

directed to enroll in the nearest public youth school, and occupational training and gymnastics were substituted for military training.<sup>5</sup>

These measures were implemented further by a directive<sup>3</sup> issued by the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers on 22 October which stated:

Dissemination of militaristic and ultranationalistic ideology will be prohibited, and all military education and drill will be discontinued.

Teachers and educational officials will be examined as rapidly as possible, and all career military personnel, persons who have been active exponents of militarism and ultranationalism, and those actively antagonistic to the policies of the Occupation, will be removed.

Teachers and educational officials who have been dismissed, suspended, or forced to resign for liberal or antimilitaristic opinions or activities, will be declared immediately eligible for, and if properly qualified will be given, preference in reappointment.

The Japanese Ministry of Education promptly responded to this directive by issuing an order entitled "The Handling of Postwar Courses in Physical Education,"<sup>7</sup> which was the most comprehensive since the termination of the war. It provided, in the case of elementary schools, that all military games and exercises were to be eliminated. In addition, budo courses (including kendo, judo, kyudo, and naginata) were to be discontinued, and efforts made to reorient budo teachers for teaching other subjects, provided they were found to have the necessary aptitude and ability. Games such as basketball, volleyball, etc., not actually included in the curriculum, might be added if appropriate. The order further specified that:

Standardized instruction is to be discouraged, and due consideration given to the natural demands of the pupils; and emphasis shall be placed on the choice of sporting and competitive subjects. Efforts are to be exerted to foster cheerful and mag-

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5. Hatsu Koku (Notification from the Bureau of National Education) No. 184, 12 September 1945.
  6. SCAPIN 178.
  7. Hatsu Tai (Notification from the Bureau of Physical Education) No. 80, 6 November 1945.



ELIMINATION OF MILITARISTIC PRACTICES

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nanimous dispositions, as well as to uplift the pupils' moral standards.

Due consideration shall be given to the pupils' individualities, their growth and nutrition, as well as to their capacity for exercise. Pertinent guidance shall be given to them in physical training, and exercise and rest shall be properly balanced.

Discretion is to be used in the selection of subjects to conform with the condition and site of the grounds available, the season, weather, and facilities.

Importance should be attached to the spontaneous activity of pupils during instruction. Especially in the upper course of elementary schools is instruction to conform to that of secondary schools.

Calisthenics, regardless of the outline set forth in the curriculum, are to be practiced chiefly as setting-up and supplementary exercises in conjunction with other exercises.

Proper control of athletic fields shall be effected, including plans for safety.

Efforts are to be exerted for the reconstruction of war-torn facilities. Initiative and inventiveness are to be utilized in the use of natural environment, outside of school grounds, for physical training.

Labor service in food production and reconstruction work is to be arranged so as to enhance physical education. Labor and physical education are to be coordinated.

In the case of secondary schools, the order provided that military games and exercises were to be discontinued. A list of general regulations almost identical with those just quoted was given, followed by a list of subjects from which schools might make selections for inclusion in their curricula: apparatus; running, jumping, and throwing of short sticks; wrestling, handball, soccer, basketball, volleyball, swimming, skiing, and exercises to music.



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In addition to these subjects, it was stated that parallel bars, rings, vaulting-horse, pole vaulting, shot putting, discus throwing, rugby, baseball, tennis, rowing, and skating might be added at the discretion of the school.

The program stipulated for normal schools, colleges, and higher schools was almost identical with that for middle schools.

In order to assure nation-wide comprehension of the principles set forth in this order, the Ministry called a conference of prefectural physical training officials and directors of student activities on 6 November 1945, and representatives of the Bureau of Physical Education within the Ministry sent representatives to all areas of Japan to explain the new principles to be followed in physical training to physical education leaders.

As a further step toward complete eradication of military influences from the Physical training program, the Ministry issued an order on 26 December 1945 directing disposal of all equipment used in budo and prohibiting the teaching of budo on any school premises.<sup>8</sup>

The net effect of these orders and directives (theoretically) was to eliminate all elements from the physical training program which in any way were connected with militarism or ultranationalism. Actually, while the majority of schools cooperated whole-heartedly in carrying out these instructions, some were slow in complying, a few ignored certain portions of them, and in some cases they were misunderstood.<sup>9</sup> It has been the task of Occupation officials and inspectors sent out by the Ministry of Education and prefectural offices to exercise surveillance over the screening of teachers and over-all compliance with these orders.

8. Hatsu Tai No. 100, 26 December 1945.

9. This observation is based upon school inspection reports made by Military Government Education officers.



## Chapter 3

## DEVELOPMENT OF A NEW PHYSICAL EDUCATION PROGRAM

With the elimination of military influences, the Ministry of Education was confronted with the task of finding substitutes for activities of this nature, which, in practice, constituted about two-thirds of the physical training program at the time of Japan's surrender. The alternatives suggested in Hatsu Tai No. 80 were of a general nature, embracing many activities which were unfamiliar to Japanese physical education teachers. The needs for a well-planned, comprehensive physical training program worked out in detail along scientific lines for all grades and age levels, and for well-trained teachers, were paramount.

The greatest handicaps in the development of such a program, however, were, first, an almost complete ignorance on the part of educators of what such a program consisted of, specifically; and second, the lack of athletic facilities and equipment and the deplorable state of the small amount of equipment and facilities in existence. Many athletic fields had been turned into kitchen gardens; many existed only as parade or drill grounds and were covered with installations for military training. The equipment available was mostly that used in budo or in regular military training.

The Bureau of Physical Education in the Ministry of Education, officials of General Headquarters, Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers, and leaders in the field of health and physical education worked together jointly to overcome these obstacles. Their accomplishments in the major aspects of the program may be summarized as follows:

## CONFERENCES

Following the conference of prefectural physical training officials on 6 November 1945, mentioned above, a series of conferences dealing with physical education problems was held,<sup>1</sup> culminating in a conference of prefectural officials of physical education held in Tokyo 3-5 June 1946 and a conference of physical education leaders of universities, higher schools, normal schools, and colleges held in Tokyo 7-8 June 1946. These were the first conferences

1. See list in Appendix C.



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of this type to be devoted entirely to the consideration of problems concerned with the constructive phase of the new physical education program.

The proceedings of the conference of prefectural officials will be traced somewhat in detail, in view of its importance in clarifying principles and courses of action to be followed in physical education, and in setting the pattern for later conferences. The conference opened with an address by the Chief of the Bureau of Physical Education of the Ministry of Education, in which he emphasized the fact that the negative phase was over and that attention should be devoted to the development of a new type of physical education. This was followed by a speech by the Head of the Physical Education Section of the Bureau, in which he pointed out to the officials that:

The Education Ministry has ceased to be an organization that dictates and supervises education. The old system of sending out directives and instructions and of ordering the local offices to follow one uniform principle (centralization) has been completely abolished. In the future, the Education Ministry will suggest a general standard for your reference, but in regard to practice, you are left free to select and devise new plans according to your own local circumstances and individual school situation. The Education Ministry will be the place for you to look for advice and suggestions.

The highlight of the conference was the submission of a list of questions drawn up by the Education Minister to the prefectural officials. These all concerned concrete methods for the promotion of democratic physical education. The questions were:

1. What should be the policy by which the new physical education is to be guided?

2. For the pursuance of such a policy, what kind of organizations should be established in the Education Ministry and local governments? How should they be operated?

3. What methods should be used to acquire a sufficient number of enthusiastic and well-trained leaders? What plan should be used to place them in active work?

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2. Civil Information and Education Section, Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers, Recent Physical Education Conferences, unpublished report, SN-115-RM-C, p. 5.



DEVELOPMENT OF A NEW PHYSICAL EDUCATION PROGRAM

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4. What measures might be adopted in utilizing different physical education programs for schools and nonstudent groups?

5. How may such difficulties as the shortage of equipment, supplies, provisions, etc., be overcome?

6. What methods for obtaining data on national health may be used in place of conscription examinations?

7. What recommendations can be made as to how greater emphasis should be placed on physical education for women?

Small discussion groups organized according to districts were formed to take up these questions, and the answers were pooled in the form of a "Draft of a Report" to be given to the Education Minister. The answers included the following suggestions:

1. Uniform training should be completely abolished, and physical training and sports intended to develop personality and inculcate mutual respect and self-respect should be substituted.

2. A national research institute for physical training should be established to carry on studies in the science and philosophy of physical education.

3. This institute should be enlarged to serve as a training center for leaders of physical education and re-training institutes should be organized in different districts.

4. Physical education sections should be established in every prefectural government in place of centralized administration.

5. There should be a union of school physical education and social physical education, and healthful amusements and sports for the general public should be encouraged.

6. There should be prompt recovery of old playgrounds and establishment of new ones; production of athletic goods should be encouraged and promoted; and taxes on athletic goods should be abolished.



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7. There should be more subsidization and encouragement of institutes for training leaders in women's physical education, and improvements should be fostered in the home life of women.

8. There should be increased emphasis on health education in schools, sanitary facilities should be improved, and the services of school doctors should be encouraged and promoted.

9. An independent institution for controlling sports should be established to clean up sports and stress the amateur spirit.

The discussion next in importance at the conference related to Hatsu Tai No. 80, "The Handling of Postwar Courses in Physical Education." The head of the Physical Education Section of the Ministry of Education reiterated some points of guidance concerning orderly movements, marching, and calisthenics:

1. Commands which are necessary for orderly movements should be permitted, so long as they are kept to a minimum and given in a pleasant, nonmilitaristic manner.

2. Marching in columns should be permitted in order to move students from one place to another.

- a. Marching in formation should not be engaged in for its own sake.
- b. There should be no counting of cadence while walking.
- c. High militaristic steps in marching are prohibited.

3. Calisthenics as physical training activities are permitted so long as they are conducted in a non-militaristic manner. This includes mass exercises of the entire school if necessary.

- a. Commands such as "line up," "take positions for physical exercise," etc., may be used, but the customary military commands should be avoided.
- b. Counting off is permitted, but should be used only for orderly movements, should not be done in a militaristic manner, and should be kept to a minimum.



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- c. Facing should be used only for orderly movement and not as a drill in itself.
- d. Giving commands for calisthenics should be done in a pleasant, non-militaristic manner.
- e. Counting of cadence for exercise should be held to a minimum and should be given in a nonmilitaristic manner. Class counting of cadence should not be used.
- f. Use of music for exercise should be encouraged.<sup>3</sup>

Another discussion receiving emphasis was concerned with a new guide for teaching school physical education. Opinions were expressed on the proper procedure to be followed in revising the old regulations and on what principles should be embodied in the new. Recommendations were made, among other things, to the effect that:

1. Teaching details should treat general principles only, and detailed items should be left for consideration and study by local leaders to suit local conditions.

2. Compulsory physical education should be given one hour per day in elementary schools and from three to five hours per week in middle schools. However, it should be adapted to local and seasonal conditions.

3. The term "tai ren ka" (physical discipline) should be changed to "ta i ku ka" (physical education).

4. Effort should be made to eliminate standardized materials, to put more emphasis on games and sports, and to institute seasonal programs, in order to give various types of physical training throughout the year.

5. Japanese terminology should not be neglected, but preference should be given to internationally used terms.

The conference of physical education leaders of universities, higher schools, normal schools, and colleges was held for essentially the same purpose as the one just described, that is, to discuss what steps should be followed in building up a constructive physical education program.

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3. Ibid., pp. 14-15.



A major point discussed pertained to the physical education sections of students associations, especially with respect to their management. The Chief of the Bureau of Physical Education mediated a discussion as to whether students or teachers should be chairmen of such sections by suggesting that each school might decide according to its circumstances.

Another subject of importance thrown open for discussion was the food problem. The concensus of opinion was that physical education could, by and large, be continued despite the food shortage.

The lack of physical education equipment also brought forth varying expressions of opinion. There was unanimous agreement, however, that the shortage of equipment was the greatest obstacle facing the development of the physical education program. The high tax on balls and other equipment and the freezing of deposits as a result of the Emergency Economic Measure raised the question as to whether negotiations could not be opened with the Finance Ministry for special permission to withdraw currency from frozen deposits for the purchase of equipment. In the same vein were consideration of the possibility of recovering athletic equipment diverted into the black market, and consideration of the possibility of establishing simpler rationing channels. Statistics on the amount of equipment currently being produced were presented.

These conferences were followed in July 1946 by two others of importance: one of district representatives of physical education, held 16-17 July at the Ministry of Education, and the other of women leaders of physical education held in Tokyo on 23 July.

At the former, the two principal discussions treated the subjects of the new details for teaching physical education in primary, secondary, and youth schools, and the reorganization of the Nippon Taiiku Kai (Japan Amateur Athletic Association). The Bureau of Physical Education arbitrarily divided Japan into eight districts for the purpose of representation at the conference, and representatives of each of these districts presented suggestions regarding the formulation of the new teaching details. The point at issue in the reorganization of the Nippon Taiiku Kai was whether or not sports sections of student associations should affiliate with sports associations or organizations outside the school. The decision reached was that sports sections of student associations first should join school sports associations, which in turn might join outside sports associations.

The second conference, that of women leaders of physical



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education, was the first of the kind ever held in Japan, and was attended by 48 leading teachers of girls' high schools. The subjects of discussion were as follows:

1. Democratization of school physical education.
2. Formation of a new association of women physical education leaders.
3. Training and reorientation of women physical education leaders.
4. Establishment of a women's physical education research institute.
5. Formulation of teaching details for school physical education.
6. Women physical education leaders and marriage.
7. School physical education for girls in America.
8. School rythms and dancing for girls in America.
9. Other matters of interest.

Some of the more significant opinions expressed on various of these topics were as follows:

1. A new association of women physical education leaders should be formed to furnish members the opportunity to study and improve themselves.

2. Teacher training schools in physical education for women should be increased.

3. Details for teaching school physical education should show the fundamental principles in such a way that everyone can understand them; they should be formulated as soon as possible; they should be elastic and adjustable to individual local conditions; and although originality and ingenuity are desirable, fundamentals should be given as a foundation.

4. Although the field of physical education is strenuous and tiring, and as such cannot easily be combined with keeping a home and raising a family, it is actually most desirable for physical education teachers to marry.

5. The dance is an ideal medium for creative expression, and since creativeness and originality have been lacking in Japanese education, they should be encouraged as much as possible.

6. While professional dancing is a perfected dance form rather individualistic in nature, and



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intended for audience enjoyment, school dancing is not intended to be perfect, nor given before an audience, but engaged in largely as a group activity for purely recreational and social values.

A complete list of all conferences up to November 1947 may be found in Appendix C.

NEW COURSE OF STUDY IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

One of the most important steps taken in reconstructing the physical education program since the capitulation of Japan was the formulation of a new outline to be used by physical training instructors. Initial work on this project was begun during the period 20 September to 29 October 1946, when a committee of 55 leaders in the field of physical education, from all over Japan, subdivided into 11 working committees, began drafting revisions in all aspects of the physical education program for all levels of school instruction. The work of these 11 committees was combined into one publication, the Guide to Physical Education, which was ready for publication by the Ministry of Education on 1 April 1947. In view of the fact that this manual was to be used by all physical education instructors throughout Japan, it will be analyzed somewhat in detail.

The introduction to the work states: "Japan is making a new start towards becoming a democratic and cultured country. In achieving this purpose, it is most important that each individual develop a sound and efficient body and those social and moral characteristics necessary for good citizenship."<sup>4</sup> The aims of physical education are described as follows:

Physical Education is education which aims toward the development of the individual through the practice of physical activities and hygiene. It aims at the development of a healthy and efficient body, appreciation of the value of physical activities in life, and a fostering of an understanding of the responsibility of the individual in community life.<sup>5</sup>

4. Guide to Physical Education, compiled by the Ministry of Education (translation), p. 1.

5. Ibid., p.2.



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The manual devotes sections to 1) elementary schools (grades 1-3), 2) elementary schools (grades 4-6), 3) middle schools (grades 7-9), 4) higher schools (grades 10-12), and 5) colleges and universities.

