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ABSTRACT

This sourcebook contains lessons and materials developed by the Keizai Koho Center (Japan Institute for Social and Economic Affairs). The ideas and activities in the sourcebook focus on the Japanese economy and are useful in social studies classrooms and courses including, economics, geography, and world cultures. Essays in the sourcebook are: (1) "The Role of Labor in the Japanese Economy" (Carol Arnold); (2) "Contemporary Women of Japan" (Barbara Bernard); (3) "Let's Play! Children's Leisure Time in Japan" (Christopher Dolgos); (4) "Deregulation in the Japanese Transport System" (Barry Dufour); (5) "Exploring Crime in Japan" (Richard E. Erickson); (6)"The Changing Roles of Japanese Women" (Susan J. Hardin); (7) "Economic Update: Japan since the Bursting of the Bubble Economy" (Geoff Hunter); (8) "The Economics of Information: Living, Working, and Learning in the Digital Era" (Karen A. Hurd); (9) "Is Free Education 'Free' in Japan?" (Alice Johnson); (10) "Grocery Carts: A World Apart" (Donna Butler Kimbro); (11) "Money, Banking, and Financial Markets in Japan" (Richard A. MacDonald); (12) "Elbow Room: Examining Japan's Population Density" (John Nohr); (13) "Silvering Populations and Interpreting Pyramids" (Phyllis R. Parker); (14) "Economic Secrets: Japanese and American Education" (Carole Ann Sudol); (15) "East and West: Building on Culture" (Linda C. Tassone); (16) "Economics and the Environment: Use and Care of Resources at a Local Level" (Yabbo Thompson); (17) "Calligraphy Meets Technology: The Search for a Traditional Art in Modern Japan" (Patricia Berg Ward); (18) "Linking Countries through Trade" (Mark Wildy); (19) "Japanese Corporate Citizenship: A Model for the 21st Century" (Joyce Witt); and (20) "Yearning to Budget: Finances and the Japanese Family" (Gerard Wollack). (Each article contains references.) (BT)

ED

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日本入門

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PREFACE

Two meals, two films and twelve hours after leaving San Francisco, a small group of Social Studies educators landed at Kansai Airport in Japan. Constructed on an artificial island and designed to represent a bird in flight, the one-and-a-half mile long terminal was soaring, bright and sparkling. We quickly cleared customs and rolled our belongings toward the exit. Here we saw and gathered around a young man holding a yellow banner with the initials "KKC." We had arrived.

This was Japan and we were about to embark on a journey of discovery. In the next 15 short days we traveled by train, subway, bus, taxi and boat to visit Kyoto, Kobe, Hiroshima, Miyajima Island, and Tokyo. We met with representatives of 14 businesses, three government agencies, had small group discussions with businesspeople, homemakers, and social studies teachers, visited elementary and secondary schools, toured countless museums, parks, shrines and temples and stayed overnight with a Japanese family. And, each day we had some time to test our communication skills in stores, restaurants and on the streets.

We began as strangers in a distant land. We left with heads filled with new understandings, hearts filled with new friendships, and lives enriched with unforgettable memories.

Since 1980, the Keizai Koho Center (Japan Institute for Social and Economic Affairs), in cooperation with the National Council for the Social Studies, has sponsored fellowships for social studies educators to travel and study in Japan. The program is designed to help educators become better acquainted with Japanese culture and economy and to enhance the teaching of Japan and improve global perspectives.

More than 600 graduates of this program now share their insight and understanding with their students and other educators. This experience has provided opportunities for personal and professional growth that translates into rich rewards for educators and the students with whom they work. In addition, as part of their responsibilities, Fellows have developed educational resources and activities that have been incorporated into publications for distribution to NCSS members and other educators. This economics sourcebook continues to build on this library of resources. The National Council for the Social Studies has been especially honored to have had such a long and productive relationship with the Keizai Koho Center. This sourcebook represents the fourth year in which we have published lessons and materials developed by KKC Fellows. The ideas and activities presented here focus on the Japanese economy and will be useful in many social studies classrooms and courses including economics, geography, and world cultures.

It would be difficult to recognize and thank everyone who contributed to the success of our visit but a few individuals and groups deserve special attention for their hospitality and assistance. First and foremost, is the generous and valuable work of the Keizai Koho Center and particularly Masami Tashiro, Senior Director of Administration Department and Director of International Affairs Department at the Keizai Koho Center in Tokyo. His leadership and vision are very much appreciated. *Domo arigato gozaimasu.* Through it all we met wonderful people, including KKC supporters and especially the KKC staff who were with us from day one. Ikuyo Watanabe and Yoshitaka Arai, Analyst, International Affairs Department at the Keizai Koho Center in Tokyo, accompanied us throughout our journey and served as cultural counselors, interpreters, sometime baggage handlers or fast food deliverers, teachers and colleagues. Their insight, integrity, energy and enthusiasm contributed to the enjoyment and education of everyone who had the pleasure of being in their company. The contributions of many Japanese business people, educators, government officials, and ordinary citizens, including the kind and generous members of the Hiroshima Homestay Association, made an important difference in helping American, Australian, Canadian and British educators in our group know and better understand the people and institutions of Japan.

For several years, now, Linda S. Wojtan, KKC Program Coordinator, has worked tirelessly to promote and advance this notable program. Her organizational skills, her sensitivity in working with a variety of personalities, her good humor and wisdom have contributed immensely to the success of the KKC program and its Fellows in strengthening the social studies curriculum. We want to recognize and thank Professor Lucien Ellington, University of Tennessee at Chattanooga, for his careful review of the manuscripts and his thoughtful comments. We also wish to thank Marcia L. Johnson, Associate Director, National Clearinghouse for U.S.-Japan Studies, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana for her diligence and editorial service in preparing this manuscript for publication.

In Japan, it was my distinct honor and privilege to accompany the dedicated and talented authors of the materials and activities in this sourcebook. As social studies educators from the U.S., Canada, Australia, and the United Kingdom, we learned a great deal from each other as well as from our gracious hosts and colleagues in Japan. On their behalf, I am pleased to present this publication to you and hope it makes an important contribution toward education and world understanding. However, we know that it is your work as a teacher that will make the critical difference and we encourage you to let us know of your experience with these activities. Together, we can improve the future of all young people, and the future of us all.

Tedd Levy, President
NCSS
Washington, D.C.
April 1999

THE ROLE OF LABOR IN THE JAPANESE ECONOMY

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INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW/ RATIONALE

The purpose of this chapter is to summarize the growth of the labor movement in Japan, its role in the economy and how it differs from its Western counterparts. The study of labor unions provides students with an opportunity to look at questions related to worker issues, as well as at mechanisms for the distribution of wealth in a market economy. The issues that unions address are not only relevant to union members. How companies regard their employees' health and wellbeing forms the basis of issues for all wage and salary employees. Unions, however, do offer an organized voice that can provide a better understanding of how the producers in an economy regard their working conditions and compensation.

After World War II, in an effort to foster democratic goals, specific forms and structures were needed to ensure that ordinary Japanese citizens could directly participate in all levels of social and political life. Unionization of the workforce was encouraged and barriers to labor union activities were removed, resulting in increasing job security and rising wages.[1] So began the success story which is often referred to as "the Japanese miracle."

By 1968, Japan's economy ranked second in the world in terms of national economic scale.[2] It thereby achieved for its citizens one of the world's highest standards of living. Japan thus moved from "rags to riches" in a mere twenty years. Japan's rapid growth after World War II has proceeded apace with the flourishing of the labor movement and therefore has prompted some questions: "Would Japan have been so successful in building such a highly advanced economy in such a short time without liberalizing the conditions for organizing labor? Could Japan's success in developing a large middle class, which enjoys one of the world's highest standards of living, have been accomplished without the distribution of wealth that the labor movement helped to achieve?" It is not the intent of this chapter to provide definitive answers to questions such as these, but the consideration of such questions highlights the importance of teaching about the role of labor and its contribution to the success of the Japanese economy.

Unique Features of Japan's Market Economy

Many factors contributed to Japan's rapid development and success as a market economy. But Japan's success was achieved in ways that were atypical of other economic success stories. Japan lacked land mass and also the abundant natural resources required for industrial expansion. In particular, Japan lacked the energy resources and iron deposits that propelled the first market economies such as Great Britain and the United States. It lacked a political and social culture that encouraged individualism. Prior to World War II, large businesses known as *zaibatsu* did exist, but they resembled past feudal structures dominated by powerful families with closely interwoven business and government ties. The banking system and general finance systems were closely linked both to government and to these large productive enterprises. Japanese banks lacked the independence that allowed for a free flow of capital. Japan developed a market economic system following the war, but the hand of government was, and still is, everywhere in the economy.

Japan's Post-War Economic Success

The Allied occupation of Japan put an end to Japan's military machine, freeing up badly needed investment funds. Phenomenal post-war growth in both Japan and Germany has often been attributed to the forced reallocation of funds from military expenditures. In Japan, these funds were redirected to improve the education system as well as to encourage research and development into new technologies. Through innovation and efficiency, Japan developed a wide array of inexpensive goods for worldwide export. Thus the marketplace was not limited to domestic consumption and in a mere twenty years, the size of Japan's economy rose to rank second in the world after that of the United States.

How Did Labor Contribute to Japan's Economic Success?

Labor unions have played an important role in forcing democratic systems to reform capitalism, and in helping to create the middle classes which have expanded market economic growth during the course of this century. This has been particularly evident in Japan's economic development. First of all, industrial expansion required a vast pool of available, skilled labor in the period immediately following World War II. The newly unshackled unions and a modern public education system quickly provided the work force necessary for rapid industrial growth. The presence of an organized labor movement alone allowed for the accumulating wealth in the rapidly expanding economy to be distributed more equitably, leading to the creation of a large middle class. Today, "some 90% of Japanese regard themselves as middle class, and Japanese workers are now among the best paid in the world."[3] It is generally conceded that the Japanese have more equitable pay structures vis-à-vis workers and management compared to countries like the United States. The practice of guaranteed lifetime employment, although being threatened during the current economic crisis, is a unique feature of some sectors of the Japanese market model. In the 20th century, only command economies have provided full employment programs, but they have lacked the efficiency and quality production standards that remain so characteristic of Japanese industrial production.

PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS

Ten Descriptors of Japan's Labor Movement

In order to appreciate the position of labor in the Japanese economy, ten thumbnail sketches below have been provided to help students understand the emergence of Japan's labor movement and compare its organization and practices with those in the West.

1. **Post-war growth of unions.** In Japan, workers' drive to form unions existed before the outbreak of World War II, but efforts were severely restricted. Under the direction of the Allied Occupation Forces, the liberalized Trade Union Law was passed in 1945 and thereafter unionization quickly grew. The Allied Occupation Forces considered unions to be among the structures needed to guarantee the growth and survival of Japan's newly established democratic system. Collective bargaining and workers' organizations were established to safeguard basic rights in the workplace. Union membership peaked at 55.8% in 1949, and by the 1970s stabilized at around 35%, which lasted until the period of the "bubble economy" (a period of rapid expansion followed by deflation) in the late 1980s. The large size of the union movement helped to perpetuate the collectivist thinking central to traditional Japanese society with its significant Confucian influences. This thinking, in turn, inhibited the development of the individualist mentality so characteristic of North American and some European societies and which is reflected in their economies.
2. **The democratic workplace.** Japanese management structures lack the hierarchical features of other market economies. Managers tend to dress the same as workers. They spend more time in the production areas and do not get paid a great deal more than the workers they manage. Workers are consulted more often about production and, as a consequence, they help to influence changes in technology and in workplace design, measures that have resulted in greater efficiency and innovation.
3. **Education and skills of the Japanese worker.** The Japanese work force is well educated, highly skilled, and flexible when adapting to changes that accompany the introduction of new technologies. "Japan's economic success is due in large part to the fact that its blue-collar workers can interpret advanced mathematics, read complex engineering blueprints, and perform highly skilled tasks in the factories."[4] In fact, "one of Japan's keys to success has been a secure, well disciplined, highly motivated, and intellectually sophisticated work force. In quality control teams, laborers join managers to accelerate efficiencies in the factory through attention to detail and a willingness to improve their own productivity."[5] The Japanese education system plays a significant role in preparing students for their later roles in the work force and in securing an optimum national level of education based on the principle of equal educational opportunity for all.

   Japanese society truly values education. Families make great sacrifices in order to provide the best education possible for their children.

Juku, or cram schools, are symbolic of the Japanese drive for high grades and admission to the best post-secondary schools. In addition, companies play a significant role in providing on-the-job training for their new workers. Training periods are extensive and often involve moving the worker around the organization to broaden his/her understanding of the entire company's operation. This is arguably one of the reasons for the development of strong company loyalties characteristic of the Japanese worker. By contrast, North American companies tend to expect the public education system and post-secondary institutions to provide them with fully trained graduates who require minimal on-the-job training. A good deal of the technological innovation that also characterizes Japan's success comes from the workplace culture where all three features interplay: democratic and consultative management structures; company training providing each worker with a well-developed view of the total company picture; and the high level of basic skills provided by the education system. These all contribute to great efficiency and worker loyalty.

4. **Enterprise unions.** One unique characteristic of unions in Japan is that they are organized within individual enterprises rather than by occupational groups. This means that a single union represents both "white collar" and "blue collar" workers. This has enabled union members in Japan to work more collaboratively with employers because they see their self-interest as being strongly aligned with the company's success. This is one of the reasons why technological innovations were readily accepted in the 1970s. Technology helped increase the companies' competitiveness which, in turn, favored positive contract negotiations for all employees. By contrast, unions in North America have frequently viewed technological innovation as a means of eliminating jobs. Enterprise unions are autonomous but many are affiliated with umbrella industry unions of national confederations. They may or may not follow the policy directions of their affiliated central bodies.

5. **Lifelong employment.** High unemployment plagued Japan for the first five to six years after World War II, but since then, unemployment figures have been negligible until the recent recession. Lifelong employment was introduced after the lengthy miners' strike in the 1950s. Since that time, low unemployment figures have been a well-known characteristic of the Japanese economy. However, in spring of 1999, Japan's rate of unemployment stood at 4.8% and then 4.6%, resulting in the US having the lowest rate among the G7 nations. Japanese companies resist laying off workers in order to "balance the books." Worker loyalty is evidently reciprocated. Recently, however, there has been mounting concern about the size of the payroll as many companies try to survive the current economic slowdown. Alternate methods such as job loss through attrition (retirements, etc.) and moving employees to different offices or subsidiaries have prevented the unemployment figures from skyrocketing. Many observers note that Japan's unemployment figures obscure the extent of joblessness. Unemployment remains high for workers under the age of 25, and women who "voluntarily" withdraw from the labor force after marriage. Also, some sectors of the economy have never enjoyed lifetime employment.

6. **Bonuses and the seniority-based system of pay.** Another feature that is closely related to lifetime guaranteed employment is the seniority-based system of pay. Together these practices provide incentive for employees to stay with one company for the duration of their work lives. However, some companies recently are changing their seniority-based system of pay. Workers' starting salaries are based on age and level of education and are generally low. Increases in pay tend to rise dramatically over the years, the biggest increases attained at between ten and twenty years of services. Since World War II, the practice of paying bonuses twice annually has spread to include all workers. Union leaders negotiate the size of the bonus during collective bargaining sessions.

7. **Rate of unionization.** June 1998 statistics place the number of unionized workers at a total of 12,093,000 union members. There has been a steady decline since the 1970s that can be attributed to two factors. One is the decline in the size of the secondary sector that has traditionally been the most heavily unionized sector in all market economies. The size of the service industry in Japan matches that of most other developed nations exceeding 65% of all

economic activity. Growth of public sector jobs in recent years has helped maintain overall union membership numbers since the government has been pumping money into the economy by expanding government services. Thus the growth in the public service and its unionized employee numbers have offset the growth in non-unionized service sector jobs. In addition, the decline in numbers has also been attributed to the lack of interest shown by younger workers who do not see the necessity of joining a union when they can simply enjoy all the gains that have been won when they are hired. Secondly, the decline in union memberships can be attributed to the restructuring of industries, particularly manufacturing. These declining numbers are a precondition that weakens unions. Ironically, the fragile state of the Japanese economy threatens workers with the greatest potential change in the job security they have traditionally enjoyed, yet their support for the unions which protect and defend their interests continues to decline.

8. **Confederations of unions.** There are three large trade union confederations that act as umbrella organizations for the majority of unions in Japan. The two largest confederations, Rengo and Zenroren, provide leadership on political and social matters related to labor issues. Their reconfiguration was part of a restructuring which occurred in the 1980s as a response to changing economic circumstances leading to the "bubble economy" years between 1989 and 1991.

   In response to international pressure, union leaders have been trying to push their plan for "demand-side" economic reform: raise wages, lower taxes and provide workers with more leisure time by reducing working hours. They oppose layoffs, increased use of part-time workers, and the overall intensification of work resulting from increased overtime. In addition, these confederations have demanded improved social programs on behalf of all workers and, as such, have waded into politics by lobbying, endorsing political candidates, and supporting various political parties. Over time, Japanese unions, particularly Rengo, have adopted a broad social outlook in defending workers' interests. The confederations attempt to provide leadership to the member enterprise unions that, in practice, tend to confine themselves to "bread and butter" issues, e.g. wages and working conditions. In this way, they have come to resemble the labor movements in Europe and North America where labor leaders pride themselves in having influenced public policy resulting in better social programs enjoyed by union and non-union members alike.

9. **Relations at the bargaining table.** Almost all of Japan's unions negotiate their contracts with their employers in the spring in what is referred to as "The Spring Offensive." Historically, strikes have been few. The unions have been viewed as docile and compliant but generally have won wage increases even if they have been modest. Cooperation and compromise at the bargaining table have been practiced much more by Japanese business and labor than in most other developed nations. But times are changing and intense foreign pressure is being placed on the Japanese government to adopt policies for economic restructuring similar to those policies adopted in the West. Yet, there is considerable reluctance to adopt draconian measures that would create drastic consequences: job losses, further intensification of work, and loss of public services. Rengo opposes such measures, emphasizing instead the need for organizing the unorganized as well as being "less understanding" at the bargaining table. The suggestion is that unions have been too willing to listen and understand the difficulties that company negotiators bring to the bargaining table, but now it is time that company negotiators listen to and understand the needs and difficulties of the workers.[6]

10. ***Karoshi.*** Many articles have been written about long work hours in Japan. Some deaths have been attributed to overwork and a new term, *karoshi,* has been coined to refer to this tragedy. Union leaders have explained how hard it is for workers to refuse overtime. The rules say that overtime is voluntary. However, refusing to work overtime is tantamount to a declaration that the worker never wants to advance in the company. Workers are not being laid off, but job loss through attrition means that workloads for many are increasing as companies chose to leave positions vacant.

Changing Times, Changing Attitudes

Since the 1990s, under pressure from unions and individuals, the Japanese government has been pledging to reduce work hours so workers may enjoy more leisure time with their families. However, significant change in legislation governing hours of work has not yet taken place. Workers and unions welcome such measures. Unions argue that the elimination of overtime would increase jobs and reduce the present rate of unemployment, the highest level since 1953 when unemployment statistics were first recorded. Workers are concerned about the effect that working long hours is having on their physical and familial health. Companies have been cautious in their hiring since every worker hired expects to be employed for life. Change is taking place both in workers' attitudes towards their companies and their devotion to work. Many characteristics of the worker and labor movement that contributed to Japan's fantastic economic growth will diminish as the post-war generation retires in the next few years. The graying of Japan, the increasing independence and employment of women, and the changing loyalties between workers and companies will have a profound impact on the Japanese workplace in the next millennium.

What is Happening to Labor During the Current Recession?

In literature analyzing the current recession, much is written about Japan's declining imports and the resulting shake-up of other economies that have relied heavily on the export of various commodities to Japan. Japanese financial institutions have been under pressure to disclose and reform their opaque lending practices. And since Japan is the largest creditor nation in the world, every government and stock market has felt the impact of Japan's economic woes. The United States continues to exert pressure on the Japanese government to accelerate the twin policies "privatization and deregulation." What people generally do not read about is the impact that all of these forces are having on the labor component of the Japanese economy. An examination of the issues raised by unions forces the consideration of fundamental questions about the distribution of wealth, the conditions of workers and families, who the economy must serve, and who pays the price of economic reform.

PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLES

Comparison of the Japanese Workforce with that of Other Countries

1. Ask students to carefully read the information in the Primary Source Materials section and consult some of the resources, including Web sites, in the Bibliography and Supplementary Resources section, and then answer the following questions:
   - How does the Japanese worker compare to workers in other countries for which you have data?
   - How would you describe the current role and importance of unions in contemporary Japan?
2. Ask students to draw inferences about the Japanese work ethic. Ask them to find data from the Primary Source Materials to support their positions.
3. Ask students to role play a contemporary bargaining session between a Japanese company/industry that is losing money and its union. Using data from the Primary Source Materials, ask students to prepare position papers, conduct discussions, and attempt to reach a resolution.

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Japan Institute of Labor: http://www.jil.go.jp/index-e.htm

Japanese Ministry of Labor: http://www.mol.go.jp/english/index.htm

Rengo Home page: http://www.jtuc-rengo.or.jp/english/index.html

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CONTEMPORARY WOMEN OF JAPAN

Barbara Bernard
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INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW/ RATIONALE

Before World War II, the common view of Japanese women was that dictated by Confucian philosophy in which the role of women was one of obedience in a male dominated society. Their domain was the household, and care for the children and the elderly. Women had little opportunity for formal education or work outside the home. During this prewar period, the women's movement in Japan worked to change this situation. They made improvements in education for girls and established a medical school for women. Organizations and magazines were started which addressed the concerns of women. They were also successful in gaining the right to initiate a divorce, but were denied the right to vote.

The new Constitution established gender equity and granted suffrage. As a result, Japanese women began to realize that there were alternatives to the familiar traditional roles of the past. As women tried to take advantage of these alternative paths and find work outside the home, they experienced many problems.

There is a wide gap between the law, which outlaws discrimination, and the reality of the workplace. Gender discrimination is evident in wage differences between men and women as well as in job opportunities and advancement. As of 1994, the average Japanese woman earned only 62 percent of the average Japanese male wage.[1] Part of the problem stems from the 1985 Equal Employment Opportunity Law (EEOL) which designated different paths of employment. This employment system offers tenured positions, followed mainly by men, which lead to managerial positions and untenured positions, which consists of office work, and the path that most women take. This employment system is an indirect form of discrimination. It is a system that is founded on the traditional roles of division of labor. However, it should be noted that as of April 1999, this different path system is prohibited and the names of companies that do not offer equal opportunities for men and women will be publicized.

Many in Japanese society view the work of women outside the home as temporary. When the woman marries or has a child, she is expected to stop working and devote her time to household responsibilities and child rearing. If Japanese women want to continue to work outside the home, they face the same problems that working women face in other countries. They must juggle work, household responsibilities, and child rearing. This is made more difficult for the Japanese woman because of the lack of support from her spouse, family, employer, and the government.

The Japanese system of division of labor dictates that the man works long hours to provide for the family and the woman takes care of the home and family. Using statistics from the Ministry of Labor, it is estimated that in 1994 the average male worked 441 hours of unpaid overtime. This makes it very difficult to share household and child rearing responsibilities. In addition, there is also a lack of adequate childcare facilities. Without much assistance, women try to juggle all their jobs and are unable to work the long hours and after work socializing that is required of men. This employment system tends to force many women to leave work while they care for their children.

The "quiet revolution" that is taking place in Japan is slowly changing attitudes and the stereotyping of women. The women's movement is focusing on awareness and addressing these concerns. This is being accomplished through establishing women's organizations, networking, and publishing newsletters. The *Yokohama Women's Forum* helps to make people aware of women's issues. It has reported that more women are attending four-year universities and entering jobs that were traditionally considered male jobs. The women's movement has also worked within the political system to end discrimination and to gain improvements for women.

This has prompted the government to take action to improve the situation of women. In 1985,

the Japanese Diet ratified the United Nations Convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women. As mentioned earlier, it also passed the EEOL in 1985 to promote equity in the workplace, but this law is considered inadequate because it has failed to take into account the male-oriented work system. The EEOL is in the process of being amended and the government plans to assist companies who try to take "positive action" to remove de facto discrimination. The amendment also eliminates the "female protection" clause that limits the amount of overtime that women can work, and which has been used by employers as an excuse not to hire women. Sexual harassment is also taken into consideration. This amendment is to take effect in 1999. In 1992, the Japanese government also passed the Child Care Leave and the Family Care Leave Laws. These are just a few of the laws passed by the Diet that illustrate that the nation is trying to change its social structure.

The Ministry of Labor has established a hotline to further awareness and to publicize events of interest to women. The Office of Gender Equality is also developing a Plan for Gender Equality 2000. While this plan is not law, it does set goals to promote equality. In addition, Japan took part in the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995. Also, The Center for Shorter Working Hours is concentrating on improving the employment system. There are various sectors of Japanese society that are taking part in this "quiet revolution."

PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS

Survey of Yokohama Women on Employment-Related Matters

The City of Yokohama conducted a survey of 4,000 Yokohama women aged 25 to 35 in September 1995. Questions covered a number of issues, including: their thoughts on employment and life style; their present employment status; family life and personal history (educational background, demographics, etc.); and policies which they would like to see put into place in the future.

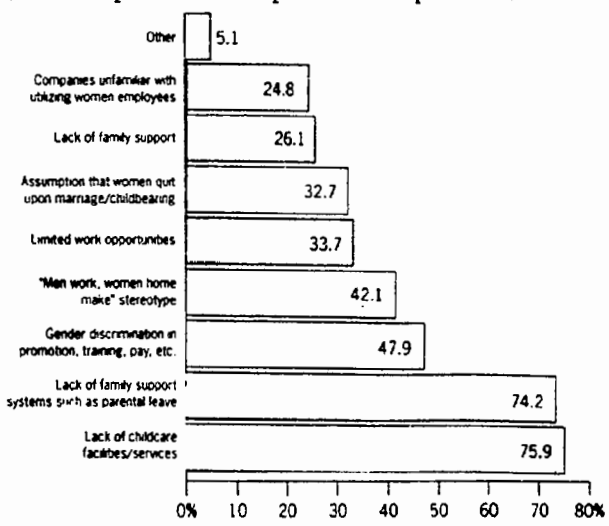
The results show that:

- The women who answered the survey were divided into two tracks: those whose participation in the labor force has been continuous, and those taking time out for childbearing and raising. However, the majority supported women's participation in the labor force.
- Around half of the women surveyed said that there are discrepancies between men and women in regard to promotion, pay, and placement in their workplace. Survey responses also indicated that women continue to bear most of the responsibility for housework and childcare even when both husband and wife are working.
- Half of the women surveyed quit or changed their jobs upon marriage or bearing a child. Common reasons cited were, "I married someone from the same office," "I wanted to devote all my time to bringing up children," or "I didn't think I could balance work and family."
- The most common requests for future policies were to increase the number of childcare facilities and services, as well as to promote awareness, at all levels, of the importance of creating a society in which men and women can participate equally in the labor force, housework, and child-raising.

The fact that many women quit work when they marry or have children, even though the majority of them would like to continue working, points to the strong hold that the sexual division of labor still has on Japanese society. In order to build a society in which women freely choose their own work and life styles, it is necessary to take broad measures to change public opinion and to create a social environment which is more accepting of women with various life styles.

Why is it harder for women to hold a job?

(1800 responses, multiple answers possible)



CITATION: *Yokohama Women's Forum #8*, Autumn 1996, 8.

"Survey: Young Shun Lifetime Employment"

Mainichi Daily News, Friday, 26 June 1998, B16.

"Japanese young people work hard, but about a third want to switch jobs, according to research conducted by the Ministry of Labor. The survey asked workers, who were all under 30 years old and employed in major industries, about their attitudes toward work. Among the 21,000 people questioned, 32% said they wanted to change their jobs. The separate figures for men and women showed that more women (26%) than men (4%) were looking for new occupations.

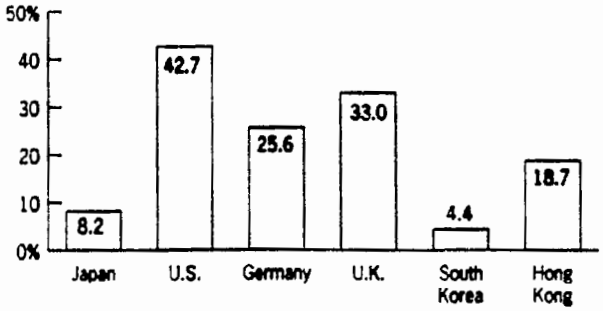
When asked why, 15% of the men said their company is not fully using their talents. Another 16% want to start their own business. On the other hand, the most common reasons given by the female workers were health or domestic-related, with 32.5% responding so. Many young employees simply answered that they have no wish to work in their current company for a long period of time. The survey results also showed that more than half of the workers questioned regard their private life as more important than their jobs. Only 16% put more emphasis on their work."

"Stubborn Gender-role Stereotypes"

Look Japan, March 1998: "Women at Work," 6.

"Karasawa Akihiro, a manager at an information-related company who has many women working under him, expresses his doubts this way, 'A look at the data gives the impression that extremely few Japanese women are appointed to managerial positions compared to Western countries, but I wonder if that is really the result of gender discrimination.'

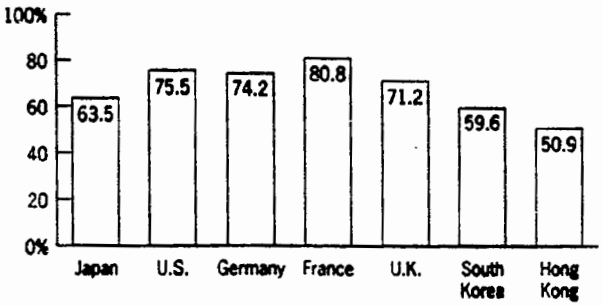
Percentage of women in managerial positions



SOURCE: *Annual Report on the National Life*, 1997.

Karasawa's feeling is that, in fact, most working women do not wish to work in the same way as men do. If working women in comparatively young age groups are questioned, nearly all cite gender discrimination at the office, but in fact their real inner desire is to have children and enter the home after working for only the first five or six years following high school graduation. Karasawa's perception is that, in fact, 90% of women consider their present jobs as merely temporary work prior to marriage and family, while only about 10% actually plan to pursue a career after marriage and childbirth."

Male/Female wage differential



Note: Male wage assigned a base value of 100.

SOURCE: *Annual Report on the National Life*, 1997.

"Female Workers"

Facts and Figures of Japan, 1997 Edition, 52.

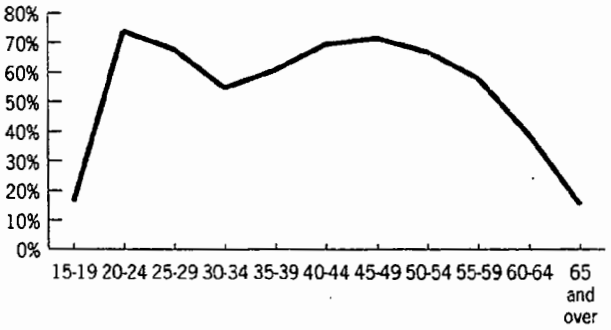
"According to Ministry of Labor statistics, the number of employed women increased by 4.7 million, or 22.0%, between 1980 and 1995, compared with 4.5 million, or 13.2%, for men. In 1995, women accounted for 40.5% of all workers. Behind this growth were such factors as women's heightened desire to work, the 1986 Equal Employment Opportunity Law, and the 1995 Family-Care Leave Law. Recent labor debate on sex equality has begun focusing not only on increased participation in the labor market but also on putting an end to wage and promotion discrimination, abolishing the protective clause in the Labor Standards Law restricting women's overtime work, and ceasing the payment of family allowances that are based on women remaining in the home."

Women's Share in Various Occupations by Country (%)

	Sweden (1995)	USA (1996)	W. Germany (1996)	Japan (1996)
Professional, Technical	64.2	53.1	–	44.8
Administrative, managerial	–	43.8	35.9	8.9
Clerical	60.6	79.1	57.3	59.4
Sales	47.5	49.5	68.4	34.7
Service	60.7	59.4	74.0	53.3
Farming, fishing	24.2	19.0	33.3	31.7
Prod., trans., manual labor	17.3	17.8	21.6	26.3
Others	50.0	–	42.5	–
Overall	48.3	46.2	42.5	39.2

SOURCE: (Figures for Japan) Ministry of Labor, Hataraku josei no jitsujo (Facts on Working Women), 1996; (figures for other countries) International Labour Organization, Yearbook of Labour Statistics, 1994.

Women's Work-Force Participation by Age



CITATION: *Facts and Figures of Japan,* 1998 Edition, 52.

Marital Status of Female Workers, Nonagricultural Sector

	Number of Working women (million)	Share of Total (%) Married	Never Married	Divorced or widowed
1965	8.9	38.6	50.3	11.1
1970	10.8	41.4	48.3	10.3
1975	11.6	51.3	38	10.8
1980	13.5	57.4	32.5	10.0
1985	15.4	59.2	31.3	9.6
1990	18.2	58.2	32.7	9.1
1993	20.3	57.1	33.5	9.4

CITATION: *Facts and Figures of Japan,* 1998 Edition, 56.

PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLES

The following lesson has been designed for the ninth grade level but can be used in a variety of social studies courses, including global history, world culture, sociology, or economics. While the topic deals with contemporary women of Japan, it is also appropriate for lessons relating to an understanding of the Japanese culture, equal rights, and comparative studies. This lesson will take approximately 5 class sessions but can be adjusted according to the needs of the class.

Resources Needed:

- Primary Source Materials – one copy for each student.
- Writing paper
- Poster paper or overhead transparencies and markers to make visual aid for presentation
- Video equipment if presentations are to be taped

Procedure:

A. Tell students to imagine that Japan's Ministry of Labor has appointed them to a taskforce. Their job is to investigate concerns of women relating to the lack of equity in the workplace.

B. Divide the class into five groups (5 different perspectives)
   Team 1 – business managers/administrators
   Team 2 – male workers in tenured positions
   Team 3 – unmarried female workers in tenured and untenured positions
   Team 4 – married female workers
   Team 5 – married female workers with children

C. Explain to the students that they are to be an active member of the group. Each person will have a job. It is possible to have more than one student assigned to a job, if necessary:
   - Chairperson – organizes team discussion
   - Recorder – records team number, people who make up the team, names of team members and their job
   - Secretary – takes group discussion notes in preparation for the report and presentation
   - Scribe – writes or types team report
   - Artist – creates visual aid for presentation
   - Presenter – oral presentation of team report with a plan of action to improve equity in the workplace

D. Once the students are in their teams, explain the activity. Begin by asking the class to explain what is meant by equity in the workplace and gender bias. To make sure that everyone understands the topic, ask students to give

some examples. These might include differences between male and female employees regarding salary, job opportunities, or promotions. When students have an understanding of gender bias and equity, distribute the various primary source data. Tell students to read and discuss the data, keeping in mind the people that they represent in the team and their various perspectives.

The question that each team must answer is: What is the best way to ensure equity in the workplace? This will be the team goal and the topic of each team's report and presentation. The teacher should guide the class in helping students develop criteria to evaluate their team goal.

Suggestions might include ways to:

- create equal pay for men and women
- create equal job opportunities for men and women
- change attitudes
- modernize the social structure
- make it easier for women to juggle job and family responsibilities

E. Once students have developed a criteria to be used as a guide to measure their task, give students time to:

- read and discuss the various data
- analyze the data and identify any issues or problems relating to equity in the workplace.
- take notes in preparation for writing and presenting the team report
- discuss what type of visual aid might be effective for the presentation (drawing, chart, graph, table, etc)

While the teams are working to reach their goal, the teacher will act as facilitator and move from group to group, offering help where needed.

Assessment:

- When students have discussed and analyzed the material, the scribe is to write or type the team report.
- The presenter from each team, along with the visual aid person, will present the team report to the class.
- Major points will be placed on the board for the class as a whole to discuss and come to consensus.

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http://pubweb.ucdavis.edu/documents/ggi/ggindex.html

SAWNET (South Asian Women's Issues)
http://www.umiacs.umd.edu/users/sawweb/sawnet

National Clearinghouse for US-Japan Studies
http://www.indiana.edu/~japan

UN Women's Conference (via IISD)
http://www.iisd.ca/4wcw/

United Nations Documents
http://undcp.or.at/unlinks.html

Women/s Online Media Project from Japan
http://wom.vcom.or.jp

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LET'S PLAY!: CHILDREN'S LEISURE TIME IN JAPAN

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INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW/ RATIONALE

Despite the stereotype of Japan as a nation of workers with little time to play, the Japanese take their leisure time very seriously. The social and economic traditions of lifetime employment, unpaid overtime, one-income families, and *juku* (cram school) are slowly being replaced by new ways of thinking. The current economic crisis and new educational reforms, coupled with a younger generation's embrace of Western culture and unwillingness to follow the status quo, mean a decidedly different lifestyle for young Japanese families and their children.

The "child-as-consumer" is a growing theme in Japan and companies are aggressively competing for their share of the youth market. Each time a child buys a toy or a family takes an excursion to a theme park or baseball game, they are supporting their local economy and increasingly, a dynamic and global economy. While young children are still egocentric and cannot wait to go to Disneyland or to have the latest video game, parents are all too aware that these leisurely pursuits cost money. This chapter attempts to convey to students that leisure activities cost money and have value, and that purchases are part of an international economy that relies on the trade of goods and ideas.

Before exploring the particular goods and services that are favorites among Japanese children, it is important to set the growing youth economy in the context of Japanese society at the close of the twentieth century. While allowances provide children with purchasing power, it is the working parent(s) who provide the allowance and the weekend excursions. Their hard-earned money is what really drives the children's leisure economy! To maintain continuity, all prices are given in *yen* and dollars at ¥138:$1, the average exchange rate of November 1998.

