

of wasteful duplication, and making, where necessary, recommendations capable of being speedily effectuated. If the realization of such recommendations is prevented by a continuance of the present political rivalries, it is suggested that the charter of Kagawa University be withdrawn. Such a step, if it becomes necessary, should awaken all political elements in the Prefecture to the necessity of working together to accomplish a real consolidation among units of the new university.

(2) Tokushima

- (a) There will be one Government university in Tokushima, consisting of faculties of Medicine, Engineering, and Liberal Arts and Education (Gakugei), and composed of the Medical University and what were formerly the College of Engineering, the Normal School, and the Youth Normal School. It will be coeducational and plans to admit somewhat over 700 undergraduates first-year students, besides 240 in the entering class of the Faculty of Medicine. All units of the new university are situated within reasonable proximity in Tokushima City except the former Youth Normal School, which is at Maruto, about twenty miles away.
- (b) The curriculum has been well constructed on the basis of the minimum standards; indeed the Tokushima University representatives submitted a clear, complete, and generally logical outline of proposed plans. The usual requirement of 124 credits for the degree will be in effect, with the Gakugei Faculty responsible for Humanities and Social Science categories of General Education; work in Natural Sciences will be divided with the Faculty of Engineering.
- (c) Courses in General Education are adequate; two irregularities were, however, noted and will presumably be corrected. One of these was the provision of "General Education for Engineering Students" during the second year. Upon questioning, it was stated that this designation was based on the supposition that such courses would be given in the Engineering Faculty and would be elected primarily by its own students. Undersigned took occasion, however, to review briefly the aims and objectives of General Education.
- (d) It was also discovered that course credits in General Education were allocated on the basis of four in a given subject for the first year and

two in the same subject for the second year. This computation was based on the belief that since General Education constituted one-third of the curriculum (40 credits), each course should approximate one-third of the four-year course, or three semesters. An attempt was made to correct this misconception.

- (e) Both two- and four-year courses in teacher education are to be offered, to prepare students for elementary and lower secondary certificates. Vocational teacher training will be available also in agriculture, fisheries, and home making. The Engineering Faculty is prepared to offer curricula in civil, mechanical, and electrical engineering, in chemistry and in pharmacy. The Faculty of Medicine includes no undergraduate work but does offer courses in nursing.
- (f) The former Youth Normal School, 30 miles from the other units of the university, is still not sure how it can best integrate its curriculum with other offerings of the Sakugai Faculty. It apparently lacks the facilities to become a branch, and believes that a move to Tokushima would deprive it of necessary experimental farm lands. Undersigned therefore explained the possibility of a student's so arranging his schedule, in either a two or a four-year course, as to allow time for exclusive concentration for a given period on the work in agriculture, fisheries, or home-making.
- (g) It is planned eventually to locate Tokushima University in the Wadashima Barracks area, about six miles from the city and comprising about 20,000 tsubo of land and a number of still substantial buildings. It was discovered that during the past year, two million yen had been spent in repairing two structures, intended for a dining hall and a dormitory respectively. Though no funds are now available, at the present time, to equip these, it was planned to use them during the coming year for General Education purposes. Undersigned, however, presented the advantages of using present facilities in Tokushima for this purpose, at least in the immediate future, and it is probable that such will be done.
- (h) It was in Tokushima that the only opportunity presented itself to visit all units of the new university. Undersigned was gratified to see the progress in erection of new buildings to replace those

destroyed during the war. It was interesting to note that over the past year the former Youth Normal School secured funds from the Ministry of Education sufficient to erect a dormitory accommodating 65 women, and to repair a recreation hall also used by the town of Maruta.

(3) Kochi

- (a) Two new universities have been recently chartered: Kochi University (National), composed of the former Higher School, Normal School, and Youth Normal School, and offering curricula in Liberal Arts as well as in Teacher Education; and Kochi Women's University, formerly the Prefectural Women's College, which has already enrolled approximately fifty first-year students and which offers training in biology, dietetics, and English literature.
- (b) The new National University plans to open on or about 1 July, 1949, with approximately 300 students. The usual 124 credits will be required for the first degree, and the institution will be fully coeducational. Students in the four-year course will fulfill the requirement in General Education and in Physical Education entirely in the Liberal Arts Faculty (the former Higher School). Subject offerings in these fields were found to be adequate. In addition, the Liberal Arts Faculty will provide major curricula in the following fields: Philosophy, History, Japanese Literature, English Language and Literature, German Language and Literature, and Sociology.
- (c) The Faculty of Education will train teachers for elementary and lower secondary schools, and offer both two and four-year curricula. Vocational teacher training curricula are also provided in General Agriculture, Fisheries, and Forestry, likewise on a two- or four-year basis. The two-year curriculum requirement in General Education will be provided in the Faculty of Education because of lack of space in the Liberal Arts Faculty.
- (d) The units of the National University are presently somewhat widely separated in Kochi City. However, plans are in progress to utilize a 313 acre site at Hishio, about eight miles from the City, the location of a former Air Force station. For reconstruction of buildings at Hishio, a total of ¥ 9,250,000 is reported to have been already received from or allocated by the Ministry of Education, and it is proposed to raise during 1949-50 an additional

¥ 80,000,000 from contributions. Materials for such reconstruction are said to have been allocated. The area is not located in a considerable center of population, but is served by the street car line and the roads are adequate. The former Youth Normal School expects to remove to this site during the coming summer, with the Liberal Arts Faculty (former Higher School) to follow in 1950.

(e) The Faculty of Education, however, has no immediate plans for removal to Nishio, though it expects eventually to do so. It has combined the men's and women's departments of the former Normal School and is situated about four miles from the city at Asakura, site of a former British Army barracks. It has an attached lower secondary school, with an elementary school soon to be added.

(f) Curriculum organization in the Women's University was found to be adequate insofar as meeting minimum requirements is concerned, though there was some misunderstanding about the allocation of academic credits, which undersigned attempted to correct. The President is interested in pending legislation regarding the junior college. He wishes also to unite eventually with the National University at such time as it is possible to do so.

(4) Ehime

(a) Three universities have been recently chartered in Ehime Prefecture: The Ehime Prefectural University of Agriculture; the Matsuyama University of Commerce (Private); and Ehime (National) University, with faculties of Liberal Arts, Education, and Engineering, and made up of the former Higher School, Normal School, Youth Normal School, and Wilham College of Engineering. Separate meetings were held with representatives of each of these universities, as well as a final conference whereat all, as well as Prefectural officials, were present.

(b) Although the Prefectural University of Agriculture was said to have been chartered without conditions, it has voluntarily undertaken to increase its library facilities, strengthen its faculty and erect additional buildings. The institution expects to receive ¥ 24,000,000 this year from the Prefecture and an additional ¥ 10,000,000 from donations. It will begin its first year as a university early in June with 100 students, and plans to offer curricula

in general agriculture, agricultural engineering, and forestry, as well as a four-year vocational education program to prepare teachers for the upper secondary school. Curricula in the vocational field will be available in Animal Husbandry, Food Processing, Agricultural Chemistry and Agricultural Economics. An adequate number and variety of courses in General Education will be offered, and facilities for required physical education are to be increased.

- (c) This institution desires eventual consolidation with Ehime University, a step also advocated by Military Government officials. Although undersigned had been informed that Ehime University was opposed to any such plan, the statement was denied at the meeting subsequently held; accordingly there would be no local obstacle to consolidation.
- (d) The only private higher institution in Shikoku is the Matsuyama University of Commerce, chartered under two conditions: strengthening of the teaching staff in economics, and supplement facilities in the natural sciences. Both are on the way to fulfillment. The new university began classes on 1 May 1948, with the first two years of the new university. Three hundred students entered the first-year class and about 100 in the second year, chiefly former students of the old College of Economics. The institution is coeducational. Complete plans call for nine new buildings, including dormitories, of which three have been completed, besides three faculty residences.
- (e) The institution will require 124 semester credits for a degree; it has provided sufficient courses in General Education as well as in required physical education. Curricula are offered in economics and in business administration, with only twelve credits of required subjects in each, but with a wide variety of other courses to be elected. Since Mr. Ito, the President, had attended the Institute for Higher Education in Tokyo, he is aware of the importance of student guidance, particularly with regard to a curriculum adapted insofar as possible to individual needs.
- (f) The University charges an annual tuition fee of ¥ 13,200. President Ito stated that other private institutions were probably equally high, but disguised the extras by such practices as forced donations, special examination fees, etc.

- (g) The institution is so near units of Ehime University that the question of cooperation naturally arose. A system of exchange of staff and common use of library facilities has long been practiced and President Ito is open to any suggestions leading to more effective use of facilities available to all.
- (h) All units of Ehime (National) University are situated in Matsuyama, except the Engineering Faculty, which is located in Niigama, about 45 miles away. While the charter was granted without any conditions, the authorities admit inadequate facilities in the natural sciences and the need of more buildings, and both deficiencies are being corrected.
- (i) Provision has been made for observing the minimum standards of curriculum organization. The University will begin its first year on or about 1 July, 1949, with approximately 780 entering students for the four-year courses, and 320 planning to pursue the two-year teacher education curriculum. The minimum of 124 semester credits will be required for the degree. While all subjects in the two-year course will be taken in the Faculty of Education, the Faculty of Liberal Arts will provide courses in General Education required for a degree. These are adequate in number and variety. The Liberal Arts Faculty will also offer major curricula in the following fields: Philosophy, History, Japanese Language and Literature, English Language and Literature, German Language and Literature, Law, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, and Biology.
- (j) The Faculty of Education plans to prepare teachers for the elementary and lower secondary levels and for the upper secondary level in vocational agriculture. The Women's Department of the former Normal School, is to be used only for dormitories and all attached schools. All other activities will be concentrated in the former Men's Department.
- (k) The Faculty of Engineering will provide specialized curricula in mechanical and electrical engineering, in mining, and in metallurgy. In view of its distance from the other units of the University and its location in a busy manufacturing center, the Engineering Faculty is interested in developing a junior college in Niigama, as well as evening courses for young people employed during the day. Undersigned stated

that these possibilities should certainly be studied. He expressed the view that ideas could be explored which might be realized singly or in combination. A student might, for example, take his first two years in the Liberal Arts Faculty in Matsuyama, including work in mathematics, physics, and chemistry, and spend his last two years at Niihama; he might spend one year in the Liberal Arts Faculty in Matsuyama, fulfilling all General Education requirements except those in the Natural Science, which, with his technical curriculum, he could take at Niihama in the subsequent three years; development of a junior college in Niihama might provide for the General Education requirement in a four-year engineering course as well as for semi-professional education.

- (1) It is interesting to note that the sum of ¥ 25,000,000 has already been raised by contributions, with an additional ¥ 5,000,000 expected. This total sum will be distributed among the three universities on the basis of need.

e. At Ehime, as well as in Kochi, student strikes against the "University Law" were in progress, though officials stated that only a minority were participating and that no serious consequences were expected. Nevertheless, undersigned explained the present status of the proposed University Bill.

f. In each of the prefectures, undersigned was impressed by the cordial and cooperative attitude existing among officials of the various universities and units thereof. In each place a plan of curriculum organization was presented that had been endorsed by all concerned - an outline that was, on the whole, logical and sound. In Kagawa, to be sure, the organizational plans are open to question, but this appears due to political elements rather than to any fault of the educators.

g. Each national university except Ehime expects to acquire additional land and speedily remove to or build thereon. In each such project, lack of a consistent, soundly developed plan based on a logical system of priorities was evident. Such is perhaps, to be expected in view of the present lack of a system of university finance, the Japanese economic situation and insufficient experience of the various units of the new universities in working together. Each institution has very meagre facilities to implement its present offerings: books and laboratory equipment are urgently required and the faculties need strengthening. What proportion of funds available or to be available should be expended on these immediate necessities as against that to be spent on acquisition of a new site and erection or repair of buildings thereon? Locations suitable for physical consolidation may not be available in another ten years and probably should be acquired at once, but is immediate removal thereto, with all

the expense it entails, equally necessary. It is hoped that the presidents of the new universities will give consideration to such problems.

h. It is believed that there is need for all types of training presently to be offered in the new universities except that a surplus of teachers of vocational agricultural subjects seems likely to develop. Five of the universities offer curricula in this field, largely for the training of teachers in the upper secondary school. Quite aside from the quality of this training, offered mostly by former youth normal schools, it is hard to see how all graduates can be absorbed.

i. It would appear that at least one university should offer training for teachers at the upper secondary level (apart from vocational agriculture). Since agriculture, fisheries and forestry bulk so large in the economy of Shikoku, curricula in these fields should probably be introduced, or strengthened where they now exist. It would certainly seem that prefectural universities should be strengthened and combined with the national universities. It is such questions as these that make highly desirable the revival of the All-Shikoku University Coordination Committee, previously referred to.

j. It remains to express sincere appreciation to the Senior Military Government and Civil Education Officers for cooperating so effectively as to enable undersigned to make full use of time available. The cordial hospitality everywhere extended is also gratefully acknowledged. The energy and enthusiasm of the Japanese are largely due to the stimulus and wise direction of the Military Government officials, and undersigned was everywhere impressed by the fine relationship existing between the two groups. Their cooperation has, in the opinion of the undersigned, laid the foundations of what will some day be an excellent system of higher education in the Shikoku Region.

Thomas H. McGrail
Colleges Officer

F
(Extra)

REORGANIZATION OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS

(CA I Corps Nine-Point ESP Study #7)

12 July 1949

HEADQUARTERS I CORPS
APO 301 (Kyoto, Honshu)

AG 000.8 - BA

SUBJECT: Reorganization of Public Schools (CA I Corps Nine-Point
ESP Study #7)

TO: Commanding General
Eighth Army
APO 343

1. SUBJECT: Reorganization of Public Schools

2. PURPOSE: To evaluate progress made to date in the reorganization of the Public School system in I Corps, and to make recommendations for continuing development in line with SCAP, CIEE, and Ministry of Education policy.

