls high schools and vocational schools were organized.
- 1900 The four years of compulsory attendance was enforced throughout the country and tuition in public elementary schools was abolished.
- 1903 The College Order was issued and colleges were organized.
- 1908 The course of the ordinary elementary school was extended from four to six years and these six years were made compulsory.

The period of expansion of the educational system. (1917-39)

- 1918 The University Order and a new Higher School Order were issued and universities and higher schools were reorganized. These Orders provided for the government's recognition of private and local universities and higher schools in addition to those established by the national government.
- 1935 The Youth School Order was issued and part-time youth schools were opened as educational institutions for working youth.
- 1939 Attendance at youth school was made compulsory for boys aged 12–19 years.

The period of wartime education. (1940-45)

- 1941 The National School Order was issued and elementary schools were renamed "National Schools". National schools were organized with a 6 year primary division and a 2 year higher division and an expansion of compulsory education to include the seventh and eighth grades was planned but not put into effect.
- 1943 The normal school system was reorganized. Since then all elementary teacher training courses have been of college level.

The period of building up the current democratic system. (1946-)

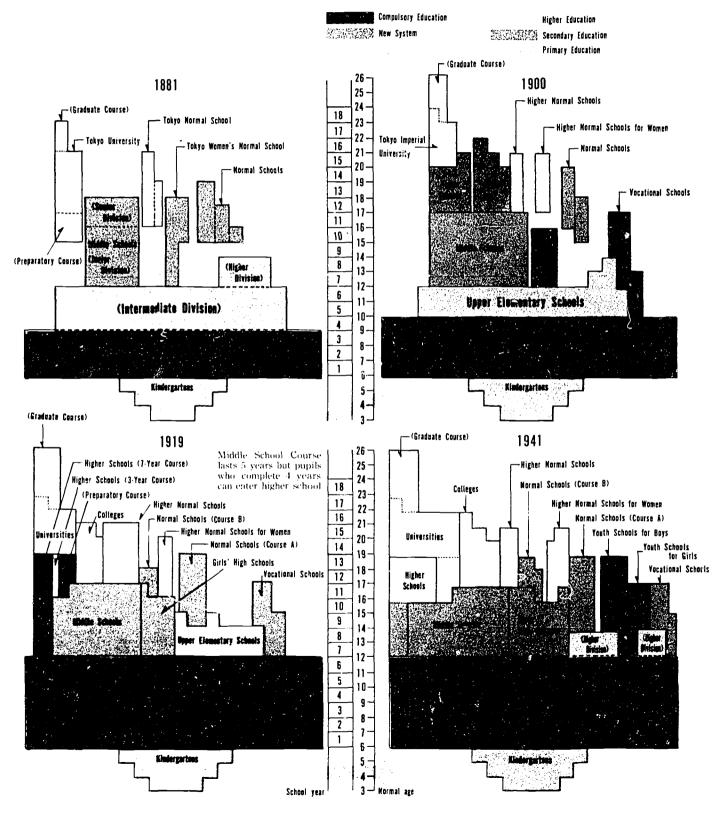
- 1947 The new Constitution was adopted, the Fundamental Law of Education, and the School Education Law were promulgated and the so-called 6-3-3-4 new system was established with nine years of elementary and lower secondary education being made compulsory.
- 1948 Special education for the blind and the deaf was made compulsory.
- 1949 The Private School Law was promulgated and education in private schools was promoted.
- 1962 Technical colleges were newly inaugurated.

In Chart V are shown the educational structures in Japan at four periods prior to the postwar reorganization: 1881, 1900, 1919, and 1941.



Data from: Historical Review of the Ninety Years' Development of the Educational System, Ministry of Education

Chart V HISTORICAL REVIEW OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM





- How Is the Increase in the Number of Students Related to the Socio-Economic Growth of Japan?

Chart V1 shows the spread of education since the beginning of the modernization of Japan which took place in the Meiji Era (1868–1912), in terms of the number of students enrolled at each level of elementary, secondary and higher education and economic development in terms of the overall industrial production index. Here, for convenience in analysis, secondary education is not divided into lower and upper levels.

In the beginning of the Meiji Era, a modern educational system was created under which elementary education, offering fundamental education to all the people, and higher education, for the training of leaders, were first developed to push forward the modernization of the Japanese society and the Japanese economy.

By the beginning of the 20th century, enrollment in compulsory education exceeded 90 per cent. As a result of this spread of elementary education, secondary education was promoted, together with the development of vocational and women's education. After World War I, when heavy industry developed further and the Japanese economy reached maturity, the educational system was further expanded and higher education was developed following the spread of secondary education. After World War II, when the Japanese economy entered the stage in which heavy and chemical industries developed, tertiary industry expanded and the national income increased, upper secondary education and higher education took rapid strides under the new educational system. Especially the increase of the number of enrollments in higher education institutions is remarkable exceeding 1.5 million in 1969.

The following table presents the historical trend in the percentage of the appropriate age groups enrolled in each school level.

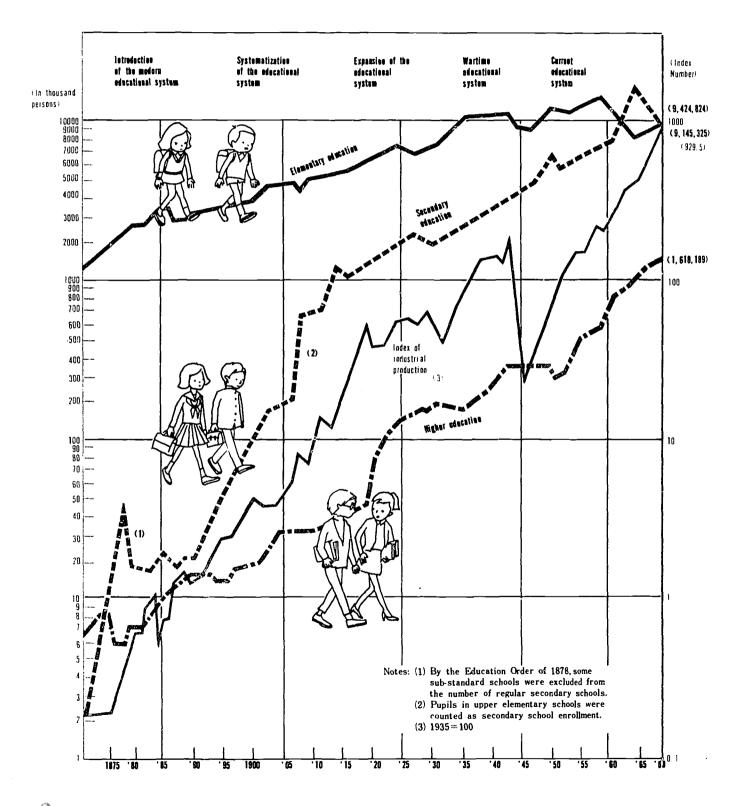
	1875	1885	1895	1905	1915	1925	1935	1947	1955	1965	1969
Elementary Education	% 35.2	% 49.6	% 61.2	% 95.6	% 98.5	% 99.4	% 99.6	% 99.8		% 99.8	% 99.8
Secondary Education	0.7	0.8	1.1	4.3	19.9	32.3	39.7	61.7	78.0	86.2	87.8
Higher Education	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.9	1.0	2.5	3.0	5.8	8.8	14.6	16.7

Data from: Japan's Growth and Education, 1963, Ministry of Education Educational Statistics of Japan, 1966, Ministry of Education Report on Basic School Statistics, 1969, Ministry of Education



Chart VI

HISTORICAL TRENDS IN ENROLLMENT



17



7. To What Standard Are Japanese People Educated ?

C hart VII-A shows the percentage distribution of level of education completed by employed persons in 1968 for each category of industry. The level of education is, in general, higher for persons employed in tertiary industry than for those employed in primary and secondary industries.

Chart VII-B presents a historical review of the percentage distribution of productive-age population by level of education completed. Productive-age population covers the age-group 15-64. As is obvious in the charts, the average level of education of this group increased greatly during the 80 years portrayed.

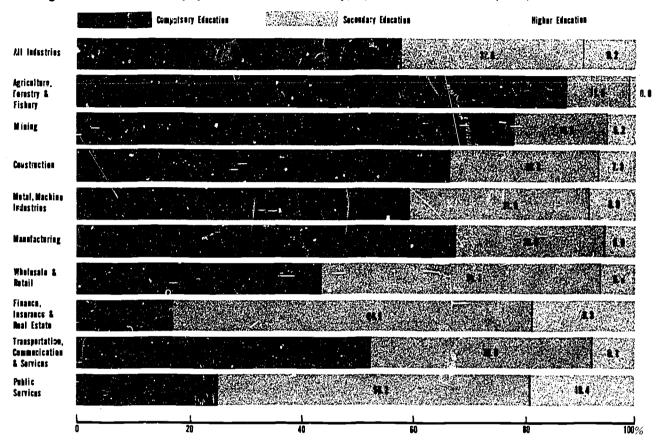
Data from: Report on the Educational Level of Employed Persons, 1970, Ministry of Education



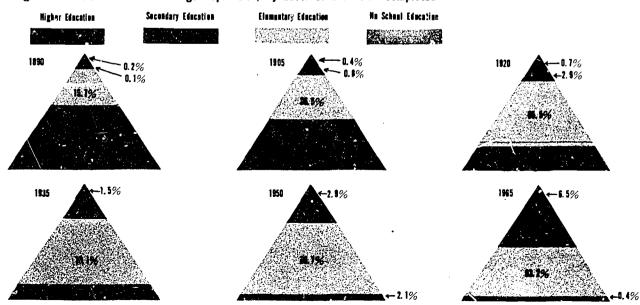
Chart VII

VII EDUCATIONAL STANDARD OF THE PEOPLE

A. Percentage Distribution of the Employed Persons in Each Industry, by Level of Education Completed, 1968



B. Percentage Distribution of Productive-age Population, by Level of Education Completed



ERIC Pruil Text Provided by ERIC

8. What are the Characteristics of Each Type of School?

The organization of the school system is shown in Chart VIII, and the number of schools of each type and the number of teachers and pupils in each type of school is shown is Chart IV. In Chart VIII the types of schools and courses, main types of establishing bodies, conditions of admission, normal admission age, length of course, and requirements for graduation are shown.

Kindergartens are of three types; one, two, and three years in duration. Most provide one year (from age 5 to 6).

General and special education through the elementary and lower secondary school level is compulsory; thereafter, and in other types of schools, it is voluntary. In principle, success in an entrance examination is one of the prerequisites to enter any school beyond the compulsory school level.

A full-time upper secondary school is an ordinary day school; youths working in the daytime may attend evening classes of part-time upper secondary schools, junior colleges and universities.

Besides these, correspondence courses are provided by some upper secondary schools, junior colleges and universities. The completion of correspondence courses is considered the same as completion of ordinary courses.

Courses in upper secondary schools are classified as general and vocational (agricultural, industrial, honxemaking, etc.). Some of the upper secondary schools offer both general and vocational courses.

Special schools are schools for handicapped children. The schools are classified into those for the blind, for the dumb, for the deaf and for the otherwise handicapped.

Universities are divided into faculties such as law, literature, economics, education, science, technology and agriculture, and then sub-divided into departments.

The method of selection of junior college and university applicants is decided by the individual institution. The applicants who want to enter national technical colleges, however, take the nationwide uniform entrance examination.

Graduate schools offer Master's and Doctor's courses. The "Standards for Graduate Schools" specifies that a Doctor's degree is granted those students with a Bachelor's degree who have studied in a graduate school for five or more years and have received approval for the dissertation they submitted. In practice, the acquisition of a Master's degree is required for admission to Doctor's courses in all universities.



Chart VIII TYPES OF SCHOOLS

، بر اور در این		3 • • • • •	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		
	Que-year course			1	
Kindergarten	Two-year course	Private Municipal	Age of 3 or more	7	-
	Three-year contag			3	·
Eli	mestary School	Municipal	Age nt 6	6	Completion as & year course
Lower	Socautory School	Municipa)	Completion of elementary school course Age of 17	3	Completion of 2 year course
	Full-time scarse		Graduation from Tawer secondary	3	Accussition
ilpper Socialisty	Part-time centse	Prefectural Private	school	4 pr mure	of 85 credits
School	Correspondence. course	Municipal	Age of 15 er maie	4 or more	
Tec	laical College	Mutional Private	Graduation from (ower secondary school Age of 15 er more	5	Acquisition of 6545 class hours(inct 3640 hours for professional subjects) + +
Junior College	Two year course	Private	Graduation from upper secondary	2	Acquisition of 67 credits + +
Males excels	Thrue-year centre	Prefectural National	school Age of 38 or more	3	Acquisition of 93 credits + +
B aiversity	Sacheler's course	Private National	Graduation (rpm) upper secondary school Age of 18 or mure	4 or skore	Acquisition of 124 credits + +
	Master's course	Private	Bachelør's örgree	2 or more	Acquisition of 30 credits + +
	Boctor's course	National		5 er more	Acquisition of 50 credits + +
Special School	Sindergartan, ola- mentary, lower cocontary and ayour secondary dopurtments	Prefectural Municipal		kindergatten, olementar dary and upper secunda	y. ry schools, respectively

 \oplus . Some indicates frequency. For the percentage distribution of schools by control, see P \mathbb{C}^{2} .

we see Chart XXX on page 67



9. How Many Schools. Teachers and Students Are There in Japan?

Chart IX shows the numbers of schools, teachers and students according to type of establishing body (national, local or private). These data are from the Report on Basic School Statistics, May 1, 1970. Branch schools are counted as separate units. Full-time and part-time courses in an upper secondary school are counted as separate schools in the chart.

The following tabulation shows the percentages of schools at each level according to type of establishing body: national, local (prefectural and municipal) or private.

Schools

	Kinder	Elemen-	Lower		• • • • • • •	Technical	Junior	Univer	Miscel	
	ņartens	tary Schools	Secondary Schools	Full- time	Part- time	Schools		Colleges	sities	laneous Schools
	%	%	%	%	%	%	Уú	%	%	%
Total	100.0	100.0	100 0	100.0	100.0	100 0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
National	0.4	0.3	0.7	0.6	-	3.4	81.6	4.7	19.8	0.3
Local	35.9	99-1	94.1	70.7	91.0	93.1	6.7	91	9.0	1.4
Private	63.7	0.6	5.2	28.7	90	3.4	11.7	86.2	71.2	98.3

On the compulsory school level, 99.4 per cent of all elementary schools and 94.8 per cent of all lower secondary schools are public (national and local) schools. Most of the kindergartens and misceflaneous schools are private schools, and 79.6 per cent of the junior colleges and universities are also privately supported.

The following tabulations present the percentages of teachers and students according to establishing body.

	Kinder	Element		Upper Se Scho		Special	Technical	Junior	Univer-	Miscel
	gartens	tary Schools	Secondary Schools	Full- Part- Schools Colleges time time			sities	laneous Schools		
	ኊ	%	×.	%	ጜ	ж	%	ж	*	%
National	03	0.5	6.7	03	-	30	74.7	2.3	48.6	0.4
Local	21.6	98 9	96 4	73.2	96.8	95 9	10.3	7.9	7.1	1.9
Private	78.1	06	2.9	26.5	3.2	1.1	15.0	89.8	44.3	97.7

	Students											
	Kinder-	Element		Upper S Scho		_ Special Schools	Technical Colleges		Univer- sities	Miscel- Ianeous Schools		
	gartens	tarv		Full⊧ t⊧me	Part- time							
	 بر	%	%	%	પ્ર	9 ₀	*	%	%	*		
National	0.3	05	0.8	03	0.1	3.5	74.3	3.7	22.3	0.3		
Local	24.?	98 9	96 J	67.0	94.0	95.1	9.5	62	37	14		
Private	75 5	06	29	32.7	5.9	1.4	16 2	90 1	74 0	98 3		



ista from: Report on Basic School Statistics, 1970, Ministry of Education.

Chart IX

SUMMARY OF SCHOOL STATISTICS

(As of May, 1970)

National	Ins	titutions ¹⁾		Teachers ²⁾ Students
Lecal Private		1,000		₩ 10.000 Å 200,000
Kindergartens				¥ ₩ N ┿ ₩ ₩ ₩ ₩ 5 62,481 5,551,017
Evementary Schools				1 1
Lower Secondary Schools				\$\vee\$ \$\vee\$<
Upper Secondary Schools (Full-time)	L 100		4,167	1 単単単単単単単 1 A<
Upper Secondary Schools (Part-time)			1,900	₩₩ ¹ 21.667 \$ \$ \$ \$ 3 405.854
Special Schools	<u> </u>	<u>}</u>	406	11,462 3 3 5 50,183
Technical Colleges	<u> </u>	;	60	ÝÝ ¹ 3.081 3 3 41,637
Junior Colleges	K E		473	ÝÝ? 15.445 3 3 Å 263,362
Universities	E E	· .	379	Image: Market
Miscellaneous Schoo Is	G K Konnel Tarles		5	

1) Includes pupils and students in advanced courses and short-term courses and graduate schools.



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²⁾ Full-time teachers only.

10. What Percentage of the Population Is Enrolled in Schools?

Chart X-A shows the actual and relative distribution of the school population between the ages of 3 and 25 years by age and sex and level of education.

Students in miscellaneous and correspondence schools are not included in the chart.

Recently the diffusion of pre-school education is increasing; over half of the new entrants to elementary schools have attended kindergartens for at least one year.

Sex differences in percentages of the age group encolled in schools as shown in Chart X-B are noteworthy in higher education.

The proportion of women aged 18-21 enrolled in higher education (9.8%) is much lower than that of men (23.3%).

The actual numbers of the population and the population enrolled in schools by age group are as follows:

	Total Po	pulation (in th	ousands)	Population Enrolled in Schools (in thousands)			
Age Group	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
Total (3-21)	34,068	17,400	16,668	22,400	11,793	10,607	
3-5	4,798	2,451	2,347	2,268	2,171	1,097	
6-14	14,326	7,324	7,002	14,305	7,312	6,993	
15–17	5,532	2,823	2,709	4,257	2,191	2,066	
18-21	9,412	4.802	4,610	1,570	1,119	451	

Chart X-B presents the percentage of the age group enrolled in school by school level. Practically all of the compulsory school age children attend schools. The percentage of enrollment in elementary schools is 99.8 and that in lower secondary schools is 99.9.

Data from: Survey on Non-Enrollment School Age Population, 1969, Ministry of Education Report on Basic School Statistics, 1969, Ministry of Education



Chart X SCHOOL POPULATION

A. Population Enrolled in School, by Age, 1969

	Kinder- garten & Elementary Hersery Scheer	Lewer Secondary School	Upper Secondary School	lastitution of Higher Education in School	
C 1		Maio		Female	Ac
5					2
14	and a second and a s				2
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11					
11					
1			a the States		1
1		Marry College College			1
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11					
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2					
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1			3 The Strategy		

Unit: 100,000 persons

B. Percentage of the Age Group Enrolled in School, by School Level, 1969

			•	:		•	•	_					
¢					• . •			·	1 -	5	47. 3%	47.1%	41.1%
		*		•		•			1	11	n.i	9.1	<u>11</u>
				×		•	1	1	12 -	14	n .i	11 .1	11. I
.			. "•				. •	1	15 1	17	11.1	77.6	76. 3
	.*.								18	21	18.7	23.3	11



11. How Are Students Distributed According to Sex and Type of Course?

hart XI shows school enrollments by sex and by course in 1969.

Chart XI-A shows the percentage distribution of enrollments by sex.

Recently the enrollment of girls in upper secondary schools has increased and the percentage distribution of enrollment by sex is almost fifty-fifty at the upper secondary school level. In junior colleges women represent over 80 per cent of the total enrollment, while the proportion of women students in universities is still low. The enrollments of graduate schools increased about twice from 20,719 in 1963 to 39,423 in 1969. This is mainly because of large increases in the number enrolled in graduate courses of science, engineering and agriculture. Miscellaneous schools are mainly educational institutions which provide post-secondary technical education in such courses as dress-making. domestic arts and others for women.

Chart XI-B presents the percentage distribution of enrollment in full-time and part-time upper secondary schools, in junior colleges and in undergraduate courses of universities, by major field of study.

At the upper secondary level, enrollment in general courses constitutes about 60 per cent of the total enrollment. "Other" courses of upper secondary schools include merchant marine, fine arts and music, foreign languages, etc. "Other" courses of junior colleges and universities include merchant marine, physical education, fine arts, general education, etc.

The following tabulations show the numerical and percentage distribution of students by major field of study.

Course	Tota	H	Full-t	ime	Part-time		
Course	Enrollment	Per cent	Enrollment	Per cent	Enrollment	Per cent	
Total	4,327,950	100.0%	3,923,383	100.0%	404,567	100.0%	
General	2,534,164	58.6	2,314,721	59.0	219,443	54.3	
Agriculture & Fishery	250,740	58	216,353	5.5	34,387	8.5	
Technical	567,197	13.1	489,266	12.5	77,931	19 3	
Commercial	720,147	166	668,630	17.0	51,517	127	
Domestic Arts	227,974	5.3	208,395	5.3	19,579	4.8	
Others	27,728	0.6	26,018	0.7	1,710	0.4	

Universities (undergraduate only) and Junior Colleges

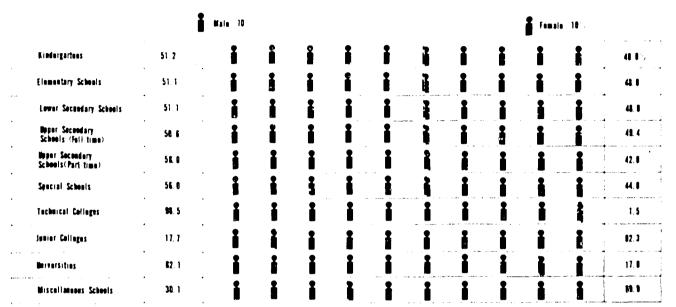
Field of Sturiy	Tota	l .	_ Full-t	ime	Part-t	me
	Enrollment	Per cent	Enrollment	Per cent	Enrollment	Per cen
Totai	1,555,100	100.0%	1,387,039	100.0%	168,061	100 0%
Literature	221,480	14.2	204,317	14.7	17,163	10.2
Law, Politics, Comparts & Econorius	573,034	36.9	477,538	34.4	95,496	56.8
Science	40,146	2.6	36,119	2.6	4,027	24
Engineering	290,560	18.7	248,487	17.9	42,073	25.0
Agriculture	51,783	33	51,783	37		
Medicine, Dentistry, Pharmacy & Nursing	55,154	3.5	55,069	4.0	85	0.1
Home Economics	112,875	7.3	110,536	80	2,339	1.4
Teacher Training	131,973	85	126,976	92	4,997	3.0
Fine Arts	40,488	2.6	38,607	2.8	1,881	1.1
Others	37,607	2.4	37,607	2.7	-	



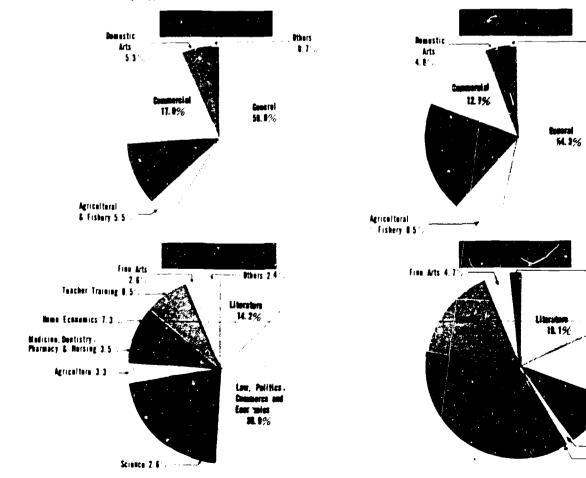
Data from: Report on Basic School Statistics, 1969, Ministry of Education

Chart XI ENROLLMENTS BY SEX AND BY TYPE OF COURSE

A. Enrollments by Sex



B. Enrollments by Type of Course





Ethers

1.4%

Others 1. E'

-Law, Politics,

Commerce and Economics

11.1%

- Science (0, 17)

Epginnaring 0.5% Agricultura 1.3% - Karsing 2.1%

12 New the the Major Educational Administrative Agences (ryanized ?

A hart XII shows the organization of national and local educational administration.

The popularly-elected National Diet designates the Prime Minister. The Prime Minister, in turn, appoints the Minister of Education, who appoints the personnel of his Ministry and the educational and cultural agencies under the jurisdiction of the Ministry, subject to applicable public service laws and regulations.

The prefectural boards of education consist of five members each. These members are appointed by the governor with the consent of the assembly of the prefecture. They hold office for four years.

The prefectural superintendent of education is appointed by the board with the approval of the Minister of Education.

Cities, towns and villages have municipal boards of education. Municipal boards of education consist of three or five members. They are appointed by the mayor with the consent of the municipal assembly, and they hold office for four years as in the case of prefectural boards.

The superintendent of a municipal board of education is appointed from among the members of the board, with the consent of the prefectural board of education.

Out of the five (or three) members of prefectural or municipal boards of education, no more than two (in case of three members, no more than one) are allowed to belong to the same political party.



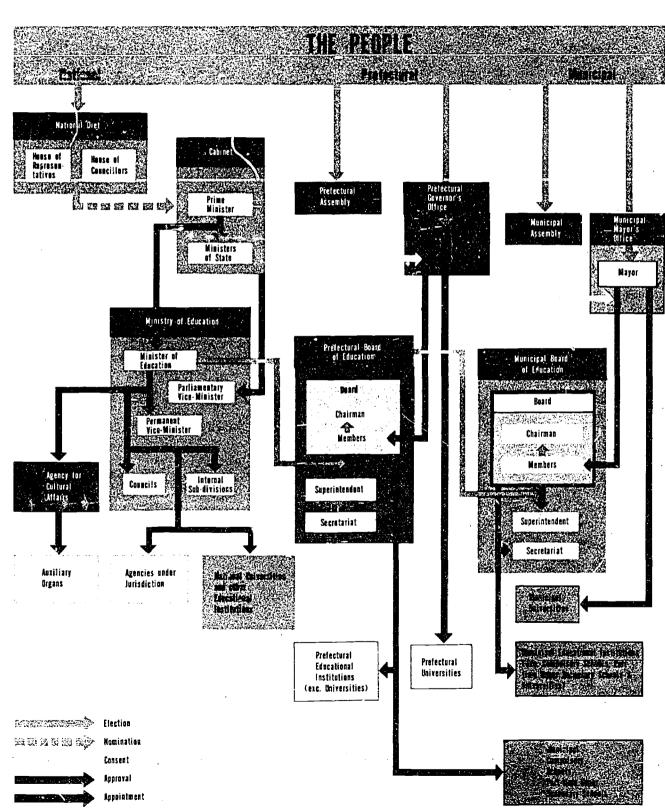


Chart XII ORGANIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Kow Dees National Educational 1.3 Administration Function ?