Each of these sections contains an outline of hygiene, a statement of the physical and psychological characteristics of the age group of the children normally at this level of learning and a list of suitable physical activities. The section on grades 7-9, where the children are presumed to be in the age bracket 13-15, is quoted as an example.<sup>6</sup>

HYGIENE, GRADES 7 TO 9

Classification	Contents (for boys and girls)
Hygiene of clothing, food and dwelling	Clothing, food, dwelling
Massage	Massage
Posture	At rest, in motion
Measurements	Height, weight, bust, body temperature, pulse, breathing
Prevention of diseases	Tuberculosis, near-sightedness, decayed teeth, parasites, infectious diseases, immunization
Public Health	Nutrition of the people: Hygiene in cities, or agricultural villages. Vocational hygiene
Nursing and first aid (including disinfection)	Nursing, first aid, disinfection
Mental hygiene	Abnormal character, mental diseases, etc.

Hygiene programs should include theory and practice.

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF AGES 13 TO 15

This period shows a striking development in height, weight, heart, lungs, and muscles, although there is not yet much endurance.

Girls grow more feminine and unfitted for too strenuous exercises.

Mentally their interest is now frequently directed inward. Their egos begin to take form. The group spirit is strong and the desire for community life is still prominent.

Physical education in this period may emphasize group and competitive activities, but care should be taken not to overdo physical activities. Girls of this period should not be given exercises which cause too much fatigue and emotional excitement.

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6. Ibid, pp. 16-21



PHYSICAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF  
AND EXERCISES APPROPRIATE TO BOYS AND GIRLS, AGES 13 TO 15

Characteristics		
Physical	Psychological	Appropriate Exercises
<u>Boys and Girls</u>	<u>Boys and Girls</u>	<u>Boys and Girls</u>
Increase of height and weight is rapid. Lungs and heart show prominent development. Muscle power grows very rapidly. Accuracy and speed of physical activities increases. Endurance is still weak.	Development of perception almost reaches its peak. Memory is still prominent. Contemplative faculty grows rapidly. Likes and dislikes of food appear. Hero worship is prominent. Antagonism against authority begins to show. Ego becomes strong. Obedience to truth develops.	Exercises which will develop respiration and circulation. Exercises which will require a medium amount of endurance. A wide variety of exercises. Group activities which are active and competitive. (Exercises for 2 to 3 hours per day; sleep for 8 to 9 hours per day.)
	<u>Boys Only</u>	<u>Boys Only</u>
	Desire to belong to a group is very strong. Combative, competitive spirit, and self-exaggeration are very prominent. Adventurous and ambitious tendencies are strong.	Exercises which will develop courage.
<u>Girls Only</u>	<u>Girls Only</u>	<u>Girls Only</u>
Girls are inferior in muscle power and lung capacity. Secondary sex characteristics become prominent. Most of them start menstruation.	Competitive tendency and self-exaggeration are very strong. Desire to belong to a group and fighting spirit are not so strong as in boys. Emotion is very strong and unsteady. Tendency to be easily depressed is strong. They begin to make very intimate friends. Aesthetic sense begins to grow.	Exercises which will not make them overtired. Exercises which will make them bright and happy. Exercises which will not overstimulate the emotions. Exercises which will develop self-control. Exercises which will help growth of aesthetic appreciation.



PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES RECOMMENDED  
AS SUITABLE TEACHING MATERIALS FOR GRADES 7 TO 9

Classi- fica- tion	Type	Contents			
		Girls	Boys		
Gymnastics	Calisthenics	Arms and Legs	Bending, Stretching	Bending and stretching of arms and legs	Bending and stretching of arms and legs
			Raising, Swinging	Raising and swinging of arms and legs	Raising and swinging of arms and legs
			Circling	Arm circling	Arm circling
			Hopping, Jumping	Hopping and jumping	Hopping and jumping
		Neck	Bending, Twisting, Circling	Neck bending Neck twisting Neck circling	Neck bending Neck twisting Neck circling
		Chest	Stretching	Chest stretching	Chest stretching
		Back and Abdomen	Bending	Bending backward and forward of body	Bending backward and forward of body
	Sides	Bending	Bending right and left	Bending right and left	
	Trunk	Bending, Circling	Bending and circling of body	Bending and circling of body	
	Apparatus	Jumping and tumbling (mats and box)		Vaulting Forward rolling Hand stand Tumbling over the box	
		Hanging and swinging with and without turns (Iron bar)		Kipp Knee raising Knee circle Knee hang	
	Sports	Track and Field	Running	Various types of running	Short distance Middle distance Long distance Relays, Hurdles
			Jumping	Broad jump High jump Rope jumping Jumping over	Broad jump High jump
Sumo				Sumo	
Ball Games		Baseball type	Foot baseball Softball	One-out ball Softball Rubber baseball	
		Basketball type	Basketball Handball	Basketball Handball	
		Football type	Speedball	Soccer Touch football Speedball Rugby	
		Tennis type	Volleyball Tennis	Volleyball Tennis	



PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES FOR GRADES 7 TO 9 (CONTINUED)

Classi- fica- tion	Type	Contents		
		Girls	Boys	
Sports (continued)	Swimming	Swimming	Breast stroke Crawl swimming Back stroke Submerging	Breast stroke Crawl swimming Back stroke Submerging
		Diving	Standard diving Backward diving	Standard diving Backward diving
		Safety caution	Safety caution	Safety caution
	Dance	Dance	Expression 1. Technique for expression a. Basic physique must be trained through natural movement. b. Creative expression should be encouraged, selecting materials for students' own environment and emotional life. (1) Environment materials-- sports, machinery, nature. (2) Emotional life--joy, hope, memory, sorrow. 2. Composition  Students must be led to compose their own dances, using expressive techniques. 3. Appreciation of former composition  Ability to appreciate and make use of suitable points in their own original work.	
		Theory	Physical Education Theory History of physical education Aims of physical education Explanation of various sports Training in sports Sportsmanship Social physical education Home physical education International games Use of leisure time Athletic hygiene	

Teaching materials in calisthenics should include simple and combined exercises in accordance with the needs and capacities of the people. Exercises should be selected to stimulate circulation and respiration and should be conducted in such a way as to increase general organic efficiency of the body.

In dance programs, folk dances and other suitable types of dances may be used.



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The "General Principles of Instruction," which form a separate section, are worthy of note. It is stipulated that programs should be built up around games and sports, and sportsmanship should be emphasized. Each individual should be accorded an opportunity to participate in activities suited to his own needs and capacities, and individual initiative should be encouraged. Furthermore, in organizing games to be played by teams, character attributes necessary for good citizenship should be emphasized. Military orders and commands are to be discouraged. Many steps to maintain and improve students' health are listed. Data on the physical education of each student are to be maintained to increase the understanding of students and parents with respect to the purposes and achievements of the physical education program. Movies, conferences, lectures, athletic meets, and radio and press publicity should be utilized to promote public support and understanding of physical education. In higher schools a central guiding body should be established for the administration of physical education activities. Boys and girls should have equal opportunity to use athletic facilities. Every effort should be made to maintain and increase athletic facilities and equipment. In addition, recreation facilities outside the school should be made available to the students. There is need for intramural activities, but elementary school students should not participate in interscholastic events.

In addition to this general manual, the Ministry of Education has prepared eight handbooks on specific features of the program, dealing with the philosophy of physical education, childrens' games, gymnastics (including apparatus and calisthenics), swimming, ball games, track and field activities, dancing, and hygiene. These volumes, together with the general manual, provide for the instructor a thorough-going guide to all aspects of the school physical education program.

DECENTRALIZATION

It has been part of the general plan governing the re-organization of the Japanese educational system to eliminate the possibility of misuse of educational authority attendant upon its concentration in one central body, and to establish the Ministry of Education as an agency to be looked to for guidance in the formulation of new educational policy, with autonomy being retained at the prefectural and lower levels where the suggested program could be adapted to local needs and conditions. It was suggested by the United States Ed-



ucation Mission to Japan that the powers and duties of the Ministry embrace the following:

1. Provision of expert consultative services in the various fields of education; the curriculum, methods of teaching, materials of instruction; school building construction, maintenance and operation; textbooks, financial records, accounting and reporting.

2. Exercise of veto powers concerning militaristic or ultranationalistic activities in the schools, such powers to be explicitly stated in the law and limited.

3. Provision of leadership in the development of objective standards for the certification of teachers.

4. Establishment of objective standards for the schools.

5. Distribution of educational funds provided by the national Government, such distribution to be on the basis of an objective formula written into law.<sup>7</sup>

The aim of decentralization in physical education has not yet been completely realized, due to the need for using control from the Bureau of Physical Education in the Ministry to effect changes and modifications in the interim period while the new program is being formulated. However, the basic principle has been constantly emphasized in the instructions sent out by the Bureau, at reorientation courses for physical education teachers and officials, and in the new Guide to Physical Education. The composition of this guide by committees of physical education experts from all prefectures, rather than by officials within the Bureau, is a pertinent example of the application of the decentralization theory. Another example may be seen in the order issued by the Bureau of Physical Education encouraging the promotion of social physical training. To accomplish this end, it was suggested that the initiative should be taken at the local level and

7. Report of the United States Education Mission to Japan, 30 March 1946, pp. 28-29.

8. Hatsu Tai No. 95, 25 August 1946.



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that the establishment of athletic clubs in companies, factories, firms, and government offices, and of municipal athletic associations should be encouraged. Furthermore, municipalities were directed to commission their own physical training leaders.

A similar line has been followed in encouraging athletic and sports organizations such as the Nippon Taiiku Kai (Japan Amateur Athletic Association)<sup>9</sup> to relax its central administrative control over local branches.

## SHORT TRAINING COURSES

As a means of orienting teachers to the manifold aspects of the new educational program, short courses have been held at various intervals since the beginning of the Occupation. Their purpose has been to direct the thinking of teachers and physical education leaders along democratic lines, to inform them of changes in the objectives, curriculum, and activities in physical education, and to impress upon them the need for persons in their responsible positions to develop initiative and genuine leadership and enthusiasm in the field of physical education. These courses served a valuable purpose in bridging the gap between the time when the new physical education program was in the planning stage and the appearance of the Guide to Physical Education, which contained in printed form many of the suggestions and precepts stressed in the training courses. They further served the purpose of giving valuable instruction and training to teachers with no background or formal preparation and instruction in the physical education field. The courses have been sponsored by various groups, including the Ministry of Education, prefectural and metropolitan educational organizations, individual schools, etc. The programs consisted of such courses as the Annual Ministry of Education Short Training Course for Women Physical Training Teachers held at the Sugadaira Physical Training Institute, Nagano Prefecture, 5-9 August 1946, which was attended by 80 young teachers from girls' high schools as remotely separated as Kyushu and Hokkaido. This course was followed by a similar course held 10-14 August in the same year for male teachers, largely those who had received licenses through Government examinations without graduating from regular physical education institutions. Other programs of this type have included a four-day training course for 320 male and female instructors from three prefectures held at Tokyo Physical

9. This is the commonly accepted translation, although the word "amateur" does not actually appear in the Japanese title.



Education College from 20-24 December 1946; a course sponsored by the Sugadaira Physical Education Institute attended by 150 men teachers from 12 prefectures from 30 January to 3 February 1947; and a series of reorientation courses for kindergarten, primary, and secondary school teachers during the summer vacation of 1947.

#### EQUIPMENT FOR PHYSICAL TRAINING AND SPORTS

The shortage of equipment and facilities has been one of the major obstacles to the development of a well-rounded physical training program. The problem is complicated not only by the deteriorated state of the small amount of equipment available, but also by the scarcity of raw materials and the lack of industrial equipment to turn them into finished products for replacement purposes. The direst needs are for rubber, leather, and textile goods.

Several steps have been taken to cope with this situation. A conference among officials of General Headquarters, Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers, of the Bureau of Physical Education in the Ministry of Education, of the Ministries of Commerce and Industry and of Forestry and Agriculture, and of the Hides and Leather Control Union was held on 12 September 1946 to discuss matters pertaining to athletic equipment for Japan for the following 15 months of 1946 and 1947. At this conference, figures giving the exact needs with respect to the various types of athletic equipment were presented, and questions concerning priority for the importation of scarce commodities, allocation of materials on hand in Japan, and labor and production capacity were discussed. Some samples of the type and amount of equipment reported to be needed follow:

<u>Type of Equipment</u>	<u>Required</u>	<u>Type of Equipment</u>	<u>Required</u>
Baseballs	3,774,000	Tennis balls	2,460,000
Bats	280,000	Tennis rackets	228,000
Gloves and mits	400,000	Tennis nets	50,000
Softballs	700,000	Bathing suits	2,096,000
Volleyballs	244,000	Horizontal bars	100,000
Dodgeballs	220,000	Mats	100,000
Basketballs	160,000	Gymnastic suits	1,000,000
Spiked track shoes	200,000	Skis (pairs)	300,000
Hurdles	108,000	Skipping ropes	1,000,000



DEVELOPMENT OF A NEW PHYSICAL EDUCATION PROGRAM

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In order to secure the maximum utilization of the equipment on hand, new types of games have been introduced involving participation by the greatest number with a modicum of equipment. Most notable among these is the game "one-out ball," involving elements of both baseball and ball tag, introduced by Occupation officials. Another game introduced with a similar objective is "goal-hi," which is a type of basketball requiring only one basket. Several teacher training courses in both of these games have been conducted.

**HEALTH PROGRAM**

A program designed to improve sanitary conditions in schools and to raise the general health standard of students has been undertaken by the Bureau of Physical Education. Its most notable feature is the inauguration of a school lunch program designed to supplement the meager diet that most school children throughout Japan are receiving at present. This program has the support of several Japanese Governmental agencies, Occupation agencies, and LARA (Licensed Agencies for Relief in Asia). Supplies are obtained from the latter organization, U. S. Army surplus stocks of canned goods, Japanese surplus military rations, school gardens, and other sources. Participating in the program, which consists in serving a hot dish on the average of twice a week to each child who does not return home for lunch, are 3,455 schools in 195 cities with an attendance of 3,232,687 children.

Observation of National Health and Hygiene Week in all primary and middle schools throughout Japan was inaugurated by the Bureau of Physical Education 1-20 February 1947, and a school clean-up campaign was sponsored during May 1947. In addition to activities of this nature, a schedule of regular physical examinations and of immunizations and inoculations is observed by most schools.

**OVER-ALL SPORTS PROGRAM**

The emphasis in the new physical training course is laid upon active student participation in sports and games rather than on formal calisthenics. Intramural matches have been encouraged instead of prefectural or national competition among schools, and an attempt has been made to substitute seasonal sports programs providing maximum participation for the traditional encouragement of specialization in one



sport and concentration by national sports associations on the production of champions.

Western sports (baseball, football, volleyball, tennis, etc.) have become popular again in the schools and play a prominent part in physical training activities. There have been repeated requests by students for restoration of certain elements of budo to the school curriculum, especially at the university level, but no action has been taken on this matter. Budo is not banned for the general public, and continues to be practiced outside the school system. The general opinion of students as found by inquiry, favors group sports, however, and predominantly those of Western origin.

In the General MacArthur Cup Competition held in Osaka 29-31 August 1947 in tennis, soccer, and ping-pong, encouragement was given to the principle of open competition as against the practice of many sports associations of limiting competition to members only. In all, 300 participants received medals bearing General MacArthur's picture.