Work and Play in Contemporary Japanese Society

In the late 1980s, leisure time was given a boost by Japan's Ministry of Labor, when it reduced the legal working week from 48 hours per week to 46 hours per week.[1] It has continued to decline over the past ten years and now stands at 40 hours per week. While this has helped spawn the growth of the recreation, hospitality, and leisure industries, the reality in most urban areas remains that many Japanese workers continue to work beyond their 40 hours. This unpaid overtime (or "service overtime" as workers call it) amounted to an average of 441 hours per year per worker in 1995.[2] The days of "service overtime" may be numbered, however, as a few companies are being fined by government agencies for breach of the Labor Standard Law and in some cases, are being sued by their employees for back pay.[3]

Additionally, since the collapse of the "bubble economy," many companies are trying to minimize overtime and adhere to the 40-hour work week as a means of reducing costs.[4] Even the corporate expense accounts are being trimmed. Fewer hours of work should mean more hours to play, but this has not occurred because disposable income has not risen. However, the crowded aisles and checkout lines at Toys-R-Us in suburban Hiroshima, the throngs of families at Tokyo's amusement parks (including Tokyo Disneyland), and the increase in children's programming at museums and after school centers across Japan tell another story. People may be spending less on leisure activities, but to the casual observer, the current recession is non-apparent.

There is a desire for "quality time" among parents of young children, especially new dads, who recall the heroic hours spent by their fathers at work, but were unable to remember many leisure activities in which their fathers were involved.[5] Many parents have vowed to be more involved in their children's lives and to provide them with well-rounded life experiences. Family excursions and play are ways they reconnect after a busy week at work and at school.

The Changing World of the Japanese Child

Although it has been said that play is the work of children, one has to ask if this is true in Japan. Japanese children endure one of the longest school years of any industrialized nation, and many children attend *juku* up to four times a week. As they become adolescents, a sizable number of young people must start thinking about their university entrance exams, a source of great stress and angst. Incidences of bullying in school and numbers of violent juvenile offenders are on the rise and school refusal and drop out rates have become a nagging concern of educators.

To address these issues, the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture (Monbusho) has called for the introduction of reforms in the education system. These reforms place "...high value on the aspect of fostering children to have a sense of justice, kindness, creativity and consciousness as a member of international society, putting emphasis on individuality, as well as creating human resources which is the main resource of Japan."[6]

Among the reforms is a reduction in the number of hours in the school year. The six day school week has been reduced by shaving off two Saturdays each month, but by 2002, students will only attend school from Monday through Friday. A reduction in the class size is also sought. While published statistics show the teacher to student ratio in urban and suburban Japanese elementary schools is 1:21, in reality the ratio is closer to 1:40.[7] Monbusho's reforms also seek to provide enriched curriculum that fosters children's creativity and nurtures the power of individual children. This is a marked departure for a society that has placed great emphasis on the group over the individual.

Some parents and young people feel that while *juku* perpetuates the stressful academic life, it also provides children opportunities beyond the classroom to develop social and interpersonal skills. There also seems to be a small, but growing, revolt against *juku*, especially by younger parents. Many parents feel *juku* limits the creative potential of children and divides children into social castes.

PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS

Sports

Although the Leisure Development Center reported that bowling, gymnastics and jogging were the top three sports activities of adults.[8] Japanese children don't appear to share these interests. Among children in elementary and junior high school, soccer tops the list of favorite sports for boys while girls like swimming best. The 1998 World Cup games were followed closely by Japanese soccer fans (despite the stinging defeat of its team) and the 2002 World Cup, to be co-hosted with South Korea, will certainly help make soccer, already a favorite recess activity, increasingly popular among Japanese youth. Students closely follow the 18 professional soccer teams in Japan, as well as the 12 professional baseball teams. Baseball, adopted from the USA in 1930, is also popular among boys, who play on Little League teams across the country.

Books, Videos, and Toys

For Japanese children, there is no shortage of comic books and videos. *Manga* and *anime* are uniquely Japanese mass media pleasures that are popular among children and adults. *Manga*, sometimes called "graphic novels" in Western countries, are in essence serial comic books. These thick, black and white stories are popular among junior high students, with boys reading action-oriented *manga*, and girls reading *manga* featuring love stories and friendships among a clique.

Anime, animated movies, popular for decades in Japan, are now easily found in North America. *Anime* is different from most animation in that its characters are highly stylized and the background is rich with detail. The big hit in 1997 was the film *Mononoke Hime* (The Princess Mononoke), which became an even bigger hit when it was released to the home video market in summer 1998, despite its ¥5,000 ($36.00) cost.

Video games are also very popular. Nintendo 64 and Sony Playstation are the two market leaders, with games costing ¥5,980 ($43.00) for Nintendo 64 and ¥5,620 ($40.00) for Sony Playstation. The martial arts/action games are the most popular.

Other popular toys include merchandise from the *Pokemon* and Ultraman TV series. *Pokemon*, or Pocket Monsters, are widely successful video games for Nintendo's Game Boy unit, that have spawned coloring books, *manga*, a role playing card game, action figures, and most notoriously, a children's animated series that in December 1997 caused "convulsions and dizziness in hundreds of Japanese children after watching the bright flashing lights on the program."[9] Small *Pokemon* action figures cost ¥381 ($2.75) each, with nearly two dozen to choose from. Other popular action figures include characters from the Ultraman series

and the "original" Godzilla movies, not to be confused with the 1998 U.S. remake. Godzilla figures cost ¥600 ($4.35).

Surprisingly, a popular toy in Japan is a low-tech import from the United States, the yo-yo! There are yo-yo clubs and one can see yo-yos being spun in numerous places. Yo-yos can range in price from ¥500 ($3.75) to ¥4,500 ($32.50).

Collecting and trading cards is also a popular pastime for Japanese children. While baseball and basketball cards are popular in the U.S., Japanese kids (and Japanese adults who are kids-at-heart) can collect and trade sumo, fly fishing, and *anime* cards. Soccer, baseball, Ultraman, Sega Super Freaks (based on Sega video games) and Godzilla are favorites among boys, but girls have their favorites, too, including cards from the *Find Love manga* and *anime* series. Trading cards cost ¥200 ($1.45) per pack.

Girls have their favorite toys, too. While Barbie is big in Japan, she has a long way to go to catch up with Jenny, the leading doll in the Japanese toy market. Jenny dolls cost ¥2,880 ($21.00) each, while Barbie is ¥4,380 ($32.00). Japanese girls also collect Hello Kitty and Snoopy merchandise and Winnie the Pooh is becoming more popular among the pre-teen crowd. But nowhere is girl purchasing power more evident than in the success of *Purinto Kurabu* (*Purikura*, for short).

Purikura, "print club," is a machine that takes your picture and puts it on a sheet of 16 stickers. *Purikura* can be found in arcades (where they started as a way of enticing girls inside), train stations, toy stores, and outside of convenience stores. For ¥300 ($2.25), you can have your picture taken with friends or a series of *manga* characters or movie stars that the computer puts in the background. Trading stickers is a popular pastime of Japanese girls of all ages.

Amusement Parks and Museums

Children in Japan, like their Western counterparts, enjoy excursions with families to amusement parks. Nearly every major Japanese city has a small amusement park nearby, quite often within city limits. One of the oldest is Hanayashiki Amusement Park in Asakusa, Tokyo. This particular park caters to young children, as evidenced by the smaller size of rides, just right for a first or second grader. Admission to Hanayashiki is ¥800 ($5.75) for adults and ¥400 ($2.90) for children. Of course, the largest and most popular amusement park in Japan is Tokyo Disneyland.

Situated in Chiba Prefecture, the park has many of the same trademark attractions as its Florida and California cousins, such as "It's a Small World," "Country Bear Jamboree," and "Cinderella's Castle." And like its American cousins, admissions are not cheap. An excursion for a family of four (two adults and two children) costs ¥17,540 ($127.00), not including parking (or train fare), food or drinks, or souvenirs.

Another popular attraction for children and their families is in Tokyo. The Tokyo Studio Park is a theme park in the working movie sets of Toei Kyoto Studio. Here children can interact with *samurai*, *shogun*, *geisha*, and even monsters and watch as Japanese historical fiction is filmed before them. There is also the Padios building, which treats visitors to more modern theme park rides and simulators. Kyoto Studio Park, like many amusement and theme parks, is busiest in the summer. Admission for a family of four is ¥7,000 ($50.75).

Museums that cater to children are also popular destinations for families on weekends. Children's museums are a relatively new phenomenon in Japan but have quickly become favorites among children. The largest and busiest, The National Children's Castle (Kodomo No Shiro) in Tokyo, was dedicated in 1985. Here children have the opportunity to explore their creative side in the Art Studio (where an artist in residence works with them), play in one of three play halls (such as Waku Waku Land), and create music or investigate technology in the computer or AV rooms. Parents at the Children's Castle rave about its safe, interactive environment and affordable cost, ¥500 ($3.50) for parents and ¥400 ($2.90) for children. Their only complaint? Not enough places like it in the rest of Japan!

The Hiroshima Children's Museum, established in 1980, focuses on scientific inquiry and has a planetarium on site. It is a popular school field trip destination in Hiroshima and parents can enroll children in science and craft classes. It, too, is an affordable family excursion. Adults pay ¥410 ($3.00) and children pay ¥200 ($1.50).

Another museum in Hiroshima that attracts school children is the Mazda Museum. At the Mazda Museum, children learn about the history of the car manufacturer, the automobile manufacturing process, and the future of transportation. There are only a few hands-on activities, such as a clay modeling table and robot arm demonstration, but more are planned for the future. The Mazda

Motor Corporation was the first Japanese enterprise to open a "corporate museum," a combination visitor's center and showroom dedicated to the company's history and products. Admission to the Mazda Museum is free.

Another corporate museum, the Mitsubishi Minato Mirai 21 Industrial Museum, is located in Yokohama. The museum showcases Mitsubishi Heavy Industries scientific and technological contributions to Japan and the world, including the H-II rocket. Mitsubishi created the museum to encourage youngsters to enter careers in scientific and technical fields. Admission for adults is ¥500 ($3.50) and ¥200 ($1.50) for children.

Japanese Children in the 21st Century

Increasingly, there is a shared popular culture among today's youth that transcends national boundaries. Japanese youth are becoming more greatly influenced by Western culture while traditional Japanese leisure activities are becoming big hits in the West. *Tamagotchi* ("virtual pets") got their start in Japan then quickly spread to North American and European markets; the *Purikura* ("print club" machines) seem poised to be the next big Japanese leisure pursuit to experience success on foreign shores. Japanese pop music is starting to make an impact on US college radio stations, often the place where musical styles are heard first. Likewise, Western (especially American) toys and games are being adopted by Japanese children. Snoopy, Winnie the Pooh, and Star Wars merchandise are very popular. Children and adolescents may not know it, but their leisure time purchases are helping to fuel the international economy. The trading of toys, movies, video games, and other pop culture ideas helps to foster a greater appreciation of other cultures. Through play, children are preparing for the global village of the twenty-first century.

PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLES

Activity One: "The Cost of a Good Time"

Grade Level: 3-6

Materials: Dollar bill, chart paper or overhead projector and markers, pencils, paper, calculators, encyclopedia (print or CD-ROM) business section of newspaper (or Internet access to http://www.x-rates.com/htmlgraphs/JPY30.html)

Purpose: To introduce the concepts of currency and exchange; to make economic comparisons between local and Japanese leisure activities; to develop computation/calculator skills.

Resources: See Primary Source Materials section.

Method:

1. Hold up (or pass around) a dollar bill and ask, "What is this? What is it for? Why do we use money? Does everyone use the dollar?" Record answers for the class to see.
2. Have students research (if they do not already know) what the unit of currency in Japan is called (the *yen*) in an encyclopedia. Demonstrate that the *yen* is shown as ¥, just as the dollar is shown as $. Explain that each country in the world has its own currency (older students can do mini-projects on the different currencies used around the world).
3. Ask students if you can use dollars to buy, say, a Big Mac at a Japanese McDonald's or if a Japanese tourist can use *yen* to buy a pair of Air Jordans at your local mall. Why or why not? Record answers and discuss.
4. Ask for a student volunteer to look up the world "exchange" in the dictionary; record answer. Explain that in order for people to buy and sell goods or services in another country, you must first exchange currency, or trade it for the money that is used in that country.
5. Show students how to go online or look in the business section of a newspaper to find out what the currency exchange rate is between the Japanese *yen* and the U.S. dollar. Record on the overhead what the exchange rate is (e.g., ¥140 = U.S. $1.00). Ask students to compute (by hand or by calculator) how many dollars ¥280 is worth; ¥700; ¥1,400; ¥14,000.
6. Once students have become familiar with the concept of currency exchange, ask them to determine how much a *manga* (comic book) would be in dollars if it costs ¥550 (record on overhead; have students compute and explain how they came up with their answers). Demonstrate how to get the answer using a calculator (divide ¥550 by current exchange rate to get U.S. dollar figure).
7. Once students are familiar with concepts of exchange rates and the value of goods, ask them to compute the costs of the following leisure time activities in Japan based on current exchange rates (other examples can be found in the Primary Sources section).

   Batman and Robin on Pay Per View = ¥495

Barbie doll = ¥4,380
Trip to Tama Zoo, Tokyo = ¥200 (for kids)
Mountain Bike = ¥27,000
Sony Playstation video game = ¥5,620
coloring book = ¥200

8. Have students research the costs of these activities/goods in their own community. Why might something be more expensive in one country than in another? Does the currency exchange rate affect the price? Discuss.
9. Extension activity: Have students keep a daily log and graph the value of the *yen* against the U.S. dollar. Compute the costs of the goods and services previously explored on a daily basis to see how exchange rates affect consumer decision making (e.g., Would you rather wait for the *yen* to go down or go up to take a trip to Tokyo Disneyland?).

Activity Two: "Let's Trade!"

Grade Level: 3-6

Materials: sports or other trading cards, chart paper and markers or overhead projector, color paper strips: 5 red, 5 blue, 5 yellow, and 10 green, and 5 black slips of paper for trading game.

Purpose: To introduce the concept that traded goods and services have value; to explore the concept of trade among nations through a role playing game.

Resources: See Resources section at the end of this chapter for more ideas on trade.

Method:

1. Start by distributing trading cards to each student (or to groups of students); ask why they are called trading cards. Why do people trade and collect cards? Record student answers on overhead. Discuss that children in Japan collect and trade cards, too.
2. Discuss the concept of trade (ask for a volunteer to look up definition in the dictionary and record answer). Discuss that just as children might trade cards, or toys, countries trade things, too.
3. Brainstorm things that countries might trade and record a list on an overhead or chalkboard (i.e., cars, food, raw materials, etc.). Explain that trade is an exchange of goods usually worth an equal value, but not always.
4. Have students divide into five groups: black, green, red, blue, yellow. These colors represent countries that produce different goods, goods that the other countries want. The students will role play countries seeking to trade their goods for another country's goods.
5. Distribute the colored slips of paper to the designated groups (record color key on overhead projector for students to refer to during trading):
   Blue: clothing
   Black: energy (coal, oil, natural gas)
   Yellow: raw materials (wood, metals, minerals)
   Red: consumer electronics (televisions, stereos, computers)
   Green: food products (fruits, vegetables, grains, meats) 2 green strips = 1 other strip
6. Explain to students that a representative from each country (called an ambassador) must go to another group and trade for goods of equal value (model by taking 2 green food strips to the red country and exchange for one red strip of paper; return to group). Have students begin trading. The goal is for each group to end with one red, one blue, one black, one yellow, and two green strips of paper.
7. Ask students to share experiences. Was it easy? Was it fair? Did everybody get what they wanted? Which goods would a country need to survive? Which could it do without?
8. Now explain that they will trade again, only this time, there is an energy shortage (take away two black strips). How will this affect trading between the countries? Have students discuss within their groups which goods they want and how their student ambassadors can negotiate a win-win trade agreement to get them.
9. Have students begin trading (be prepared to mediate "trade disputes" between groups). What was the outcome this time? Was it fair? Did all the groups get what they wanted? Were there any disputes that needed to be mediated?
10. Have students (either in their groups or individually) describe the concept of trade in words and pictures. Make available old magazines and catalogs to be cut up and used in a collage.

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Activity Resources

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DEREGULATION IN THE JAPANESE TRANSPORT SYSTEM

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INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW/ RATIONALE

In the 1980s, the Japanese government eased or abolished many rules and regulations that had previously hampered progress and reduced efficiency in transport. Indeed, the most dramatic form of deregulation was the privatization of the Japan National Railways, which was split into separate regional companies.

In response to slow economic growth in the 1990s, the Japanese government has extended this process even further, stating that deregulating various sectors of the economy will have the effect of "simplifying administrative work, contributing to international harmony by promoting imports and expanding domestic demand."[1] This means promoting more competition in price, levels of efficiency and the range of choice with the effect of stimulating consumer demand. Beginning in the mid-1990s, new sectors have been targeted for deregulation each year, with transport/distribution still a key sector.

Although deregulation is one of the top priorities of its government today, Japan is still criticized for its high level of protectionism and conservatism in certain industries, one of them being the transport industry. Few foreign transport companies have been able to establish themselves in Japan and regulations often prevent even new Japanese companies from coming into the market to compete with established companies. This chapter explores these obstacles by looking at the airline, shipping, trucking and taxi industries.

However, a note of caution must be sounded before leaping in to roundly condemn the mass of government regulations controlling and surrounding almost every aspect of business enterprise in Japan. Some fear that competition and the elimination of established rules and practices can lead to unemployment, insecurity and change, all of which are already occurring. Abolishing the controls also challenges something deep in Japanese culture and society. Japan is a society with an enormous respect for tradition and established ways of doing things. As the chill winds of globalization and free-floating international currency and capital hit the Japanese economy, there will be even more instability and insecurity. It is true that corruption, cronyism and the protection of established interests sometimes occur in Japanese commerce, but it is also true that the system attempts to support its citizens, providing a safety net and a guarantee against the free fall of unbridled market competition.

PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS

Airlines

In the domestic airline business, regulations on price setting and routes have been relaxed to encourage competition among companies. Although Japan Airlines has a strong and predominant presence at key international airports in Japan, the number of passengers and carriers has been constantly increasing into the late 1990s. For example, at the New Tokyo International Airport (also known as Narita Airport), by "January 1997, 50 airlines from 38 countries utilized the airport, with approximately 341 landings and departures daily."[2] Quite apart from the number of passengers (the sixth largest in the world), the volume of freight handled at Narita is the highest of all airports in the world. The Kansai International Airport, in Osaka, opened in 1994, and is distinctive for a number of reasons. Not only does it have a beautiful terminal, but it is built on a specially constructed artificial island in Osaka Bay and supported by hundreds of hydraulic lifts. It is providing expanded service and access by a greater number of international carriers.[3]

One of the key regulations that effects all forms of transport in Japan (apart from zoning and fares/fees/charges/controls) are the entry barriers. There is a supply-demand balancing provision, set by the government, which is intended to prevent excess supply: this of course is a major obstacle to competition in all aspects – provision, price, efficiency, and service.

The government will be reducing its control of the price of airline tickets and, just as important, the supply-demand rule will be abolished for air transport by 1999. Two companies have already entered the domestic airline business. Skymark flew its first flight (Haneda-Fukuoka) on September 20, 1998 and Hokkaido Airlines flew its first flight (Haneda-Shin Chitose) on December 20, 1998. This will have the effect of reducing prices. One of the new companies has said it can reduce fares by 50% on the Tokyo-Sapporo route, the busiest route in the world. However, after the completion of a new runway at Haneda Airport (Tokyo) the new companies have been given only a few landing and take-off slots whereas the established three leading companies were given significantly more. This casts doubts on the seriousness of intentions to invite competition. Nonetheless, benefits of competition are already evident as ticket prices have begun to decrease. This downward trend should continue under the 1998 U.S.-Japan civil aviation agreement that should significantly liberalize the bilateral civil aviation market.[4]

Shipping

There are many government controls operating in the shipping industry. According to a recent study, many serious impediments to competition in this industry are the result of the Harbor Transport Business Law. It is difficult to obtain harbor transport and shipping licenses, thus new entrants are discouraged. This has the effect of controlling competition. The "prior consultation system" presents another obstacle. In Japan, when a shipping company moves, the employees of affiliated handling companies and the dockworkers must also move in order to retain their employment. The "prior consultation system" requires that when a shipping company wants to transfer to a different terminal, it must consult with the Japan Harbor and Transportation Association, then the Japan Harbor and Transportation Association must consult with the dockworkers' unions. However, due to foreign pressures and globalization, the Japanese government has agreed to review, and amend if necessary, the "prior consultation system" as well as the Port Transportation Business Law.[5]

The KKC Fellows visited the NYK Container Terminal on Rokko Island, Kobe. NYK is a member of the Mitsubishi conglomerate or *keiretsu*. The NYK Container Terminal on Rokko Island is a massive container depot with lorries and ships exchanging cargo throughout the day using giant transfer cranes and super gantries. It is well-organized and computerized and delivers a high level of efficiency. The terminal was damaged during the 1995 Kobe earthquake and lost a lot of its business. However, it has now won back much of its business through good marketing, good service, competitive prices, and through efficiency savings via increased productivity. This is all imperative because it is competing with other container docks in other parts of Southeast Asia.

The one example of deregulation volunteered to me in a short interview with Mr. Y. Ohara, assistant manager of Mitsubishi Logistics Corporation, was the reduction in controls. At one time, various official records of business activity had to be submitted to the appropriate government board for scrutiny and official stamping. Now, they are just passed on as routine and with no delay.[6]

Trucking

As of 1997, trucking accounts for 90.9% of Japanese domestic freight transportation; shipping accounts for 8%; railways account for 1.1%, and air freight accounts for 0.01%. Domestic air freight is almost negligible. It is interesting to compare these figures with other countries. For example, in the United States, trucking takes 27% of the market with railways taking 37%. In the European Union countries, trucking takes 72% of the market share and railways 16%.[7]

Due to excessive government rules and entrenched commercial traditions in trucking leading to inefficiency, there seems to be wide agreement on the need for regulatory reforms. In fact, there has been a gradual easing of controls from the 1980s onwards. There are now routine deregulation talks between the Ministry of Transport (MOT), the transport trade unions and employers. The Ministry has a three-year plan from 1998 to 2000 to move forward on deregulation, particularly in the following areas:

- restricted business areas/zones of truck operators
- controls on entry and the minimum number of trucks owned by truck operators
- controls on tariffs/fees
- controls on types of cargo handled by each operator
- vehicle inspection rules

Commercial trucking began in Japan in 1907 and by the 1990s has become a service with

1,192,000 employees with around 45,000 trucking firms. There are several general transport companies in Japan. Two of the largest are Nippon Express and Yamato Transport. As of 1997, Nippon Express owned 25,000 trucks and as of 1998, Yamato Transport owned 25,765 trucks. Still, many trucking companies are small to medium-sized companies with less than fifty trucks (compare this with one of the largest trucking companies in the UK, Eddie Stobart Ltd, with over 900 trucks). Additionally, there is the steadily growing component of small parcel, door-to-door delivery service.

There are still many regulations governing trucking, such as restrictions on companies wishing to obtain licenses to enter the trucking business, even though Keidanren (the Japan Federation of Economic Organizations) has asked the Ministry of Transport to eliminate all requirements related to the 'business' abilities of companies wishing to enter the trucking business. There are many other business laws for the trucking industry limiting and regulating activity. For example, special licenses are required for each type of trucking company (whether general or exclusively linked to serving another firm) and licenses are valid for regions and determine movement in and out of regions. This system contributes to high overhead costs in personnel, equipment, and facilities.

There are some sectors of the industry that are cautious and even opposed to certain elements of deregulation. For example, Unyu Roren, one of the trucking unions, does not want to see any slackening of rules that would affect drivers' working hours and traffic safety. They would also oppose the introduction of individual owner/operators because of concerns about safety standards. If entering the market, owners must have a minimum of 5 trucks. In the US and in the UK, single owner/operators do exist. The union would also resist the move away from local and regional licenses towards the introduction of a national licensing system, allowing trucks to travel throughout Japan. They say this would mean long hours and would not work because there is a lack of a national system of rest stops for long-distance truckers.

Charges, fees, and rates have to be approved by the MOT, which determines if the costs and profits are reasonable. There has been some price flexibility allowed since the 1990s deregulation but the MOT still has to be informed of price adjustments, although no longer do truck operators have to await permission to change the prices. Nevertheless, overall, charges are still higher than in the US. Unyu Roren is opposed to any change. Most airports in Japan do not operate on a 24-hour schedule, so much freight transfer, via many forms of transport, has to occur during the day. So the impediments for imported goods include high cost and limited hours for onward dispatch. The US would like Japan to deregulate because of the expense of moving goods within Japan. For example, it can be cheaper to send cargo from San Francisco to Kobe than it is to send the cargo by road from Kobe to Tokyo. Japanese manufacturers also want deregulation because they consider the costs of internal distribution to be prohibitive. With globalization, there is greater demand and therefore increasing pressure on trucking to change.[8]

The trucking sector may need a radical overhaul. It is experiencing difficulty in recruiting new drivers. There is an aging population and truck driving is not seen as attractive among the young because it is 'three K' work – *kitanai* (dirty), *kitsui* (difficult) and *kiken* (dangerous). On the other hand, this may be an opportunity, because there is too much traffic on the roads, to make greater use of rail, sea and air.[9]

Taxis

Taxis in Japan are no different from other forms of transport in terms of being subjected to a wide variety of controls affecting their business operations. But also, like other transport in Japan, change is underway. The Ministry of Transport's control over the number of taxis and the fares they can charge is being gradually relaxed. The high fares for taxis have been partly responsible for a decline in passengers over recent years. The MOT will allow an increase in the number of taxis as the excess supply rule (the 'supply-demand balancing provision') is completely eliminated in 2001. The MOT is also reducing the minimum fleet size requirement for a new taxi company to ten taxis, thus allowing smaller operators to set up business and create some competition. The restrictions on zones covered or business operation areas will also be reduced.[10]

These changes will not come about just because the MOT has decided to implement them. They have been proposed for some time and concessions have been hard won, sometimes as a result of court battles. The problems and

issues associated with deregulation can be illustrated in a case study or example from just one taxi company.

A Case Study of MK Taxis, Kyoto

MK Taxis of Kyoto was founded by its current president, the legendary Mr. Sadao Aoki. His commitment to high quality is obvious, emphasized in his lecture to the KKC Fellows, in newspaper stories about him and through observations of his taxi service. In Kyoto, he has built up a fleet of nearly one thousand limousines and taxi buses. The drivers are attired in smart uniforms, designed by Hanae Mori, one of Japan's top fashion designers. They wear white gloves; they are courteous and open the door for customers. Some drivers are tour guides speaking good English. MK's drivers have first aid training and take people to hospital often more quickly than ambulances. Twenty years ago, MK made special efforts to accommodate disabled passengers – way ahead of its time as a caring, equal opportunity gesture. Public transport then followed this lead.

Like many Japanese entrepreneurs, Aoki is committed to the welfare of his workers. Over the years, he has upgraded their salaries well above those in other taxi companies, assisted them with buying their own houses, provided garages at their homes so they could keep the taxis at home – against ministry opposition because the Ministry of Transport had to give permission for garages. He has even paid for some drivers to go to England to study English.

Over the years, many of his innovations have confronted the strict regulations imposed on taxis by the government. He has also encountered strong opposition from transport trade unions and other taxi operators when, for example, in 1982, he decided to cut fares. He needed ministry approval to do so, and since it was not forthcoming, he sued the MOT and won the court case in 1985. After the ministry appealed in 1989, a compromise was reached. In 1993, he tried again to get permission for a discount service, with opposition once more from other operators.[11]

Sadao Aoki is now set for battle with Tokyo. Beginning with 84 cabs, he hopes to expand this to 5000 by the next millenium. Already, he is making waves and taking on the usual opposition – the ministry, the trade unions and other taxi operators. These rival operators are already applying to the MOT to lower their fares. "For the past 50 years, the Transport Ministry has decided everything about the taxi industry, such as fares; and taxi operators did not have to think of ways to attract customers because they did not have to compete with each other," he said. The concept of improving services is therefore lacking in the taxi business because of this overprotection by the Transport Ministry's strict regulations. "But after deregulation, taxi operators will have to decide everything themselves, from fares to services," Mr. Aoki said.[12]

In any list of outstanding companies in Japan – featured because of exceptional service, product and success – MK Taxis is usually there, even though the company is very small. In one list, the companies included Honda, Toyota, Panasonic, Sharp, Hitachi and 9th position for MK Taxis, with Mitsubishi Motors in 10th place![13]

PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLES

From the start it needs to be said that the aim of the classroom work with senior high students is to encourage them in the following ways:

- to develop an understanding of Japan's uniqueness
- to develop an understanding – in terms of this chapter – of the circumstances and processes of deregulation in the transport sectors in Japan

The USA, Canada, Australia and the UK – all have the usual range of transport services. Like Japan, they are all market economies. However, beyond laws governing safety which they all have, the Japanese system seems the most regulated in terms of business laws. There are two kinds of work students could do, both interrelated. They could specialize, possibly as group tasks, in one form of transport in Japan and then conduct a similar study of the same form of transport in their own country.

1. Depth Studies and Projects on Aspects of Transport in Japan

A group or an individual could study one form of transport in Japan, for example, trucking, while another group looked at another form, such as taxis. Within the class, all the types of transport might be examined. The basic information presented in this chapter could be made available. In addition, some of the references and background papers are available from Japan or from Japanese information services or embassies. In the case of the USA, there are many research and joint USA/

Japan research/information organizations (see Bibliography and Supplementary Resources). The teacher could send off for copies of documents and briefing papers so students would have resources to consult in their own way. There is Internet access to some information, for example, from the Japanese Ministry of Transport, but only some of this is in English.

2. Depth Studies and Projects on Aspects of Transport in Students' Home Country

Students could use the same sources and approaches as above. The information may be more easily available in their own country on any of the transport systems and there could be a local or a national flavor to the inquiry. Some could be document material acquired by the students or for the students by the teacher. Students could actually conduct their own interviews by visiting senior personnel at a local bus, taxi, truck, train, airline or shipping company to find out the extent of regulation. For example, what rules govern trucking:

- safety rules and inspections of trucks
- hours of work, times and breaks permitted and required for the drivers
- tax and licenses for trucks
- ownership and registration rules for new trucks or new operators
- compare employer perspectives and trade union views
- any zoning or interstate rules

The teacher could enable students to develop an economic understanding of the system in Japan and their own country through the acquisition of basic information and through explorations at the higher level of economic theory and processes, key ideas, and concepts. Some of these might include the following:

- pricing systems for the service
- supply and demand
- competition
- profitability
- the effect of emerging safety laws on cost and competitiveness
- efficiency of the service (in economic and operative respects)
- access and availability of the service
- quality of the service (customer satisfaction)

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Web Sites

Japan Access is a series of brief summaries on a wide variety of topics, including "Transportation" and "Deregulation," located on the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Japan web site, http://www2.nttca.com:8010/infomofa/

Japanese Ministry of Transport http://www.motnet.go.jp/mthome.htm
Most of the information is in Japanese but there are some English summaries.

A good source for general information is Japan Information Network http://jin.jcic.or.jp/

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EXPLORING CRIME IN JAPAN

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INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW/ RATIONALE

Society, for better and worse, is often a reflection of the surrounding economic environment. While some believe that Japan's current social challenges, such as a rising crime rate, are societal, others feel that some social problems have roots in the recent tumultuous economic conditions. This chapter explores crime in Japan and some possible contributing economic causes.

Generally, Japan is not a confrontational society. Often minor disputes are resolved through the demonstration of sincere regret and apology. The number of people in the legal professions is small. According to the *Japan Almanac 1999*, there are only 2,919 judges, 1,274 public prosecutors, and 16,850 lawyers in Japan. This is fewer lawyers than in the state of Pennsylvania. The number of police in Japan is also small; Japan has fewer police per citizen than any other major country.

With the downturn in the economy has come an increase in social problems that sometimes extend to include criminal activity. While crime statistics had been rising in the 1980s, for most crimes and particularly the more serious crimes, the statistics have gone up every year since 1991 (the year the economic "bubble" burst). Homicide, robbery, burglary, larceny, and arson have increased. The police, press and the citizenry have all become concerned with this emerging trend. The increase in crime leads to measures to reduce the crime, which come at a significant cost.

The economic situation in Japan began to slide in 1991, and Japan's position in the Asian and world economies declined. In 1996, investigations into Japan's economic downturn suggested that *yakuza* (organized crime) influence, especially in the form of mob payments, had spread to government and corporations.

Japan's image as an international leader risks being damaged by increasing crime. While all serious crimes are up, thefts of one kind or another have risen dramatically. Robberies of banks and post offices, which also function as savings institutions in Japan, went up from 68 in 1990 to over a 100 in 1993-94. This period also experienced an increase in crimes associated with credit and cash cards. In the same period, burglaries were up 12.3 percent and general robberies were up 37.4 percent. While these statistics indicate a problem, it should be remembered that even with these increases, Japan has by far the lowest crime rate of any leading nation and one of the highest arrest rates.

Recent reports in the Japanese press have covered violent crimes, as well as the punishments for these crimes, and have provided detailed justifications for the death penalties that have been handed down. The Japanese press has also been forced to devote more coverage to youth crime since juvenile crime, as well as bullying in the schools, has been on the rise. Japanese newspapers have provided a forum for the debate on how best to deal with this particular surge in crime.

Concern for Japan's increasing social problems is being voiced throughout Japanese society. One Japanese housewife explained to the Keizai Koho Center Fellows that her family moved to a safer neighborhood as a result of this growing concern. The manager of a large department store, in light of a significant increase in shoplifting, doubles his security force during after-school hours. The police, too, are concerned about the increase in crime. Police in Kyoto, Hiroshima, and Tokyo expressed concern for the crime problem in Japan to KKC Fellows.

Economics can impact many aspects of a society, including crime. That is, poor economic conditions resulting in a high unemployment rate, high corporate and personal bankruptcy rates, and general despair, can lead some to commit crimes. Japan is now facing social problems resulting from poor economic conditions that have plagued other nations for decades. How Japan deals with these issues will be an indication of what kind of nation Japan has become and what international role it will play in the future.

PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS

Number of Criminal Offenses per 100,000

1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
1637	1708	1742	1841	1784	1783	1812

Source: National Police Agency

Number of Police Calls ("Dial 110")

1985	3,473,198
1987	3,587,690
1989	4,293,722
1991	4,691,999
1993	5,047,390
1995	5,709,973

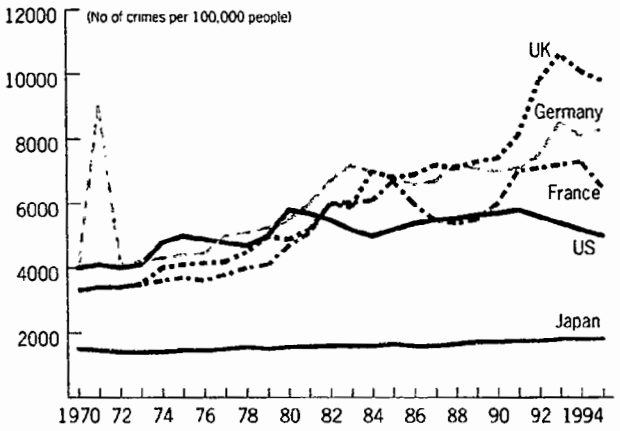
Source: National Police Agency

Number of Selected Penal Code Offenses Known by Police

Category of Crime	1991	1992	1993	1994
Felonious Offenses	6,014	6,338	7,064	7,320
Homicide	1,215	1,227	1,233	1,279
Robbery	1,848	2,189	2,466	2,684
Extortion	9,582	10,048	11,225	11,226
Larceny (non-vehicle)	804,191	812,040	871,542	894,001
Fraud	46,427	48,900	47,341	52,047
Stealing of Lost Property	51,406	55,997	59,820	66,629

Source: National Police Agency

Crime Rates in Developed Countries



Source: *Japan 1999: An International Comparison.* Tokyo: Keizai Koho Center, 1999, 112.

Selected Headlines from Japanese Newspapers[1]

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"Man Arrested on Suspicion of Killing Wife"

"Father Gets Four Years for Starving Girl, 2, to Death"

"Thieves Steal Safe Containing 76 million Yen"

"Court Upholds Police Brutality Ruling"

"Acquitted Boy (Cleared of Reckless Driving) Held over Fake Alibi"

"Cop Quizzed over Pilfered Lost and Found"

"Man Held in Death of Off Duty Police Officer"

"6-year-old's Murderer gets 13 years in Jail"

"Man Gets 12 Years in Strangulation"

Excerpt: "Report: Violent Youth Crime on the Rise"[2]

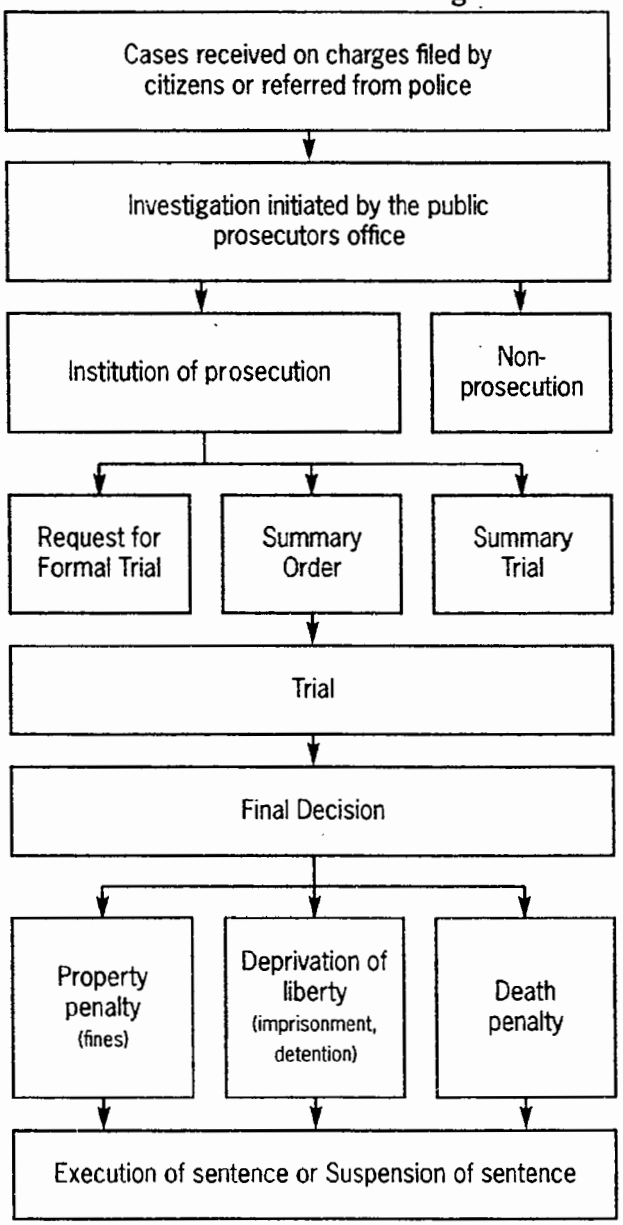
"The number of juvenile delinquency cases has been gradually rising ... more knives are being used in crimes such as murder and attempted murder, the Justice Ministry said.... The report was compiled by a committee on juvenile crimes comprising the heads of the ministry's bureaus of Criminal Affairs, correction and rehabilitation, and of the ministry's Research and Training Institute. The number of delinquency cases by people under 20 (came) to stand at some 270,000 in 1995, the report said. However, in 1996, the number increased to about 280,000 and rose to approximately 300,000 last year, it said."