In Chart XIII are shown the operational relationships of national educational agencies. The principal national agency is the Ministry of Education. As an administrative ergan, it shares responsibilities with the Cabinet and the National Diet for preparing budget estimates and for drafting educational legislation. In its activities, it maintains liaison with the Prime Minister's Office and the Ministries of Finance, Foreign Affairs, Welfare, Agriculture and Forestry, Labor, etc.

Most national educational and cultural activities (except those which are under the jurisdiction of other ministries) are under the authority of the Ministry of Education. All national universities, national museums, national art galleries and some of the national research institutes are under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education. Some vocational upper secondary schools, junior colleges and almost all technical colleges are directly supervised and maintained by the Ministry.

The Ministry of Education supervises and assists the activities of many quasi-governmental organizations relating to education, e.g., Japan Scholarship Foundation, Japan Private School Promotion Foundation, National Stadium, Japan School Lunch Association, Japan School Safety Association, Private School Personnel Mutual Aid Association, National Education Center, Olympics Memorial Youth Center, National Theatre, etc.

Locally established public educational and cultural institutions come under the jurisdiction of the prefectural and municipal boards of education.

The Ministry of Education supervises and allocates financial aid to local boards of education, and may require reports on the educational activities of the local boards of education. As occasion demands, it makes inquiries and gives orders for necessary improvements or corrections to local boards of education. The Ministry 2!so approves the establishment of public and private higher educational institutions and offers them administrative supervision and advice. It also performs direct services in the fields of social education and international education and gives assistance and advice to voluntary private bodies who conduct activities in these fields.



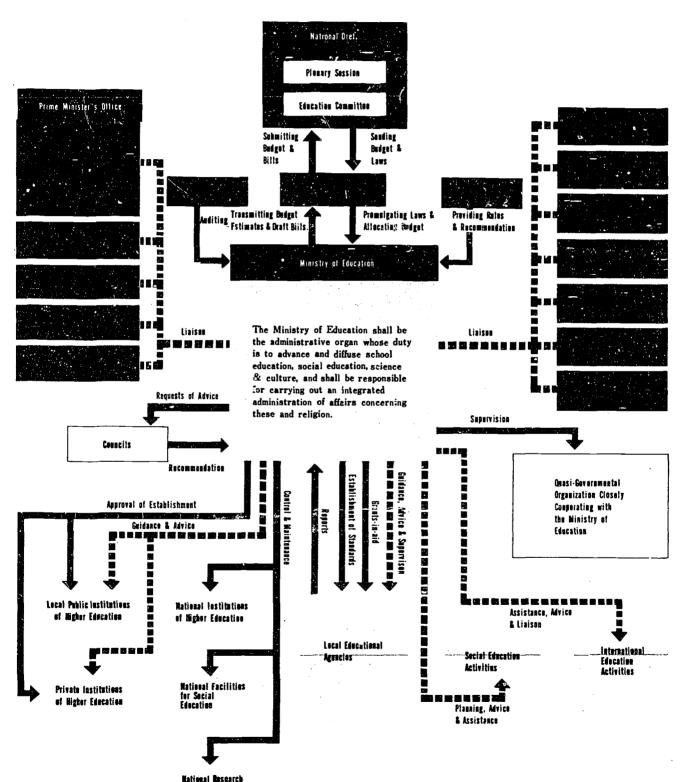


Chart XIII OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS OF NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES

nacional noscarc lestitutes



14. How Is the Ministry of Education Organized?

Chart XIV portrays the organization of the Ministry of Education, as of 1970. It consists of a central organization, an external organ, and several organs under its jurisdiction.

The principal subdivisions within the Ministry include the Minister's Secretariat and six bureaus. Their functions are as follows:

- 1. *Minister's Secretariat:* Personnel affairs, welfare, general affairs and maintenance of liaison on behalf of the Minister; preparing draft legislation; preparing budgets; accounting and auditing; disseminating information; planning and evaluating policies of the Ministry; conducting nation-wide surveys on important aspects of education; conducting studies of education abroad; compiling nation-wide statistics of education and annual reports, etc.
- 2. Elementary and Secondary Education Bureau: Providing advice and guidance to local education agencies; regulating the status of educational personnel; assisting and advising boards of education and teachers on all matters concerning elementary and secondary education including special education; establishing educational standards; promoting vocational education: authorizing, publishing and distributing textbooks; and determining the national subsidies for elementary and lower secondary schools, etc.
- 3. *Higher Education and Science Bureau:* Approving the establishment or abolition of universities, junior colleges and technical colleges; determining national standards for higher education; supervising teacher training and issuance of teacher certificates; planning, assisting and advising on in-service education of teachers; making grants-in-aid for scientific research; coordinating student exchange programs; planning, assisting and advising on the development of higher education and research, etc.
- 4. Social Education Bureau: Planning, assisting and advising on the development of social education; providing national subsidies for social education; promoting audio-visual education, etc.
- 5. *Physical Education Bureau*: Planning, advising and assisting in promotion of physical education; advancing school health programs and extending school lunch programs; determining subsidies and establishing standards for physical education, school health programs and school lunch programs; liaison and assisting in affairs concerning national and international athletic games, etc.
- 6. Administrative Bureau: Determining subsidies for construction and rehabilitation of the facilities for national and local educational institutions; promoting the welfare of educational personnel employed therein; promoting sound educational activities of private educational institutions, etc.

To the Ministry, there are attached 14 advisory councils, whose members are appointed by the Minister of Education. The Central Countcil for Education, whose members are appointed by the Minister with the approval of the Cabinet, is the highest advisory organ to the Minister and concerns itself with those matters relating to fundamental policies for education referred to it by the Minister. The concerns of the other councils listed are indicated by their titles.

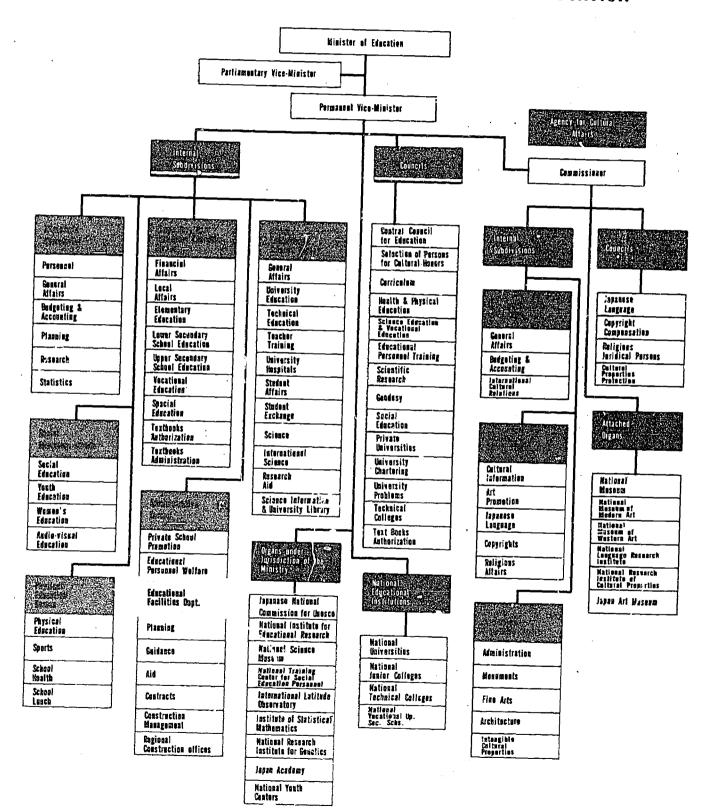
The Agency for Cultural Affairs, headed by a Commissioner, is an external organ of the Ministry of Education, which is responsible for the promotion and diffusion of cultural activities, the preservation and utilization of cultural properties and for the administrative matters concerning religions. Four councils are attached to the Agency.





Chart XIV

ORGANIZATION OF THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION





15. How Is Decal Educational Administration Conducted ?

The organization of prefectural and municipal educational administration is shown in Chart XV.

A National, prefectural and municipal educational agencies are largely independent of each other. The Minister of Education offers guidance, advice and assistance to local boards of education: prefectural boards of education carry out similar functions in relation to municipal boards of education.

Prefectural boards of education administer schools (mainly upper secondary schools and special schools for the blind and deaf) and cultural and social educational institutions (public libraries, museums, etc.) established by prefectures. Municipal boards of education administer schools (mainly elementary and lower secondary schools) and cultural and social educational institutions (citizens' public halls, libraries, etc.) established by municipalities.

Prefectural and minicipal boards of education perform, as a rule, such functions as follows:

- 1. Establishment, maintenance and abolition of schools
- 2. Curriculum making and revision (in accordance with courses of study prescribed by the Minister)
- 3. Adoption of textbooks to be used in schools
- 4. Appointment and dismissal of teachers (see sub-paragraph 3, below)
- 5. Purchasing instructional materials
- 6. In-service training of teachers

In addition, the prefectural boards of education perform such functions as follows:

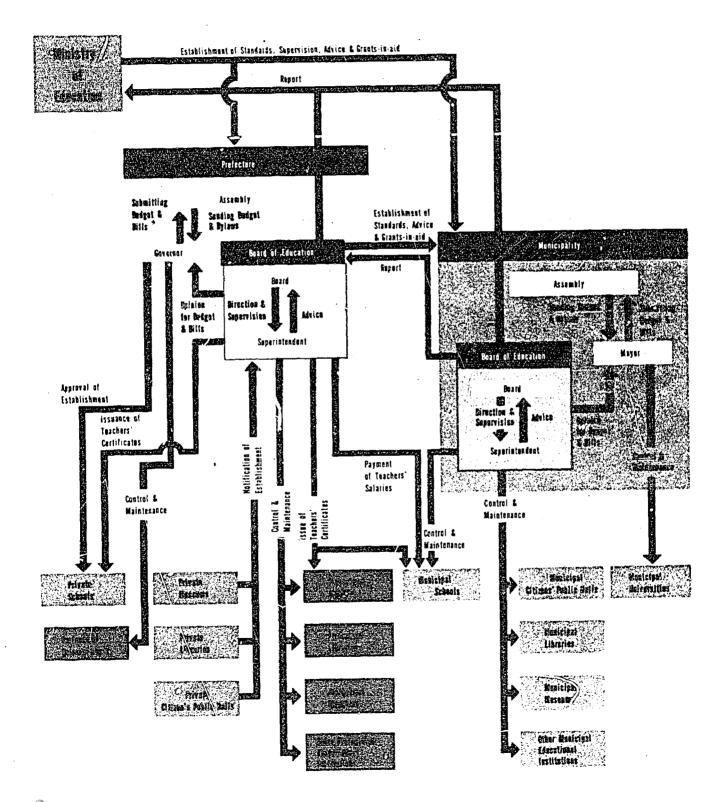
- 1. Offer administrative and professional advice and assistance to the minicipal boards.
- 2. Require the municipal boards to submit reports, as occasions demand, and, in some cases, to make necessary improvements or corrections concerning their activities.
- 3. Appoint and dismiss, upon recommendation by municipal boards of education, teachers of elementary schools, lower secondary schools, special schools of compulsory level and part-time upper secondary schools established by municipalities, whose salaries are paid by the prefectural boards of education.
- 4. Certify teachers for public and private schools.
- 5. Supervise the establishment and revision of attendance districts for public upper secondary schools.

The municipal authorities have no jurisdiction over private schools or private social education institutions. The former are supervised by the prefectural governors and the latter by the prefectural boards of education.

Prefectural and municipal boards of education usually appoint advisory committees for the development of citizens' public halls, libraries and museums.

In Chart XV, the term "private schools" does not include private higher educational institutions, because these are under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education.







16 Al hat Is the Sumber of Beards of Education and the Composition of Their Sersennel?

The chief local educational agency is the board of education. Boards of education are established by law in every prefecture and municipality, but contiguous municipalities may form associations under a joint board of education.

Chart XVI-A shows the distribution of the number of municipal boards of education in terms of population groupings of municipalities in 1965 and 1969.

The members of prefectural or municipal boards of education are appointed by the governor or mayor with the consent of the assembly concerned.

As of 1969, eighty-nine per cent of the total number of prefectural board members were men. More than half (57.0%) of them were university graduates and about 27 per cent were graduates from professional or teacher training colleges. Ninety-five per cent of the total number of municipal board members were men. Agriculture and fishing were the occupational categories most frequently represented, followed by managerial and professional occupations. Twenty-four per cent of the members of municipal boards of education have had teaching experience.

Prefectural and municipal boards of education usually employ teacher consultants, social education consultants, and other administrative and technical staff, though there are some municipal boards of education which do not have teacher consultants and/or social education consultants.

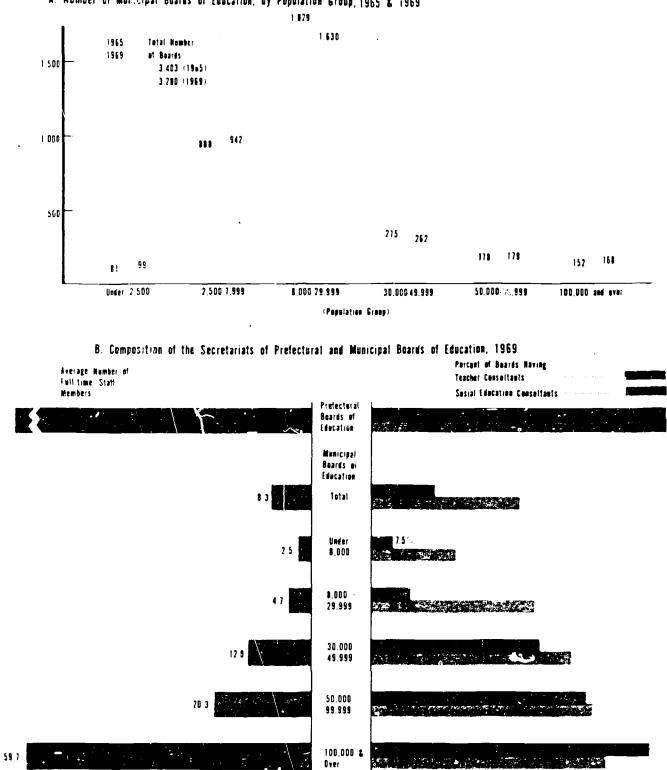
Chart XVI-B shows the average number of full-time staff members of the prefectural and municipal boards of education and the percentage of such boards of education having full-time teacher consultants and social education consultants. Data for municipal boards of education are shown by size of municipality.

The function of social education consultants is to give professional and technical guidance and advice to personnel engaged in social education activities. The functions of teacher consultants are explained in the following text.





Chart XVI STATISTICS OF BOARDS OF EDUCATION



A. Number of Municipal Boards of Education, by Population Group, 1965 & 1969





Chart XVII shows the organization for educational supervision in the Ministry of Education and in prefectural and municipal boards of education.

17. How S. School Supervision (rganized?

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The Ministry of Education may offer necessary guidance, advice and assistance to local boards of education and local educational personnel on curriculum standards, methods and techniques of instruction, guidance and school management, through direct or indirect methods as follows:-

- 1. Official notification to prefectural or municipal boards of education.
- 2. Supervision of local boards of education and, through local boards, supervision of public elementary and secondary schools.
- 3. Conduct of conferences and workshops on a nation-wide scale for principals, teacherconsultants and teachers.
 - 4. Publication of guides, mannuals and handbooks for teachers.
 - A number of supervisors and subject specialists are employed in the Ministry of Education.

Supervisors of the Ministry of Education are responsible for elementary and secondary education in general. They are assigned for service in specific regions and for designated school levels.

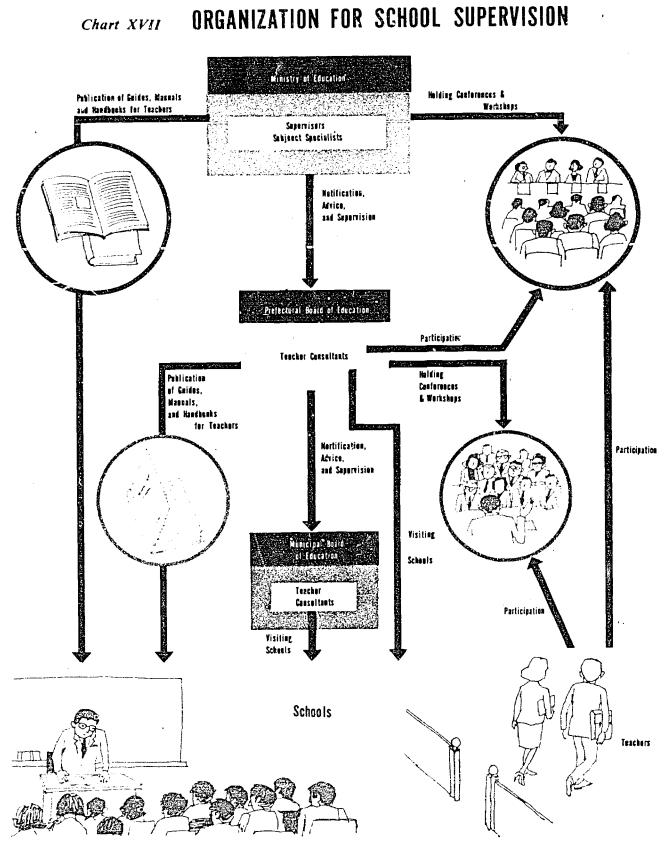
Subject specialists serve full-time and their function is to conduct research and study on the standards of curriculum for the school level and subject area to which they are assigned, and to give prefectural boards of education advice and assistance on the curriculum.

Direct guidance and advice to elementary and lower secondary school teachers are given by the prefectural and minicipal boards of education.

The supervision sections in prefectural boards of education give guidance and advice to municipal boards of education, conduct conferences and workshops for principals and teachers and publish guides, mannuals or handbooks for teachers, based upon the central policy for supervision, and taking into consideration the specific situations of the prefectures concerned. The principal supervisory personnel of prefectural boards of education are teacher consultants, who are assigned for guidance on curriculum, teaching, and other professional matters related to school education within their prefecture. School supervision is the primary function of teacher consultants.

Teacher consultants must be experienced professional educators with thorough understanding of the curriculum, teaching methods and objectives, and other professional matters related to school education.







18. How the Jublic Schools Administered?

In local board of education establishes regulations concerning school management for the purpose of providing systematic administration and effective performance of the schools under its supervision. Although the details of these regulations differ among boards of education, the following are items usually regulated by the board.

- 1. Provision and maintenance of facilities and equipment.
- 2. Employment of personnel; assignment of school duties; leave of absence and official travel of personnel.
- 3. Classroom organization and administration.
- 4. Educational activities such as instructional planning, special curricular activities and school events.
- 5. Common use of instructional materials; notice and approval of instructional materials.
- S. Designation of holidays; changes in school schedule.
- 7. Day and night watch duties.

The functions of boards of education also include offering the guidance or assistance necessary to carry out school activities and school management effectively

Subject to the local regulations, the actual administration of each school is charged to the principal, with resultant wide variations in actual procedures.

Chart XVIII illustrates the typical functional organization of a public school.

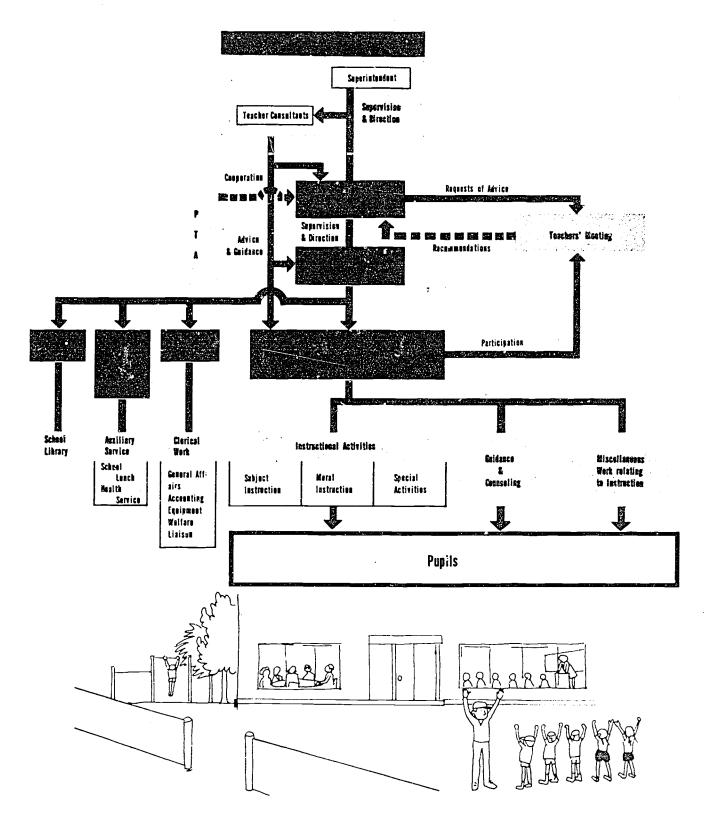
Private schools are usually similar to public schools in their internal organization. However, instead of boards of education, prefectural governors have the responsibility for supervising the administration of private schools.

With the extension and multiplication of the functions of schools at all levels, increasingly evident is the diversification of categories of teaching and other staff of schools and the functional differentiation among them. The kinds of personnel engaged in educational, auxiliary and administrative activities in schools are substantially increasing, and new middle-management posts such as head-teachers of instruction, of grades, of guidance and counselling, etc. are being created in many schools.

Close cooperation between schools and parents is required for a successful and complete education. Almost all elementary, lower and upper secondary schools in Japan have parent-teacher associations.

Although the functions of these PTAs vary, the general aims are cooperation with the schools and teacherz, promotion of the welfare of youth and development of adult education, especially parent education.





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19 Rev . he Universities and Junior Colleges Administered?

A hart XIX illustrates the administration of universities, junior colleges and technical colleges.

The establishment of a national, local public, or private university or junior college requires the approval of the Minister of Education. He refers each application for approval to the University Chartering Council and his decision is based on the recommendation of the Council. The standards for the establishment of a university or junior college are prescribed in the Standards for the Establishment of Universities or in those for junior colleges. On the basis of these standards, the University Chartering Council makes inquiries and deliberations on applications for the establishment of new institutions. The Council is also concerned with policy for awarding the doctorate and other academic degrees. The members of the Council are appointed by the Minister of Education from among personnel of the government agencies concerned, personnel of universities throughout Japan, and persons of learning and experience in the spheres of politics, education, etc. All universities and junior colleges come under the jurisdiction of the Minister of Education but each university or junior college is governed by its own governing agency.

Concerning important matters relating to private universities or junior colleges, the Private University Council may make recommendations to the Minister of Education. The Council is composed of presidents and other educational personnel of private universities and junior colleges, directors of school juridical persons (the corporate organs responsible for private higher educational institutions), and persons of learning and experience.

The establishment of technical colleges, national, local and private, is approved by the Minister of Education on the recommendation of the Technical College Council. The members of the Council are appointed by the Minister from among presidents or teachers of technical colleges, directors of school juridical persons who are establishers of such colleges and persons of learning and experiences.

Educational expenditures for operating national and local public institutions of higher education, are mainly supplied from the funds of national and local governments, respectively. Revenue from entrance examination fees, entrance fees, tuition fees, etc. in national and local public institutions are generally credited to the governments concerned, and not to individual institutions. In private institutions, student fees and private funds available to the school juridical persons constitute the main financial resources.

There are many private universities and junior colleges facing financial difficulties because of their low financial resources. To ameliorate this situation, national grants in aid of recurrent expenditures for education and research (including teachers' salaries) are distributed to private institutions through the Japan Private School Promotion Foundation, which is mainly funded by the national government. Other functions of the Foundation include the extension of loans to juridical school persons (the overwhelming part of which is for capital outlay) as well as various kinds of assistance for the promotion of education in private institutions. In addition, specific subsidies are being granted directly by the national government to individual institutions for new facilities for science education and research equipment.



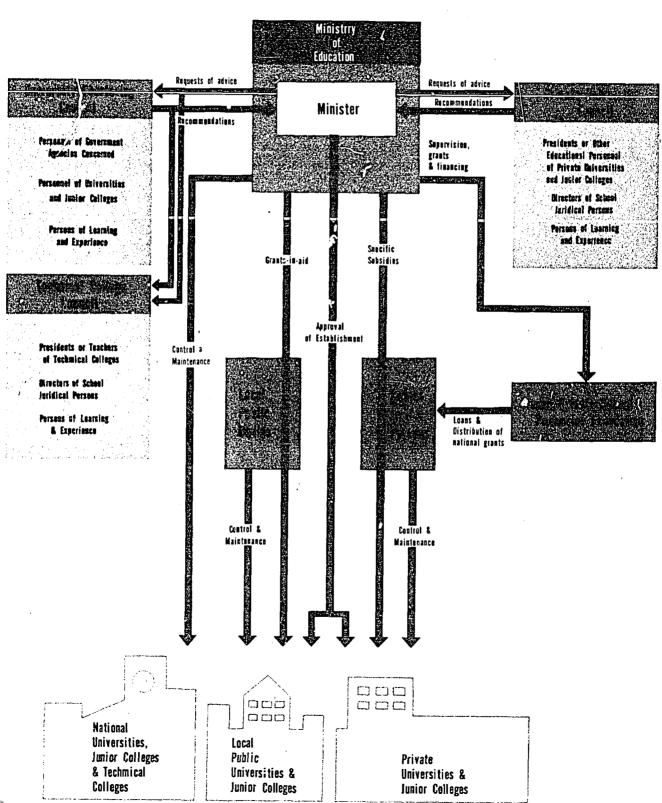


Chart XIX ADMINISTRATION OF UNIVERSITIES AND JUNIOR COLLEGES



 Π he functional organization of universities varies widely among national, local and private institutions. Each private university is governed in its own way.

How Are National Universities Administered?