Liaison is maintained by the occupation officials with the following major sports organizations in order to guide their development along democratic lines: the Nippon Taiiku Kai (Japan Amateur Athletic Association), with 25 affiliated branch organizations throughout Japan; the Nippon Kosei Kyokai (Japan Recreation Association), which supervises the organization of local recreation units; the Taiiku Shisetsu Keikaku Kyogi Kai (Recreation Areas Planning Committee), with 50 members from the Welfare Ministry, Ministry of Home Affairs, Foreign Office, and Japan Athletic Association, which advises on recreation areas in city planning; the Zenkoku Taiiku Joshi Shidosha Remmei (Nation-wide Women's Physical Directors Federation), organized to study problems connected with women's physical education and to promote the interests of instructors in this field; the Tokyo Undo Yogu Dohyo Kumiai (Tokyo Sports Supply Business League), comprising manufacturers of sports equipment in the Tokyo Area and devoted to the study of various aspects of the production of this equipment; the Kanto Amerika Shukyu Remmei (Kanto American Football League), organized to promote football and composed mainly of graduates of American universities; the Nippon Kyudo Remmei (Japan Archery League), organized for the purpose of promoting archery; the Tokyo Kyudo Remmei (Tokyo Archery League), similar in purpose to the preceding organization and composed of well-to-do business men; the Nippon Orimpiku Iinkai (Japan Olympic Committee), now concerned with Japan's admittance into the 1952 Olympic games; and the Tokyo Kinro Taiiku Remmei (Tokyo Laborers' Physical Training Society), organized to provide physical recreation for workers in 150 affiliated factories.



## Chapter 4

## CONCLUSION

Major accomplishments in the reconstruction of the physical education program along democratic lines since the termination of the war may be summarized as follows:

1. Elements of a militaristic or ultranationalistic nature have been eliminated from the curriculum.
2. Teachers and physical education leaders have been screened, and former advocates of militarism or ultranationalism purged.
3. A new guide for physical education teachers, outlining in detail a democratic physical education program, has been compiled and distributed, supplemented by handbooks on specific features of the program.
4. Many conferences on physical education have been conducted throughout Japan in accordance with democratic procedure, at which various features of the new program have been discussed and explained.
5. A series of short courses for teachers and physical education officials has been organized to orient them in all features of the new physical education course.
6. Steps have been taken to decentralize the control of the Bureau of Physical Education of the Ministry of Education and to set it up as an advisory body, granting autonomy and initiative at the local level.
7. A health program has been put into operation, including a school lunch program, an immunization and inoculation program, and a drive to improve sanitary conditions.
8. Steps have been taken to secure a greater allocation of Japanese rubber, leather, and textile goods for the manufacture of athletic equipment, and to lay the groundwork for the importation into Japan of raw materials needed for this manufacture.



POSTWAR DEVELOPMENT IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

9. New games designed to afford the largest possible participation with a small amount of equipment have been devised.

10. An attempt has been made to guide sports organizations to concentrate on group participation, rather than specialization and the training of champions, and to encourage the principle of open competition.

11. An intramural sports program has been introduced into schools as a substitute for prefectural and national competition.

The problems which have been solved only partially, or which will require attention in the future, are the following:<sup>1</sup>

1. There is still a great need for more equipment and better facilities.
2. Although a beginning has been made in raising sanitary standards, a great deal more still remains to be done.
3. The program of health examinations and immunizations is handicapped by a lack of medical supplies and of school doctors and nurses.
4. More attention needs to be paid to the teacher-training program in physical education, especially with respect to improving the course of study in normal schools.
5. Continued emphasis must be laid on trends already inaugurated and on further guidance and surveillance of the general program.

The future plans of the Bureau of Physical Education include the compilation during 1948 of courses of study for all levels of the school system, based upon the 6-3-3 plan. This will assist materially in supplementing the present Guide to Physical Education.

- 
1. Based upon plans being formulated by the Supreme Commander of the Allied Powers, Civil Information and Education Section.



## Appendix A

A DESCRIPTION OF BUDO(MILITARY ARTS) ELIMINATED  
FROM THE SCHOOL PHYSICAL EDUCATION PROGRAMJudo

The principle of judo lies in utilizing the strength of one's opponent by turning it against him. This usually is accomplished in one of several ways: by tripping him and hurling him to the ground, using his own momentum; by kicking him in a vulnerable spot; by pushing him off balance; or by holding him down on the ground through application of pressure to various parts of the body. The science of judo includes methods of throttling an opponent and of disjuncting his bones. The practice of the art requires a great deal of alacrity, grace, and mental alertness. Contestants wear jackets and trousers made of cotton and no shoes. Each is accorded a rank according to his proficiency.<sup>1</sup>

Kendo

"In fencing bouts each contestant wears a face-guard, a plastron to cover the trunk, and gauntlets to protect the arms and hands. Swords made of four bamboo strips four feet four inches long, of which the leather-covered handles are one foot three inches long, are used instead of real swords, and are held by both hands, five inches apart. In making a slash, one aims at the face (front or side), the trunk, or the arms; in making a thrust, at the throat of one's opponent. When either contestant is hit in any one of these places, he is considered beaten. A match consists of three contests, the winner of two of them being the victor. Mere skill in hitting an antagonist is not prized so much as are exhibitions of coolness, presence of mind, and the few openings offered--which are characteristic of the attack and defense of an accomplished fencer."<sup>2</sup>

Kyudo

This art is similar to archery as it is known to the West. The principle involved is the hitting of a target squarely from a correct posture, and for this purpose a bow generally made of bamboo, 7.20 meters

1. Based upon the account in Degaris, Frederic: We Japanese, Vol. I, p.87

2. Ibid., p. 85.



in length, is employed. Arrows also are made of bamboo, usually 90 centimeters long, with three feathers at the end. The arrow is affixed to the bow string at a point some 80 centimeters below the center of the bow. There are three standard lengths for ranges. The scoring method employed is to grant a point for each target hit. The assumption of a graceful posture when shooting is stressed. Rank is accorded by proficiency.<sup>3</sup>

#### Naginata

The "naginata" or "halberd" is made of wood and consists of a handle like a quarter staff, topped by a lightly curved blade about 30 centimeters in length. The entire instrument in an upright position stands about 15 centimeters higher than the average woman or girl who uses it. It is gripped by both hands, and, in a preliminary stance, is held either above the head, at elbow level, or at the feet. The movement consists of upward and downward swinging motions; slashes, aimed either at the head, arms, trunk, or legs; and thrusts. Face guards and other protective armor ordinarily are not worn. Naginata exercises usually are performed by a group, with concentration upon the acquisition of good form in the art of manipulating the instrument. Two girls sometimes face each other and perform alternate attacking and defensive movements, but matches, as such, seldom are held.<sup>4</sup>

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3. Based upon an account in the files of the Education Office, Education Division, Civil Information and Education Section, SCAP.

4. Based upon an account given in an interview with YAMADA, Mitsu, Secretary, Physical Education Section, Bureau of Physical Education, Ministry of Education.



## Appendix B

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE BUREAU OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION,  
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, 1947

The Bureau is divided into four sections: the Physical Education Section, Athletics and Sports Promotion Section, School Hygiene Section, and Student Welfare Section, whose functions are as follows:

## PHYSICAL EDUCATION SECTION

- (1) Sponsorship of meetings, short courses, matches, and other physical training activities
- (2) Liaison with physical education organizations, prefectural governments, and schools
- (3) Investigation and research in school physical education
- (4) Performance of administrative functions for the Bureau as a whole

## ATHLETICS AND SPORTS PROMOTION SECTION

- (1) Investigation and research in nonschool physical education
- (2) Reorientation of budo teachers and the collection and preservation of data concerning budo
- (3) Investigation and research on physical training facilities
- (4) Liaison with the Ministry of Commerce and Industry concerning allocation of material for production of physical training and sports equipment
- (5) Distribution of equipment to physical education organizations and prefectural governments
- (6) Liaison with the Nippon Taiiku Kai (Japan Amateur Athletic Association)

## SCHOOL HYGIENE SECTION

- (1) Investigation and recommendations concerning school lunches and nutrition



- (2) Studies of students' health
- (3) Investigation and recommendations concerning the hygienic condition of school equipment and facilities
- (4) Establishment of special classes for physically handicapped children
- (5) Investigation and recommendations concerning the school dental hygiene program
- (6) Surveys of teachers' health conditions and encouragement of the establishment of sanitariums for teachers
- (7) Liaison with school nurse training institutions

**STUDENT WELFARE SECTION**

- (1) Studies on problems concerning students' welfare
- (2) Investigation and collection of data on living conditions of students
- (3) Sponsorship of conferences on problems related to students' welfare
- (4) Supervision and leadership of students' welfare organizations
- (5) Encouragement of the establishment of school farms
- (6) Encouragement of the establishment of students' dormitories



## Appendix C

A LIST OF CONFERENCES ON PHYSICAL EDUCATION HELD  
SINCE THE TERMINATION OF THE WAR

<u>Conferences</u>	<u>Place</u>	<u>Date</u>	<u>Pre- sent</u>
Round-Table Conference Concerning the Promotion of Students' Physical Education and Athletic Sports	Ministry of Education	29 Sep 1945	30
Conference of Local Government Secretaries in Charge of Physical Education	Tokyo Women's Higher Normal School	6 Nov 1945	60
Conference of Student Deans of All Japanese Universities, Higher Schools, and Colleges in Their Districts Concerning Physical Education (for Kanto and Shin-etsu district schools)	Tokyo	9 Nov 1945	200
Conference of Student Deans of All Japanese Universities, Higher Schools, and Colleges in Their Districts Concerning Physical Education (for Tokai and Hokuriku district schools)	Kanazawa	12 Nov 1945	60
Conference of Student Deans of All Japanese Universities, Higher Schools, and Colleges in Their Districts Concerning Physical Education (for Tohoku and Hokkaido district schools)	Fukushima	15 Nov 1945	40
Conference of Student Deans of All Japanese Universities, Higher Schools, and Colleges in Their Districts Concerning Physical Education (for Kinki, Chugoku and Shikoku district schools)	Kyoto	16 Nov 1945	120
Conference of Student Deans of All Japanese Universities, Higher Schools, and Colleges in Their Districts Concerning Physical Education (for Kyushu district schools)	Saga	21 Nov 1945	40



## LIST OF CONFERENCES ON PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Conferences	Place	Date	Pre- sent
Conference of Principals of Physical Education Teachers Training Schools Concerning Physical Education	Tokyo	7 Dec 1945	10
Conference Concerning Athletic Equipment	Tokyo	23 Feb 1946	30
Conference of Baseball Department Directors of Universities in Tokyo	Ministry of Education	15 Apr 1946	20
Round-Table Conference Concerning School Physical Education and the Organization of the Physical Education League of Students' Associations According to the Type of School	Kyoto Imperial University	18 Apr 1946	200
Conference of Baseball Department Directors of Universities in the Kansai Districts	Kyoto Imperial University	21 Apr 1946	20
Round-Table Conference Concerning the Organization of the University Students' Associations Physical Education League in Tokyo	Kishi's Gym- nasium, Tokyo	13 May 1946	30
Round-Table Conference Concerning the Organization of the Physical Education League of Women's College Students' Associations	Kishi's Gym- nasium, Tokyo	14 May 1946	20
Round-Table Conference Concerning the Organization of the Physical Education League of Tokyo-ku District Higher School and College Students' Associations	Tokyo Imperial University	16 May 1946	30
Second Conference on Students' Baseball	Kishi's Gym- nasium, Tokyo	17 May 1946	30
Round-Table Conference Concerning the Organization of the Physical Education League of the Kansai District Higher Schools and Colleges	Kyoto Imperial University	20 May 1946	30
Round-Table Conference Concerning the Organization of the Physical Education League of the Kyushu District Higher School and College Students' Associations.	Kyoto Imperial University	22 May 1946	30



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Conferences	Place	Date	Pre- sent
Conference on the Organization of Tokyo Government officials Physical Education League	Tokyo	28 May 1946	30
Conference of Local Government Secretaries in Charge of Physical Education	Tokyo Women's Higher Normal School	3-5 Jun 1946	60
Conference Concerning University, Higher School, and College Physical Education	Tokyo Women's Higher Normal School	7-8 Jun 1946	200
Conference of Personnel in Charge of Physical Education in War-Damaged Cities and Towns	Tokyo	17 Jun 1946	12
Conference of Personnel in Charge of Physical Education in War-Damaged Cities and Towns	Ogaki City, Gifu Prefecture	23 Jun 1946	16
Conference of Personnel in Charge of Physical Education in War-Damaged Cities and Towns	Kyoto	28 Jun 1946	17
Conference of Personnel in Charge of Physical Education in War-Damaged Cities and Towns	Ikeda-machi, Tokushima Prefecture	2 Jul 1946	10
Conference of Personnel in Charge of Physical Education in War-Damaged Cities and Towns	Konko-machi, Okayama Prefecture	6 Jul 1946	13
Conference of Personnel in Charge of Physical Education in War-Damaged Cities and Towns	Hinaku-machi, Kumamoto Prefecture	11 Jul 1946	12
Conference of Local Government Secretaries in Charge of Physical Education Representing Their Districts	Ministry of Education	16-17 Jul 1946	15
Conference Concerning Students' Aid in Increasing Production	Ministry of Education	9-10 Jul 1946	na
Round-Table Conference of Leaders of Women's Physical Education	Tokyo Metro- politan 6th Girls High School	23 Jul 1946	50

na Not available



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## LIST OF CONFERENCES ON PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Conferences	Place	Date	Pre- sent
Round-Table Conference Concerning the Establishment of an Organization for Conferences to Discuss Students' Baseball (for Kanto District)	Kishi's Gymnasium, Tokyo	14 Aug 1946	30
Round-Table Conference Concerning the Establishment of an Organization for Conferences to Discuss Students' Baseball (for Kansai District)	Nishinomiya Base-ball ground, Hyogo Prefecture	16 Aug 1946	30
Round-Table Conference Concerning the Establishment of an Organization For Conferences to Discuss Students' Baseball (for all Japan)	Ohito Girls' High School, Izu, Shizuoka Prefecture	26 Aug 1946	60
Conference of School Physical Education Research Committee	Ministry of Education and Tokyo Women's Normal School	20 Sep 29 Oct 1946	60
Conference Concerning School Hygiene Work	Ministry of Education	26-27 Sep 1946	61
Conference Concerning <u>Judo</u> and <u>Kendo</u>	Ministry of Education	19 Nov 1946	23
Conference Concerning School Lunches	Ministry of Education	3-4 Dec 1946	53
Conference Concerning the Use of Newspapers as Related to the Promotion of Social Physical Education	Ministry of Education	18 Dec 1946	15
Conference of Chiefs of Welfare Sections of Government and Public Universities, Higher Schools, Colleges, and Teacher Training Schools (for Kanto Districts)	Ministry of Education	22-23 Jan 1947	na
Conference of Chiefs of Welfare Sections of Government and Public Universities, Higher Schools, Colleges, and Teacher Training Schools (for Kinki Districts)	Kyoto Imperial University	27-28 Jan 1947	na



## Appendix C

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Conferences	Place	Date	Pre- sent
Conference of Chiefs of Welfare Sections of Government and Public Universities, Higher Schools, Colleges, and Teacher Training Schools (for Chugoku and Shikoku districts)	Yamaguchi College of Economics, Yamaguchi Prefecture	3-4 Feb 1947	na
Conference of Chiefs of Welfare Sections of Government and Public Universities, Higher Schools, Colleges, and Teacher Training Schools (for Kyushu)	Kumamoto University of Medicine	12-13 Feb 1947	na
Conference of Chiefs of Welfare Sections of Government and Public Universities, Higher Schools, Colleges, and Teacher Training Schools (for Hokkaido and Tohoku districts)	Morioka College of Agriculture	27-28 Feb 1947	na
Conference Concerning the Use of Radio for the Promotion of Social Physical Education	Ministry of Education	14 Feb 1947	na
Conference Concerning the Matter of Teachers' Sanitariums	Tokyo Metropolitan Hygiene Education Research Institute, Ito-machi, Shizuoka Prefecture	15-16 Feb 1947	24
Conference of Local Government Secretaries in Charge of Physical Education	Ministry of Education	25-28 Feb 1947	60
First Conference Concerning the Industrilization of Fancy Works Manufacture	Ministry of Education	24 Mar 1947	na
Conference Concerning the Use of Moving Pictures for the Promotion of Social Physical Education	Ministry of Education	6 Mar 1947	12
Preliminary Conference on the Facilitation of Recreation	Ministry of Education	7 Mar 1947	15