3. SCOPE:

This study evaluates the degree of attainment of equal educational opportunities for all children as guaranteed by the Board of Education Law and implemented by Ministry of Education publications, at each level of the 6-3-3 ladder. A brief survey is made of primary schools which are most adaptable to change and have fewest problems remaining. Lower and upper-secondary schools are considered in relationship to total needs, facilities, and plans. Steps already taken in reorganization, consolidation, districting, development of comprehensive schools, elective subjects, and a guidance program are reviewed. Each of these areas of study is evaluated in terms of its import to school reorganization and to the economic stabilization program.

4. Primary Schools:

Basic reorganization of the primary schools throughout I Corps is almost complete. In comparison with the secondary schools, primary schools remain relatively unchanged. Under the old Japanese system, 6 years of schooling was compulsory while many children were allowed to remain for 2 additional years of high-primary education which was in no way distinguished in materials and methods from the first 6 years. Those pupils who were able to pass examinations at the end of the 6th grade entered the middle school, the girl's high school, or a specialized vocational school. To the new aims and methods, sponsored by the occupation authorities in the 6-3-3 system, primary schools were adaptable and the teachers were ready for immediate help in curriculum.

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methods, in-service training, and all-round responsibility for pupil growth. Whenever prefectures and local communities utilized parts of primary-school buildings for lower-secondary schools, the primary buildings became overcrowded and little differentiation between levels of instruction has been observed.

Primary schools are slowly regaining their independence in most prefectures as transfers to independent lower-secondary schools are effected. Many of these transfers in the Tokai-Hokuriku and Kinki Regions came about through consolidation of primary schools.

As new buildings for the lower-secondary schools become available by transferring buildings from old middle schools, by use of former primary buildings, and by new construction, the number of primary schools which are handicapped for space because of attached lower-secondary schools has decreased. By 1950 most primary schools, except in mountainous areas, will be free of lower-secondary schools.

Primary schools in Tokai-Hokuriku Region now have one teacher to 31.9 pupils, a drop from 1 to 35 in 1948. Shikoku Region has 1 to 36.1 pupils, somewhat higher than the desired average.

5. Secondary Schools:

Handbooks prepared by SCAP and Ministry of Education Committees, following provisions of the various school laws and ordinances, have suggested ways to approach equal educational opportunity for all children. This opportunity was not available when only certain children were allowed in the old middle-grade school, in many ways a school of favoritism. The inauguration of 6-3-3 system, with the lower-secondary years required of all children as of April 1949, should have seen universal transfer of buildings, teachers, principals, and equipment from the old middle-grade schools to the lower-secondary schools. However, this transfer was effected only when CA officers insisted that the law be carried out. In 1947, when only one year of the lower-secondary school was required, most primary schools included that grade in their buildings. In many places the same thing happened in 1948 when the second year was required, but in some prefectures 2 to 4 rooms were built with or near primary schools to care for these additional required years. Few prefectures or towns deemed it necessary to make a thorough survey of rooms, teachers, and equipment. Instead, when upper-secondary schools were established in April 1948, pressure groups attempted to course all old middle-grade schools to become upper-secondary schools -- an achievement quite possible under the law and Ministry of Education directives. Because certain Japanese and American took

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leadership in information programs and insisted that the 85 to 90% of the children who would never be in middle schools were the important ones, some prefectures actually did transfer up to half of the middle-grade schools to lower-secondary schools. In a few of these places, notably Kyoto city, there was a subtle promise by Japanese politicians that all old middle-school buildings would be used for the upper-secondary schools by 1950. They felt that even though the old middle-grade school included grades 7 to 11 it would be contaminated were it not used a school for the 10th to 12th grades and attendance limited.

Most education officers in I Corps started work by January 1948 on surveys, information campaigns, and preliminary assignments of buildings to lower-or-upper-secondary schools according to needs. The surveys included study of maps, of blue prints, of population, and of school attendants. This study, made jointly by Japanese and Americans with help from region and Corps officers, led to intelligent re-evaluation and re-assignment of buildings for new purposes. Some primary schools, having had 2 years of higher primary work, were not being used to their capacity and middle-grade schools, which have been limited in enrollments by Ministry of Education order, have seldom, been used to capacity even with 5 years of work. As a result, most prefectures which took the new system seriously found that from 40% to 60% of the middle-school buildings could easily be transferred to the lower-secondary schools, and that considerable numbers of primary schools could be transferred in those areas where consolidation of primary pupils in fewer buildings would not work hardships on the younger children. Far less new building was found essential than original plans would have indicated. But building continued, even where not essential, because the Ministry was subsidizing the program to the extent of half the bill and it was a way to get something for little.

In Tokai-Hokuriku Region 45% of middle-grade schools have been transferred to the lower-secondary schools. The buildings and rooms left to the upper-secondary schools are sufficient to care for all upper-secondary pupils without double shift or other inconveniences. 48 principals and 1078 teachers were shifted in April 1948 and during the year to the lower-secondary schools. More were shifted in April 1949 with the opening of the new school year.

The lower-secondary schools in this region were given a distinct boost by reorganization of the old secondary school. 81,630 lower-secondary pupils are now using old middle-school buildings. The present estimated value of buildings released to lower-secondary use is about a billion Yen. Some of the buildings could not be duplicated at any cost today as materials used such as ferro-concrete are unavailable. This amount represents a net saving to Japan of over a billion Yen and such building

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material. It is a most important consideration under present economic conditions.

6. Lower-secondary Schools:

Hatsugaku #63, the Ministry of Education Handbook for the Preparation and Execution of the New School System, was published on February 17, 1947. It recommended thorough-going reorganization at all levels and establishment of Temporary Conference Groups or citizens' committees for local evaluation of the school system and recommendation of most effective ways or reorganization. These groups were advisory and could not make final decisions. Such decisions were left to the Governor. It recommended building transfers among the 6-3-3 levels according to need, and set patterns for change. Hatsugaku 534, the Handbook on Preparatory Steps for the Reorganization of the Upper-Secondary Schools, was published 27 December 1947, and completed the pattern by establishing standards for the upper-secondary schools. It also showed numerical reasons for transfer of many buildings and teachers to the lower-secondary schools so there would be equality between equal partners in the school system and not dominance by the highest. In Kinki region, Fukui (later transferred to Tokai-Hokuriku), Shiga, and Wakayama made necessary surveys and transferred many buildings to lower-secondary schools for the year opening April 1948.

Kyoto city transferred 11 of 21 old middle-grade buildings to lower-secondary schools to care for the huge number of 8th graders in compulsory education. By June, Nara felt the need to follow suit because of the inadequacy of lower-secondary space in primary schools, and in September transferred many buildings to the lower-secondary schools on an equitable basis. Osaka, Hyogo, and Kyoto prefectures were slightly slower in total transfers but were going step by step in the most equitable organization of lower-secondary schools.

Kyushu region was parallel, with Miyazaki, Oita, and Kumamoto taking the lead in redesignation of teachers and buildings. Miyazaki and Oita acted in a manner similar to Kinki prefectures. Kumamoto established for that year mostly 6-year secondary-schools under one principal, but has found divided schools more to their liking. These are now in process of transformation. Kagoshima, with over one hundred excellent youth-school buildings, had a ready-made set of buildings for lower-secondary schools and has (unfortunately for real growth) felt no pressure for transfer of middle-grade buildings. Nagasaki made its change more gradually, but by September had transferred some schools to lower-secondary and organized upper-secondary schools on a district basis.

Shikoku region expects to complete its 6-3-3 system by 1952 with

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a good balance between lower and upper-secondary schools. They feel that by that time any boy or girl should be able to get an adequate 12 years of education according to his or her needs and the needs of the community. The system of compulsory education is complete and all 9 years of education are available to young people who must have it. Reorganization of the lower-secondary schools through consolidation is necessary, and the quality of opportunity varies considerably. In Shikoku Region an average of 34% of lower-secondary schools are in their own buildings. Only a small part of these have their own playground and facilities, for they are separate buildings adjacent to primary schools. This sharing is against established policy, elsewhere, for separate schools. When sharing will stop is hard to tell because correction is largely a local matter. Forced contribution for building lower-secondary schools is working hardships on people in Shikoku as well as in other regions. Few old middle-grade schools have been turned over to lower-secondary schools in Shikoku. That there is no intention to do so is evident. Civil Affairs Officers feel that vigorous efforts almost amounting to orders might produce some turn-over, but "The result would not justify the possible resulting resentment." It is possible that 4 or 5 schools in Shikoku may be turned over to lower secondary schools, far too few for any equitable sharing or for strengthening lower schools. Chugoku prefectures have transferred 41 old middle-grade buildings to lower schools, 27 in Hiroshima prefecture.

In Tokai-Hokuriku region lower-secondary reorganization has of necessity paralleled upper-secondary changes. 118 buildings from the old middle-grade schools went to the lower-secondary schools. This transfer did a great deal to make the Japanese conscious of the fact that the lower-secondary is a secondary school and not some sort of continuation of elementary school. The fact that old middle-grade school buildings were large and could take in pupils from many smaller lower-secondary schools gave great impetus to the consolidation program. In some cases these two items were the most significant long-range results of lower-secondary schools' receiving facilities from old middle schools. Until the people realized that the lower-secondary is a real secondary school, and until they realized that small 1-or 2-room, so called secondary schools crowded into primary buildings were not suitable for secondary education, the lower-secondary program could have no middle schools, the development during the last year of lower-secondary schools in Tokai-Hokuriku has been remarkable.

The understanding in Tokai-Hokuriku region that the lower-secondary school is not a mere formal extension of primary education has been seen in the consolidation of primary buildings to give separate buildings to lower-secondary schools. In some places, pupils from 3 or 4 primary schools were concentrated in 2 or 3 buildings, leaving one free for lower-secondary.

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As the realization of the true meaning of lower-secondary education spread, the consolidation program following these examples gathered momentum. This has led to a large number of consolidations and to the development of coherent buildings plans by prefectural School Boards. The people have been sold on this plan by a publicity program which includes pamphlets, posters, and radio and stage plays which dramatize the problems of lower-secondary education.

If the School Board plan in Tokai-Hokuriku remains in force, the number of consolidated schools completed by April 1950 will be 474. This will mean an average overall reduction in number of lower-secondary schools from 1390 in April 1948, to 684 in 1950. This indicates real progress as the number of pupils is estimated at 600,000 in 1950 in comparison to the 472,000 in April 1948. Thus, more pupils are being educated in fewer but better schools. There is already a large net gain in lower-secondary schools of sufficient size to give good secondary education. In regions where the terrain is reasonably level, most lower-secondary schools will be in consolidated buildings by 1950. In mountainous regions the problem is more difficult to solve. In one prefecture a partial solution has been effected by building dormitories at the first school on the plain below the mountains, where the students can remain during winter weather. In Japan Sea prefectures summer vacations are replaced by winter vacations and children are urged to commute to schools on the plains for special summer sessions.

Teacher shortage has been relieved by transfer of teachers to the lower-secondary schools. Tokai-Hokuriku now has a ratio of 1 teacher to each 29.8 pupils in the lower secondary schools, almost at the desirable national average. In Shikoku, the ratio is 1 to 25.2. In Tokai-Hokuriku, 50.4% of lower-secondary schools are in their own buildings and that percentage is rapidly rising. There, perhaps, more than in any other region, with the possible exception of Kinki, where 44% are independently housed, the lower-secondary schools can claim to be an equal partner in secondary education.

7. Upper-Secondary Schools:

An equality of educational opportunity remains the basic consideration at the upper-secondary level. The old middle-grade school which made no pretense at equality has been out of existence in most parts of I Corps for one year. The fear of the people that reduction in number of upper-secondary schools from the number of old middle-grade schools would cause less opportunity has been unwarranted. In Shiga, for example, where 18 upper-secondary schools were established in 1948, replacing 28 old middle-grade schools, this number was found too large for optimum operation. 4 of these schools were made 9th-grade schools in September and starting this

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April, 9 districted comprehensive schools using 14 buildings care for twelfth graders plus 15% more pupils at 10th and 11th-grade levels than have ever before gone to school in Shiga prefecture. Similar patterns are developing throughout much of I Corps. Most prefectures have found it possible even with greatly reduced numbers of schools to permit all applicants to enter the upper-secondary schools. As short a time as three months ago, officials were fearful that no graduates of lower-secondary schools could be admitted because of crowding.

Basic considerations in reorganizations that have taken place throughout the last 15 months have been fourfold: (a) redesignation of former middle, girls, and vocational schools with first consideration given to the lower-secondary school without crippling upper-secondary schools; (b) upper-secondary schools should offer equal education to all boys and girls according to the needs of the boys and girls and the community; (c) upper-secondary schools should be districted so that boys and girls can have the courses they need as near their place of residence as possible, and not in the wandering, confusing manner of the old system where entrance was by examination only; (d) most upper-secondary schools should be comprehensive in course offerings to serve the needs demonstrated by pupils and community. Only in those major cities where districts might include several varieties of schools, would a comprehensive curriculum not be essential, and even there it might be desirable.

Redesignation of the middle-grade schools was essential since only 2 of the earlier 5 grades continued attending if the schools became upper-secondary schools. Logic would have suggested that only 40% of capacity become upper-secondary schools with 60% continuing to serve their former 7th to 9th-grade pupils. Equality of opportunity is axiomatic and is required by school law. Districting is also required by law. A comprehensive curriculum and co-education are strongly recommended, both for economic reasons, the former to help the schools become large enough to serve demonstrated needs, and the latter to offer girls something better than the 4th-rate citizenship they were prepared for under the old system.