Excerpt: "Changes Urged for Kids' Sake"[3]

"Change can begin with one small step, especially when it concerns trying to save today's troubled Japanese youngsters, who are said to have become less patient and more violent in recent years, the head of a government panel on education said. The panel listed 87 ways to nurture and discipline children at home, at school, and in their communities. In the wake of recent violent crimes perpetrated by schoolchildren, the report included some basic – if not common sense – suggestions, such as 'communicate more with children' or 'strictly teach and correct children regarding their wrongdoings.' Some critics doubt such a conceptual report will have an effect on what may be a deeply rooted problem, but Tsutomu Kimura, head of the panel insists that it will be affective if each person starts by making a small change. One example is for parents to go straight home from work and take a little time to talk with their children. Postwar Japanese society has made economic success its prime goal, intensifying the war of college entrance exams and making children's lives stressful and human relations shallow. Fed by

money-driven values, many Japanese in high positions did not attain a sense of noblesse oblige. Parents must be good teachers of social rules, showing by example consideration for others, such as holding a door open for the next person to enter. Kimura believes that the Japanese are a well-balanced people who can be steered by good leaders to achieve a goal. Government can start by providing trained school counselors... and space for children to play, relax, and have fun."

Flow Chart of Criminal Proceeding



Adapted from Ministry of Justice: www.moj.go.jp

PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLES

A number of meaningful lessons can be developed from the material presented in this chapter and in conjunction with other materials in this book and elsewhere. These lessons can be conducted consecutively or selectively with other lessons on Japan, or in the study of the criminal justice system in another country, where a comparison with Japan might be worthwhile.

Lesson 1: After Japan's Bubble Burst

Method:

- Prepare transparencies showing the downturn in the Japanese economy; include information on stock market prices, interest rates, and value of currency.
- Have students propose some reasons for the economic downturn, then share with them additional information from this chapter.
- Pair students to analyze the graphs, Number of Criminal Offenses and Number of Police Calls. Have each student pair write two generalizations drawn from the information presented in the graphs. Ask students to share their responses with the class. Ask students to explore whether there might be any connection between the increase in crime and the downturn in the economy.
- Ask students if they think that poor or worsening economic conditions can lead people to crime. Ask them to give examples.
- In pairs, have the students analyze the chart, Selected Number of Penal Code Offenses. Ask students to identify any patterns they see and the types of crime categories that are involved. Ask them what economic costs these crimes have. Be sure that they understand that the cost also includes the prevention of these crimes.
- Check for understanding by asking students to write a short paragraph describing the point of the lesson.

Lesson 2: Japan's Crime Problem?

Method:

- Ask the class whether or not the United States has a crime problem. Ask students to give examples of or evidence for their responses. Is this problem the same or worse than in other countries? Ask students whether or not crime

affects their lives. How does the United States deal with its crime problem?

- Share with students the newspaper headlines presented earlier in this chapter. Ask them to keep in mind the information from the graphs and charts used in Lesson 1, and to conduct a search on the Web for additional data. In pairs, have students discuss whether or not Japan has a crime problem. Students should be able to identify which aspects of Japanese society are impacted by crime. Ask students to consider whether or not the methods that the United States employs to address crime issues would be applicable in Japan. Make sure that students offer knowledge and data to substantiate their opinions.
- Discuss with the class the information about crime from the background reading, especially the views of the housewives, store owners, and teachers. Share what the police say ought to be done about crime. Are these the same methods previously discussed? Will they work? Do they work?
- Distribute the chart, Crime Rates in Developed Countries. Ask student pairs to analyze this chart. What does the chart indicate about crime in Japan? To what extent does Japan have a crime problem?
- Check for understanding by asking students to create a cartoon that illustrates the idea of the lesson.

Lesson 3: For the Sake of Japan's Kids

Method:

- Remind students of the ideas and materials from the previous lessons. Ask them to look at the charts, Number of Criminal Offenses and Number of Police Calls. Have students recall the pattern of crime that is indicated and its cause.
- Have the students read "Report: Violent Youth Crime on the Rise," comparing it to the crime trend in Japan. Why may it be seen as more important?
- In groups of three or four, ask students to create a plan for reducing juvenile crime in Japan. Have them consider what is done in the United States and in US schools to reduce juvenile crime.
- In these small groups, ask students to read, "Changes Urged for Kids' Sake." Have students compare this reading with their plans for reducing crime in Japan.
- Discuss how alternative methods work. Ask students to list the advantages and disadvantages of each. Which do the students think would be effective?
- Check for understanding by having the groups present the arguments for the strategy they think would be more effective.

Lesson 4: The Criminal Justice System

Method:

- Distribute to students a copy of the diagram of the Japanese criminal justice system. Go over the diagram to ensure that students understand each part of the system.
- With the diagram of the Japanese criminal justice system in front of them, have students in groups attempt to diagram the U.S. system. Ask them to consider how the American and Japanese systems are the same and different. Prepare and show students a diagram of the U.S. system. Discuss the two systems, emphasizing the similarities between them.
- Have students suggest a hypothetical case and take that case through the Japanese system. Refer to the background information about the system and add appropriate information to the discussion.
- Check for understanding by having the students organize a list of mixed up parts of the Japanese system, and then writing an essay explaining which system they would rather live under and why.

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THE CHANGING ROLES OF JAPANESE WOMEN

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INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW/ RATIONALE

Women's roles throughout the world have been in a state of evolution as the world surrounding women has changed. Each era has experienced unique events that have influenced the people living within its time frame. Of particular interest to women's rights advocates is the period of time immediately following World War II when the principles of democracy and equality were introduced into Japanese society by occupation forces and were in conflict with the existing female roles of obedience to husband and elders. An examination of post-WWII Japan can provide evidence to support the hypothesis that there has been a shift in the roles and status of Japanese women and that this shift has had a significant impact on Japan's economy.

Gender issues are very much a part of current global legal struggles. As women throughout the world begin to achieve equality in the work force, it is interesting to review the impact that shifting social roles have had and continue to have on the economies of families, nations, and the world. These changes and how they are affecting Japan are the subject of this chapter. The Japanese government has enacted legislation to fight gender-based discrimination in job opportunities, wages and advancement. This chapter will compare the participation rate of women in the labor force by age and rank, examine the ratio of women employed by marital status, explore hiring trends by gender, and investigate women in managerial positions.

What have been the traditional roles of Japanese women?

Before it is possible to examine the shift in the roles of women in Japan, it is necessary to understand what the traditional Japanese women's roles have been. Many perceptions of the life of Japanese women are based upon images from Hollywood films and/or novels that have hyperbolized the glamour of the *geisha* and the ceaseless labor of the peasant worker. It has been difficult for Japanese women to escape these gender stereotypes. Students must understand what the traditional roles of women have been in order to appreciate the major shift that has taken place since WWII. Students also need to be aware of the obstacles to workplace equality that Japanese women still face today.

Traditionally, Japanese women have born the responsibility for childcare, schooling, cooking, laundry, cleaning, family money management and the care of elderly family members. This labor-intensive existence left women little time for activities outside the home. The demands placed upon the wife were made not only by the husband, but also by the husband's parents as respected members of the extended Japanese family. It was not uncommon for a household to include the husband, wife, their children, their parents, and often their grandparents all living under the same roof. These expectations of Japanese women were firmly ingrained in pre-WWII Japanese society where there was little room for deviation from expected roles. The family lifestyle described above is very different from the lifestyle of most contemporary U.S. families. Students should be able to contrast the former lifestyle of Japanese women with the lifestyle in homes with which they are familiar.

Why have women's roles changed in Japan?

Principles of democratic government were introduced to Japan after its defeat in WWII. The Japanese adopted many of these ideas as restructuring took place. Over the past fifty years, the widespread influence of U.S. and Western societies, combined with Japan's rapid economic growth, have resulted in many changes in the traditional Japanese way of life. Most contemporary Japanese families do not resemble the traditional extended family described above. The decrease in the size of Japanese families has contributed to an increase in time available to the female parent. The lines separating traditional male/female roles are beginning to fade. Japanese husbands in their

mid-thirties describe a shift toward the father and mother working cooperatively to ensure the success of the family. The traditional roles of the husband as the income winner and of the wife as the caregiver are breaking down and are being replaced by roles in which responsibilities are shared more equitably.

Legislation targeting the treatment of women in the labor force has helped Japanese women to enter an arena formerly dominated by men. Among the most prominent pieces of legislation that have been passed into law are the Equal Employment Opportunity Law (1985, with amendments effective 1999); the Child Care Leave and Family Care Leave Laws (1992); and the Plan for Gender Equality (2000). Although elderly men are still viewed by many women as holding on to traditional role ideas, the number of women entering or re-entering the work force is increasing in Japan. Laws and reform efforts are actively working to assure women equal opportunities and wages.

PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS

Excerpt from *What I Want To Know About Japan*, "Family Life," 41-42.

"Before WWII, Japanese families tended to be rather large, with perhaps five or six children, their parents and frequently their grandparents all living in the same house. Parental authority was strong. Fathers commanded respect and obedience from their children, and in turn offered the same to their own parents. Married women were expected to obey their husbands and their husband's parents.

Since the war, however, many changes have occurred in the Japanese family as a result of democratic reforms, widespread Western influences, and rapid economic growth.

The number of nuclear families, only parents and children living together, has increased dramatically... Family size has dropped considerably, with most young Japanese today choosing to have only one or two children. Many grandparents still live with their children, typically with the oldest son, but many are now living by themselves. Rural youth are also moving to the cities to work after graduation from school. Typically, they live in their own apartments or in dormitories provided by their companies.

Although family lifestyles vary as much in modern Japan as in the United States, Japanese family life generally places greater stress on parental respect and mutual responsibility. Children have a strong sense of obligation toward their parents and feel responsible for taking care of them in their retirement years, a duty which usually falls to the oldest son who may also be expected to take over the family business and the family home.

Children also feel responsible toward each other. Younger children call their oldest brother and sister by special expressions of respect: *oniisan* (older brother) and *onesan* (older sister). The oldest children, in turn, will look after their younger brothers and sisters, perhaps helping them with their schoolwork or baby-sitting for them. These close relationships continue even into adulthood. It is not uncommon, for example, for an oldest son to provide financial assistance to his younger brothers and sisters in times of emergency.

Japanese families are usually very close-knit groups. Many small shops and restaurants are run as family affairs, with the father and mother working side by side and the older children helping out after school. Fathers who work for large companies usually do not come home from work until late at night, but they will try to spend time with their children on the weekends. Family outings hiking in the mountains, picnics, trips to the beach, or just an afternoon drive in the countryside are common Saturday and Sunday activities.

Childcare, cooking, washing, cleaning and other housework have long been considered the wife's duties, with the husband responsible for bringing home an income. But these traditional male/female roles have blurred in recent years. More husbands are doing household chores, and more wives are taking outside jobs. In fact, more than two thirds of married women today go back to work after their children enter school. Even so, in many families, the father will handle matters outside the home, while the mother is responsible for day-to-day management of household affairs. Most husbands hand their paychecks directly to their wives, who are responsible for managing the family budget and paying all bills."

Excerpt from *Japan: Profile of a Nation*, "Women in the Labor Force," 148-150.

"Until about 1950, over 60 percent of working women were 'family workers,' mainly in agriculture. By 1900, family workers had declined to 16.7 percent. Conversely, women's entry into 'prestige professions' such as law and medicine has been slow, and fewer than 1 percent of female civil ser-

vants occupy managerial posts. (Author's note: As of 1997, this percentage had risen to 1%, as reported in *Nippon 1998: Business Facts and Figures.* Tokyo: Japan External Trade Organization, 1998, 127.)

In 1990, clerical and related jobs accounted for the largest percentage of female employees (34.4 percent, excluding self-employed and family workers), followed by craft and production workers (20.6 percent), professional and technical workers (13.8 percent), sales workers (12.5 percent), service workers (10.7 percent), and other occupations (8.0 percent). The order of distribution has not changed for some time, although the number of women in each occupation has varied, increasing in professional and technical fields while decreasing in manual labor.

The treatment of women in Japan's labor force resembles their treatment in other industrialized countries. In both Japan and the West, female workers make up more than one-third of the total labor force and earn lower wages than men. Residual prejudice against women, however, has resulted in somewhat more discrimination against them in Japan than in the West. Tradition holds that women should devote themselves to the home after marriage, a view that causes the length of uninterrupted employment at the same firm to be rather short. Japanese court decisions have ruled against forcing women to retire upon marriage or upon having passed the 'appropriate' age for marriage.

Japan's Labor Standards Law of 1947 stipulates equal pay for equal work, but this is rare in practice because of continuing tendencies... to favor men at promotion time. According to one survey, the average monthly wage paid to female employees in 1990 was somewhat over 60 percent of that paid to male employees....

This disparity is due largely to the seniority system that presupposes 'lifetime' employment of men, whereas the length of uninterrupted employment, average age, and educational level of women have tended to be considerably lower than those of men. Very few women attain positions of high responsibility in business. Businesses still generally employ women only in low-level or temporary jobs because of the view that they should work only until marriage or childbirth. (Author's note: Recently, more women are returning to work after marriage or childbirth. Also, more women are attaining positions as managers or directors.)

The Equal Employment Opportunity Law for Men and Women of 1985 removed all restrictions for management and specialist positions except certain regulations applying to women workers in the period prior to and following childbirth. It is anticipated that the new law will encourage the employment and advancement of women on merit."

Excerpt from *Japanese Society*, "Women in Present Day Japan," 12-13.

"The social status of women in Japan is protected by a series of laws, including the principle of sexual equality enshrined in the Constitution and by Civil Code amendments enacted after the war. The implementation of this principle in practice, however, has been greatly helped by improvements in the education of women and by an increase in the number of employed women.

While the proportion of women continuing their education beyond the school-leaving age in 1950 was, at 36.7%, well below the 48% for men, by 1960 the figures were much closer: 55.9% of women and 59.6% of men. By 1970, the numbers had been reversed, albeit very slightly: 82.7% of women and 81.6% of men. By 1990, however, while the figure for women was more than 95%, the figure for men had risen only to 93%. There is still a large difference in the proportions going to four-year universities: 13.7% of men versus 2.5% of women in 1960; 27.3% versus 6.5% in 1970; 39.3% versus 12.3% in 1980; and in 1990 33.5% versus 15.2%. However, the picture changes if we include two-year colleges. While the figure was 41.3% for men and 33.3% for women in 1980, the figure for men subsequently declined while the figure for women rose, so that the positions were reversed in 1989: 35.8% against 36.8%. This unmistakable progress in the quality of education for women has broadened their outlook and raised their consciousness. At the same time it has greatly promoted their participation in society and has helped put them on a more equal footing with men.

The rapid growth in the female work force means that women need no longer be tied down all day to the house and can participate more freely in society. The much improved economic clout that employment gives also endows them with a greater say in the home and greater self-reliance. In 1960, there were 7.38 million female employees in Japan, 31.1% of the employed work force. Sustained growth since then has meant that,

as of 1990, there are 17.49 million female employees, 37.4% of the total.

An interesting aspect of this expansion in the female work force is the rise in the ratio of such married workers. The figure grew from 30% or so of all female workers in the 1960s to more than 50% in the 1970s, over 55% in the 1980s and, in 1990, to 58.1%. The rapid increase in two-income families is demonstrated by the data on the ratio of wives at work: from a figure of 8.8% of all married women in 1960 the proportion had risen to 31.1% by 1988. These changes have future implications not only for the form and functions of the family in Japan, but also for the structure and terms of employment for Japanese workers. (Author's note: By 1997, these figures had changed to 22.9% of women advancing to junior college, 26% advancing to university, and 5.3% advancing to graduate school, as reported in *Japan Almanac.* Tokyo: Asahi Shinbun Publishing Company, 1999, 127. In 1997, the total number of female workers in Japan was 21,270,000, or 39.5% of the total work force and in 1996, 57.1% of women workers were married, according to *Nippon 1998: Business Facts and Figures.*)

Women in Managerial Positions as % of the Whole in Major Countries

(survey year)	U.S.A. (1995)	Canada (1995)	Germany (1993)	Japan (1997)
Total number of female employees (10,000 persons)	5,752.3	610.9	1,508.4	2,127
Female employees in managerial positions (%)	12.8	–	3.7	1.0

Source: Ministry of Labor's Women's Bureau, from *Nippon 1998: Business Facts and Figures,* 127.

Changes in Hours Wages in Major Countries (All Industries)

Change from the (same term of) previous year (Unit: %)

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
U.S.A.	1.5	2.7	2.3	2.6	3.1
Japan	1.0	(–0.8)	2.2	0.2	0.6
Germany	1.3	0.4	(–1.4)	(–0.4)	0.6
France	0.9	1.7	0.9	0.8	1.2
U.K.	0.7	1.3	2.7	3.0	2.8
Italy	0.8	4.4	2.9	1.9	1.5
Canada	0.5	1.2	0.6	1.2	1.8

Source: OECD Economic Outlook No. 62, December 1997, from *Nippon 1998: Business Facts and Figures,* 121.

Average Monthly Starting Salary, Classified by Type of Work, Gender and Company Scale (Number of Employees)

	Type of work and education		Number of employees: Number surveyed	Number of employees: Total number of employees	Average monthly starting salary (¥): Overall average	Average monthly starting salary (¥): 500 employees or more	Average monthly starting salary (¥): Less than 500 employees
Male	New graduates, office work	University	21,506	53,615	191,765	193,570	188,596
		Junior College	1,291	4,289	164,048	165,553	163,007
		High School	2,776	7,547	154,003	155,793	152,006
	New graduates, technical staff	Univeristy	10,385	28,452	195,082	197,751	191,022
		Junior College	1,777	5,586	169,991	172,723	167,396
		High School	4,183	9,009	153,636	155,339	150,939
Female	New graduates, office work	University	9,710	26,713	182,532	183,487	180,761
		Junior College	14,365	34,704	157,815	157,917	157,655
		High School	5,527	16,990	147,632	149,160	146,096
	New graduates, technical staff	University	1,080	3,123	190,094	195,805	183,909
		Junior College	399	1,216	161,874	166,849	156,008
		High School	464	1,210	151,127	152,472	149,317

Note: The survey was carried out in April 1997.
Source: Bureau of Compensation, National Personnel Authority, from *Nippon 1998: Business Facts and Figures,* 120.

Trends in Hired Labor Classified by Gender

(Units: 10,000 persons, %)

	Total		Female		Male		
	Number of employees	Change from previous year	Number of employees	Change from previous year	Number of employees	Change from previous year	Proportion of females to total employees
1992	5,119	2.3	1,974	2.9	3,145	2.0	38.6
1993	5,202	1.6	2,009	1.8	3,193	1.5	38.6
1994	5,236	0.7	2,034	1.2	3,202	0.3	38.8
1995	5,263	0.5	2,048	0.7	3,215	0.4	38.9
1996	5,322	1.1	2,084	1.8	3,238	0.7	39.2
1997	5,391	1.3	2,127	2.1	3,264	0.8	39.5

Source: Management & Coordination Agency, from *Nippon 1998: Business Facts and Figures*, 127.

Number of Women in Managerial Positions by Age Group and Rank

(Unit: %)

	1985				1996			
Classification	Total	Department head	Section head	Chief clerk	Total	Department head	Section head	Chief clerk
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	[100.0]	[6.4]	[25.1]	[68.5]	[100.0]	[5.5]	[29.5]	[65.0]
Age 20–29	3.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.5	0.0	1.7	4.6
Age 30–39	24.0	15.3	1.8	4.4	22.5	7.1	13.6	27.8
Age 40–49	41.2	27.6	18.5	26.8	43.4	33.8	44.1	43.8
Age 50–59	29.5	48.7	39.7	43.1	28.9	48.1	38.1	23.2
Age 60 and over	1.9	9.1	38.5	24.4	1.8	11.2	2.5	0.6
Women in all age groups as a percentage of all managers	2.5	1.0	1.6	3.9	4.5	1.4	3.1	7.3

Notes: Figures in [ ] are composition ratio. All companies surveyed have 100 or more employees.

Source: Ministry of Labor's Women's Bureau, from *Nippon 1998: Business Facts and Figures*, 126.

PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLES

1. Students will become familiar with the traditional roles and emerging roles of Japanese women by reading about and discussing these roles in cooperative groups (via excerpts from the Primary Source Materials). Ask students to analyze and summarize basic information from the readings concerning the shifting roles of Japanese women after WWII. Students should respond to such questions as, "Why did the shift occur?" "When did the shift begin?" "How has the shift affected the Japanese economy, family structure, labor force, education system, and government?" Have students describe the emerging connections between men and women in the work force, age-old customs, positions, and responsibilities. Students can use Venn diagrams to show traditional roles, emerging roles, and overlapping roles that still exist for Japanese women today.
2. Students will design a comparison project in which they compare the pre-war and post-war roles of Japanese women. Projects may include but are not limited to: poems, pictures, posters, collections, slogans, letters, news articles, editorials, short plays, cartoons, displays, and/or objects.
3. Using the Primary Source Materials section and sources in the Bibliography and Supplementary Resource section, ask students to list changes in Japanese women's life cycles. Then, have them write narratives that describe and analyze those changes. Finally, students should present their personal theories explaining why the shift occurred and what impact this shift has had on Japanese society, the family itself, and the business world.
4. Have students construct a graph using the data provided in chart, "Average Monthly Starting Salary, Classified by Type of Work, Gender and Company Scale" using six colors (one each for university, junior college, high school for males and one each for the same entries for females). Students will describe the differences that are observed from the "visual" chart in a written narrative.

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ECONOMIC UPDATE: JAPAN SINCE THE BURSTING OF THE BUBBLE ECONOMY

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INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW/ RATIONALE

The term "Bubble Economy" refers to the situation that developed in Japan in the 1980s where speculation in the Japanese economy led to skyrocketing asset values (land and stocks). Japan experienced persistent current-account surplus and a strong *yen*, causing the economy to balloon as the banking industry provided funds around the world and became the world's largest creditor nation. The Bubble Economy burst in late 1990 and Japan entered a recession. Western financial analysts blamed the false bubble on a number of factors. When the crisis caused the Japanese government to focus on the basic operations of the banking industry, many concluded that this would be the spark for economic reform unseen before in Japan, where industry and citizens are accustomed to the idea of bureaucratic leadership in the financial industry. Evidence of the reform movement could be seen in the 1996 announcement by former Prime Minister Ryutaro Hashimoto that the Big Bang would be complete by 2001. The term "Big Bang," which is conventionally used to refer to a theory of the creation of the universe, was subsequently used by the former British Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher to package her economic reforms in Britain's financial district. Although Hashimoto adopted the words of Thatcher, it remains to be seen whether or not Japan's government has the resolve that Thatcher had in carrying out the reforms. As well, one has to consider the fact that the architect of the Japanese reform plan, Hashimoto, was forced to resign after a disappointing showing in the July 1998 elections. Many Japanese who were willing to offer an opinion dismissed the government as being incompetent. Others responded with a more diplomatic reply, stating that, "These are difficult times for anyone to be in power."

Although the Japanese government has continued to announce economic stimulus packages to stimulate the economy, many analysts feel that at some point it will be time for the government to withdraw and allow the Big Bang to actually happen. In a country where the last five decades of economic expansion have been managed by the government, this will be a difficult step. In the past, the involvement of the Japanese government, in the survival and operation of business, has been criticized by Westerners as being "crony capitalism" or as being a "convoy system" (where the stronger provide assistance to the weaker, and all follow the instructions of the leader in command). The idea of the Big Bang can be explained with three catchwords, free, fair, and global (free: a free market based on market principles; fair: a transparent and fair market; and global: an international and ultramodern market). However, there are questions as to whether the Japanese government really intends for the reforms to be on the scale of Thatcher's changes. For example, the Japanese government has never announced an end to its control of the savings people have deposited in the postal system. Control of the trillions of *yen* in the post office will guarantee the government has significant influence in the 'banking' industry even after deregulation.

A challenge that faces all social studies educators is the need to access current information on changes taking place throughout the world. This is of particular importance when dealing with the country of Japan, as so much has happened in the Japanese economy in the last decade. We hear of the Asian Flu and the Asian Contagion. In November 1997, four financial institutions in Japan collapsed. Unemployment, which reached a high of 4.8% in April 1999, and bankruptcies appear in the news with increasing frequency. There are also more news stories about the homeless. Young people of Japan are beginning to question the work ethic that was of ultimate importance to their parents, just as employers are questioning the idea of lifetime employment.

A second challenge facing teachers is the need to make their course content relevant and interesting to students. Young people facing the task of economics education often dismiss this topic as being boring and of no importance in the 'real

world' (their world). However, Japan in the 1990s has provided an excellent example for a case study into economic theory and reality. Which students have not heard of Sony, Nintendo, Toshiba, Honda, and Nissan? By examining sources taken for the most part from the Japanese newspapers, students are given experience in attempting to detect bias, point of view, and conflicting statements.

PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS

Source 1

"There's No Wishing This Crisis Away," *Business Week*, 31 August 1998, 28-29.

"The yen plunges to an eight-year low as Japan faces its worst recession since World War II. Hong Kong stocks dive as speculators attack its currency and rumours spread that China will have to devalue the yuan. Russian bonds reel on fears of loan defaults. Even in North America, Mexico and Canada see the value of their currencies plunge.

Time to worry about a global panic? Not yet. Only under the most pessimistic scenarios, economists say, would the Asian depression and spreading commodity deflation push the healthy economies of the U.S. or Western Europe into recession. And, while suffering, both Canada and Mexico are in better financial shape to withstand external shocks than they were five years ago.

But each new Asian devaluation makes the crisis more global. With each new setback to an International Monetary Fund rescue plan, fans fear that no emerging market, no matter how well-managed, is safe for investors.

The effects on the U.S. economy, once theoretical, are becoming tangible. U.S. exporters are hitting a wall not only in Asia but also at their own borders. Asia's turmoil has led to sharp drops in prices for oil, metals, timber, and other commodities. That is hurting the Canadian dollar and the Mexican peso. Canada and Mexico are the two biggest markets for U.S. exports, absorbing $223 billion in goods in 1997, but now their buying power is down sharply.

Unless Japan takes dramatic action soon, far worse is in store. Despite stinging setbacks at the polls, Japanese leaders still have not come to grips with their crisis. A U.S.-Japan intervention in June only produced a pause in the yen's slide. A collapse of the yen to 200 – a worst-case scenario but by no means implausible – would hit currencies worldwide and further depress prices. It would also make Japanese goods far cheaper and lead to steep sales declines for many American manufacturers, negatively affecting the U.S. economy in 1999.

On Aug. 11, Tokyo intervened to prop up the wobbly yen, which then stood at 146 to the dollar. But Westerners should have no illusions that this is the beginning of the end of Asia's decline. It is all but certain that the crisis will menace the global economy for the next three to five years. Even if Japan gets serious soon about tackling its banks' $600 billion in bad debt, the cleanup will be protracted and hugely expensive... Japan's complacency is crushing its neighbours."

Source 2

"Top Economist Sees the Good in Japan," *The Japan Times*, 29 June 1998, 16.

"'Japan is viewed as the Titanic of the 1990s but there have been important changes at the policy level. All the pieces (for recovery) are in place,' says Richard Koo, chief economist for the Nomura Research Institute.... Koo applauds the decision to plow ¥16 trillion back into the economy in the form of stimulus measures. 'It's a significant package and the composition is correct. Personal tax cuts are not appropriate now. The timing is bad; people would just bank the savings.'"

Source 3

***The Japan Times*, 5 July 1998, 18.**

"Traditional public-works spending and temporary tax relief are not sufficient to achieve sustainable growth. The corporate tax rate should be reduced ahead of schedule. In addition, a permanent tax cut of several trillion yen should be carried [sic] at an early date. [The government] should make it clear here and abroad that private demand will provide the main thrust of economic recovery."

Source 4

"Rebuilding Asia's Economies," *The Japan Times*, 3 July 1998, 20.

"A bad reason for injecting public money is to save politically influential owners of bankrupt companies. The better reason for use of public money is to save the core banking system."

Source 5

"Banks Need to Come Clean," *Mainichi Daily News*, 24 June 1998, 2.

"...it often seems as if government and LDP officials have simply been humouring the fussy Americans by pretending to listen. Japanese officials seem to be incapable of speaking frankly about their financial problems and setting forth a concrete plan for reform. The sole exception has been Japanese Ambassador to the United States Kunihiko Saito, who admitted during an interview on an American TV program that financial reform would probably trigger the bankruptcies of several banks. But Ministry of Finance officials quickly disavowed his statement, claiming that 'under present conditions no banks are on the verge of bankruptcy. He must be mistaken.'

Finance Ministry officials, of course, are guilty of a bald-faced lie. A shakedown of the financial industry is needed to restore confidence in the Japanese financial system. The misgivings of the world's investors will not be allayed as long as banks that should have gone under a long time ago manage to remain afloat. Ministry officials are merely mouthing the 'party line' when they condemn Saito for 'stirring up financial uncertainty.'"

Source 6

***The Japan Times*, 5 July 1998, 18.**

"Behind this prolonged slump is the fact that aftereffects from the collapse of the bubble economy have been compounded by structural problems. Conventional pump-priming measures such as public-works projects and tax cuts will not be able to turn around the economy... What is needed is bold rethinking, such as the New Deal (policies taken by the United States in the 1930s to promote economic recovery)."

Source 7

"Complacency or Atrophy?" *The Japan Times*, 29 June 1998, 21.

"...Many countries remain inward-looking. Japan seems particularly so. Much is said about internationalization, but few people in Japan are thought to understand what this really means. As one Japanese friend put it to me, Japan does not just need deregulation in official matters: It also needs mental deregulation.

Some fear that Japanese isolationist mentality under foreign pressure to open up, deregulate and accept increased competition will induce a nationalist backlash. This would be damaging to Japan as well as the rest of the world. Isolationism and renewed protectionism would push Japan further into recession and hurt Asia and the rest of the world."

Source 8

"Bank of Tokyo-Mitsubishi Fails in First Round of Big Bang," *Asahi Evening News*, 1 July 1998, 5.

"The Big Bang is bringing down business barriers that have separated the banking, brokerage and insurance sectors. In the area of banking, the focus is shifting from 'indirect financing' – lending money collected from depositors – to 'direct financing,' or raising money directly on the capital market.... This [Nikko Securities Co. teaming up with Travelers Group] is the first case of the so-called financial Wimbledon – foreign companies winning the financial game in Japan... Japanese began to talk of the 'Wimbledon phenomenon' as Japan geared up for financial market reform. The implication is that Japan offers the venue (market), but the key players (financial institutions) are non-Japanese."

Source 9

"Forex Intervention More Important than Most People Think," *The Japan Times*, 29 June 1998, 16.

"...Take a look at prices of US-made vehicles sold in Japan. Even though the dollar has gained more than 50 percent against the yen, prices of American cars have not been raised here. If yen-denominated prices remain unchanged, US car makers' sales revenue will decline substantially in dollar terms. All the while, they have not reduced the prices of the same models in the US market. This would appear to be an obvious case of dumping by US automakers in Japan.

When the yen gained in strength against the dollar some years ago, Japanese automakers were severely criticized for dumping their products in the US market. Now, the same problem is happening in reverse. It's strange that few people seem to be paying any attention to it.

If prices of US goods in Japan are raised in accordance with exchange-rate fluctuations, the US trade deficit would expand more rapidly, making it easier for people to realize that the yen has declined too far against the dollar. This would prompt Congress to support yen-buying market intervention."

Source 10

"Moving Forward Without Friction," *The Japan Times*, 2 July 1998, 18.

"...the secretary [sic] of the Treasury, Mr. Robert Rubin, was correct when he said...that the slide of the yen reflected Japan's fundamental economic problems. The difficulties are home grown. But making that bold statement was more than proclaiming the obvious: It was a call to arms for currency speculators.

Mr. Rubin may not have wanted to intervene in foreign exchange markets, but his apparent indifference to the consequences of his comments forced him to do just that. Declaring open season on the currency of a trade partner – and one whose health is critical to the global economy – is no way for a responsible government to act...it does not take a prickly nationalist to be offended by high-handedness – or it might be indifference...."

Source 11

***Business Week*, 9 March 1998, 31.**

"Not everyone is happy [with the rising US dollar]. Take Detroit's car makers struggling with Asia's protected industry. Since General Motors Corp.'s Saturn division began selling its small cars in Japan last year, the yen fell against the dollar, costing Saturn $4000 per vehicle. Result: Saturn runs deep in the red there."

Source 12

"As Japan Agonizes over Tax Cut, US Investors Get Their Own," *The Japan Times*, 7 July 1998, 11.

"Here, in edited-for-TV form, is how it went last week in currency trading as the market wrestled with the idea that Japan might actually have a serious plan for ending its long economic nightmare:

- Tuesday. Japan: "Hey, we have a serious plan for ending our long economic nightmare! You'll see!" The dollar plunges from 141.86 yen to 138.77 yen.
- Wednesday. Japan: "You won't believe how serious we are! Really!" The dollar falls further to 137.90 yen.
- Thursday. Japan: "Here are the details of our very serious plan! How do you like it?" The dollar rockets back to 140.99 yen.
- Friday. Japan: "This isn't enough? OK, perhaps we will be even more serious and do still more." The dollar slides to 139.35 yen . . . Japanese Prime Minister Ryutaro Hashimoto heightened the sense of policy disarray in his government Sunday by denying that he would introduce permanent income tax cuts."

Source 13

"In Other Words," *Far Eastern Economic Review*, 2 July 1998, 35.

"One of the most difficult feats in acrobatics is catching a falling knife, and I think that's how people feel about Asian stock markets."

Source 14

"APEC Searches for Critical Mass," *The Japan Times*, 24 June 1998, 20.

"While Asia boomed, the system worked. High growth eased the pain of hard choices. Liberalization and reform – APEC's twin objectives – were easy to achieve when governments could cushion the impact of new competition and job opportunities were continually expanding. But the region's ongoing economic crisis has put APEC's operation principles to the test."

PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLES

Students with an artistic talent and/or those with an acid wit, may want to draw cartoons with an economic theme. Photocopy and use the students' work for future class analysis. Have students scan newspapers for caricatures of famous personalities to create an awareness of people they may not have noticed before.

Japan: Why It Works, Why It Doesn't is an excellent source of interesting information relating to the topic of economics in Japan. It is also (perhaps more importantly) a resource for cartoons and for insight into a variety of aspects concerning Japanese culture (ranging from *pachinko* gambling to marriage, cram schools to banking). It is written in conversational English and is thus quite easy to understand, making it a suitable resource for students and teachers.

When trying to create understanding of the terrible pressures felt when the Bubble Economy burst in 1990, have students write a fictional diary account of an employee of the Hokkaido Takushoku Bank stationed in Sapporo (the Hokkaido Takushoku Bank failed in November 1997). How would a story written from the manager's point of view differ from one written from the bank teller's perspective? And from the bank customer?

The sample questions provided below are not comprehensive, but are intended to serve as a starting point. Most of these questions have an economics theme dealing with concepts such as recession, dumping, trade barriers, the Big Bang, currency values and government intervention, deregulation, and the Bubble Economy. These themes may lead into a variety of other topics such as American history (FDR), the *Titanic*, and American foreign policy.

Sample Questions: Source 1

How serious is the current economic situation in Japan? If Japan's economy is in a recession, this means that they will buy fewer products from North America and the world. How will this impact our economy, both at the local level and at the national level? As sales to Japan slow, what is happening to the value of the Canadian currency? How will this, in turn, impact the American economy? Which two countries are the two biggest markets for U.S. exports? According to this source, what lesson did Japan's politicians learn from the July 12, 1998 election? According to this source, how long might the recession in Japan continue? What amount of money have the Japanese banks lent that will now probably never be repaid? Why is Japan's recovery so important to Asia?

Sample Questions: Sources 2, 3 and 4

Explain the statement, "Japan is viewed as the *Titanic* of the 1990s." Draw a political cartoon relating to this statement. One method of government intervention is to create a false demand for a currency. In order to do this, governments will sell any foreign currencies, to buy more of their own currency. What drawback do you see in this strategy?

Sample Questions: Sources 5, 6, and 7

What was the "bubble economy?" When did the bubble burst? What was The New Deal? What do you think would be involved in "economic deregulation?" Why does the writer in Source 7 suggest that there is need for "mental deregulation?" Some people worry that current economic problems could lead nations to adopt policies of economic protectionism. Do you agree or disagree?

In the past, how have nations attempted to "protect" their economies from foreigners? Would the author of Source 6 agree that there is a need for "mental deregulation?" What is meant in Source 5 when the author states that some officials are simply "mouthing the party line?" Provide an example where you or your classmates might "mouth the party line" in school. Why is it done?

Sample Questions: Source 8, 9, and 14

Explain what changes will be involved in the "Big Bang" in the Japanese economy. In theory, would a pure capitalist such as Adam Smith oppose the reforms described above? If tennis players from Great Britain never win the Wimbledon Tournament that is held in their country, then what do the Japanese mean when they state that they fear the changes in their economy will be the start of the *Wimbledonization* of their economy? If the Japanese fear that they will be losers in this "new game," who do they fear will be the winner?