## LIST OF CONFERENCES ON PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Conferences	Place	Date	Pre- sent
Preliminary Conference on the Facilitation of Recreation	Ministry of Education	20 Mar 1947	18
Round-Table Conference for Research on Physical Education in Working Establishments	Yawata City,	14-15 Mar 1947	40
Round-Table Conference for Research on Physical Education in Working Establishments	Nagasaki City, Nagasaki Prefecture	17-18 Mar 1947	38
Round-Table Conference for Research on Physical Education in Working Establishments	Mihara City, Hiroshima Prefecture	21-22 Mar 1947	30
Round-Table Conference for Research on Physical Education in Working Establishments	Osaka	24-25 Mar 1947	40
Round-Table Conference for Research on Physical Education in Working Establishments	Kanazawa Ishikawa Prefecture	27- <del>28</del> Mar 1947	70
Second Conference Concerning the Industrialization of Fancy Works Manufacture	Ministry of Education	24 Apr 1947	na
Conference on Recreation for All Japan	Tokyo Women's Higher Normal School	8-10 May 1947	70
Third Conference Concerning the Industrialization of Fancy Works Manufacture	Ministry of Education	24 May 1947	na
Conference Concerning School Hygiene	Ministry of Education	28-29 May 1947	87
Round-Table Conference Concerning Students' Boxing	Ministry of Education	29 May 1947	20
Round-Table Conference Concerning Participation in the Olympic Games	Ministry of Education	3 Jun 1947	15



## Appendix C

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Conferences	Place	Date	Pre- sent
Round-Table Conference Concerning the Second Students' Boxing	Ministry of Education	23 Jun 1947	12
Fourth Conference Concerning the Industrialization of Fancy Works Manufacture	Ministry of Education	30 Jun 1947	na
Conference of Local Secretaries in Charge of Physical Education for All Japan	Ministry of Education	7-8 Jul 1947	46
Fifth Conference Concerning the Industrialization of Fancy Works Manufacture	Ministry of Education	2 Aug 1947	na
Conference Concerning School Lunches	Ministry of Education	25-26 Aug 1947	46
Sixth Conference Concerning the Industrialization of Fancy Works Manufacture	Ministry of Education	30 Aug 1947	12
Conference Concerning Students' Aid	Ministry of Education	18 Sep 1947	60
Conference Concerning Students' Aid	Sendai	22 Sep	50
Conference Concerning Student's Aid	Sapporo	25 Sep	50
Conference Concerning Students' Aid	Nagoya	30 Sep	na
Seventh Conference Concerning the Industrialization of Fancy Works Manufacture	Ministry of Education	30 Sep 1947	12



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THE FOREIGN SERVICE  
OF THE  
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

No. 255

Tokyo, May 1, 1948.

UNCLASSIFIED

SUBJECT: Transmittal of Report - Foreign Students in Japan 1896-1947.

VR  
894.427005.E

The Acting Political Adviser has the honor to transmit herewith two copies of a special report issued on April 20, 1948 by the Analysis and Research Division of the Civil Information and Education Section of this Headquarters, entitled Foreign Students in Japan - 1896-1947.

This report is a useful compilation of valuable information on the subject, and is divided into chapters as follows:

- The Chinese
- The Colonials
- The International Students Institute
- Students During the War and Postwar Periods

Chinese students constituted a decided majority in the community of students from abroad. Colonial students polled next largest. Students from Southeast Asia are included in the chapter under the International Students Institute, founded in 1935, the principle aim of which was to attract students from that area. The number of students from Western countries was small, except for some 3000 persons of Japanese race born abroad.

894.42/5-148

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MAY 11 1948

ANALYSIS AND RESEARCH  
DIVISION

Enclosure:

Two copies of Foreign Students in Japan 1896-1947, dated April 1948.

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Enclosure to airmail no. 255 dated May 1, 1948 from  
the Office of the U.S. Political Advisor for Japan  
Tokyo, entitled "Transmittal of Report - Foreign Students  
in Japan 1896-1947".

GENERAL HEADQUARTERS  
SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS  
Civil Information and Education Section  
Analysis and Research Division

FOREIGN STUDENTS IN JAPAN

1896-1947

Special Report Prepared by  
Education Research Branch  
Research Unit

AR-307-E-E-2

20 April 1948



GENERAL HEADQUARTERS  
SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS  
Civil Information and Education Section  
Analysis and Research Division

SPECIAL REPORT

SERIAL NUMBER AR-307-E-E-2 20 April 1948  
TITLE Foreign Students in Japan, 1896-1947  
PREPARED BY Education Research Branch, Research Unit  
DATES OF STUDY 11 September to 12 November, 1947

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## INTRODUCTION

## PURPOSE

This report is designed to present in concise form a historical summary of the education of foreign students in Japan since 1896, with a description of their status, the agencies encouraging their study in Japan, and the policies underlying the Government program in relation to the education of foreign students, so that interested agencies may understand the place that the non-Japanese student has occupied in the Japanese educational system.

## SCOPE

Embracing the period between 1896 and 1947, this report purports to record the salient features of the history of foreign students in Japan according to their national groupings. Space also is devoted, necessarily, to a consideration of the International Students Institute, the agency most seriously and most exclusively interested in foreign students in Japan.

A study of foreign students in Japan directs one's attention almost exclusively to the Chinese, who constituted the decided majority in the community of students from abroad.

In addition to the chapter on Chinese students, a section has been devoted to a discussion of students from Japan's former colonies of Korea and Formosa. From a legal point of view, the colonials were Japanese nationals, but their cultural and racial differences made them foreigners. The separation of Korea and Formosa from Japan after the war left the erstwhile colonials in the status of foreigners.

The relatively small number of students from Southeast Asia made consideration according to national groups impractical. They are discussed in the chapter on the International Students Institute, the agency which sought particularly to attract Southeast Asia students.

Exclusive of Nisei, the number of students from Western countries was so small that an extended study of this group



### FOREIGN STUDENTS IN JAPAN

appeared to be unprofitable. The Nisei who pursued their studies in Japan numbered 3,000, according to an estimate based on recollection by a Foreign Ministry official. The lack of adequate records in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and in the Ministry of Education made it impossible to include a discussion of Nisei students in this report.\*

No distinction was made by Japanese officials between undergraduate and graduate students holding fellowships with research foundations. The majority of the Caucasian students belonged to the latter class, while those from East Asia (Chinese, Annamese, etc.) were generally undergraduates.

#### SOURCES OF DATA

Except for the prospectuses and magazine articles of the International Students Institute, there is very little published material on foreign students. Information for this record was gathered largely through conferences and through replies to questionnaires submitted to various student groups and officials of the Ministries of Foreign Affairs and of Education.

#### EVALUATION OF DATA

The lack of contemporary written matter concerning the early years of the influx of foreign students into Japan made it necessary to rely on the memories and impressions of officials in the Ministries of Education and Foreign Affairs and of former students who were still accessible. Since 1935, however, the International Students Institute, through its prospectuses and occasional magazine articles, has made it possible to follow the history of foreign students with greater detail and accuracy. Data secured from these sources are approximations. This fact becomes evident from an examination of the statistical data, which are marked by egregious inconsistencies. Data supplied by the various student groups are of interest insofar as they illustrate their attitudes toward their hosts and as they reflect student life during and after the war.

\* Conference: FUKUOKA, Akira, counsellor, Treaty Section, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 10 January 1948.



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INTRODUCTION

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SUMMARY

The influx of foreign students into Japan dates from Japan's victory over China and the subsequent annexation of Formosa in 1895, and from the victory over Russia in 1905. The Japanese and Chinese governments made limited arrangements in 1908 to expand facilities for Chinese students. The student population decreased at the time of World War I, and again with the Manchurian Incident of 1931, but the subsequent establishment of the puppet Manchukuo Government renewed the inflow of Chinese. The expanding influence of Japan in North China after 1937, with the concomitant granting of scholarships, increased the number of visiting students from North and Central China. In 1935 the Japanese Government sponsored the International Students Institute to encourage the immigration of students from sections of Asia other than China. This institute guided the small number of students from Southeast Asia who were invited to study in Japan after the Japanese Army had established control over their homelands.

During the war, all foreign students were subjected to rigid police supervision. Koreans and Formosans complained of discrimination. After the surrender of Japan, most of the Southeast Asia students went home, and Japan's project of extending its cultural influence virtually was reduced to nothing.

At the end of 1947, a handful of Siamese and Indonesians and a few hundred Chinese, Formosan, and Korean students continued their studies in the face of great economic difficulties, perhaps motivated by a desire to complete their school work, and possibly influenced by disturbed conditions at home to live in a politically stable Japan. Notwithstanding the unfavorable economic conditions, some Japanese have expressed hopes that their universities again will receive foreign students in the near future.\*

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\* "Preparing for Foreign Students," Editorial, Nippon Times, 22 October 1947.



## Chapter 1

## THE CHINESE

The appearance of foreign students in Japan in appreciable numbers seems to have been concomitant with Japan's emergence as a modern power. The successful war with China in 1894-95 not only established Japan's military position; it jolted the Orient into an awareness of the necessity for acquiring Occidental techniques.<sup>1</sup> China, the defeated nation, manifested the greatest interest. In 1896, the Chinese Government dispatched a group of students to pursue modern studies in Japan.<sup>2</sup>

The most marked increase in the number of foreign students--almost exclusively Chinese--followed the Japanese victory over Russia in 1905. Indeed, the number of Chinese students in Japan in 1906 has been estimated variously at 10,000<sup>3</sup> to 20,000.<sup>4</sup>

There were a number of other factors which contributed to making Japan the favored seat for Western learning. The relative similarity between the cultures of China and Japan served to make adjustment easier for the Chinese in Japan than in Europe or in America. Geographic propinquity and a favorable exchange rate combined to make Japan economically attractive to students. The common use of Chinese ideographs helped to bridge the language gap.<sup>5</sup>

The Japanese Government seemingly anticipated the continued influx of foreign students. As early as 1900, an

1. FUMOTO, Yasutaka, Chief, Education Section, Central Liaison Office, Foreign Ministry, Personal Opinions About Foreign Students, 27 September 1947.
2. Ibid.
3. Ibid.
4. MIYAZAKI, Shinro, Director of the International Students Institute, "Report," 13 September 1946.
5. MUKAI, Eiichi, Assistant Director, Department of School Affairs, Keio University, "Reply to a Questionnaire on Foreign Students," 25 September 1947.



ordinance was issued to regulate the matriculation of foreigners at schools under the direct control of the Ministry of Education. In 1901 the ordinance was slightly revised. It stipulated that foreigners desirous of study in Japan would be required to have recommendations from the "Foreign Office, Japanese missions abroad, or foreign missions in this country."<sup>6</sup>

In 1908, the governments of Japan and China entered into an agreement to facilitate the adjustment of Chinese students to Japanese university life. Study facilities were "reserved for Chinese in as many as five Japanese higher educational institutions enjoying the highest reputation of the day."<sup>7</sup> The names of the schools were indicative of the academic interests among the Chinese. They were the First Higher School, Kuramaye Industrial College, Chiba Medical College, Yamaguchi Commercial College, and Tokyo Higher Normal School.<sup>8</sup>

Not all Chinese students were Government-sponsored or Government-supported. Many of them came at their own expense. The lack of adequate facilities for the great numbers of students who came after the Russo-Japanese War militated against their achieving the optimum in their studies. "Most of them stayed in Tokyo and entered those cheap, private universities in Kanda and its vicinity."<sup>9</sup> The Japanese authorities did not accommodate them in appropriate quarters such as were common to the Government-maintained universities, "or...extend any assistance beyond the barest minimum."<sup>10</sup> As a consequence, many Chinese were obliged to live in the less reputable boarding houses, which constituted an environment not conducive to study.<sup>11</sup> One source goes so far as to say that "most of the students rarely attended classes or lectures but idled about the boarding houses."<sup>12</sup>

In the schools controlled by the Ministry of Education, students fared better. For example, the First Higher School, which had received Chinese students as early as 1899, made special arrangements for students from abroad after the Japa-

6. "Regulations Concerning the Special Admission of Foreign Students to Schools Under the Direct Control of the Ministry of Education," Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 15, 11 November 1901. See Appendix C.

7. FUMOTO, Yasutaka, op. cit.

8. Ibid.

9. Ibid.

10. Ibid.

11. MIYAZAKI, Shinro, op. cit. Also FUMOTO, Yasutaka, op. cit.

12. FUMOTO, Yasutaka, op. cit.



## THE CHINESE

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nese-Chinese student agreement of 1908. A one-year preparatory course was organized for the purpose of educating Chinese students in fundamentals before they embarked on the regular curriculum. In the succeeding 25 years, nearly 1,000 Chinese students were graduated from this preparatory course. The school extended the preparatory course to three years in 1932, because the records of students sometimes revealed that the linguistic difficulty could not be surmounted in one year's study. Students of the First Higher School lived in dormitories with their Japanese classmates and specialized in the sciences and literature. Graduates of this school generally secured admission to the most outstanding educational institution, the Tokyo Imperial University.<sup>13</sup>

But the circumstances surrounding the life of the Chinese, in the main, reflected unfavorably upon them. The indifference and even contempt of the Japanese for the Chinese bred ill will between the two.<sup>14</sup> A number of Japanese, who feared the "inimical effect upon the future relations between these two countries which had treatment accorded to Chinese would inevitably invite, tried hard to give students good accommodations and adequate guidance in their studies or in their daily life."<sup>15</sup> This attitude was well exemplified when the Chinese Republican Revolution occurred in 1911. The resultant disruption of communication left many Chinese students financially stranded. Japanese businessmen thereupon raised a special fund to relieve their distress. The surplus remaining after this emergency had passed was used in 1918 to organize the Nikke Kyokai (Japan-China Association) with the aim of expanding study facilities and promoting the welfare of Chinese students. (The Nikke Kyokai functioned until 1945).<sup>16</sup>

The rapid influx of Chinese after the Russo-Japanese War reached its peak in 1908. In the following year the student population sharply decreased to 5,000. "The decrease...may be attributed partly to the worsened diplomatic relations (between China and Japan) and partly to the gradual development of education in China."<sup>17</sup> A slight downward

13. FUMOTO, Yasutaka, op. cit.

14. MIYAZAKI, Shinro, op. cit. Also FUMOTO, Yasutaka, op. cit.

15. Ibid.

16. MIYAZAKI, Shinro, op. cit.

17. Ibid.



trend continued.

The Chinese Revolution of 1911 and its aftermath did not affect materially the number of incoming students.

Japan submitted the famous Twenty-One Demands to China in 1915. The resentment thus incurred among the Chinese and the enlarged opportunity for study in Western countries combined to reduce the foreign student population.<sup>18</sup> Nevertheless, it was estimated that some 2,000 students were attending Japanese schools annually until the Manchurian Incident in 1931.<sup>19</sup> The establishment of the puppet state of Manchukuo, however, again increased the number of Chinese.

In 1935, nearly 5,000 foreigners were enrolled. One year later, the number approached 7,000.<sup>20</sup> Presumably, Manchuria sent a greater number of young men to Japan than previously. Even Mongolia which had hitherto been quite remote, politically speaking, began to send students when the Japanese Army impinged on its border.<sup>21</sup> Manchurian and Mongolian students assert that shortly after the occupation of the Manchu-Mongol area the Japanese authorities initiated "all sorts of propaganda" to encourage them to study in Japan. "The majority of them came at the invitation of the Japanese authorities."<sup>23</sup>

Officially invited students "were granted fixed monthly allowances by the puppet Manchukuan and Mongolian Governments. The Japanese Government paid nothing. A foundation called the Ikuei Kai (Educational Institute) granted scholarships to students other than those above mentioned.<sup>24</sup> After 1942, Manchurian and Mongolian students came at the behest of the newly organized Greater East Asia Ministry, which concerned itself with promoting Japanese interests on the continent. Ostensibly, this Ministry provided money for the students, but in actuality, if the opinions of Manchurian and Mongolian students are to be accepted, the puppet governments were pressed by the Japanese to defray the costs of the scholarships."<sup>25</sup>

18. FUMOTO, Yasutaka, op. cit.

19. Ibid.

20. The Foreign Affairs Association of Japan, The Japan Year Book, 1940-41, p. 675.

21. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Mongolian and Manchurian Students," 2 October 1947.