In Shikoku the most unsatisfactory situation in the 6-3-3 system is the condition of the upper-secondary schools. The Japanese have persistently ignored this problem, or pushed it aside, because it was too hot and touchy since the publication of Hatsugaku 534 and 63. Since January 1949, however there has been interest, activity, and planning with this problem in the forefront of all education problems. Interest has not been limited to Board of Education and Secretariat but has included many newspaper articles and editorials and meetings on the subject. All Shikoku Boards of Education now have some plans for completion of reorganization. By 1 April 1949 a start has been made. Districting may be

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accomplished in 1949, on paper. Co-education as a general policy will start on 1949 and be complete in 1951. Comprehensive schools will begin in 1949 and be complete in 1951. There is opposition to reorganization of the upper-secondary schools. Some Americans on Shikoku think this is mostly sentiment. Others think it much more. But Japanese educators and other people are accepting reorganization as inevitable, if somewhat delayed.

The time schedule as developed by officials in Shikoku is as follows:

- 1 April 1949: Plans made in all prefectures.
Districting--at least on paper--in Tokushima, Ehime, and Kagawa.
Coeducation in most primary schools, in a bit more than half of the lower-secondary schools, and in the first year of the upper-secondary schools. (Not satisfactory, however.)
A few scattered upper-secondary schools comprehensive.
- Fall 1949 : Districting actually completed, i.e., districts set up on paper in all prefectures.
A majority of upper-secondary schools consolidated on the comprehensive-school principle.
- Early 1950 : Most lower-secondary schools in separate buildings--perhaps 80%-90%.
Second year of upper-secondary school coeducational (?)
Comprehensive upper-secondary education available to most boys and girls.
Actual districting almost completed--i.e., boys and girls attending upper-secondary schools by districts.
- 1951 : Third years of upper secondary school coeducational (?)
Actual districting completed.
Most phases of reorganization completed.
Comprehensive upper-secondary education probably available to all boys and girls.
- April 1952 : Probable completion of all phases of reorganization.

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In Tokai-Hokuriku Region, recommendations similar to those of Shikoku were made. Following the reorganization directives from the Ministry these recommendations have been very completely adopted. All upper-secondary schools, following the large transfer of buildings and teachers to lower-secondary schools, have become co-educational for all years. This means that equal education for boys and girls has been achieved. Co-education is actual co-education with boys and girls in the same classes. A year ago Tokai deemed this step impossible except in a few schools. A year-by-year progression starting with the 9th grade was attempted. However, such progression was found more difficult than total break with tradition and organization according to demonstrated worth.

All Tokai upper-secondary schools are districted for all years. The favorite schools idea is finished in the region. The schools are not yet equal, but every effort has been made to bring about equality. These steps have been taken: (a) Principals were shifted; principals of the former favorite schools went to poorer schools and vice versa; principals were shifted to lower-secondary and vice versa; principals became teachers and vice versa. (b) Teachers were shifted. The concentration of experienced teachers in certain schools was ended by wholesale shifting to poorer schools and vice versa. (c) Equalization funds were allotted to poor schools in order to build up teacher staff and equipment on hand was distributed as fairly as possible to all schools.

Most Tokai upper-secondary schools are now offering 3 or more courses of study (except for a very few specialized technical schools in cities). The "superior" general type of college-preparatory schools has disappeared and in its place are schools offering courses needed by the people of the community based on community survey. Vocational-course offerings, both major and elective, have been substantially increased.

These changes have effected a very material reduction in the dictatorial position of the old middle school. The present upper-secondary school is more nearly an equal partner with the other 2 divisions on the 6-3-3 ladder. April 1949 saw a significant increase in upper-secondary school enrollment. This increase may be due to obtuse factors, but at least some parents have said these changes have long been needed and bring upper-secondary education within reach of more people.

These steps in reorganization toward consolidation, comprehensive curricula, districting, and co-education have been taken effectively through most of I Corps. In Chugoku only Okayama is waiting for major reorganization next September. Shikoku is the reactionary area. Generally, only planning in these items has been accomplished.

The teacher-pupil ratio at the upper-secondary level varies considerably. Last year many schools were found to have less than 10 pupils

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per teacher and officials were unwilling to transfer teachers because of union and prestige pressure. At present, Shikoku region averages one teacher to 15.4 pupils and Tokai averages 23.5 pupils, almost at the nationally-desired average. In part-time schools Shikoku's average is 9.2 pupils, a figure that makes part-time education exceedingly expensive under present circumstances. Upper-secondary schools average 358 pupils and branch schools 97 pupils in Shikoku. Both are small for best work. Upper-secondary buildings could house 117,300 pupils if used to capacity of regular classrooms, but actually have only 47,006 pupils. Over half of the rooms and buildings could well be transferred to lower-secondary schools which are now inadequately housed. Economic stability would expect transfer rather than construction.

8. Guidance:

Japanese educators, like American, are coming to believe that education's first function is guidance in every phase, curricular or methodological. The primary schools have taken on this function readily because it so well fits their organization and their new materials of education. Lower-secondary schools have done less through lack of understanding. Re-training courses for all teachers in the school and specialized courses for guidance directors and vocational teachers can bring rapid understanding. Developing guidance programs at the lower-secondary level should prepare those pupils who will terminate after the 9th grade for normal social relations, intellectual improvement, and vocational independence. These 3 types of guidance should enable the pupil to decide intelligently whether he should continue to upper-secondary school and what kinds of work he may want to choose. His choice should be free and made from understandings gained through wise guidance procedures in the lower-secondary schools. At the upper-secondary level guidance should continue in choice of major and elective courses, and in case of transfer from major to major if a student finds himself in work for which he is unsuited. Such transfer has never been possible in Japan without losing at least one year's study. The guidance should continue after school as follow-up of school work and as basis for ongoing changes in the total school program.

Most regions within I Corps have had guidance conferences and have done considerable work with guidance for in-service training of teachers. Osaka established a series of conferences and a Japanese-American Committee on approaches to guidance. A homeroom system, a dean system, and procedures for integrating all types of guidance with curricular and special-curricular fields was established throughout the prefecture. They also shared their experiences and some of their leaders with other Kinki and Tokai-Hokuriku prefectures. The guidance program in Tokai-Hokuriku region has developed to the place where educators wonder why they have not taken steps previously which would approach values now seen in homeroom, dean's guidance activities, and follow-up.

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Thorough-going work under American leadership has led to the current great increase in vocational majors and electives chosen by students throughout the region. The earlier preponderance of college-preparatory work, despite the fact that most students would not continue in college or technological work, has been lost.

The indicated increase in upper-secondary-school enrollment through most of I Corps is gratifying. A close study of statistics indicates a declining enrollment for several years. There are complex reasons for the decline, but one may be that the Japanese people themselves sensed that the old middle-grade schools were no longer meeting Japanese needs. Since the increase in enrollment is largely in vocational courses, it may be that the new comprehensive school is becoming more attractive to the Japanese people.

9. Discussion:

Most of the reorganization now taking place in parts of I Corps might better have been planned for and done a year ago. Much that is just beginning in Shikoku and individual prefectures in other regions seems too slow in terms of advice and law on necessary steps. In no area could all reorganization steps have been taken at one time effectively. Many of these steps had to grow one from another. Such growth has not needed to be slow, although it frequently has been. In Tokai-Hokuriku Region, which is among the most effectively organized to date, there was resistance to ideas of change in any major field. Transfer of schools to lower-secondary schools needed clarification before it could be accepted. Districting, which is required by the Board of Education Law, was planned in several Tokai prefectures to take place starting in 1948 with the 9th grade and going ahead a year at a time. A comprehensive curriculum and co-education were planned to parallel this year-by-year growth. A few months of work on this system indicated to the Japanese its confusion and futility. Because this was too slow and too inefficient in use of buildings and teachers, they decided to make the complete break with tradition at once, a decision which individual prefectures in I Corps regions had made a year before.

School reorganization was opposed by the privileged old middle-school class whose sons and daughters were in the favorite schools. This group was closer to the Board of Education members than the less privileged group, and the Board was at first as hesitant to tackle the problem of reorganization as had been the Governor before it. As the Tokai Boards began to get a broader view of their job, they probed into the problem more deeply and finally set out boldly to finish reorganization in 1949. These Boards have grown as a result of a major job they had to do early in their career. Board members were often more aggressive and gave more leadership than superintendents. Boards made the hard decisions.

Co-education has been in effect in some Tokai-Hokuriku prefectures for many months as it has in Kyushu and Kinki regions. In all cases it has worked well and none of the evil results predicted for it have been found.

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There seems to be no opposition to co-education in these regions at the present time. In many places co-education has won praise because it has meant cleaner schools, greater pupil opportunity, and better-groomed children.

Board members have spent more time on reorganization problems than seems desirable, due to poor superintendent and Secretariat leadership and planning. In Tokai and Kinki, since the future problems facing upper-secondary schools are of a technical, educational nature, it is possible that the trained educators will be allowed to assume their true positions as executives for the Board. The problems of school reorganization were to a large extent problems Board members could visualize easily as they involved buildings, map plans, and pupils and teachers in round numbers.

The time schedule for reorganization set up in Shikoku seems slow and unrealistic in comparison with progress in Tokai-Hokuriku and Kinki regions. Few buildings have been transferred to lower-secondary schools to help solve basic needs for compulsory years of education. Few teachers have been transferred. As a result middle-grade schools remain as they were, but with far less pupils; and lower-secondary schools are largely housed in old, unsatisfactory, adjacent-to-primary-school buildings. Districting at all levels can be and should be a simple and positive procedure. Survey and evaluation of needs of districted pupils and communities is a longer and harder job but one which can be accomplished in a relatively short time when officials are shown reasons for change. The offering of desired courses in schools near home makes education more attractive and serves a broader cross section than the rush to the nearest town offering desired courses.

Co-education need not of itself be important except as it leads, to improved education for both boys and girls and to more economical use of teachers, equipment, and buildings. In most parts of Japan outside major cities co-education is the economical way to operate.

The Japanese education structure was out of line with democratic objectives and had to be reorganized. The current reorganization has been timely and its early carrying out seems essential for well being at all levels. Some prefectures may have gone too fast, in that reorganization has continued over a period of time. Others certainly are too slow since they are 15 months behind in what they are doing. The vast savings in building utilization in Tokai-Hokuriku region should be duplicated in every region in Japan. Caring for this large number of lower-secondary school pupils in buildings available but inefficiently used is in keeping with the economic recovery program. Leaving rooms and equipment idle many hours of the day and using teachers inefficiently are out of keeping with the program. Where transfer of buildings

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is possible, new construction is self-evident waste, for consolidation can be effected without decreasing educational value. Several prefectures have felt that no secondary school, upper or lower, should have less than 450 pupils if it is to operate most effectively for pupils and communities. Such a figure, except in hardship cases in inaccessible areas, might well be made standard through Board of Education by-laws.

The kind of help now being given Board of Education, Secretariat, principals, and teachers should be continued as one of the best means of implementing this education program. The emphasis, however should be on local help wherever possible. Much has been accomplished in every prefecture in I Corps. The Japanese are getting used to the idea of this new school organization. They are sympathetic to past reforms in education. Some education officers feel that too much pushing may destroy some of this sympathy and that pressure should be eased for fear it will cause indignation and resentment. In other words, there is a feeling that the Japanese should be allowed to assimilate what they already have, to work out their own problems, and occasionally to get expert and understanding help on these problems, on a local level. Other education officers agree in part with this point of view, but feel that the time is now and that reform must come as a whole if it is to be most valuable.

The program itself can hardly be simplified. It is complex and requires a complex solution. The solution in various prefectures and regions needs very according to local conditions. One suggestion is that much of the informational material given to the Japanese has been far removed from the practical-solution level and that such material in the future should be limited to concrete suggestions with only occasional theory thrown in to clarify particular problems. Excellent examples of what can be done effectively are parts 2, 3, and 4 of the new bulletin, Curriculum of the New Upper-Secondary School, and the new guidance book.

Making the program attractive and acceptable to the Japanese may not be completely possible. Certainly it is not possible to the old bosses who want to keep authority away from common people, and to keep away from equality of opportunity. The Japanese do not understand the principles behind reorganization and are not likely to understand them until they have had experience with the reorganized school system and arrive at educational maturity. Reorganization, especially at the upper-secondary level, goes against sentiment and tradition. Only through approach to the self-interests of the great majority of the Japanese people and to an understanding of the reasons for increased compulsory years and opportunities above those years will this program be thoroughly acceptable. An all-out information campaign

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should be implemented at every level by Americans and Japanese to this end.

12. Conclusions:

Reorganization has been unequal within regions and between regions. Of the 5 regions within I Corps, Tokai-Hokuriku appears to be the most balanced in present status. Its education officer feels that there is sufficient understanding of the reasons for change and the types of change that have taken place, that there is little need for further American starts on new programs. This is a time for digestion and strengthening of what has already been started within each of the 6 prefectures. This is a time for School Board members to reduce the amount of attention they devote to school affairs, and have IFEL-trained (Institute For Educational Leadership) superintendents and consultants show more aggressive leadership. The adjustment of Board-superintendent relationships is a major problem to be solved now that reorganization is virtually complete in this region. Future problems are less of a physical nature and so may be less interesting to Board members. Problems of scheduling, curriculum, guidance, and in-service training are fields for trained educators. Tokai region has held a number of conferences to train Japanese in these fields. No great difficulty is foreseen at this time with the remaining upper-secondary problems so long as competent civil education officers are left to help the Japanese as they run into difficulties. Major attention should now shift to lower-secondary and primary schools, especially as Board members have had so many problems in upper-secondary reorganization they have forgotten their equal obligation to all schools.