There are some differences among national universities, particularly due to variations in size of enrollment and number of faculties. A "Faculty" is an organizational unit within a university focusing on a branch of learning. The University of Tokyo, for example, consists of the following ten faculties: Arts and Science, Literature, Education, Law, Economics, Science, Medicine, Engineering, Agriculture, and Pharmacy. Chart XVII shows an example of a national university which has several faculties. In national universities, the president, board of councillors, council, deans and faculty meetings act as governing authorities, and the self-governing administration of the university is carried out through these bodies. The responsibilities of these authorities are prescribed in the School Education Law, the Law for Special Regulations Concerning Educational Personnel and other acts and regulations.

The president is the highest responsible person in the university. In considering important affairs that concern the whole university – for example, determination of university regulations, making the draft budget for the coming year, or student guidance and welfare—, he has to join in deliberation with the board of councillors. In almost all cases the conclusion of the board of councillors becomes the university's decision. The board of councillors is in principle composed of the president, the deans of the various faculties, two professors selected from each faculty, and the directors of research institutes. In some cases, it includes the director of the university hospital, the director of the university library and other qualified persons.

The council is composed of virtually the same people as the board of councillors. It is in charge of important affairs concerning staff such as nomination of the president.

With regard to the actual operation of university administration, the faculty in most cases functions as the principle unit. The faculty meeting is composed of all the full professors, and in some cases assistant professors and other staff. The dean of the faculty is elected by the faculty meeting. Most important matters affecting faculty including recruitment of new faculty members is determined by the faculty meeting.

Legally, all the administrators and teachers in the universities and junior colleges are appointed by the Minister of Education on the basis of nominations presented by these institutions. The president is nominated by the council. In practice, the council nominates the person who has been elected by the vote of academic and other staff in the institution. The dean of a faculty is nominated by the president. The president nominates the person who has been selected by the faculty meeting.

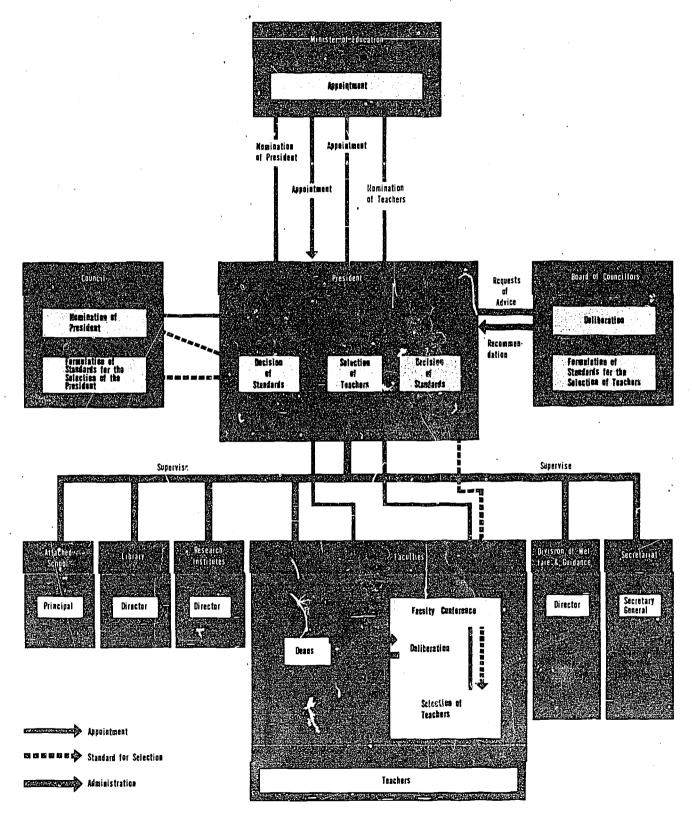
The teacners are nominated by the president in accordance with the results of deliberations in the faculty meetings. The president conventionally follows the decisions of the faculty meetings. The Minister appoints those teachers who have been nominated by the president. Since the present system started, no recommendation of university presidents has been refused by the Minister.



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20

Chart XX ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION OF A TYPICAL NATIONAL UNIVERSITY



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How Is Public Education Financed? 21.

IT n Japan, responsibilities for public finance are shared by the national government, prefectures and own taxes and other income. In addition, national subsidies and grants are provided for aid to prefectures and municipalities, and prefectural subsidies are granted to the municipalities. National subsidies and grants include specific subsidies for education as well as the local allocation tax grant, a form of local finance equalization grant for the support of local finances in general. Chart XXI shows the general structure of educational finance.

The principal source of income of the national government, prefectures and municipalities consists of the taxes levied at each level. Besides taxes, there are other sources of revenue such as contributions from national monopoly enterprises, receipts from public enterprises and properties, rents and fees (tuition fees and examination fees from students, for example), etc., which are also included in the general revenue accounts of governments concerned. In addition, prefectures and municipalities may make use of bonds. The use of bonds or short-term loans is legally authorized for financing the construction of elementary and secondary schools, for rehabilitation of public educational facilities damaged by natural calamities, or for refinancing outstanding obligations.

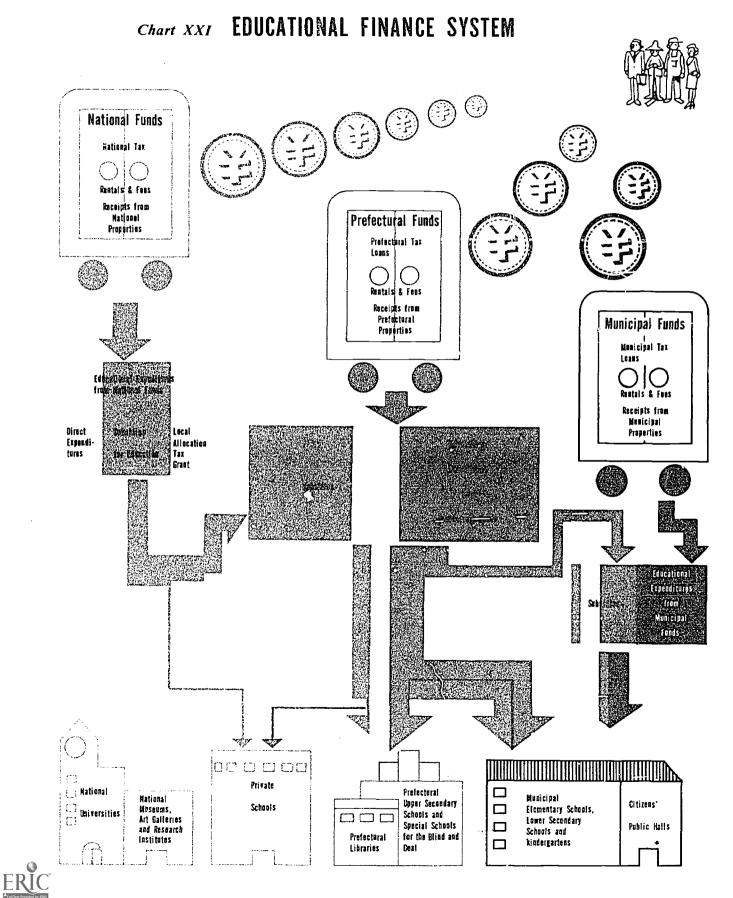
Educational expenditures of the national government are classified in three categories: (1) direct expenditures for national educational activities such as operating national universities and schools (2) specific subsidies for educational activities of other organizations such as those of prefectures, municipalities, private schools and research organizations, and (3) the local allocation tax grant, a part of which is expended for education.

Educational expenditures of the prefectures include direct expenditures for educational activities operated by the prefectures, payment of salaries of personnel employed in elementary, lower-secondary, part-time upper secondary and special schools established by municipalities, and subsidies for designated educational activities operated by the municipalities.

Educational expenditures of municipalities are for educational activities operated by the municipalities such as elementary and lower secondary schools and citizens' public halls.

Parents pay a part of expenses for instructional supplies, for transportation of pupils to attend schools, etc. In summary, public education costs are financed in Japan by public funds and private expenditures by parents.





22 What Subsidies Dees the National Government Invide for Education?

The national government makes a number of subsidies to local public bodies for educational purposes.

The following are the main categories of educational expenditures which are subsidized by the national government, as shown in the left part of Chart XXII.

Salaries Salaries of teachers employed in compulsory schools

- School buildings Consultaction of new buildings and gymnasiums of public elementary and secondary schools; reconstruction of school buildings destroyed or damaged by natural calamities; reconstruction of obsolete school buildings.
- *Equipment* Instructional equipment in compulsory schools; equipment for science and vocational education; equipment for school lunch programs.
- Social Education Facilities for social education activities including physical education and sports.
- Other Aid to needy pupils (school supplies, school lunch fees, medical care, etc.); special provisions for the education of handicapped pupils, for education in isolated areas and for part-time and correspondence upper secondary schools.

The largest amount of the national subsidies for education is appropriated for the salaries of teachers in compulsory schools, and for construction and reconstruction of school buildings. During recent years, the amount of subsidies for science and vocational education equipment has been increasing to keep up with the growing demand for strengthening these areas of education.

Chart XXII lists the major subsidies for education and also shows the proportion of the approved expenditures which may be borne by the subsidies, and the proportion to be borne by municipal or prefectural funds.





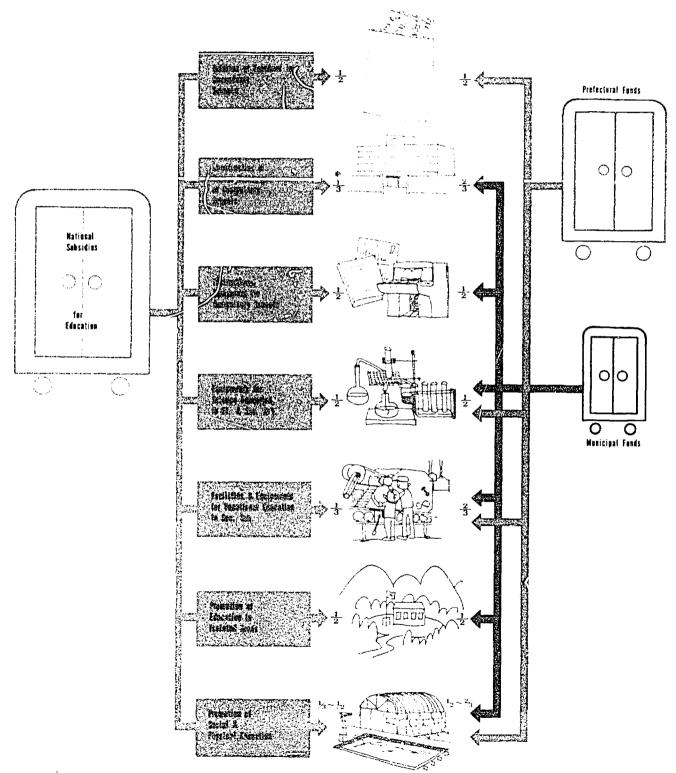


Chart XXII NATIONAL SUBSIDIES FOR EDUCATION

* 320f the approved expenditures for the construction of lover secondary schools and also for the consolidation of schools.



23 How Much Is Expended for Sublic Education in Japan?

Chast XXIII-A shows public expenditures for education in relation to national income. The expenditures include national subsidies for private schools. National income is the ultimate source of educational expenditures. If has been increasing year by year and its amount totaled 42,143 billion yen (approximately 118 billion dollars) in 1968. The past trend in the perceptage of the national income spent on public education is shown in the following table.

Fisca-Year	1955	1960	1965	1966	1967	1968
Percentage	5.1	46	53	5 2	50	48

The percentage of the national income for *public and private* educational expenditures was 6.2 in 1968. 'Public and private' educational expenditures here means the net total of total public expenditures for education including social education and educational administration and total expenditures for private schools.

Chart XXIII-B shows public expenditures for education in relation to total public expenditures. Total public expenditures (net total) in 1968 amounted to 9,899 billion yen (approximately 27.5 billion dollars).

In 1968, national public expenditures amounted to 5,982 billion yen (approximately 16.6 billion dollars) including subsidies for local finance. Local public expenditures amounted to 6,730 billion yen (approximately 18.7 billion dollars).

Chart XXIII-C shows the percentages of total expenditures for education paid by the national government and by local public bodies, and also the percentages of national educational expenditures devoted to national scl.ools, and to direct and indirect subsidies for local educational support, in 1968.

The following tabulation presents the past trend in the percentage distribution of public expenditure for education by source.

Fiscal Year	1955	1960	1965	1968
Total	100 O%	100.0%	100.0%	100 0%
National	46 7	47 3	50 0	49.5
Local	53.3	52 2	50 0	50 5

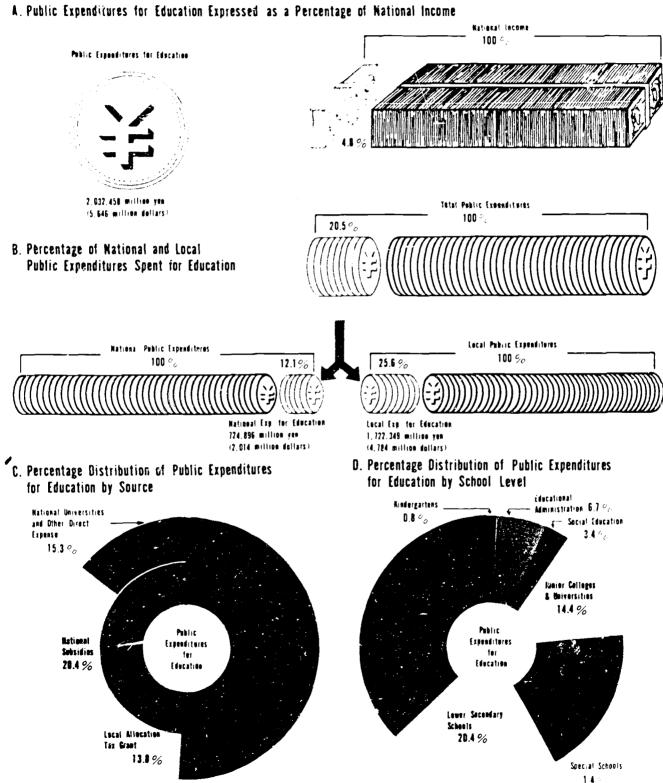
Chart XXIII-D shows the percentage distribution of total educational expenditures by school level or area. Compulsory education (elementary and lower secondary schools) accounted for over 57 per cent of the total.



Chart XXIII

TOTAL EXPENDITURES FOR PUBLIC EDUCATION

(As of 1968)



A Dublic Europei



24 How Huch Is Expended for Education Serviced by Secul Jublic Bedies ?

hart XXIV-A shows the percentage distribution of local educational expenditures (exclading expenditures for universities and junior colleges) by source of receipts, for each school level or area. 1968. The percentage of compulsory education expenditures expended from national subsidies is larger than the percentages for other school levels or area. This is mainly due to the fact that the national government pays one half of the teachers' salaries for compulsory education schools. In total expenditures for upper secondary schools, revenue receipts from prefectural sources are the highest (81%). This is because most of the upper secondary schools are operated by the prefectures which also pay the salaries of teachers in part-time upper secondary schools established by municipalities.

The following tabulation presents in statistical form the data contained in Chart XXIV-A.

	Total	National Subsidies	Revenue Receipts from Prefectural Sources	Revenue Receipts from Municipal Sources	Long Term Loans	Donations
Total	100.0%	24.2%	44.0%	26.0%	3.2%	2.6%
Kindergartens	100.0	2.5	0.8	89.1	2.6	5.1
Compulsory Education Schools	190.0	33.2	35.0	26.8	3.6	1.5
Special Schools	100.0	28.0	66.E	4.0	0.9	0.5
Upper Secondary Schools						
full-time	100.0	2.8	80.8	6.8	1.9	7.8
part-time	100.0	3.5	82.1	10.6	0.6	3.2
Technical Colleges	100.0	1.2	70.3	19.1	1.1	2.2
Miscellaneous Schools	100.0	0.2	1.1	36.7	0.1	1.9
Social Education	100.0	4.7	19.6	65.3	8.8	16
Educational Administration	100.0	3.6	38.1	57.1	1.1	0.1

Percentage Distribution of Local Educational Expenditures by Source of Receipts, 1968

Chart XXIV-B shows the percentage distribution of local educational expenditures by school level or area and by major classification of expenditures, 1968.

Current expenses may be divided into "teachers' salaries", which represents the largest part, and "others."

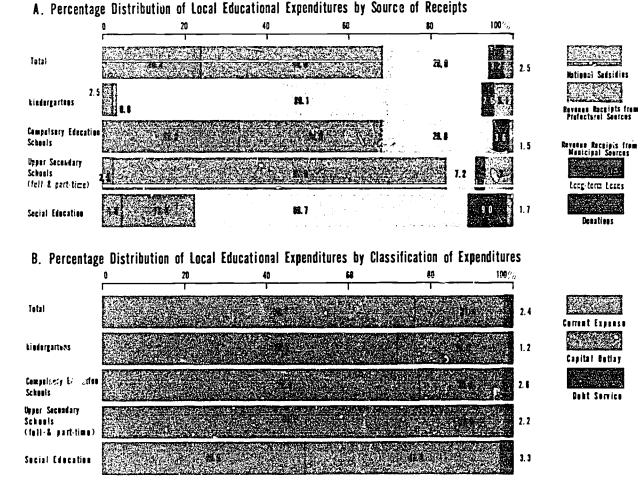
Percentage Distribution of Local Educational Expenditures by Classification of Expenditures, 1968

	Current Expenditures									
	Total	Teachers' Salaries		Others	Capital Outlay	Debt Service				
Total	100.0%		76.1%	-	21.4%	2.4%				
Kindergartens	100.0	49.5%		22.5%	26.8	1.2				
Compulsory Education Schools	100.0	54.9		22.5	20.0	2.6				
Special Schools	100.0	46.1		27.3	24.4	2.2				
Upper Secondary Schools										
full-time	100.0	46.4		25.9	25.3	2.4				
pertitime	100.0	57.5		30.5	11.5	0.5				
Telesincal Colleges	100.0		63.7		35.7	0.6				
Miscellaneous Schools	100.0		79.3		17.6	3.1				
Social Education	100.0		49.5		47.2	3.3				
Educational Administration	100.0		92.6		6.9	0.5				

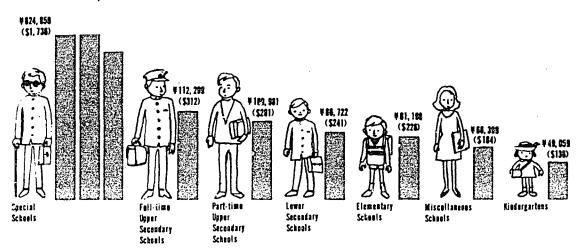


Chart XXIV-C shows per pupil expenditures for education in public schools for each school level in 1968.

Chart XXIV LOCAL EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURES



C. Annual Per Pupil Cost in Public Schools







2.5 Te What Standards Should Schools Conform 2- I

The national government establishes general standards for each school level to assure maintenance of high quality in education. Charts XXV, XXVI, XXVII, XXVII, XXIX and XXX indicate the various standards for schools and the actual situations.

In kindergartens, elementary and lower secondary schools, classes, in principle, should be composed of pupils of the same grade. In special cases, however, several different grades may attend the same class. According to regulations the maximum number of children permitted per class in kindergarten is 40. The average number of children per class was 34 and the average pupil-teacher ratio was 25 in May, 1969. The actual number of pupils per class in each elementary and lower secondary school is determined by prefectural boards off education; however, according to law, the maximum number of pupils permitted per class was 33 in elementary schools and 37 in lower secondary schools, and the average pupil-teacher ratio was 26 in elementary schools and 21 in lower secondary schools.

In upper secondary schools, the maximum number of pupils per class permitted by law is 45. The average pupil-teacher ratio in 1969 was 22.

The total number of teachers for each prefecture is determined according to standards fixed by law. In 1969 the numbers of teachers per home-room classes in public elementary and lower secondary schools were 1.27 and 1.75 respectively.

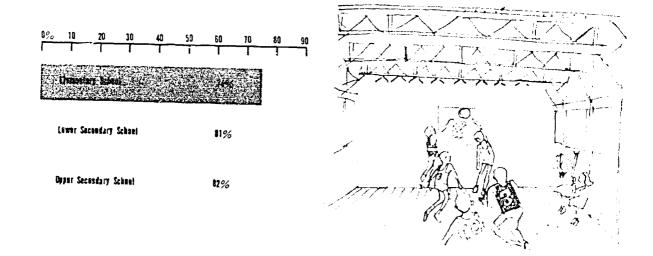
The minimum standards for the floor area of public school buildings are set forth in a cabinet order which makes allowances for school size, local climate and type of course. The average floor area per pupil was 5.34 m^2 in elementary schools, 6.09 m^2 in lower secondary schools and 6.14 m^2 in upper secondary schools in 1969. The Ministry of Education and local authorities are promoting the establishment of gymnasiums and special study rooms for science, music, fine arts, homemaking etc., within the guidelines of other cabinet orders. Chart XXV-A & B shows percentages of public schools furnished with gymnasiums and special study rooms respectively.

Chart XXV-C indicates the percentage distribution of elementary and lower secondary classes by number of pupils per class. The proportion of the classes of 46 or more is 1.7 per cent at the elementary level and 2.6 per cent at the lower secondary level.

Data from: Report on Basic Schol Statistics, 1969, Ministry of Education. Survey on the Actual Conditions of the Public School Buildings, 1970. Ministry of Education.

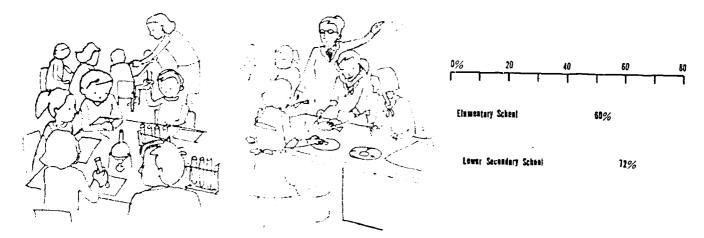


Chart XXV SCHOOL STANDARDS-1

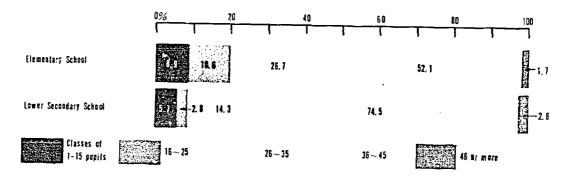


A. Percentages of Public Schools Furnished with Gymnasiums, May 1970

B. Percentages of Public Schools Which Have the Standard Numbers of Special Study Rooms, 1969



C. Percentage Distribution of Classes by Size, May 1969





26 . To What Standards Should Schools Conform ?- II

Curriculum standards for kindergartens are issued by the Ministry of Education. The principles stated in the Ministry's standards are as follows:

- (1) To promote both physical and mental health, and thus to foster the harmonious development of mind and body.
- (2) To foster respect for the fundamental patterns of behaviour in our daily life, to develop appropriate social attitudes, to build up emotional harmony, and thus to cultivate the foundations of morality.
- (3) To arouse an interest in nature and social affairs, and thus to cultivate the rudiments of the ability to think.
- (4) To foster the attitude of listening to what others say, to arouse a desire to use such words as can be understood by others, and thus to develop an ability to use words effectively.
- (5) To develop self-expression through creative activities.
- (6) To promote spontaneous activities so as to achieve independence, and to give such care and protection as are needed by children.
- (7) To provide appropriate guidance in accordance with individual differences, by taking into consideration the characteristics of each child's physical and mental development.
- (8) To provide comprehensive guidance based on each child's experience, by making full use of each child's interests and needs.
- (9) To provide appropriate guidance, by taking into consideration the actual conditions of the local community and improving the living environment of the kindergarten.
- (10) To provide appropriate guidance, by paying attention to the characteristics of kindergarten education which is different from elementary school education.
- (11) To develop close relations between home and school and through cooperation with education at home to raise the efficiency of kindergarten education.

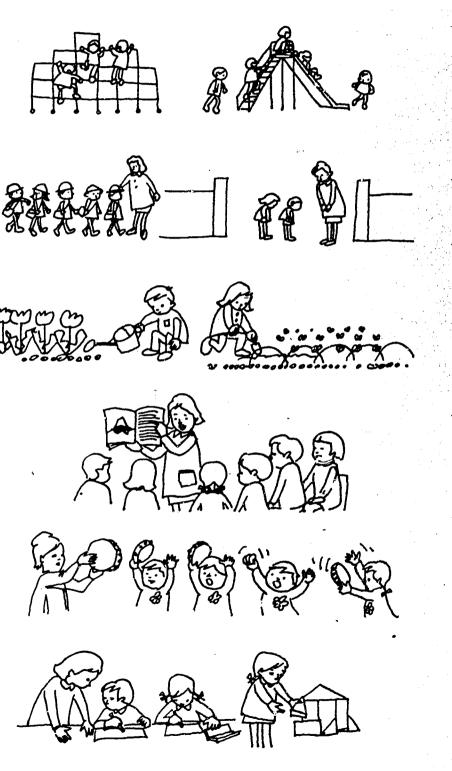
The minimum number of school days for kindergarten education is 220 days a year, and the standard number of classroom hours per day is about four hours.

Each kindergarten compiles its curriculum on the basis of the above principles, covering affairs in each area shown in Chart XXVI.



Prescribed Contents of Kindergarten Education







27. To What Standards Should Schools Conform ?- III

Curriculum standards for elementary and lower secondary schools are stated in the courses of study issued by the Ministry of Education. The Minister of Education decides the courses of study on the basis of recommendations from the Curriculum Council which is composed of teachers, researchers and other men of learning and experience.

The course of study provides the basic framework for curricula: the aim of each subject and the aims and contents of teaching in each grade.

Each school organizes its own curricula on the basis of the course of study, taking into consideration the actual conditions of its local community and school, and the development and characteristics of its pupils.

The three areas of regular subjects, moral education, and special activities are always supposed to be covered in the curricula. Special activities include pupil activities (school assemblies, class assemblies, club activities), school events (ceremonies, literary exercises, athletic meetings, school excursions, etc.), and classroom guidance on etiquette at school lunch, utilization of school libraries, health education, traffic safety education and so forth.

Schools must be open for 240 days or more and lessons for regular subjects and moral education must be given for 35 weeks (34 in the first grade of elementary school) or more per year. Public schools give lessons six days a week.