22. Ibid.

23. Ibid.

24. Ibid.

25. Ibid.



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The puppet Manchukuan Government also contributed money for the maintenance of student hostels in Japan. In 1935, when the foreign enrollment rose, the Japanese Army and the Kwantung Army Corps sponsored the establishment of the Manchukoku Byujitsu Gakusei Hodo Kyodai (Manchurian Students Scholastic Guidance and Assistance Association). This corporation was to provide and operate hostels for Manchurians. The Manchukuan Government contributed ¥200,000 and granted an additional yearly subsidy of ¥20,000. The Association was placed under the supervision of the Foreign Office, the Ministry of Education, and the War Ministry.<sup>26</sup> A dormitory, the Koraku Ryo, built by popular subscription, was destroyed during the war. In 1945, the Association was dissolved by order of the Foreign Office.<sup>27</sup>

The upward rise in the Foreign student population after the establishment of Manchukuo was halted abruptly by the "China Incident" of 1937, which culminated in the extended Chinese-Japanese War. Thus, in 1937, there were 8,026 foreigners studying in Japan; in 1938, however, the number fell to 5,716.<sup>28</sup> The war sparked by the China Incident did not stop Chinese students from coming. The Japanese Army extended its sway in China and students from the conquered nations resumed their studies in Japan as soon as "Sino-Japanese relations were stabilized. The Chinese Government selected students more carefully, but the number of students was smaller than before."<sup>29</sup> The Japanese-sponsored government of Wang Ching Wei in Central China and the provincial governments under its control sent students to Japan every year.<sup>30</sup>

The Japanese Government granted foreign students scholarships which covered travel, tuition, and living expenses. The Foreign Ministry offered scholarships to Chinese university graduates who sought to pursue specialized studies in Japan. Scholarships also were offered to Chinese undergraduates. "Some 250 students were selected every year."<sup>31</sup> The Foreign

26. MIYAZAKI, Shinro, *op. cit.*

27. *Ibid.*

28. The Foreign Affairs Association of Japan, *op. cit.*

29. Foreign Ministry, "Reply to a Questionnaire on Foreign Students," 26 September 1947.

30. YOSHIHARA, Kuichi, Chairman, Yurin Gakkai, "Reply to a Questionnaire," 20 October 1947. Also Yasutaka FUMOTO, *op. cit.*

31. MAEKAWA, Goichi, Chief of Section, General Affairs, Control Bureau, Foreign Ministry, "Reply to a Questionnaire on Foreign Students," 16 October 1947.



FOREIGN STUDENTS IN JAPAN

Ministry also distributed scholarships to foreign students through a number of cultural societies.<sup>32</sup> The majority of Chinese students, however, "were those who were sent by the Chinese Government offices"<sup>33</sup> from the territories under Japanese jurisdiction.

Thus, while the Chinese Government fought the invaders, students from the Japanese puppet-government regions enjoyed scholarships in Japan.

With the military reverses consequent to Japan's involvement in the Pacific War, the situation of these students grew desperate. This phase of life for students in Japan, for both Chinese and students of the foreign countries, will be discussed in a later chapter (Chapter 4).

32. Ibid. See Table 11 for list of student cultural associations.

33. Ibid. Also see Table 9.



## Chapter 2

## THE COLONIALS

In addition to the Chinese students, a number of colonials came to study in Japan. In 1895 Japan established her dominion over Formosa and in 1910 Korea was annexed. Although these new colonial students were subjects of the Japanese Empire, "for some time after the annexation they were treated as foreigners because of their differences in language, manners, and customs."<sup>34</sup> Because of these cultural and linguistic differences, "many Korean and Formosan students could not enter the schools to which they applied."<sup>35</sup>

Formosan students have charged that the higher schools in Formosa accepted only a fraction of the colonial applicants; accommodations in the schools were reserved largely for the Japanese settlers even in recent years.<sup>36</sup> As a matter of fact, Formosans came to study in Japan because the higher schools in Formosa were so narrowly restricted.<sup>37</sup> Formosans were not subject to compulsory military training, but permission to study in Japan could be secured by volunteering to serve in the Japanese Army.<sup>38</sup>

Similarly, Korean students point out that discrimination was practiced against them when they tried to enter certain Japanese schools.<sup>39</sup> Koreans, unlike Formosans, were subject to compulsory military training.<sup>40</sup> The general attitude toward military training was expressed by the Formosan students who characterized it as "unpleasant and barbarous."<sup>41</sup>

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34. Foreign Ministry, "Reply to a Questionnaire on Foreign Students," 26 September 1947.
35. Ibid.
36. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Formosan Students," 29 September 1947.
37. Ibid.
38. Ibid.
39. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Korean Students," 8 October 1947.
40. MAEKAWA, Goichi, op. cit.
41. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Formosan Students," 26 September 1947.



It is of interest to note that Manchurian students were obliged to take military training because the "Manchurian Government requested the Japanese Government to do it for them."<sup>42</sup> Manchurian Students did not regard military training with more favor than did the Koreans or Formosans.<sup>43</sup>

With the progress of the war, the condition of the colonial students deteriorated. Korean students affirm that the Japanese gave them "forcible encouragement to join pro-Japanese organizations."<sup>44</sup> They further assert that the Japanese instituted a "compulsory system of student 'volunteer' soldiers and a compulsory labor-drafting system during the war."<sup>45</sup>

Japanese counter these charges with the statement that the Koreans never were forced to join an organization.<sup>46</sup> The compulsory labor system was introduced when military necessity compelled it. The Koreans were not exempted from duty, because they were Japanese subjects.<sup>47</sup>

Korean students have protested against the wartime activities of the Chosan Shogaku Kai (Korean Scholarship Society) in urging Koreans to participate more fully in the war effort.<sup>48</sup> The Society was "under the control of Japanese officers,"<sup>49</sup> and the few Korean officers, "selected from among the most pro-Japanese,"<sup>50</sup> "could exercise little influence."<sup>51</sup> Consequently, the Society served Japanese purposes almost exclusively. "The Japanese," stated one Foreign Ministry official, "were too eager to attain their object, and not only failed to obtain sympathy from young Korean intellectuals, but incurred their antipathy."<sup>52</sup>

With respect to the relations between the Japanese and their colonial students, a Siamese student observed: "During the war...the Japanese tried to say that these students were of

42. MAEKAWA, Goichi, op. cit.

43. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Mongolian and Manchurian Students," 2 October 1947.

44. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Korean Students," 8 October 1947.

45. Ibid.

46. MAEKAWA, Goichi, op. cit.

47. Ibid.

48. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Korean Students," 8 October 1947.

49. Conference: NAM, Ieryong and KIM, Usehi, Committee members of the Korean Student League, 22 September 1947.

50. Ibid.

51. Ibid.

52. MAEKAWA, Goichi, op. cit.



THE COLONIALS

Japanese nationality. They were mobilized to become soldiers and to work in factories, but in fact they were treated worse than Japanese.<sup>53</sup>

The collapse of the Japanese Empire afforded the colonial students the opportunity to declare themselves citizens of their native lands.

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53. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Siamese Students,"  
7 October 1947.



## Chapter 3

## THE INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS INSTITUTE

Contemporaneous with the expansion of Japanese power in North China was the heightening of interest on the part of the Japanese Government in students from other Asiatic countries. In 1935, under the auspices of the Foreign Ministry, the Kokusai Gakuyu Kai (International Students Institute) was founded to encourage foreign students from abroad.<sup>54</sup> The prospectus issued by the Institute shortly after its organization stressed the necessity for broadening the educational facilities in Japan so that students from countries other than China and Manchukuo would have inducements to come to Japan.<sup>55</sup> In other words, the prospectus implied the need of reaching students in those countries of Asia with whom Japan had had no military contact. The International Students Institute pledged itself to provide foreign students, especially those from Eastern countries, with accommodations, advice, and instruction in the Japanese language.<sup>56</sup>

The constitution of the Institute designated a president, a board of directors, and a counsellor as the chief governing agencies. The counsellor was to be a member of the Cultural Work Bureau of the Foreign Ministry.<sup>57</sup> The Institute was to be financed by Government subsidies, revenues derived from properties, and popular donations.<sup>58</sup>

One of the problems which confronted foreign students in Japan was finding adequate quarters. The Institute undertook to alleviate this difficulty by establishing the International Students House (Kokusai-Gakuyu-Kaikan) with dormitory, classroom, library, and recreational facilities. The House was staffed with a faculty to give instruction in the Japanese language and culture.<sup>59</sup>

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54. International Students Institute, "Prospectus and Scheme," p. 9, 1936.
55. Ibid., p.2.
56. Ibid., p.3.
57. Ibid., p.5.
58. Ibid.
59. International Students Institute, Prospectus, p. 7, 1941.



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The Institute extended its activities to include granting scholarships, subsidizing study trips for foreigners, and sending Japanese students abroad in accordance with student exchange agreements.<sup>60</sup> Student exchange agreements were concluded with Polish and Italian educational societies in 1936, with Germany in 1937, and with Hungary in 1940.<sup>61</sup>

The Institute did not limit its activities to Tokyo exclusively. It arranged to have private homes and boarding houses converted into dormitories in different cities. With the exception of the Tamagawa Gaku Ryo (Tamagawa Dormitory) and the Koraku Ryo (Koraku Dormitory), which was destroyed during an air raid, these dormitories were "generally poor in equipment and installations."<sup>62</sup> In 1940, a dormitory for women with a capacity for 15 was established in Tokyo.

By 1941, the students who had received assistance from the Institute numbered 280 and represented 22 countries, (excluding China and puppet Manchukuo).<sup>63</sup> Of these, 20 students came from the Americas and Europe.<sup>64</sup>

The renewal of hostilities with China after the 1937 Incident and the outbreak of World War II in Europe were reflected in a broadening of the objectives of the International program of Japan. "After the outbreak of the Chinese Incident and World War II," wrote the director of the Institute, "the international situation underwent a considerable change, and any of the hitherto oppressed peoples began to show signs of standing on their own feet. Such a state of affairs urged this association to consider it our duty and responsibility to invite intelligent young students from those nations of East Asia, educate them perfectly in a complete understanding of the Japanese spirit, supply those countries permanently with a fixed number of capable and faithful leaders who could cooperate with us in the glo-

60. Ibid., pp.4-5.

61. "A Short History of the International Students Institute," Kokusai Gakuyu Kai Kaiho (International Students Institute Bulletin), Tokyo, November 1942, p.46..

62. MIYAZAKI, Shinro, "Report," 16 July 1946. See Table 17 for dormitory list.

63. International Students Institute, Prospectus, p.2, 1941.

64. MIYAZAKI, Shinro, "Statement on Foreign Students," 7 August 1946.



rious task of establishing the East Asia Coprosperity Sphere, and devote themselves to the development of various races."<sup>65</sup>

The Institute program envisaged in 1940 was that of bringing promising Asiatic students with "a view to providing dependable leadership for those nations."<sup>66</sup> Candidates for study in Japan were to be comparatively young so that they "may easily master the Japanese language and conform to moral discipline."<sup>67</sup> The program embraced "both preparatory education and higher liberal education, together with facilities for graduation from the highest educational institutions in this country. Education of those applicants is thus conducted for a longer period on a more complete basis than has hitherto been our practice."<sup>68</sup> The plan was to be carried out "continuously until an annual supply of a fixed number of graduates"<sup>69</sup> was secured. This program was to start with Siam and French Indo-China and was to be extended to other East Asiatic nations such as the Netherlands Indies, the Philippines, Burma, and India.<sup>70</sup>

The significance of this program is suggested by almost concurrent political events. A treaty of friendship between Japan and Siam was signed in June 1940, and in September of the same year a defeated France yielded to Japan the privilege of using French Indo-China as a base of operations against Kuomintang China.<sup>71</sup> In July 1941 French Indo-China was completely occupied by the Japanese Army.<sup>72</sup> With a bridgehead in Southeast Asia, the Japanese were in a favorable position to look toward the Philippines and the Netherlands East Indies.

In December 1941 Japanese troops landed in Siam.<sup>73</sup> A few weeks later the Siamese Ministry of Education formulated a student exchange agreement with the International Students Institute, which stipulated that the exchanged students would be university graduates assigned to a three-year course of study.

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65. YATABE, Yasukichi, "Student Activities in Siam and French Indo-China," Kokusai Gakuyu Kai Kaiho, November 1942, p.140.
66. Ibid., p.141.
67. Ibid., p.142.
68. Ibid., p.143.
69. Ibid.
70. Ibid.
71. Quigley, Harold S., Far Eastern War, 1937-1941, pp. 184-5.
72. Ibid., p.191.
73. Ibid.



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Both parties agreed to provide facilities and money for their student guests.<sup>74</sup> The French Indo-Chinese Government was drawn into a similar agreement in June 1942.<sup>75</sup>

Apparently the Japanese Government had anticipated the growth of the foreign student population before its Army made inroads in Southeast Asia. In 1938, before the European War began, the International Students Institute received an annual subsidy of ¥50,000 from the Government. In 1939, the sum was raised to ¥204,317. After the exchange agreements with Siam and French Indo-China had been made in 1942, the subsidy rose to ¥271,500. In addition to increasing the monetary grants, the Government indicated its interest in the functions of the Institute by placing it under the authority of the Greater East Asia Ministry in 1942.<sup>76</sup>

During the period of expansion in Southeast Asia, diplomatic relations between America and the British Empire on the one hand and Japan on the other had grown critical. North and South American students as well as Filipino, Burmese, and Indian were advised by the Japanese Government to return to their homes. Most of them did. Approximately 200 from Southeast Asia chose to continue their studies in face of the threat of war. The majority were Siamese. There were a few from India, Burma, and Afghanistan, and one from the Philippines. In this number must be reckoned seven exchange students from Italy, Germany, and Hungary.<sup>77</sup>

After war with the United States had begun, Japanese arms enjoyed a number of successes and the Army and Navy exercised control over extensive areas of invaded territory. In accordance with the plan to establish a cultural bridgehead, the Japanese armed forces in areas such as Burma, the Philippines, Java, Sumatra, the Malay Peninsula, Borneo, the Celebes, and Ceram, "took the trouble of selecting and in-

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74. "Agreement for the Exchange of Students Between Japan and Siam," Kokusai Gakuya Kai Kaiho, November 1942, p. 145.
  75. "Agreement for the Exchange of Students Between Japan and French Indo-China," Kokusei Gakuyu Kai Kaiho, November 1942, p. 155.
  76. MIYAZAKI, Shinro, "Report," 16 July 1946.
  77. WATANABE, Tomo, "Students from Southeast Asia in War-time," International Student Institute Magazine, 20 September 1943, pp.3-5.



viting (students) in collaboration with the 'autonomous government' of the native people."<sup>78</sup> The International Student Institute was charged with the task of providing the necessary facilities for the students thus selected.<sup>79</sup>

Students who came during the war, according to a report prepared by Indonesian students, were promised wide facilities for study, but "actually, the number and kinds of schools and the locations were fixed"<sup>80</sup> and the students were obliged to take what was offered. "The study was rather disappointing. The students could not get practical knowledge in the laboratories or factories because they were not allowed to enter those buildings."<sup>81</sup> Furthermore, study was impeded seriously by the effort required to master Chinese characters and the Japanese language.<sup>82</sup>

Mindful of the language difficulty, the International Students Institute arranged to give instruction in Japanese to prepare the newly arrived students for entrance into the higher schools. The language school was instituted in early 1943 with 30 students. By the summer of 1943, however, the character of the school was changed with the arrival of 120 students from Japanese-held territory who were invited by the Japanese Army and Navy. The civilian head of the school was succeeded by a former Army officer who sought to introduce military discipline. He assigned the students among dormitories according to their nationalities.<sup>83</sup> Relations among the various groups were cordial; relations between the administration and the students were strained.<sup>84</sup>

In 1944, another group of 80 students arrived exclusively from zones under the control of the Japanese Army. None came in 1945 and the school was closed in November of that year.<sup>85</sup>

78. MAEKAWA, Goichi, "Report on Wartime Students," 23 October 1947.

79. Ibid.

80. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Indonesian Students," 24 October 1947.