The excellent result, shown above in Tokai-Hokuriku region are paralleled in Kinki and in many prefectures in other regions. What has been done in these prefectures can be done in other prefectures under careful leadership. The experiences in at least three regions led to the conclusion that reorganization of secondary schools can best be done at one time after real planning. The Japanese tendency to do nothing where precedence can be found in another prefecture for not doing it should be fought against. After the work done by SCAP, Eighth Army, Corps, and regions in preliminary surveys and advice on reorganization, specific work in the prefectures should come rapidly and easily. Visitation by prefectural Board members and Secretariat representatives to other prefectures which have accomplished excellent results is indicated. Information reports from prefectures or regions where reorganization has been most satisfactory should be sent through Japanese and American channels. Model systems might well be set up for others to see in such practical and demonstrable fields as; comprehensive schools, homeroom system, guidance programs, vocational courses for both secondary levels, elective vocational courses for small upper-secondary schools, rational districting, excellent space utilization at both secondary levels, and co-educational activities where both boys and

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girls have benefited.

Primary schools have gone the farthest of any level toward modern concepts of education. They still have far to go but are on the way. Practical guide-books for curriculum and methods are needed at the secondary levels for core materials as well as subject-matter areas. Carefully coordinated curriculum suggestions are needed along with samples of the full curriculum used in excellent comprehensive schools.

11. Recommendations:

Most reorganization should be local. This means transfer of control and responsibility from national direction to prefectural and to local decision. So far real change has come about largely through Ministry of Education directive and local Japanese and American interpretation of such direction. National money should be given generally and not specifically for school purposes, with no strings attached. Changes in tax structure should bring about local dependence for schools rather than top-down control with pursestrings in the hands of the local and prefectural Boards of Education. Schools of all levels should be responsive to area needs rather than to set national patterns.

Continuous restudy of organizational status of the 6-3-3 system is essential for best results. Where reorganization within a prefecture or region has fallen behind what it could have or should have accomplished, education officers should direct attention toward effecting desirable changes required by law or recommended by the Ministry. Districting, comprehensive schools suited to the locality and equality of opportunity should be available within each prefecture before the second semester of the current year, if it is not now available.

Wherever possible primary-school buildings and old middle-school buildings should be turned over bedily to the lower-secondary schools so that most lower-secondary pupils may be in independent schools established to serve their needs, not in schools attached to something else. Where such transfers have not been executed a building-utilization survey should be completed and transfer should be done early enough that schools are in best possible shape for opening of the school semester in September.

Legal problems needing prompt solution include at least two major points:

a. Permission or direction to transfer prefectural school buildings to city or local boards with subsidies for operation. Such transfer would enable rational organization of public-school systems as a whole instead of present divided control and lack of equality where both cities and

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prefecture operate upper-secondary schools and both own other school buildings.

b. Interpretation or redefinition of "Basic property" and Board of Education responsibility for school property of all sorts. As the Local Autonomy Law interprets "basic property" as "income-producing" and only "basic property" has been transferred from prefectures to Boards, all buildings can be taken over by prefectures for political purposes for any use without Board permission.

Where all of these points are accomplished, a slow-down in new organizational change is indicated with specific help to officials and to schools in achieving understanding of the changes and in making them most valuable for the area and the children.

The Secretariat should assume under the superintendent's leadership responsibility for continuous survey of schools and school needs and make recommendations for improvement at all levels. They should be responsible for most efficient utilization of buildings and improvement of facilities within available budgets and the economic stabilization program.

Major attention should be given, once upper-secondary schools are equal to and not dominant over other levels, to the lower-secondary and the primary schools. No upper-secondary school can be good unless its contributory primary and lower-secondary schools are excellent.

Each prefecture and region should develop an inclusive information program in "education for all Japanese children" at every level. It should fortify excellent reorganization and combat dependence on tradition in education. It should strengthen current change and foresee changes necessary in the immediate future.

12. This headquarters is putting as many of these recommendations into effect as is possible under current directives.

FOR THE COMMANDING GENERAL:

for
(Eptia)

"Boards of Education"

I Corps Report

1 June 1949

Del.

HEADQUARTERS I CORPS
APO 302 (Kyoto, Honshu)

GAM/mrk/ent

1 June 1949

AO 000.8 - BA

SUBJECT: Boards of Education
(Headquarters I Corps, Military Government Nine-Point ESP
Study #8)

TO : Commanding General
Eighth Army
APO 343

1. **SUBJECT:** Boards of Education and Their Secretariats.

2. **PURPOSE:** The purpose of this study is a determination of the present status of Boards of Education in I Corps Z/A and the trends of their current activities so that recommendations may be made towards local and national improvement and towards furtherance of the Nine-Point Economic Stabilization Program.

3. **SCOPE:** Board of Education methods and results, organization and procedures, remuneration and relationships, variant interpretations of the law, organization of the secretariat, and development of policies set the limits of this study. All are essential in approaching an understanding of the present status of the Board of Education and its relationship to the Economic Stabilization Program.

4. **Election and Membership:**

Prefectural Boards of 7 members were elected October 5, 1948, along with city Boards of 5 members each. Of 97 Boards elected in Japan at this time, I Corps had 28 prefectural Boards and 40 city or town Boards. The election was preceded by clear, detailed, well organized, and intensive information campaigns concerning responsibilities of School Boards and the qualifications and attributes of good candidates who should be considered for election. Particular emphasis was given the honorary and public-service nature of the position. Newspaper articles, radio discussions, and public forums stressed the necessity of representation from all segments of the community and from both sexes.

BASIC: Ltr, Hq I Corps, AG 000.8-2a, subj: "Boards of Education,"
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Of two regions studied in great detail, the following figures are of interest:

	Kinki Totals	Hyogo	Kyoto	Nara	Osaka	Shiga	Wakayama
No. of Town & Village Boards	14	7	1	0	3	3	0
Total No. of Bd Members Elected	92	34	10	6	18	18	6
No. of Teachers Union & Professional Educational Personnel Elected	15	3	3	2	2	3	2
% of Eligible Voters who voted	58.65	57.3	52.5	69.6	49.0	68.7	54
No. of Women Total	16	6	4	0	2	3	1

	Kyushu Totals	Fuku- oka	Kago- shima	Kumamoto	Miyu- saki	Naga- saki	Oita	Saga
No. of Town & Village Boards	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total No. of Board Members Elected	12	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
No. of Teachers Union & Professional Personnel Elected	16**	5	1	3	0	5	0	2
% of Eligible Voters who Voted	60	60	61	59	72	57	66	77
No. of Women Total	5	0	1	1	0	1	1	1

** - 2 Kumamoto teacher representatives resigned and were later replaced by non-teachers.

In Kyushu, of the 16 educators, 11 were principals or teachers and members of the Japan Teachers Unions.

BASIC: Ltr, Hq I Corps, AG 000.8 - BA, subj: "Boards of Education,"
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5. By-laws and Resolutions:

The Board of Education Law sets relationships, patterns for organization, and methods of procedure for prefectural and local Boards. The by-laws of the Boards are similar in content, varying chiefly in length and specificity. A model of by-laws and resolutions is being developed at this headquarters as suggestive for prefectural and local Boards. This model should clarify the lack of realism evidenced in current by-laws. Topics included in Kyushu are as follows:

By-Law Topics:

	Fuku-oka	Naga-saki	Kago-shima	Kumamoto	Oita	Miya-saki	Saga
Assembling & Seating Order..	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Term of Session	3 da	5 da	1 da	X	3 da	1 da	2 da
Meetings: Opening & Close..	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Agenda	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Debate & Motion .	X	X	X		X	X	
Voting	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Inquiry & Info ..	X	X			X	X	X
Minutes:	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Discipline of Members	X	X	X		X		
Chief Clerk & Clerks	X						
Miscellaneous	X				X		

The topics in Kinki follow

By-Law Topics:

	Osaka	Kyoto	Hyogo	Shiga	Nara	Wakayama
Assembling & Seating Order	X	X	X	X	X	X
Term of Session	1 da	3 da	1 da	1 da	1 da	1 da
Meetings: Opening & Close.	X	X	X	X	X	X
Agenda	X	X	X	X	X	X
Debate & Motion.	X	X	X	X	X	X
Voting	X	X	X	X	X	X
Inquiry & Info .	X					
Minutes	X	X	X	X	X	X
Discipline of members		X	X	X	X	X
Chief Clerk & Clerks						
(Duty of Superintendent) ..			(X)	(X)	(X)	X
Miscellaneous			X	X	X	X

BASIC: Ltr, Hq I Corps, AG 000.8 - BA subj: "Boards of Education,"
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Fukuoka, Oita, Wakayama, and Hyogo have the best and the most detailed by-laws and resolutions. Saga, Kumamoto, and Osaka have the briefest and the most ambiguous.

All prefectures include in their by-laws the following items:

Assembling and seating order
 Opening and closing of sessions
 Length of sessions

The length of sessions varies among prefectures, Nagasaki has the longest term - 5 days per month. Fukuoka, Oita, and Kyoto sessions each last 3 days. Saga provides for a 2-day session. Kumamoto does not specify, and other prefectures in these two regions provide for one-day sessions. All Boards except Saga include in their by-laws details concerning agenda, methods of voting, and keeping of minutes.

Kumamoto and Saga omit any reference to methods of debate and to amendments of bills, while several have no references to the requesting of the presence of the superintendent or other agents to answer inquiries on proposed matters. Osaka, Kumamoto, Miyasaki, and Saga provide no regulations for discipline among members. Few of the prefectures indicate the part the superintendent should play in preparing the agenda, providing basic facts for consideration and evaluation, demonstrating need for forming policy, and participating actively in Board meetings.

6. Minutes of Meetings:

The minutes of Board meetings follow the regulations established in by-laws. In Shikoku, as in most prefectures of other regions, no motions and no votes are taken. The Suisen, Sansai, Iginashi (recommendation-agreement-no objection) system is used by most Boards. Hand votes are asked infrequently and then only on insistence by a member.

Minutes in Kyushu prefectures fall into two general patterns:
 a. detailed minutes which include the actual statements and comments made by each speaker; b. a brief outline of the items covered with a few necessary explanatory notes. Both patterns have distinct advantages and disadvantages. The detailed minutes which include comments of each speaker enable the reader to observe the trend of thinking of Board members, but do not achieve coherence. For official purpose the brief outline form with a short explanation of the content of the bills discussed and arguments offered provides a better permanent record. Pertinent opinions and proposals by individual speakers need be included.

The range of topics discussed in one meeting in each Kyushu prefecture varies widely. 4 topics, however, are repeated in more than one set of minutes:

BASIC: Ltr, Hq I Corps, AG OOO, S-HA, subj: "Boards of Education,"
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- a. districting - 5 prefectures
- b. organization of the Secretariat - 3 prefectures
- c. school fees - 2 prefectures
- d. budgets - 2 prefectures

Other topics discussed in sample minutes were: Homemaking course in upper-secondary schools, political activities in schools, qualifications for English teachers, consolidation of lower-secondary schools, entrance examinations for prefectural schools, PTA federation, school-board prizes, 5-day school week, placement of new teachers, tests for principals, enforcement of 48-hour teaching week, travel expenses for teachers, and rents for playgrounds.

The Kinki and Shikoku prefectures indicate in these minutes the need of better understanding of parliamentary procedures and of their own by-laws. Development of new by-laws in each prefecture, or of a model set among prefectures, might be essential in-service training for boards. The tendency in most prefectures is toward wandering away from the subject and accepting as complete items either on the agenda or not included but about which some comment has been made. Minutes and observations indicate that in many boards members talk continuously across the table with the board appearing at a loss as to what to do next. Many items seem trivial as though the board knows nothing better to discuss, with the discussion wandering off the subject on to topics which the superintendent and secretariat could better handle. The minutes also indicate a tendency for meetings to run several days instead of the 2 to 5 hours customary in American boards. The law says "ordinary sessions shall be convened once in every month," and "extraordinary sessions shall be convened only for particular emergency problems." The minutes show that some meetings last for days and that emergency meetings are called with little or no notice to treat many topics.

7. Remuneration for Board Members:

The Board of Education Law, Article 31, is as follows:

"1. The local public bodies shall pay remuneration to the members of the Board concerned, but shall pay no salary. 2. The members of the Board shall be entitled to reimbursement of expenses required for the execution of their functions. 3. The amount of remuneration and reimbursement for expenses and their method of payment shall be ordained by the by-law of the local public body concerned."

In Kinki Region the Boards are obtaining the following high amounts as remunerations:

BASIC: Ltr, Hq I Corps, AG 000.8-7A, subj: "Boards of Education,"
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<u>Kinki Region</u>	<u>Members</u>	<u>Travel and Expense</u>
Hyogo	¥6,000	Best available transportation, ¥20 per diem, ¥200 Lodging.
Kyoto	¥6,000	¥6,000 per person per month requested.
Nara	¥3,000	None.
Osaka	¥10,000	Special requisition.
Shiga	¥3,000	¥1,500 per month per person.
Wakayama	¥3,000 (not over three meetings at ¥1,000 each)	¥5 per Ken; 200 Yen per diem ¥820 -- 1020 for lodging.

In Kyushu, where expenses are not indicated, remuneration for chairman and members varies according to pay for assembly members. Precedent is thus set for city and local boards as they come into existence.