Sample Questions: Sources 9, 10, and 11

Why should Uncle Sam not say too much about Japan's economic reforms? Provide justification for American involvement in the recovery process. What point is made in Source 9? Which of these two sources seems to support American business more than Japan's economic recovery? What is meant when one country accuses another of "dumping?"

Sample Questions: Sources 12, and 13

In a humorous manner, what message does Source 12 send with regard to the manner in which currency values are determined? Source 13 compares investing in the Asian market to catching a knife. If this is accurate, why would anyone select this time to invest in Japan? Provide one argument in favor of American involvement and one opposing American involvement in Japan's recovery.

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"Tokyo Bows to US Pressure on the Economy." *Far Eastern Economic Review*. 2 July 1998, 18-22.

"Was Asia Sinking While We Slept?" *The Washington Post National Weekly Edition*. Vol. 15, No.11, 12 January 1998.

"What Ever Happened to the 'Asian Century'?" *World Economic Affairs.* Spring 1998, 32.

It is possible to purchase a monthly, bound volume of *The Japan Times.* The price was 7000 *yen* in 1998. It is an interesting source of articles, ads, cartoons and cultural information. (Telephone 03-3453-4350). Note, credit card purchases are not the norm.

Web Sites

Far Eastern Economic Review: http://www.feer.com

Mainichi Daily: http://www.mainichi.co.jp/english/index.html

The Nikkei Net Interactive (Japan's leading business newspaper): http://www.nni.nikkei.co.jp

Financial Times: http://www.FT.com

Japan Insight: http://www.jinjapan.org/insight

Look Japan: http://www.lookjapan.com

Kids Web Japan: http://jin.jcic.or.jp/kidsweb/

Japan Echo: http://www.japanecho.co.jp

The Canada-Japan Trade Council: http://magi.com/~cjtc

Keidanren: http://www.keidanren.or.jp

Keizai Koho Center: http://www.kkc.or.jp/english/index.html

THE ECONOMICS OF INFORMATION: LIVING, WORKING, AND LEARNING IN THE DIGITAL ERA

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INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW/ RATIONALE

> Has the speed of change accelerated way beyond your comfort zone? Are the rules that guided your decisions in the past no longer reliable? Welcome to the new economy – a world where the rate of change is so fast it's only a blur, where the clear lines distinguishing buyer from seller, product from service, employer from entrepreneur are disappearing...
>
> *Blur: The Speed of Change in the Connected Economy*[1]

Educators can relate to the speed of change, "the blur," in the struggle to keep up, not only with new information in a particular discipline, but also with technology. Yet students of today take these changes in stride. Having grown up with Nintendo, Sony Play Stations, and computers at home, they are coming to school expecting a more interactive experience, rather than broadcast learning where the teacher is the transmitter of information.[2] What is needed is a new model for learning, one "based on discovery and participation."[3]

> There is a *tsunami* approaching which few have noticed. This tidal wave results from the intersection of the technical revolution and a demographic revolution which... (Tapscott calls) the Net-Generation... They are the first to come of age in the digital era; they have a different culture, psychology, and approach to learning, consuming, working, and playing. As these kids enter the workforce, they will blow our estimates for electronic commerce right out of the water.
>
> *Blueprint to the Digital Economy: Creating Wealth in the Era of E-Business*[4]

In *Blueprint to the Digital Economy: Creating Wealth in the Era of E-Business*, the world's top business strategists from over thirty Fortune 100 companies explain how technology is changing their competitive environment. Currently, what companies want most, it appears, are well-rounded employees. Workers must possess good communication skills, be able to solve problems, think critically, and work in teams. With workers becoming more knowledge based, being able to manage projects and to find information are also necessary skills. "...What firms expect today are not students who come knowing everything but rather those who have the desire and capacity to learn," because they will be expected to keep up with the information in their field or learn new information should their jobs change.[5] The ability to precisely select and utilize information becomes increasingly important as the volume of information expands.[6] Knowledge, or information, has value... not just in the content, but in the ability to access it and apply it for the betterment of oneself, one's school, one's business, one's environment, one's world!

Knowledge is power. In today's post-industrial era, the Information Age, the convergence of information and communications technologies is having a profound effect on every part of life. In 1968, Alvin Toffler (*Future Shock*) predicted this transformation and asserted that businesses, indeed, all of society, would have to contend increasingly with two things, speed and the increasing power of knowledge. Coping with the speed of change in business has become crucial. "The new economy rewards those who are quickest to sense change and first to capitalize on new opportunities."[7] Students need to understand that information, as well as the resourcefulness to find and apply it, has value. To succeed in anything, they must realize the importance of being able to access information and use it to their advantage. These skills are necessary for launching students into the global, knowledge-based economy, and into a world that is increasingly more international in character. Educators must provide students with sufficient opportunities to develop these skills so that they can become technologically literate and attain an understanding of science and technology and their socio-economic impact.

PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS

For the first time in history, globalization is no longer the sole province of huge corporations.

Today, anyone with an Internet connection can truly reach out to an international audience, whether it is to buy or sell products, to exchange ideas, to send or search for information, or to offer services.

> Advanced telecommunications technologies have integrated international capital markets and literally created a global financial industry... and knowledge-based industries such as finance, insurance, real estate, health, and education are now driving the service sector.
>
> *Science and Engineering Indicators: 1998*[8]

The opportunity to visit a country like Japan, and to be able to see it through the eyes of its citizens, is a remarkable experience that often leaves the fortunate visitor with a sense of admiration for its proud, hard-working people and with the wish to return very soon. In 1998, the delegation of Keizai Koho Center Fellows had the opportunity to visit several large and small companies and to meet with various management officials. These meetings and visits were informative, offering first-hand insight into how the Japanese people are coping with the problems in their economy and their vision for the future of Japan. Question and answer sessions provided opportunities to discuss the ways in which the Japanese use information to their advantage.

Many sites on the World Wide Web contain information on electronic commerce and information technology (IT). The National Science Foundation's biennial report, *Science and Engineering Indicators-1998*, available online at http://www.nsf.gov/sbe/srs/stats.htm, is especially informative. This publication, filled with fascinating information and statistics, attempts to make sense of the growing role of technology in American society but in doing so, makes reference to worldwide trends as well.

Among the findings, most noticeable was the global nature of the trends. For example, though the United States and Europe have always invested heavily in research and development (R&D), currently, countries in Asia and the Americas are also putting special emphasis on increasing both human and financial investment in science and technology (S&T). This trend will mean increasing competition as these countries delve into e-commerce along with the established players. Science and engineering (S&E) education is another area that is growing globally. It is interesting to note that the United States remains the leader in the net exportation of technological expertise, and Japan is the largest consumer of U.S. technology sold as intellectual property.[9] These examples not only demonstrate how information has value but also that the value is increasing in our new knowledge-based economy.

There are numerous benefits to be gained from the Information Age. Anytime there is an increase in productivity, such as Mazda (33.4% owned by Ford) experienced when it launched Mazda Digital Innovation (MDI),[10] a pioneering digital system that uses technology not only to design all components but also to digitize the entire vehicle, enabling it to carry out repeated performance and quality tests within the computer, both the company and its customers benefit. This investment in technology cultivates a competitive environment that focuses on quality, customization, and the timeliness of delivery. In Mazda's case, this speeds up the supply chain, cutting design to production time from four years to 18-20 months.[11] This is just one of several ways Mazda is using technology to improve products and benefit consumers.

In July 1998, Mazda Australia announced that it had added a Forte®-based vehicle sales and distribution system and a Web-based parts tracking application to its network of nearly 140 dealers.[12] This is yet another example of increasing efficiency by providing Australian car dealers with online information about pricing, ordering, and delivery.

The speeding up of the cycle between the different links and the elimination of non-essential distribution links between manufacturers and the marketing companies and between the marketing companies and retailers have resulted in a shortening of the supply chain.[13] Direct-marketing companies such as Dell, Amazon.com, and Sony's "TheStore,"[14] by-pass the store-based retailer, thereby resulting in lower costs, greater convenience through direct delivery, and even, in the case of Dell, more choice through customization, for the end customer. No wonder these businesses are so successful. Mass customization is a win-win situation, providing the customer more value for the cost.

New electronic technology, such as digital camcorders, mini-disc Walkman models, the Wega series of color televisions with the industry's first flat-surface cathode ray tube, and the VAIO notebook PCs, is exciting. Sony's video-conferencing system, the TriniCom 5100, which can facilitate spur-of-the-moment meetings at multiple locations

to speed decision-making and, at the same time, reduce travel expenses, is especially well suited to application in the education field. Once the price comes down, this system, which is available in a compact rollabout configuration, would be a wonderful tool for schools, allowing them to conveniently interface physically with others throughout the world, thus providing both students and teachers more opportunities for information exchanges.

PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLES

The purpose of this section is to provide suggestions for students and teachers that require the use of technology to gather information, to interact with others, to improve communication skills, to solve problems, and to think critically. Some suggestions require teamwork, and others do not. Where applicable, URLs are given and resources referenced. The goal is for teachers and students to discover that when minds are engaged in the learning process and open to new ideas, information can be a valuable commodity. The ideas below have been designed to serve as springboards to more ideas, better ideas that would be tailored to the unique needs of classes and individuals.

Idea: Although it is common to use newspapers to teach about current events, to teach writing skills, or to reinforce math skills, try using Japanese newspapers to provide a Japanese perspective for studying events or for comparison with coverage in U.S. newspapers. The *Chugoku Shinbun* (Hiroshima) and *The Japan Times* are two of several Japanese newspapers available online.

- The Toyota advertisement on *The Japan Times* site is insightful. It demonstrates how Toyota advertises its products. Their Annual Report is also interesting. http://www.japantimes.co.jp/home.html
- The *Chugoku Shinbun*'s section, "Hiroshima 99: Prayers and Appeals for Peace," features sites and archived articles about peace as well as the bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki during WWII. http://www.chugoku-np.co.jp/abom97abom/peace/index.html.
- Pair up students, asking some to see what they can learn about WWII and the bombing of Hiroshima using both online and traditional resources and others to do the same, researching WW II and Pearl Harbor. A good Web site listing Hawaiian newspapers can be found at: http://www.simplecom.net/rhino/hi.html

Idea: After having taught research skills, it is time to put them into practice. Ask students to collaborate on these research projects just as adults do in the marketplace. Possible research topics might include issues related to the auto industry, comparing the students' own country's domestic industry with that of Japan. Consider exploring the following topics:

International trends

Environmental issues

Hydrogen cars

Car navigation systems/Intelligent Cruise Control

Some excellent Japanese automotive-related web sites include:

http://www.honda.co.jp/english/
(or www.honda.com)

http://www.mazda.com

http://www.mitsubishi-motors.co.jp/

http://www.nissanmotors.com

http://www.toyota.com

http://www.manufacturing.net/magazine/

http://www.omron.com (This is not an automotive site per se, but Omron produces many automotive electronics, such as relays and sensors, designed to increase safety, convenience, and comfort when driving.)

Idea: With Information Technology (IT) changing almost daily, the electronics or telecommunications industries would also make interesting research topics. Consider exploring the following:

New (3rd generation) wireless technologies, multimedia devices that will operate anywhere in the world

Intelligent Transportation Systems (ITS)

Internet telephony or IP telephony

Smart Cards

Collaborative efforts between companies

Trends in telecommunications

Some good places to begin your research include:

http://www.kdd.co.jp/indexe.html (Japan's Global Communications)

http://www.ntt.com (Nippon Telegraph & Telephone Corporation)

http://www.mitsubishiwireless.com (Learn about products and applications as well as research and development.)

http://www.japan-telecom.co.jp/index_e.html (Much here on trends in the field of telecommunications)

http://www.japantimes.co.jp/features/ccorner/cc98/ (John Boyd's Computer Corner column in *The Japan Times*, always a source of up-to-date IT news)

http://www.sel.sony.com (has "Quick Links" to several categories of electronics as well as a "Keyword Search" feature)

http://www.wireless.com (a Mitsubishi publication)

Great web sites for statistics or information include the following:

http://www.jinjapan.org/stat/index.html (a Japanese information network with links to more detailed statistics and information)

http://www.jinjapan.org/kidsweb (same network as above but geared to the elementary school child)

Perhaps one of the most useful sites for educators and students alike is *Infonation*, an easy-to-use, two step database that "sits" on the United Nations server and enables viewers to compare the most up-to-date statistical data for United Nations member states. http://www.un.org/Pubs/CyberSchoolBus/infonation/e_i_map.htm

Though I have only chosen five here, you can choose up to seven countries from a list of Member States. Go to the Data Menu and choose up to four data fields to compare. A table will then be generated as seen below:

Country	GDP (million US$, 1995)	GDP Per Capita (US$,1995)	Unemployment (%,1996)
Australia	358147	20046	8.6[1]
Canada	561008	18943	9.4[2]
Japan	5217573	41718	3.5[1]
United Kingdom	1102658	18913	6.2[3]
United States	6954787	26037	5.2[4]

Notes: (1) May 1997 (2) December 1996 (3) March 1997 (4) June 1997

Source: Statistics and indicators are provided by the United Nations Statistics Division from the World Statistics Pocketbook and Statistical Yearbook.

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IS FREE EDUCATION "FREE" IN JAPAN?

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INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW/ RATIONALE

In Japan, is education "free" for all children between the ages of 6 and 15, as stated by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture? This is the question explored in this chapter. In 1872, a modern education system was introduced into Japan. In 1886, every child was required to attend elementary school for at least three years. In 1900, compulsory education, *gimu-kyoiku*, was made free of charge. In 1908, this compulsory education was extended to six years. After World War II, it was extended further to the present nine years, covering elementary and lower secondary school education.

Historically, one's educational background has been important in Japanese society. Most people still believe that one has to graduate from a top university in order to gain employment at a top-ranking company. Therefore, to qualify as a student at a top university, many students study hard during their junior high and high school years. To improve the likelihood of success, many students attend cram schools in the evenings. In many cases, this emphasis on educational ranking begins early, with some parents even trying to get their children into elite kindergartens and elementary schools.

Elementary school children in Japan, as well as in the United States, are required to purchase certain items at the beginning of each school year. This chapter will also address the hidden costs that Japanese parents bear in order to ensure that their children receive the best education possible. This exploration will compare the list of school supplies required of an elementary child in Japan with those required of an elementary child in the United States.

PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS

The nine years of education, from elementary school through junior high school is compulsory and is provided free of charge at public schools to all children between the ages of six and fifteen.[1] The cost of public school education increases as children go on from elementary school to junior high school and ultimately on to senior high school. Guardians pay 11% of total education costs for elementary school students, 16% for junior high school students, and 25% for senior high school st dents. Although the cost of the initial year at a private elementary school, junior high, or senior high school does not differ significantly, it is generally two to seven times higher than that of public schools.[2]

What are the hidden costs of educating an elementary school student in Japan?

Elementary school children in Japan, as well as those in the United States, are required to purchase certain items at the beginning of the school year. The following is a list of the costs associated with school clothing and supplies.[3]

Clothing Costs:

(based upon an exchange rate of US$1.00=100 *yen*)

summer hat	1,500 *yen* (US$15)
winter hat	1,500 *yen* (US$15)
swimming equipment	5,000 *yen* (US$50)
swimming costume	1,500 *yen* (US$15)
swimming cap	500 *yen* (US$5)
goggles	1,500 *yen* (US$15)
swimming bag	500 *yen* (US$5)
swimming towel	1,000 *yen* (US$10)
sports equipment	6,500 *yen* (US$65)
sports bag	500 *yen* (US$5)
T-shirt	2,000 *yen* (US$20)
shorts	2,000 *yen* (US$20)
sports cap	500 *yen* (US$5)
sports shoes	1,500 *yen* (US$15)

Although not all children attending public schools are required to wear school uniforms, most do at the secondary level. School uniforms consist of a jacket, shirt, and pants for boys, and jacket, blouse, and skirt for girls. Generally, parents can buy these uniforms from specialty stores, and in some cases, from vendors who come to the

school in March, prior to the start of the new school year in the beginning of April. Japanese parents spend an average, per year, of 19,167 *yen* (US$192) on school uniforms.[4] This is an important investment since the school uniform that a student wears, particularly in the case of girls, announces to the public that the parents have succeeded, or failed, to get their youngster into a good school.[5]

Although the implication of compulsory public education is that it should be free, actually parents pay quite a lot for it. The following are school supplies that parents are required to purchase for their elementary school students:

randoseru (backpack): a leather case used exclusively by elementary school children, the most expensive of which typically costs over 20,000 *yen* (US$200). Girls carry red *randoseru* and boys carry black ones.

calligraphy set: The set costs approximately 3,000 *yen* (US$30) and includes a case, a paperweight, an ink stick, an ink stone, and brushes.

pencil case: These cases are usually inexpensive, approximately 1,000 *yen* (US$10). These cases are unique, providing students an opportunity to express their individuality.

pencils: Common pencils cost about 400 *yen* (US$4) a dozen.

lunches: Parents do not need to prepare lunch for their elementary school children. In public schools, lunch is provided every day at a cost of approximately 3,500 *yen* (US$35) per month. However, junior and senior high school students generally bring their lunches from home.

erasers: Students can purchase erasers for about 50 *yen*.

musical instruments: Most schools require students to buy a 3,000-*yen* (US$30) keyboard harmonica and a 2,000-*yen* soprano recorder.

other: There are numerous miscellaneous expenses for such items as color pencils, crayons, clay, materials boxes, math manipulatives, field trips, and supplementary workbooks.

Why attend cram school and what is the cost?

Normally students enter elementary school at age six and graduate from junior high school at age fifteen. After junior high, entrance to high school is based upon competitive examinations. Because of the fierce competition in the entrance examinations, a significant number of students attend private cram schools known as *juku*. In *juku*, students study both academic and non-academic subjects. These schools provide supplementary instruction to help students enter the schools of their choice. There are *juku* for all levels of education from pre-kindergarten through high school. While most junior and senior high school students attend *juku* to increase the likelihood of success on entrance examinations, younger children attend special classes after school for enrichment, studying such things as music, conversational English, and calligraphy. It is not uncommon to see elementary-aged children riding trains or walking along city streets as late at 10:00 p.m. on school days as they return to their homes after *juku* or other supplemental classes.

In 1997, 38.6% of elementary school students, 65.3% of junior high school students, and 34.0% of high school students attended *juku*.[6] In the past, *juku* was understood to provide the basics for education, such as the use of the *soroban* (abacus) for arithmetic or calligraphy for writing. But today, *juku* encompasses the business of preparing students for school entrance examinations.[7]

Attending *juku* is not cheap. Mr. Sugiura, a fourth grade teacher at Makishima Elementary School in Uji City, stated that, "The cost of *juku* depends on the parents' way of thinking. If they want their children to enter famous high schools or colleges, they make them go to *juku*. The monthly fee would be 10,000 to 50,000 *yen* (US$100-500) depending on the rank of the school. Two Tokyo housewives stated that they spend between 10,000 and 12,500 *yen* per month on *juku* lessons for their children. Another woman stated that she spends between 30,000 and 50,000 *yen* monthly for her daughter to attend *juku*. Still another reported that she spends between 3,000 and 5,000 monthly for her daughter to take correspondence *juku* classes.[8] In Japan, nearly a quarter of the working women report that their primary reason for working outside the home is to help pay the educational expenses for their children.[9]

Times are changing, though. Now the entire industry that prepares Japanese children for grueling school entrance exams is in crisis. The biggest reason is the tightening of household purse strings due to the economic recession. Spending on education was once something of a "sacred cow," but according to senior researcher Yoshihiro Mukohata of the Yano Research Institute, "Educational costs are becoming a major burden for families,

and the tide of real recession is beginning to make itself felt in the education industry, as elsewhere. The recession is having an impact in other ways, too. It affects the amount parents are willing to spend on examination fees. Fees range from 20,000 to 25,000 *yen* (US$200-250) for sitting for the entrance examinations of private junior high schools, so if a child takes the exams of five schools, the cost is at least 100,000 *yen* (US$1,000), even though only one of the results ultimately counts.

A second reason for the crisis is the relaxing of standards for enrollment at private junior high schools. One after another of Japan's private high schools has opened its own affiliated junior high school creating more openings than were available in the past. The time may be near when anyone who wants to attend a private junior high school will be able to do so. "Even without shelling out a lot of money on a *juku* and studying hard for the entrance exams, a child can probably get in one of the private schools," observed Nobuysau Morigami, director of the Morigami Educational Research Institute.

A third reason is the growing rejection of traditional obsessions with academic achievement. Noboru Ueno, director of education affairs at Tokyo Gakuen, attributes this to changing values among the current generation of parents. "There are fewer *kyoiku-mama* (mothers obsessed with their children's education). Fewer parents these days are concerned solely that their children study hard and excel at exams. It seems that both parents and children have serious doubts that even graduating from a top university and finding a job with a leading company, will bring their children happiness.[10]

PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLES

- Distribute to students a list of school supplies and sale fliers from stores that sell school supplies. Ask students to find the cost of school supplies for their grade level.
- Distribute to students a list of school supplies for their grade level and two different sale fliers from stores that sell school supplies to compare the prices of school supplies. Students should determine which store has the better bargain.
- Using the Elementary Student Finance Survey, have students contact public and private schools to compare school supply lists and costs for their grade level.
- Have students survey their classmates about whether their school should adopt school uniforms. From the information gathered have students construct graphs showing the results.
- Have students survey their classmates on their extracurricular activities (ballet, judo, dance, gymnastics, etc.). From the information gathered, have students construct graphs to discover which after school activities are the most popular.
- In groups, ask students to find the costs of extracurricular activities in their area. Have students compute this cost for one month, six months, or one year, then compare this cost with the cost of attending *juku* in Japan.

Elementary Student Finance Survey

1. Which of the following are you required to purchase for school? Please check and indicate the cost.
   crayons_____
   glue_____
   notebook paper_____
   pencils_____
   eraser_____
   folders_____
   scissors_____
   ruler_____
   colored pencils_____
   highlighter_____
   ink pen_____
   computer disk_____
   school box_____
   tissue _____
   book bag_____
   VCR tape_____
2. What is the cost of your school lunch? _____
3. If you wear a uniform, what is the cost of your school uniform?_____
4. If you are required to purchase textbooks, what is the cost? _____
5. If you receive tutoring, what is the cost per month? _____

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Web Sites

An explanation of why students attend *juku* after school: http://www.nara-edu.ac.jp/~kj-jhs/aftscho.htm

Helpful e-mail address: Mr. Masato Sugiura, an elementary teacher in Japan: jf3plfmbox.kyoto-inet.or.jp

Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture http://www.monbu.go.jp/

Useful web site for students to learn about education in Japan: http://www.indiana.edu/~japan/japan/mdnjapan/LS37.html

Explanation of the Japanese educational system: http://www.japanlink.co.jp/ka/ckyofr.htm

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GROCERY CARTS: A WORLD APART

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INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW/ RATIONALE

The use of resources by members of a society reflects the value system of that society as well as economic conditions and current preferences. Because of the relationship between economics and society, the study of economics as a means of international comparison enables us to better understand ourselves, others, and our respective roles in a global society.

As students learn about people in diverse cultures, they become conscious of common needs and economic interdependence. Thus, students grow in their capacity to accept differences and to acknowledge bonds with those who are different from themselves. Food provides an ideal portal for examining all aspects of a culture. A look at the production, preparation, and presentation of food in Japan provides an opportunity to analyze this country's self-sufficiency. It also can serve to deepen our understanding of how geography and demographics influence production and imports, affect the role of government regulation, as well as changes resulting from global connections. The importance of food purchases to family budgets and the manifestations of food interwoven into Japanese cultural traditions furnish a focus for elementary curriculum.

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the concept of food as a basic need and a major purchase for families. The activities are designed to allow students to determine similarities and differences between what is consumed in Japan and in their own homes. In keeping with the appropriate strategy for primary grades, this chapter begins with the self, then provides experiences that foster a connection to others.

PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS

The Impact of Geography and Demographics

Japan is a boomerang-shaped island chain with 29,000 kilometers of coastline. Therefore, its bounty from the sea is no surprise. The climate varies from the sub-arctic on the northern tip of Hokkaido to the sub-tropic found on Okinawa, and results in an array of agricultural products. Japan is fortunate to have fertile land and an abundance of rivers. Because 67% of the land is mountainous, the Japanese people have employed innovations such as terraced rice paddies. Several thousand varieties of rice are grown in Japan.

With land area equal to approximately one twenty-fifth that of the United States, Japan is not a large country. Approximately 125 million people are concentrated on coastal islands and on the eastern seaboard of Honshu (the largest island), making Japan one of the most densely populated countries in the world.

The Influence of Government and Global Connections

Although it is true that the cost of Japanese-cultivated rice is high in Japan, pressure from trading partners has resulted in some relaxation regarding rice imports. This trend could drive down costs. Rice is the primary agricultural product in Japan. Its cultivation has been culturally ritualized, as evidenced in numerous festivities and artifacts. Rice cultivation is also considered to be basic to Japan's national security.[1] In an announcement made 24 April 1998, The Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Japan reported measures for supporting Asian countries to include a loan of 500,000 tons of rice from government stockpiles.

The value of Japan's agricultural imports was 4,638,100 million *yen* in 1996; up from 1,511,300 million *yen* in 1970. Currently, Japan is the world's largest net importer of agricultural products and Japan's farming population continues to decline. The Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries has initiated a system of Shuno Junbi-Ko (Farming Preparatory School) with classes including rice cultivation, animal husbandry, and horticulture.[2]

As agricultural products have come into Japan in increasing quantities, so have foreign influences. A quick scan of any Japanese newspaper will show evidence of this, from advertisements for European confections to Mexican fiestas. Adver-

tisements for mayonnaise frequently tout the versatility of this product in the Japanese culinary repertoire. Mayonnaise can be spread on nearly everything, from salad to pizza. While such ads illustrate foreign influence, in the case of mayonnaise, they also demonstrate the way in which the Japanese frequently borrow things from other cultures and make them uniquely their own. This is something that the Japanese have done historically, and with great success.

The increase of Japanese *konbini* (convenience stores) has surpassed their growth in the United States. The fast food items they sell match Japan's dietary preferences and include *bento* (lunch in a box), *onigiri* (rice balls), *nikuman* (steamed buns with minced – meat filling) and *oden* (stewed vegetables and fish balls in broth). Many urban Japanese, especially university students and single adults, depend on *konbini*, particularly for food.[3]

McDonald's first opened in Japan in a Tokyo department store in 1971. The popularity of the hamburger is evidenced by its regular inclusion in the special children's lunches offered at restaurants throughout Japan. One of McDonald's competitors, MosBurger, serves a "riceburger" made of *kimpira* (burdock root and carrot) with seaweed on grilled rice pressed into the shape of a bun. Despite the popularity of Western-style food, many Japanese people believe it appeals primarily to young people.[4]

Japan's Food Culture

Ritual offerings reflecting the bounty of nature, or of the harvest, originally were made to the *kami* (local deities), or to Buddha. Over time, these food offerings became elements in the feast for the worshippers and were seen as strengthening the bond between the gods and humans.[5] Rice has always been the most important ingredient in Japanese food offerings to the gods. It is seen as the core of Japan's culinary culture. There are particular rice dishes prepared for special events. Some examples include adding red beans to rice for celebratory occasions and preparing *chimaki* (rice dumplings wrapped in bamboo) for Boys Day Festivals (May 5th). *Kashiwamochi* (rice cakes stuffed with sweet red beans wrapped in an oak leaf) are also eaten in celebration of Boy's Day.

Tofu (bean curd) was a staple of the diet of Buddhist clergy who did not consume animal protein. As far back as the twelfth century, tofu was sold at roadside stalls in Kyoto. The Zen sect of Buddhism introduced green tea to Japan where it remains the daily beverage. Sixth graders at Midorigaoka Junior High School in Chiba, near Tokyo confirmed the continuation of this custom. Two thirds of these twelve-year-olds indicated that they enjoy green tea. Considered one of Japan's most distinguished arts, the tea ceremony, the ritualized preparation and service of thick green tea practiced by aficionados, dates back to the 1500s. It has prompted the development of numerous other arts and crafts traditions.

Food and Family Budgets

The Life Reporters who met with the KKC Fellowship group in Tokyo on 3 July 1998 responded to questions aimed at determining the percentage of their living expenses spent for food. Of the fourteen responses the average was 22% with a range from 10% to 50%. This figure from the Life Reporters compares with the figure of 24% based on the report of the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry, and Fisheries (June 1998). The statistics for the 24% stated average annual household expenditure as 307,853 yen with 75,285 yen used for food purchases. And what did the Japanese families buy with this money? The information is given by categories below:

Average Food Cost Disbursement per Household

Fruits	4%
Cakes and Candies	4%
Oils and Seasonings	4%
Dairy Products and Eggs	5%
Meat	9%
Rice and Wheat Products	10%
Cooked Food	10%
Beverages	10%
Fish and Shellfish	12%
Vegetables and Seaweeds	15%
Eating Out	15%

Source: Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries. www.maff.go.jp/eindex.html

The grocery lists (from most frequently purchased items to less frequently purchased items) submitted by the Life Reporters and additional Tokyo housewives were as follows:

vegetables (average 9 kinds per list)

eggs	fruit	tofu
milk	juice	seaweed
fish	rice	dried goods (beans,
meat	bread	algae, radish)
		tea

An exploration of the allotment of space in food stores can also enlighten a study of food culture. The square footage for each grocery section in one Tokyo store is given below:

Seafood	200 square feet
Produce	144 square feet
Prepared Foods	128 square feet
Meat	90 square feet
Dairy	40 square feet
Rice	24 square feet
Eggs	15 square feet

Japanese working women, many of whom commute to work daily, often use department store food shops. Frequently in or near train stations, these department store food shops are conveniently located. They stock many foods that require little or no preparation before serving. They also offer an extensive variety.[6]

In regard to eating in restaurants, the Life Reporters average three meals a month. They estimate the average cost to be 2,970 *yen* per person/per meal. In fact, the Japanese national average percentage of eating out within the total monthly food expenditure per household in 1997 was 16.8%. The average percentage of food expenditure within the total monthly living expense per household was 23.5%. And, the average percentage of eating out within the total monthly living expenditure was 4%.[7] *Obento* (box lunches) are popular and readily available.

The elementary team of the KKC Fellowships group enjoyed lunch with students at Koi Elementary School in Hiroshima. The menu consisted of stew (white beans, carrots, potatoes, and beef) spinach, corn, roll with chocolate syrup and milk. Students delivered and served lunch. They wore masks to avoid spreading germs.

PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLES

To promote understanding of the connections between food, economics, and culture, engage students in the following activities:

- Have students compile a family grocery list with a parent. Using the list of groceries provided by the Life Reporters, construct a Venn diagram. Discuss items common to both and unique to each. Allow students to suggest reasons for the differences. Use this opportunity to introduce facts relating to geography, cultural preferences, global connections, and economics.
- Make a class chart showing "Dietary Recommendations" in Japan and the United States. Examine the similarities and the differences.
- Using pictures or video of the Tokyo Fish Market and seafood import/export lists, ask students to make replicas of types of fish and shellfish sold there. Display the results on a net-covered bulletin board.
- Locate photos of box lunches (*obento*) for each student. Provide resources for labeling items and discuss.
- Make a class collection of advertisements for "take home" meals popular in your area.
- Design a class book of "Holiday Foods" in Japan and the United States. List the costs of ingredients. Ask students to find pictures of these foods or illustrate them.
- Visit a local grocery store. Measure the square footage of major sections and compare with this measurement with those of the Tokyo market presented earlier. Find items common to both stores and determine price differences.
- Read *The Magic Rice Paddle* (available from *Kamishibai* for Kids, P.O. Box 20069, Park West Station, New York, New York 10025-1510 phone and fax 212-662-5836) and *The Little Red Hen.* Contrast the attitudes of the characters. List similarities of wheat and rice as food staples.
- View video segments or read about vegetable gardens in Japan. Have students find pictures of locally grown vegetables.
- Use clay to make replicas of Japanese food. Display these with prices. Relate this activity to the abundance of plastic food models found in restaurant windows throughout Japan.
- Create prints using tempra paint and typical Japanese vegetables (sweet potato, lotus root, carrot, etc.
- Construct a game for matching Japanese snacks and their prices. Include pictures of Japanese coins beside each amount.
- Ask parents to assist in determining the percentage of family budget spent for food. Calculate the class average. Compare this average with Japanese figures (24% based on June 1998 *Japan in Figures*).

- Draw or cut out pictures to show a school lunch on any given day. Compare to the Koi Elementary lunch described earlier.
- Communicate (by e-mail or conventional mail) with a Japanese school and conduct a "favorite lunch" survey.
- Compare U.S. and Japanese currency. Use paper and crayons to make "rubbings" of the Japanese coins. Create an origami purse for the pretend money.
- Construct a large import/export map of Japan and the United States. Use picture symbols for major food items and color code (red-export, blue-import) the routes of traded goods.
- Prepare both sticky and non-sticky rice as a class cooking experience. Experiment using chopsticks with both varieties and discuss the experience. Analyze cost per serving of rice in U.S. and in Japan.
- Design a bingo game with pictures of popular Japanese foods or combinations of Japanese coins.

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http://www.stat.go.jp/1612.htm (Supply and Demand of Food)
http://www.stat.go.jp/156.htm (Family Income and Expenditures)
http://www.stat.go.jp/1512.htm (Retail Price Survey)

Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry, and Fisheries of Japan
www.maff.go.jp/eindex.html

Videos

A wide variety of videos are available from the various offices of the Cosulates General of Japan (The Atlanta office is given below as an example):

Consulate General of Japan
Suite 2000, 100 Colony Square
Atlanta, Georgia 30361
Telephone (404) 892-5067

1. *Profile of a Nation* Series, "Tsukiji Fish Market" and "Japanese Style Confectionery."
2. Japan Video Encyclopedia. "Japanese Industry and Economy" (segments on agriculture and fisheries).
3. *Video Japan*, "The Healthy Japanese Diet."
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MONEY, BANKING AND FINANCIAL MARKETS IN JAPAN

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INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW/ RATIONALE

Economics students in U.S. high schools rarely find subjects to be more interesting than the topics of money, banking and financial markets. Witness the popularity of stock and commodity market games as well as the wide use of Federal Reserve instructional materials. Knowledge in these areas helps students understand their important future role as exchangers, savers and investors. Long term economic prosperity is vitally dependent on saving and investment since countries are unable to achieve sustainable economic growth without accessing capital in domestic and global financial markets. Banks and financial markets are important institutions through which capital is made available. When these institutions are functioning effectively, capital is channeled from those with extra funds (who desire to earn a return on savings) to those with creditworthy investment projects (who are willing to pay interest on borrowed funds). U.S. banks, stock markets, bond markets, insurance companies, finance companies, mutual funds, and other financial intermediaries all play an important role in promoting economic efficiency by serving as the conduit through which savings flow to their highest valued investment uses.

The use of money in economic exchange also serves to promote economic efficiency by encouraging specialization. Try to imagine a world in which transactions were made without the use of a medium of exchange. That is, consider the use of barter, the direct exchange of goods and services for other goods and services. While barter exchange is acceptable (and perhaps desirable) in the simplest of economies (such as a Robinson Crusoe economy of two exchangers, Robinson Crusoe and Friday, and two goods, fish and breadfruit) it is hopelessly inefficient in modern complex economic systems. Most of us are consumers, and as consumers we are generalists. That is, we prefer a widely defined market basket of goods and services. However, as producers (suppliers of labor resources) we tend to be specialists. Our education and training lead us to select narrowly defined professions such as nursing, engineering, accounting, teaching, and banking. This specialization works effectively in a world in which money is used in exchange. We can earn our incomes performing those tasks at which we are most proficient, convert these incomes into money, and purchase the myriad goods and services we need. Sellers are willing to accept money as payment for goods and services because they know that this money will be accepted by others in exchange. Money thus allows people to specialize in productive tasks which encourages economic efficiency.

Money also lowers transaction costs, further improving efficiency. To see this, imagine specializing as a teacher in a world of barter exchange. If you wished to consume a tomato, you would need to find a tomato grower who was interested in your teaching services. Likewise, if you wished to play a round of golf or needed a hair cut or desired accounting services at tax time, a lot of valuable time would be wasted in the simple process of conducting exchange. Teachers would soon find it better to grow their own tomatoes, cut their own hair, and do their own taxes. They would likely abandon the idea of playing golf as their time would be dominated by self-sufficient actions. Economic interdependence would give way to independence and the breadth of goods and services would be severely curtailed. The value to society of using money in exchange cannot be overstated!

While the U.S. saver demands that bank and non-bank financial intermediaries alike offer a wide array of financial services, this has not traditionally been the case for the Japanese saver. Japanese households, despite amassing a huge stockpile of savings, appear to be quite content with placing their savings in banks as well as postal accounts that function like bank deposits. Mutual funds are not yet popular in Japan and direct holdings of corporate stocks and bonds by households is not common. This means that knowledge of Japan's banking and postal systems is crucial to understanding financial intermediation there.

This unit will serve to compare and contrast saving and investment decisions in the U.S. and Japan and will help high school economics students gain a richer understanding of different financial practices in our increasingly global economy.

Countries cannot invest without savings. With inadequate savings to finance domestic investment, the U.S. has turned to foreign savings to provide necessary investment capital. Until the recent reduction in the federal budget deficit, a significant share of domestic savings was absorbed by the federal government's need to finance excessive expenditures. This left an insufficient amount of capital to finance private investment and thus heightened the attractiveness of foreign financial capital.

Japanese households are, of course, world renowned for their savings ethic. In 1996, they saved 13.1% of their disposable incomes, a percentage only surpassed in the G-7 countries by Italy's 14.5%. By contrast, U.S. households saved only 5% of their disposable income during this period. The trend in the U.S. savings ratio is unmistakable. In 1986, the ratio of savings to disposable income was in excess of 10%. Ten years later, this ratio has been cut to less than half. The Japanese savings ratio, while having declined since the 1970s, is still more than twice that of the U.S. and is (by far) sufficient to satisfy Japan's domestic investment demands.

PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS

The Use of Money in Japan

The *yen* is the name of the Japanese currency. It circulates in denominations of 1, 5, 10, 50, 100, and 500-*yen* coins and 1,000, 5,000, and 10,000-*yen* notes. The 1-*yen* coin is of little value in exchange. Its current use owes primarily to a recently enacted national sales tax that has forced businesses to provide change in 1 *yen* increments. At the August 1998 exchange rate of 144 *yen* per dollar, 1 *yen* is worth only 0.007 dollars, or 0.7 cents! Students who are interested in learning more about Japanese money should be directed to the *About Money* Internet link at the Bank of Japan World Wide Web site http://www.boj.or.jp/en/about/money_f.htm>. This informative resource offers images and descriptions of currency that is currently used in Japan as well as a currency museum that, among other things, features a history of Japanese currency.

Currency is widely used as a medium of exchange in Japan. While Americans rely on a combination of cash, electronic, and personal checking account payment options, the Japanese make little use of checking accounts. Banks, post offices, and even convenience stores are used to initiate electronic bill payments while cash and, increasingly, credit cards are used to make purchases of consumer goods and services, including expensive big-ticket items. It is ironic that in a country that is so cash-dependent, access to cash is relatively limited. By tradition, banks and post offices in Japan offer limited customer services. Japanese banks are open from 9am-3pm on Monday through Friday and are not open on weekends. Paying bills electronically and accessing teller services is thus highly inconvenient for those who must work each day. It is only slightly more convenient to use automatic teller machines (ATMs) and cash dispensers, which often close by 7pm on week nights and have limited hours of operation on weekends. However, due to current financial reforms, this may be changing.

While it seems unimaginable (and inadvisable) to carry around a large amount of cash in the U.S., crime rates are so low in Japan that personal security is not even a consideration. In a U.S. city of Tokyo's size, a wise person limits his holdings of cash and pays close attention to where he is walking and driving. In Tokyo (and other Japanese cities), this is not a concern. A Westerner can walk the streets at all hours of the night, comfortably use the mass transit system, and generally rely on the kindness of strangers to assist when confusion inevitably arises. In this sense, Japan is a far more hospitable country than the U.S..

Banking in Japan

Just as the U.S. has commercial banks, savings and loan associations, mutual savings banks, and credit unions, Japan also has several different types of banks (with varying functions). Banks in Japan include (but are not limited to) city banks, regional banks, second regional banks, long-term credit banks, and trust banks. In recent years, the banking industry in Japan has fallen on hard times as the stock market has contracted and land values (upon which a great share of bank loans are collateralized) have been depressed. While official estimates of non-performing loans total $230 billion, private estimates range up to $700 billion. Charges of corruption in the industry run rampant and several high profile banks have either failed or are on

the brink of failure. In November 1997, Hokkaido Takushoku Bank became Japan's largest bank to fail and in June 1998, the Long-Term Credit Bank of Japan faced collapse.

The city banks are by far the largest of all banks in Japan with assets officially valued at 250 trillion *yen* ($1.7 trillion) at the end of 1996. The function of banks in Japan is familiar. They accept deposits, make loans, and purchase securities. They also offer a wide range of foreign exchange and customer payment services. As noted, this is attractive since checking accounts are not widely used in Japan.

Japanese households rely on deposits at banks and in the postal savings system as a means to hold their wealth. In 1996, 52% of personal financial assets was held as time and savings (and other similar) deposits and 11.3% was held as currency and demand deposits. This differs significantly from the composition of U.S. wealth, where the appropriate numbers are 17.1 and 2%, respectively. This commitment to bank deposits and postal savings is remarkable given current rates of interest on these deposits. Since September 1995, the Bank of Japan has maintained an official discount rate of 0.5 percent. This rate is that which the central bank charges banks for collateralized loans and is the most visible official interest rate in Japan. Since this rate serves as a benchmark for other interest rates it is not surprising to see the current short-term prime lending rate at 1.625% and a long-term prime rate of 2.5%. In June 1998, the rate on a 3-month certificate of deposit was 0.68%, with rates on savings deposits even lower. Yet Japanese households continued to place funds in these low yield accounts.

One reason why Japanese savers have traditionally relied on holding funds in the banking system is that they have had limited options. This may be changing. Financial reforms that began to take effect in 1998 and will extend until 2001 will liberalize individual investment options and make it easier for households to consider a wider array of financial investments. With the arrival of foreign banks, Japanese banks have been forced to pay more attention to customer service. Current trends at Japanese banks include telephone banking, improvements in the versatility of cash dispenser cards, extension of business hours, and 24-hour ATM services. It has even been suggested that bank branches may begin to appear in supermarkets!

Japan's Postal Savings Office

In addition to offering normal postal services and life insurance, Japan's post office has a postal savings operation. Like banks, the Postal Savings Office (Yucho) offers payment services to its customers as well as various types of deposits (whose interest rates are often slightly better than their counterparts in the banking system). Yucho is in fact Japan's largest depository institution with 236.84 trillion *yen* ($1.63 trillion) of deposits at the end of 1997. The most popular of these deposits is the *teigaku* savings deposit, with an 86.5% share in 1996. *Teigaku* savings deposits are fixed amount certificates that have a maturity of up to 10 years, but can be cashed after 6 months with little penalty. This makes these deposits more liquid than bank CDs and, along with their tendency to offer higher rates than CDs, accounts for their tremendous popularity. Other deposits offered by Yucho include ordinary, collection, housing, and education savings as well as time saving.

By tradition, deposit funds are invested across the various sectors of the Japanese economy in public projects and numerous public and private enterprises. Many observers have voiced concerns that the allocation of investment funds from Yucho largely depends on political influence, ignoring traditional financial assessment of investment risk. Failed projects financed by Yucho can be hidden (and passed on to taxpayers) since the Post Office is a public body. If these concerns prove accurate, the public nature of Yucho could be camouflaging yet another weakness of the Japanese financial sector. It is perhaps for this reason that former Prime Minister Hashimoto attempted to privatize Yucho in 1997, an exercise that was later abandoned.

Japanese Financial Markets

In 1989, the Nikkei 225 stock index of the Tokyo Stock Exchange (TSE) peaked at 38,915. On August 28 1998, the index stood below 14,000 for the first time in twelve years. The dramatic stock market appreciation of the late 1980s has been followed by a decade-long financial slump. Prior to the bursting of the speculative bubble, land and stock values were rising at rates that were unsupported by economic fundamentals. Transactions by banks, brokers, and securities dealers that were based on this speculative euphoria were destined to collapse when the bubble burst. As can be seen by the current Nikkei average, Japan is still dealing with its financial meltdown. To date, very few secu-

rities firms have declared bankruptcy. When Yamaichi Securities, one of Japan's largest brokerages, announced in November 1997 that it was closing, the reality of financial crisis was evident. This has been followed recently by the June 1998 liquidation of Sanyo Securities. Seizing the opportunity left by the collapse of Yamaichi, Merrill Lynch aggressively entered Japan's securities industry. This was just the beginning of a very recognizable trend of an increased Western presence in Japanese financial markets. One now finds multiple offices of such companies as Merrill Lynch and Citibank throughout Japan. The gradual implementation of current financial liberalization efforts is sure to accelerate this trend.

One explanation for why financial reform has been so slow in coming to financial markets in Japan is the relatively modest amount of securities holdings by Japanese households. Only 11.7% of personal assets in Japan are directly held in the form of securities (with slightly more than half of these holdings in shares of stock). To be sure, households do own securities indirectly through their pension funds; but the point remains, the average Japanese household has little financial exposure to stock market uncertainties. They are instead much more vulnerable to the associated collapse in property values. Contrast this to the U.S., where over 36% of personal assets are tied up in securities holdings and pension funds are flush with stock and bond accumulations. While there was in excess of $3.2 trillion in mutual fund holdings in the U.S. in 1996, these instruments have not yet become popular in Japan. At the end of the 1980s, the Tokyo Stock Exchange (TSE) was lively with the trading activities of floor brokers. On a recent visit to the TSE, the market was calm. The introduction of an electronic trading mechanism and the continuation of an eight year bear market has sadly silenced the exchange.

Since Japan is more dependent on international trade than the U.S., current trends in foreign exchange markets must be unsettling to Japanese households and industry. At recent trading of 144 per dollar, the *yen* is markedly lower than its 12-month high of 119 per dollar. Fears of further *yen* depreciation continue to dominate economic policy discussions in Japan. In mid-June 1998, the U.S. intervened in the currency market to drive up the value of the *yen*. At the time of the intervention, the *yen* had declined in value to about 147 per dollar. Immediately after the intervention, the *yen* rose to approximately 136. Since that time, however, it has slowly worked its way back to near its pre-intervention level.

While a weaker currency encourages export growth in the short run, it also makes foreign goods more expensive for Japanese households. As a long-term strategy, the pursuit of currency weakness is not recommended. Beyond current *yen*-dollar exchange rate concerns, the Japanese are quite reasonably alarmed by the sinking currencies of other countries in southeast Asia. The currencies of South Korea, Thailand, Indonesia, and Malaysia have been battered in recent months. Since these are important export markets for the Japanese, there is good cause for concern. With the continued weakness of regional currencies, low interest rates, and dwindling world confidence in the sincerity of promised economic policy reforms, it is hard to imagine that Japan will soon overcome its currency problems.

Japanese Banks and the Need for Reform: Some Personal Observations

Starting in the mid-1980s, Japan experienced an unprecedented acceleration of asset values. Stock and housing markets took off as burgeoning credit demands were happily covered by banking and securities firms. This practice was acceptable as long as assets retained their value. However, in 1990, the bubble began to burst. The speculative lending activities of prior years began to haunt the Japanese financial sector, with banks being the hardest hit. Borrowers began to be unable to repay loans on their deflated property and bank balance sheets came under close scrutiny. These concerns remain to this day. It is no wonder that concerned Japanese citizens rightly ask when these troubles can be expected to subside.

The Japanese have essentially faced a banking crisis for the entirety of the 1990s, although they have only officially admitted it in recent years. It has taken until June 1998 for the Japanese government (which was under intense international pressure) to offer a "bridge bank" plan for rescuing the banking industry. It remains to be seen whether this plan, which has elements of the U.S. savings and loan reforms of the early 1990s, is sufficient to bring about the needed reform to Japan's banking industry. To be effective, such a plan must have several elements, including the ability of banks to unload their non-performing assets, improved accounting and reporting standards, and the means to shut down troubled institutions.

Meaningful reform will take a great deal of personal courage and leadership. This is exceedingly difficult for Japan because of the entrenched bureaucracy at the various government ministries. Effective political decision-making power in Japan resides within these ministries. This is in stark contrast to the U.S., where elected representatives are empowered to make decisive judgments on public policy. It is this institutional structure, with its lack of effective decision-making power on the part of Japanese elected officials, that is the key to understanding the political paralysis of undertaking structural economic reform in Japan. Bureaucracies cannot be expected to reform from within. Strong leadership at the highest levels of the Japanese government will need to be shown if this economic power is to return to its pre-bubble status in the 21st century.

Another impediment to meaningful bank reform is the structure of Japanese industry. Large Japanese companies are typically organized as *keiretsu*, an industrial group of companies that are involved in various lines of business. These companies typically have shares of ownership of other firms in the *keiretsu* and are expected to show a preference toward doing business with these companies. The largest such *keiretsu* is the Mitsubishi group. In July 1998, this industrial group had 41 core companies, including a glass manufacturer, a bank, a trust company, a beer manufacturer, construction, insurance, auto manufacturing, and numerous other firms. As their annual report suggests, they are truly a "community of companies." The Bank of Tokyo-Mitsubishi is the largest bank in Japan. It is listed on both the Tokyo and New York stock exchanges. It is also one of the healthiest banks in Japan financially. Because it has to meet the more stringent reporting requirements faced by firms that list on the New York Stock Exchange, its operations are quite transparent compared to those of other banks in Japan.

The *keiretsu* system is an obstacle to meaningful financial reform in Japan. Banks that offer preferential lending arrangements to companies in their industrial group are not likely to voluntarily foreclose on problem loans to these firms. And so the problem festers. Because of lax reporting requirements, banks do not release information about the extent of their problem loans and because of close relationships with their borrowers, they are unlikely to voluntarily disclose information that causes the market to reevaluate the quality of its loan assets.

PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLES

How Long Does It Take For Investments to Double In Value?

At current rates of approximately 0.5%, funds invested in Japanese bank deposits can be expected to double in approximately 144 years. Students can calculate this by applying the "rule of 72." Simply stated, this rule suggests that at an interest rate of n percent, an investment will take $72/n$ years to double in value. The number 72 is used (instead of 100) because we need to take into account the effects of compound interest. Therefore, at an interest rate of 8%, a dollar invested today will be worth $2 in 9 years. It is easy to see why Japanese savers are currently eager to invest in long-term U.S. bonds. At a yield of 5.4%, this is an attractive option especially if Japanese investors expect the dollar will continue to strengthen against the *yen*.

As an activity, ask students to collect some historical information on interest rates and rates of return on various investment options in the U.S. and Japan. They can use this information to get an idea about how long it takes for these investment options to double in value. They will probably find that the highest long run rate of return on investment in the U.S. is on stock market investments. Teachers will need to caution students that investing in the stock market is much riskier than buying Treasury bills or placing funds in a savings account. This is especially true if an investor needs near-term access to funds invested in the stock market. Teachers are advised to instruct students on the virtues of a balanced portfolio.

It's Real Interest Rates That Matter

Nominal (or market) interest rates are the rates on financial instruments that we observe by picking up a newspaper and reading the rate quotes. Because they are not adjusted for inflation, they are not as visible as the *real* rate of interest. The most meaningful cost of borrowing (or return to lending) is the rate of interest after making adjustments for expected inflation rates. This is the real interest rate. Because increases in the price level, inflation, cause the value (in terms of purchasing power) of future dollars paid to decline, lenders will make sure that the interest rates paid to them at least cover inflationary expectations.

Real interest rates are calculated as follows: real interest rate = nominal interest rate – the rate of expected inflation. Thus if nominal interest

rates equal 10% and people expect a 5% rate of inflation, then real rates equal 5%. This reflects the true cost of borrowing. The current real interest rate on a 30-year U.S. Treasury bond was approximately 3.2% (nominal rate of 5.4% – an assumed expected inflation rate of 2.2%). As this real rate varies, so too will investment (and ultimately economic growth).

So how does this apply to Japan? The Japanese may well be currently experiencing a phenomenon that the U.S. has not experienced since the Great Depression. That is, a situation where real interest rates are *greater than* nominal rates. How can this happen? When an economy is in the midst of a decline in asset and land values, it is likely to experience *deflation*, a condition whereby the average price level declines in the future. Deflation is nothing other than a *negative* inflation rate and can be just as damaging to an economy as inflation. Suppose the Japanese expect a 5% decline in the price level this year. This implies that the real long-term interest rate is approximately 7.5% (2.5% nominal interest rate – (–5% inflation rate))! While the 5% deflation assumption is arbitrary, the point remains that the low interest rates currently observed in Japan do not tell the whole story. Deflation, when combined with tremendous financial uncertainties, can help explain why the seemingly low interest rates in Japan have not stimulated investment (and thus economic) activity.

As an exercise, ask students which situation they would prefer as a borrower and which they would prefer as a lender: Option 1 – nominal interest rates of 8% during a period in which inflation is expected to be 10%; or Option 2 – nominal interest rates of 2% during a period when deflation is expected to be 2%. Borrowers would prefer Option 1 (because the real rate is –2%) while lenders would prefer Option 2 (because the real rate is 4%). While it seems counterintuitive that borrowers (lenders) will prefer the higher (lower) interest rate option to the lower (higher), this illustrates the importance of using the real interest rate in one's calculations.

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Match the Following Terms With the Appropriate Phrase

1. *teigaku*	a. To date, the largest bank in Japan to fail
2. Yucho	b. The name of the Japanese currency
3. *keiretsu*	c. Used to calculate length of time to double investments
4. Nikkei	d. Japan's Postal Savings Office
5. Rule of 72	e. Bankrupt firm – operations taken over by Merrill Lynch
6. *yen*	f. Japanese industrial group
7. Hokkaido Takushoku Bank	g. Most popular deposit in Japan's Postal Savings Office
8. Yamaichi Securities	h. Measure of performance on the Tokyo Stock Exchange

Answers: 1(g), 2(d), 3(f), 4(h), 5(c), 6(b), 7(a), 8(e)

ELBOW ROOM: EXAMINING JAPAN'S POPULATION DENSITY

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INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW/ RATIONALE

Population density refers to the number of people per square unit of area. People often associate high population density with crowding, which is not always the case. It is possible for people in a country with a high population density to actually be less crowded than people in a country with a lower population density. One must consider other factors, such as the physical geography of the lands in question and the percentage of the population that lives in cities, before jumping to conclusions. Finally, it must be remembered that population density is an average, and that conditions vary within the borders of a nation.

Most people have experienced different levels of population density. Compare, for example, a classroom before school starts or at the end of the day, when typically a teacher is alone in it, with a classroom full of students. Those are different levels of density. Is the typical classroom crowded? That depends upon how large the classroom is, how many things take up usable space, and it also depends upon a perception of what "crowded" means, which differs from person to person and from culture to culture.

There are two different types of population density. The first type is **arithmetic population density**, which is commonly referred to as population density. The second type of population density is **physiologic population density**, which is sometimes also called agricultural population density. Each type of density is basically calculated in the same way. The number of people in an area is divided by the square number of units by which that area is measured, either square miles or square kilometers.

To calculate arithmetic population density, divide the population of the area by the square miles or kilometers of that area. For example, according to the Population Reference Bureau, in 1997 Japan had a population of 126,400,000, and a land area of 145,370 square miles. By plugging those figures into the formula we find the following:[1]

Arithmetic Population Density = Population/square mile

Japan's Arithmetic Population Density = 126,400,000 people / 145,370 square miles

Japan's Arithmetic Population Density = 870 people per square mile

When compared to Australia (6/mi^2), Canada (8/mi^2), the United States (76/mi^2), or the United Kingdom (632/mi^2), Japan clearly would seem to be the most crowded. Nations whose density is closest to that of Japan include Belgium (862/mi^2), India (845/mi^2), and Rwanda (812/mi^2). However, simple arithmetic population density is inadequate to determine the living conditions of a population. One must take into account the physical geography of a nation to determine whether it is indeed crowded.

Physiologic population density may illustrate the true living conditions of a population better than simple arithmetic population density. When calculating physiologic population density, the physical geography of a nation must be considered. Doing so eliminates from the equation land that is unsuitable either for habitation or for agricultural purposes. Western Australia, for example, is covered by desert land that allows only sparse habitation. Few Canadians live on the slopes of the Rocky Mountains or on the frozen tundra. In the United States, millions of square miles are covered by mountains, deserts, swamps, and other natural features that discourage development. Areas of the United Kingdom are unsuitable for farming either because of poor soil, cool temperatures, or over abundant moisture.

To account for these conditions of physical geography, it is necessary to determine a nation's physiologic or agricultural population density. This simply involves finding out what portion of a nation's total land area is suitable for agriculture and other forms of human development. Essentially what is looked at is the area of land that has

accommodating climate, slope, and soils. A primary concern of any nation is how it will feed its people. Because the land that is best for farming is usually also attractive to land development for human habitation, the two interests are often at odds. This is especially important in countries with high arithmetic population densities. Today, only 14% of Japan's land is currently suitable for agricultural purposes.[2] Fourteen percent of Japan's total land area would be 20,352 square miles. Putting those figures into the formula we find the following:

Physiologic Population Density = Population/agricultural square mile

Japan's Physiologic Population Density = 126,400,000 people / 20,352 square miles

Japan's Physiologic Population Density = 6,211 people per square mile

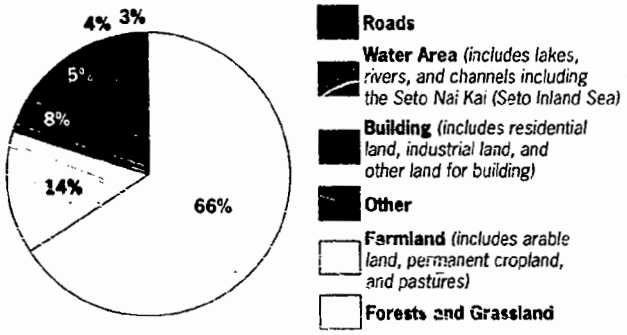
Now when we compare Japan's physiologic density of 6,211 people/square mile with Belgium's (3,614) or Rwanda's (1,105) or India's (1,196), there is simply no comparison. Those nations have a greater percentage of their land available for farming, which significantly lowers their physiologic population density when compared with Japan. Of course, just because a nation has land available to farm does not necessarily translate into being able to feed its people. For example, the recent civil wars in Rwanda have had an extremely negative effect on their harvest. Also, the problem of hunger in India is not due to a shortage of grain, but instead it is partially a result of the fact that rats consume tons of grain before and after harvest. Similarly, cattle require tons of feed and these cattle are not a part of the national food supply.

To summarize, it is essential to look at both arithmetic and physiological population densities when examining the population of a nation. Beyond that, it is important to look at the many factors that influence each number before drawing conclusions about the living conditions of a country. When looking at arithmetic density, Japan has the fifteenth highest population density. However, when looking at physiologic population density, Japan's is among the highest in the world.

What Causes Japan To Have A High Population Density?

When considering arithmetic population density, the answer to this question is simple. Japan is a small nation with a large population. Things are a little more complex when looking at physiologic population density. The topography of Japan limits land available for agricultural and other development purposes. Japan has a mountainous topography. The chart below illustrates why Japan's physiologic population density is among the highest in the world.

Land Area by Use 1995: Japan



Sources: *Japan 1998: An International Comparison* and *Japan in Figures 1998.*

The result is that Japan's population tends to be clustered along the coastal plains, the same area that is well suited for farming. No less than two-thirds of Japan is covered by steep mountains. Only 13% of Japan is covered by alluvial plains. When the per-unit area under cultivation is considered, (this is known as the physiologic density), Japan's density is among the highest in the world. Accordingly, Japanese land and food prices are very high.

PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS

Where do the people of Japan Live?

For Japan, the fact that over 2/3 of the country is covered by mountains, means the first factor that influences where people live is land that is flat and suitable for agriculture or building. That would be for the most part on the alluvial plains near the coasts.

The second factor might be climate. The Japanese archipelago extends from the sub-tropics to the sub-arctic, with a large section of the country located in a temperate climate. Consequently, most Japanese live in large cities located along the Pacific Ocean coast of Honshu, with its relatively temperate climate.

A third factor relates to the emergence of Japan as an industrial nation. Because Japan has very few natural resources, Japan has been dependent on imported raw materials. As a result, harbors such as the fine one at Yokohama have

drawn factories and people seeking employment. Of the ten largest cities in Japan, only Kyoto is inland. Consequently, it tends to be the home of lighter industry less dependent on imported raw materials.

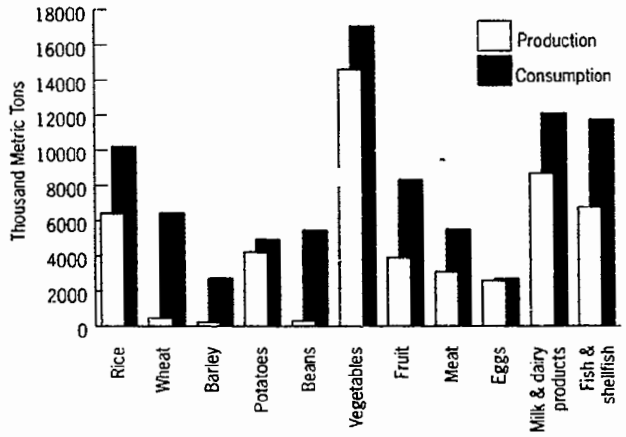
So, to answer the question, "Where do the Japanese people live?" one needs to look first at the island of Honshu. The name Honshu means "mainland," perhaps because it comprises almost 60% of Japan's total land area and is home to nearly 80% of the nation's population. Nearly 75% of Japan's people live in coastal villages or cities. Many aspects of Japan's culture, ranging from religious beliefs and land use tendencies, to housing, diet, and values, have been affected by its large population and small land area.

What Effect Does Population Density Have on Japan?

The fact that Japan has a large population, a small amount of land, and an even smaller amount available for agriculture and development has had profound effects on Japanese culture. The most obvious are that land for farming and for development is scarce. While regulations and import barriers contribute to high Japanese food and housing costs, land scarcity also keeps costs high.

The Japanese have become very adept at producing a great quantity of food on little land. In addition, they have a varied diet that relies on food from a variety of sources. Finally, they are dependent upon imported foods. Figure 2 helps to illustrate Japan's dependence on imported food.

Food Self-Sufficiency (FY 1996): Japan



Source: *Japan 1999: An International Comparison*, 21.

The Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry, and Fisheries reported that in 1995 Japan was self sufficient in 64% of its total food needs. The reliance on imported food caused by the lack of adequate farmland and the large population results in high prices for the Japanese consumer. For example, in the summer of 1998, an ear of sweet corn at a Tokyo supermarket sold for 198 *yen*, or $1.50 per ear. At the same time sweet corn in my hometown, Sioux Falls, South Dakota, was selling for $1.50 per dozen ears at roadside stands. Japanese farmers are trying to boost production with fertilizers, multiple crops, greenhouse farming, and aquaculture, but they are unable to keep up with the growing demand.

Housing is as essential as food. The Japanese have learned that it is important to have affordable, quality housing. One example of this is MK Co, Ltd., headquartered in Kyoto. In an address to the 1998 Keizai Koho Center Fellows, Sadao Aoki, founder and president of the company, outlined his experience with housing conditions in Japan and how it related to his business. He explained that when he started his taxi business in 1950 with 10 cars and 24 drivers, there was a problem with drivers being tardy, being absent, or leaving work early.

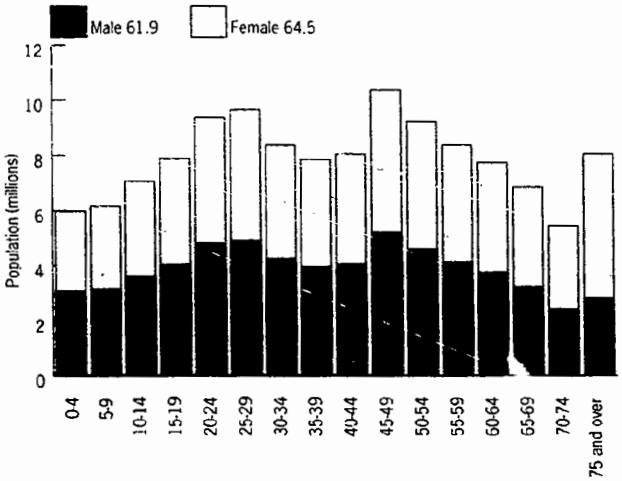
When he investigated, he found that most workers lived in very poor housing conditions. Houses were cramped and noisy and lacked air conditioning. Therefore it was difficult for drivers to rest and be fit for their shift. Mr. Aoki built dormitories, apartments, and then homes for his drivers, then he raised their salaries so that they could afford to rent or purchase them. When he also provided parking spaces at the homes and allowed drivers to take their cabs home, rather than having to ride public transit home after dropping off the cab at the garage, accidents and absenteeism virtually disappeared. As Mr. Aoki said, "Improving the living environment of workers improved productivity." Today 76% of MK Taxi employees own their own homes, far above the national rate of 60.2%.

The Statistics Bureau of the Management and Coordination Agency reports that the average home in Japan has a floor space per dwelling of 993 square feet (91.92 m^2). That number decreases in the larger cities, where space is at a premium. According to Japan's Statistics Bureau, each person in Japan has 323 square feet (29.9 m^2) of floor space for housing. The average resident of the United Kingdom enjoys 434 square feet (40.2 m^2), while the average American claims 691 square feet (64.0m^2).[3] According to the Population Reference Bureau (PRB), population

growth in Japan slowed to a 0.20% annual rate of natural increase in 1998. The PRB forecasts a 2025 population for Japan of 120.9 million. This represents a decline from the 1997 total of 126.4 million. Cultural and economic changes have led to this decline. Low starting wages, high housing costs, increased career opportunities for women, and the social expectations demanded of daughters-in-law and mothers have combined to cause many Japanese to delay marriage. In 1996, the mean age at first marriage in Japan was 28.5 for men and 26.4 for women according to the Ministry of Health and Welfare.[4] There will be many repercussions as a result of this decline in population. Businesses are already making plans for dealing with a workforce with declining numbers. Manufacturing plants are being built overseas to save costs, retirement ages are being raised, more women are entering the workforce, and work is being done more and more by machines. Furthermore, government and businesses are preparing for a huge demand on the nations' pension and retirement systems. The decline in the birthrate has led to the 'graying' of Japan. The information presented in Figure 3 uses statistics from the *Monthly Report on Current Population Estimates*, prepared by the Statistics Bureau of the Management and Coordination Agency.

The Japanese will experience great demographic change in the next few decades. The older portion of the Japanese population (those over 65) will swell, while the younger segment (those under 15) will shrink. The aging of Japan will have many social and economic consequences. Japanese workers, who traditionally have retired by age sixty, may have to remain in the work force. Japan's universal health care system surely will be strained, as the elderly generally require more health care (five times higher) than younger people. By the year 2020, fully 25% of Japan's population is expected to be over age of sixty-five, compared to 16.1% in the United States.[5] Japan's 'graying' is not going unnoticed. Recent articles explore the difficulties the Japanese will face with fewer workers and taxpayers as Japanese women defy tradition, enter the work force, and delay marriage and childbirth. The Japanese government is seeking many solutions, including expanding day care, asking employers to allow employees more time off to be at home, and encouraging fathers to expand their role in the family.

Estimated Population of Japan by Age and Gender (June 1998)



Source: http://www.stat.go.jp/15k3.htm

Japan has developed intricate trade and transportation networks. The heavily populated nation lacks significant natural resources. Therefore, it must import raw materials from abroad. To pay for these imports and for imports of foods and other materials, the Japanese have developed a highly efficient industrial base, which turns raw materials into high quality products for export. Everything from automobiles to electronics to chemicals are loaded into container ships and sent around the globe. This makes Japan an important link in the global economy.

To enable Japan's large population to move throughout its cities and, indeed, its nation, the Japanese have developed a reliable and efficient public transit network. Rail lines sprawl across the country like a giant spider web, with freight and passengers carried anywhere in the country at high speeds. Most famous of the trains, of course, is the *shinkansen*, or bullet train. At 160 miles per hour, the Nozomi 500 Express is the fastest in Japan. The 550-mile trip from Hiroshima to Tokyo takes less than four hours. Business travelers, commuters, and vacationers use the *shinkansen* to whisk them to their destinations. Every major city has buses, subways, a swarm of taxicabs, and a multitude of bicycles used by commuters daily.

The effect of a large population on a small land area, combined with Confucian influences from China, have significantly shaped Japanese culture. Additionally, a cultural uniformity and a notion that it is important to work for the good of the group, whether it is your family, school, neighborhood, business, city, or nation have developed.

PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLES

How can population density be illustrated?

- Use the population of your school and the classrooms or all rooms in the school as square units of measure; calculate the population density of your school. Invite other classes to enter your classroom and compare the population density as more people are added to the same space.
- To illustrate arithmetic population density, use a slice of bread to represent land area and peanut butter to represent population. Explain as you spread the peanut butter evenly on the bread that when population density is calculated that essentially what you do is spread the population of a nation equally across a nation's land area.
- To demonstrate physiological density, repeat the classroom peanut butter and bread example above with the following changes: Remind the students that not all land of a nation is easily suited for habitation because of deserts, swamps, mountains, etc. Take a fresh slice of bread, and to illustrate Japan's case, remove about 2/3 of the area from the interior of the slice. Then, take about the same amount of peanut butter and spread it out on the remaining bread. This demonstrates physiologic density and in this case it also shows that the population of Japan is distributed along the coast because the interior is too mountainous
- Take a Hershey's Milk Chocolate Bar. Show that it is divided into twelve sections. Spread peanut butter evenly over the surface of the chocolate bar. This is population density. Now remind the students that two-thirds of Japan is unsuitable for development and remove eight of the sections of the candy bar. Spread the same amount of peanut butter onto the four remaining sections. Discuss physiologic density versus arithmetic density. Now, remind the students that of the remaining 34% of Japan's land area, only about 5% is used for construction. Try to fit the same amount of peanut butter onto 1/2 of one section of the candy bar. Discuss the importance of examining physiologic density.
- Obtain physical (elevation) maps and political maps of Japan. Have students compare the maps and draw conclusions about the population density of Japan and why the cities are located where they are. Take into account climate and sea access as well. Next, obtain a population density map of Japan and compare it with the physical map to check assumptions and to find connections.
- Obtain information about the types and prices of food eaten in Japan. Have the students study the connections between Japan's physical geography, population, economy, culture, and Japanese foods. Compare Japanese foods with those in your country. Find out what foods your country is self-sufficient in and which ones must be imported.
- Obtain information about the styles of homes in Japan. Have the students study the connections between Japan's physical geography, population, economy, culture, and Japanese homes. Compare Japanese homes with those in your country. Find out how home size affects purchases of things like appliances, furniture, and pets.
- Create population pyramids for your country using census information. How do population prospects for your country compare and contrast with Japan's?
- Obtain or create cartograms for land area and for population. How do they help to illustrate population density?
- Have students interpret conditions of various places using photographs. Have them predict what it is like to live in a rural prefecture or in Tokyo based on the photos. Have students act out a scene based on one of the photographs.
- Compare land use in Japan with land use in your country. Obtain pictures of houses, schools, parking garages, public transit, stores, and other examples.
- Obtain information, perhaps by establishing an Internet or mail connection with Japanese students about things that Japanese students do with their free time and compare that with what your students do. Compare pet choices, recreation opportunities, transportation to and from school, homes, family size, community size, school/class size so that students can analyze. How are these related to geography?
- Compare Japan's population growth, density etc. with your community. Talk to city planners to see what their plans are for coping with your cities' population changes.

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3 *Japan in Figures*, 1998.

4 *Japan in Figures*, 1998.

5 Mak, et al., *Japan: Why It Works; Why It Doesn't*, 165.

SILVERING POPULATIONS AND INTERPRETING PYRAMIDS

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INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW/ RATIONALE:

Demographers are able to study current numbers as well as historical patterns, and from these numbers they can plan for the present as well as project what is likely to happen in the future, at least in terms of population growth. In the past, most of human history saw population patterns of high birth as well as high death rates (Stage 1). As technology, medicine and agriculture improved, death rates dropped, but birth rates remained high, resulting in a dramatic jump in population growth (Stage 2). Generally speaking, as countries became wealthier, birth rates slowed down. Couples expected their children to survive, and therefore delayed having children and ultimately had fewer children. In this stage, population growth slowed down (Stage 3). Finally, in some countries today, the birth and the death rates remain at a constant low, or sometimes the birth rate actually drops below replacement level. The description applied to the latter is the oxymoron, "negative growth." This final stage of negative growth is called Stage 4 in demographic transition studies.

Poorer developing countries tend to be in Stage 2 or the beginning of Stage 3 as described above. Only wealthier "developed" countries have entered Stage 4. Most countries in Western Europe are in Stage 4; the United States is in Stage 4, and certainly Japan is in Stage 4. It is estimated that Japan will begin to experience "negative growth" in the year 2007, when its population is expected to decrease. What does this mean for Japan and how have the Japanese addressed this growth pattern? While the United States' population continues to grow, much of this growth is actually attributable to immigration patterns. What does slow growth or negative growth mean to a country culturally and economically? How has Japan coped with these changes and how do the Japanese people create social and economic policies to address what is called its growing "silver population?" What can the United States learn from Japan as growth patterns change for the US?

One way to determine where a country "fits" in terms of the demographic transition model is to take population data and create a "population pyramid." A population pyramid takes the percentages of males and females per age grouping and creates a bar graph "on its side" pushing the two bar graphs together and starting with the youngest age group at the bottom (See examples following). By looking at a population pyramid, one can easily understand a country's growth. A pyramid can also reveal other interesting patterns, such as the loss of life in war, or cultural preferences for a particular sex, or the effects of government policies, or even the presence of a large semi-permanent visiting labor force that will exit the country at retirement. Tables of numbers are more exact, but numbers can begin to blur, and it is difficult to determine a pattern. Population pyramids are useful tools for visualizing patterns and for making projections and plans. Since population pyramids are most often created in terms of percentages of a particular country's population, this also allows them to be used for comparative purposes.

There are several possible sources for recent population figures broken down by age and sex (see Bibliography and Supplementary Resources). Most data comes in numbers of five year increments, and this data must be converted to a percentage (total population divided into portion of the population multiplied by one hundred). Population pyramids are often created with five-year spaces, but can be as broad as twenty year spaces. For the purposes of this chapter, a ten-year increment was chosen. Ten years is narrow enough to project a pattern, but not so broad as to lose sight of what is happening generally in age groups. The purpose of this chapter is to explain how to create and how to interpret population pyramids, with special focus on Japan and the United States. Japan is well aware of the growing elderly segment of its population. This study will explore how Japan has addressed and continues to address this "silvering" of the population – What economic and political policies has Japan initiated in

response to these changes? What entrepreneurial opportunities might appear with these changing patterns? The United States' population is also aging, although not as rapidly as Japan's. What might the United States learn from Japan's experience with an expanding elderly population?

PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS:

"...a Health and Welfare Ministry study group endorsed in its latest report the sprinkling of ashes of the deceased as an alternative to burial, but said the locations must be regulated... [The sprinkling of ashes] has been popularized recently in novels and movies... A factor behind the spread of the practice is the waning tradition of looking after family graves as society ages and the number of newborns decreases every year..."[1]

"In 2000 Japan will move past Sweden to become the world's grayest country. The proportion of the elderly, defined as people who are 65 or over, will reach 17% of the population, meaning that one out of every six Japanese will be 'aged.' The graying process will plateau around 2020, at which time one in four Japanese will be elderly. The support for each senior citizen will then fall on the shoulders of just two workers... The long-term growth rate of the Japanese economy, meanwhile has dropped substantially in the course of the slump of the 1990s... The authorities, while publicly portraying Japan's lengthening life span – the primary cause of the graying process – as the realization of a dream long cherished by humankind, are concerned about the heavy load that pensions, health care, and other programs will impose on public finance..."