81. Ibid.

82. Ibid.

83. YUGETA, Masumi, former language instructor, International Students Institute, "Reply to a Questionnaire," 11 October 1947.

84. Ibid.

85. Ibid.



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The end of the war imposed an additional burden on the Institute. In the beginning of 1946, the dissolution of agencies which took care of Chinese and Manchurian students made it necessary for the Foreign Ministry to place them under the care of the Institute. There were 472 Chinese and 88 Manchurians in this group. In August 1947, the Japanese Government organized the Yurin Gakkai (Neighborhood Student Association) to take charge of these students, thus relieving the Institute of the additional responsibility.<sup>86</sup>

The exodus of foreign students came on the heels of the surrender. The Institute had nothing to do with student repatriation. At the time of embarkation the "Institute advanced an allowance of ¥1000 per person to cover necessary expenses relative to their returning home."<sup>87</sup> Not all students departed, however, and in the fall of 1947 the Institute found itself still engaged in providing aid for those who desired to complete their studies.

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86. MIYAZAKI, Shinro, "Reply to a Questionnaire," 2 October 1947.

87. MIYAZAKI, Shinro, "Report," 7 August 1946.



## Chapter 4

## STUDENTS DURING THE WAR AND POSTWAR PERIODS

The advent of the Pacific War occasioned the rigid enforcement of various controls in Japan limiting speech and travel.<sup>88</sup> The Tokkotai (Thought Control Police) and the Kempeitai (Military Police) grew more vigilant. The tightened food and clothing rations added to the inconveniences of the foreign students. The Filipinos evinced the most pronounced dissatisfaction "because they were more advanced than students from Southeast Asia."<sup>89</sup> The military discipline in the dormitories, which included reveille and taps, increased the irritation engendered by constant police surveillance.<sup>90</sup>

The facts that the Japanese assigned these students to the schools in which they were to study, and at times even decided which course a student was to follow, contributed further to discontent.

The International Students Institute exerted itself to prevent difficulties between students and the police. "But the students often violated the rules and went out into the country without permission."<sup>91</sup> This resulted in arrests and beatings at the hands of the police.<sup>92</sup>

Students from China and the colonies fared no better. Lodgings were searched, papers, books, and mail examined. "A single book in possession or even a single line in a letter constituted sufficient reason to be put in jail."<sup>93</sup> One stu-

88. MAEKAWA, Goichi, Chief of Section of General Affairs, Control Bureau, Foreign Ministry, "Reply to a Questionnaire on Foreign Students," 16 October 1947.

89. Ibid.

90. Conference: KADANO, Hiroko, former matron of Hongo Ryo Dormitory, 29 October 1947.

91. YUGETA, Masumi, former language instructor, International Students Institute, "Reply to a Questionnaire," 11 October 1947.

92. Ibid.

93. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Chinese Students," 27 September 1947.



STUDENTS DURING THE WAR AND POSTWAR PERIOD

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dent wrote that he got "police authorization merely to walk the streets."<sup>94</sup> Gatherings of any kind required police approval and beatings were administered on slight pretexts.<sup>95</sup> Students occasionally were detained by the police for examination.<sup>96</sup> Koreans complained that their quarters were searched once or twice a week and that they "were detained without any explanation."<sup>97</sup>

The behavior of the Japanese people toward the students appears to have been correct and free from the hostility which characterized the attitude of the police. The attitude of the Japanese students to their foreign classmates was regarded as friendly on the whole, although there were many who were indifferent.<sup>98</sup> A Chinese woman student evaluated the relations between the students and their hosts in this manner: "Generally speaking, before the war we were despised; during the war, oppressed; and after the war, treated in an ordinary way."<sup>99</sup>

Concurrent with the constriction of the extracurricular life of the students was the distortion of education itself to conform with the policies of the Japanese Government. English "was banned from the curriculum. Even reading an English book was forbidden."<sup>100</sup> History and the related social studies were presented so as to justify the Japanese military program in Asia. Japanese history, according to some students, "was largely mythology designed to strengthen pro-Japanese propaganda by representing the Japanese as a chosen people, and therefore historically destined to leader-

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94. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Mongolian and Manchurian Students," 2 October 1947.
  95. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Formosan Students," 29 September 1947.
  96. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Chinese Women Students," 6 October 1947
  97. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Korean Students," 8 October 1947.
  98. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Formosan Students," 29 September 1947.
  99. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Chinese Women Students," 6 October 1947.
  100. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Indonesian Students," 24 October 1947.



ship in Asia."<sup>101</sup> The unique position of the Emperor was emphasized, and the doctrine of Hakko-Ichiu (The Whole World Under One Roof) was expounded in conjunction with the advocacy of the need to establish a Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere under Japanese leadership.<sup>102</sup> "According to my experience," stated one student, "the content of Japanese history courses was quite like a novel."<sup>103</sup>

Studies had to be suspended temporarily. "Toward the end of the Pacific War foreign students were moved from larger cities which were exposed to air raids to safe places which not only were suited to study but were more like their native lands in climate."<sup>104</sup> "Japanese students were told to stay behind in bomb-threatened cities and work in factories or to join the Army or Navy."<sup>105</sup> Despite the growing crisis in Japan, "more food and clothes were rationed to (the students) because they were foreigners."<sup>106</sup>

During the month following the end of the war in August 1945, nearly all the Burmese and Malayan students effected their repatriation. Nearly all Filipino, Siamese, French Indo-Chinese, and Indonesian students followed shortly.<sup>107</sup> Chinese and Formosan students, however, showed little inclination to return to their homes.<sup>108</sup> The unsettled conditions in Central China were a contributing factor in delaying repatriation.<sup>109</sup> For presumably similar reasons, Koreans have not indicated interest in returning to their homeland.

The continued presence of foreign students in a defeated Japan created a number of difficulties. The unbalanced situation in China made it difficult for students to receive aid from home. The Koreans found themselves in a similar situation. The difficulties of the students were aggravated by the fall in the value of the yen. Consequently, the monthly scholarships vary-

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101. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Mongolian and Manchurian Students," 2 October 1947. Also replies to Formosan, Indonesian, Korean and Siamese Questionnaires.
102. Ibid. Also replies to Formosan and Korean Questionnaires.
103. Ibid.
104. Foreign Ministry, "Reply to a Questionnaire on Foreign Students," 26 September 1947.
105. FUMOTO, Yasutaka, Education Section, Central Liaison Office, Foreign Ministry, "Personal Opinions About Foreign Students," 27 September 1947.
106. Foreign Ministry, op. cit.
107. MIYAZAKI, Shinro, "Report," 7 August 1946. See Appendix for number of students in Japan.
108. Ibid.
109. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Mongolian and Manchurian Students," 2 October 1947.



STUDENTS DURING THE WAR AND POSTWAR PERIOD

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ing from ¥70 to ¥120 were inadequate to provide necessities.

As previously stated, the International Students Institute had assumed the responsibility for Chinese students after the dissolution of the Manchurian Students Scholastic Guidance and Assistance Association and of the Japan-China Association. In response to pressure from Chinese students, the Foreign Ministry raised the allowance to ¥500 without consulting the Institute. The consequence was that the Institute found itself burdened with an unexpected financial load. To meet this obligation, the Institute was forced to spend the assets it received from the dissolved student aid societies as well as its own funds. By August 1946, the Institute was reduced to the state where it could not meet expenses for that month.<sup>110</sup> The Japanese Government came to the aid of the Institute by supplementing the subsidies for 1946.<sup>111</sup> The organization of the Yurin Gakkai (Neighborhood Student Association) in August 1947 relieved the Institute from its obligations to the Chinese. The Yurin Gakkai assumed charge of all Chinese dormitories and affairs related to Chinese students. The Institute resumed its original task of concerning itself with the welfare of the few remaining Southeast Asia students.

Korean students since have complained that their "economic plight is growing even worse."<sup>112</sup> "The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry is supplying food to 1,588 students at higher schools."<sup>113</sup> Since the status of Korean students has not been clarified, the Japanese Government has extended no other help than that indicated above.<sup>114</sup> "We are eking out our meager living," wrote the Korean students, "by engaging ourselves in labor, business, and other fields."<sup>115</sup>

Formosans were in an equally anomalous position. Although they now became Chinese citizens, they received no help from the Chinese Government. At the suggestion of Occupation

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110. MIYAZAKI, Shinro, "Report," 7 August 1946.
111. MIYAZAKI, Shinro, "Reply to a Questionnaire," 2 October 1947.
112. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Korean Students," 8 October 1947.
113. Conference: NAM, Ieryong, and KIM, Usehi, Committee Members of the Korean Student League, 22 September 1947.
114. Conference: MAEKAWA, Goichi, Chief of Section, General Affairs, Control Bureau, Foreign Ministry, 6 November 1947.
115. "Reply to a Questionnaire Submitted to Korean Students," 8 October 1947.



officials, the Welfare Ministry "defrayed essential expenses for Formosan students until June 1947."<sup>116</sup> After that date no money was disbursed. "Contrary to expectation, few students left...for home."<sup>117</sup>

The handful of Axis students who studied in Japan met with adversity before Japan's defeat. The overthrow of the Mussolini Cabinet brought forth a declaration of loyalty to the Italian Crown from the three Italian students. Since Japan continued to recognize Mussolini's insurgent government, these three were interned when Germany yielded. The Europeans since have been repatriated.<sup>118</sup>

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116. Conference: TAKATOI, Osamu, Secretary, General Affairs Section, School Education Bureau, Ministry of Education, 19 September 1947.

117. Ibid.

118. Conference: MIYAZAKI, Shinro, 2 October 1947.



## Appendix A

## TABLES

Table 1. FOREIGN STUDENTS RESIDENT IN JAPAN  
1900-1947

<u>Year</u>	<u>Number of students*</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Number of students*</u>
1900	166	1924	1,677
1901	480	1925	1,380
1902	445	1926	1,391
1903	430	1927	1,797
1904	664	1928	2,310
1905	2,536	1929	2,303
1906	7,211	1930	3,338
1907	5,347	1931	2,019
1908	5,392	1932	1,535
1909	3,635	1933	1,857
1910	3,243	1934	3,187
1911	3,141	1935	4,993
1912	3,987	1936	6,216
1913	3,278	1937	4,415
1914	4,353	1938	2,937
1915	3,499	1939	2,236
1916	3,586	1940	2,537
1917	4,501	1941	2,222
1918	4,383	1942	2,664
1919	4,075	1943	na
1920	3,295	1944	na
1921	3,070	1945	na
1922	2,546	1946	2,200
1923	1,843	1947	2,933

na - Not available.

\* Number of students includes foreign students in universities, higher schools, colleges, and miscellaneous schools from 1900 to 1937. From 1938 on, foreign students in miscellaneous schools are not included. Data for 1939 and 1941 include only Chinese and Manchurian students. Data for 1946 and 1947 include Chinese, Manchurian, Formosan, and Korean students.

Source: Ministry of Education study completed 20 June 1947.



## FOREIGN STUDENTS IN JAPAN

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Table 2. CHINESE STUDENT POPULATION IN JAPAN  
1901-1941

Year	Number of Students	Year	Number of Students
1901	300	1910	2,000
1902	400-1,200	1915	5,000-6,000
1904	1,300	1919	2,500-3,000
1905	8,000	1941	2,000
1906	10,000-20,000		

Source: Ministry of Education, School Education Bureau. Submitted by Osamu TAKATOI, Secretary, General Affairs Section, 7 November 1947. Based on Chinese sources.

Table 3. FOREIGN STUDENTS IN JAPAN  
1932-1938

Year	Number of Students	Year	Number of Students
1932	2,761	1936	6,942
1933	2,232	1937	8,026
1934	2,765	1938	5,716
1935	4,681		

Source: The Japan Year Book, 1940-41, p. 675.

Table 4. FOREIGN STUDENTS WHO CAME TO JAPAN  
DURING THE PACIFIC WAR

Nationality	Number of Students	Nationality	Number of Students
Burmese	47	Borneans	9
Filipinos	51	Ceramese	3
Javanese	44	Siamese	12
Sumatrans	16	French Indo-Chinese	7
Malayans	12		
Celebes Islanders	11	Total	212

Source: Foreign Ministry Control Bureau. Submitted by Goichi MAEKAWA, Chief of General Affairs Section, 23 October 1947, in Report on Wartime Students. NOTE: Masumi YUGETA, teacher in the International Students Institute, stated there were at least 20 Siamese, and that three Frenchmen came with the seven Indo-China students. (Conference: 23 October 1947)



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Table 5. WESTERN STUDENTS IN JAPAN  
January 1946

Nationality	Number of Students
Italian	2
German	2

Source: International Students Institute. Submitted by Shinro MIYAZAKI, Director, 7 August 1947.

Table 6. FOREIGN STUDENTS IN JAPAN  
July 1946

Country	Number of Students
Mongolia	40
Manchuria	81
China	329
Indonesia	88
Annam	13
Siam	6
Total	557

Source: International Students Institute. Submitted by Shinro MIYAZAKI, Director, 7 August 1947.

Table 7. FOREIGN STUDENT POPULATION IN JAPAN  
Autumn 1946

Country	According to Education Ministry	According to Foreign Ministry
China	330	330
Manchukuo	80	84
Mongolia	42	42
Southeast Asia	-	100
Netherlands East Indies	85	-
French Indo-China	15	-
Siam	10	-
Total	562	556

Source: Conferences: Yasutaka FUMOTO, Chief, Education Section, Central Liaison Office, Foreign Ministry, 26 March 1946; Naokoza OKUDA, Investigator, Foreign Ministry, 27 March 1946.



## FOREIGN STUDENTS IN JAPAN

Table 8. FOREIGN AND KOREAN STUDENTS IN JAPAN  
Autumn 1947

Nationality	Number of students
Indonesian	40
Annamese	13
Siamese	6
Total	59
Chinese	428
Formosan	724
Total	1,152
Total Foreign*	1,211
Korean	1,565
Total Foreign and Korean	2,776

\* The Ministry of Education total for 1947 is 2,933 as shown in Table 1.

Source: Data on foreign students submitted by Foreign Ministry, 26 September 1947. Data on Korean students submitted by Goichi MAEKAWA, Chief, General Affairs Section, Control Bureau, Foreign Ministry, 6 November 1947.

Table 9. CHINESE ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS  
WHICH SENT STUDENTS TO JAPAN

Amoy City Office	Mongolia
Canton City Office	Nanking Education Office
Hankow City Office	Shanang Island Office
Hopei Province	Shanghai City Office
Hupeh Province	Shansi Province
Kiangsi Province	Shantung Province
Kiangsu Province	Tientsin City Office
Manchukuo	Tsingtao City Office
Education Bureau of the Topei Administrative Committee	

Source: Foreign Ministry, Control Bureau. Submitted by Goichi MAEKAWA, Chief, General Affairs Section, 16 October 1947.



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Table 10. ACCEPTANCE OF FORMOSAN AND JAPANESE STUDENTS  
IN FORMOSAN SCHOOLS  
(Year not Given)

School	Number of applicants	Number of entrants	Percent accepted
Taichu Normal School			
Formosans	400	10	2.5
Japanese	80	30	37.5
Takao Middle School			
Formosans	500	50	10.0
Japanese	200	150	75.0

Source: "Reply to a Questionnaire to Formosan Students,"  
29 September 1947.

Table 11. CULTURAL ORGANIZATIONS FOR FOREIGN STUDENTS  
IN PREWAR JAPAN

Cultural organization	Year Founded	Students Aided	Present Status
Nichi-In Kyokai (Japan-India Society)	1903	Indian	Inactive*
Shamu Kyokai (Siamese Society)	1927	Siamese	Inactive
Nichi-I Bunka Kyokai (Japan-Italy Society for Culture)	1931	Promoted exchange students	Inactive
Zenrin Kyokai (Good Neighbor Society)	1934	Mongolian	Language school
Firipin Kyokai (Philippines Society)	1935	Filipino	Social society
Biruma Kyokai Burmese Society	1937	Burmese	Inactive

\* Presumably dissolved at the outbreak of the war.  
Source: International Students Institute. Submitted by  
Hitoshi KANAZAWA, Secretary, 23 October 1947.