<u>Kyushu Region</u>	<u>Chairman</u>	<u>Members</u>	<u>Study Expense</u>
Fukuoka	¥6,000	¥1,000	?
Kagoshima	4,500	3,000	¥2,000
Kumamoto	6,000	5,000	2,000
Hiyasaki	3,000	3,000	0
Nagasaki	3,000	2,000	1,000
Oita	6,000	5,000	4,000
Saga	3,000	3,000	1,000

Other regions are indicating similar requested payments and most of them receive remuneration equivalent to the salaries of assembly members. Hidden items are not shown, but admittedly are larger than evident ones.

3. Relationship of Board to Governor, Superintendent and Others:

The law establishes relationships to Secretariat, districts, assembly, and other agencies. Inherent in the law are indications of need for excellent relations with the general public as well as with other governmental agencies.

Superintendents and Board members are generally agreed that prefectural governors are less interested in supporting large educational budgets since they no longer control education. Evidence of this comes from prefectures which are supporting smaller education budgets in proportion to total budgets. Fukuoka is an exception, in that it has gone from 50 to 59% of total budget for education, the 9% addition being intended for a 9th year of compulsory education.

Boards feel that the assemblies will try to exert control by

BASIC: Ltr, Hq I Corps, AG 000.0-BA, subj: "Boards of Education."
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minute examination of the budget, striking out items they do not like, with school boards having no recourse over elimination of such items, Boards would prefer to present a total or general budgetary figure for education based on actual needs which the assemblies could accept or cut without decisions as to which sections of the budget are to be affected. On this basis the Board could readjust its schedules to provide the best overall program. Such procedure would tend to lessen any fear of undue control by the governor or the assembly. Such procedure would also necessitate a more accurate accounting and a truer picture than the present one in which the budget is heavily padded beforehand in anticipation of cuts by the prefectural assembly.

Relationship to the superintendent needs be clarified. Some superintendents express concern over the official status of Board members when the Board is not in session. Frequently members are asked to attend and address PTA meetings, school dedications, graduation ceremonies, athletic meets, etc. It has been pointed out to Board members and superintendents that the Board acts as a whole and no member may act officially outside board meetings. When he attends such ceremonies, he attends as a private citizen. Normal procedure would be for the superintendent or members of his Secretariat to represent the Board officially.

The average man is still little aware of the existence of a School Board and what it will do for him. There is scant attendance at meetings, except by petitioners with special requests. Without constant surveillance by the public the Boards are encouraged to act arbitrarily or to grant the request of special interests. A continuous information program on the purpose and functions of a good School Board should be started. Ample public notice of meetings and topics to be discussed should be given and the public welcomed at meetings. Each Board has been concerned about public behavior at meetings lest trouble makers gain entrance, but no disturbance has so far been reported. The Osaka School Board is improving such relations by sending groups of Board members to hold meetings in rural areas; it has thereby educated the members on local problems and has enabled the rural people to become acquainted with the workings of the Board and with its members. When the public becomes educated to the purposes of the School Board, it will support the activities of the Board and be more vigilant about electing desirable members in the future.

Regional meetings of School Board Chairmen have been held throughout I Corps, usually on the suggestion of military government. They have been so successful that regular meetings are being held to discuss mutual problems and effect an interchange of ideas. In Kyushu all Board members of all prefectures are planning an annual meeting for the same purpose. In Kyushu, also, the superintendents of the seven prefectures have likewise agreed to meet once every 3 months; such conferences to take place in a different area from that where the Board Chairmen are meeting, with each prefecture rotating as host. Here, too, ideas will be exchanged and common problems discussed.

BASIC: Ltr, Hq I Corps, AG 000.8-BA, subj: "Boards of Education,"
 dtd , cont'd

Relationships defined by Board Law and established in by-laws and resolutions are the basis for improved understanding by the public of the notions taken by the Board.

Certain Articles of the Board of Education Law need modification and clarification if essential money for reorganization of the school system is to be saved, if education in general is to be improved, and if limitation is placed on establishing bureaucracies, payment of salaries to Board members, and control of social-education agencies and religion. If present practices are allowed to develop and are repeated with the introduction of more local Boards, there may not be money enough to run 6 years of compulsory education, let alone 9. Upper-secondary schools, which are considered by the Japanese a reincarnation of the old middle schools, are receiving a lion's share of the budget by way of teachers, buildings, and equipment. Attention is directed, therefore, to the need by all occupation personnel of budgetary advice. Japanese education budget practices are bad. Little responsibility is shown by officials who draw up budgets and agencies who pass budgets. They feel that they are spending their money and not the people's money. There is little evidence of careful survey of actual needs, of per pupil costs, and of planning for the future. Great reliance is placed on the supplementary budget. They need specific help at prefectural and local level on how to make up and follow budgets. If budget experts could be made available to work with the Japanese on their own national, prefectural, and local budgets, they could teach them principles while working on actual budgets. In doing this, the expert would try to make clear why such a practice is necessary and desirable.

All of these suggestions for relationships of the Board are in keeping with the first point of the Economic Stabilization Program. They work in the directions of simplification, of practicality, of efficient use of facilities and personnel, and of including more people in planning for their own schools for all children.

9. Organization of the Secretariat:

a. Articles 43 through 47 of the Board of Education Law deal with the organization and personnel of the Secretariat. Misunderstandings have occurred because of wording of these sections. Article 44 says there will be no accounting and construction sections. Each function must be carried out in part within the Secretariat at the same time basic official work in each is done by prefectural employees. Article 44 says that there will be a department or section for Research and Statistics and one for Education Guidance, though later interpretation has been to the effect that sub-sections in these fields are satisfactory.

BASIC: Ltr, Hq I Corps, AG OOC-8-BA, subj: "Boards of Education,"
 dtd , cont'd

The Kyushu Secretariat are organized as follows:

Composition:	Fukuoka	Haga- saki	Kago- shira	Kum- moto	Oita	Miya- saki	Saga	Total
<u>Sections</u>								
Superintendent Bureau		X		X	X	X		4
General Affairs	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	7
School Education	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	7
Social Education	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	7
Physical Education	X	X	X	X	X		X	6
Research & Statistics	X	X	X	X	X		X	6
Guidance	X		X	X			X	4
Equipment				X				1
Total	6	6	6	8	6	4	6	

All prefectures except Miyasaki conform to a general pattern of about 6 sections. Of those 5 are standard throughout -- General Affairs, School Education, Social Education, Physical Education, and Statistics; guidance follows next in frequency, guidance meaning teacher consultants who are strangely kept separate from School Education. Miyasaki limits its organization to General Affairs, School Education, Social Education, and a Superintendent's Chamber for public information, secretarial work for Superintendent and Board, and keeping of records and history, with research limited to a sub-section under General Affairs, guidance sub-section under School Education, and physical education function divided among administration, School Education, and Social Education.

The Kinki Secretariat organization follows:

Kinki

	Hirose	Kyoto	Nara	Osaka	Shiga	Wakayama	Total
Secretarial and Public Info Office	X	X	X	X		X	5
Administration	X	X	X	X		X	5
Guidance	X	X		X		X	4
General Affairs					X		1
School Ed.			X		X		2
Social Ed.			X		X		2
Res & Statistics					X		1
Special Educ. (Social & Ph. Ed.)				X			1
Personnel					X		1
Total	3	3	4	4	5	3	

Basic: IAr, Hq I Corps, AG OOD, S - BA, subj: "Boards of Education,"
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The two-division organization plus secretarial room is basic in Kinki, Nara and Osaka divide guidance into two parts. Only Shiga approaches the Kyushu average organization.

In Tokai-Hokuriku Region an approach is being made in each prefecture to a simple organizational structure for the Secretariat. Ishikawa has 2 divisions, one of administration and one of education. Toyama, Mie, Aichi and Fukui have 3 divisions, adding social education and school education as separate divisions instead of the one education division. Gifu has also added a division of research and statistics which may later be combined with administration. In all prefectures the Social Education Section will include 2 parts: One for organizations, and one for facilities. Arts and Monuments will, in this region, be a functional responsibility of the Facilities Section, a most desirable placement.

Several prefectures have a special section for teacher consultants separate from school guidance, an anomaly. Others retain religion as a section or sub-section in social education, although national law separates religion from government. At least two prefectures have sections for Arts and Monuments, one of them attached directly to the superintendent, in a way apparently parallel with administration or guidance. Recommendations have been made that this section should actually be part of Facilities and Equipment under Administration, since its functions are entirely maintenance and repair.

b. Sizes: The Secretariats in the two regions under study vary widely in size and in total attempt at reorganization on a functional basis. Comparative sizes shown on these charts, with professional and non-professional workers indicated separately and branch offices listed as distinct from the central Secretariat even though the branch office workers are part of the Secretariat for the time being:

<u>Kyushu</u>	<u>Fukuoka</u>	<u>Nagasaki</u>	<u>Kagoshima</u>	<u>Kumamoto</u>	<u>Oita</u>	<u>Miyazaki</u>	<u>Saga</u>
Secretariat							
Professional	86	71	70	46	39	43	81
Non-professional	51	31	86	34	90	44	42
Total	<u>137</u>	<u>102</u>	<u>156</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>129</u>	<u>87</u>	<u>123</u>
Branch Offices							
Professional	72	31	43	22	24	42	36
Non-professional	19	12	76	33	73	49	8
	<u>91</u>	<u>43</u>	<u>119</u>	<u>55</u>	<u>97</u>	<u>91</u>	<u>44</u>
Grand Total	<u>228</u>	<u>145</u>	<u>275</u>	<u>155</u>	<u>266</u>	<u>178</u>	<u>167</u>

BASIC: Ltr, Hq I Corps, AG 000.8-BA, subj: "Boards of Education,"
dtd , cont'd

<u>Kinki</u>	<u>Hyogo</u>	<u>Kyoto</u>	<u>Nara</u>	<u>Osaka</u>	<u>Shiga</u>	<u>Wakayama</u>	
						<u>Auth.</u>	<u>Employed</u>
Secretariat							
Professional	77	44	42	111	51		
Non-professional	67	34	28	41	37		
Total	144	78	70	152	88	--	72
Branch Offices							
Professional	--	24	48	28	11	--	--
Non-professional	--	52	8	53	12	--	--
Total	--	76	56	81	23	--	56
Number of branch Offices	16	11	10	7	8	7	7
Grand Total	194	161	126	233	118	201	128

There is a wide disparity between the numerical size of the Secretariats, ranging from a consistent high for Kagoshima to a low for Shiga, Nara, and Wakayama (Wakayama's authorized strength is high, employed low) among minor prefectures and Nagasaki, Kumamoto, and Kyoto among larger ones. Adjustments in number seem easiest to make throughout in non-professional personnel and in the large size of many of the branch offices. Certainly Kagoshima, Oita, and Saga seem to have too much personnel, especially non-professional, as Kumamoto, Miyasaki, Kyoto, and Osaka are heavy on non-professional personnel in the branches.

The large number of personnel in some of the Secretariats is a carry-over from prefectural education sections and departments which were taken over in their entirety by new Boards of Education. Many have in no way been screened as to ability or necessity for their services, economy not having been a problem considered to date.

The Kyoto city Secretariat chart following has been used by I Corps as a model organization. For evaluation of smaller prefectures this chart with few changes can serve well. For prefectural use divisions of accreditation and Arts and Monuments would necessarily be included in the Personnel and Maintenance and Supply Sections, and a realignment of numbers would be indicated for the Guidance and Administration Department with the increasing number going to school guidance as specialists become available.

CITY OF KYOTO
EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

Superintendent 90

Department of Guidance 35

Adult Education Sec. 10

School Education Sec. 25

Personnel Sec. 14

- Adult Education 5
 - Organizations Women, Youth, Laborers Libraries, Social Recreation
- Audio-Visual Education
- Physical Education 5
- Recreation

- Method of Teaching for Each subject 25
- Curriculum Making
- Vocational Educ.
- Audio-Visual Educ
- Student Activities
- Dean for Girls; Co-Educ.
- Inservice Training
- PTA
- Text Book
- School Library
- Intelligence Test
- Measurement and Evaluation
- Physical Ed. & Guidance
- School Hygiene & Sanitation
- Physical Examination
- Nutrition of School Lunch Program 25

- Personnel & Certification
- Interviews of Teachers
- Janitors
- Evaluation
- Permanent Cumulative Documents of Appointment
- Retirement, Transfer
- Discharge
- Allowance
- Accounting of Teachers
- Salary & Allowance
- Pension & Retirement Allowance
- Welfare of Teachers
- Business about Teachers

CITY OF KYOTO
EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

Superintendent

90

Clerical Room 11

School Board

Secretary for Board
Minutes
Rules & Regulations
Study of Law
General Planning

Secretarial

Official Documents
Mail
Translation &
Evaluation of
Personnel of

Department of
Administration

14

Personnel Sec.

25

Personnel Sec.

14

Maintenance & Supply Sec.