Chart XXVII shows the standards on the use of school hours for elementary (left) and lower secondary (right) schools. A school hour is 45 (or 40 owing to school circumstances) minutes in elementary school and 50 (or 45) minutes in lower secondary school.

The standards allow several hours for elective subjects and individual schools decide what to teach in these hours. Most lower secondary schools include several hours per week of English language instruction.

The foregoing standards for curricula are set forth in the recently revised "Course of Study for Elementary School" and "Course of Study for Lower Secondary School", which will be enforced from April of 1971 and April of 1972 respectively.



Chart XXVII

SCHOOL STANDARDS-3

Elementary Scienti Grade Ш ł ¥ ¥1 Grade I. н Japanese Language Japonese Language Social Studios H Social Studies Arithetic **Mathematics** Sciance Science <u>Mint</u> F Masie Macie R Art & Rendieraft Fine Arts Halth & Physical ilom a maki ter Education Industrial Arts o Physical Education innen aking Moral Education Moral Education Tetal Special Activities Elective Subjects & Miners Notes: 1. A school hour is a class period of 45 minutes. Grand Total 2. Private elementary schools can substitute religious education for a part of the school hours required for moral education. Notes: 1. A unit school hour is a class period of 50

Prescribed Subjects and Number of School Hours in Compulsory Education

minutes.

- 2. School hours for the "Elective Subjects and the Others" may be alloted to one or more elective subjects and teaching of Special Activities.
- 3. As for the school hours of Elective Subjects. the standard number of school hours for Foreign Language is 105 hours in each grade: 35 hours in the first two years and 70 hours in the third grade for Agriculture, Industry, Commerce, Fisheries, Homemaking and so on.
- 4. In case the pupils are required in the third year to take 105 hours of Foreign Language, the standard number of Elective Subjects and Others is 175, and the total number of school hours is 1,190.





28. To What Standards Should Schools Conform ?- IV

U pper secondary schools provide general courses and specialized vocational courses. Vocational courses include agriculture, industry, business, fishing, music, fine arcs and others.

Upper secondary schools fall into one of three categories: those providing only the general secondary course; those of a comprehensive type, with both the general course and specialized vocational courses; and specialized vocational schools offering training in one or more areas. Curricula of the upper secondary schools are based on the course of study issued by the Ministry of Education.

Some subjects are required and some are elective.

Chart XXVI/I-A shows the areas, subjects and the standard number of credits to be provided in upper secondary schools, according to the course of study published by the Ministry of Education in 1960. The curricula of individual schools must be compiled so as to comply with these standards.

Local school curricula both for students in the general course and in the vocational courses must provide instruction in the following subjects. (A minimum of 85 credits is required for graduation from upper secondary schools.)

Required Subjects for All Students

Subjects which must be taken by all students regardless of course are as follows ("A" indicates a general keyel course in a subject, while "B" indicates an advances level course. "I", "II", "III" indicate the sequence of courses; "I" is a prerequisite to "II", "II" is a prerequisite to "III".):

	Area	Subject
1.	Japanese Language	"Modern Japanese" and "Classics A" or "Classics B-I"
2.	Social Studies	4 subjects including "Ethics · Civics" and "Political Science ·
		Economics"
3.	Mathematics	"Mathematics I"
4.	Science	2 subjects
5.	Health & Physical Education	"Health" and "Physical Education"
6.	Foreign Language	1 language

Required Subjects in the General Course

Numbers in parenthesis represent the substandard minimum number of credits authorized in special cases as exceptions to the standards shown in Chart XXVIII-A.

1.	Japanese Language	"Modern Japanese", and "Classics B-I" or "Classics A" (2)							
2.	Social Studies	"Ethics · Civics", "Political Science · Economics", "Japanese							
		History", "World History A" or "World History B" and							
		"Geography A" or "Geography B"							
3.	Mathematics	"Mathematics I" and "Mathematics II-A" (2) or "Mathemat							
		II-B"							
4.	Science	"Physics A" or "Physics B", "Chemistry A" or "Chemistry							
		B", "Biology" (3) and "Earth Science"							
5.	Health & Physical Education	"Physical Education" and "Health"							



6.	Fine Arts	One of the following: "Music I", "Fine Arts I", "Handicrafts
		I" or "Calligraphy I"
7.	Foreign Language	Any one foreign language (3)
8.	Domestic Arts (for Girls)	"General Homemaking" (2)

Required subjects in the Vocational Courses

1.	Japanese Language	"Modern Japanese" and "Classics A" or "Classics B-I"
2.	Social Studies	"Ethics · Civics", "Political Science · Economics", two or more subjects of "Japanese History", "World History A" or "World History B" and "Geography A" or "Geography B"
3.	Mathematics	"Mathematics I", "Mathematics II-A" (2) and "Mathematics
		II-B" or "Applied Mathematics" (3)
4.	Science	2 or more subjects from the following: "Physics A" or
		"Physics B", "Chemistry A" or "Chemistry B", "Biology" (3),
		"Earth Science"
5.	Health & Physical Education	"Physical Education" and "Health"
6.	Fine Arts	"Music I" (1), "Fine Arts I" (1), "Handicrafts I" (1), and "Calligraphy I" (1).
7.	Foreign Language	Any one language (3)
8.	Domestic Arts	"General Homemaking"
9.	Vocational Subjects	35 credits

In addition to the foregoing subject requirements, schools must provide for each grade not less than one school hour (50 minutes) per week of home-room activities as one of the special curricular activities.

Student activities, club activities and school events also must be provided an appropriate allocation of time,

It is recommended that all full-time first year students and all part time first and second year students in the general course of a local upper secondary school take a uniform prescribed curriculum. In subsequent years, the curriculum should provide various types of courses and pupils should be counseled to select courses in accordance with their individual interests, aptitudes and occupational plans.

Chart XXVIII-B shows two examples of subject combinations in the full-time general course compiled on the basis of the above principle.

Chart XXVIII-C shows examples of subject combinations in the full-time mechanical, business and agricultural vocational courses. The number of credits shown in this chart is the total to be taken in the three years of the upper secondary school program.

The "Course of Study for Upper secondary Schools" was revised in October, 1970. The new course of study is to be enforced from April, 1973.



Chart XXVIII SCHOOL STANDARDS -- 4

A. Artik, 1	califorts and Standard Hamber	d Cruits	-1	J. 51	mptus.			Course		
Areas	Sobjects	Standard Numbur of Credits		tion	al all-ra		s C)-	Lange Hat he and	nic adaca Lis on on, Soc motics, Foreign	rt in cist
	Modara Japanese		-1 -	1st Yr. 3	2 ml ¥r 2	_	Tr. Teta	4 1st Y	r. 2ml Yr. 2	. 1
Japanese Language	Classics A Classics B-1 Classics B-1 Classics B-1	2 5 3		2	3	1	12		3	
	Ethics-Civics Pulitical Science-Economics	2 2		 	2	2			2	
Social Studies	Japanese Histry World History A World History B Geography A	3 4 7		3	3	3	į 1 3		2	
	Geography B	4						4		-
	Mathematics 1 Mathematics 11-A	5 4		5	•			5		
Mathematics	Mathematics II-B Mathematics III Applied Mathematics	5 5 6		Ì	2	2	9		5	
	Physics A Physics B	3 5	-1		۹.	3	, 	1	3	
Science	Chemistry A Chemistry B Biology Earth Science	3 4 4 7		4	3		12	4	2	
Health & Physical Education	Health Physical Education	9(B.),7(G.) 2		4(B. 2(6.)) 1	2	11(B 9(£			
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Upper Secondary School Curricula

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29 What Standards the Established on Instructional Aids and Equipment in Schools?

Iffective teaching in primary and secondary schools of the Courses of Study prescribed by the Ministry of Education requires the use of many kinds of instructional aids and equipment.

The Ministry has established "Standards for Provision of Instructional Aids and Equipment", which define 2,223 items of instructional aids and equipment such as OHP and other audio-visual aids, maps, musical instruments, wood-working instruments, etc., to be furnished for subjects in compulsory schools excluding science and vocational subjects. On the basis of this standard the Ministry of Education established a "10-year Plan for Provision of Instructional Aids and Equipment to Compulsory Schools", which hegan from 1967 with a budget of 160 billion yen (This is a subsidy by the National Government for the expense of the Plan, which is a half of the necessary amount. The rest is to be paid by local governments). By the end of 1969, 48 per cent of the necessary instructional aids and equipment had been provided to primary schools and 44 per cent to lower secondary schools.

Standards for provision of instructional aids and equipment for science in primary and secondary schools are established by the Law for Promotion of Science Education. The meters, laboratory instruments, field observation tools, specimens and models are listed as necessary aids and equipment for science education. Half of the expense for their provision is also subsidized by the National Government. The percentage of the recommended instructional aids and equipment furnished in 1969 to primary schools was 53 per cent, 49 per cent to lower secondary schools and 43 per cent to upper secondary schools.

Standards for provision of instructional aids and equipment for experiments and practice in the vocational education course of secondary schools are established in the Law for the Promotion of Industrial Education. A part of the expenses for the provision is also subsidized by the National Government. Recently a data-processing course to provide students with knowledge and techniques for manipulation and use of computers was introduced into the vocational education course of upper secondary schools. A great effort has been made to furnish schools with instructional aids and equipment for this course.

Some instructional aids and equipment for mathematics such as electric desk calculators are also furnished.

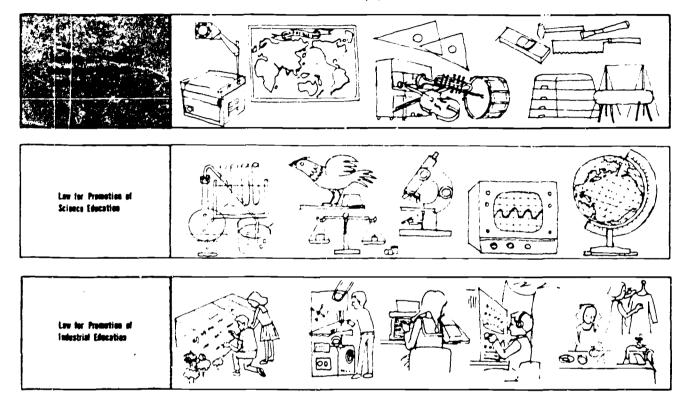
	Elementary School	Lower Secondary School	Upper Secondar School
Slide Projectors	91%	89%	94%
8mm Sound-Motion Picture Projectors	64	62	74
16mm Sound-Motion Picture Projectors	40	34	80
Over-Head Projectors	16	26	62
Tape Recorders	95	97	94
Television Sets	84	70	70
Radio Sets	80	58	

The percentage of schools furnished with typical instructional aids in 1969 is presented in the following table.

Recently new instructional aids and equipment such as language laboratories (LL), video-tape record.rs (VTR) and Response Analyzers are increasingly being furnished to schools, though they are not defined as necessary items in the above Standards. The use of computers in education-CAI (Computer-Assisted Instruction) and CMI (Computer-Managed Instruction)-is also being developed in some schools and universities.

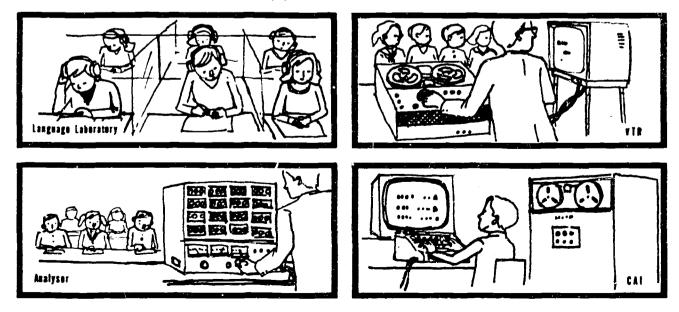


Chart XXIX SCHOOL STANDARDS -5



A. Laws and Standards for Provision of Instructional Aids and Equipment and the Main Items Cogered by Them

B. Introduction of New Instructional Aids and Equipment into Schools





30. What Are the Requirments for Graduation from Institutions of Higher Education?

C hart XXX illustrates courses and credit requirements for completion of technical colleges, junior colleges, universities and graduate schools prescribed by the Regulations of the Ministry of Education.

Courses generally are classified as general education, foreign language, health and physical education, and professional education. Students must acquire the prescribed number of credits in each group of subjects. In universities, for example, students must acquire 36 credits in general education, 8 credits in foreign language, 4 credits in health and physical education and 76 credits in professional education.

Credits are uniformly defined as follows; a lecture class of one hour a week, requiring two hours of student preparation, and of 15 weeks duration, yields one credit; a seminar class of two hours a week, requiring one hour of student preparation, and of 15 weeks duration, yields one credit; a laboratory class of three hours a week and of 15 weeks duration yields one credit.

Professional education differs in the various faculties of law, literature, economics, commerce, engineering, agriculture, science, medicine, education, etc. A faculty consists of several specialized departments and students generally concentrate their study in one field of specialization. Students in most faculties have a four year course. Students in the faculties of medicine and dentistry must complete 2 years of general education followed by 4 years of professional training. In professional training a prescribed course of study, must be completed. On completion of the requirements for graduation from the 4 year curriculum in faculties (a 6 year curriculum in the faculties of medicine and dentistry) the bachelor's degree is conferred. The great majority of university students gain the bachelor's degree after attending the university for the normal period. The average proportion of these students in 1967–69 for all entrants is 86 per cent.

The aim of graduate schools is to have students conduct advanced studies in the theoretical and applied sciences and arts. Graduate schools are divided into two courses: the master's course and the doctor's course. In the master's course, students study for 2 years or more after their graduation from university, and acquire the necessary number of credits for the master's degree. In the doctor's course, 5 or more years of study after graduation from the university, or 3 or more additional years beyond the master's degree are required. Before a student is eligible for a doctorate in medicine and dentistry, 4 years or more of study beyond the bachelor's degree are required. To obtain either of these advanced degrees a thesis written by the student must be approved by members of the faculty.

Other minimum standards for institutions of higher education, for example, the number and qualification of teachers, and the site, building and facilities are also prescribed by the Regulations of the Ministry of Education.





Chart XXX SCHOOL STANDARDS — 6

REQUIREMENTS FOR GRADUATION FROM INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Kind of lestitetion	Technical Celleges	Jenier (allages	Veivers	ities	Graduate	Schools
Longth of Coorse	5 years	2 years	3 years	4 years & awre	L years L more	2 years & more	5 years & more
General Edecation	(2) havers 2,905	credits 12	credits 18	(2) credits 38	(3 credits 36	, /	
/ Nemanities /	385	4	6			/	/
Natural Science	111	4	I				
Social Science	428	٤	8				
Foreign Languages	770			1	15	- /	
Physical Education	350	ž	3	4	4		
Professional Education	3,840	24	36	78	(4)	30	59
Additional Credits Required		24	36	_	I	-	
Tetal	8,545	62	83	124	84 (4)	38	58
Thesis	_		_	(5)		Required	Required
(2) 50 m (3) Alloc (4) 64 c without c	medicine and dentistry, ninutes. ation of 36 credits in redits in basic educatio credit allocation, must ible requirements, with	each field except n relating to medi be completed in th	medicine is determ cine must be comp	lined by the individual lieted in the first tw	it universities. o years. A presc	ribed course in me	dical education,



31 How Is School Education for Merking Gouth Conducted?

F and correspondence courses have been established at the upper secondary level, and evening and correspondence courses at the higher education level.

Chart XXXI illustrates the general process of school education intended for working youth.

The upper secondary part-time and correspondence courses last four years or more. Their curricula are composed in accordance with the Course of Study for Upper Secondary Schools issued by the Ninistry of Education.

Students in the correspondence courses must take institutional schooling for 20 days a year. The correspondence school may substitute broadcasting programs by radio or television for a part of this schooling.

In 1962, to lighten the burden of study of working students, the Ministry of Education introduced a system which promoted cooperation between established schools and the training institutions of enterprises. The training given to part-time or correspondence students of an upper secondary school in those enterprise-based institutions for technical education approved by the Minister of Education is regarded as part of the course work of curriculum in upper secondary education.

In case of evening and correspondence courses in junior colleges and universities, the school years and other requirements for graduation are in principle equal to those of full-time and resident students. The period of schooling required for students in higher educational correspondence courses is 36 days or more per year.

The evening and correspondence courses of universities lead to the bachelor's degree, and may lead to the teacher's certificate.

The total number of schools offering part-time, evening and correspondence courses and of students enrolled in these courses is as follows.

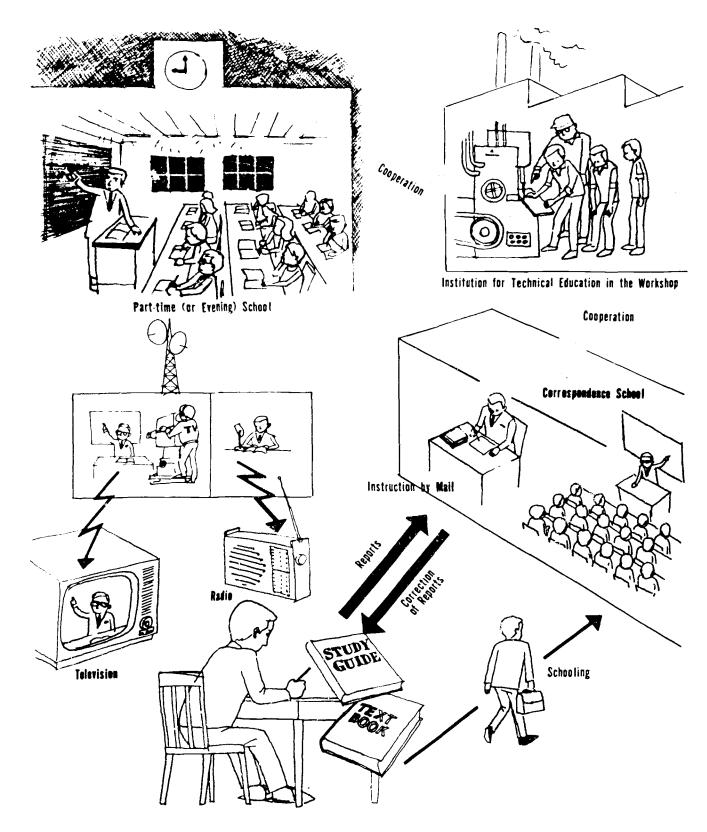
As of May 1, 1969

School Level	Par Even	Correspondence Course		
	Number of Schools	Enrollments	Number of Schools	Enrollments
Ipper Secondary School	1,900	404,567	81	151,532
lunior College	107	3€.200	7	32,567
University	60	135,101	11	95,026

Data from: Report on Basic School Statistics, 1969, Ministry of Education.



Chart XXXI SCHOOL EDUCATION SYSTEM FOR WORKING YOUTH





32 How the the School Terms and Vacations Schuduled?

C hart XXXII shows the kinds of annual events observed in elementary and lower secondary schools. Unlike Europe or America, the Japanese school year begins on April 1 and ends on March 31 of the following year. This system, applied uniformly from elementary schools through universities corresponds with the fiscal year system employed by the national government, prefectures and municipalities.

Elementary and lower secondary schools observe a three-term school year: from April to July, September to December, and January to March. Most universities have two terms, while upper secondary schools adopt either a two or three term school year.

Vacations are usually granted in summer, winter, and spring. The beginning and terminal dates of the vacations vary by area, mainly according to climate. These are decided in the case of public elementary, lower secondary and upper secondary schools, by the municipal or prefectural boards of education, and in the case of private schools, technical colleges, junior colleges and universities, by each institution. Vacations must be arranged so that schools are in session for the minimum number of school days and hours per year prescribed by the Ministry of Education.

Schools (especially urban) often organize seaside or forest summer schools to give the pupils a healthy environment during vacation months.

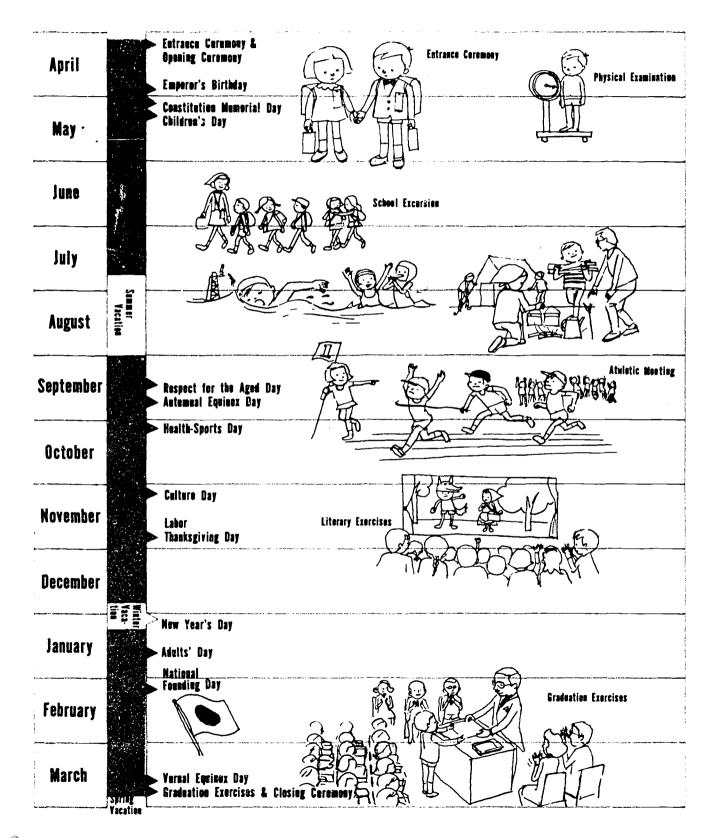
The public schools close on Sundays and the following legal holidays: New Year's Day (January 1), Adults' Day (January 15), National Founding Day (February 11), Vernal Equionox Day (about March 21), Emperor's Birthday (April 29), Constitution Memorial Day (May 3), Children's Day (May 5), Respect for the Aged Day (September 15), Autumnal Equinox Day (about September 23), Health-Sports Day (October 10), Culture Day (November 3), and Labor Thanksgiving Day (November 23).



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Chart XXXII SCHOOL CALENDAR





33. What Measures Are Juken to Enforce Compulsory School Attendance?

The constitution requires that opportunities for compulsory education be offered equally to every compulsory school age child throughout the country. It is the duty of parents to let children receive compulsory education. The compulsory term of school attendance is 9 years under the provision of the Fundamental Law of Education. The School Education Law provides that municipalities must establish elementary and lower secondary schools for compulsory school age children (6-15), and that prefectures must establish special schools of elementary and lower secondary level for blind and deaf children living in the prefecture.

Almost 100 per cent of the normal children are attending elementary and lower secondary schools. The number of long absentees—absent for 50 days or more in a year—in elementary and lower secondary schools was 64,000 (0.5% of all pupils) in 1969. The following table presents the percentage distribution of long absentees by reason.

Deaf or blind children receive compulsory education in elementary and lower secondary departments of special schools for the blind and deaf. Handicapped children other than the blind and deaf may be permitted postponement of school entrance or entirely exempted from compulsory school attendance according to the extent of their handicap. There are 75 blind schools, 107 deaf schools and 224 schoo's for the other handicapped children. Some of them have branch schools in hospitals. Children who have mental or other relatively slight handicaps usually attend normal elementary and lower secondary schools, 29% of which had special classes for them as of May, 1969. Only 0.14 per cent of the total number of children of compulsory school age are permitted postponement of, or exemption from school attendance.

While the blind, deaf and other handicapped children are picked out by physical examinations before school entrance, decisions on the admission of such pupils also are based on requests of parents.

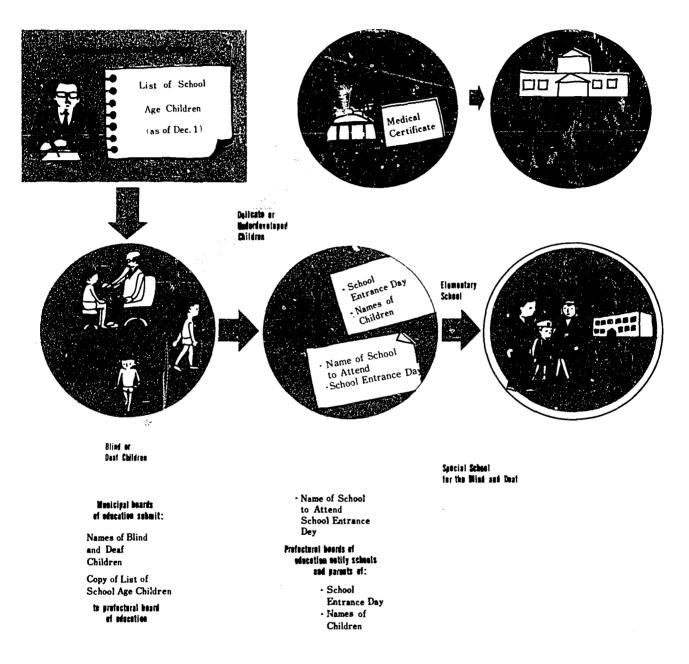
Chart XXXIII shows the procedures involved in compulsory school attendance. The children who entered national and private elementary schools are only 1% of all elementary school entrants in 1969.

		ge Distribution of Long Lower Secondary Scho		i
Total	Disease	E conomic Reasons	Dislike of School	Others
100.0	64.8	4.4	19.7	11.1

Data from: Report on Basic School Statistics, 1969, *Ministry of Education*. Educational Standards in Japan, 1969, *Ministry of Education*.



Chart XXXIII ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOL ATTENDANCE



- Note: 1. The above picture illustrates the procedures for admission to public schools which are maintained by municipal boards of education. In case of admession to national or private school at compulsory level, after undergoing the physical examination, parents apply to the establisher of the school for admission. And if their children are admitted, parents must report the name of the school their children will attend to the municipal board of education.
 - 2. School attendance procedures for the children who are not permitted postponement of or exemption from compulsory school attendance are the same as those for normal children.



34. What Procedures Do Upper Secondary Schools Use to Select Pupils?

hart XXXIV describes the procedures for entrance to public upper secondary schools. Those who have graduated from a lower secondary school or an equivalent school, or those who have been recognized to be equal or superior to these graduates in scholastic attainments according to criteria set by the Ministry of Education can be admitted into the upper secondary school.