Table 12. STUDENTS ASSISTED  
BY THE INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS INSTITUTE  
Up to December 1945

Country	Number of students assisted		
	Men	Women	Total
Siam	208	38	246
India	46	-	46
Germany	21	2	23
Indonesia	121	-	121
Afghanistan	6	-	6
Burma	64	-	64
Indo-China	18	2	20
Italy	8	1	9*
Philippine Islands	73	-	73
Japan	20	8	28
Hungary	1	-	1
England	1	-	1
France	5	-	5
Poland	2	-	2
Russia	1	-	1
China (Hainan)	3	-	3
Mexico	5	-	5
Brazil	6	-	6
Colombia	1	-	1
Argentina	3	-	3
Iraq	1	-	1
Peru	3	1	4
Bolivia	2	-	2
Uruguay	1	-	1
Belgium	-	1	1
USA (non-Nisei)	7	4	11
USA (Nisei)	7	-	7
Total	634	57	691

\* According to the Italian Mission, four Italian students remained in Japan throughout the war. (9 January 1948)

Source: International Students Institute. Submitted by Shinro MIYAZAKI, Director, 26 June 1946.



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Table 13. WESTERN STUDENTS IN JAPAN  
Autumn 1941

Country	Type of students			Total number of students
	Invited	Scholar- ship	Exchange	
Mexico	2	-	-	2
Uruguay	1	-	-	1
Germany	-	1	2	3
Afghanistan	6	-	-	6
Argentina	1	-	-	1
Peru	1	1	-	2
United States	-	2	-	2

Source: International Students Institute. Submitted by Shinro MIYAZAKI, Director, 7 August 1946.

Table 14. GOVERNMENTAL SUBSIDIES  
FOR THE INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS INSTITUTE

Year	Subsidy	Year	Subsidy
1935	¥ 47,000	1942	¥ 271,500
1936	53,240	1943	569,760
1937	50,000	1944	1,258,010
1938	50,000	1945	1,126,510
1939	204,317	1946	600,000
1940	225,000	1947	1,250,000
1941	250,000	Total	¥5,955,337

Source: International Students Institute. Submitted by Shinro MIYAZAKI, Director, 2 October 1947.

Note: In the "Report" submitted by MIYAZAKI on 7 August 1946, the 1946 subsidy was stated to be ¥663,255. In MIYAZAKI's "Report" of 16 July 1946, the subsidies were stated as follows:

1941	¥ 250,000	1944	¥1,243,010
1942	250,000	1945	1,126,510
1943	350,000		

Naokoza OKUDA, Investigator, Foreign Ministry, gave the subsidies as follows: (Conference, 27 March 1946)

1944	¥1,000,000	1945	¥1,000,000
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Table 15. PUBLICATIONS OF THE  
INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS INSTITUTE

Title	Date published
Kokusai Gakuyu Kai Kaiho (Bulletin of the International Students Institute)	20 Apr 1938
	15 Nov 1939
	20 Dec 1940
	15 Aug 1941
	30 Nov 1942
Kokusai Gakuyu Kai Shi (The International Students Institute Magazine)	25 Aug 1939
	20 Sep 1943
Keki Nihon Bunka Koza Koen Shu (Collection of Summer Lectures on Japanese Culture)	30 Jun 1939
	30 Mar 1940
Prospectus and Scheme	1936
Prospectus	1941
Japanese Language Readers (textbooks)	not given
Five Hundred Chinese Characters and Phrases Made With Them (textbook)	not given

Source: International Students Institute.



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Table 16. STUDENTS ASSISTED BY THE  
INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS INSTITUTE  
Autumn 1947

Location and institution attended	Number of students
<u>Tokyo</u>	
Fine Arts School	2
First High School	2
Keio Gizyuku University	3
Peers' School	2
School of Music	2
Sophia University	4
Tokyo Imperial University	4
Tokyo Normal Higher School	1
Tokyo Technical University	3
University of Literature and Science	2
Waseda First High School	1
Waseda University	4
<u>Kyoto</u>	
Kyoto Imperial University	18
<u>Sapporo</u>	
Hokkaido Imperial University	1
<u>Yokohama</u>	
St. Joseph College	1
Yokohama Technical High School	1
Total	51

Source: International Students Institute, Submitted by Shinro MIYAZAKI, Director, 2 October 1947.



Table 17. DORMITORIES UNDER THE JURISDICTION OF THE INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS INSTITUTE

Location	Name of dormitory	Students accommodated	Native region of students
Tokyo, Tokyo	Seika Ryo	na	China
Tokyo, Tokyo	Kashiwagi-Ryo	37	S.Pacific
Tokyo, Tokyo	Kanda-Ryo	25	China
Tokyo, Tokyo	Tamagawa-Ryo	70	China
Tokyo, Tokyo	Kojimachi-Gakuryo	22	China
Tokyo, Tokyo	Bunkosha	15	China
Tokyo, Tokyo	Koraku-Ryo	20	China
Kamakura, Kanagawa	Kamakura-Ryo	23	S.Pacific
Tsurumaki, Kanagawa	Tsurumaki-Ryo	10	S.Pacific
Inage, Chiba	Inage-Ryo	14	China
Kyoto, Kyoto	Kyoto-Ryo	19	S.Pacific
Kyoto, Kyoto	Kokwa-Ryo	100	China
Kyoto, Kyoto	Yoshida-Ryo	na	na
Kyoto, Kyoto	Ittoku-Ryo	20	China
Kobe, Hyogo	Toa-Ryo	3	China
Yamaguchi, Yamaguchi	Yamaguchi-Gakuryo	8	China
Tottori, Tottori	Tottori-Gakuryo	8	China
Kanazawa, Ishikawa	Kanazawa-Gakuryo	6	China
Sendai, Miyagi	Nakae-Ryo	21	China
Sendai, Miyagi	Shigaku-Ryo	11	China
Norioka, Iwate	Mokogaku-Ryo	15	China
Akita, Akita	Akita, Ryo	6	China
Sapporo, Hokkaido	Sapporo-Ryo	10	China
Total		463	

na - Not available.

Source: International Students Institute. Submitted by Shinro MIYAZAKI, Director, 26 June 1946.



## Appendix B

CONSTITUTION OF THE INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS INSTITUTE  
(Kokusai Gakuyu Kai Kifu Koi)  
(Revised August, 1942)

Source: International Students Institute Bulletin,  
No. 5, 1942)

## Chapter I. Name and Office

## Article 1.

The name of this organization shall be the International Students Institute.

## Article 2.

The Institute shall have its office at No. 1985, 2-chome, Kami-Meguro, Meguro Ku, Tokyo.

## Article 3.

The Institute shall establish branches, if necessary.

## Chapter II. Object and Activities

## Article 4.

The object of the Institute shall be to exchange culture with other nations, to offer proper guidance and assistance to foreign students studying in Japan, and to promote international friendship.

## Article 5.

In order to achieve the objects stated in the preceding Article, the Institute shall engage in the following activities:

- a. The exchange, invitation, and the sending abroad of students; the granting of subsidies or loans to students.
- b. The invitation of foreign students for a tour of inspection in Japan and the sending of Japanese students abroad for that purpose.



FOREIGN STUDENTS IN JAPAN

- c. Giving assistance and advice relevant to matriculation and other matters concerning school and study.
- d. The establishment and management of the International Students House.
- e. The management of the Japanese Language School of the International Students House.
- f. Lecture meetings, educational visits and trips, and other projects intended to enlighten foreign students.
- g. Other activities approved by the directorate.

## Chapter III. Officers

## Article 6.

The Institute shall have one president, not more than two vice-presidents, from 10 to 25 directors (including one chief director, one managing director, and one standing director), and not more than three inspectors.

## Article 7.

The president and vice-presidents shall be elected by the directorate.

## Article 8.

The directors and inspectors shall be appointed by the president.

The chief director, managing director and standing director shall be appointed by the president with the confirmation of the directorate.

## Article 9.

The president shall supervise the Institute.

The vice-president shall assist the president and shall act for him in case he is detained from his duty by accident.

## Article 10.

The directors shall organize the directorate and deal with the affairs of the Institute.

No resolution shall be passed by the directorate unless more than the half of the directors approve it. When the pros and cons are equally divided, the decision shall be made by the chairmen.



## Appendix B

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When a director cannot attend the directors' meeting, he is allowed to ask another director in a written form to use the vote for him.

## Article 11.

The chief director shall represent the Institute.

The chief director shall convene the directorate and shall act as the chairman of it.

When the chief director is detained from his duty by accident, the managing director or standing director shall act for him.

## Article 12.

The managing director and standing director shall help the chief director conduct the regular business of the Institute.

## Article 13.

Inspectors shall inspect the activities, finance and assets of the Institute.

When the inspectors think it necessary, they shall demand a meeting of the directorate.

## Article 14.

The officers shall hold their office for two years and shall be eligible for re-election.

An alternate officer shall hold his office for the remaining term of appointment of his predecessors.

Officers shall remain in their office after the expiration of the term of appointment, and conduct the business of the Institute until their successors are installed.

## Chapter IV. Advisers and Counsellors

## Article 15.

The Institute shall have several advisers.

Advisers shall be appointed by the president.

## Article 16.

The Institute shall have several counsellors.



Counsellors shall be appointed by the president.

The counsellors shall answer questions submitted by the directorate concerning the affairs of the Institute, and give their points of view.

#### Chapter V. Assets and Accounts

##### Article 17.

The assets of the Institute consist of the following:

- a. Assets enumerated in the list attached.
- b. Subsidies and bounties given by the Government.
- c. Contributions.
- d. Income from the assets.
- e. Miscellaneous incomes.

##### Article 18.

The permanent property of the Institute consists of the following:

- a. ¥10,000 of the assets mentioned in (a) of the preceding article.
- b. The moneys or articles contributed to the Institute and designated as permanent property of the Institute.
- c. The moneys or articles that the directorate decided to include with the permanent property.

##### Article 19.

The permanent property of the Institute may not be disposed of. However, when it is necessary to do so in order to attain the object of the Institute, it may be disposed of with the approval of the directorate and the Government office in charge.

Detailed regulations concerning the management of the permanent property of the Institute shall be decided upon by the directorate.

##### Article 20.

The expenses of the Institute shall be defrayed by the following:

- a. Subsidies and bounties from the Government.
- b. Income from the permanent property.



## Appendix B

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- c. Income obtained from the activities of the Institute.
- d. Balance brought over from the last year.
- e. Contributions.
- f. Miscellaneous income.

## Article 21.

The fiscal year of the Institute shall begin on 1 April and end on 31 March of the following year.

## Article 22.

The budget of the Institute shall be approved by the directorate before the commencement of the new fiscal year, and the settled accounts should be submitted to the directorate for approval not later than two months after the end of the fiscal year.

## Article 23.

When necessary, the Institute shall establish a special outlay or running account with the approval of the directorate.

## Chapter VI. Supplementary Law

## Article 24.

Regulations concerning the enforcement of this Constitution shall be made by the directorate.

## Article 25.

No revision shall be made in this Constitution without the consent of two-thirds of the directors, and the approval of the Government office concerned.

(Article 26 listed the staff members of the Institute at the time of its foundation.)



## Appendix C

ORDINANCE OF 1901 GOVERNING  
ADMISSION OF FOREIGN STUDENTS INTO JAPANESE SCHOOLS

Nombusho Ordinance No. 15, 11 November 1901, supersedes Nombusho Ordinance No. 11, 1900, and is still operative. The provisions of the ordinance governing the admission of foreign students into Japanese schools are as follows:

Regulations Governing the Admission of  
Foreigners into Schools Under the Direct  
Control of the Ministry of Education

## Article 1.

A foreigner who desires to take one or more courses at a school under the direct control of the Ministry of Education, without being subject to the regulations of the school, may be admitted only through an introduction from the Foreign Office, Japanese missions abroad, or foreign missions in this country.

## Article 2.

A foreigner who wants to take a course in accordance with the above article shall apply to the president of an Imperial University or to a principal of a school, with the above-mentioned introduction.

## Article 3.

The president of an Imperial University or the principal of a school may admit such an applicant only when the applicant is recognized as qualifying in scholarship; but when the school facilities are limited, such a request may be refused.

## Article 4.

A foreigner who is admitted in accordance with this ordinance and desires to get a certificate of study shall be given one after he passes an examination.

## Article 5.

No examination fee, entrance fee, or school fee may be required from such a student.



## Article 6.

A president of an Imperial University or a principal of a school may prescribe detailed regulations in accordance with this ordinance, when the sanction of the Minister of Education is obtained.

## Additional Regulations

## Article 7.

A foreign student who is already at school at present and not under the control of ordinary school regulations shall be regarded as having been admitted in accordance with this ordinance.

## Article 8.

On and after the day when this ordinance is promulgated, Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 11, 1900, "Regulation Concerning Foreign Students Requested by Foreign Countries," shall be abolished.



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FROM: Seoul  
TO: Secretary of State  
NO: 331, May 8

Office of  
FAR EASTERN AFFAIRS  
MAY 10 1948  
DIRECTION  
Department of State

FROM CG USAFIK TO STATE DEPARTMENT INFO JOINT CHIEFS OF  
STAFF, CINCPAC CITE ZPOL 623.

Reference Seoul POLAD 329, May 7.

Printed press report of Tokyo to effect that Japanese  
Minister of Education in statement to Korea educators  
in Japan said that, if they comply with school regulations,  
obtain charters from Japanese authorities, Koreans can run  
their own schools. He also said that although Japanese  
must be used in some cases, Korean language and history  
could be taught during research hours. He concluded by  
saying Japanese Government has no intention closing all  
Korean schools in Japan.

*XB*  
*895-92*

JACOBS

EHL:CTW

894.42/5-848

MAY 13 1948

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NOTATION OF ACTION TAKEN.



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NORTHWEST ASIAN AFFAIRS

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DEPARTMENT OF STATE  
Control 2801

Rec'd May 10, 1948  
8:49 a.m.

Office of  
FAR EASTERN AFFAIRS  
MAY 10 1948  
DIRECTOR  
Department of State

FROM: Seoul  
TO: Secretary of State  
NO: 338, May 10

FROM CG USAFIK TO STATE DEPT INFO JOINT CHIEFS OF STAFF,  
CINCPAC CITE ZPOL 634 HODGE SENDS FOR JACOBS

Reference Seoul POLADS 331, May 8, it has just come to my attention that Syngman on April 29 issued statement concerning Korean riots in Japan of which there is quoted below translation thereof as it appeared in May 1 issue of DONG A ILBO (extreme rightist):

"We are obliged to be quite concerned over problems of North Korean sufferers and Koreans in Japan and China who are oppressed without any protection because we have no government or power of press. Therefore we must do our utmost to establish our government as soon as possible. Japanese have made false propaganda concerning Koreans in order that people of world may misunderstand Koreans as vicious elements.

Forecasting that we will have our government through general election in very near future, Japanese Government created troubles in order to drive Koreans out of Japan before we can establish our government. It makes us resentful to think that Japanese Government ordered closure Korean schools by saying that they are teaching Communistic education. This shows Japanese people's intention to deceive world. If they are going to close down all Communistic schools they must close down Japanese schools first of all. We must establish our government as soon as possible to defend our people and territory from Japanese people."

JACOBS

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THE FOREIGN SERVICE  
OF THE  
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

*File*

United States Political Adviser  
for Japan

*DCR*

Tokyo, May 11, 1948

No. 274

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(ADD)

MAY 20 1948

DEPARTMENT OF STATE

894.42/5-1148

SUBJECT: Japanese Educational Institutions with Religious  
Affiliations.