18

Finance and

Planning for

25

Personnel & Certification

8

Interviews of Teachers,
Janitors
Evaluation
Permanent Cumulative Records
Documents of Appointment,
Retirement, Transferring,
Discharge
Allowance 6
Accounting of Teachers'
Salary & Allowance
Pension & Retirement
Allowance
Welfare of Teachers
Business about Teachers' Union

Maintenance

8

Establishment & Abolishment
of Schools
Decision of School Sites
Purchasing of School Sites
Official Approval of
Building
Arrangement of Attendance Area
Arts and Monuments

Supply

10

Supply of School Facilities
Distribution of Designated
Material
Distribution of Food for
School Lunches
Distribution of Medicine

Research and

Ed. & Social
Statistics
Permanent Ac
Records
Reports to
& Ministry

Finance

Budgeting
Settlement of
Admitting of
Tuition for

Health Evaluation
& Guidance
& Sanitation
Education
School Lunch

25

Clerical Room 11	
<u>School Board</u> Secretary for Board Minutes Rules & Regulations Study of Law General Planning	<u>Secretarial</u> Official Documents Mail Translation & Typing Evaluation of Business Personnel of Secretariat

Department of Administration 14

Maintenance & Supply Sec. 13

Finance and Research Sec. 12

Maintenance 8

- Establishment & Abolishment of Schools
- Decision of School Sites
- Purchasing of School Sites
- Official Approval of Building
- Arrangement of Attendance Area
- Arts and Monuments

Supply 10

- Supply of School Facilities
- Distribution of Designated Material
- Distribution of Food for School Lunches
- Distribution of Medicine

Research and Statistics 6

- Ed. & Social Research Statistics
- Permanent Accumulative Records
- Reports to other Boards & Ministry of Education

Finance 6

- Budgeting
- Settlement of Accounting
- Auditing of Sch. Finance
- Tuition for High School

Education
 Teachers, 8

Live Records
 Department,
 transferring, 6

Teachers' Union

INSIC: Ltr. Hq I Corps, AG 000.8-BA, subj: "Boards of Education,"
 dtd , cont'd

In General, with HQ guidance the old education sections and departments have been streamlined in structure, if not often enough in personnel, by the change to Secretariat under the Board. Hyogo, Ishikawa, Kyoto, and Wakayama with two major sections -- Administration and Guidance -- have been most thoroughly reorganized. Miyazaki, Hara, and Osaka and social education as a third major section as do most prefectures in Tokai-Hokuriku Region. However, the Hara plan gives the appearance of reorganization in name only, having provided for all personnel of the former education section in many small and overlapping sub-sections. Osaka's sub-sections are even more confusing in their variety, including two sub-sections on health and physical education-- one for schools and one for social education, all in a special-education division. Shiga has given major importance to the Teacher-personnel and Research and Statistics sections, functions of the Secretariat which should be carried out within the Administrative Section.

Physical Education, though no longer a separate section in any Kinki prefecture, has retained much of its personnel and budget allotment. In Hyogo it receives 8 million yen for administrative expenses as compared to 11 million yen for promoting school education. This would seem to be a disproportionate allotment of funds, for the important responsibility of the Board is the day-by-day total schooling of the children of the prefecture.

As in the areas of Board remuneration, budgeting, and other direct relationships of Board and Secretariat, fitting secretariat organization into the Economic Stabilization Program is essential. Too little attention to efficient, professional organization and operation has been evident so far, except in scattered prefectures. In size, in transfer of personnel from the old education department without job analysis and evaluation of individuals for jobs, and in operational techniques little curtailing of expenditures or working towards efficiency is noted. The Secretariat can be simplified, be made efficient, and become essential and acceptable in its activities to the people of Japan if wisdom is shown in its early, logical reorganization on a functional basis, with resulting cuts in number and cost.

10. Discussion:

The basic aim of the occupation is to make Japan peaceful, democratic, self-sustaining, friendly, and a bulwark to communism. Boards of Education are largely an American institution. They were recommended for Japan by the United States Education Mission in the spring of 1946 to counteract the highly centralized Ministry of Education of pre-occupation Japan that had become such a convenient tool for the control and manipulation of the minds of the people by the military clique. The Education Mission felt that the responsibility for the administration of public primary and secondary education rested with the prefecture and its local sub-divisions. They recommended, therefore, that at both these levels

BASIC: Ltr, Hq I Corps, AG 000.8-2A, subj: "Boards of Education,"
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"there be established an educational committee or agency, which shall be politically independent and composed of representative citizens elected by popular vote. This agency should have general charge of public schools in accordance with statute." October 5, 1948, marked the first election in Japan after the passage of the law in July. It is generally felt that the first Board of Education elections were held prematurely, with insufficient time allotted to allow the public to become acquainted with the significance of the elections and the duties of the Boards. However, regardless of the results of the election, all Boards have taken their jobs seriously and are endeavoring to carry out their duties to the best of their collective abilities. Boards are not equally good; most are poor in procedure, in records, and in insistence on doing the operational and administrative work which is actually the responsibility of the superintendent and the Secretariat.

The institution of Boards of Education has achieved the partial break-up of the tight control of the Ministry of Education and has thereby reduced its usefulness to any possible future dictator as a tool for indoctrination. While power has been subtracted from Tokyo, it has not completely flowed down to the local levels. The localities are still dependent on Tokyo for more than half of the funds necessary to run the schools. This limits the power of the local Board. The remedy here lies in the setting up of a more efficient tax structure nationally, a move which is contemplated but which will probably not be a reality for some time.

Because habits of long standing are hard to break, superintendents and Boards still look to the Ministry of Education (and to SCAP, CIAC) for interpretations of law and decisions on all important matters. For example, when there was a dispute between the Osaka city and the prefectural School Boards over the control of prefectural upper-secondary schools within Osaka city, the prefectural Board sent a representative to Tokyo and secured a judgment favorable to its point of view from an official of the Ministry of Education. The remedy here is partly in the experience of Boards in making independent decisions and finding that they are acceptable locally; and partly in the limiting of the powers of the Ministry of Education, a move which is in process of being cast into law at the present time.

The principle of service on the Board of Education as a public duty for which no compensation is paid is not accepted by the Japanese. Board members point out that they had to invest large sums of money in their election campaigns and that they should therefore be recompensed now. They consider their status to be equal in importance to that of an assembly member so they demand equal compensation (in this they were encouraged by a Ministry of Education letter to the prefectures). In addition, ample provision for travel expenses and slush funds for entertainment are demanded. As a result, in the educational budget of a prefecture like Hyogo, the administration expenses of the School Board are more than

BASIC: Ltr, Hq I Corps, AG OOO.3-PA, subj: "Boards of Education",
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twice as great as the expenses for "promoting school education." This is out of all proportion and constitutes a completely unjustifiable drain on the moneys properly allocated to education. It also justifies making a fulltime job out of membership on the Board and encourages frequent meetings as is the common practice of most Boards at present. The ambiguity of the School Board Law regarding remuneration should be cleared up by amendment to the law and a strong stand taken against payment of any remuneration other than reasonable travel expenses. A system of vouchers should also be instituted by law to provide a proper accounting for each expenditure by a Board member. Such action, taken immediately, seems advisable under requirements of the economic recovery program.

Many questions have arisen in connection with occupation of Board members. The law stated that teachers as government workers could not concurrently be Board members. Many teachers were elected, however, and dropped out of teaching. The Japanese feel that teachers are the only ones who understand school problems and act intelligently in the field. Osaka's all-teacher-board is working hard and earnestly on major changes in the educational system; for example, they have agreed to a genuine districting of upper-secondary schools. In addition, they backed the superintendent in his demand for the largest budget in the history of Osaka, comprising about 42% of the entire prefectural budget, approaching for the first time a national average. On the Hyogo Board 4 out of the 5 teachers have been satisfactory and 2 of them have been outstanding. This situation is general throughout I Corps for only the occasional teacher member is reactionary or stolid. Teacher-Union representatives have not as frequently as was expected been special pleaders for their pressure groups. Kyushu, which originally feared union domination of the Board, has found little real difficulty with union representatives and the tendency to subsidize former union members. In Kinki Region the 3 minor prefectures complain of the activities of Teachers-Union members, though the former president of the Teachers' Union in Shiga is most cooperative with military government, progressive, and a good leader. In Nara, the two union representatives have pushed through a six-million-yen appropriation for apartment houses for teachers, a fact not self-condemnatory. Hyogo says the Teachers Union has been restricted from attempting to use the Boards as its own agent. Osaka claims that the presence of a former union official has put the Board in an excellent bargaining position with the union. With the changing nature of the Teachers-Union organization, under General MacArthur's directive on union activities of government employees, the union becomes a professional organization with no powers to bargain collectively or to strike. It may, therefore, be unnecessary for military government to worry about Teachers-Union members of the Boards.

With military government guidance the old education sections have been streamlined in structure, if not in personnel, by the change to Secretariats. Moving toward 2 or 3 sections in the Secretariat, each section with its own functional responsibilities through its chief to the

BASIC: Ltr, Hq I Corps, AG COO, S-BA, subj: "Boards of Education,"
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superintendent, has been a logical development. Elimination or subordination of such old sections as Physical Education, Arts & Monuments, and Religion has had a salutary effect. Pruning of surplus personnel remains a problem and will continue until the Economic Stabilization program is applied by the Board directly to education or until adequately trained professional people are available and hangers-on eliminated.

The necessity of revising the Board of Education Law and of clarifying interpretations of the law has been demonstrated throughout this study. Specific recommendations for change will be made in a later section.

The Boards have become reasonably effective in most of I Corps. In Kinki with Military Government guidance through in-service training programs, the organization has been especially effective. In the major metropolitan areas with more informed and better educated citizens the Boards have been more successful than in conservative rural prefectures such as Wakayama and Nara. It will take such experience and continued education to prepare the Japanese public to demand and elect good Boards. In Japan today the Board of Education has little relation to its American counterpart. It is in reality a professional or semi-professional education commission performing sometimes useful service in assisting the superintendent in his administrative duties. It presents the case of education to the prefectural assembly and works for an adequate budget. As the financial structure of the country is improved and the laws amended, it may come to have a direct financial responsibility to the schools. As the Secretariat and superintendent become better organized, the Board may be persuaded to restrict its present activity in the field of administration and return to a strictly policy-making, legislative function.

A through-going information program which makes the Board and its activities attractive and acceptable to the general public is indicated. Such a program is essential in each field of education activity, especially as changes come for institutions or methods which have become traditional. Insufficient attention to such an information program has been evident in the reorganization of schools and in changing curricula during recent months. A Board and Secretariat approach through all regular news channels, through PTA, OPH, Women's and Youth organizations, and meetings of cooperatives should precede even minor changes which may be disturbing to students and families.

Branch offices which have been referred to in previous sections become increasingly an organizational problem. In Kochi and one or two other prefectures the branch or district office was attached to the Board, rather than the Secretariat, and served as a political organ for the Board. The need of branch or district offices is not clear even for the personnel records which might better be kept only in the central office. The relationship of these offices to district representatives of the prefectural

ENHID: Ltr, Hq I Corps, AG 000.8-24, subj: "Boards of Education,"
 dtd , cont'd.

government has not been legally defined. Their responsibility still seems closer to the Governor than to the Secretariat or the Board.

Education officers are not trained workers in budgets. They have each year searched education budgets in their relationship to prefectural budgets for obvious defects and waste of money. In 1948 their fight was against entertainment funds and for growing reality in allocation of money. In this they were largely defeated by the habit of hidden items. No specific expert help has been available below the SCAP level on budget making or interpretation. It should be. Japanese educators, not trained as financial experts, are farther away from expert help than they were under the Governor. Simplified procedures and guidance would be most helpful.

11. Conclusions:

The necessity or desirability of revising or modifying Japanese law is obvious in the case of the Board of Education Law. Some of the most pressing amendments include:

- a. Prohibiting paying of salaries or remuneration of any kind to Board members. Allow expenses for reasonable purposes only upon submission of a voucher.
- b. Limit the number of meetings a Board can hold to 12-³⁰13 a year, and limit the length of meetings.
- c. Provide for future local Boards to be set up on a district or gun basis, rather than permitting Boards for smaller units of towns and villages and thus draining off money which should be spent on schooling.
- d. Prohibit an elected member of the Board of Education from being under obligation to any outside pressure group or individual by accepting a salary or "ogai" from them while serving on the Board. Example: the Teachers' Union has paid the salary of some Board members, or made up the difference between what they receive from the Board and what they received as former teachers.
- e. Give Boards the power to reduce education personnel numerically in the Secretariat.
- f. Change Article 14 so that statistics and guidance may be included as functions in departments or sections of the Secretariat. In many Boards it was considered mandatory to set up these departments and thus add more personnel.
- g. Clarify the position of the Board in its relation with the superintendent so that the Board does not interfere with the proper

BASIC: Ltr, Hq I Corps, AG 000.8-BA, subj: "Boards of Education,"
 dtd , cont'd

administrative function of the school head. Inclusion of the superintendent as ex-officio Board member with legal responsibilities might well be the way, with the Board's position as policy-maker rather than executive made explicit.

h. Clarify the relationship between the prefectural and local Boards so that the prefectural Board will not control local schools and defeat the purpose of decentralization.

i. Give prefectural and local Boards some control over education taxes, so they are not in the position of beggars.

j. State specifically that all property in school buildings and buildings themselves regardless of original source become public property subject to the control and disposition of the Board of Education.

Existing difficulties and obstacles include:

a. Unfamiliarity of Board members with parliamentary procedure and with proper keeping of minutes.

b. The failure of the Board to arouse public interest in meetings and actions.

c. The Board considering itself as an executive and administrative body and taking over the proper function of the superintendent.

d. Board members functioning as individuals, receiving petitions, hearing complaints, making public appearances.

e. The Board unduly influenced by the Governor who frequently appears before it or calls in individual members and states his case for the disposition of school properties and other matters in strong terms.

f. The School Board meeting many times a month and making membership a full-time paid job.