"...The presumption that growth will continue indefinitely has been not merely an important underpinning of such features as Japanese-style management as lifetime employment and seniority-based wages and promotions. It has also been a precondition of the life spans of many individuals and such welfare services as the national pension system... The assumption that the needs of the elderly can be adequately met even with pension premiums that are low by international standards is similarly grounded in a belief in a growing economy, which efficiently expands the amounts of premiums collected and guarantees that future generations of young workers will funnel more money into pension reserves..."

"Consider... the debate over two welfare scenarios. Should [Japan] aim for generous welfare at a high cost or skimpy welfare at a low cost? The answer the government has supplied is the ambiguous one of medium-range welfare costs and benefits. What this means in practice is that the welfare bill will be split between the government and the individual. From the viewpoint of the average citizen, no policy could be more unsettling. This is because the spending share the government ultimately shoulders may drop significantly depending on the growth rate henceforth. If the economy grows as fast as the government wants it to, welfare costs and benefits should both be moderate. But if the growth falls below the forecast, more of the bill will be passed on to the people. [Japan] may end up with skimpy welfare that comes at a high cost."

"This kind of development can already be seen in the system of medical care for the elderly. At first the care was free, but then the system went through a series of revisions that successively lifted the portion of the expenses patients pay out of their own pockets. With the pension system approaching maturity, similarly, the age at which full benefits start is to be lifted by stages from 60 to 65, and a double spiral of rising premiums and declining benefits has begun... Policies premised on growth gloss over the question of who is responsible for their formulation and adoption..."

"...In the realm of economics, an expanding pie has the potential to increase the income of all members of society. But redistribution of income by the government is nonetheless needed to guarantee that the extra money is equitably shared by everybody. The effectiveness of a redistribution policy is basically dependent on what the government does. If it does little, the share of income received by workers who are not highly valued by the market or who have gone into retirement is liable to be small... should we not pay more attention to the effects of redistribution policy than to the benefits deriving from growth?..."

"...Admittedly the social load on the working population will grow heavier as the graying process progresses. Just how heavy it ultimately becomes will depend on the kinds of policies implemented in the future... But money taken out of paychecks is not a compulsory donation that gives nothing in return. Almost all the money the government collects is paid back to the people in public services and income transfers... it is... senseless to focus solely on the level of national burden

without taking into account the government's services. What people want to know is how the costs they bear relate to the benefits they receive..."[2]

"The age composition of Japan's population has changed markedly from the typical broad-based pyramid form of the 1930s. This change resulted from the declines in both the birth rate and the death rate. In 1996, the elderly population (aged 65 years and over) numbered 19 million, or 15.1% of the total population. This was its highest level ever in Japan, both in number and in ratio, almost double the 7.1% level of 1970. From here on, the aging of the population is predicted to proceed at a rapid pace, so that the ratio will exceed 20% by 2006. The aging of the population in Japan is progressing particularly fast, compared with other major industrial countries. On the other hand, the childhood population (aged 0-14 years) fell below 20 million to 19.7 million, and the proportion of children has gradually declined since 1975, registering 15.6% in 1996. In the same year, the productive-age population (age 15-64 years) numbered 87.2 million, the first decrease since World War II, and the proportion was 69.3%. As a result, the dependency ratio (ratio of children and the elderly to the productive-age population) was 44.4%. This dependency ratio in Japan is expected to rise from now on..."[3]

Data by Age and Sex for Population Pyramids

(Converted to Percentages from U.S. Bureau of the Census International Data Base):

Country and Total Mid-1998 Population	Male%	Female%	Age
United States – 270,311,758	7.4	7.1	0-9
	7.4	7.	10-19
	6.8	6.6	20-29
	7.9	7.9	30-39
	7.4	7.6	40-49
	5.	5.4	50-59
	3.4	3.9	60-69
	3.6	5.6	70+
Japan – 125,931,533	4.9	4.7	0-9
	6.	5.7	10-19
	7.7	7.4	20-29
	6.5	6.4	30-39
	7.3	7.2	40-49
	6.9	7.4	50-59
	5.5	6.1	60-69
	4.1	6.5	70+
Kenya – 28,337,071	14.8	14.4	0-9
	13.7	13.5	10-19
	9.5	9.2	20-29
	5.3	5.2	30-39
	3.	3.2	40-49
	1.9	2.2	50-59
	1.1	1.4	60-69
	.7	.9	70+
Mexico – 98,552,776	12.4	11.9	0-9
	11.3	10.9	10-19
	9.5	9.5	20-29
	6.3	7.	30-39
	4.2	4.8	40-49
	2.8	3.2	50-59
	1.8	2	60-69
	1.1	1.4	70+
India – 948,003,683	12.1	11.4	0-9
	11.	10.1	10-19
	9.1	8.3	20-29
	7.	6.9	30-39
	5.3	4.9	40-49
	3.6	3.2	50-59
	2.1	2.	60-69
	1.4	1.4	70+
China – 1,236,914,658	9	7.8	0-9
	8.7	8.1	10-19
	9.5	9	20-29
	8.4	8	30-39
	6.9	6.5	40-49
	4.1	3.8	50-59
	3.1	2.9	60-69
	1.7	2.2	70+

PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLES

Japan is described as having an aging population. People are living longer, and having smaller families. This is in contrast to other places on the planet where significant portions of the populations are fifteen years old and younger. By creating and interpreting population pyramids, students can begin to understand the significance of age structure within the population and can begin to interpret the effect of age structure on growth patterns. Economists and policy makers find population pyramids to be useful in understanding demographics and in making long range plans for a society.

Population pyramids are frequently displayed in textbooks. It might be useful to find some examples to show the class. Examples of population pyramids can also be found on the Web (See Bibliography and Supplemental Resources). Students should notice that a population pyramid is really two bar graphs pushed together – the male population on the left and the female on the right – and that they show the percentage of a population found by age as well as by sex. Encourage students to notice where the "bulges" are. What might this mean? (Example: a broad base indicates large numbers of people at or below childbearing ages. There is a "momentum" in the growth patterns of these countries – rather like the "baby boom" of the US in post-World War II). Where are the smallest numbers of people found? Is there a large or small percentage in what are called "working ages?" Why might this be significant? (Answer: It is the people in the working ages who are "supporting" what are often called "dependent populations.") Why are people statistically grouped as dependent if they are under 15 or over 65? (Answer: Generally speaking these are not people who are working.)

Suggested Procedure:

- Display a variety of population pyramids (from textbooks or see Bibliography and Supplemental Resources at the end of this article for locations of examples).
- Discuss how they are created.
  - Bar graphs
  - Divided by sex
    Created in terms of percentages. (This could be another whole lesson for younger children – how to create a percentage by dividing the portion by the whole number and multiply by 100.) See Bibliography and Supplementary Resources for sources of data on other countries.
- Students may work in groups or individually.
- Pass out a blank pyramid. (You may make copies of the one that accompanies this lesson.) Pass out the data or write the data on the board for the US. The teacher might wish to "walk through" the creation of a pyramid – perhaps doing the US data together with students. (NOTE: Because of rounding, the percentages may not add up to 100 – but they will be close. Remember, the percentage comes from taking the total population and adding it into the ten-year portion by sex, then multiplying by 100. For younger students, this could be a math assignment – it might be useful to have more than one student working on a country in order to check the math – but one way to spot check it is to add up the percentages and see if they come close to 100. See Bibliography and Supplementary Resources for sources of data bases.)
- Pass out more blank pyramids and data sheets that you plan to use.
- Assign students to create specific pyramids, using the data provided.
  - If several students are creating the same pyramid, they might "check" theirs against another one.
- Display the pyramids to generate discussion.
- Students should notice where the "bulges" are in their pyramids. They might answer the questions, "What are people at this age (the bulge) doing?" Answers will vary depending on the pyramid.
- Students should then try to compare their pyramid with others in the classroom. Which pyramid has the largest proportion of young people? Of older people?
- Students should try to consider what policies a government might have based solely on the population distribution seen in the pyramid. Students often enjoy thinking about how they might run things if they were in charge – it usually helps to have students write down their ideas and from this go to class discussions. Encourage creativity, but also encourage students to think through to the consequences of their proposed policies.

- Students should try to consider what might sell well in their country based on the population bulges. They might even try to "invent" things to address what they perceive as a need or desire of a particular age group.
  - Students might go to the library to read about specific countries and to find articles there or on the Web that address concerns or describe policies that relate to population groups in a country.

It would be useful to return to population pyramids throughout the year. After studying the structure of pyramids in general, it would be good to follow up by taking a Japan/US view. In high school, this might be done in the context of a US or world history course looking at post-World War II – or it might be useful in a sociology or economics course. In a middle school or high school geography class, this could be done in terms of making global connections.

- Look again at the population pyramids of the US and of Japan and of Kenya. Compare them. Which one does the US seem most like? (Japan) Where is the population growing the fastest? (Kenya) Where are the schools likely to be the most crowded? (Kenya) There are many questions that can be asked about and answered from these pyramids. The point is that students can begin to understand something about a country simply by interpreting numbers.
- Read the excerpts in the Primary Source Materials. How do these articles reflect a society that is aging? Are there any correlations between what is happening in Japan and what is happening in the US? (What about talk of a bankrupt US Social Security System?). Are there any suggestions that might be useful for the US?
- Go to the library or the Internet and search for more articles that describe Japan's and the US' "dependent populations." How are they alike and different? Can students find pictures to show people in different age groups? How are these like the same age group in the US? How are they different?
- Students might wish to consider what kinds of businesses would do well with certain age groups. What needs do people have at different stages in life?
- Why is Japan called a silvering population? (There is a large segment of elderly people.) Why has this happened? (People live longer in Japan than in any other country and people are limiting the size of their families.) What is good and what might be bad about this? (Answers will vary – it is good that life can be extended, but plans need to be made for this extended time of life.) What can the US learn from Japan's experience? (Answers will vary – but consider public policy, leisure activity, housing, etc.).

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Japan's Ministry of Health and Welfare.
http://www.mhw.go.jp/
(Be sure to click on the "in English" box immediately in order to use this site. This site offers several related links such as White Papers, Social Security Policies and Useful Statistics.)

Population Reference Bureau is a good resource for population information world-wide. Linda Martin's *The Graying of Japan* (see listing above) is a publication of the Population Reference Bureau. http://www.igc.org/prb

US Bureau of the Census: International Database.
http://www.census.gov/chi-bin/ipc/idbsprd
This is an immense database that includes international data by country, age structure, and much more. (But any search engine can reach the Census Bureau through gov on the above address)also:
http://www.census.gov/ipc/www/idbpyr.html
This is a location to find and download examples of population pyramids.

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ECONOMIC SECRETS: JAPANESE AND AMERICAN EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW/ RATIONALE

Japan can boast the world's highest literacy rate (over 99%), which it has maintained since 1970. Japanese students also spend more time studying than their American counterparts (20% of Japanese students study three or more hours a day; 31% study two to three hours per day; and 33% study one to two hours per day).[1]

Japanese society places great emphasis on a person's educational background. Traditionally, an individual's social and occupational status is judged not only by the level of education achieved, but also by the rank and prestige of the university attended and the financial status and reputation of the company or business for which the person is working. However, while historically a person's educational career and company affiliation has governed a person's status in the Japanese community, this tendency is gradually changing.[2] Since a country's economic success hinges closely on the educational level, ambitions, and achievements of its populace, a comparison of Japanese education to U.S. education can yield some insight into the economic successes and weaknesses of these two countries.

PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS

The Japanese public educational system includes nine years of free and compulsory education, six of which are spent in elementary school (grades 1 to 6) and three of which are spent in junior high school (grades 7 to 9). Children from six to twelve years of age are afforded a compulsory elementary education, and they generally walk to a local elementary school. Class size averages about 37 students for national schools and 28 students for local schools.[3] One teacher generally teaches all subjects. The curriculum includes Japanese, arithmetic, science, social studies, music, arts and crafts, gymnastics, ethics and home economics. The remaining three years of a nine-year compulsory education are spent in junior high school. Most children in this 13 to 15 year age group attend public schools, but some go to private junior high schools. Many children attend preschool and kindergarten.

School uniforms for nearly all students from junior high through high school, however, are mandatory and are worn by students in both public and private schools. Students have both summer and winter uniforms. Although the cost of school uniforms varies significantly depending on a number of factors, the cost for an average uniform ranges from $200 to $300 and is born by the parents. Children in private elementary schools usually wear uniforms, too.

There is also a nation-wide network of private cram schools, or *juku*. A significant percentage of Japanese children attend *juku*, depending on the finances and ambitions of their families and the students themselves. The Japanese Ministry of Education reported that in 1993, 36.4% of elementary and junior high school students attended *juku*. Today, in Tokyo alone, there are approximately 150 cram schools catering to preschool students whose parents hope to enroll them in elite private kindergartens and elementary schools.[4] Fifty percent of the children in the 5th and 6th grades attend *juku* after school for an additional three hours at a cost to parents of about $2000 per year.[5] Approximately 70% of ninth graders attend *juku*. These cram schools have grown to be a trillion-*yen* (US$10 billion) industry. This is twice what it was ten years ago.[6]

Although the School Education Law of 1947 guarantees each student six years of free elementary education and three years of free junior high education, Japanese families must pay supplemental expenses for such things as kindergarten and senior high school tuition, field trips, supplies, transportation to and from school, school lunches, and school uniforms.[7] Factor in the extra cost of *juku*, and education gets quite expensive.

The cost of public kindergarten in 1987 averaged 179,723 *yen* per child; however, 76% of the children attended private kindergarten at a cost of 339,767 *yen*. In fiscal year 1996, the average yearly

cost per child in a public elementary school was 97,681 *yen* and the average yearly cost in a public junior high school was 167,065 *yen*. The cost per child in public senior high school was 332,549 *yen*; while private high school costs were 636,670 *yen*.[8]

Beyond the 9th grade, the government subsidizes a declining percentage of additional education. Although a majority of students attend public schools, Japan leads developed countries in the number of students attending private schools. To make up for the limited enrollment space in high schools, a large private secondary school system has evolved. Statistics show that in 1997, kindergarten graduates comprised 62.5% of enrollment in the first year of elementary school; the enrollment rate for compulsory education (grades 1-9) was 99.98%; the advancement rate to upper secondary school (grades 10-12) was 96.8%; and the advancement rate to university or junior college was 40.7%.[9]

In junior high school, students receive instruction from specialized teachers. English classes are also introduced. Students put much effort into studying for high school entrance examinations. Once they go on to senior high school, there are full-time, part-time, and correspondence high schools. The senior high school curriculum consists of modern Japanese, Japanese classics, Chinese classics, mathematics, history, geography, politics, economics, chemistry, physics, biology, physical geography, health and physical education, technical arts, home economics, music, fine arts, and calligraphy. Some of these courses are full year courses, while others are semester courses.[10]

Aki Fuchu Senior High School in Hiroshima has two courses of study: a General Course for those students applying for college admission, and an International Course, that has a heavy concentration on foreign languages, but is also geared for those applying for university admission. The curriculum for each of the two courses is listed below:

General Course:

Tenth grade: Japanese, world history, ethics, math, chemistry, health, physical education, art, English, home economics

Eleventh grade: humanities, classical Japanese, Japanese history, geography, math, chemistry, biology/geology, physical education, health, art, English I, writing, home economics

Twelfth grade: humanities, modern Japanese, classical Japanese, world history, Japanese history, geography, physical education, reading, writing, science, political economy

International Course:

Tenth Grade: Japanese, geography, ethics, math, chemistry, physical education, health, art, English, home economics

Eleventh Grade: humanities, classical Japanese, world history, math, chemistry, biology/geology, physical education, English understanding and expression, home economics, third language (French, Chinese, Korean, or Malaysian).

Twelfth Grade: humanities, modern Japanese, classical Japanese, math, world history, politics and economy, biology/geology, physical education, English understanding and expression, world studies, third language (French, Chinese, Korean, Malaysian) [11]

A sample time/period schedule from Aki Fuchu Senior High School is as follows:

Monday through Friday	
8:35-8:45	Homeroom
8:50-9:40	First Period
9:50-10:40	Second Period
10:50-11:40	Third Period
11:50-12:40	Fourth Period
12:40-1:25	Lunch
1:45-2:35	Fifth Period
2:40-3:35	Sixth Period
Saturday (1st and 3rd ones only)	
8:35-8:45	Homeroom
8:50-9:40	First Period
9:50-10:40	Second Period
10:50-11:40	Third Period
11:45-12:00	School Cleaning

The number of days and amount of time Japanese students spend in school is currently being reduced. Until recently, students went to school for a half day on each Saturday, in addition to their Monday through Friday schedule. Currently, students only go to school two Saturdays per month for a half day; and by the year 2002, all Saturday school will be eliminated.[12] The academic year in Japan begins on April 1. Final exams for the first term are given in the first or second week of July. Summer vacation generally extends to the end of August. The second semester starts on September 1, with final exams administered shortly before Christmas. Students are off the last

week of December and the first week of January. Students return to school in the second week of January for a third semester, with final yearly examinations given in early March. Graduation is held in early March, after which, students have a two-week vacation, and then return to school April 1 for the beginning of a new academic year.[13] Japanese students spend approximately 220 days in school each year.

University admission is very competitive and entrance exams are difficult to pass. If a student fails, he/she can attend a special school to prepare to take the exam the following year. Students pay 710,000 *yen*/year to study at a public university while tuition at a private university ranges from 1,040,000 *yen*/year for a liberal arts program to 4,600,000 *yen*/year for medical or dental school.[14] Public universities, however, can only accept 27% of students who apply for admission. 73% of university-bound students enroll at private universities.[15] Moreover, as the percentage of students attending *juku* rises resulting in the production of a greater number of capable students, the better schools are forced to raise their admission standards in order to ration the limited number of vacancies among applicants.

Type of School	Number of Schools	Number of Students[16]
(As of 1 May 1998)		
Kindergartens	14,690	1,789,523
Elementary Schools	24,376	7,855,387
Junior High Schools	11,257	4,481,480
Senior High Schools	5,496	4,371,360
Schools for the Blind	71	4,323
Schools for the Deaf	107	6,841
Schools for the Handicapped	800	75,280
Higher Technical Schools	62	56,294
Junior Colleges	595	446,750
Universities	586	2,633,790

Fierce competition to enter the right junior high school, the prestigious senior high school, and a top university makes it necessary for students to attend *juku*. There are *juku* for most levels of education, from elementary school through high school. Although some primary and middle schools conduct entrance examinations, Japanese society attaches the most importance to high school and university entrance exams. Since 94% of middle school graduates attend high school, the function of high school entrance exams is not to eliminate unqualified students, but to determine which high school a student may attend.[17] Japanese school systems have been subject to a tremendous amount of criticism for the amount of stress they have placed upon the children of Japan. One history teacher at a Tokyo metropolitan high school labeled the *juku* school network as, "the cancer of Japanese education."[18]

The following article appeared in *The Japan Times*, 23 June1998, 2.:

"Nation's Schools Set for Big Changes: Curriculum Council Eyes More Freedom to Ease Pressure on Kids."

"To ease the pressures typical to school children in Japan, an advisory council to the Education Minister said Monday that schools should be given more freedom to practice their own teaching methods and to make decisions based on the needs of their students. The Curriculum Council's revised draft of the government's curriculum guidelines, to be used after the 2002 introduction of a five-day school week, suggests the nation's educational system will likely become more individualized, empowering local schools to make many of their own decisions for the first time. The council, tasked by the minister in 1996, plans to compile its final draft of the report in July. With the report, Japanese education has made a major turn, as schools shift from 'a place (for teachers) to teach' to 'a place for students to actively learn,' said Shumon Miura, chairman of the advisory panel, after submitting the report to Education Minister Nobutaka Machimura on Monday afternoon. According to the council's report, schools will be able to determine the amount of class time allotted to each subject, instead of following the current rule of having uniform 45 to 50 minute classes for all subjects. A school could then decide to allot, for instance, 75 minutes for laboratory science classes and use 25 minutes for teaching English.... Students should also have more choice in what classes they take as they get older, said the report, which proposed increasing the number of elective courses in both junior high and high schools. The council also urged that schools plan teaching schedules on a two-year basis, instead of the current one-year basis, to encourage greater flexibility. To cope with the end of Saturday classes, and the implementation of a five-day school week planned for 2002, the council proposed a cut of two credit hours per week at all levels: from 25-29 credit hours per week to 23-27 in elementary schools, from 30 to 28 in junior high schools, and 32 to 30 in high schools. To further reduce the workload for students, the council recommends the content of some mandatory sub-

jects-such as Japanese language, mathematics and science classes-be narrowed. The report calls for schools to cut certain advanced criteria from their curriculum. In mathematics, for instance, about a third of topics now being covered will be cut, including complicated calculations in elementary schools, and quadratic equation formulas and statistics in junior high schools. Nevertheless, some observers criticize the reduced curriculum workload, saying it is school entrance exam wars, not the school workload, that is the main source of stress for many students. The critics say the intense pressure from exams will remain. To help students better cope with the country's push toward internationalization, the report suggests that a foreign language course be made mandatory at junior high and high school levels. Currently, foreign languages are offered only as an elective beginning in the junior high. It also suggests introducing foreign cultures and languages as part of general studies in elementary schools. High school students will be required to take newly introduced 'information courses,' which will cover materials such as computers and information network systems. The council placed greater emphasis on the importance of teaching students about the national flag and anthem to foster students' awareness of national identity."

PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLES

1. Have students compare respective school divisions in U.S. and Japanese schools. Ask students to assess and compare total mandatory education time. Have students compare Japanese and U.S. school calendars. Ask them to conjecture about possible economic reasons behind the differences in these yearly calendars. Have students compare U.S. and Japanese weekly school calendars.
2. Ask students to consider the philosophy, importance, and cost of *juku* in Japan, and to discuss how U.S. students spend their time after school and in the evenings. Have students compare the cost of a public education in the U.S. with that of a public education in Japan. What "hidden" costs are there in addition to the cost of textbooks and tuition?
3. In groups, ask students to consider the role of education in Japanese society and to discuss the advantages of attending top schools in Japan. Have students reflect on the situation in the U.S. where some parents are eager to enroll their children in the "right" school shortly after birth. Through group discussion, ask students to conjecture whether education in the U.S. is as linked to success as it is in Japan.
4. Ask students to review the data provided in this chapter showing the numbers of students in Japanese schools. Have students compare these statistics with those for U.S. schools. Ask students to find statistics on the number of U.S. students who continue their education beyond high school. If possible, have students compare literacy rates in the United States with those in Japan. Ask them to list cultural characteristics of each country that might account for these rates.
5. Have students compare the range of courses offered in the Japanese high school highlighted in this chapter with those courses offered in their own school. Ask them to analyze these lists and to identify educational priorities in both countries.
6. Ask students to evaluate recent criticism of the Japanese educational system and to propose methods for improvement. Using the Internet, have students locate articles critical of U.S. education. In groups or individually, ask students to propose improvements.

Questions Utilizing Primary Source Materials for Work Groups or Individual Students:

1. Mandatory U.S. Education:
   - How many years are U.S. students required to attend school?
   - Must U.S. students reach a certain age or complete a specific grade level to fulfill U.S. educational requirements?
   - Does the United States' federal government, the individual states, or individual towns or school districts set educational requirements?
2. Division of Schools:
   - What are the divisions of schools in your community?
   - What are the divisions of schools in the four communities bordering your own in each direction?

3. Educational Attainment:
   - What percentage of students completes elementary school, junior high school, and senior high school in the United States? In your state? In your school district?
   - Is kindergarten mandatory in your state? In your hometown?
   - Is kindergarten funded by the school system (i.e. taxpayers) or by the parents of the kindergartners?
   - What percentage of U.S. high school graduates goes on to a four-year college? To a two-year college? To business school?
   - What is the literacy rate in the United States?
4. School Hours and School Calendars:
   - How many hours do Japanese students spend in school each day? Each week (including Saturday)?
   - How many hours do students in your particular school spend in school each day? Each week?
   - Compare your yearly school calendar to the Japanese school calendar. How are they different? How do you account for the differences?
   - How many days do the students attend school in your state? In your community? Is this a national requirement?
5. Numbers and Types of Schools:
   - Can you get any statistics about the number of schools in your own state or county that would be similar to those for Japan presented in the chart included in this chapter?
   - Does the U.S. have special state schools for the blind? For the deaf? For the handicapped? Are there private schools for students of these categories? If yes, who bears the cost? If no, how are students with special needs accommodated?
6. Course Offerings / Credits:
   - How do the course offerings in Japanese schools differ from those in your school?
   - How many credits must a student amass each year to satisfy your school's requirements? Compare this to the number of credits required in Japanese schools.
7. Education Costs:
   - What are the costs (in $US) that Japanese parents bear for public/private kindergarten? For elementary school? For middle school? For high school?
   - What costs do U.S. parents face for public kindergarten? For elementary school? For junior high school? For senior high school?
   - What does tuition cost in a nearby private U.S. kindergarten? Elementary school? Junior high school? High school?
   - What are the tuition costs at 2-3 of your state's public universities? 2-3 private colleges or universities in your state? How do these costs compare to those of Japanese colleges and universities?
   - Do Americans have anything similar to Japanese *juku*? Why/why not? What kinds of tutoring or test preparation are there in the U.S. education system? What are the costs of these services?
   - Are the costs of education rising in the U.S.? Can you give two examples, one on a high school level and another on a college level?

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8 *Japan: Profile of a Nation*, 172.

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10 *Japan at a Glance*, 199.

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EAST AND WEST: BUILDING ON CULTURE

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INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW/ RATIONALE

In the world today with its global society, national isolation is no longer possible. It has become the responsibility of educators to help children construct a global perspective. Social studies educators are in a unique position to accomplish this goal. Within the social studies, students begin to explore and to expand their knowledge of this world that is shared by all people. The focused study of a single nation's people, beliefs, resources, history, fine arts, architecture, institutions, and economic systems combine to create a complete picture of that society and its relation to the rest of the world. An exploration of "cultural universals" provides students with the tools necessary to become active participants in a global society.

A study of Japan from the perspective of housing can offer elementary school students a means of exploring the Japanese economy while building knowledge of Japan's "cultural universals." The issue of Japanese housing provides a rich source of educational topics that can fit well into any existing elementary social studies curriculum. The purpose of this chapter is to enable young students to distinguish between wants and needs; to help them to understand the ways that incentives, values, traditions, and habits can affect economic decisions; to introduce students to the economic concept of supply and demand; and to encourage them to explore the role money plays in everyday life.

It is possible to integrate a study of the issues surrounding Japanese housing among the social studies, language arts, fine arts, and mathematics. All of these disciplines come into play as students delve more deeply into the study of Japan's "cultural universals."

PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS

Homes and Housing

Throughout history, personal dwellings have represented more than just shelter. In fact, they are often physical representations of a particular society and its culture. Uniquely personal aspects of home design can be seen as a reflection of the inhabitants' fundamental values and beliefs. Along with culturally specific housing features, homes anywhere share certain commonalities that are based on geographic and economic considerations. For example, geographical features dictate the type of dwelling best suited to any given location; and the influence of economics is evident in the choice of building materials and the availability of supplies. Governmental policy regarding economics also affects the way in which monetary resources are allocated toward housing. Furthermore, general economic factors, such as land costs and availability, can influence the size of a home.

In the United States, home ownership is part of the American dream and family traditions typically center on the home. As far back as 1890, 47.8% of the people living in the United States owned their own homes.[1] This number has steadily increased since then. In 1990, the figure stood at 64.2%.[2] This has not been the case in Japan where, historically, extended families have often lived together as single households. It is a recent phenomenon that home ownership in Japan has risen from just 7% in 1922 to 59.8% in 1993, a figure comparable to that of the United States.[3]

In Japan, the average household includes 3.63 people, while in America the number is slightly lower at 3.53 people.[4] Although the number of people per household is similar in both Japan and the United States, houses in Japan are significantly smaller. The average floor area of newly constructed housing in Japan is 92.6 square meters or 920.3 square feet. While house sizes have been on the rise in Japan, they still fail to meet the U.S. average of 157.3 square meters or 1693.2 square feet.[5]

Japanese rooms are measured by the number of *tatami* mats that fit on the floor. An average mat is 90 by 180 centimeters or 3 by 6 feet. A 4.5-mat room, with the half mat in the center, would create a perfectly square room. Although room sizes may

reach up to as many as ten mats, a typical Japanese room today is six mats (9 X 12 feet). A typical room in the United States is 12 X 12 feet.

Japanese Homes

In Japan, people live in extremely crowded conditions. Approximately 70% of Japan is mountainous, leaving only 30% of the land to be useful for personal and public dwellings. With so little available land, land prices are extremely high. The cost of an average single family dwelling is the equivalent of US$500,000.[6] In 1994, the cost of a home in Tokyo was 12.9 times that of an average worker's yearly salary. U.S. homebuyers fare better. Even in a large city such as New York, an average home was only 2.9 times that of a person's yearly salary in 1994.[7]

Traditional Japanese homes are made of wood. A climate of hot summers and year-round humidity has made this an ideal building material. In recent years, reinforced concrete has become the building material of choice because of its resistance to damage caused by fire and earthquakes and because of its durability. Regardless of how building materials in Japan may have changed, many architectural details still exhibit traditional Japanese form.

The main entrance to a Japanese home is called a *genkan*. This is the place where people remove shoes and don slippers. Slippers are worn on hard floors but stocking feet are the rule on *tatami*, the woven mats which cover floors in Japanese-style rooms. *Fusuma* are sliding doors made of wood and thick paper that function as room dividers or as closet doors. *Shoji* are opaque windows or doors made of translucent paper and wood. Traditionally, the main room of a home has an alcove (*tokonoma*) where artwork or flowers are displayed. The items in the *tokonoma* are changed with the seasons or for special occasions. Traditional Japanese homes have very little furniture and a single room may be used for sleeping, eating, sitting, and entertaining. Bedding, consisting of mattresses and quilts known as *futon*, are kept in a built-in cabinet in the wall (*oshiire*). In the evenings, *futon* are taken out of the *oshiire* and arranged on the floor; in the morning the *futon* are aired and then stored away again in the *oshiire*.

Bathing holds a special place in Japanese culture. In fact, it is considered a form of purification. For this reason, the bath is kept separate from the toilet that is considered the least clean part of the house. Most homes do not have central heating, but families keep warm by a number of means, such as electric carpets and portable heaters. Sitting under a quilt covering a heated table (*kotatsu*) has long been a cozy communal experience.

The Bubble Economy's Effect on Japanese Housing and Architecture

Japan experienced huge economic growth, averaging 10% a year in the 1950s and 1960s and 5% in the 1970s and 1980s.[8] These decades marked one of the longest and fastest periods of economic growth in Japanese history, but they were followed by one of the biggest financial crises Japan has ever faced.

In some ways, it is safe to say that the bubble economy of the 1980s would not have been possible without the Japanese people's propensity to save money. High levels of individual savings provided Japanese banks with sufficient funds to lend to the private sector. Banks offered large sums of money at very low interest rates to finance land purchases, to cover construction costs, and to subsidize equipment improvement. Investment for modernization made industries more competitive on the world market as new technologies fostered a more efficient work force.

As the economy continued its fast growth, real estate speculation grew at an alarming rate. "Bubbles" in the economy formed when the prices of land and stock assets became inflated far above their basic value. The swelling of economic bubbles made both individual investors and companies extremely rich. Higher share prices increased corporate profits by huge amounts, while individuals capitalized on soaring real estate prices. Still, a significant problem resulted from the bubble. Although it originally appeared to increase profits, it also increased personal and corporate indebtedness.[9] The situation worsened until "in early 1990, Japan in theory was able to buy the whole of America by selling off metropolitan Tokyo, or all of Canada by hawking the grounds of the Imperial Palace."[10]

With the increase in land prices, Japanese investors began looking at many existing structures as expendable. Compared with the high prices of land in Japanese metropolitan areas, demolition and re-building in the same location were an attractive option. Often after razing the existing buildings, new construction served as advertisement for wealthy investors.[11] This troubling trend did have a bright side; it offered Japanese architects a unique opportunity to create

remarkable new works. Clients had huge amounts of money to invest, and as a result, high quality construction was coupled with innovative design. Many experts see the bubble period as a time of unparalleled architectural freedom. The works of such Japanese architects as Tadao Ando, Itsuko Hasegawa, and Hiroshi Hara are testimony to the unbridled creativity made possible by bubble economy wealth (see the Bibliography and Supplementary Resources section for sources regarding the work of these and other architects).

In 1990, prices on the Tokyo Stock Exchange began to fall; the bubble was about to burst. Investor confidence was deeply eroded by revelations of insider trading, losses for large corporate clients covered by lending institutions, and dubious administrative banking practices. In August 1992, share prices dipped below 15,000, a 63% plunge from peak levels. Meanwhile, land values in Japan declined by 200 trillion *yen* during 1991 after hitting a peak in 1990.[12] As a result of the bubble economy's collapse, individual investors suffered great losses due to the fact that many people had borrowed money to invest in the stock market and real estate believing that profits would continue to increase.

After the bubble burst, it became increasingly difficult for individuals to cover their investments. Many people had large percentages of their income and assets tied up in the investments made during the bubble years. Still, by 1997, personal savings habits had risen again to an average of 13,470,000 *yen* per household, an increase of 46,000 *yen* from the previous year and an all-time high.[13] As a result of economic hardship, the Japanese people began to increase their savings investments as security against future economic uncertainties.

The crises that banks and financial institutions faced following the collapse were monumental. The Ministry of Finance has claimed the value of non-performing debt incurred by financial institutions to be approximately 13 trillion *yen*; the actual figure is believed to be higher.[14] In fact, by the end of 1998, the total amount of non-performing debt nationwide may have reached as high as 87.5 trillion *yen* according to the Financial Supervisory Agency. Covering these loans has been made more difficult by a slump in business activity. The economic slump has been protracted due to the huge number of bad loans banking institutions made to companies unable to pay them back. Financial experts from around the world have been unanimous in their insistence that Japan must acknowledge its banking crisis and take the necessary steps to remedy the situation. Many experts believe that for the bad-debt problem to be resolved, the red ink must not just be removed from bank books, but real estate involved in the non-performing loans must be sold off.[15]

Privately funded building projects ground to a halt once the bubble economy peaked. However, many in Japanese government felt that the best way to reverse the recession was to encourage construction. As a result of this support, the housing industry benefited. In 1998, Japan had the world's largest construction market with investments estimated at 67.1 trillion *yen*, or 17.4 percent of the gross national product.[16] Gradually, though, even this market felt the pinch of the end of the bubble economy. According to the Construction Ministry's statistics on construction starts, the number of housing starts decreased every month after January 1997 compared with the same month a year before, and double-digit decreases were seen after July 1997. The construction of privately owned homes sharply declined by 25.6% compared with the year before. The number of new housing starts in 1997 sank below the 1.4 million-level for the first time since 1991.[17]

The price of land has continued to drop in Japan.[18] Despite this decline, certain desirable housing locations still show inflated prices. For example, in Tokyo, the price of an average condominium is more than five times the annual income of the average worker.[19] Also, in Tokyo, homes are typically smaller than in other Japanese cities. The average-sized dwelling in the Tokyo-Yokohama-Chiba urban belt has 4.0 rooms (5.3 rooms in the case of owner-occupied housing) and a floor area of 72.8 square meters (102.6 square meters in the case of owner-occupied housing). According to a 1993 survey, the national averages are 4.9 rooms (6.1 rooms) and 92.6 square meters (122.8 square meters).[20]

PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLES

Problem-Based Learning Unit

EAST AND WEST: Building on Culture

This Problem-Based Learning unit presents students with a real-life scenario containing an embedded problem, together with a role and situation for students to assume.

Embedded Problem:

A friend has just come to you with some exciting news. She and her family will be moving to Japan for a period of two years. The head of her family has been offered a position at a firm in Tokyo. She tells you that her family will be moving into traditional Japanese housing. Neither of you is sure what this means...just what is a typical Japanese home? Or, what, for that matter, is life like for children living in Japan? As the two of you talk, each of you begins to realize that there is a great deal to learn and understand about Japan and its people.

Role and Situation:

After hearing of your friend's impending adventure, you are eager to help her prepare for the move to Japan. You decide to create a unique going-away gift: a booklet containing important facts, drawings, and information about Japan. Since creating this booklet will require research on various aspects of Japanese life, you devise a plan of study. The material you gather from your research will enable you to create a document that will aid your friend in making the transition from life in the United States to life in Japan.

Procedure:

- After presenting the embedded problem, role, and situation to the class, help students with mapping activities. Ask students to suggest types of information that would make the booklet a valuable tool for cultural transitioning. List student responses on a large sheet of paper. To help students organize the information, divide the student responses into three categories: Ideas, Facts (what we think we know), and Questions (what we need to know). The following topics might be useful for this activity:

  Geography: topography, climate, population density

  Periods in modern history: Meiji Period, Taisho Period, Showa Period, Heisei Period

  Monetary system: currency, *yen*-to-dollar conversion

  Diet: traditional foods, such as rice, miso, noodles, tofu

  Customs: greetings, gifts, name cards (*meishi*)

  Education: typical school day, entrance examinations, club activities

  Economy: bubble economy, real estate pricing, personal savings, trade

  Religion: Shintoism, Buddhism, Christianity

- Provide resources and information to enable students to research the topics they have selected to include in their informational booklet.
- Ask students to work in pairs to create an informational booklet for their imaginary friend who is moving to Japan.

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3 "'My Home': The Steep Path to Home Ownership in Japan," 33.

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ECONOMICS AND THE ENVIRONMENT: USE AND CARE OF RESOURCES AT A LOCAL LEVEL

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INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW/ RATIONALE

Japan with its rich and varied topography and verdure has many scenic attractions. The inaccessibility of much of Japan's mountainous topography has preserved areas of natural beauty. The 67% of the land being covered by forest has limited the damaging effects of logging, but has required Japan to seek imports in this area. As of 1996, Japan relied on imports for over 80% of its energy. Japan also relies on trade with the rest of the world to supply many kinds of food, clothing, manufactured and consumer goods, and natural resources. Japan is a significant player in the world economy. The Japanese now have the opportunity to apply their technology and inventiveness to solve many of Japan's environmental problems and to set an example for other nations to emulate.