*AR 894.404*

The Acting Political Adviser has the honor to enclose two  
copies of a special report prepared by the Civil Information and  
Education Section, Analysis and Research Division, General Head-  
quarters, Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers, entitled,  
"Japanese Educational Institutions with Religious Affiliations"  
No. AR-299-E-A-25 dated February 20, 1948. No additional copies  
are available.

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Enclosures:  
2 copies of "Japanese  
Educational Institutions  
with Religious Affiliations".

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GENERAL HEADQUARTERS  
SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS  
Civil Information and Education Section  
Analysis and Research Division

JAPANESE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS  
WITH  
RELIGIOUS AFFILIATIONS

A Special Report Prepared by  
Education Research

AR-299-E-A-25



GENERAL HEADQUARTERS  
SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS  
Civil Information and Education Section  
Analysis and Research Division

JAPANESE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS  
WITH  
RELIGIOUS AFFILIATIONS

A Special Report Prepared by  
Education Research

20 February 1948



GENERAL HEADQUARTERS  
SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS  
Civil Information and Education Section  
Analysis and Research Division

SPECIAL REPORT

SERIAL NUMBER AR-299-E-A-25  
TITLE Japanese Educational Institutions with Religious Affiliations  
SUBJECT Analysis and quantitative evaluation of religious educational insti  
PREPARED BY Education Research DATES OF STUDY

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Table 2. Summary of Educational Institutions Affiliated with Religious Organizati  
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Table 4. Number of Educational Institutions Affiliated with Religious Organizatio  
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GENERAL HEADQUARTERS  
 SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS  
 Civil Information and Education Section  
 Analysis and Research Division

SPECIAL REPORT

20 February 1948

9-1-25

These Educational Institutions with Religious Affiliations

is and quantitative evaluation of religious educational institutions in Japan

tion Research

DATES OF STUDY 21 May 1947 - 20 August 1947

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## INTRODUCTION

## PURPOSE

This report has been prepared in order to make available reliable statistical data concerning Japanese educational institutions with religious affiliations. Information regarding the location, date of foundation, number of students, number of teachers, and religious affiliation is presented for 407 educational institutions ranging from kindergartens to universities. Data regarding number of students and teachers are for the fall term of the 1947-48 school year.

## SOURCE

This report is based upon pamphlets issued by the Japanese Ministry of Education (Mombusho); statistical compilations made by religious bodies; statistical reports on all Japanese educational institutions, by prefecture, prepared by the Education Research Unit, CIE, SCAP; and telegrams and letters from administrative officials of individual institutions, in response to requests for information.

## EVALUATION OF DATA

Approximately 80 percent of Japanese educational institutions with religious affiliations, excepting elementary schools and kindergartens, have been included in this report. A higher percentage could not be achieved because of a lack of comprehensive source material. The information listed is considered accurate and reliable. A Japanese researcher has been in con-

stant liaison with the individual institutions, check-

In the compilation of Mombusho and religious bodies schools in this category, those appearing in the prefecture,<sup>2</sup> compiled in were obtained. These reports were obtained for the month of September 1946. In some cases, tries for schools which and in others, schools appear in the statistical current status of the schools before they were included.

There is a general and Shinto elementary schools and elementary schools in their treatment in the complete. This dearth of original compilers of the source material did not sufficient importance to few concerning which included in this roster.

- 
1. See Bibliography.
  2. Statistical Reports of Prefectural Offices to the State



## INTRODUCTION

stant liaison with the Mombusho, religious bodies, and individual institutions, checking the facts presented.

prepared in order to make available concerning Japanese educational institutions. Information regarding affiliation, number of students, number of teachers and teachers are for the fall year.

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ment of Japanese educational institutions, excepting elementary schools included in this report. A higher degree of information listed is considered by a Japanese researcher has been in con-

In the compilation of the roster, lists compiled by the Mombusho and religious bodies<sup>1</sup> were used to obtain the names of schools in this category, and these names were checked against those appearing in the statistical reports of all schools, by prefecture,<sup>2</sup> compiled in January 1947, whence most of the data were obtained. These reports list information as of 30 November 1946. In some cases the statistical reports contained entries for schools which were not included in the previous lists and in others, schools mentioned in the earlier lists did not appear in the statistical reports. In the latter instance, the current status of the schools was checked with the Mombusho before they were included in this survey.

There is a general lack of information concerning Buddhist and Shinto elementary schools and kindergartens and Christian elementary schools in the aforementioned lists, and therefore their treatment in this survey can be considered in no wise complete. This dearth may be attributed to the fact that the original compilers of the lists and surveys which were used as source material did not consider institutions of this type of sufficient importance to warrant their inclusion. However, the few concerning which information was available have been listed in this roster.

- 
1. See Bibliography.
  2. Statistical Reports of all Schools Submitted by Prefectural Offices to the Statistics Section, Mombusho, Jan. 1947.



## EXPLANATORY NOTES

For the purposes of this survey, "educational institutions with religious affiliations" has been interpreted to include: 1) schools controlled by religious organizations; 2) schools financed by religious organizations; 3) schools which train students to become religious leaders; 4) schools with a religious seminary attached; 5) schools whose curricula devote special attention to religious subject matter. It should be noted that having "religious affiliations" does not mean that an institution confines its enrollment to members of any religion, creed, or sect--indeed, only a very small percentage of the students of Christian schools are Christians.

In organizing Table 1, schools have been grouped under the three main headings of higher institutions, secondary institutions, and elementary institutions. Higher institutions are subdivided into universities and colleges. Secondary institutions are subdivided into boys' middle schools, girls' high schools, vocational schools, and miscellaneous schools. The category, "miscellaneous schools," comprises those institutions which do not fall into any of the ordinary categories of schools in the Japanese educational system. In some cases schools giving education almost identical to that offered in girls' high schools, boys' middle schools, etc., are classified as miscellaneous schools for failure to meet certain standards prescribed by the Ministry of Education. Elementary institutions are subdivided into elementary schools and kindergartens. As noted under "Evaluation of Data," the data for elementary institutions does not represent nearly as complete a coverage of schools as does the data for higher and secondary institutions.

The date of foundation, as used in these tables, indicates the date of the founding of the institution under its present title, and may be considerably later than the date of original establishment of the institution. The number of students en-

rolled is for the fall of 1947, these figures were reported variously. The number of teachers engaged in teaching duties. Those employed on a full time basis during the day and as part time teachers at night.

The breakdown for Protestant churches is indicated by the fact that all Protestant churches of the Episcopal Church, the Methodist Church, and the New Testament Church of Japan (New Testament Church of Christ in Japan) (Nippon Kyokai) were active in 1941. (The Osaka diocese of the Methodist Church of individual churches joined the Methodist Church in 1942. Most of them rejoined the Methodist Church after the war.) Subsequent to the war, several small branches of the Salvation Army, several small branches of the Baptist Church, and a few churches of the Baptist Church drew from the Church of Christ in Japan. Otherwise the Church of Christ in Japan remained intact. Consequently, the breakdown of churches other than those specifically mentioned is by traditional affiliation and not by denomination which is the Church of Christ in Japan. Churches established during the war and having no affiliation with the Church of Christ in Japan as of 1947.

In translating the Japanese word gakuin appears there are several examples, Kanto Institute Women's Middle School, Kanto Institute English Middle School, the fact that the word gakuin has been used in this report as "institute" (jogakuin) since it commonly designated a grade school. There are cases, however, in which the name of a single institution



JAPANESE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS WITH RELIGIOUS AFFILIATIONS

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"educational institutions been interpreted to include: 1) organizations; 2) schools; 3) schools which train students; 4) schools with a religious curriculum devote special attention. It should be noted that this does not mean that an institution of any religion, creed, or denomination represents the percentage of the students

have been grouped under the categories of primary institutions, secondary institutions, and tertiary institutions. Higher institutions are colleges, secondary institutions are middle schools, girls' high schools, and miscellaneous schools. The latter comprises those institutions which do not fit into any of the ordinary categories of schools. In some cases schools given special attention that offered in girls' high schools are classified as miscellaneous. Elementary institutions are primary schools and kindergartens. As noted above, the coverage for elementary institutions is not a coverage of schools as such but of primary institutions.

in these tables, indicates the date of institution under its present name rather than the date of original institution. The number of students en-

rolled is for the fall of 1947, but the actual dates for which these figures were reported varied from institution to institution. The number of teachers includes only persons actually engaged in teaching duties. However, in some cases, teachers employed on a full time basis during the day are also employed as part time teachers at night.

The breakdown for Protestant schools by sect is complicated by the fact that all Protestant churches, with the exceptions of the Episcopal Church, the Seventh Day Adventist Church, and the New Testament Church of Jesus Christ, were united into the Church of Christ in Japan (Nippon Kirisuto Kyodan) in June 1941. (The Osaka diocese of the Episcopal Church and a number of individual churches joined the Church of Christ in Japan in 1942. Most of them rejoined the Episcopal Church at the end of the war.) Subsequent to the surrender of Japan in 1945, the Salvation Army, several small branches of the Holiness Church, and a few churches of the Baptist and Presbyterian faiths withdrew from the Church of Christ in Japan and became independent denominations. Otherwise the Church of Christ in Japan remains intact. Consequently, the breakdown by sect in the case of churches other than those specified above indicates merely the traditional affiliation and not the actual present affiliation, which is the Church of Christ in Japan. Two schools were established during the war and have been listed directly under the Church of Christ in Japan as the affiliated Church.

In translating the institutional names in which the Japanese word gakuin appears there is an apparent redundancy; for example, Kanto Institute Women's College, Kanto Institute Middle School, Kanto Institute English School. This arises from the fact that the word gakuin has consistently been translated in this report as "institute" (jogakuin as "women's institute"); since it commonly designated a group of affiliated institutions. There are cases, however, in which the word gakuin is used as the name of a single institution, in which case it also might



## INTRODUCTION

## PURPOSE

This report has been prepared in order to make available reliable statistical data concerning Japanese educational institutions with religious affiliations. Information regarding the location, date of foundation, number of students, number of teachers, and religious affiliation is presented for 407 educational institutions ranging from kindergartens to universities. Data regarding number of students and teachers are for the fall term of the 1947-48 school year.

## SOURCE

This report is based upon pamphlets issued by the Japanese Ministry of Education (Monbusho); statistical compilations made by religious bodies; statistical reports on all Japanese educational institutions, by prefecture, prepared by the Education Research Unit, CIE, SCAP; and telegrams and letters from administrative officials of individual institutions, in response to requests for information.

## EVALUATION OF DATA

Approximately 80 percent of Japanese educational institutions with religious affiliations, excepting elementary schools and kindergartens, have been included in this report. A higher percentage could not be achieved because of a lack of comprehensive source material. The information listed is considered accurate and reliable. A Japanese researcher has been in con-

stant liaison with the Monbusho dual institutions, checking

In the compilation of Monbusho and religious bodies schools in this category, those appearing in the statistical reports of the prefecture,<sup>2</sup> compiled in January 1946, were obtained. These reports were obtained. In some cases the reports were for schools which were not included in the current status of the schools before they were included in the

There is a general lack of information concerning Buddhist and Shinto elementary schools and elementary schools in the statistical reports. Their treatment in this report is not complete. This dearth may be due to the fact that the original compilers of the list of source material did not consider it of sufficient importance to warrant inclusion of a few concerning which information was available in this roster.

- 
1. See Bibliography.
  2. Statistical Reports of Prefectural Offices to the Statistician.



## INTRODUCTION

prepared in order to make available concerning Japanese educational institutions. Information regarding location, number of students, number of teachers and teachers are for the fall year.

in pamphlets issued by the Japanese (Mombusho); statistical compilations made by prefecture, prepared by the Education Office, and telegrams and letters from administrative institutions, in response to

of Japanese educational institutions, excepting elementary schools included in this report. A higher degree of information listed is considered as a Japanese researcher has been in con-

stant liaison with the Mombusho, religious bodies, and individual institutions, checking the facts presented.

In the compilation of the roster, lists compiled by the Mombusho and religious bodies<sup>1</sup> were used to obtain the names of schools in this category, and these names were checked against those appearing in the statistical reports of all schools, by prefecture,<sup>2</sup> compiled in January 1947, whence most of the data were obtained. These reports list information as of 30 November 1946. In some cases the statistical reports contained entries for schools which were not included in the previous lists and in others, schools mentioned in the earlier lists did not appear in the statistical reports. In the latter instance, the current status of the schools was checked with the Mombusho before they were included in this survey.

There is a general lack of information concerning Buddhist and Shinto elementary schools and kindergartens and Christian elementary schools in the aforementioned lists, and therefore their treatment in this survey can be considered in no wise complete. This dearth may be attributed to the fact that the original compilers of the lists and surveys which were used as source material did not consider institutions of this type of sufficient importance to warrant their inclusion. However, the few concerning which information was available have been listed in this roster.

- 
1. See Bibliography.
  2. Statistical Reports of all Schools Submitted by Prefectural Offices to the Statistics Section, Mombusho, Jan. 1947.



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JAPANESE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS WITH RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION

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be translated correctly as "seminary" or "academy."

In the tables listing institutions by geographical location, Honshu, for purposes of convenience, arbitrarily has been divided into three areas. Southern Honshu comprises the Kinki and Chugoku Districts, including the provinces of Hiroshima; Hyogo, Mie, Nara, Okayama, Shiga, Shimane, Tottori, Wakayama,

Yamaguchi, and the municipalities of Honshu comprises the Chugoku provinces of Aichi, Chiba, Iwate, Kanagawa, Nagano, Niigata, Toyama, Yamanashi, and Tohoku Districts comprises the Tohoku Districts of Aomori, Fukushima, Iwate,



JAPANESE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS WITH RELIGIOUS AFFILIATIONS

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seminary" or "academy."

Institutions by geographical location and convenience, arbitrarily has been divided into three regions. Southern Honshu comprises the Kinki region, including the provinces of Hiroshima, Shiga, Shimane, Tottori, Wakayama,

Yamaguchi, and the municipalities of Kyoto and Osaka. Central Honshu comprises the Chubu and Kanto Districts, including the provinces of Aichi, Chiba, Fukui, Gifu, Gunma, Ibaragi, Ishikawa, Kanagawa, Nagano, Niigata, Saitama, Shizuoka, Tochigi, Toyama, Yamanashi, and Tokyo Metropolis. Northern Honshu comprises the Tohoku District, including the provinces of Akita, Aomori, Fukushima, Iwate, Miyagi, and Yamagata.



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TABLE 1. ROSTER OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS AFFILIATED WITH RELIGIOUS ORGANI

Baptist Institutions	Address	Date of Present Foundation	Students		
			Male	Female	Total
<b>HIGHER INSTITUTIONS</b>					
<u>Colleges</u>					
Kanto Gakuin Joshi Semmon Gakko (Kanto Institute Women's College)	Minami-ku, Yokohama-shi, Kanagawa-ken	Apr 1946	0	127	127
Seinan Gakuin Semmon Gakko (South- western Institute College)	Nishijin-machi, Fukuoka- shi, Fukuoka-ken	Apr 1921	812	0	812
Seinan Jogakuin Semmon Gakko (South- western Institute Women's College)	Itabitsu, Kokura-shi, Fukuoka-ken	Mar 1946	0	128	128
<b>SECONDARY INSTITUTIONS</b>					
<u>Boys' Middle Schools</u>					
Kanto Gakuin Chugakubu (Middle School Division of Kanto District Institute)	Mitsuura-machi, Isogo-ku Yokohama-shi, Kanagawa- ken	Jan 1922	1116	0	1116
Seinan Gakuin Chugakko (Southwestern Institute Middle School)	Nishishimachi, Fukuoka- shi, Fukuoka-ken	Feb 1916	1115	0	1115
<u>Girls' High Schools</u>					
Hinomoto Koto Jogakko (Rising Sun Girls' High School)	Shimotera-machi, Himeji- shi, Hyogo-ken	Feb 1893	0	620	620
Seinan Jogakuin Koto Jogakko (South- western Women's Institute Girls' High School)	Itabitsu, Kokura-shi, Fukuoka-ken	Mar 1922	0	676	676