These obstacles can be overcome by:

a. An in-service training program which will give them practice in efficiency and orderly procedure. Excellent programs of this sort were developed separately at Ryogo and Kinki Region. Both are available for use elsewhere.

b. Public interest in the Board can be aroused by adequate publicity of Board meetings sufficiently far in advance of the meeting to allow people to plan to attend and be prepared with recommendations. The publicity should be widely disseminated by prefectural newspapers,

BASIC: Ltr, Hq I Corps, AG 000.8-2a, subj: "Boards of Education,"
 dtd , cont'd

radio, and bulletin boards.

c. Through an in-service training program sponsored by Military Government the Board can come to learn of its true functions and its relationship to the superintendent. These functions and relationships should be more clearly defined in the Board of Education Law. A national school-board periodical should be published jointly by the Boards or by the Ministry and used as a means of orienting Boards as to their proper functions and at the same time serving as a clearing house for current educational information.

d. As authority rests with the Board in legal session, not in individual members, it should be clearly pointed out to members that they are wasting their energy and subverting the purpose of the law if they listen to petitioners in their homes or outside of meetings. To accommodate the public one Board keeps one member in turn in the Board room to listen to and report on complaints.

e. The Governor should be strictly limited in his relations with the Board, even to the extent of prohibiting his facing them officially, through a national Ministry of Education policy statement.

f. The number of Board meetings should be limited to the legal one a month with not more than two special sessions when matters are extremely urgent. The Wakayama limit of one regular and two special meetings a month might be a model for national legislation or recommendation, especially as the Wakayama Board receives Yen 1,000 expenses per meeting, with the monthly limit set at Yen 3,000. The time limit on each meeting should also be set to assure the Board's remaining a policy group rather than an administrative one.

The Secretariat organization in various prefectures under study is tending toward simplicity. Ministry of Education suggestions to prefectural officials that there be 7 divisions has made for complexity and for continuation of the status quo. SCAP, GHQ, and Military Government recommendations have been toward specific responsibilities to a few officials in a carefully organized staff. The general pattern of 2 or 3 divisions may well be recommended to the Ministry, if it must offer patterns to follow. This pattern lends itself most efficiently to economy at the Secretariat level, and to responsible future functional operation of the Secretariat and the schools. Religion should not be one of the functions of the Board or its Secretariat. Arts and Monuments should not play a major role since maintenance is its chief job. Teacher consultants should be in the school guidance program, not apart from it.

Branch offices need fuller study before they are allowed to continue without direct control by the Secretariat. They should be an essential part of the Secretariat with specified functions. Elimination

BASIC: Ltr, Hq I Corps, AG 000.8-PA, subj: "Boards of Education,"
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of the branch offices might be most desirable, if their functions can be more economically handled by the Administrative and Guidance Sections at a prefectural level.

The one major criticism of the method of election, a criticism which also exists in the method of election of members to the various legislative bodies, is that of allowing the voters to vote for only one candidate despite the fact that 6 candidates were to be elected in each prefecture, and 4 in each city. Had each voter been allowed to vote for each of the 6 prefectural Board offices, and 4 local Board offices, members more truly representative of the electorate would have been chosen. As long as the present system remains in force, it will be easier for such undesirable elements as the Communist party and the Teachers' Union to obtain representation on the Boards of Education.

Personnel reduction in the Secretariat should be recommended for most prefectures on the basis of functional job analyses and the placement of most capable people in each job. Sharp cuts in branch offices are indicated universally.

The availability of SCAP, CIMM experts for giving guidance in the field would make budgeting more understandable and more practical to education officers and Board and Secretariat members throughout the year and should help adjust education more effectively into the Economic Stabilization Program.

12. Recommendations:

It is recommended that:

- a. 10 changes in the Board of Education Law suggested in paragraph 11 be acted upon;
- b. national tax structure and distribution of tax sources to prefectural and local bodies be revised so that the Boards can assume their proper role;
- c. a continuous in-service training program for Board members be carried out at local levels, the materials provided by Military Government and prefectural Secretariats;
- d. an information program on the functions and purposes of School Boards be sponsored on a national scale;
- e. a relationship between other elected officials and school boards be clarified so that there is no conflict of jurisdiction;
- f. personnel requirements of the Secretariats be made to determine the most economical use of personnel and the securing of qualified

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personnel to fill these positions:

6. higher headquarters and or Ministry of Education furnish guidance in budgetary matters so that the provisions of the Economic Stabilization Program may become realities.

13. This headquarters is putting as many of these recommendations into effect as is possible under current directives.

FOR THE COMMANDING GENERAL:

FROM: Dorother F. Sullivan, Visiting Expert 1 May 1949
TO Chief, Education Division
SUBJECT: Report of Visit to Japan, 4 Oct 1948-1 May 1949

1 May 1949

FROM: Dorothea F. Sullivan, Visiting Expert
TO: Chief, Education Division
SUBJECT: Report of Visit to Japan, 4 Oct 1948-1 May 1949

FORWARD

In August, 1948 the undersigned was invited to go to Japan in September as a Visiting Expert to give youth leadership training for a period of approximately six months. The departure was made by plane from Washington, D.C. 20 September and, due to delays in MATS, the arrival date in Tokyo was 4 October. This precluded attendance at the orientation meeting planned for IFEL. This was unfortunate, not only because of the loss of the orientation material, but also for acquaintanceship with the duties and interests of the other members of the Institute. Because most of them were billeted in the same hotel, it was possible at odd times to make up this loss in some respects, but it did not provide a regular channel for the exchange of observations and suggestions that were mutually helpful. Moreover, because the youth leaders' institutes were scheduled out of Tokyo, it was not possible to attend the weekly IFEL staff meeting. In fact, it was late in winter before one heard these were being held. To utilize fully the benefits of such an assignment, it is hoped that any future plan may work out more advantageously in this respect.

The first two-week national conference for youth leaders was already one day in session before my arrival. This was followed by a succession of regional conferences of one week duration (already described in the IFEL report) which occupied the weeks up till Christmas.

After Christmas the time was devoted to working on reference material for these training youth leaders; field visits as described in separate reports; and two-week group work courses in the Schools of Social Work in Osaka and Tokyo at the request of the PHW Section

In submitting this report, the writer wishes to express deep appreciation to the many persons who rendered her assistance, and regret that they are too numerous to mention by name.

Members of the GIE Section, PHW Section, and the regional and local M.C. teams were unfailingly helpful and thoughtful, often going far beyond the requirements of their duty, with personal time and inconvenience, to give every possible aid.

The Japanese--officials, members of the Ministries of Education and Welfare, the prefectural officials, students in conferences and courses--were invariably

courteous and cooperative. It is impossible to describe briefly the nature and extent of their zeal in making best use of one's time and to provide for one's comfort. Far beyond expectation, they consistently demonstrated their good will toward the accomplishment of one's assignment.

Although the writer had had some study in Oriental culture, she was not prepared for certain aspects which had considerable bearing on the work. Among these were the ready good humor of the Japanese which made it easy for us to laugh together. Another was the habit of circumlocution, which has not been stressed in anthropological studies and which at first was quite disconcerting. The general Japanese attitude toward the Occupation, as compared with that of other occupied countries had been described to me, but one must experience it to realize it fully. The detachment with which World War II, even the atomic bomb, was discussed, the willingness to sacrifice personal comfort and convenience to assist Americans, and the eagerness to identify common professional interests are impressive. Perhaps the most significant gesture was that made by little children throughout the countryside who often spontaneously left their play to run to the roadside to wave to an Occupation car. This kind of thing cannot be forced in small children, but must reflect that attitudes expressed in their homes by their elders. The sight of a baby waving its hand in greeting from the back of a mother who stood by the train or car doing the same is a picture not easily forgotten. Were this kind of cordiality expressed in a subservient or ultra-deferential way, it might be dismissed as inconsequential, but the spirit of camaraderie which pervaded it, gave a feeling of genuine friendliness.

The barefoot youth in Sapporo who missed our departure at the main station was dressed in only a thin student uniform on a cold, wet day, but he rode his bicycle to catch our train at the next station, to say goodbye and thank us. The long-haired, ragged farmer in Kyushu who said with an air of contentment, "I know I will never be able to study in American, but your visit here gives me something to tell the rural people to encourage them toward a better life,"--these are only two of the many incidents that give one sympathy for Japan and hope for her future. They also fill one with humility concerning one's own contribution.

It would be naive to indicate that these expressions are universal or official on the part of the Japanese people. All one can say is that they are actual and frequent and seem spontaneous and sincere. At least one can vouchsafe that the Japanese are meeting a bad situation with a grace and dignity that create an inspiring and gratifying atmosphere in which to work.

Generally speaking, the youth of the nation, as youth in all countries, are full of hope and courage, but like their elders in Japan, they suffer from a paralysis of uncertainty. In their organizational as in their personal life, they have been accustomed to unquestioning obedience and conformance with tradition. They are not materialistic, but the pressures all about them are predominantly so. They are understandably confused in their values. Their

psychology is that of children of a totalitarian state. They repeat superficial judgments pronounced upon them until they come to believe them themselves. Their group associations still follow the formerly predominant pattern of large meetings--speakers can tell them what to do, with passive assent and little subsequent activity. Leadership concepts which are taken for granted in a democratic country seem radical and upset them. They need help in developing objective criteria for group thought and action. Their need for financial support in organizational work is extreme.

Relatively little time has been given to aid youth organizations in Japan. The need for a well-planned, carefully worked out program of assistance is acute. They need close guidance, perhaps a directed demonstration project to help them learn the techniques of democratic leadership so that they know how to select and demand such leadership. Once they grasp it, they will not be easily attracted to any other.

At present only one member of the GIE Section is assigned to youth work. No single member of an M.G. team regards it as a primary responsibility. Yet the thoughts and activities of children and young people are influenced more by persons than textbooks. The youth leader's ideology is far more potent than the teacher's. When a totalitarian regime takes over, its first act is to dissolve all existing youth organizations and put a highly trained staff of dynamic workers in charge of building youth workers with all the allurements of uniform, buildings, camps, literature, and program equipment that appeal to youth. The effectiveness of this method has been demonstrated in country after country. Its indoctrination is so firmly ingrained that it has not yet been proven that time can eradicate it. These young people are not only the leaders of tomorrow--they are the door bell ringers, the placard posters, the soap box orators of today. They will get together in groups because that is the nature of youth. If we do not give them support and direction toward right values, they may turn elsewhere for it. There is no lack of raw material. There is tremendous need for good guidance.

To meet this need it seems advisable to utilize the services of American and Japanese group workers, people who can work with the age range of 7-25 years, which is where leadership is learned and values inculcated. Preferably, the youth organization personnel of GIE should be expanded to provide for experienced group workers who will plan and carry out an extensive program of leadership training and demonstrations of activity. This should include first of all a comprehensive study of current youth activities; establishment of leadership training courses in institutions of higher learning; securing and guiding the operation of community centers; camp programs; after-school center programs for adults as well as children and youth; rural youth activities; research in group psychology; the development of a Japanese literature on group work; aid to American private organizations (such as American youth hostels, boys' clubs, scouts, etc.) wishing to extend their programs; and special information and assistance to M.G. Education officers.

It is clear that no one person, however capable, can fulfill these responsibilities. Youth and group work in Japan should not be thought of in terms of

play programs and hobby classes whether or not it takes the form of recreational meetings. It is not child's play. It extends into the houses and the farms, the universities and the factories. It is the laboratory and training ground for liberty and political leadership. It is the channel for an ideology discussed and practiced in daily life. America has no precedence for this. Its most thoughtful and courageous youth are striving for social justice for minority groups. With Japanese youth it is a matter of life or death, of democratic thought for the majority!

INTRODUCTION

Group work deals primarily with people who are influenced by group opinion. Therefore, its lowest age level is at approximately seven years. It is very potent at approximately 12 to 16 years because of the "gang" tendency which seems universal at this age. It reaches a more conscious and thoughtful level of operation in the 16 to 20 year olds when individuals begin to realize their own rights and powers as citizens. Above that age group activity is more rational than emotional, and leaders emerge who through well defined philosophies and techniques can influence large numbers of people.

Because youth is more teachable as well as more susceptible to group pressure than adults, youth organizations are able to inculcate in children and young people ideals and modes of operation which have a deep influence on their adult lives.

Attendance at youth group activities should be voluntary. Then one meets with an audience already well disposed toward the program.

There is a bond of fellowship among youth and youth workers which transcends the frontiers of nations. It is tied by a common enjoyment of similar activities at comparable ages. It is full of hope for better things for all people and is free from the cynicism of its elders. It is an age of physical energy and vitality. Its loyalty to its country and its school are fierce and often blind. It may doubt its parents' or teachers' authority but rarely that of its peers or youth leaders.

Being unsure of himself, the adolescent looks to those of his own age for approval and support, knowing that each generation faces problems differently.

Unscrupulous adults capitalize on these strengths and weaknesses. Youth has not had time to get historical perspective through living and reading;-- it can only rely on the words of those it loves and admires.

These things are true of the Japanese, as of all other nationalities. In America we have had to devise situations which will give children responsibility, reenforce family life, and permit them to learn the problems of the needy. We

have had to provide outlets for the excess of physical energy generated by protein and vitamin-stuffed healthy young bodies. We have carried the privilege of irresponsible play for children to an age level and degree which educators and psychologists question. American youth takes higher education for granted and does not revere learning. They see themselves as individuals of importance and demand their rights. Politics to them mean a casual concern as to the vague advantage of having one of two parties in power.

This is not true of Japan. The Japanese youth of today are accustomed to family responsibility. They know well what it is to be cold and hungry and in need of decent shelter. Many have never learned the basic principles of health, and others who know them are unable to observe them. They are conditioned to lack of privacy, to physical discomfort, and to the struggle to establish one's self as a respected citizen of the world. They have a great respect for age and a desire for higher education. They do not feel their importance or strength as individuals. Each finds it hard to believe he is entitled to or capable of exercising the powers of a democratic citizen. Politics to them mean actual physical survival, the right to hold a job, to seek after the truth and to protection for their property and persons.