Why is it important to teach about this topic?

The environment and economics are interconnected. Short-term economic gains at the expense of a sustainable and healthy environment will inevitably lead to a loss of living standards. The recent Asian economic crisis illustrates how interrelated all issues are from social to cultural and environmental to economic. Questions can be posed to students as to who should be responsible for the environment and what needs to be done.

Overview of the topic in a contemporary context

Today the world functions as a single economic unit, with nations and organizations making decisions that affect everyone as well as the environment around us. It is important that young people begin to understand the way their lives are bound up with others'. It is also clear that people everywhere have a concern for the environment, no less in Japan than in the United States or Australia. This notion of interdependence is the key to working towards a just, fair and sustainable future. Studying how the Japanese use and care for their resources at a local level can illuminate universal environmental concerns.

Economics is usually seen as that part of the economy that can be measured in monetary terms. The natural environment makes a complex contribution to the national production that is not necessarily obvious. For instance, air, water, energy and minerals are fundamental natural resources. But with people's growing concern for their living environment, the value of these natural resources is more readily apparent, particularly since there is a delicate balance between life, air, water and soil. Various Japanese business leaders have expressed an understanding that careful management is necessary to sustain the environment and that this environmental management is also good for business.[1]

The natural environment is integrated into people's lives in many ways. In Japan, the environment influences daily life, both in the aesthetics of how people live, such as methods of food production and display, the design of living spaces, and in the way in which people respond to natural circumstances, such as the instability of the earth, population density and land shortage. In Kobe for instance, many people are looking for ways to make buildings safer and earthquake resistant.

A 1992 survey of Tokyo residents revealed that 73% of the respondents identified the issue of environmental protection as of greater concern than the issues of Japan's aging society and the spiraling land prices of the time. In the same survey, 87% were willing to put up with lower living standards if it would help protect the environment.[2] Although the majority of Japanese people live in cities, they have a high regard for the natural beauty of the countryside. The Japanese government has acknowledged the severe situation of world environment and Japan's hosting the Kyoto United Nations Conference on Climate Change in December 1997 brought greater attention to environmental issues.[3]

Government Measures

The Japanese government has undertaken many measures to ensure that Japan's physical and cultural environments are protected. The inauguration of the Environment Agency (1971), and the establishment of the Basic Law for Environmental Pollution Control (1967), the Basic Environmental Law aiming at international cooperation for global environmental protection (1993), and the Law for Recycling of Containers and Packaging (1995) are representative of such measures. The book, *Japan Profile of a Nation*, states that in response to the sharp deterioration in the natural environment caused by the postwar period of rapid economic growth, the Nature Conservation Law was passed in 1972 to serve as a basis for all legal measures to protect the natural environment.[4]

Measures have been taken to preserve the environment and cultural heritage. The Protection of Tourist Resources includes the Natural Parks Law, which provides for three kinds of Natural Parks: National Parks, Quasi National Parks and Hot Springs.

Protection of Cultural Properties is also seen as important and the 1998 KKC Fellows saw evidence of this at all the cultural sites visited. It includes the preservation of historic sites as well as recently reconstructed sites, such as the Castle at Iwakuni near Hiroshima, the Palace in Hiroshima, Itsukushima Shrine on the Island of Miyajima and the Kinkakuji and Kiyomizu temples in Kyoto.

Pollution and Acid Rain

One of Japan's main environmental problems is water pollution due to industrial waste disposal and household effluent. Minamata Bay is a case in point. Methyl mercury was discharged into Minamata Bay from Chisso Minamata Factory, contaminating fish and shellfish for more than thirty years until 1968. People who ate these fish and shellfish were afflicted with what has been called "Minamata disease." A settlement plan to disburse cash payments to the victims' organizations and to the victims themselves (2.6 million *yen* for each unaided patient) was officially presented in September 1995. Since that time, government measures against pollution have included the establishment of industrial waste treatment plants, and a 1997 revision of the Waste Management and Public Cleansing Law. This law imposes stiff penalties on illegal waste disposal. Stemming the discharge of dioxin has been another successful measure. There is also a movement among consumers calling for the use of alternative materials in place of vinyl chloride. The Water Pollution Control Law was also revised in 1996, empowering prefectural governors to charge polluters with the responsibility for clean up.[5]

Tourism

The marriage of the environment to economics has both positive and negative effects on the business of tourism. The Japan National Tourist Organization made the following statement in its 1995-1996 report, "Appropriate measures need to be taken for balancing the need for tourism and recreational activities and efforts need to be made to prevent these measures from adversely affecting the environment."[6] Tourism contributes to the economy by creating jobs and improving the balance of payments, but it also can adversely affect the local environment, for example, by the pollution of beaches and the disturbance of wildlife. As a result, there is a growing interest in developing sustainable forms of tourism that will sustain the environment and not jeopardize the local community that receives the tourists. The local use of resources and measures to protect the environment can have a national impact on Japan's tourism industry and its international reputation.

Global Efforts

The Japanese government has stated that it is addressing global environment issues through efforts to prevent global warming, to protect the ozone layer, to counter the affects of acid rain, to preserve tropical forests, to protect wildlife, and to support developing countries. Japan is one of the most generous donor nations in the world. The book, *Teaching for a Sustainable World,* presents the following "four faces of sustainability" to explain inplications of environmental care in the broader context of economics:

Economic Sustainability: the concept that development is economically efficient (processes and projects must be given the greatest output per unit of input) and that benefits are distributed through generations.

Cultural Sustainability: the concept that development should take into account the values of the people affected by it, recognizing various heritages and traditions.

Ecological Sustainability: the idea that development should take into account the maintenance of

ecological processes and that the survival and well-being of other species should not be neglected.

Social Sustainability: the idea that development must not cause social conflict, but should increase people's control over their lives, providing opportunities to participate in decision making.[7]

PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS

Business and the Environment

Employees of most businesses and corporations in Japan are educated in the importance of the environment as well as the importance of involvement within the community. The following comments by Japanese business leaders on the topic of the environment were made in June-July 1998. The comments below were compiled from several individuals. Questions for students could focus on how we know that Japanese people care about the environment.

Mazda (from brochure and presentation by Corporate Communications Division)

Everyone must be concerned with the conservation of natural resources. At Mazda, we already recycle thermoplastics... We also reprocess used bumpers for plastic recycling. At the same time, we look ahead to the world's first liquid crystal polymer fiber reinforced plastics that can be recycled more than ten times. Our new decomposing catalyst is another first. Developed by Mazda, it enables recovery of oils, for example gasoline and kerosene, from all types of plastics. Our concept car, the HR-X2's body panels are intended to make use of liquid crystal polymer fiber reinforced plastics and the concentrated wire harness layout makes recycling easier.[8]

OMRON Kyoto Taiyo Co. (from brochure and presentation by the Manager in Kyoto)

OMRON Kyoto Taiyo Co., a subsidiary of OMRON Corporation, makes parts for electrical systems. Our motto is, "At Work for a Better World for All." (For example, OMRON employs severely disabled people, allowing them a chance to reintegrate into society.) Since establishing its Environmental Charter in 1994, OMRON has taken positive steps to become an environmentally friendly company. In addition to the complete elimination of CFC use in its factories, OMRON is committed to reducing the use of styrofoam, recycling wastes, and developing product designs which take into account resource-saving and recycling requirements. The Environmental Charter states, "Aiming for harmony between the environment and mankind, we will use environmentally friendly technology and responsible corporate activities to contribute to a better world."[9]

Tokio Marine (from brochure and presentation by the President of Tokio Marine Human Resources Academy, an affiliate of Tokio Marine Fire Insurance Company)

Making meaningful contributions to society as a responsible corporate citizen is a key element of Tokio Marine's management policy... In response to the oil spill in the Sea of Japan caused by the capsizing of a Russian tanker in January 1997, Tokio Marine supported various volunteer initiatives within the company. These included the participation of a team of employees in coastal cleanup operations and the establishment of a fund to collect donations to ease the hardship of those effected. Reflecting our commitment to environmental stewardship, we have established a specialized division to promote various activities, including resource conservation and recycling...[10]

Government Action

The Japanese government has devised some strategies to enable the public sector to deal with global warming. It has recommended the following measures:

- Officials should wear light clothes "within the scope of social common sense" so that air conditioner temperatures could be set at 28°C or higher in July/August.
- Central Government bodies could play a part in conservation by making the first Monday of the month a "No Car Day" when official cars should not be used.
- Workers could help by being environmentally conscious in everyday duties, such as using both sides of the paper when printing documents and switching off all lights during lunch hours.
- The government could actively promote the introduction of vehicles that are less harmful to the environment.
- Public facilities, such as schools and government buildings, should make use of natural energy-generating sources like solar power.

- The government should establish a model project with a policy to make official buildings environmentally friendly. The buildings would ideally make the best use of natural lighting and ventilation, and roofs would be covered with greenery.
- The government established a global warming action plan in fiscal 1995, but the necessity of tougher measures has become evident following the Third Conference of the Parties to the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (Kyoto 1997). At the conference, Japan was put under an obligation to cut emissions of greenhouse gases by 6% from 1990 levels.

A government task force assembled to tackle the issue of global warming has called for changes in Japan's social and economic systems. It has also urged aggressive government initiative. "By showing the government's initiative in coping with global warming, we want to promote understanding of the issue by local governments and the private sector so that measures to prevent global warming become widespread."[11]

PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLES

The following points need to be considered when exploring environmental issues with students:

- Students need to learn about sustainable living.
- Students need to understand who makes decisions and takes responsibility for the local environment.
- Students need to communicate well and understand each other's views in order to work together toward the fair distribution and preservation of the earth's resources.
- Students need to develop skills to enable them to participate as responsible citizens.
- Students need to promote cross-cultural communication.
- Students need to learn how to receive Japanese visitors and consider visiting Japan.
- Students need to objectively explore, analyze, and evaluate Japanese cultural values, with their roots in Shinto, Buddhist, and Confucian belief systems.
- Students need to improve their ability to use information technology to enhance their reading, writing, creative, visual and other thinking skills.

Recommended Grade Level:

Middle School/Junior High School

Time Allotment:

6-10 classroom sessions

Objectives:

Knowledge: Students will develop an understanding of environmental values.

Attitude: Students will empathize with different points of view on the environment and how to care for it.

Skills: Students will read, interpret, analyze information, present opinions and draw conclusions.

Procedure:

1. Ask students to reflect on their images of Japan. In groups, have them brainstorm the images that come to mind, then report back to the class. Then ask the groups to brainstorm what they know about Japan. Again, report back to the class. [A group of students aged 12-16 in Hobart, Tasmania, Australia (June 1998) suggested the following: "crowded, busy, lots of people, friendly, formal with more respect for teachers and other adults, hard-working, disciplined, hygienic, hi-tech, good with electrical stuff, small cars, fast trains, tunnels through mountains, longer school days, traditional, yet modern with a significant US influence, intense, stressful lifestyle, expensive food but healthier." The Australian students' impressions of Japan, specifically concerning the environment, included the following: "They love nature, they do not get outside as much as Australians do, the Japanese recovered from the 1995 Earthquake in Kobe better than Australians could have, lots of trees in the mountains, they leave their trees in the ground and import timber, polluted but starting to get wiser about it."]

   Have students interview other students and/or family members, then record all responses on a graph. Discuss the similarities and differences in the responses.
2. Have students construct a Bingo game consisting of squares with questions about products and other connections with Japan included in

this chapter. A sample bingo game follows this chapter. Ask students to find out what other connections they know about. For instance, have them make a list of everything they own that was made in Japan. Students can discover what products from their country/state are imported to Japan by accessing *Japan 1999: An International Comparison* at the Keizai Koho Center web site [www.kkc.or.jp/english/activities/publications.html#jpn1999]. Ask students to determine which products help improve and/or sustain the environment.

3. To create jigsaw puzzles, cut up the quotes presented in the Primary Source Material section of this chapter. Ask students to reassemble the quotes and discuss their meanings. Have students compile quotes by business leaders in their own community. This might be accomplished through visits or letters to local businesses. Students could also contact Non-Governmental Agencies (NGOs) to learn what they are doing locally. Have students compare these responses with the quotes from Japan.
4. To discover economic links, have students explore the way that a country and its people's economic activities are related to the natural environment and to other countries. Ask them to consider aspects such as air, water, rocks, plants, animals, and energy, as well as natural recycling. Also, consider the relationship between local quality of life and economic activities and the quality of life in other countries. Then, ask the students to fit the environmental issues raised so far into the Development Compass Rose Model presented at the end of this chapter, as follows:
   - In what ways do other environments have an impact on this one?
   - What is the impact of economic activity on the natural environment? Is this activity sustainable?
   - What economic opportunities are there? Are they accessible to all groups? How does this situation link into global patterns and systems? What form do the linkages take?
   - What attitudes do people have about their environment?
   - In what ways are people organizing to influence change?
   - Will the environment be protected for future generations? What will the impact be on their environment? Will the same resources be available to them?
5. Japanese business leaders understand that caring for the environment and being involved in the local community are good for business. Have students discuss why this could be so. Ask them to discover if the same is true for businesses in their community.
6. In groups, have students discuss what they see as the three main environmental concerns in their country. Ask them what they see as the three main concerns for Japan. Are these concerns similar to/different from the concerns in their own country? Why? Ask the student groups to draft measures to address these concerns.
7. Have students explore Internet resources to discover case studies of environmental protection in action. For example, the Kids Web Japan site [www.jinjapan.org/kidsweb/index.html] shows Japanese school children making musical instruments from rubbish. Ask students to design, make and appraise their own product that would help in conserving the environment and would also be good for business.

Assessment:

- Satisfactory completion of tasks.
- Discussions and/or oral/written presentations
- Graphs/Posters/Drama presentation of issues and problem solving.
- Video or Internet site presentation

Extension and Enrichment:

- Have students identify the Chinese characters that represent the relationship of people to nature and people to people. Ask students to identify other symbols for environment issues.
- Make banners or posters encouraging action on environmental issues.
- Access the Internet and contact students in Japan to discuss environmental and related issues.
- Have the students research Japanese festivals that are connected to the environment. Have them discuss whether or not they have any similar festivals in their own country, and if such festivals are ways of incorporating concern/respect for the environment into social rituals.

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Global Education Centers in Australia:

Perth, W.Aus., One World Centre,

Brisbane, Queensland, Global Learning Centre Perth,

Adelaide, S.Aus., Global Education Centre

Hobart, Tasmania, TASDEC-Global Learning Centre tasdec@vision.net.au

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In the United Kingdom:

c/o Development Education Association 29/31 Cowper St. London

In Japan:

Development Education Council. Telephone: 03-3207-8085 fax: 03-3207-8486

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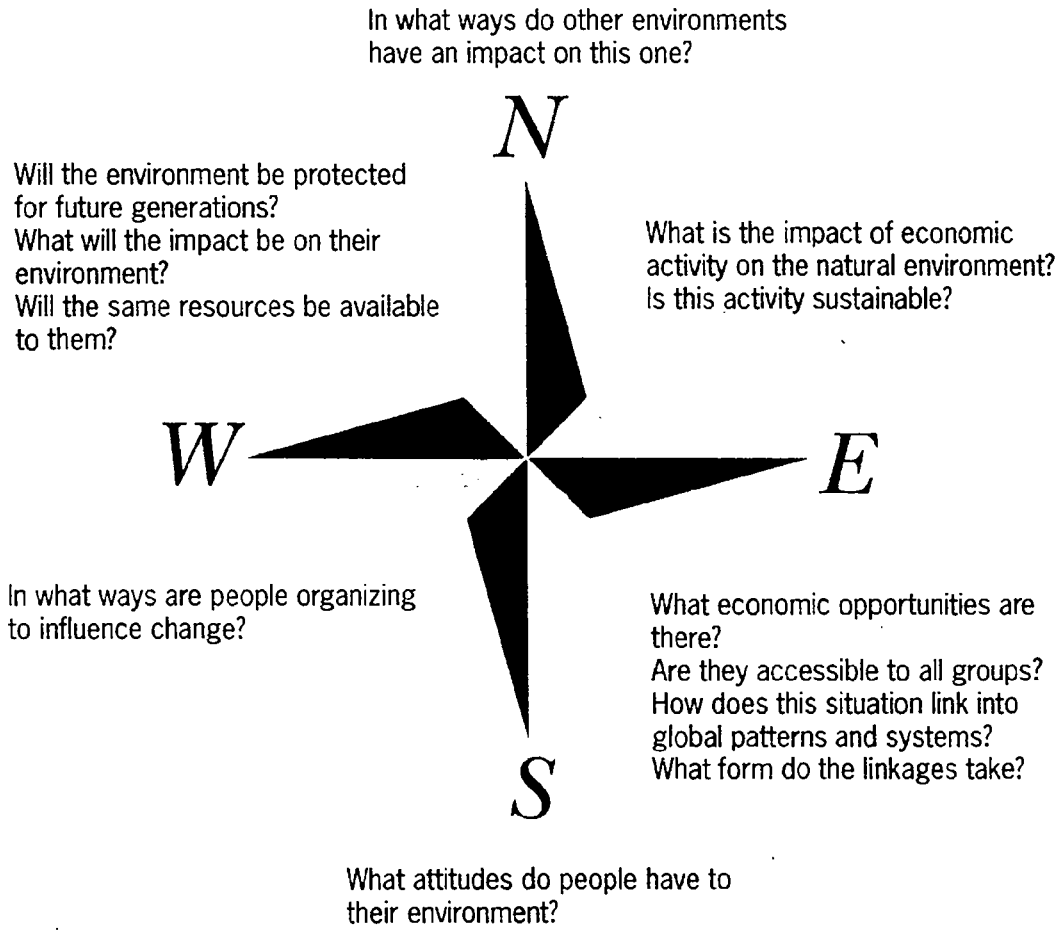
11 "Government Outlines its Environmental Role," *The Daily Yomiuri,* 2 July 1998.

JAPANESE BINGO

Has eaten Japanese food	Can name a Japanese airline	Has seen a TV ad for a Japanese company	Has collected stamps or coins from Japan	Has bought a gift imported from Japan
Has swum in the Pacific Ocean	Has tried doing origami or calligraphy	Has watched or learned judo, karate or yoga	Has used chopsticks	Has a watch or piece of jewellery made in japan
Has watched a film or TV show set in Japan	Can name a Japanese sport	Watched the winter Olympics in Japan	Knows the names of three cities in Japan	Has eaten packaged food imported from Japan
Can name two Japanese dishes	Knows the name of the indigenous people in Japan	Has a relative who has been to Japan	Can speak several words in Japanese	Can name two makes of cars from Japan
Knows someone who has visited Japan	Knows the name of two different types of clothing	Has received a letter from Japan	Has a neighbour who came from Japan	Has a TV or radio made in Japan

An example of questions from the diagonal points



Source: *Development Compass Rose*, DEC, Birmingham, UK

98

CALLIGRAPHY MEETS TECHNOLOGY: THE SEARCH FOR A TRADITIONAL ART IN MODERN JAPAN

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INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW/ RATIONALE

Many social studies teachers are interested in introducing calligraphic scripts as part of larger units on Japan. There are a number of lessons readily available, yet there are unanswered questions about this area of study. What impact does calligraphy have on Japanese culture? Why bother to teach such an obscure subject? What can students gain from a unit on Japanese characters?

Shotaro Yachi, Consul General of Japan in Los Angeles, wrote in 1997 that studying calligraphy "...serves to introduce and promote Japanese culture and can be expected to provide great momentum to accelerating mutual understanding among different cultures which is today an important international issue."[1] To that Linda Wojtan adds, "...The greatest reward gained [from this study] is the demystification of the Japanese language."[2] In Japan one sees English writing everywhere. Japanese students practice speaking and writing the English language. At Midorigaoka Junior High School outside of Tokyo one even sees examples of U.S. idioms done in cross-stitch by Japanese students. If the United States as a society is to become literate concerning a valued trading partner, then a study of Japan's writing system should be an important element.

Aspects of one's own writing can be better understood by studying those of Japan. "In the West, calligraphy, the art of beautiful writing, has become a neglected and nearly forgotten art.... Our increasing and nearly exclusive emphasis on the machine-made, mass-produced work, on near-print, on speedy printouts, on quickly made and easily disposable versions... has tempted us to forget the peculiar promise of beauty in the written word."[3] By contrasting our own state of writing with that of Japan's traditional writing it is possible to teach and to learn many things. Putting a brush in a student's hand may reveal a different person. The most common response to the practice of calligraphy in America's fast moving culture is, "Oh, this is so relaxing." Calligraphy teachers like to tell students that writing promotes long life. This is because practicing calligraphy requires contemplation. It would be worthwhile to use the study of calligraphy to teach students to value and to practice the slow, studied, and beautiful in their own personal writing. A study of calligraphy can provide a place of quiet retreat for anyone caught in the midst of the modern, hurried world.

The characters used in Japanese writing systems are sufficiently complex that one must develop strong visual skills in order to remember how to write them. In technological societies children grow up focused on the flashing image, the quick look. They learn to respond in an educated way to a series of fast moving pictures. Whether it is in the car, watching television, or using a computer or a video game, children are highly skilled at interpreting and dealing with quick impressions. Other aspects of seeing, looking deeply for understanding or remembering an image to reproduce later, are greatly neglected in these fast-paced societies. This is manifested in the United States by declining visual memory that has made it harder for young children to remember how to write the letters of the alphabet and for older children to spell. By studying calligraphy and visual memory in Japan, it is possible to investigate questions about visual learning in other technologically advanced societies.

It is difficult to ascertain the role of calligraphy in contemporary Japan. Is calligraphy largely a cultural artifact, or is it a living aspect of modern culture? How well has this traditional art survived in a time of technological change? What has happened to occupations associated with this art? In relation to education, how extensively have the rise in computer use and the concomitant decline in the need to memorize and write characters affected visual memory?

PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS

A traveler to Japan is often immediately overwhelmed by characters. Scripts obviously generated by the printmaking process or computer

graphics are seen everywhere. The eye makes a quick search to find familiar English writing. Anyone expecting to see beautiful Japanese calligraphy is bound to be confused, or even disappointed by the absence of brush writing. What has happened to hanging scrolls? Have studies of Japan been misleading? Is calligraphy in Japan a dead art?

The 1998 Keizai Koho Center Fellows visited thirteen businesses, two schools, one museum, two temples, three hotels, one traditional Japanese inn, and two government offices. Very careful looking found brush writing in unexpected places and formats. It was often difficult to distinguish brush work from machine made products. Computer graphic programs have evolved to the point where calligraphy of any script or size can be produced. This can easily deceive the uneducated eye. With technology like this, why bother with brush calligraphy? The answer to this question emerged bit by bit.

Business use of original calligraphy most often has consisted of official statements relating to the important values of the organization. Omron Kyoto Taiyo, Ltd. in Kyoto was the only business that displayed calligraphy in its meeting room. Two framed pieces on a side wall read "harmony" and "heart". Behind the speaker's platform was a longer framed work. The Daiei Shinurayasu store in Chiba prefecture near Tokyo had a framed piece of calligraphy in a hallway of the employee area. This composition was a message from the CEO of the Daiei, Inc., the store's parent corporation. A slide show by the Mitsubishi Public Affairs Committee displayed a slide of original calligraphy that stated the company's guiding principles written by their fourth president. These examples reflected the fundamentals of each business, a place where a good calligraphic hand is necessary.

In contrast, the Kobe Shu-shin-kan Brewery Ltd. displayed examples of calligraphy as art throughout its facility and on its product labels. This traditional sake producing company contracts with a calligrapher who works with a designer to create labels and signs for the organization. The identifying calligraphy for this company was written many years ago and has been maintained to the present. It is most often the traditional businesses that use original calligraphy by artists in this way.

Board and meeting rooms visited by KKC fellows had long, nearly empty walls that would have been perfect for displaying large works of calligraphic art. Instead, Japanese businesses chose to display smaller pieces of Western art on them. The Mazda Motor Corporation gave KKC Fellows the book, *Wabi Sabi Suki: The Essence of Japanese Beauty*. This book, displaying fine pieces of calligraphic art, identifies its sections by original brush writing, and celebrates all types of traditional Japanese art. Yet, the company decorated its facilities with modern Western art. Though a company may not have a corporate calligraphy collection, it could possibly still use its company office for exhibitions[4] or have a calligraphy club for its employees.[5]

The two government offices visited by the KKC Fellows were the Diet Building in Tokyo and the Hiroshima City Office. The Diet Building was lavishly decorated, Western style, including a mural of the seasons painted inside its dome. This was surprising since the depiction of the seasons is a traditional theme in Japanese art. The Hiroshima City Office had the only large piece of artistic calligraphy seen on the tour of Japan. This piece read, "Pray for Peace."

KKC Fellows also visited hotels, and like the businesses, the hotels generally did not use calligraphy as art, instead, opting for Western-style paintings. Calligraphic signs were used to announce meetings being held in hotel facilities. Signs in the Rihga Royal Hotel in Kyoto were done by a calligrapher and signs in the Hotel Pacific Meridien in Tokyo were done by a graphics program. Only careful observation could distinguish the two. Although it is true that some traditional hotels do decorate with calligraphy,[6] most newer hotels do not. Most surprising was that there was no calligraphic art (or *sumi* painting) on the walls in the traditional Japanese inn where the KKC Fellows stayed.

Visits to temples revealed a number of sources of calligraphy. Japanese tourists buy books that they take to temples where they have them stamped with the temple's seal or seals. Brush calligraphy is written over the seal. When one of these calligraphers was asked if he could make a living doing this job he laughed and said that he had to have other work as well. The gift shops in the temples have pieces of calligraphy for sale along with writing on items such as fans and cards. This writing was at the level of craft not fine art. In contrast, traditional signs painted or carved for the temple had been made long ago by calligraphic artists.

Traditional craft centers and shops were another place to see calligraphy. Writing was seen

not only on paper but also on pottery, porcelain, fabric, and wood. Some of this calligraphy was done as piece work, where one person may form a porcelain piece and another craftsperson may decorate it. However, much of the calligraphy on crafts is done by machine.

Schools were the places where brush writing was most apparent. In 1971, schools began requiring calligraphic education. This was in response to what Japanese people saw as poor handwriting. Today, children begin to study characters in school at age seven; however, many actually begin learning at an even younger age. A classroom at Koi Elementary School in Hiroshima displayed charts showing how to hold a pencil and how to hold chopsticks. Charts showing the *kana* syllabaries used color to show stroke order: red was first, then blue, then green, and finally black. Students use a pencil or pen to write until they are in the third grade at which point they begin studying calligraphy with a brush, the practice of *shodo.* This is taking the characters and giving them life by varying the lines with thick and thin, dark and light, wide and long, and by using a rhythmic movement of the brush. Brush calligraphy instruction is done as a part of the study of the Japanese language or as a part of home science. Students have a weekly one-hour session. At Koi Elementary, fourth grade students were writing one-character compositions. By sixth grade they were writing two-character pieces with their signatures down the left side.

For one hour a week as part of language study, brush instruction is required throughout the elementary grades. By the third year of high school, students need this time to study for college entrance examinations; however, calligraphy can still be studied as it is one of the clubs that a student may join. These clubs are held after school from 3:30 to 6:00. Typically, a student chooses one club, signs up for the entire year, then preferably stays with the same club for all three years of high school.

Those wishing to study calligraphy as a profession must take a test before they can enroll in a program at a university. Students study with a master calligrapher there. After graduation they either stay affiliated with the master to promote their career or they start a school. While an equal number of men and women study brush writing in college, "for a woman to be a calligrapher in Japan she would have to be a nun."[7] This is because the expectations for wife and mother are so demanding that a woman does not have the time to focus on a career.

In Japan there are sixteen million people studying calligraphy.[8] This is two people out of every fifteen in the country. The majority of these people study at private schools held in teachers' homes. Teachers have approximately ten students at a time. Teachers often encourage their students to enter work in calligraphy competitions.[9] There are as many as 400 competitions a year. Teachers gain prestige and are able to attract new students when their pupils' work is selected for one of these exhibitions. In addition, teachers and schools sponsor shows of their pupils' work. These are virtually inaccessible to travelers unless they go to museums or galleries where literally hundreds of pieces are shown at a time.

A dedicated search for art materials led to the discovery of a show of works by master calligrapher, Mr. Shodo Yamazaki, who made a living selling pieces of calligraphic art. Mr. Yamazaki was 90 years old and had been writing calligraphy for 70 years. His characters ranged in size from those so small that one could barely decipher them to those about six inches high. Some pieces were composed of hundreds of characters, some of one. The show represented a number of calligraphic scripts. Many pieces were classical poems or excerpts from them. He had even painted a *sumi* composition. Most pieces were framed Western style rather than mounted as scrolls. As each piece was purchased the buyer was given a shopping bag containing a picture catalogue of the show, and a gift vase with a calligraphic inscription, packed into a beautiful wooden box which was also inscribed. At the desk as one entered was a book to sign with a brush, monthly magazines from Mr. Yamazaki's school, and information about his next show.

Questioning Japanese people from various walks of life revealed information about contemporary calligraphy and its economic impact. Very few people can make a living as calligraphic artists. About two in one hundred who start out as teachers go beyond that.[10] Those who become famous are highly sought out and their work is quite expensive. Most Japanese cannot afford to buy such work.[11] Even if they could, some contemporary Japanese homes do not have the *tokonoma*, or traditional alcove, in which to display calligraphy. The calligraphy in the home of an average Japanese person is likely to have been a gift painted by a friend and it is often framed, not hung as a scroll.

Most calligraphers make their living by teaching part time and doing other work on the side. Those who have made a name for themselves can do calligraphy for others as contract work. When asked, "What would you say to your child if he or she wanted to become a calligrapher?" The typical response from Japanese people was, "What would you eat?"[12] Still, calligraphy is held in high esteem as a sign of culture and breeding, and a way to achieve quiet in a busy world. One would like to blame technology for the lack of work, yet artists and calligraphers have stated that the machine-made characters have created business for them because people are seeking out the unusual and original in reaction to computer graphics.

Technology has had and continues to have an impact on individuals' writing in Japan. Though computer use in Japan is not as high as in the United States, those who do use word processors or computers regularly are quick to say that they forget how to write *kanji* characters. They also state that their handwriting deteriorates.[13] Koi Elementary School principal, Ritsuko Ishikawa, sees the same problems with children and visual memory in Japan that exist in the United States.[14]

Partly in response to these concerns and to serve the 1990 United Nations Goal of the Year that by the year 2000 all of the world's children would read and write, the Mitsubishi Corporation sponsored an Asia-wide diary writing competition. In this context, students submitted handwritten entries, and Mitsubishi displayed the work of the winners in its lobby.

In this age of technological literacy it has become increasingly important for educators to train children in deep looking in order to facilitate the recall of visual forms for reproduction. Without this skill, children in advanced cultures may someday only be able to write with the use of a machine. With this in mind, the following lessons were designed to help students of all ages develop visual literacy and to encourage a better understanding of Japanese culture.

PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLES

1. Deep Looking

This is an exercise that can be used with any piece of calligraphy or other art in order to strengthen visual thinking skills. The lesson is based on the questioning method developed by Philip Yenawine of the Art Institute of Chicago. Begin by showing an example of Asian calligraphy (See the example at the end of this chapter, or consult the Bibliography and Supplementary Resources section). Explain that it is most often read from top to bottom and from right to left. The signature seal signifying the end of the piece is most often located in the lower left corner. Then ask: "What is going on here? What makes you say that? Tell me more about it. Rephrase responses of students, having them build upon each previous response. How is this piece of writing like our writing? How is it different? Are there repeated elements in this composition? What kinds of strokes do you see in this piece? Where do you see them? Where else? How are diagonal lines used? Vertical lines? Horizontal lines? Where do you see examples? Where else? Describe the width of lines and strokes. Where do you see that? Where else? Squint... what can you say about the empty space in this composition? Do you see any forms that suggest something else to you? Where? What? How does this composition make you feel?

2. Calligraphy and the Economic Cost to the Environment

The study of calligraphy is similar to the study of music. A student practices each piece over and over. The teacher helps the student develop skills and artistry. Students practicing musical compositions leave no trace behind unless they have their performance taped or filmed. Calligraphers on the other hand, leave behind practice paper. This paper will not recycle due to the glue and pine soot from which the ink is made. When we consider that each student may practice a composition as many as one hundred times we are faced with mountains of leftover calligraphy paper... an environmental and economic issue.

Brainstorm: How many ways can you think of to practice calligraphy without using paper? Try out some of the ideas using *kanji* characters. (Ideas: brush with water on chalkboard, finger in sand, write in clay or dough with implement, chalk on sidewalks or board, hand in air, finger on palm, practice on something that already cannot be recycled, practice with water color instead of calligraphy ink so that the paper can be recycled.)

3. Calligraphy, Writing, and Technology

Compare and contrast cultures that use technology for writing with those that may not. Are there any cultures that do not use technology for writing? How has technology effected the writing process? Would there be any change in occupa-

tions as the result of the use of technology for writing? How could the use of technology for writing affect the use of natural resources? What changes in values might occur as the result of using technology for writing? (Use this lesson for upper elementary students and above.)

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http://www.city.chiba.jp/school/jhs/038/kanjihtm/kanji.html. Midorigaoka JHS site. Calligraphy is designed by students to help English speakers figure out each character's meaning.

http://www.meitokai.com. Web site of Redmond-based calligraphy school taught by Japanese master, Yoshi Fujii, featuring examples of calligraphy.

Teacher Resources

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CALLIGRAPHY SAMPLE: "PRAY FOR PEACE"

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LINKING COUNTRIES THROUGH TRADE

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INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW/ RATIONALE

Economically, Japan is one of the most highly developed nations in the world. Its gross national product (the value of all the goods and services a nation produces) is the second biggest in the world. Much of Japan's economic strength is based on manufacturing. Cars are one of Japan's best known products. In 1996, Japan produced about 10.3 million cars, buses and trucks, the second highest vehicle production in the world. Japan is just as famous for the strength of its electrical equipment and electronics industries. Popular products include personal stereos, radios, computers, videos and cameras that are exported all over the world; and brand names like Sony, Toyota, Honda, Mitsubishi have become famous household names. Precision electronic instruments used in manufacturing all over the world are another important export. Japan ranks among world leaders in telecommunications. Japan manufactures and exports a variety of other machinery as well as metals and metal products and chemical products.

As Japan has limited natural resources, it relies on trade with the rest of the world to supply its large domestic market with many kinds of food, clothing, manufactured and consumer goods, raw materials and natural resources. In 1997, Japan's total amount of exports was US$420.9 billion and the amount of imports was US$338.71 billion. Japan trades with most countries of the world. However, in 1997, 27.8% of all Japan's exports went to the United States, while 22.3% of its total imports come from that country. Other important trading partners include neighbors Australia, China, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Singapore, Taiwan and Thailand, as well as Canada, and European countries, particularly Germany and the United Kingdom.

Japan is one of the largest importing countries of agricultural products in the world as only 13.3% of Japan's land is cultivated for farming. Although 67% of Japan's land is wooded, demand for timber and timber products means that Japan must import 80% of its timber. Since fish is an important part of the Japanese diet, fishing is one of Japan's major industries. Despite its own thriving fishing industry, in 1996, Japan had to import 42.5% of all its fish products to satisfy the huge domestic market. Tuna fish, one of the largest imported fish species, is imported to Japan from several countries, the top five being Taiwan, South Korea, Indonesia, Australia and Honduras.

In this era of globalization, it is necessary that students understand that we live in an interdependent global community. Studying the role and importance of trade and basic economic principles should begin in the early grades. The generalizations that students will understand at the completion of this chapter include the following:

- All people have needs and wants; some of these needs and wants are satisfied at a local level but many are satisfied through national and international trade.
- Trade involves the exchange of goods and services between and within countries to satisfy needs and wants.
- Countries form trade agreements with each other in order to export and import goods and services for mutual benefit.
- Trading relationships between countries may change over time.

These are important concepts, each of which can be illustrated with reference to trading links between Japan and the United States and Australia.

PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS

Source 1: Japan's Top 10 Imports by Commodity 1996

RANK	
1st	Crude Oil
2nd	Textile Articles
3rd	Business Machines
4th	Fish & shellfish
5th	Electronic Components
6th	Automobiles
7th	Timber
8th	Meat
9th	Non Ferrous Metals
10th	LNG

Source: Japanese Ministry of Finance, June 1997. Japan Ministry of Finance Web site, http://www.mofa.go.jp/english/index.htm

Source 2: Japan's Top 10 Exports by Commodity 1996

RANK	
1st	Automobiles
2nd	Electronic Components
3rd	Business Machines
4th	Optical Instruments
5th	Motor Vehicle Parts
6th	Steel
7th	Prime Motors
8th	Organic Compounds
9th	Ships
10th	Imaging Equipment

Source: Japanese Ministry of Finance June 1997. Japan Ministry of Finance Web site, www.mof.go.jp/english/index.htm

Source 3: Exports from Japan by Region (Million *Yen*)

	Total	Asia	Europe	North America	South America	Africa	Oceania
1996	44,731,311	20,755,620	7,565,499	14,081,238	603,899	637,980	1,087,075

Source: Japanese Ministry of Finance, June 1997. Japan Ministry of Finance Web site www.mof.go.jp/english/index.htm

Source 4: Imports to Japan by Region (Million *Yen*)

	Total	Asia	Europe	North America	South America	Africa	Oceania
1996	37,993,421	18,075,036	6,423,690	10,060,954	933,716	550,570	1,949,027

Source: Japanese Ministry of Finance, June 1997. Japan Ministry of Finance Web site, www.mof.go.jp/english/index.htm

Source 5: Japan's Exports by Destination and Commodity 1995 ($US million)

	Foodstuffs	Textiles	Chemical Products	Non-metallic Mineral Products	Metal and Metal Products	Machinery and Equipment	Other	Total
USA	303	666	4,826	1,040	4,045	100,183	9,796	120,859
Korea	228	771	4,178	716	3,436	19,062	2,900	31,291
Taiwan	345	649	3,913	666	3,267	17,592	2,537	28,969
Hong Kong	483	1,223	2,309	467	2,047	17,837	3,409	27,775
Singapore	117	236	1,186	363	1,583	17,223	2,293	23,001
China	93	2,369	2,040	259	3,103	12,244	1,823	21,931
Germany	19	265	1,101	174	333	16,950	1,475	20,317
Thailand	107	262	1,633	368	2,640	13,610	1,095	9,715
Malaysia	21	167	1,060	355	1,585	12,791	816	16,795
Britain	16	148	559	112	544	11,740	1,022	14,141
Other	392	2,187	7,391	959	6,154	91,643	9,417	118,143
Total	2,124	8,943	30,196	5,479	28,737	33,0875	36,583	442,937

Source: Japanese Ministry of Finance Customs Clearance Statistics. Japan Information Network http://jin.jcic.or.jp

Source 6: Japan's Imports by Source and Commodity 1995 ($US million)

	Food Products	Textile Materials	Metal Ores and Scrap	Other Raw Materials	Fossil Fuels	Chemical Products	Machinery and Equipment	Other	Total
USA	15,951	611	789	6,617	1,312	7,073	3,0516	12,539	75,408
China	4,704	196	69	1,090	2,097	1,333	5,162	21,271	35,922
Korea	1,828	6	43	190	844	974	6,075	7,309	17,269
Australia	3,160	498	2,093	394	5,062	157	403	2,802	14,569
Taiwan	3,238	49	122	348	16	571	5,722	4,301	14,367
Indonesia	1,517	-	1,059	661	6,833	180	469	3,495	14,214
Germany	405	8	11	102	23	3,056	8,186	1,914	13,705
Canada	2,056	2	583	4,371	1,152	429	503	1,728	10,834
Malaysia	185	34	133	1,932	2,378	311	3,698	1,878	10,549
Thailand	2,786	37	45	1,096	7	245	3,232	2,686	10,134
Other	15,255	354	4.455	4,926	33,663	10,331	20,374	29,765	119,123
Total	51,085	1,795	9,402	21,727	53,387	24,670	84,340	89,688	336,094

Source: Japanese Ministry of Finance Customs Clearance Statistics. Japan Information Network http://jin.jcic.or.jp

Source 7: Tuna Export Process

The following is the process through which tuna goes from the ocean to the Japanese dinner table. Adapted from "Destined for the Dinner Tables of Japan: Exporting Tuna from South Australia to Japan," *Adelaide Advertiser Newspaper,* 13 September 1997, 31.

- Monday 10 a.m., off the South Australian coast: Tuna ready for the dinner tables of Japan swim in pens off Port Lincoln, South Australia.
- Divers catch tuna in shallow nets off Port Lincoln.
- Tuna are killed and passed aboard fishing boats.
- Tuna spines are destroyed to prevent spoiling.
- Tuna are gilled, gutted, and cleaned on board.
- Tuna are placed on ice for the trip back to the factory for processing.
- Japanese buyers grade tuna from slices taken from the tail.
- Fish undergo a final cleaning before being packed in refrigerated boxes ready for export.
- Tuna begins its journey to Tsukiji Fish Market, Tokyo, via Adelaide.
- Newly arrived fish consignment is taken to transporter's warehouse.
- Tuna boxes are sorted and taken to a distribution depot.
- Fish temperature is checked before being sent to the Tsukiji Fish Market.
- Tuna is laid out and ready for an early-morning auction.
- Tuna tail is cut to display quality to fish wholesalers.
- Wholesalers examine tuna prior to the auction.
- The tuna auction begins.
- Fish is prepared for sale to retailers and food outlets.
- Sushi chef prepares raw tuna fish for diners.
- Lunchtime customer enjoys his portion of Port Lincoln tuna.
- Friday evening (three weeks later), Tokyo: Suburban shopper buys packed tuna at $A50/kg.

PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLES

The focus of this chapter is to introduce elementary school students to the concepts of trade and other associated basic economic principles using the example of trade between Japan and other countries. The teaching strategies in this chapter are designed to help students to do the following:

- Discover ways in which trade between other countries and Japan helps satisfy supply and demand at the local level.
- Discuss the concepts of imports and exports.
- Develop an understanding of the role of trade agreements and the concept of interdependence.

Students will develop and refine the skills of analyzing and presenting data, reading and draw-

ing graphs, mapping, and the social skills of cooperation through pair and group work. The following teaching strategies highlight inquiry learning and support collaborative learning principles, through pair work, group work, whole class work and individual work. Emphasis is on developing skills such as interpreting and analyzing information, forming conclusions, researching, and presenting information. The pedagogical examples outline an inquiry sequence of activities for students. With the teacher's help, these activities can assist students in the development of skills, knowledge, and attitudes about this topic.

- Ask students to list things that they commonly trade or exchange, such as basketball, baseball, soccer, football cards, stamps, toys, etc. Discuss the reasons why students trade or exchange these things. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of trading goods.
- Ask the class to develop a working definition of trade; then discuss the concept of trade between countries. In pairs, have students suggest which countries the United States and Australia would be likely to trade with and give reasons. Share these ideas with the class. On the board, list all the suggested countries and record how many times each country was nominated. Lead a discussion about the list. Note: It is likely that Japan will be in the list. If it is not, the teacher should introduce it.
- To introduce the concept of imports, in advance, ask students to prepare an inventory of items they can find at home that come from Japan and to record the Japanese brand names. In small groups have students list together their products and list popular brand names that have Japanese origins, such as Toyota, Honda, Sony etc. Combine the various student lists into one master class list.
- Ask student groups to make collages of advertisements promoting Japanese products and showing brand names, either by cutting out advertisements from magazines and newspapers or by drawing examples. Groups could also create a collage showing the range of products that a given company manufactures, such as Sony: televisions, stereos, walkmans, etc.; Honda: cars, motorcycles, etc.
- Ask students to consider the following questions: Why do we import goods from Japan? How different would our lives be if we did not import these goods? How did the goods arrive here?
- Using an item brought from home that has its origins in Japan, ask students to work in small groups to visually map the journey that item might have taken in order to get from Japan into their possession. Provide an opportunity for all groups to share their maps. Ask the students to explain why they selected the particular mode of transport. Ask students to identify what the maps or drawings have in common.
- To introduce the concept of export, ask students to consider what items the United States/Australia exports to Japan. Why does Japan buy items from the United States/Australia? What types of goods does Japan export? Link the answers to these questions concerning exports with the questions presented above that deal with imports in order to help students realize that one country's export is another country's import.
- Discuss the differences between "dependence on" and "interdependence." Explain that trade between countries is an example of interdependence. Through international trade, the quality of life in both the importing and the exporting countries can be improved. In pairs, ask students to make lists of items they buy from Japan that help improve the quality of their lives. Share these lists and discuss them. Ask students to consider the ways in which Japanese life is enhanced through the export of this item. As a class, discuss what exports the United States/Australia sends to Japan that aids the quality of Japanese lives? How does the export of these items enhance life in the US/Australia?
- Ask students to consider the statement, "It is almost always better to buy items we need from other countries that are good at making things cheaply, rather than trying to make them ourselves." Japan has very few natural resources so it must rely on importing many raw materials from other countries. Discuss what raw materials Japan might need to manufacture many of the products that Japan produces. Australia exports large quantities of iron ore to Japan. Discuss why Japan would need to import large quantities of iron ore.
- To further explore Japan's major imports and exports, refer to Primary Source Materials 1 and 2. Discuss with students the term, "com-

modity." Use the table below to categorize the items from the list of top 10 imports and exports as either natural resources or manufactured goods. After completing the table, ask students to share their observations. Discuss possible reasons why automobiles and business machines appear both on the list of top 10 imports and top 10 exports.

Imports		Exports	
Natural resources	Manufactured goods	Natural resources	Manufactured goods

- Using the statistics in Primary Source Materials 3 and 4, ask students to create a two-bar or two-column graph that shows the amount of import/export trade by each region. Highlight any trade imbalances that the graph shows. In which regions do these imbalances occur? Discuss the reasons why trade imbalances might come about.
- Organize students into groups of four. Provide each group with two blank maps of the world. Using the data from Primary Source Materials 5 and 6, ask two students in each group to label on one of the maps those countries to which Japan exports. Ask the other two students to label the remaining blank map with those countries from which Japan imports. Draw lines between Japan and the other countries labeled. Determine the thickness of the line by the amount of trade ($US) that is exported/imported to that country, e.g. 1 cm = $US 100 million, 5 cm = 50 million. Can these Japanese import and export maps be combined? Alternatively, a large class map could be prepared using an overhead projector to enlarge group maps. Use the information drawn on the map and statistics provided in the tables to answer the following questions: What country is Japan's largest trading partner? What countries are Japan's second and third largest trading partners? What percentage of Japan's exports goes to the United States? What percentage of Japan's imports come from Australia? In light of the responses to these questions, revisit the concept of interdependence. Broaden the discussion to include an exploration of international trade agreements. Ask students to consider what advantages there are to establishing trade agreements. You could introduce APEC, GATT, the WTO, etc. What trade agreements exist between Japan and the United States/Australia? Do trade agreements make trade fairer? For whom?
- To explore the issue of exporting Australian tuna to Japan, consider the following: The export of southern blue-fin tuna to Japan from Australia has caused considerable discussion among environmentalists who want a reduction in the numbers of blue fin tuna exported to Japan. Most of these tuna are auctioned at the Tsukiji wholesale fish market, one of the biggest wholesale markets in the world. Some 2,888 tons of marine products valuing 2.8 billion *yen* are handled at the Tsukiji market daily, accounting for 87% of Japan's total amount.

Distribute a copy of Primary Source Material 7. Have students read this information in pairs. Explore the issue of tuna exports, using this information as well as any from your own research. Apply De Bono's "Six Thinking Hats" strategy in order to encourage students to see the issue from a range of perspectives.

White Hat: List the all facts that you know about the export of tuna fish to Japan.

Red Hat: What are the emotions or feelings associated with the export of tuna to Japan?

Black Hat: What are the negative aspects of exporting tuna to Japan?

Yellow Hat: What are the positive aspects of exporting tuna to Japan?

Green Hat: How could the environmental concerns associated with the export of tuna to Japan be solved?

Blue Hat: What are the "big picture" issues associated with the export of tuna to Japan? What issues would arise in Japan if the number of tuna fish were restricted?

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http://www.jinjapan.org
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Kids Web.
http://www.jinjapan.org/kidsweb/index.html
Kids Web is a site on the Japan Information Network that introduces Japan to schoolchildren who live in other countries.

Information Asia.
http://www.infoasia.co.jp/urban/index.html

Official web site of the Ministry of Finance of Japan.
http://www.mof.go.jp/english/index.htm

Asia Gateway
http://www.asiagateway.com/japan/index.html
Web site containing a useful directory on Japanese business, travel and news items.

Mitsubishi Corporation.
http://www.mitsubishi.co.jp/En/splash.html
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JAPANESE CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP: A MODEL FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

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INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW/ RATIONALE

Many Japanese companies model a commitment to family that goes beyond the nuclear family to society as a whole. This was a striking revelation during the Keizai Koho Center Fellowship Program trip to Japan. It left a firm and lasting impression of the level of commitment of Japanese corporations to Japanese society. In almost every case, company brochures outline this commitment. Companies see their mission as not only to produce profits, but also to put that profit back into society for its betterment. They refer to this commitment as "corporate citizenship."

Following is an excerpt from the 17 December 1996 "Charter for Good Corporate Behavior" from Keidanren (The Japan Federation of Economic Organizations). This document clearly outlines the expectations for corporate citizenship as envisioned by this consortium of Japanese businesses:

Keidanren Charter for Good Corporate Behavior[1]

Corporations, in addition to being economic entities engaged in the pursuit of profit through fair competition, must be useful to society as a whole. For this reason, corporations will adhere to the following principles; respect the letter and spirit of all laws, whether domestic or foreign, and of international rules; and behave in a socially responsible manner.

1. Corporations will develop and provide socially useful goods and services, giving full consideration to safety.
2. Corporations will engage in fair, transparent, and free competition. They will also maintain healthy and sound relations with politics and government.
3. Corporations will communicate not only with shareholders but also with society as a whole, actively and fairly disclosing corporate information.
4. Corporations recognize that coping with environmental problems is essential to corporate existence and activities and will take a voluntary and resolute approach in dealing with the tasks.
5. Corporations, as good corporate citizens, will actively undertake philanthropic activities.
6. Corporations will strive to make it possible for employees to lead relaxed and enriched lives, guaranteeing a safe and comfortable work environment and respecting employees' dignity and individuality.
7. Corporations will stand firm against antisocial forces and organizations that threaten the order and security of civil society.
8. In overseas operations, corporations will respect the cultures and customs of the hosting society and will manage themselves in a manner that contributes to local development.
9. Corporations' top executives, recognizing that it is up to them to make the spirit of the Charter a reality, will take the initiatives and set an example in seeing that all relevant parties are fully aware of the Charter and in bringing corporate systems into line with it, and will endeavor to cultivate corporate ethics.
10. When the Charter is violated, corporations' top executives will resolve the problem, endeavoring to clarify its causes and prevent its recurrence. They will promptly disclose all relevant information to the public, and will mete out stern punishment upon identifying authority and responsibility, not excluding themselves.

PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS

MK Taxi

Mr. Sadao Aoki (in a June 25, 1998 address to the KKC Fellows in Kyoto, Japan) took genuine pleasure in telling the story of how he began MK Taxi in 1950, over forty years ago. It is clearly a business built with love, and therefore it is no surprise that

its logo is a bright red heart with MK emblazoned across it. Mr. Aoki described it as a company that gives of itself "wholeheartedly" and he pointedly drew his audience to that conclusion. Starting with a single gas station with ten cars in 1950, he built a strong vibrant taxi company.

Mr. Aoki describes how Japanese society was very confused after WWII. Unemployment was high, so consequently, he had 200 applicants for the 24 drivers he needed to run the ten cabs. However, he quickly discovered that his employees had a poor work ethic; they were tardy, had a high rate of absenteeism, and routinely left work early. He realized that this was having a negative effect on profits. He decided that he had to work to educate his employees and to instill in them a stronger work ethic if his company was to succeed. He could not provide a quality service-oriented taxi service without reliable drivers. To begin with, he insisted that the drivers inform him of their absence and tardiness. However, he quickly found out that this alone did not change work habits. He then realized that if he were going to change these habits, he was going to have to investigate further to find out the reasons for these worker behaviors.

He began to visit the homes and families of his drivers. After the war, housing conditions were very poor. Many family members were sleeping together in very close quarters because of the shortage of housing and the poor economic conditions. He quickly discovered the reason for the chronic absenteeism and tardiness. His drivers were simply not getting enough sound sleep because the housing conditions were crowded and chaotic. He recognized that if he was going to improve their work habits, he was going to have to improve employee living conditions.

His first step was to construct a dormitory for both single and married drivers where they could have good housing conditions. Additionally, he recognized that this only took care of the individual driver, and that often, a whole family was involved. Then he decided to buy townhouses that he could rent to his drivers and he arranged for loans for drivers through a bank. However, surprisingly, his drivers were not renting. Rather than giving up on the idea, Mr. Aoki realized that on their average salary the rent was not affordable so he raised workers' salaries by 50,000 *yen*. His drivers were now earning salaries comparable to bank officials, and airline pilots. Yet strangely enough, his drivers were still not renting the townhouses. Still undeterred, he was determined to find a way to improve the quality of life for his drivers. He decided to bring the cost down to 23,000 *yen*. Once the housing costs were affordable, the drivers started to rent.

Additionally, Mr. Aoki allowed the drivers to take the cars home with them, significantly cutting workers' commuting time. By making sure that his workers were given good wages and better housing conditions, Mr. Aoki found a way to improve his company and service and still increase his profits. After this was accomplished, driving for the MK Taxi Company became a much- sought-after position that carried with it an enormous sense of pride.

The company's success was a direct reflection of Mr. Aoki's clear belief in the idea that one must contribute to society by improving the lives of others. He understood that if he could succeed in improving the living conditions of his workers, it would result in increased productivity and profits for MK Taxi. Today, he continues his personal investment and interest in his drivers. He talks to them individually and in small groups on a routine basis, even if it is only for five or ten minutes daily. Drivers cannot drive their cars unless they participate in these sessions. He provides them with English lessons and those who pass initial tests go to the United Kingdom for further study. Those who finish this training constitute a work force of educated, professional, bilingual drivers. This has given MK Taxi an international reputation for quality educated drivers who are in very high demand with international visitors. MK Taxis is a model of professionalism, from the bright, shiny, spotlessly clean cars and vans, to the fashionable uniforms created by Japanese fashion designer Hanae Mori, complete with hat and gloves that speak volumes about the image and deserved reputation of this company.

The Omron Kyoto Taiyo Corporation

Japanese values are again reflected in the Omron Kyoto Taiyo Corporation, a company that has dedicated itself to hiring the disabled. This is reflected in it corporate slogan, "No charity, but a chance! No one is so disabled as to be unable to work at all." The corporate ideal and goal is to help the disabled become integrated into society through physical rehabilitation and occupational training. Presently, 186 people are employed at Omron Kyoto Taiyo Corporation. Out of these, 70% are

severely disabled with handicaps that range from cerebral palsy to spinal cord injuries. Eighty percent of the employees are physically disabled.

This company arose from an idea of the founder of Japan Sun Industries, the late Dr. Yutaka Nakamura. He envisioned and believed that stable jobs were essential to helping the disabled become productive members of society. He held that a disabled worker had to become reintegrated into society and that this could be accomplished by giving him vocational training in addition to a place to work. This idea led to the formation of parent company Sun Industries in 1965. The Omron Kyoto Taiyo Corporation became its subsidiary.

However, what made Dr. Nakamura's vision extraordinary was his commitment to going far beyond the workplace, to include a total living environment as well. He envisioned a campus-like setting where dormitories, housing units and recreational facilities would provide a total environment to fit the needs of disabled workers. Today, the site includes a gymnasium, swimming pool, supermarket, restaurant, and bank, in addition to workspace and housing. According to an Omron brochure:

> "Omron Corporation has been firmly committed to the research and development of innovative technologies and products so as to keep stride with ongoing trends and changes. Omron Kyoto Taiyo was established with the aim of creating a more sophisticated sensor factory. [Omron] today is a world-class manufacturing facility boasting high productivity and a very low defect rate."

One has only to look at the structure of Japan's welfare system to understand how Dr. Nakamura's vision was molded by Japanese values. In Japan, welfare is given to households and not individuals, therefore there are fewer welfare programs. By law, a household cannot apply for assistance if there is a blood relative who can assume financial responsibility. Therefore, the expectation is that each family takes care of its own. Therefore, to apply for assistance is often looked upon as an admission of guilt and shame. Consequently, few Japanese will apply for the available programs.

Dr. Nakamura had the foresight to blend these two values. He saw that welfare alone was not the answer for the disabled. He also understood that in Japan, everyone was expected to work and to make a contribution regardless of how small. Omron Kyoto Taiyo Corporation was the result of that vision. He recognized that the corporation was an extension of the Japanese family. Therefore, it needed to provide for all of its citizens regardless of their abilities or disabilities. Today, Omron not only provides a work place for the disabled, but also develops machinery designed to meet the needs of the disabled worker. Industrial design modifications are routinely made to meet the particular needs of each disabled worker so that he may work efficiently and productively. Disabled workers are valued members of the work force, while producers and managers reap the benefits of quality production and profitability. As a result, the Omron Kyoto Taiyo Corporation has embraced its role as a "corporate citizen," making a valued contribution and commitment to society by employing the often forgotten disabled worker.

The Marol Corporation

A third company that has made a meaningful contribution to society is the Marol Corporation. Located in Kobe, the company suffered devastating property damage during the Great Hanshi-Awaji Earthquake of 1995. As manufacturers of hydraulic devices, it came to Marol's attention that portable rescue tools were desperately needed during rescue operations. Rescue workers needed jacks that could operate on self-contained power sources and that would be strong enough to lift the rubble to facilitate rescue efforts. Unfortunately, these were not available in 1995 and rescue efforts were severely hampered. Seeing the necessity for such tools, Marol began the task of developing rescue equipment that is now available. It took them 1½ years in research and development to produce "Calamity RQ" tools. According to the company brochure, these tools,

> "...were invented on a concept of easy to carry, easy to use, and require no external power. There are two kinds of calamity tools available; a "Gap Jack Set: and Concrete Wall Crasher Set." We have keen eyes to watch how our products serve out customers' need. If we are in need to realize this professionalism of a maker, we are ready to go for it any time, anywhere."

Clearly, the development of these tools helped Marol to achieve its corporate ideal, "Where there is a combination of technology and market, there is MAROL, a Hybrid Mechatronic Corporation!"

Although no one is planning for another devastating earthquake, Japanese people are clearly realistic in knowing that Japan is geographically vulnerable to these natural disasters. Out of the

tragedy of the 1995 earthquake came a company's commitment to finding a way to make a specific contribution to society. The company addressed the following questions: "What can we do better?" and "What things should we have ready for the next time?" Again, their commitment to society is evident and their profits and profitability continue to increase. Implicit in the Marol corporate slogan, "We have NEXT," the company clearly wants to be on the cutting edge of design.

Despite Japan's massive current economic problems, perhaps other countries can take some lessons from the Japanese model. There is an underlying assumption in many companies that they have an obligation to contribute to society, not as an afterthought, but as part of their regular business practices. Following is an excerpt from the Mitsubishi Corporation brochure that underscores this value:

> "The company's conservatism reflects their other cultural attribute: an acute sensitivity to the social context of business. Management is cautious in decision-making because they are serious about their role as corporate citizens. All-important decisions involve painstaking analysis of possible impact on employment, safety, the environment, and other social concerns.
>
> As corporate citizens, the Mitsubishi companies initiate and participate in public interest activities.... Management and employees regard those activities as a natural and important part of their larger corporate activity.
>
> Volunteers from some of the companies have hosted more than 15,000 children and partners at annual nature-discovery camps for single-parent families and orphans. Matching gift programs, meanwhile, double employee contribution to worthy causes by matching them yen for yen with funds from company coffers.
>
> Community cleanups are a tradition at several Mitsubishi companies. And the bigger companies all donate large sums annually to scholarship and student-exchange programs, to environmental research and to other public interest endeavors.
>
> The Mitsubishi companies are like a community. And like all communities, they overlap and interact with other communities. In their public interest activities, as in their business operation, the Mitsubishi companies are doing their part for the greater good of the global village."[2]

Similar values are highlighted in Tokio Marine's corporate policy statement:

> "Making meaningful contributions to society as a responsible corporate citizen is a key element of Tokio Marine's management policy. We have a number of programs in place to strengthen our ties to the communities in which we operate. During fiscal 1997, we continued to provide scholarships for exchange students from ASEAN countries and to cooperate with a comic drama troupe to support children's hospitals. Moreover, we were actively involved in charitable and social contribution activities throughout Japan.
>
> In response to the oil spill in the Sea of Japan caused by the capsizing of a Russian tanker in January 1997, Tokio Marine supported various volunteer initiatives within the company. These included the participation of a team of Tokio Marine employees in coastal cleanup operations and the establishment of a fund to collect donations to ease the hardship of those affected by this environmental disaster. Finally reflecting our commitment to environmental stewardship we have established a specialized division to promote various activities, including resource conservation and recycling."

PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLES

Classroom Project:

1. Contact a Japanese company that has headquarters in the United States, such as Panasonic, Toshiba, Sony, Aiwa, etc. Request brochures that identify the corporation's mission statement and corporate goals. Are there statements that reflect commitment to corporate citizenship? What is the commitment? What activities are they involved in that demonstrate this commitment?
2. Interview an executive or management officer from this company and ask her or him to identify areas of corporate commitment to society. Interview a worker from this company. How does a typical worker perceive the company's commitment to corporate citizenship?
3. Identify a United States corporation such as IBM, General Electric, Motorola, or General Motors. Request brochures that identify its mission statement and corporate goals and compare it to the Japanese company selected previously. How does the U.S. corporation demonstrate corporate citizenship?

4. After all of the brochures and information have been collected, have students identify Japanese values that are part of the corporate mission statement. Compare them to the United States corporations. How are they alike? How are they different?
5. Have students draw conclusions about the similarities and differences between U.S. and Japanese corporate commitments to society.
6. Have students identify how this commitment helps the development of society. Is this commitment advantageous for the company? How so?

School Citizenship Project:

Have students look at mission and goal statements of their own schools. Do they include commitment to community or service within their own district? Have students create a school-wide project to assist a current community service project or ask students to identify areas of need within their own communities.

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Japan Information and Culture Center, Embassy of Japan: www.embjapan.org.

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Keidanren Organization: www.keidanren.or.jp.

ENDNOTES

1 http://www.keidanren.or.jp/english/policy/pol052.html

2 *A Community of Companies,* Mitsubishi Corporate Brochure.

¥EARNING TO BUDGET: FINANCES AND THE JAPANESE FAMILY

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INTRODUCTION/OVERVIEW/ RATIONALE

Biological families are arguably the primary organizing units for people throughout the world. Traditionally, the family unit has been a place where a sense of play, work, social skills, and values are learned. In the 20th century, families in industrial and democratic societies are undergoing fundamental changes, i.e. the extended family giving way to the nuclear family as the norm. Japan is no exception to this trend. Even though the family has changed, the family remains at the core of how children learn values and how to live in the modern world. This chapter provides information and approaches for students to learn about family monetary habits, both in Japan and in the United States.

Students will utilize information from a number of resources in order to gain insight into how contemporary Japanese use their income. Students may also conduct their own surveys and make comparisons with spending and saving habits in the United States. Learning about family finances for both Japan and the United States is vital for students learning to responsibly plan their own spending, both for themselves as individuals and for their future families. The activities in this chapter have been designed to help students become competent and confident in assessing the uses of money. The final goal and practical result of this chapter is for students to create their own budgets, a stepping stone for further life planning.

Where and how was the data collected and how may the information be used?

Learning how family expenditures broke down into various percentages according to categories was partially accomplished by conducting a survey in summer 1998. As part of gathering information about family finances, 60 Family Budget Surveys were dispersed to various people in Hiroshima and Tokyo. These people were kind enough to help distribute the surveys to their friends and colleagues. Since the data gathered from these surveys represents only a small number of respondents, the teaching ideas included in this chapter recommend having students access the World Wide Web for current statistics reflecting national averages in order to gain insight into the financial habits of an average Japanese family.

PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS

Source 1: Interviews and Discussions on Family Finances

On 2 July 1998, the Keizai Koho Center in Tokyo arranged meetings for the KKC Fellows to meet with Japanese business people. Mr. Tetsuo Saito and Ms. Akiko Suzuki were most helpful in responding to questions concerning family finances. During another small group discussion with KKC Life Reporters (a focus group that reports on consumer and lifestyle issues) at the Hotel Pacific Meridien, Tokyo, 3 July 1998, Ms. Chiyako Fuwa, Ms. Tomoko Fujimura, and Ms. Kimiko Ikegami likewise offered insights into family finances during a two-hour discussion.

Mr. Tetsuo Saito
(family of 4)
"Within my company all salaries are paid electronically. Only one person can withdraw from the account. Our account is in my wife's name; she withdraws all money. In the past, all money was given directly to my wife to handle. Now, we have some discussion, but not too much. 15-20% of our annual income is put into savings. We live in a condominium purchased thirteen years ago. The greatest difficulty, financially speaking, is housing satisfaction. Our home is small. In 1998, housing costs are 30-50% lower compared to the early 90s. Some people are returning to the city."

Ms. Akiko Suzuki
(single and lives alone)
"All of my salary is kept for myself. When I lived with my parents, my mother managed the family budget. The first three years with my company my salary was too low to save. After the first three

years, my salary went up and I was able to save a little, less than 5% of the monthly salary. Now, 10% of my monthly salary is saved and so is 10% of my bonus. I don't save at the post office." (The Japanese Postal Saving Office, PSO, has 24,500 branches throughout Japan. In 1996, the PSO accounted for approximately 45% of deposits.)[1]

Ms. Chiyako Fuwa

(3 in family: husband and baby)

"For leisure I take tea ceremony lessons, play tennis, go scuba diving, ski, and do personal computer studies. The whole family likes Disneyland and amusement parks. My husband enjoys sports and also cares for the personal computer. I used to work for a company in sales and accounting but my husband transferred two times in one year. We live in an apartment: three bedrooms, dining room, and kitchen. We have one Japanese style room and one Western style. Japanese medical insurance does not cover births. The Japanese practice is for friends and family to give money to help cover the medical costs. I handle the food and supermarket budget. Other things my husband and I decide together. We completely share housework. My husband does cleaning, laundry, grocery shopping, and helps wash dishes. I take care of the baby and do washing. Our sharing is not the same as other young families we know."

Ms. Tomoko Fujimura

(4 in family, Kindergarten teacher, part time English teacher)

"For leisure I garden, see movies (on television or video rentals), and read. My 20-year-old daughter studies law and my 19 year-old son studies medicine. The roles of women are changing in the new generation. Women have more free thinking and free ideas. Men's role is not changing. Since my husband is very busy, I handle the family budget as part of my duties. Only with big items do we decide together. We discuss the allowance for my husband to use each month."

Ms. Kimiko Ikegami

(4 in family, part time consultant for an Internet communications company)

"I have two girls at the university. My leisure activities include mountain climbing, walking old towns, and playing ping-pong. I also watch television. We have five televisions in five rooms so I can watch while working in different rooms of our house. While commuting one hour to work, I like to read. The family likes mountain hiking and climbing. I met my husband mountain climbing. He's fifteen years older than I. My husband likes to gather mountain vegetables and mushrooms. New Year's Day the whole family goes to a shrine to pray. The handling of money for a family budget varies from one family to another. My husband spends much money. I do all the planning, even with purchasing of a house. My husband wanted to make the final decision. I made a concession and let him make the final decision. I control everything."

Source 2: Excerpts from "How Do the Japanese and Americans Spend Their Money?"

Japan: Why It Works, Why it Doesn't, 51-58.

"Japanese and American households use their incomes very differently in terms of amounts of savings and ways to spend money. First, Japanese households save a larger percentage of their after-tax incomes than American households do – 14.7 percent versus 4.2 percent, respectively.... the Japanese tend to allocate a much larger share of their budget on food and housing than Americans do, while Americans spend disproportionately more than the Japanese on medical care, transportation, and unspecified 'other' expenditures."

Category of Spending	United States	Japan
Food, beverage, and tobacco	10.8%	19.7%
Clothing and shoes	5.8	5.7
Housing	19.0	26.4
Medical care and health expenses	17.5	11.1
Transportation and communications	13.2	9.6
Education, cultural services, and entertainment	10.5	10.6
Other	23.2	16.1

"Why do the Japanese spend more of their budget than Americans on food and housing? The answer is simply that food and housing are much more expensive in Japan than in the United States. In a land-scarce country like Japan, food is expensive to produce.... Food prices are high in Japan largely because of Japanese government agricultural policy and regulations. In the past, Japan's powerful agricultural lobby effectively blocked the massive importation of cheap food into the country, and the result has been very expensive food.... Prospects for lower food prices in the future are improving.... In the past, liberalization of food imports, such as beef and oranges, has brought down prices in Japan."

"The high price of land is the main reason for high housing prices in Japan. The National Land

Agency survey showed that in 1994, a square meter of residential land in Tokyo averaged 560,000 yen or 5,490 U.S. dollars at the 1994 average exchange rate of 102 yen to the dollar, making Tokyo the most expensive city in the world. By comparison, it was $169.00 in Los Angeles, $202 in San Francisco, and $485 in Honolulu.... Of course, land prices in Tokyo are much higher [than] other areas of Japan, but they have been falling rapidly since the early 1990's [sic].... That housing, both rental and owned, would be expensive in Japan is hardly surprising, considering that land is a scarce commodity in the island nation. But that's not the only reason. Government protection of the agricultural industry and lower taxation of farmland in Japan means that the farm sector is larger than it would be otherwise, and that also means that there is less land available for housing. In a nutshell (or, rice kernel?), land scarcity combined with the government protectionist policy on agriculture not only explain high food prices; it also helps explain high housing prices in Japan."

"Japanese households spend proportionately less of their budgets on health care. That's because, unlike in the United States, the Japanese have universal social health insurance plans that pay most of their medical bills so that that their out-of-pocket spending on medical care is much lower than in the United States. The Japanese government also has kept tight control over prices, quality, and scope of health care services. One consequence is that total health care spending per person is also far lower in Japan than in the United States – 1,495 U.S. dollars per person versus 3,299 U.S. dollars, respectively."

"The Japanese also spend less on personal transportation. That's because, living in a densely packed country, the Japanese rely much more heavily on their efficient public transit system (trains and buses) than do Americans, who rely more on their (more expensive) personal automobiles. The United States has one passenger automobile for every 1.8 people, compared to one automobile for every three people in Japan."

Source 3: Family Budget Survey

Date Survey completed: _____

Please write in the information in the spaces provided as best you can. Please use the U.S. dollar as your monetary unit. Each monetary figure is what you **estimate for a full year** for the particular expense.

Family information: _____

Name of city or town you live in: _____

Number of family members living in household: _____

Males: (number and ages): _____

Females: (number and ages): _____

Number of wage earners in family contributing to family expenses: _____

Occupation(s) for major family wage earners: _____

Total yearly income for major family wage earners: _____

Home: Please circle one: *own* *rent* *lease*

Expenses:

1. Household

Mortgage or rental payments _____

Taxes on house/apartment _____

Utilities:

Electricity _____

Gas _____

Oil _____

Water _____

Phone _____

House insurance: _____

Physical maintenance/upkeep: (painting, remodeling, etc) _____

Other household expenses (Please identify type of expenses) _____

2. Food

Food at home _____

Eating out (restaurants, lunch hour, etc.) _____

3. Clothing _____

4. Transportation:

Circle one. Do you *own* or *lease* a car?

Yearly costs for automobile use and payments _____

Car insurance _____

Public transportation _____

5. Medical (include health insurance) _____

Is health insurance paid for by employer or employee? _____

If paid by both identify the percentage each pays. _____

Does the health insurance cover all family members? _____

If no briefly explain. _____

6. Education/Schools _____

7. Income taxes _____

Circle one or both: *state* *national*

List other taxes. _____

8. Insurance

Life insurance _____

Other types of insurance (please list) _____

9. Money put aside for savings _____

10. Gift giving _____

11. Hobbies _____

12. Vacation/Holidays _____

13. Other (Please identify.) _____

Thank you very much for filling this form out. Please feel free to attach another sheet for further information or comments you may wish to make regarding this survey.

PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLES

This material will primarily serve high school students, especially those in the 11th or 12th grades. Modifications could be made for younger students, especially concerning comparative costs of products or services. By completing activities in this chapter, students will learn about contemporary Japan: spending habits and various social and historical factors affecting family finances. In addition, students will interpret statistical data. Students will also develop a critical view of statistical data and recognize the complexity of family finances. On a practical level, students will be able to convert Japanese *yen* to U.S. dollars; collect, tabulate, graph, and analyze survey data; compare Japanese and U.S. spending habits; locate and utilize local newspaper and bank information on exchange rates; and create their own budgets.

A. Read and study the Family Budget Survey (Source 3). Discuss with students the idea of gathering information through surveys. Comparing surveys, diagrams, statistical tables, charts, or graphs from newspapers, weekly magazines or textbooks may also help to introduce the unit. Have students critique the various statistical samples. What information is provided? How can the information be used? How are surveys created? What advantages and disadvantages does the presentation of information in this manner hold for the reader?

B. Have students practice converting *yen* to U.S. dollars using the data from any of the tables included in *Japan 1999: An International Comparison*, available at http://www.kkc.or.jp/english/activities/publications.html#jpn1999. Consult a bank, newspaper, or the Internet for the latest exchange rate.

C. Using the blank Family Budget Survey (Source 3), ask students to sample citizens in their own country. Next, have them access the Web site used in B and compare the data they gathered with the data given for Japanese citizens under the heading "9-18 Household Accounts." Be sure to caution students that the survey they conducted asked for yearly data, so slight adjustments will have to be made. Compare the data: what is similar, different? Consult the findings in Source 2 and compare to the information already analyzed. Have students write a 1 to 2-page summary of findings. (Remind students that the survey may be distributed in some anonymous fashion if survey respondents wish to maintain their privacy.)

D. Evaluate the Family Budget Survey (Source 3) with students. How does the survey give worthwhile information? Should the survey be changed in any way? What is limiting about the survey and statistical information regarding its depiction of an economic portrait of family life? Next, ask students to read the handout, Interviews and Discussions on Family Finances (Source 1). How does this information differ from the survey and statistical information? What are the strengths and weaknesses of the two sources?

E. Ask students to focus on the savings data in their survey results. What statements can be made about savings habits for Japanese and Americans? What variables affect the ability to save for both Japanese and Americans? Conduct further research on this topic.

F. Repeat E using the category of clothing. Students will also need to convert data into percentages. Summarize in writing or report to the class.

G. Using the Web site listed in B, have students consult "9-19 Propensity to Save." Ask them to hypothesize why Japan's savings rate is higher than the U.S., UK, and Canada. Next, ask students to create and conduct a research project to ascertain why.

H. Using the Interviews and Discussions on Family Finances (Source 1) data, have students choose one of the five families and have students research a topic as indicated by the particular person. For example, Mr. Tetsuo notes that housing is small. A student could research housing space and costs for Japanese and compare them to U.S. space and housing costs. Other topics could include entertainment costs, education expenses, and wedding costs. Research may be presented in a variety of formats: research paper, 1-2 page summary, visual collage or album, oral presentation, or 5-minute videotape.

I. Based on the information given in Interviews and Discussions on Family Finances (Source 1), have students develop a questionnaire of 5-10 questions they would ask a family regarding their budget planning. Using their own questionnaire, have students interview at least one parent in a family (this could be their own family, someone they know, or a randomly

selected family) and prepare a summary of their findings. Students should present their findings to the class. A class chart could be created on the topic, "How families make economic decisions."

J. Have students create a yearly budget made for the present, while they live at home with parents or guardians. Create another budget for the future while living away from home. Evaluate the differences in the two budgets. Discuss or summarize in written form.

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ENDNOTES

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