In accordance with the provisions of the Enforcement Regulation for the School Education Law each board of education which maintains public upper secondary schools sets regulations and standards prescribing the procedures by which the schools under its jurisdiction accept pupils.

The principal of an upper secondary school chooses the entrants to his school by a process of selection based on materials such as reports from the principals of lower secondary schools, achievement test grades, and others. The achievement tests for access to public upper secondary schools are administered by boards of education to measure the scholastic attainments of lower secondary pupils. The general content of the report is outlined in Chart XXXIV.

Most prefectural boards of education employ the attendance district system, which divides a prefecture into several attendance areas; lower secondary school pupils can apply only to upper secondary schools (vocational schools are often excepted) in a designated district. This system has been thought necessary to avoid concentration of applicants to special schools.

The technical colleges and private and national upper secondary schools select new students from among those who are eligible for entrance to public upper secondary schools. However, private and public technical colleges, and private and most national upper secondary schools conduct their own achievement tests. All national technical colleges and three national (vocational) upper secondary schools cooperate in using a common achievement test.

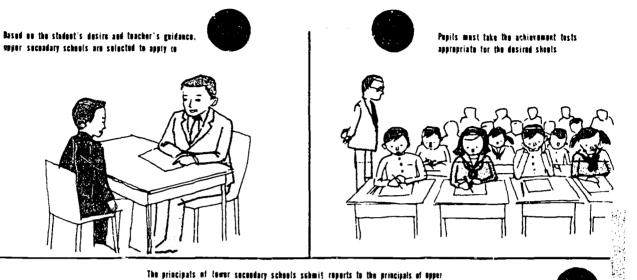
The percentages of lower secondary school graduates of March 1969 who entered upper secondary schools and technical colleges in April 1969 are shown in the following tabulation.

Male	81.7%
Female	80.0
Average	80.9
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·

Data from: Report on Basic School Statistics, 1969, Ministry of Education.



Chart XXXIV PROCEDURES FOR OBTAINING ADMISSION TO UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL



socoodary schools which the popils have applied to

Records of Study

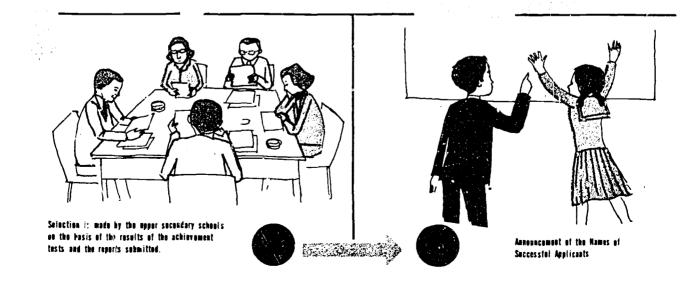
Records of Health

General Comments on Personality

Attendance Records

Records of Intelligence Tests Reports of Special Activities

Reports of Other Information





35. What Procedures Do Universities and Junier Colleges Use to Select Students?

r hart XXXV Sketches the usual admission procedures of universities and junior colleges.

Selection for applicants to these institutions is made by each institution conforming to the standards of the Ministry of Education. Institutions base admissions primarily on the results of the entrance examination they administer, and reports from upper secondary school principals. Most institutions lay greater emphasis on their entrance examination.

To be admitted to these institutions, one must graduate from an upper secondary school or complete twelve years of school education, or be recognized to be equal or superior to those who have done so in scholastic attainments as judged by criteria stated in a ministerial regulation.

A large number of applicants concentrate on trying to gain entrance to famous universities every year; due to the competition many upper secondary school graduates fail in their first attempt to gain admission to their favorite university and do not go directly to a higher educational institution. The percentage of entrants in 1969 who had spent one or more years preparing before they succeeded in entrance examinations to universities was 38.5% and 12.6% in junior colleges.

Because the student selection system employed by the universities affects the whole of education in Japan, the Ministry of Education, universities and others in the educational world are thinking of ways to improve the system.

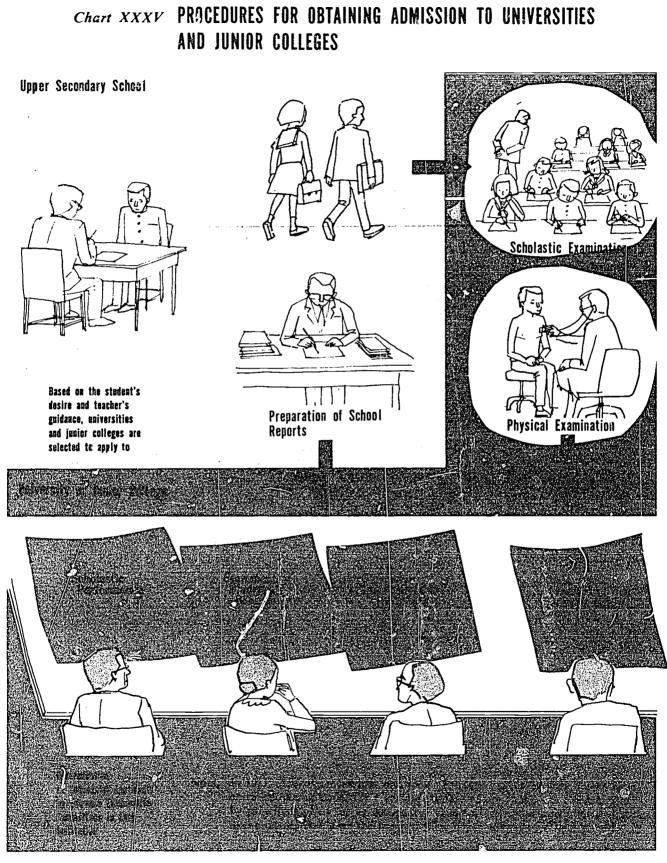
The percentages of full-time and part-time upper secondary school graduates of March 1969 who entered universities or junior colleges in April of the same year were as follows.

	Total	Fu'l-time	Part-time
Male	23.7	25.3	6.2
Female	21.5	22.6	4.8
Average	22.7	24.0	5.7

The percentage of the same age group who entered universities or junior colleges in 1969 was 21.4%.

Data from: Report on Basic School Statistics, 1969, Ministry of Education.







36. What Is the Status of School Teachers?

C hart XXXVI presents some aspects of the status of public and private elementary and secondary school teachers.

Recent trends are more female teachers in elementary school and higher qualifications and longer years of experience for all levels of school teachers.

Table (D) shows the average salaries including various allowances and bonuses.

The higher average salary of elementary school teachers compared with that of lower secondary school teachers is due to longer years of experience.

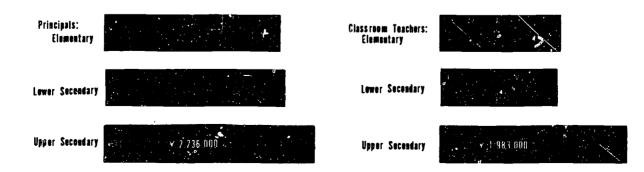
Teachers employed by the national government are designated by law as national public officials, and those employed by prefectural and municipal authorities are local public officials.

Ninety-nine per cent of elementary, 95 per cent of lower secondary and 76 per cent of upper secondary school teachers are employed in national or local public schools. National public officials are governed by the National Public Service Law and local public officials by the Local Public Service Law. Public school teachers are subject to these laws, but since their status is distinct from that of other public officials, they are more specifically regulated by the Law for Special Regulation Concerning Educational Personnel.

79

	Elementary Te	achers	Løwer Se	condary Teachers	Upper So	ecendary Teachers
Male Female 10% 10% (A) Percentage of Teachers by Sex	Ý Ý Ý Ý Ý Ý 49.1%	Å Å Å Å 50.9%		5% 26.5%	* * * * * * * * *	₿ 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
(B) Percentage of Tuachers by Level of Preparation						
Bechelor's Dagree	.	(24.1%)	* * * *	I (52.9 %)	****	
Twe Years kayond Upper Secondary Scheel	*****	(59.8%)	††††	(43.4%)	4	(1.3%
Upper Secondary Schoul	¥ Ý	(16.1%)	1	(3.1%)	1	(1.5%
(C) Percentage of Teachers by Years of Experience					+	
Vader 5	÷	(14.3%)	ŧ ŧ	(15.4%)	İİİİ	(22.1%)
5 9	Ŷ	(9.9%)	ÝÝ	(19.5%)	Ý Ý	(19.3%)
10 14	ů ((13.6%)	İ İ	(18.7%)	Ŷİ	(15.6%)
15 19	Ů	(22.0%)	* * {	(21.8%)	ΫÝ	(20.6%)
20 and over	.	(40.2%)	.	(24.5%)		(21.8%)

(D) Average Annual Salary of Public School Teachers





Certification requirements vary with school level. Teacher certificates for kindergartens and elementary schools are for all subjects; those for lower and upper secondary schools are for specified subject areas.

37. How Can Teacher Certificates Be Obtained?

Teacher certificates are classified as regular and emergency. The former are subdivided into first and second class certificates. Persons who hold regular certificates are qualified for full teaching duties but those who have emergency certificates can be only assistant teachers. There is no great economic or legal distinction between teachers holding first and second class certificates.

Teacher certificates for public and private schools are granted by prefectural boards of education. Regular certificates are valid in all prefectures and for life, while emergency certificates are honored for three years only, and only in the prefectures issuing them.

The provisions of the Educational Personnel Certification Law and other statutes concerned require those studying for regular certificates to obtain college or university credits in courses approved by the Minister of Education.

In order to obtain a teacher certificate, the student must acquire the prescribed number of credits in each subject group: general education subjects, teaching subjects and professional subjects.

For certificates for teaching in lower and upper secondary schools, the necessary number of credits in teaching subjects varies with the subject area. The necessary number of credits for obtaining teacher certificates in social studies, science, homemaking and vocational education is more than that needed for obtaining teacher certificates in other subject areas.

Emergency certificates for kindergarten, elementary and lower secondary teachers are granted to upper secondary school graduates (or the equivalent) who have passed educational personnel examinations conducted under prefectural auspices.

Second class certificates for kindergarten, elementary and lower secondary teachers and emergency certificates for upper secondary teachers are granted to junior college graduates (or the equivalent).

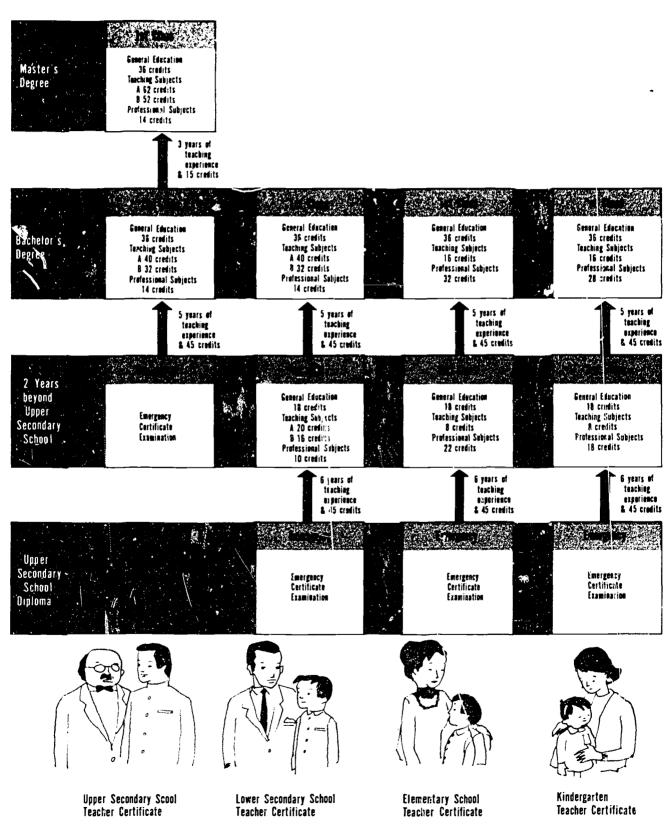
First class certificates for kindergarten, elementary and lower secondary teachers and second class certificates for upper secondary teachers are granted to university graduates (or the equivalent). First class certificates for upper secondary schools are granted to Master degree holders and those who have studied for one year and acquired 30 credits in a graduate school. The required number of credits is shown in the frames of Chart XXXVII.

Teachers seeking higher class certificates must earn additional credits and must have served for the prescribed number of years with good records as school teachers. The required credits may be acquired through in-service training (e.g., correspondence and other off-campus courses approved by the Minister of Education), or by attending regular university courses.





TYPES OF TEACHER CERTIFICATES AND QUALIFICATIONS THEREFOR





38 How She Jublic School Juckers Appointed?

The National School Establishment Law prescribes the fixed number of teachers appointable to national schools. The fixed number of teachers in prefectures and municipal schools is determined by each board of education, as a rule. But in the case of municipal elementary, lower secondary, special and part-time upper secondary schools, prefectural boards of education fix the number of teachers based on the recommendations of municipal boards of education. Teachers in all prefectural schools and in all municipal schools except kindergartens and full-time upper secondary schools are appointed by prefectural boards of education.

The criterion of qualification is a teacher certificate. Certain ex-convicts, persons adjudged to be incompetent and members of organizations engaging in subversive activities are prohibited from serving as teachers. Procedures for appointment for teachers in prefectural and municipal elementary and lower secondary schools are explained in Chart XXXVIII.

Prefectural boards of education appoint teachers of prefectural schools on the basis of the recommendation of the prefectural superintendent of education. The superintendent makes his recommendation after an appointment examination. He also takes into consideration the opinion of the principal of the school to which a new teacher is to be appointed.

In case of the appointment of municipal school teachers, the prefectural superintendent of education selects teacher applicants on the basis of the results of an appointment examination and the recommendation of the municipal board of education, which has been made with due regard to the opinion of the principal of the school to which a new teacher is to be appointed.

The appointment examination is in general given in both teaching subjects and professional subjects.

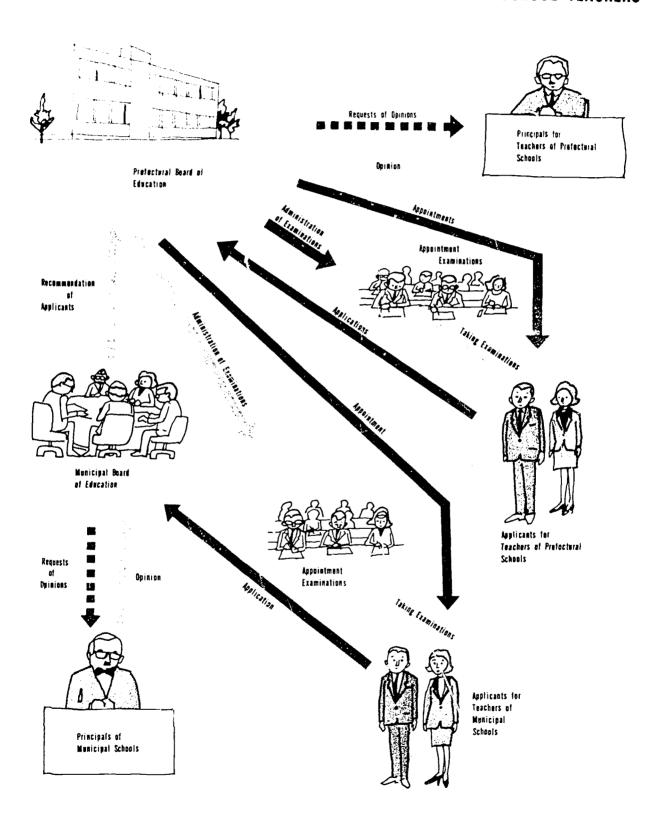
Teachers in Japan are employed on permanent tenure, after a probationary period of six months. Though teachers shift from one school to another within a prefecture quite frequently, their average tenure as teachers is rather long.

Provisions in public service laws for dismissal or demotion of permanent public officials apply also to teachers. They state that no public employee shall be dismissed expect for one or more of the following causes: (1) evident unfitness for service; (2) physical and mental conditions preventing efficient execution of duties; (3) incompetence; or (4) abolition of his position.



82

PROCEDURES FOR APPOINTMENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHERS





39. What Salaries Are Sublic School Teachers Said?

s previously stated, national school personnel are designated as national public officials, and prefectural and municipal school personnel as local public officials. Salary scales and the kinds and the amounts of allowances for national school personnel are fixed by the Law Concerning Compensation of Employees in the Regular Governmental Service; those of prefectural and municipal school personnel are determined by the bylaws of the local public bodies by which they are employed. Salary scales prescribed by prefectural and municipal bylaws are based on the national salary scale for teachers. Consequently the salaries for teachers in different local public body are very similar.

Chart XXXIX shows the types and amounts of salaries of national school teachers. Some of the items which are shown in italics do not apply to national school teachers; they were included to illustrate typical allowances usually applied to public elementary and lower secondary school teachers.

There are four salary scales for national school person...cl: one for university and junior college personnal, one for technical college personnel, one for upper secondary personnel, and one for lower secondary, elementary and kindergarten personnel. Salary levels are determined principally on the base of level of preparation and length of experience, without regard to the class of the teacher certificate.

In the scale for universities and junior colleges (Table 1) the first grade applies to professors (excluding presidents), the second grade to assistant professors, the third grade to lecturers, the fourth grade to assistants and the fifth grade to other instructional staff. In the scale for upper secondary schools (Table 3), and the scale for lower secondary and elementary schools, the first grade applies to principals, the second grade to teachers and the third grade to assistant teachers

Public school teachers are authorized an annual leave of absence with full pay. The standard number of days of such leave is 30. A two-year sick leave at full pay is granted for teachers suffering from tuberculosis. For other illnesses, teachers may receive full salary for 90 days, and after that, 50 per cent of the regular salary. Paid maternity leave of twelve weeks is also granted.

Chart XXXIX SALARIES AND ALLOWANCES OF PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHERS

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40 How Is Teacher Welfare Secured?

The main organs for teacher welfare are the Public School Mutual Aid Association and the Private School Personnel Mutual Aid Association which are organized to secure the general welfare of public school personnel and private school personnel respectively.

The organization and functions of the Public School Mutual Aid Association are shown in Chart XL-A. Its members numbered 889,880 in 1970, and included all public school personnel, superintendents, and the secretarial staff of prefectural boards of education. Benefits and welfare services received by members are listed at the right part of the chart. Among these, the most important is the retirement annuity, one of the long-term benefits, which replaced the former pension system on December 1, 1962 in accordance with the Local Public Service Mutual Aid Association Law.

A teacher in public elementary or secondary schools who has served 20 years or more can receive the retirement annuity when he retires. The full amount of the annuity is payable on the attainment of 55 years of age. The sum of the annuity he receives will be 40 per cent of his average annual salary for the last 3 years of service if he has served 20 years. If he served more than 20 years, the sum of the annuity he receives will be 40 per cent of the avera, of his annual salaries for the last 3 years of service plus 1.5 per cent of "the last salary" for each year in excess of 20 years, until the amount rises to 70 per cent of average of his annual salaries for the last three years of service.

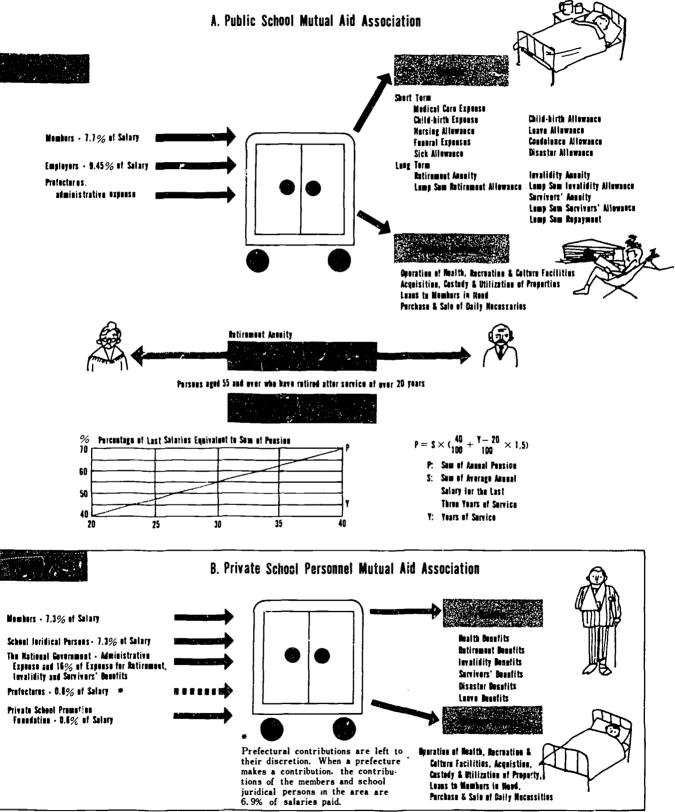
Chart XL-B shows the organization and functions of the Private School Personnel Mutual Aid Association. Personnel serving in private schools are generally members of the Association; and teachers in such schools receive benefits comparable to those received by public school teachers. Its membership numbered 195,775 in 1970.

Teachers in national schools belong to the National Public Service Association, the retirement annuity of which is quite similar to that of the Public School Mutual Aid Association.



Chart XL

WELFARE PROVISIONS FOR TEACHERS



ERIC[®]

41. How Is the In Service Training of Teachers Conducted ?

The Ministry of Education, prefectural boards of education, and national and prefectural educational research centers provide opportunities for systematic in-service training for public school teachers, principals and teacher consultants. Some of the larger municipalities and professional associations also hold workshops and study meetings for in-service training. The Ministry of Education holds workshops for inservice training for those principals and vice-principals who are recommended by prefectural boards of education. Central workshops for teachers in charge of middle management (e.g. heads of teachers' groups teaching the same grade or the same subject in a school) are also held by the Ministry of Education. The contents of study usually includes school administration, curriculum organization and supervisory methods. Prefectural boards of education hold workshops of shorter duration for principals. Generally, training is provided through lectures, but recently smaller group study meetings adopting the methods of case-studies and discussions and studying problems in depth have become more common. In-service training for vice-principals uses similar methods.

Recently, several prefectural boards of education have been giving serious attention to in-service training tor the teachers in charge of middle management.

In-service training for new teachers is usually provided by the supervisory staff of prefectural boards of education. The Ministry of Education subsidizes the training projects. The responsibility for in-service training, however, is shifting gradually from the supervisory staff of boards of education to the staff of education centers.

Universities, professional associations and educational study groups which are voluntarily organized by school teachers also hold workshops and study-meetings.

Hundreds of principals, vice-principals and teachers are sent to study abroad by the Ministry of Education and some prefectural boards of education.

In-service training in Japan is designed to promote the teachers' professional abilities. Participation in in-service training is not normally rewarded with salary increments.

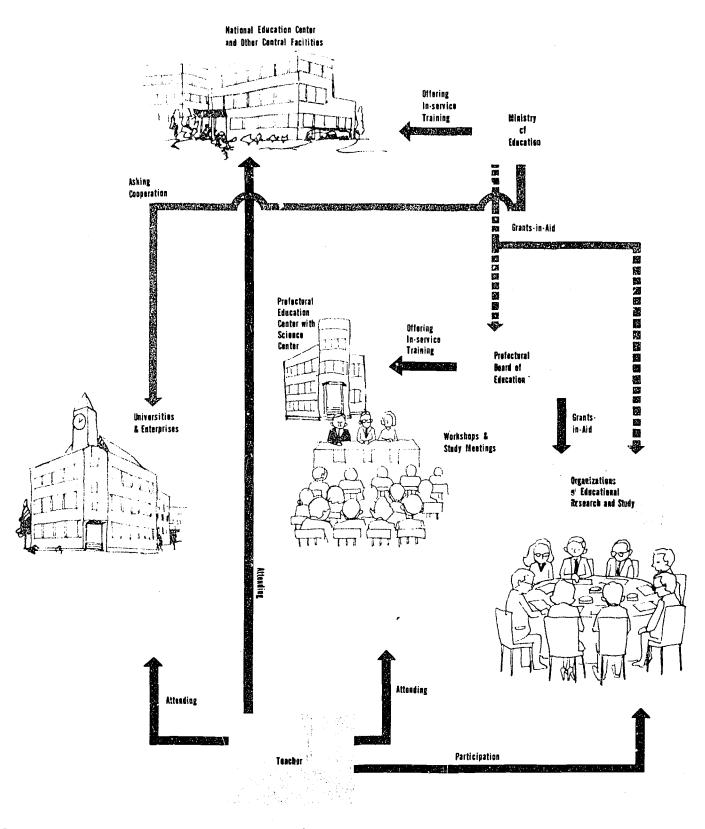


Chart XLI IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

What Organizations have been Formed by 42 Educational Personnel?

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P is main organizations for the maintenance and improvement of teacher's working conditions are the following five organizations.

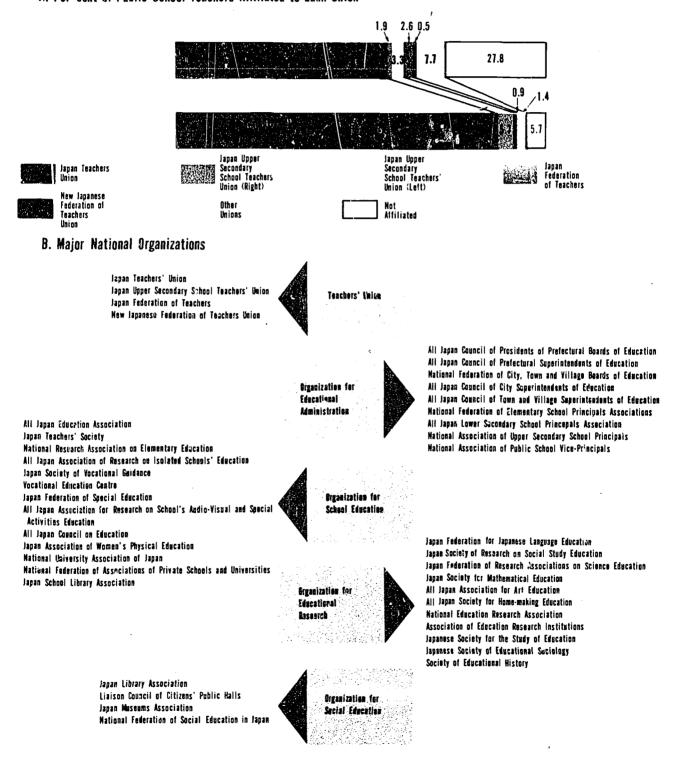
Japan Teachers' Union (Number of membership, 505 thousands, the rate of membership to all teachers, 56.2% as of June 1970); The Japan Upper Secondary Teachers' Union (there are two sects: the right one, number of membership, 17 thousands, the rate of membership, 1.9%; the left one, number of membership, 29 thousands, the rate of numbership, 3.3%): Japan Federation of Teachers (number of membership, 87 thousands, the rate of membership, 9.7%): New Japanese Federation of Teachers Union (number of membership, 4 thousands, the rate of membership, 0.5%).

These organizations have the right to negotiate concerning the working conditions of teachers with local public authorities (principally prefectural and municipal boards of education) subject to the regulations of the Local Public Service Law. Consequently, the Ministry of Education, the central authority of education, has legally no power to negotiate with these organizations. The negotiations of these organizations with the local public authorities lead to written agreements, but collective bargaining is prohibited by law. While the organizations' main purposes are, as mentioned above, to improve working conditions, the Japan Teachers' Union and the left sect of the Japan Upper Secondary School Teachers' Union conduct campaigns for specific political purposes, often leading to strikes which are prohibited by the law.

Administrative staff, e.g. principals, do not join these organizations but have their own organizations.

There are other organizations which promote the professional abilities of teachers (e.g. Japan Society for Mathematical Education, All Japan Society for Homemaking Education. Japan Federation of Special Education, etc.) and their number amounts to about a thousand. Many teachers join one or more of these organizations and their activities are very fruitful. The Ministry of Education subsidizes some of these organizations.

Chart XLII ORGANIZATIONS OF EDUCATIONAL PERSONNEL



A. Per Cent of Public School Teachers Affiliated to Each Union



43. How Are Kealth Services Organized?

There has been great progress in health administration in Japanese schools since World War II. School health and medical services include health consultation, tuberculin tests, BCG vaccinations, chest X-rays and dental hygiene examinations. Of these, the chest X-ray examination has become quite popular in recent years. Ninety-three per cent of pupils in elementary schools and 98 per cent in lower secondary schools were examined in 1968. The percentage distribution of public elementary and lower secondary schools which have school doctors, dentists, pharmacists and nurses either on a full-time or part-time basis in 1969 is as follows:

	Elementary	Lower Secondary
Doctor	98.9%	98.8%
Dentist	96.6	96.2
Pharmacist ·	83.3	82.7
Nurse	40.0	38.8

Such activities and services of school health administration, with the improvement of the national economic situation after the war, effected a recovery from the lowered physical standards of school children during the war and moreover resulted in higher standards than those before the war.

Chart XLIII presents average height, weight and chest girth of pupils aged 11 and 17, from 1950 to 1968.

The following figures are those of boys and girls in grade six and twelve in 1969.

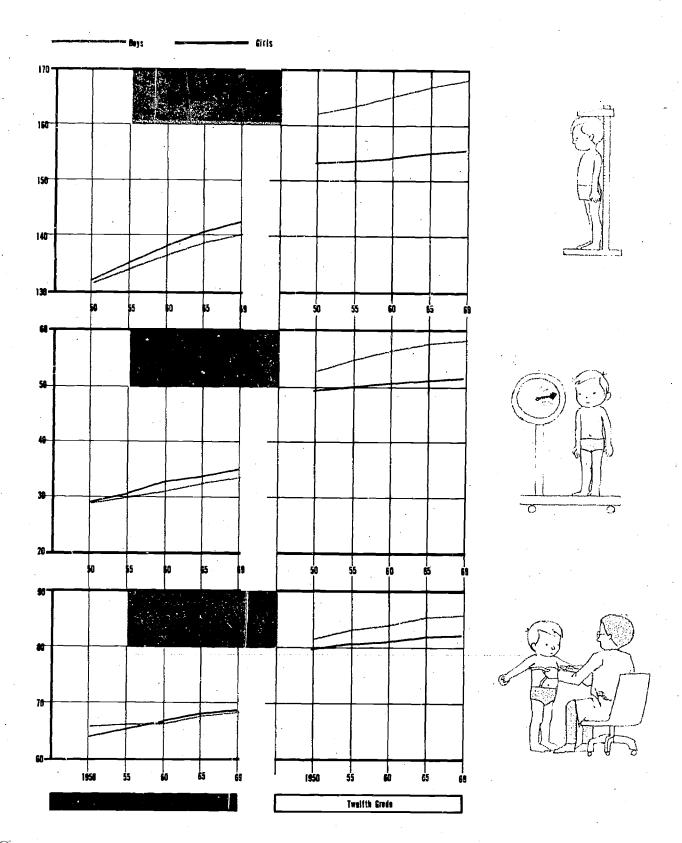
Grade		Height	Weight	Chest Girth
Six	Boys	140.0 cm	33.6 kg	68.0 cm
	Girts	142.1	35.2	68.5
T	Boys	167.6	58.1	85.6
Twelve	Girls	155.4	51.8	81.7

Average Measurement of Sixth and Twelfth Grade Pupils, 1969

Data from: Report on School Health Statistics, 1969, Ministry of Education.



Chart XLIII AVERAGE PHYSICAL MEASUREMENTS OF SIXTH AND TWELFTH GRADE PUPILS



*9*3

More school lunch program is operated mainly in elementary and lower secondary schools but also in $oldsymbol{1}$ kindergarten and upper secondary departments of special schools. The purposes of the school lunch program include the development of a better understanding of nutrition, improvement of food habits and practices, and promotion of children's health.

44. How Is the School Lunch Frogram Conducted ?

The School Lunch Law was enacted o., June 3, 1954, providing national subsidies for standard kitchen equipment for the school lunch program in elementary schools. By the amendment of March 1956, the law was broadened to include lower secondary schools.

The Law Concerning School Lunch Programs in the Evening Courses of Upper Secondary Schools also provides national subsidies to the evening courses of upper secondary schools which operate school lunch programs.

The school lunch programs are of three general types: the first is a full meal program providing a meal with milk, bread, and some other dishes; the second is a supplemental meal; the third is a milk snack. In 1970, 98.1 per cent of all pupils in elementary schools, 83.9 per cent of all pupils in lower secondary schools and 87.9 per cent of all pupils in the evening courses of upper secondary schools are provided with school lunch programs of some kind.

Chart XLIV-D presents the basic scheme of financial and administrative organization for major items of the school lunch program.

The provision of a school lunch program is up to the discretion of the local governmental unit which is responsible for operating the school. Expenditures for necessary equipment and for the administration of the program are paid by such units, with some subsidies from the national treasury. Costs of food are paid in the main by parents. However, the national treasury supports a part of such expenses. Thus, the national government pays one yen per 100 grams of flour, 4.60 yen per 100 grams of powdered milk and 5.80 yen per 200 cc of raw milk to be used in the programs.

Amounts paid by parents for school lunches vary. The lowest cost for the full meal program is around 895 yen (\$2.50) a month; and the highest cost is around 1,690 yen (\$4.70) a month.

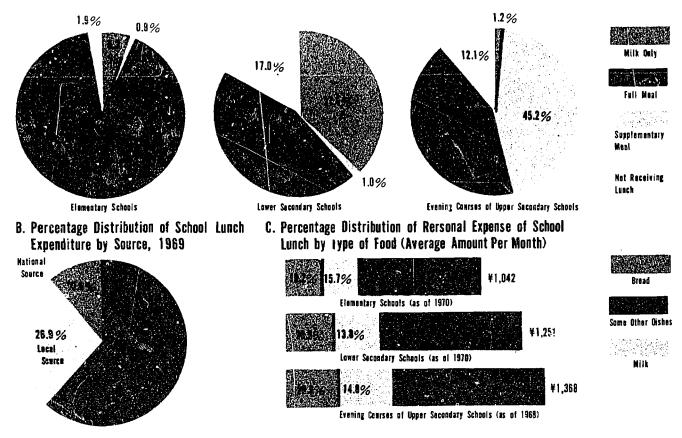
The Japan School Lunch Corporation was established in August 1955 with the purpose of procuring bulk materials for use in local school lunch programs under the supervision of the Ministry of Education.

The Ministry of Education has established minimum standards for school lunch facilities and the bill of fare of school lunches should be in accordance with the standards of calorie and food composition established by the Ministry of Education.

Data from: Report on School Lunch Program, 1970, Ministry of Education.

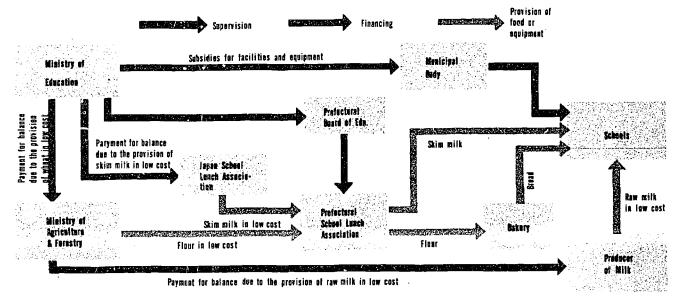


Chart XLIV SCHOOL LUNCH PROGRAM



A. Percentage Distribution of Pupils Receiving School Lunch by Type of Meal Served, 1970

D. Financial and Administrative Organization of School Lunch Program



95

45. What Measures Are Taken to Promote School Sufety Programs ?

s a result of the rapid increase in the numbers of pupils who have been victims of serious accidents on their way to and from school or within school sites, it is increasingly recognized that some measures to promote school safety programs should be taken.

The Japan School Safety Association was established in 1960 under the Japan School Safety Association Law. This Association is a non-profit organization supervised and supported by the Ministry of Education. It is intended to spread and promote school safety programs, and to pay necessary benefits for pupils who have suffered injury, disease, disability or death. The Association pays benefits only when a pupil has suffered from an accident while under the control of school authorities.

Chart XLV illustrates the benefits paid by the Association, as well as its finance and the proportion of member pupils.

The number of accidents and the amounts of benefits paid during 1969 are shown below.

Injury	& Disease	Disa	ability	D	eath	-	Fotal
Number	Amount	Number	Amount	Number	Amount	Number	Amount
675,295	¥1,691,897,000	329	¥14,520,000	221	¥57,300,000	675,845	¥1,763,717,000

The association pays one half of the total amount of medical expense incurred for a pupil for the treatment of his injury or disease.

Since the other half of medical cost of a pupil is covered by social insurance programs, parents need not pay any medical expense for the injury or disease of their children in case such injury or disease has occurred while their children were under the control of the school.

As is shown in Chart XLV-B, practically all pupils in public and private elementary and lower secondary schools are members of the Japan School Safety Association.

As is shown in Chart XLV-C, about 87.2 per cent of the total expenditures of the Association are derived from members' contribution and the remaining are subsidized by the national government.

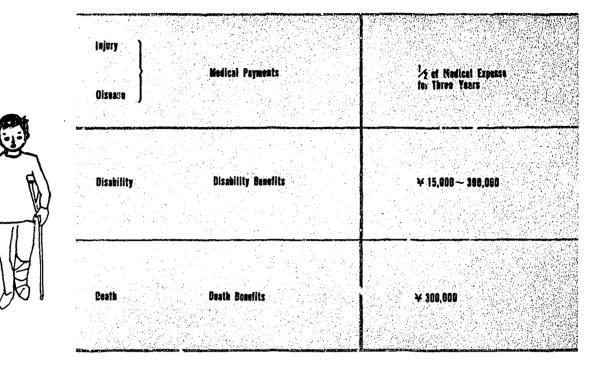
A part of the contribution of the elementary or lower secondary school pupil is paid by the establisher of the school (mainly, the municipal government). The proportion of the establisher's share varies from 40 per cent to 60 per cent. The entire contribution for pupils enrolled in kindergartens, upper secondary schools and technical colleges is borne by the parents.

The contribution for needy pupils in kindergarten, elementary school, or lower secondary school (6 yen per pupil) is paid jointly by the national government and the establisher of the school.





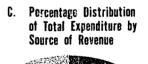
Chart XLV ACTIVITIES OF THE JAPAN SCHOO! SAFETY ASSOCIATION

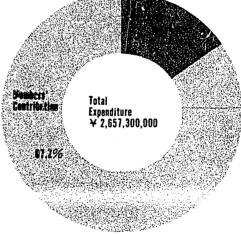


A. Kinds and Amounts of Benefits to be Paid

B.	Percentag	e	of Pupils	s who	are
	Members	of	JSSA		

Kindergarten	79.9%
Elementary Schools	99.1 <i>%</i>
Lower Secondary Scheols	98.8%
Upper Secondary Schools	84.9%
Technical Coll eges	96.1 <i>%</i>







46. How Much Do Parents and Students Spend for Education ?

Chart XLVI shows the actual per pupil costs paid by parents and the percentage distribution of such amounts according to purpose for public elementary and secondary education, based on a yearly survey conducted in 1968.

It is a basic legal principle that educational expenditures especially for compulsory education (elementary and lower secondary schools), are to be provided by the national government and local public bodies and that such education shall be furnished free to the pupils. However, parents actually pay a considerable amount for their children to attend the public schools. The following tabulation shows total per pupil costs of educational expenditures in 1968 expended from public funds for public elementary and secondary schools, and the amounts and percentages of the total paid by parents. About one-fifth of total expenditures for public elementary schools and one-fourth of total expenditures for lower secondary schools was paid by parents.

Total Educational Expenditures per Pupil and Costs per Pupil
Paid by Parents in Public Elementary and Secondary Schools, 1968

	Total	Expended by Parents	Expended from Public Funds	Percentages of Total Expenditures Expended by Parents
Elementary Schools	¥81,503	¥20,455	¥61,048	20.1%
Lower Secondary Schools	85,462	27,520	57,942	24.4
Full-time Upper Secondary Schools	94,539	55,834	38,705	37.1

While instruction is presumably free in public elementary and lower secondary schools, tuition fees are charged to students in public upper secondary schools in accordance with pertinent regulations. Tuition fees charged in national schools are uniform throughout the country, but those charged in prefectural and municipal public schools are determined by the local authorities and are not uniform. The amount of tuition charged in private schools varies greatly. The annual tuition charged in full-time upper secondary schools as of 1969 school year was as follows:

National	¥ 4,800	(\$13.33)
Local Public	7,200-12,000	(\$20-33.3)
Private	18,000-102,000	(\$50.00283.33)

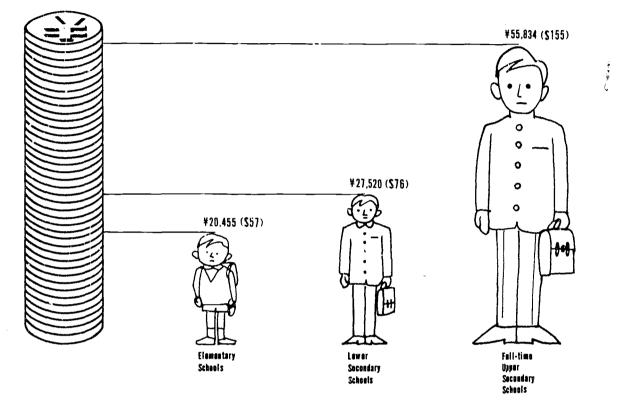
Data from: Education Expenditures Paid by Parents, 1968, Ministry of Education.



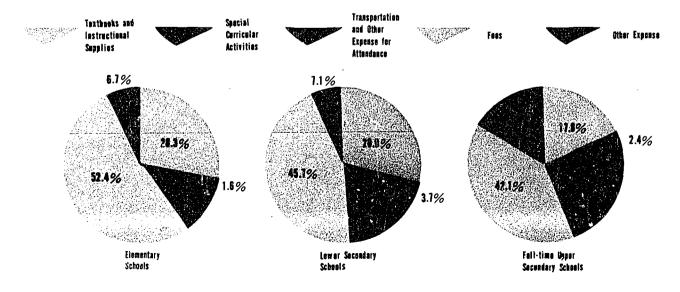
Chart XLVI

AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

A. Average Annual Student Expense in Public Schools, 1968



B. Student Expense by Purpose, 1968





99

47. How Much Do Students Spend for Higher Education ?

Chart XLVII-A shows annual fees and other expenses for instruction per university (full-time, undergraduate course) student. Tuition and other fees charged in national universities are uniform throughout the country, but those charged in prefectural and municipal public universities are determined by the local authorities and are not uniform. The amount of those fees charged in private universities varies greatly. The amount shown in the chart is the national average. "Other fees" includes fees for laboratory materials, student associations, etc.

As shown in Chart XLVII-B, there is a great difference among faculties.

Chart XLVII-C shows the average living expense (excluding instructional expense) of a university student for a year.

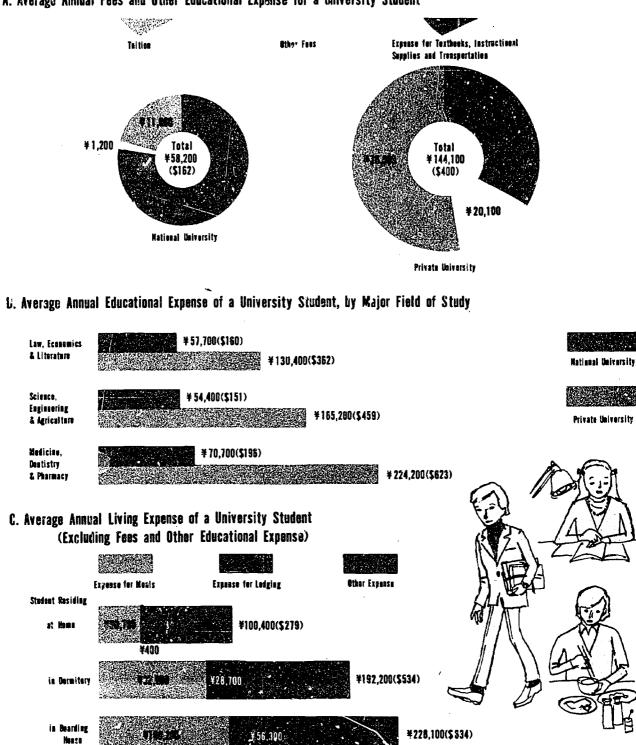
Fercentages of university students residing at home, in dormitories and in boarding houses were 49.9 per cent, 9.7 per cent and 40.4 per cent respectively, in November 1968.

Data from: Report on Students' Life, 1968, Ministry of Education.

Chart XLVII

EXPENSE PAID BY STUDENT IN UNIVERSITIES

(As of 1968)



A. Average Annual Fees and Other Educational Expense for a University Student

What Financial Assistance Is Provided to 48 Encourage School Attendance?

Chart XLVIII shows some of the means used to encourage school attendance at the compulsory level.

A. Education Allowance under Daily Life Protection Law

The Daily Life Protection Law guarantees a minimum standard of living for all families. Among the seven kinds of allowances provided by this law and administered by the Ministry of Welfare is an education allowance. This allowance covers such expenses as school supplies, transportation, school lunch, shoes and umbrellas. Needy families that qualify under this law and that have children of compulsory school age may receive this education allowance upon application. Eighty per cent of the expenditures for education allowance is provided by national grants, and 20 per cent by prefectural or municipal funds. As of 1970, a total of 294,000 pupils are benefited by the education allowance.

B. Other Special Provisions for Needy Pupils

The Ministry of Education administers grants-in-aid to a number of needy pupils who are enrolled in elementary and lower secondary schools and are not entitled to educational allowances under the Daily Life Protection Law. The grants cover the expense for school supplies, transportation, school excursions, school lunches, shoes, umbrellas and medical care.

In 1970 about 836,000 pupils benefited from such grants.

Grante for school excursions, and medical care are also made to the needy pupils covered in the education allowance program under the Daily Life Protection Law;

One half of the total amount of grants is paid by the Ministry of Education, and the other half by the municipalities.

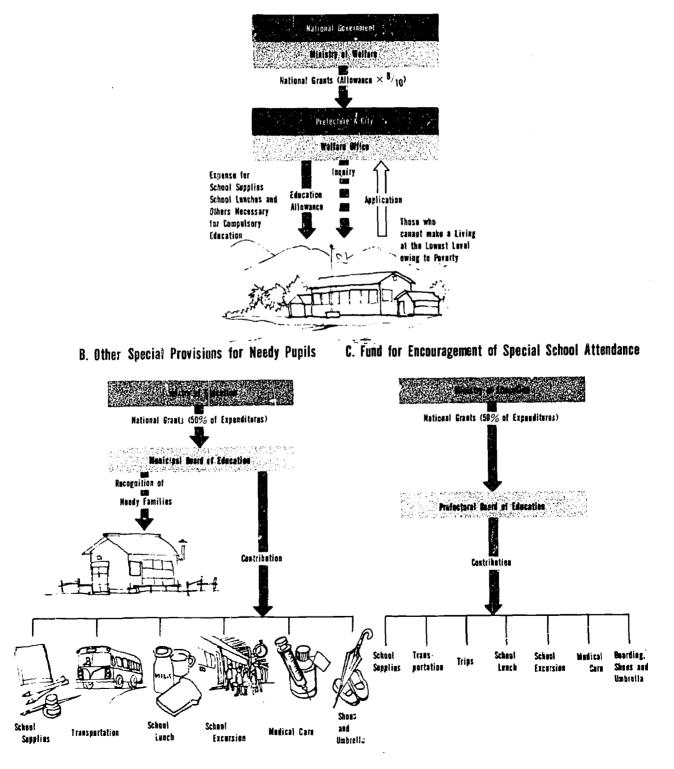
C. Fund for Encouragement of Special School Attendance

In order to promote school attendance by blind, deaf and other handicapped children, subsidies are offered by national and prefectural governments. One-half of the subsidies for pupils in special schools for handicapped children is paid by the national government. These subsidies are for expenses for school supplies, school lunches, transportation for attending school, school excursions and boarding, based on the economic ability of the parents of the handicapped children.

D. Free Distribution of Textbooks.

Free textbooks are provided for all the pupils enrolled in elementary and lower secondary schools as a measure to realize throughout the country the ideal of free compulsory education prescribed in the Constitution.

Chart XLVIII ENCOURAGEMENT OF SCHOOL ATTENDANCE



A. Education Allowance under Daily Life Protection Law



49. What Types of Special Aid Arc Provided for Students?

Scholarships and welfare aid for students are rendered in Japan by the Japan Scholarship Foundation, the Students' Assistance Association, Local Public Bodies, private scholarship societies, and from the welfare fund for mothers and their dependent children, as illustrated in Chart XLIX.

The Japan Scholarhip Foundation is a quasi-governmental organization which awards scholarship loans to cover essential school expenses for superior students who find it difficult to continue their studies for economic reasons. University students and junior and technical college students, with the recommendation of their institution, apply to the selection committee. Decisions on loans are made by the Foundation on the basis of committee recommendations.

The Ministry of Education supervises the Foundation, provides grants for administrative expense, and budgets the scholarship loan funds. The scholarship fund consists of repayments of loans by the graduates and additional funds loaned from the Ministry of Education budget. The monthly amounts of loans are as follows: 1,500 yen for an upper secondary school student; 1,500 yen or 3,000 yen for a technical college student; 3,000 yen for a junior college or university student; and 15,000 or 20,000 yen for a graduate student. During 1969, 3 per cent of all upper secondary pupils, 47 per cent of university students of teacher training faculties, 11 per cent of students of other faculties and 40 per cent of students of graduates schools received scholarship benefits.

The Foundation also conducts a system of early selection of scholarship students. This is to give an advance promise of scholarship loans to lower secondary school pupils who show superior scholastic ability and who anticipate economic difficulty in upper secondary schools, (3,000 yen a month) or in technical colleges (3,000 yen or 5,000 yen for students attending from their own homes, and 4,500 yen or 8,000 yen for other students). A similar system also was introduced for upper secondary school pupils who wish to enter a university or junior college (5,000 or 7,500 yen for students attending from their own homes, and 8,000 or 12,000 yen for other students). There are also special types of loans for students in universities and colleges varying from 5,000 yen to 12,000 yen per month according to the stude..t's condition.

Loans are free of interest and repayment should be completed within 20 years after completion of studies. But students who have suffered death or disability are foregiven all of the loan and those who enter teaching in schools and institutions of higher education are also foregiven part to all of the loan depending on their years of service.

In addition to the Japan Scholarship Foundation, there are a number of other public and private scholarship agencies which make loans or grants to students. These include local public bodies, schools, private citizens, religious organizations and others.

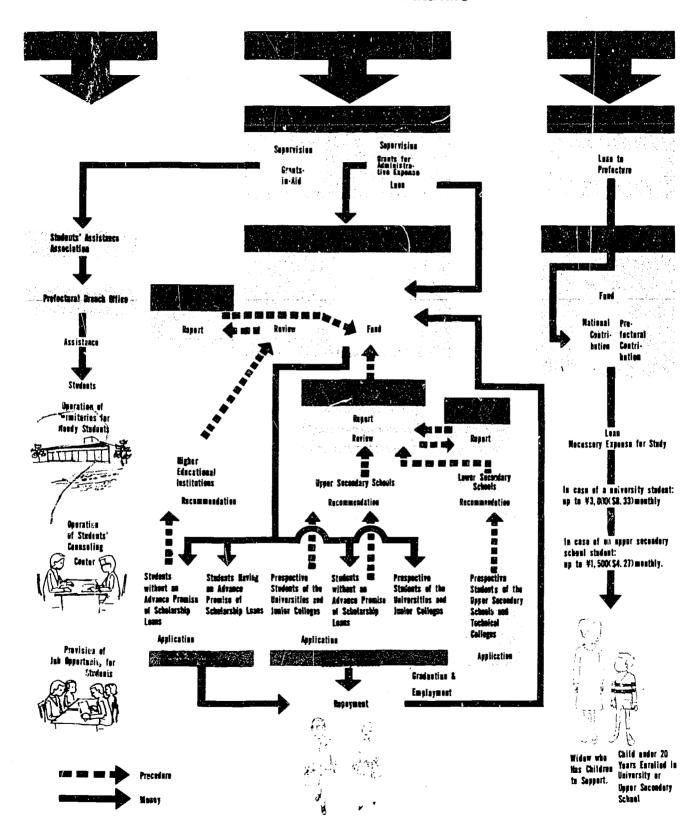
A governmental welfare fund for widows with dependent children also provides several types of loans including scholarship loans. Such loans are made by the prefectures for students enrolled in upper secondary schools, miscellaneous schools, junior colleges and universities. The national government lends two-thirds of the necessary funds free of interest to the prefectures which administer the loans.

Of a different nature is the Students' Assistance Association, the purpose of which is to improve the mental and physical status of students. It does not lend money to individuals for school expenses, but helps improve the conditions and circumstances of student life in general by providing various services such as those shown in the opposite chart.



Chart XLIX

STUDENT AID PROGRAMS



ERIC Pruil Text Provided by ERIC

50. Through What Channels Do Pupils Obtain Textbooks?

Chart L illustrates the procedures affecting elementary and lower secondary school textbooks from preparation of manuscripts to distribution. The authorization of textbooks for school use in all elementary and secondary schools in Japan is the responsibility of the Minister of Education.

All the textbooks for special schools for the blind, deaf, and otherwise handicapped and some of the textbooks for vocational education in upper secondary schools, are compiled by the Ministry of Education.

Local selection of textbooks is limited to those authorized or compiled by the Ministry of Education.

In the first step, either the author or publisher applies for authorization to the Minister of Education, who consults with the Textbook Authorization and Research Council. The members of the Council are appointed by the Minister of Education from among teachers and other learned persons. Part-time textbook examiners in the Council and full-time specialists in textbook examination in the Ministry of Education conduct separate examinations of textbooks. On the basis of the results of these examinations the Council judges the suitability of each textbook and recommends suitable ones to the Minister of Education. Finally the Minister of Education authorizes textbooks on the basis of the Council's recommendations.

Lists of authorized textbooks are sent to each school through the prefectural boards of education, which hold "textbook exhibitions" for the convenience of teachers in recommending textbooks for local adoption.

Municipal boards of education decide which textbooks to adopt on the basis of the advice of prefectural boards of education. In case there are two or more municipal boards of education in the same selection area (a prefecture is normally divided into a number of selection areas), they jointly adopt the same textbook for each subject. The number of copies required is reported through the prefectural boards of education to the Ministry of Education, which estimates total textbook requirements.

Publishers print the authorized textbooks with the authorized prices according to the instructions of the Ministry.

In case of national and private elementary and secondary schools, the principals select textbooks from among those authorized by the Minister of Education. Prefectural boards of education give information and advice on textbooks to the principals.

In accordance with the 1963 Law Concerning Free Provision of Textbooks in Compulsory Schools, a plan to provide textbooks free of charge for all children in compulsory schools was established. Accordingly, by 1969, all the pupils in compulsory schools were provided free textbooks.

The textbooks for upper secondary schools are authorized and published in the same way as those for elementary and lower secondary schools. At the upper secondary level, however, pupils must buy their own textbooks at bookshops.



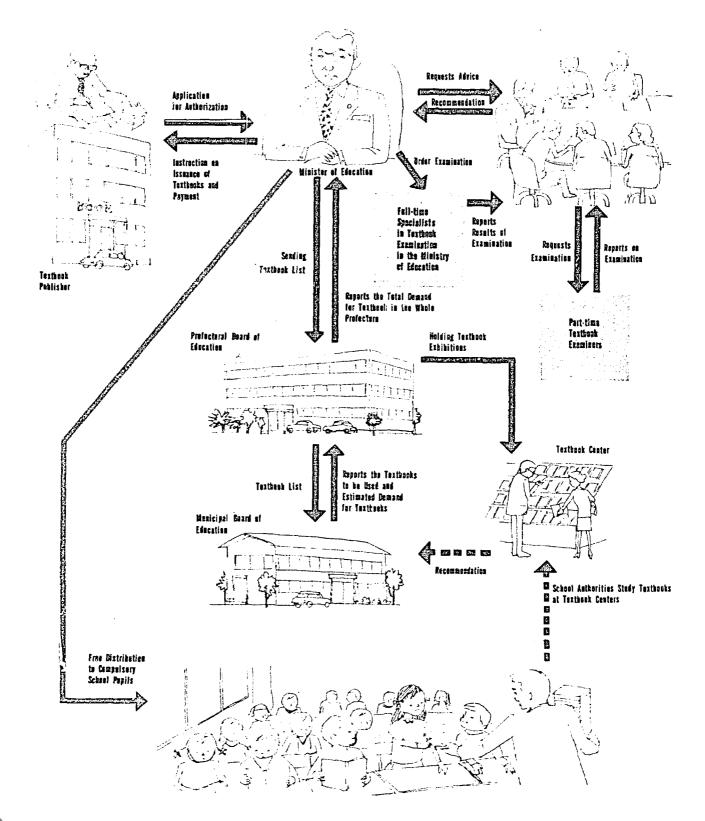


Chart L PROCEDURES FOR TEXTBOOK PUBLICATION AND DISTRIBUTION



51. How Are Educational Opportunities Equalized for Children in Isolated Areas ?

In Japan there are many isolated areas in remote places in the mountains or on small outlying islands. There areas are difficult of access and the people residing there are generally of relatively low economic and cultural status. The elementary and lower secondary schools in these areas are generally small and inadequately equipped, and tend to have difficulty in recruiting teachers.

The numbers of school, teachers and pupils in areas defined as isolated by prefectural ordinances are as shown in the following tabulation and the percentages of all schools, pupils and teachers that are found in isolated areas are presented in Chart LI-A.

			1 May 1969
	Schools	Pupils	Teachers (Full-time)
Elementary	5,541	439,452	30,160
Lower Secondary	1,997	213,279	16,218

Branch schools are counted as separate units.

In order to raise the educational standards in isolated areas, the Law for Promotion of Education in Isolated Areas was enacted in 1954. According to this law, national subsidies are offered for the promotion of education in these areas. Chart LI-B shows the purposes for which such subsidies are made.

In the national budget for the fiscal year 1970, 8,104 million yen (22,511 thousand dollars) was appropriated for the promotion of education in isolated areas, covering one half of the following expenses; (1) construction of assembly halls for use both in the regular school programs and for programs for adults and youths; (2) construction of teachers' residences; (3) construction of school baths and facilities for water supply; (4) purchasing of school buses, boats and jeeps and expenses for the transportation of pupils living in remote places; (5) administration of school health. programs; (6) living costs of pupils accommodated in school dormitories.

Subsidies are also provided for school lunch fees, and for special allowances from 8 to 25 per cent of the monthly salaries of teachers serving in schools in isolated areas.

There are still some special problems to be solved in order to improve educational programs in isolated areas. To this end, the Ministry of Education has designated a certain number of pilot schools for experimenting with the content and method of teaching in order to determine the best way to meet the needs of schools in isolated areas. Also, the Ministry of Education has compiled and published special materials for education in the isolated areas, conducted studies of textbooks appropriate for the use of one-teacher schools, and organized workshops for teachers in charge of education at one-teacher schools in isolated areas.

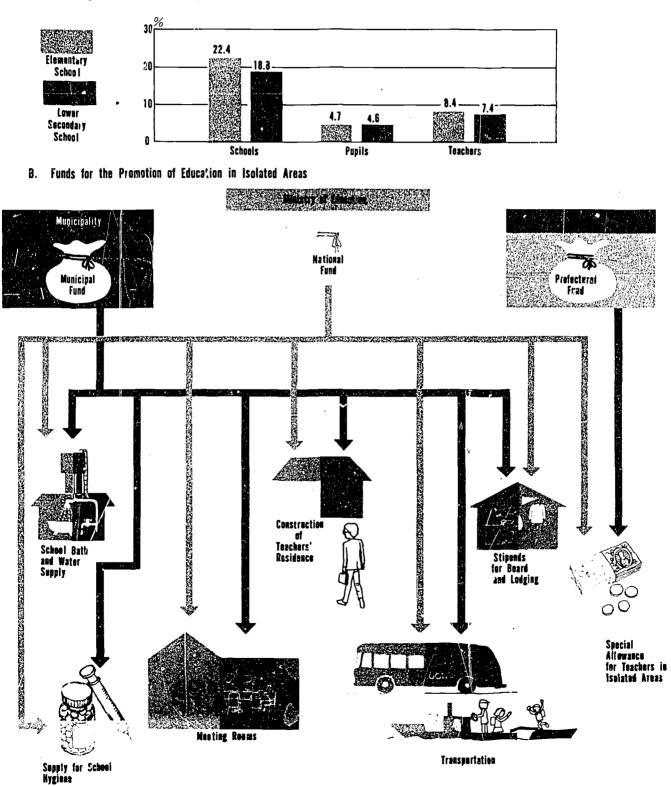


Chart LI

LI PROMOTION OF EDUCATION IN ISOLATED AREAS

(As of 1969)

A. Percentage of Total Schools, Pupils and Teachers in Isolated Areas



1 110

52. How Do Social Education Facilities Aunction?

"Social education" is used here as the general term for organized programs of educational activities, Sincluding programs of physical education and recreation mainly for youth and adults other than those provided in the curriculum of schools and institutions of higher education.

The promotion and development of social education has been based on the Social Education Law, which states that national and local public bodies are obligated to promote an environment congenial to cultural enhancement for each of its citizens so that each can make the most of what is inherent in him.

With the enactment of this law, public consciousness of the need to participate in social education has shown vigorous growth. Activities representative of social education's increasingly important role include construction and expansion of citizens' public halls (kominkan), libraries, museums, art galleries and other social education facilities; increased utilization of school equipment for social education; expanded use of publications, radio, films, drama, music and television in social education programs.

The creation of social education organizations further exploits this growing field of educational service. Chart LII outlines social education functions and a few activities conducted.

Citizer:s' Public Halls (Kominkan) (1)	Libraries	Meseums	Audio-visual Libraries	Youth Centers	Physical Edu- cation & Recreation Facilities (3)	Cultural Centers for Children
8,213	825	338	879	184 (2)	10,193	28
	Public Halls (Kominkan) (1)	Public Halls Libraries (Kominkan) (1)	Public Halls Libraries Meseums (Kominkan) (1)	Public Halls Libraries Meseums Libraries (Kominkan) (1)	Public Halls Libraries Meseums Audio-Visual Youth (Kominkan) (1)	Public Halls Libraries Meseums Audio-visual Youth (Kominkan) (1) Libraries Centers Facilities (3)

Below is a list of the main social education facilities.

It is prescribed by law that citizens' public halls (Kominkan) be provided by municipalities. Most municipalities have one or more public halls, and including branch and similar facilities, the total number of *kominkan* facilities amounted to 13,785 in 1970. Citizens' public halls are playing an important role in elevating cultural standards in local areas. They are the most effective centers of progressive social education in Japan.

In order to give youths the opportunity of lodging together and acquiring experience in cooperating and working together, there are nine Youth Centers established by the national government and 175 Youth Centers established by local governments. The Centers aim at improving the personality and health of the youths. 31 of the 184 centers are in urban areas to cope with the centralization of population in cities. These urban centers do not have living facilities but are for the purpose of providing youths a place for casual social activities. In the Centers there are instructors as well as equipment and rooms for physical, practical, cultural and social activities.

For boys and girls there are Cultural Centers for Children where they can join in group activities and improve their knowledge of science and culture.

Four Children's Nature Centers were established in 1970. The purpose of these Centers is to give boys and girls more chances for group training in a natural environment, and the government is encouraging the prefectures to further develop this scheme.

To improve the physical standards of the people, various measures for the promotion of sports and recreation are taken by the national and local governments. In 1969 there were 10,193 facilities for sports established by the government, of which playgrounds, swimming pools and gymnasiums are the major ones. In addition to them there are 6,706 facilities operated by the private sector.



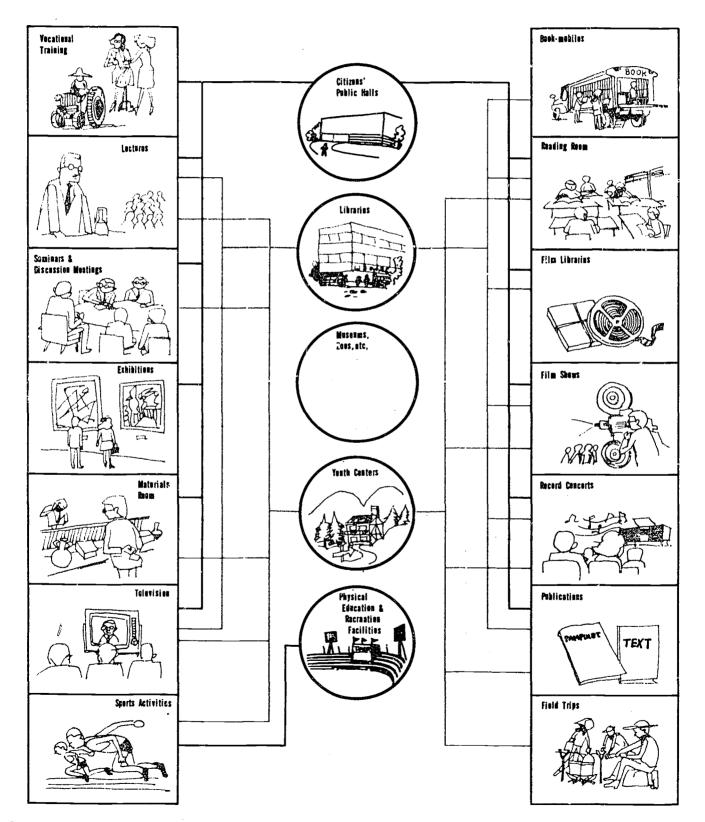


Chart LII SOCIAL EDUCATION FACILITIES AND THEIR ACTIVITIES



53. What Kinds of Opportunities Are There for Social Education ?

From the viewpoint of lifelong education social education has been encouraged. The government supports local boards of education or universities to open classes for those who have left formal school. The following tabulation shows the types of social education classes supported by the government and the number of participants in them;

	Adult Classes (1)	Women's Classes	Youth Classes	University Extension	Correspondence Courses
1963	2,853	3,748	426	64	228
1969	1,253	3,034	363	88	710

(1) Including those called Adult Schools.

Of these classes or schools some are for vocational training, some for home management, some for general studies and so forth.

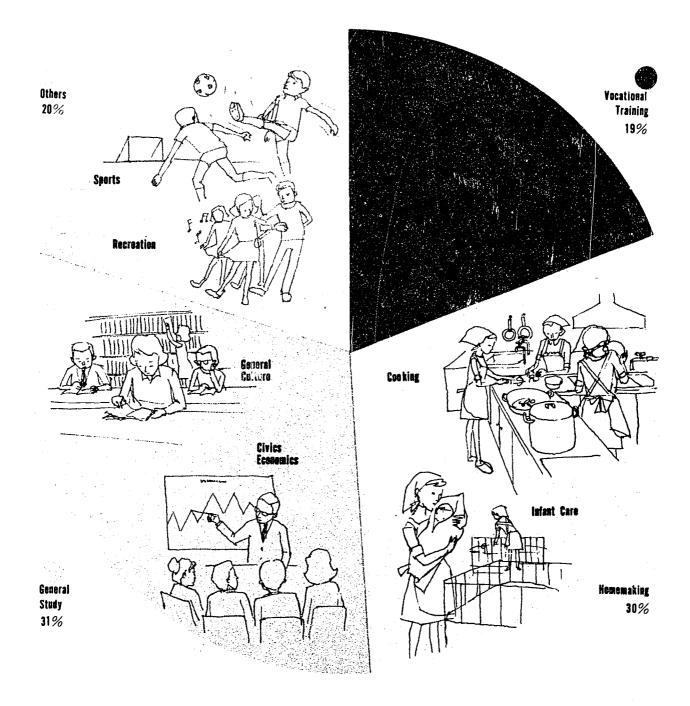
As a rule local boards of education open youth classes, women's classes, etc. and national subsidies are offered to them. These classes are often opened in Citizens' Public Halls or Public Schools.

In addition to the classes mentioned above there are also various kinds of schools operated on a commercial or philanthropical basis available for the general public. People can learn, for instance, driving, typewriting, foreign languages and other subjects in these schools.



Chart LIII CONTENTS OF STUDY IN YOUTH CLASSES

Percentage Distribution of Contents of Study by Hour, in Youth Classes, 1968





54. How Are Foreign Students Brought to Japan?

Japan has provided for the interchange of students and teachers with foreign countries as a part of its general program for the educational and cultural exchange of persons. The number of foreign students studying in Japan has increased in recent years.

A Japanese government scholarship program was started in 1954 to invite foreign students to study in Japan. There are two kinds of foreign students studying in Japanese universities under the program.

First is the undergraduate student who enters a university as a regular student, and who, when he has completed the regular course and passed the graduation examination, will be awarded the bachelor's degree. Such a student must receive one year of Japanese language education prior to entrance to the Japanese university.

The other is the Research Student who conducts research in a specific field for one year and a half or two years in a university, a graduate course, or an institute attached to a university.

The Japanese government scholarship provides both students with stipend, round trip air tickets and other allowance. School fees are exempted. The monthly stipend of the 1970 fiscal year is ¥36,000 (US\$100) for the undergraduate students and ¥37,000 for the Research Students. These amounts will be raised to ¥47,000 and ¥66,000 respectively from the 1971 fiscal year.

Foreign students admitted to Japanese universities as undergraduates at private expense or under Japanese government scholarships must have completed 12 years of education in their own countries. Those admitted for graduate studies must have completed 16 years of education.

The number and percentage distribution of foreign students studying in Japan by major field of study are as follows:

	Number	Percentage Distribution
Total	10,086	100.0%
Humanities & Arts	1,604	15.9
Education	263	2.6
Law, Social Science & Economics	3,281	32.5
Natural Science & Engineering	1,995	19.8
Medicine	1,187	11.8
Agriculture	488	4.8
Others	1,268	12.6

Number of Foreign Students* by Field of Study (As of May 1, 1969)

* Including students enrolled in graduate courses and junior colleges.

In 1969, 243 Japanese scholars were studying in 24 different countries under foreign government scholarships.

The number of Japanese students studying abroad under foreign government scholarships and at private expense and the number of overseas research scholars in 1955, 1960, 1965 and 1969 are shown in the following table:

	1955	1960	1965	1969
Students Studying Abroad	,	=		
Under Foreign Governmental Scholarships*	117	181	234	243
American Field Services (Upper Secondary Level Students)	29	101	115	129
At Private Expense	46	183	614	N.A.
Overseas Research Scholars	115	186	247	323

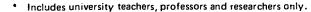
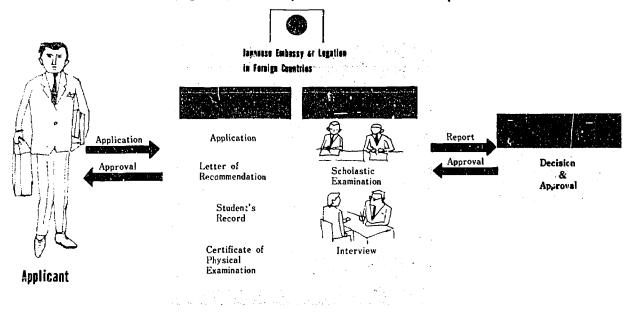


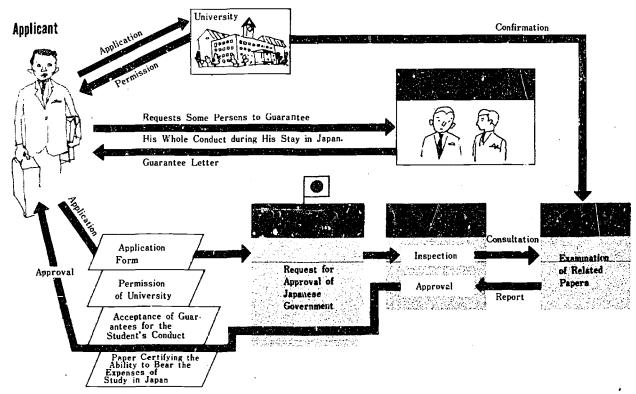


Chart LIV FOREIGN STUDENTS IN JAPAN



A. Procedures for Studying in Japan under Japanese Government Scholarships

B. Procedures for Studying in Japan at Private Expense





B. List of Universities in Japan (1970)

SYMBOLS

Phys. Ed.

N	National	L	Local		Р	Private
*	Having a C	Graduate School		(W)	Women'	s University
Er	rollment	Undergraduat	te only			
ABBRE	VIATIONS F	OR FACULTIES				
Ag	5.	Agriculture		Ed.		Education
Bu	is. Man.	Business Managen	nent	Eng	<u>.</u>	Engineering
Co	om.	Commerce		For	Lang.	Foreign Language
De	ent.	Dentistry		Gei	n. Cul.	General Culture
Ec		Economics		Ho	r .	Corticulture
Hı	ım.	Humanities		Pol		Politics
Li	t.	Literature		Sc.		Science
Ме	ed.	Medicine		Soc	io.	Sociology
Ph	ar.	Pharmacy		Vet	. Sc.	Veterinary Science

Physical Education

Name of University		Estab- lishing Body	Location (Prefecture)	Enrol- ment	Faculties
Aichi	*	Р	Aichi	10,182	Law & Ec., Lit.
Aichi Gakuin	*	Р	Aichi	4,628	Com., Law, Dent., Lit.
Aichi Kenritsu		L	Aichi	1,143	Lit., For. Lang.
Aichi Kenritsu Geijutsu	*	L	Aichi	454	Fine Arts, Music
Aichi Kogyo	*	Р	Aichi	3,452	Eng.
Aichi Kyoiku		Ν	Aichi	2,900	Ed.
Akita	*	Ν	Akita	2,026	Ed., Mining, Med.
Akita Keizai		Р	Akita	458	Ec.
Aoyama Gakuin	*	Р	Tokyo	11,614	Law, Lit., Ec., Sc. & Eng., Bus. Man.
Ajia		Р	Tokyo	4,203	Ec., Law, Bus. Man.
Anjo Gakuen (W)		Р	Aichi	68	Home Ec.
Aomori		Р	Aomori	114	Bus. Man.
Asahikawa		Р	Hokkaido	107	Ec.
Ashikaga Kogyo		Р	Tochigi	361	Eng.
Ashiya	*	Р	Hyogo	405	Ed.
Atomi Gakuen Joshi (W)		Р	Saitama	1,381	Lit.
Azabu Juika	*	Р	Kanagawa	673	Vet. Sc.
Baika Joshi (W)		Р	Osaka	1,114	Lit.
Baiko Jogakuin (W)		Р	Yanıaguchi	221	Lit.
Beppu		Р	Oita	469	Lit.
Bukkyo	*	Р	Kyoto	1,016	Lit., Socio.
Bunka Joshi (W)		Р	Tokyo	647	Home Ec.
Chiba	*	Ν	Chiba	5,439	Sc., Ed., Med., Phar., Eng. Hor., Hum.
Chiba Keiai Keizai		Р	Chiba	277	Ec.
Chiba Kogyo	*	Р	Chiba	5,576	Eng.
Chiba Shoka		Р	Chiba	5,674	Com. & Ec.
Chubu Kogyo		Р	Alchi	3,134	Eng.



Name of University		Estab- lishing Body	Location (Prefecture)	Enrol- ment	Faculties
 Chukyo	*	Р	Aichi	4,627	Com., Lit., Law, Phys. Ed.
Chukyo Joshi (W)		Р	Aichi	559	Phys. Ed., Home Ec.
Chuo	*	Р	Tokyo	30,452	Law, Ec., Com., Lit., Sc. & Eng.
Chuo Gakuin		Р	Chiba	732	Com.
Daido Kogyo		Р	Aichi	1,150	Eng.
Daiichí Keizai		Р	Fukuoka	95	Ec.
Daiichi Yakka		Р	Fukuoka	824	Phar.
Daito Bunka	*	Р	Tokyo	6,934	Lit., Ec.
Denki Tsushin	*	N	Tokyo	1,578	Telecommunication
Doho		Р	Aichi	364	Lit.
Dokkyo		Р	Saitama	6,446	For. Lang., Ec. Law
Doshisha	*	Р	Kyoto	21,019	Theology, Lit., Law, Ec., Com., Eng.
Doshisha Joshi (W)	*	Р	Kyoto	2,361	Liberal Arts, Home Ec.
Ehime	*	N	Ehime	2,851	Lit. & Sc., Ed., Eng., Ag., Law, Sc.
Eichi		Р	Hyogo	323	Lit.
Erízabeto Ongaku		Р	Hiroshima	328	Music
Fuerisu Jogakuin (W)		Р	Kanagawa	724	Lit.
Fuji Joshi (W)		Р	Hokkaido	478	Lit.
Fukui	*	N	Fukui	2,104	Ed., Eng.
Fukui Kogyo		Р	Fukui	729	Eng.
Fukuoka	*	Р	Fukuoka	12,260	Hum., Sc., Phys. Ed., Law. Ec., Com., Phar., Eng.
Fukuoka Joshi (W)		L	Fukuoka	ó42	Lit. Home Ec.
Fukuoka Kogyo		Р	Fukuoka	2,175	Eng.
Fukuoka Kyoiku		N	Fukuoka	2,367	Ed.
Fukushima		Ν	Fukushima	2,412	Ed. Ec.
Fukushima Kenritsu Ika	*	L	Fukushima	413	Med.
Gakushuin	*	Р	Tokyo	5,518	Ec., Law, Lit., Sc.
Gifu	*	N	Gifu	3,329	Ed., Ag., Eng., Med.
Gifu Joshi (W)		Р	Gifu	20	Home Ec., Lit.
Gifu Keizai		Р	Gifu	731	Ec.
Gifu Yakka	*	L	Gifu	577	Phar.
Gunma	*	Ν	Gunma	2,882	Ed., Med., Eng.
Hakodate		Р	Hokkaido	665	Com.
Hanazono		Р	Kyoto	508	Lit.
Hannan		Р	Osaka	857	Com.
Himeji Kogyo	*	L	Hyogo	1,072	Eng.
Hirosaki	*	Ν	Aomori	2,599	Hum., Ed., Med., Ag., Sc.
Hiroshima	*	Ν	Hiroshima	7,509	Lit., Ed., Pol. & Ec., Sc., Med., Dent., Eng., Fishery & Stock.
Hiroshima Bunkyo Joshi (V	V)	P	Hiroshima	107	Lit.
Hiroshima Denki		P	Hiroshima	241	Eng.
Hiroshima Jogakuin (W)		P	Hiroshima	405	Lit.
Hiroshima Keizai		P	Hiroshima	640 °	Ec.
Hiroshima Joshi (W)		L	Hiroshima	939	Lit., Home Ec.
Hiroshima Kogyo		Р	Hiroshima	3,412	Eng.
Hiroshima Shoka		P	Hiroshima	2,116	Com.
Hitotsubashi	*	Ν	Tokyo	3,110	Com., Ec., Law, Socio.

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Name of University		Estab- lishing Body	Location (Prefecture)	Enrol- ment	Faculties
Hokkaido	*	N	Hokkaido	4,833	Med. Phar., Eng., Ag., Vet. Sc., Fishery, Dent.
Hokkaido Kogvo		Р	Hokkaido	580	Eng.
Hokkaido Kyoiku		Ν	Hokkaido	4,390	Ed.
Hokkai Gakuen	*	Р	Hokkaido	5,317	Ec., Law, Eng.
Hokusei Gakuen		Р	Hokkaido	1,388	Lit., Ec.
Honshu (W)		Р	Nagano	435	Ec.
Hosei	*	Р	Tokyo	29,824	Law, Lit., Ec., Eng., Bus. Man., Socio.
Hoshi Yakka	*	Р	Tokyo	1,008	Phar.
Ibaragi	*	Ν	Ibaragi	3,324	Hum., Sc., Ed., Eng., Ag.
Ibaragi Kirisutokyo		Р	Ibaragi	226	Lit.
Iwate	*	Ν	Iwate	3,234	Eng., Ed., Ag.
Iwate Ika	*	Р	Iwate	902	Med., Dent.
Jissen Joshi (W)	*	Р	Tokyo	1,827	Lit., Home Ec.
Jobu		Р	Gunma	102	Com.
Jochi	*	Р	Τοκγο	7,101	Lit., Ec., Law, Theology, For. Lang., Sc., & Eng.
Josai		Р	Saitama	566	Ec., Sc.
Josai Shika		Р	Saitama	N. A.	Dent.
Joshi Bijutsu (W)		Р	Tokyo	1,053	Fine Arts
Joshi Eiyo (W)	*	Р	Tokyo	351	Food & Nutrition
Juntendo	*	Р	Ťokyo	1,008	Phys. Ed., Med.
Kagawa	*	Ν	Kagawa	2,302	Ed., Ec., Ag.
Kagoshima	*	N	Kagoshima	5,478	Lit. & Law, Ed., Med., Eng., Ag., Sc., Fishery
Kagoshima Keizai		Р	Kagoshima	1,614	Ec.
Kanagawa	*	Р	Kanagawa	11,682	Law, Ec., For. Lang., Eng.
Kanagawa Shika		Р	Kanagawa	963	Dent.
Kanazawa	*	N	Ishikawa	4,894	Law & Lit., Ed., Sc., Med., Phar., Eng.
Kanazawa Bijutsu Kogei		L	Ishikawa	533	Arts & Industrial Design
Kanazawa Keizai		Р	Ishikawa	410	Ec.
Kanazawa Kogyo		Р	Ishikawa	1,113	Eng.
Kansai	*	Р	Osaka	22,676	Law, Ec., Lit., Com., Eng., Socio.
Kansai Gaikokugo		Р	Osaka	1,720	For. Lang.
Kansai Ika	*	Р	Osaka	520	Med.
Kansai Gakuin	*	Р	Hyogo	12,194	Theology, Lit., Socio., Law, Ec., Com., Sc.
Kanto Gakuin	*	Р	Kanagawa	6,668	Ec., Eng., Lit.
Kawasaki Ika		Р	Okayama	N. A.	Med.
Keihin Jouhi (W)		Р	Kanagawa	441	Home Ec.
Keio Gijuku	*	Р	Tokyo	25,012	Lit., Ec., Law, Com., Med., Eng.
Kinjo Gakuin (W)	*	Р	Aichi	1,383	Lit., Home Ec.
Kinki	*	Р	Osaka	16,975	Law, Com, & Ec., Sc. & Eng., Phar., Ag., Eng.
Kitakyushu		L	Fukuoka	4,082	Lit., Com., For. Lang.
Kitami Kogyo		Ν	Hokkaido	484	Eng.
Kitasato	*	Р	Tokyo	2,536	Sanitary Sc., Phar., Stock Raising, Med.



Name of University		Estab- lishing Body	Location (Prefecture)	Enrol- ment	Faculties
Kobe	*	N	Нуодо	7,749	Lit., Ed., Law, Ec., Sc., Eng. Bus. Man., Med., Ag.
Kobe Gakuin		Р	Hyogo	1,224	Food & Nutrition, Law, Ec.,
Kobe Jogakuin (W)	*	Р	Hyogo	1,385	Lit., Music. Home Ec.
Kobe Joshi (W)		Р	Hyogo	299	Home Ec., Lit.
Kobe Joshi Yakka (W)	Ŧ	Р	Нуодо	1,076	Phar.
Kobe Kaisei Joshi Gakuin ()	W)	Р	Hyogo	349	Lit.
Kobe-shi Gaikokugo	*	L	Hyogo	1,400	For. Lang.
Kobe Shoka	*	L	Hyogo	1,505	Com. & Ec.
Kobe Shosen	*	Ν	Hyogo	822	Mercantile Marine
Kochi	*	Ν	Kochi	2,035	Lit. & Sc., Ed., Ag.
Kochi Joshi (W)		L	Kochi	700	Home Ec., Lit.
Kogakuin	*	P	Tokyo	7,280	Eng.
Kogakukan	*	Р	Mie	880	Lit.
Koka Joshi (W)		P	Kyoto	545	Lit.
Kokugakuin	*	Р	Tokyo	12,690	Lit., Ec., Law
Kokusai Kirisutokyo	*	Р	Tokyo	1,147	Liberal Arts
Kokusai Shoka		Р	Saitama	978	Com.
Kokushikan	*	Р	Tokyo	10,356	Phys. Ed., Law, Lit. Pol. & Ec., Eng.
Komazawa	*	Р	Tokyo	8,471	Buddhism, Lit., Ec., Law, Bus. Man.
Konan	*	Р	Hyogo	5,877	Lit., Sc., Ec., Law, Bus. Man
Konan Joshi (W)		Р	Hyogo	905	Lit.
Koriyama Joshi (W)		P	Fukushima	176	Home Ec.
Koshien		Р	Hyogo	102	Hood & Nutrition
Koyasan	*	Р	Wakayama	427	Lit.
Kumamoto	*	Ν	Kumamoto	5,028	Law & Lit., Ed., Sc., Med., Phar., Eng.
Kumamoto Joshi (W)		L	Kumamoto	984	Lit. & Home Ec.
Kumamoto Kogvo		Р	Kumamoto	509	Eng.
Kumamoto Shoka		Р	Kumamoto	3,672	Com.
Kunitachi Ongaku	*	Р	Tokyo	3,825	Music
Kurume	*	Р	Fukuoka	2,502	Com., Med.
Kyorin		Р	Tokyo	N. A.	Med.
Kyoritsu Joshi (W)	*	P	Tokyo	2,405	Lit. & Arts, Home Ec.
Kyoritsu Yakka (W)		P	Tokyo	690	Phar.
Kyoto	*	N	Kyoto	10,781	Lit., Ed., Law, Ec., Sc., Med., Phar., Eng., Ag.
Kyoto Furitsu	*	L	Kyoto	903	Lit., Home Ec., Ag.
Kyoto Furitsu Ika	*	L	Kyoto	660	Med.
Kyoto Gakuen		P	Kyoto	200	Ec.
Kyoto Gaikokugo		P	Kyoto	1,978	For. Lang.
Kyoto Joshi (W)	*	Р	Kyoto	2,144	Lit., Home Ec.
Kyoto Kogei Sen-i	*	N	Kyoto	1,643	Industrial Arts, Textile
Kyoto Kyoiku		N	Kyoto	1,548	Ed.
Kyoto Sangyo	*	Р	Kyoto	5,803	Ec., Sc., Law, Bus. Man., For. Lang.
Kyoto Shiritsu Geijutsu		L	Kyoto	572	Fine Arts, Music
Kyoto Yakka	*	Р	Kyoto	1,006	Phar.
Kyushu	*	N	Fukuoka	7,972	Lit., Ed., Law, Ec., Sc., Med. Eng., Ag., Phar., Dent.



Name of University		Estab- lishing Body	Location (Prefecture)	Enrol- ment	Faculties
Kvushu Gakuin		Р	Kagoshima	192	Eng.
Kyushu Geijutsu Koka		Ν	Fukuoka	107	Arts & Eng.
Kyushu Joshi (W)		Р	Fukuoka	426	Lit., Home Ec.
Kvushu Kogyo	*	N	Fukuoka	1,907	Eng.
Kyushu Kyoritsu		Р	Fukuoka	1,148	Ec., Eng.
Kyushu Sangyo		P	Fukuoka	4,317	Com., Eng., Arts, Bus. Man.
Kvushu Shika	*	L	Fukuoka	885	Dent.
Matsuyama Shoka		p	Ehime	3,132	Ec., Bus. Man.
Meiji	*	P	Tokyo	31,794	Lit., Eng., Ag., Law, Com , Pol. & Ec., Bus. Man.
Meiji Gakuin	*	P	Tokyo	11,749	Lit., Ec., Law, Socio.
Meiji Yakka		ρ	Tokyo	1,764	Phar.
Meijo	*	P	Aichi	12,219	Law, Com., Sc. & Eng. Ag., Phar.
Meisei		P	Tokyo	4,727	Sc. & Eng., Hum.
Mie	*	Ν	Mie	2,012	Ed., Ag., Eng.
Mie Kenritsu	*	L	Mie	528	Fishery, Med.
Mimasaka Joshi (W)		Р	Okayama	103	Home Ec.
Minami Kyushu		Р	Miyazaki	175	Hor.
Mishima Gakuen Joshi (W)		Р	Miyagi	331	Home Ec.
Miyagi Gakuin Joshi (W)		Р	Miyagi	1,459	Liberal Arts
Miyagi Kyoiku		N	Miyagi	1,091	Ed.
Miyazaki	*	Ν	Miyazaki	2,341	Ed., Ag., Eng.
Momoyama Gakuin		Р	Osaka	4,594	Ec., Socio
Mukogawa Joshi (W)	*	Р	Hyogo	2,266	Lit., Home Ec., Music, Phar.
Muroran Kogvo	*	N	Hokkaidc	1,918	Eng.
Musashi	*	Р	Tokyo	2,100	Ec., Hum.
Musashi Kogyo	*	P	Tokyo	4.604	Eng.
Musashino Bijutsu		P	Tokyo	1,486	Formative Arts
Musashino Joshi (W)		P	Tokyo	1,026	Lit.
Musashino Ongaku	*	P	Tokyo	2,420	Music
Nagasaki	*	N	Nagasaki	3,436	Ed., Ec., Med., Phar., Fishery, Eng.
Nagasaki Ken@su Kokusai Keizai		L	Nagasaki	545	Ec.
Nagasaki Zosen		Р	Nagasaki	1,407	Eng.
Nagoya	*	Ν	Aichi	6,408	Lit., Ed., Law, Ec., Sc., Med., Eng., Ag.
Nagoya Gakuin		P	Aichi	3,206	Ec.
Vagoya Geijutsu		P	Aichi	N. A.	Fine Arts, Music
Nagoya Hoken Eisei		P	Aichi	127	Sanitary Sc.
Nagoya Joshi (W)		P	Aichi	367	Home Ec.
Nagoya Kogyo	*	Ν	Aichi	3,441	Eng.
Vagoya Shiritsu	*	L	Aichi	1,464	Med., Phar., Ec.
Vagova Shoka		Р	Aichi	3,184	Com.
Nakamura Gakuen		Р	Fukuoka	497	Home Ec.
Nanzan	*	Р	Aichi	3,774	Lit., Ec., For. Lang., Bus. Man.
Nara		Р	Nara	150	Lit.
Nara Joshi (W)	*	Ν	Nara	1,044	Lit., Sc., Home Ec.
Nara Kenritsu Ika	*	L	Nara	376	Med.
Nara Kyoiku		N	Nara	895	Ed.



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Name of University	Estab- lishing Body	Location (Prefecture)	Enrol- ment	Faculties
(111/)//	* р	Tokyo	63,903	Law, Lit, & Sc., Ec., Com., Art, Sc. & Eng., Eng., Med., Dent., Production Eng., Agr. & Vet.
	* P	Aichi	1,984	Social Welfare
Nihon Joshi (W)	* Р	Tokyo	3,519	Home Ec., Lit.
Nihon Joshi Taiiku (W)	Р	Tokyo	380	Phys. Ed.
Nihon Ruteru Shingaku	P	Tokyo	37	Theology
Nihon Shakaijigvo	P	Tokyo	491	Social Welfare
Nihon Taiiku	P	Tokyo	3,366	Phys. Ed.
	* N	Niigata	5,402	Hum., Ed., Sc., Med., Eng., Ag., Dent.
Nippon Ika	* P	Tokyo	741	Med.
Nippon Kogyo	Р	Saitama	751	Eng.
Nippon Jui-Chikusan	* P	Tokyo	840	Vet. Med. & Stock Raising
Nippon Shika	* Р	Tokyo	1,116	Dent.
Nishi Nihon Kogyo	P	Fukuoka	340	Eng.
Nishogakusha	* P	Tokyo	1.618	Lit.
Notoru Damu Joshi (W)	P	Kyoto	670	Lit.
Noto <mark>ru Damu Se</mark> ishin Joshi (W	И Р	Okayama	1,574	Lit., Home Ec.
Obihiro Chikusan	* N	Hokkaido	682	Stock Raising
Obirin	P	Tokyo	586	Lit., Ec.
Ochanomizu Joshi (W)	* N	Tokyo	1,354	Lit. & Ed., Sc., Home Ec.
Oita	N	Oita	1.711	Ed., Ec.
Oita Kogvo	Р	Oita	600	Eng.
Okayama	* N	Okayama	5,449	Law & Lit., Ed., Sc., Med., Eng., Ag.
Okayama Rika	P	Okayama	1,586	Sc.
Okayama Shoka	Р	Okayama	776	Com.
Osaka	* N	Osaka	8,135	Lit., Law, Ec., Sc., Eng., Med., Dent., Phar., Basic Eng.
Osaka Denki Tsushin	Р	Osaka	3,188	Eng.
Osaka Furitsu	* L	Osaka	3,528	Eng., Ag., Ec.
Osaka Gaikokugo	* N	Csaka	2,504	For. Lang.
Osaka Gakuin	* P	Osaka	2,146	Com., Ec.
Osaka Geijutsu	Р	Osaka	1,152	Arts
Osaka Ika	* P.	Osaka	500	Med.
Osaka Joshi (W)	Ĺ	Osaka	667	Liberal Arts
Osaka Keizai	* P	Osaka	8,353	Ec., Bus. Man.
Osaka Kogvo	* Р	Osaka	10,108	Eng.
Osaka Kyoiku	* N	Osaka	3,566	Ed.
Osaka Ongaku	* P	Osaka	912	Music
Osaka Sangvo	P	Osaka	2,991	Eng., Bus. Man.
Osaka Shika	* P	Osaka	1,345	Dent.
Əsaka Shiritsu	* L	Osaka	5,251	Com., Ec., Law, Lit., Sc., Eng., Med., Home Ec.
Osaka Shogvo	Р	Osaka	5,860	Com. & Ec.
Osaka Shoin Joshi (W)	Р	Osaka	1,627	Liberal Arts
Osaka Taiiku	Р	Osaka	761	Phys. Ed.
Osaka Yakka	Р	Osaka	1,003	Phar.
Oshu	Р	Iwate	654	Ec.
Otani	* Р	Kyoto	1,501	Lit.



Name of University	-	Estab- lishing Body	Location (Prefecture)	Enrol- ment	Faculties
Otani Joshi (W)		Р	Osaka	518	Lit.
Otaru Shoka		N	Hokkaido	451	Com.
Otemae Joshi (W)		P	Нуодо	196	Lit.
Otsuma Joshi (W)		P	Tokyo	1,091	Home Ec., Lit.
Ottemon Gakuin		P	Osaka	1,886	Ec., Lit.
Rakuno Gakuen		Р	Hokkaido	1,506	Dairy Farming
Reitaku		P	Chiba	306	For. Lang.
Rikkvo	*	P	Tokyo	10,719	Lit., Ec., Sc., Law, Socio.
Rissho	*	Р	Tokyo	7,247	Buddhism, Lit., Ec., Bus. Man.
Rissho Joshi (W)		Р	Saitama	315	Home Ec., Ed.
Ritsumeikan	*	Р	Kyoto	21,009	Law, Ec., Lit., Sc. & Eng. Bus. Man., Industrial Socio.
Ryukoku	*	P	Kyoto	7,435	Lit., Ec., Bus. Man, Law
Ryutsu Keizai		Р	Ibaragi	1.022	Ec.
Saga	*	Ν	Saga	1,941	Ec., Ed., Sc. & Eng., Ag.
Saga Kasei		P	Saga	24	Home Ec.
Sagami Joshi (W)		P	Kanagawa	969	Liberal Arts
Sagami Kogyo		P	Kanagawa	1,030	Eng.
Saitama		N	Saitama	4,157	Gen. Cul, Ed., Ec., Eng. & Sc.
Sakuyo Ongaku		Р	Okayama	265	Music
Sapporo		Р	Hokkaido	1.018	Ec., For. Lang., Bus. Man.
Sapporo Ika	*	L	Hokkaido	501	Med.
Sapporo Shoka		P	Hokkaido	384	Com.
Seijo	*	P	Tokyo	2,687	Ec., Lit. & Arts
Seikei	-	P	Tokyo	4,520	Ec., Lit., Eng., Law
Seinan Gakuin		P	Fukuoka	5,947	Lit., Com., Ec., Theology, Ław
Seiroka Kango (W) Sainan Inchi (W)		P	Tokyo	152	Health Care & Nursing
Seisen Joshi (W) Seishin Joshi (W)	*	P P	Tokyo	1,028	Lit.
Seisain Joshi (W) Seiwa Joshi (W)	•	r P	Tokyo	1,206 271	Lit. Ed.
Sendai		r P	Hyogo Miyagi	152	Phys. Ed.
Senshu	*	P	Tokyo	14.726	Com., Ec., Law, Lit., Bus. Man.
Senzoku Gakuen		Р	Kanagawa	161	Music
Shibaura Kogyo	*	Р	Tokyo	4,515	Eng.
Shiga		N	Shiga	1,405	Ed., Ec.
Shikoku Gakuin		Р	Kagawa	552	Lit.
Shikoku Joshi (W)		P	Tokushima	110	Home Ec.
Shimane		N	Shimane	2,194	Lit. & Sc., Ed., Ag.
Shimonoseki Shiritsu		L	Yamaguchi	1,262	Ec.
Shinshu	*	N	Nagano	4,877	Hum., Ed., Med., Eng., Ag., Textile, Sc.
Shinna Joshi (W)		Р	Hyogo	628	Lit.
Shirayuri Joshi (W)		Р	Tokyo	1,248	Lit.
Shitennoji Joshi (W)		Р	Osaka	160	Lit.
Shizuoka	*	N	Shizuoka	4,844	Hum., Ed., Eng., Ag., Sc.
Shizuoka Joshi (W)		L	Shizuoka	309	Lit.
Shizuoka Yakka	*	L	Shizuoka	447	Phar.



Name of University		Estab- lishing Body	Location (Prefecture)	Enrol- ment	Faculties
Shoin Joshi Gakuin (W)		Р	Нуодо	492	Lit.
Showa	*	Р	Tokyo	1,254	Med., Phar.
Showa Joshi (W)		Р	Tokyo	1,953	Lit. & Home Ec.
Showa Yakka	*	Р	Tokyo	976	Phar.
Shuchiin		Р	Kyoto	48	Buddhism
Shukutoku		Р	Chiba	684	Social Welfare
Soai Joshi (W)		Р	Osaka	293	Music
Sonoda Gakuen Joshi (W)		Р	Нуодо	174	Lit.
Sugino Joshi (W)		Р	Tokyo	440	Home Ec.
Sugiyama Jogakuen (W)		P	Aichi	946	Home Ec.
Tachibana Joshi (W)		P	Kyoto	230	Lit., Home Ec.
Taisho	*	P	Токуо	1,452	Lit., Buddhism
Takachiho Shoka		P	Tokyo	1,182	Com.
Takasaki Keizai		L	Gunma	2,533	Ec.
Takushoku	*	P	Tokyo	4,480	Com., Pol. & Ec.
Tama Bijutsu	*	P	Tokyo	1,453	Arts
Tamagawa	*	P	Tokyo	2,893	Lit., Ag., Eng.
Teikoku Joshi (W)		Р	Osaka	181	Home Ec.
Teikyo		Р	Tokyo	1,009	Lit., Ec., Law
Tenri		Р	Nara	2,174	Lit., For. Lang., Phys. Ed.
Tezukavama (W)		P	Nara	954	Gen. Cul.
Tezukayama Gakuin		Р	Osaka	583	Lit.
Toho	*	Р	Tokyo	900	Med., Phar., Sc.
Toho Gakuen		P	Tokyo	650	Music
Toho Ongaku		P	Saitama	399	Music
Tohoku	*	N	Miyagi	12,596	Lit., Ed., Law, Ec., Sc., Med., Eng., Ag., Dent.
Tohoku Fukushi		Р	Miyagi	801	Social Welfare
Tohoku Gakuin	*	P	Miyagi	8,682	Eng., Lit., Ec., Law
Tohoku Joshi (W)		P	Aomori	100	Home Ec.
Tohoku Kogyo		P	Miyagi	2,068	Eng.
Tohoku Yakka (W)	*	P	Miyagi	1,502	Phar.
Tokai	*	P	Tokyo	15,321	Lit., Eng., Pol. & Ec., Sc., Oceanography, Phys. Ed., Gen. Cul.
Tokushima	*	Ν	Tokushima	2,808	Ed., Med., Phar., Eng.
Tokushima Joshi (W)		Р	Tokushima	156	Home Ec., Music
Tokvo	*	N	Tokyo	13,299	Gen. Cul., Lit., Ed., Law, Ec., Sc., Med. Eng., Ag., Phar.
Tokyo Denki	*	Р	Tokyo	7,941	Eng.
Tokyo Gaikokugo	*	Ν	Tokyo	2,181	For. Lang.
Tokyo Gakugei	*	Ν	Tokyo	3,893	Ed.
Tokyo Geijutsu	*	Ν	Tokyo	1,614	Fine Arts, Music
Tokyo Ika	*	Р	Tokyo	700	Med.
Tokyo Ika Shika	*	Ν	Tokyo	1,004	Med., Dent.
Tokyo Jikeikai Ika	*	Р	Tokyo	658	Med.
Tokyo Joshi (W)		Р	Tokyo	1,978	Lit. & Sc.
Tokyo Joshi Ika (W)	*	Р	Tokyo	509	Med.
Tokyo Joshi Taiiku (W)		Р	Tokyo	955	Phys. Ed.
Tokyo Kasei (W)		Р	Tokyo	1,109	Home Ec.
Tokvo Kasei Gakuin (W)		Р	Tokyo	621	Home Ec.



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Name of University		Estab- lishing Body	Location (Prefecture)	Enrol- ment	Faculties
Tokyo Keizai	*	Р	Tokyo	7,562	Ec., Bus. Man.
Tokyo Kogyo	*	Ν	Tokyo	836	Sc., Eng.
Tokyo Kyoiku	*	N	Tokyo	4,520	Lit., Ed., Sc., Ag., Phys. Ed.
Tokyo Nogyo	*	Р	Tokyo	6,770	Ag.
Tokyo Noko	*	N	Tokyo	2,214	Ag., Eng.
Tokyo Ongaku		Р	Tokyo	1,186	Music
Tokyo Rika	*	Р	Tokyo	11,382	Sc., Phar., Eng., Sc. & Eng.
Tokyo Shashin		P	Kanagawa	556	Eng.
Tokyo Shika	*	Р	Tokyo	994	Dent.
Tokyo Shingaku	*	P	Tokyo	103	Theology
Tokyo Shosen		N	Tokyo	830	Mercantile Marine
Tokyo Suisan	*	Ν	Tokyo	950	Fishery
Tokyo Toritsu	*	L	Tokyo	3,215	Hum., Law, Ec., Sc., Eng.
Tokyo Yakka	*	Р	Tokyo	1,905	Phar.
Tokyo Zokei		Р	Tokyo	475	Arts & Design
Tottori	*	N	Tottori	2,194	Ed., Med., Ag., Eng.
Towa		Р	Fukuoka	60	Eng.
Toyama	*	N	Toyama	3,394	Lit. & Sc., Ed., Ec., Phar., Eng.
Toyo	*	Р	Tokyo	19,340	Lit., Ec., Law, Eng., Socio., Bus. Man.
Tsuda-Juku (W)	*	Р	Tokyo	1,189	Liberal Arts
Tsuru Bunka		L	Yamanashi	2,142	Lit.
Tsurumi Joshi (W)		Р	Kanagawa	474	Lit., Dent.
Ueno Gakuen (W)		Р	Tokyo	526	Music
Utsunomiya	*	Ν	Tochigi	2,341	Ed., Ag., Eng.
Wakayama	*	Ν	Wakayama	1,992	Ed., Ec.
Wakayama Kenritsu Ika	*	L	Wakayama	370	Med.
Wako		Р	Tokyo	1,820	Hum., Ec.
Waseda	*	Р	Tokyo	40,128	Poł. & Ec., Law, Lit., Ed. Com., Sc. & Eng., Socio.
Wayo Joshi (W)		Р	Chiba	1,157	Lit. & Home Ec.
Yamagata	*	Ν	Yamagata	3,737	Sc., Ed., Eng., Ag., Hum.
Yamaguchi	*	Ν	Yamaguchi	7,344	Lit. & Sc., Ed., Ec., Eng., Ag., Med.
Yamanashi	*	Ν	Yama n ashi	2,159	Ed., Eng.
Yamanashi Gakuin		Р	Yama n ashi	999	Law, Com.
Yashiro Gakuin		Р	Hyogo	44	Ec.
Yasuda Joshi (W)		P	Hiroshima	373	Lit.
Yokohama Kokuritsu	*	Ν	Kanagawa	5,128	Ed., Ec., Eng., Bus. Man.
Yokohama Shiritsu	*	L	Kanagawa	2,795	Com., Lit. & Sc., Med.
Yokohama Shoka		Р	Kanagawa	326	Com.
Yawata		Р	Fukuoka	3,646	Law & Ec.