These things can not be learned solely from books and lectures. They must be lived and felt. In youth organizations, free from curriculum requirements with less emphasis on economic and intellectual differences, children and young people develop their special talents and powers in small group meetings. Hopefully, it is under the guidance of wise men and women whose integrity is unquestionable and who can help them construct criteria for their future guidance.

Japan is "group-minded." Family groups, school groups, age groups, work groups, are cohesive and influence the daily actions of the individual.

Moreover, the Japanese have highly cultivated the art of social relations. Their etiquette makes for orderly life patterns and good working relationships. Cooperation and service to the community are in their tradition. These factors are of great value in any country, but especially in one of low economy. They give stability and furnish excellent background against which to develop new youth movements.

REPORT

The report of the youth leaders' training conferences has already been incorporated in the IPFL report of March, 1949. Since this youth leadership program was in many ways separate from the main institute, it may be well to augment the detail and offer suggestions as to how future projects of this sort might profit by this experience.

There is no doubt that we reached a large number of persons and that the participation by attendants was good. Ultimate benefit can not be gauged until much more time has passed. That the conferences were enjoyable as well as profitable to all concerned is a fact. What the participants will do with the material covered is a guess one can only hazard. The Japanese zeal for learning is well known, as is the pattern of close attention to lecture material, but little subsequent action. Close follow-up work with individuals and small groups needs emphasis.

Status Quo

The writer was not brought here primarily to study youth organizations but rather to give training to leaders of existing organizations. So far as is known to me, no single comprehensive study of youth organizations has been made. This seems to be an imperative need. No clear picture of the status quo exists. Some general observations are apparent. Youth groups are in dire financial straits, having little literature, few records of membership or activity, and very vague objectives such as "raising the level of culture" or "peace". No one seems to know what are the qualifications for membership, what goes on at the meetings, how many groups are functioning in a given community, or what is the philosophy behind the leadership.

Yet this is the groups that is the war potential, the group that is always cultivated by militaristic powers. Even if this background material were known to the instructors, a week's conference can not be considered adequate to change the psychology of leadership, much less introduce new concepts.

Literature

The content of publications of existing youth organizations had not been scanned before conferences, but this is now in process. No American group work literature has as yet been put into Japanese. One is not overlooking Kilpatrick's "Group Education for a Democracy" in remarking this. This book is a compilation of speeches given before the war, with the addition of two chapters on the learning process. The speeches express ideas which in light of current expression by the author may not represent his present thinking. The speeches are concerned with problems brought about in the United States by the depression and do not resemble the current situation there or in Japan. This book, however, was the only item available in Japanese for reference use in the training conferences. In my opinion it would not be used for this purpose at present in the United States. The chapters on the learning process are valuable but very technical and seem far above the educational level of the conference attendants.

New material on democracy which is being evolved by the Occupation contains the general philosophical background. What is needed is material or methods of organizing and guiding group action; studies of leadership problems; records,

with marginal annotations, of youth meetings; surveys of youth programs throughout the world; reciprocal responsibility of the individual and the group; criteria for youth movements; and suggested activities for child and youth groups.

Meeting Places

The problems of meeting places and finances were pointed out in my report of the training conferences. We are expecting Japanese youth to do what no other youth group in the world has done to date--namely, to finance its program by individual membership dues. With the present economic situation it seems a fantastic expectation in this country.

Potentials

The 16-25 yearolds in Japan are undoubtedly the most neglected group. The majority of them receive no regular personal guidance, no financial aid, and little or no supervision in their practice of democratic procedures. Yet they organize. Occupation personnel seem unaware of the potential dangers of youth organizations. This danger has not been much felt in the American experience, and unless one has studied developments in other countries, one may misread finger posts, or miss them altogether. For example, the people of Austria thought it was merely an adolescent fad when their boys started wearing white socks. It later turned out that this was the symbol of the Youth Groups sponsored by the Nazis, and at the time of the anchluss, the rest of the uniform was added. Current fads of long hair and high gatas for male Japanese students should not go unnoticed. These may or may not have a significance. Those who saw the May Day parade in Tokyo remarked upon the predominance of youth in new, identical raincoats.

Young Japanese are easily led. Who leads them and toward what will determine the future of the country. They are capable of great self sacrifice and endurance of hardship. They are unaware of their rights and duties as free citizens. Their present feeling of paralysis, probably caused by disorientation, seems to prevent their moving. They are eager to become respected citizens of the world. We must try to help them develop according to the best ideals of their own tradition, with clear principles of democracy, not to be confused with those superficial aspects of American culture which are novel and attractive.

Relation to Government

The present youth cannot divorce from its thinking that it should be a mass movement, with compulsory membership, at the beck and call of every government official. This is the totalitarian pattern. Unfortunately, the seinen-Dan, which was the former government supported group has retained its name, but not its financial support. Since Seinen-gen means "youth organization", a generic term, it is almost impossible to discuss in public the subject of

youth organizations without confusion. The government officials and other leaders are eager for aid in clarifying their mutual responsibilities. Some help has been given here but much more needs to be done. It was recommended to the Ministry of Education after the training conferences that a job description be worked out for prefecture officials in charge of social education which includes youth organizations.

Present Leadership

Two factors noted are the advanced age of youth leaders, and the leadership of women's girls', and coeducational groups by men. This latter, though different from the usual American pattern, is probably not presently a matter of concern although we have recommended that wherever young girls are present in groups, older women should be there as chaperones.

Some of the leaders of 16-25 year old groups are aged 50 and 60. This should be discouraged on the grounds that young adults can furnish their own leadership and should be able to speak for themselves. However, the older men might be retained as "advisers" (Not spokesmen) or encouraged to become leaders of groups of younger children who need adult guidance.

In Osaka and Tokyo there are group work study clubs now functioning. These should provide the needed impetus to building a professional body of knowledge.

Areas of Concern

Rural Youth

Since 50% of the population is agricultural more attention should be paid to rural youth. The rural life in Japan is so different from that of the United States that special study should be made of the needs and interests of its youth. Farmers and fishermen are two groups much courted by Communism. The guidance given these occupational groups as far as activities are concerned should be carefully worked out in cooperation with the proper section. Leadership techniques are generic and adaptable to all settings. So are principles of program building. Certain economic or vocational groups on the other hand need the help of persons familiar with their way of life.

Program Material

Youth groups in the past have stressed ultra-nationalism. At present they are at a loss for suitable activities with which to engage and attract members. Their current trend seems to be "cultural" and they get discouraged because farmers do not seem to be interested in music or factory workers, in drama. With the economic conditions so pressing, they should be encouraged to form interest groups dealing directly with social and economic problems. These

have previously been thought to be the responsibility of government officials but it is only by wide citizen participation that Japan can be lifted above its present living and health standards.

Activities which require little money, like hiking, nature study, etc., should be stressed. A program similar to that of American youth hostels would be beneficial.

Discussion techniques need to be taught and practiced. The Japanese, including the women, seem to be excellent discussants when experienced, leadership is provided.

More opportunity should be given for informal contact with Americans. Discussion clubs for young people might be arranged to cover the myriad questions they have concerning life in the United States, and provide opportunities for exchange of information and fellowship. Certain simple regulations could be drawn up to safeguard such discussions. This plan has worked well in Occupied Germany. It would also save the time of M.G. team personnel and visiting experts who, by demand of the Japanese, must devote considerable time to such matters even though their information on a particular subject is no more than that of any average man.

Pottery is a popular Japanese craft which has received little notice as a good club activity. It is inexpensive and not too difficult. Moreover, its therapeutic value in relieving tension is well recognized by psychologists. This, coupled with the practical value of articles made, merits special mention of it as a desirable center of activity interest.

Communism

However democracy may overlook the importance of youth work, one may be sure that communism never does. Therefore, it seems pertinent to note here some observations made in the pursuance of giving youth leaders training. So far as is known to the writer, the extent of communist influence in non-communist Japanese youth groups has not been studied. We may take it for granted that some exists. It would be valuable to ascertain how many children and youth are enrolled in communist youth groups and the extent in which these mingle and influence other groups. One notices a sharp bitterness expressed toward communists by non-communists here which has no parallel in the United States, probably because of the difference in degree of real fear. In Hokkaido the students told us of direct threats. The communists say, "If you keep cooperating with Americans, we will remember you--look at the map and see how much closer we are to Russia."

Among both Americans in Japan and Japanese there seems to be a little knowledge of what communism actually is and does. It is regarded as a dread disease, very contagious and usually incurable. This results in a helpless,

defeatist attitude, and the average person's suggestions for combating it remind one of laymen discussing a cure for cancer. There is a real need for thorough study of the tenets and techniques of communism. One cannot combat what one knows little about.

Courses in the study of communism should be established for Occupation personnel and Japanese with highly qualified instructors who can refute its errors.

The general attitude toward youth with communist affiliations is that they have joined through evil motivations. This is an erroneous premise. Most young people join communism with idealistic and unselfish motives. They, therefore, should be dealt with accordingly and shown the logical conclusions to the effects of that ideology on individual and family rights. It is not impossible to reconvert communists.

The techniques of communism in group action should be made widely known and techniques with similar effect should be carefully watched. It was not in my schedule to attend any meetings in which a group vote was taken on any important issue. However, in our class discussions the following techniques were noticeable. They may or may not have been deliberate but in any case Occupation personnel should watch for them:

1. Interpreters who did not maintain clear channels of a communication between group and instructor.
2. Members of the group who argue back and forth consuming much time and permitting no one else the floor.
3. Questions asking minute and unimportant details.
4. Speakers who, when the question is thrown open for discussion, say, "You must forgive us but we Japanese are not used to discussion and therefore we cannot express ourselves well"--which has a paralyzing and undermining effect on group participation.
5. Questions which divert the discussion leader to a topic of his known interest but which is irrelevant to the matter at hand.
6. Final speakers who use the last few minutes of the meeting to say, "These suggestions are fine for America, but we have tried them and they don't work here"--followed by applause from a section of the audience.

There are others too numerous to mention, but all Americans should be alerted to techniques that stop group thinking and action or nullify the effect of the speaker.

There is an anxiety on the part of American personnel concerning the possession of communist or "radical" literature. I believe this is unfounded but it is certainly widespread. I heard many stories of people who had had "liberal" tendencies who were discharged or transferred because they were believed to have leftist sympathies. I know of no first-hand instance of this. When I said I had confidence in the workings of civil service and the Justice Department and reminded the speakers that the person under suspicion does not always divulge to his friends the whole story, there were cited cases of injustices worked against seemingly innocent parties. These may exist, but recent happenings in the United States demonstrate the need of the United States Government for vigilance.

However, some reassurance needs to be given employees that their job futures will not be jeopardized because they own or read communist literature in order to keep themselves intelligently informed.

Religious Youth Groups

Japanese youth evidences considerable interest in the subject of religion, especially in its bearing on the conduct of citizens in a democracy. The Christian churches and the Occupation are at present working along parallel lines. Although Christians are a minority group in Japan, they are vocal, organized units. Therefore, it would seem wise to encourage the formation of youth groups in Christian churches. It has been my understanding that this has been considered a responsibility of the Religions & Cultural Resources Division. Certainly very few leaders from religious youth groups, either Buddhist or Christian, attended the training conferences. Later, when it became known that a Catholic university professor was working with youth groups in Japan, I received many requests from Catholic priests, as well as other denominational groups, to help them in this field. When asked why they had not sent leaders to the conferences, they said they had had no knowledge that the program was being offered. Some of the YMCA and YWCA leaders were also church group workers so that to some extent the field was touched as far as the Protestants were concerned. However, it seems desirable to give aid to the comparatively large Catholic segment, particularly since they are eager for help and when the Catholic Church is universally recognized as the uncompromising foe of communism. When the requests came to me, there was no time available in my schedule to meet them, but one hopes they can be included in future planning. The Buddhist Temples as well as the Christian churches can usually provide meeting space, so needed by youth groups. What religious, moral, or ethical training they include with recreational or educational programs is surely an asset to the aims of the Occupation as well as to the spiritual development of Japanese youth. If they are penalized by being excluded, we are open to charges of emphasizing only material and physical well-being.

Settlement Hourses

These fall under the supervision of PH&W Section. Yet they offer youth programs and meeting space for groups activities. Some are private agencies, but there is a large number of settlements under governmental auspices which have been used chiefly as day nurseries and workshops. Without interfering with the current activities, after-school and evening club groups could find meeting space there. Some of the finest youth work in America for low-income families has been developed through settlement hourses. It should not be difficult to work out some plan with PH&W to develop such a program here.

Cocducation and the Five-Day School Week

While these have to do with the school curriculum, they affect youth groups and many questions concerning them are asked. The Japanese do not understand why these two changes are advocated and ask many questions concerning the historical development and proof of benefits of these ideas.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Re Mechanics

In future planning an effort should be made to attach to visiting experts an interpreter who will carry through continuously during the expert's visit. Much time and effectiveness were lost by making use of a different interpreter in each town visited. If an interpreter can be secured who is interested in the same field, both he and the expert can gain much from continuous association in regard to building up their own professional knowledge.

Experts should have time to study conditions in Japan before being asked to teach or give advice. A well-qualified expert can say how he prefers to do this. Much that is good in the United States is impractical here, and the time of the expert and Japanese is wasted if the expert is put in a teaching position before he has investigated the local situation.

"One night stands" and large meetings at which one uses a new interpreter are not particularly valuable. Local team officers are probably more effective in such circumstances. The expert should meet chiefly with small groups of key people and for more lengthy contact.

Lectures given to Japanese should be prepared in advance and detailed outlines distributed. The Japanese are used to the system of German universities and find it difficult to follow without this help.

The range of subjects should be limited and agreed upon in advance. It is impossible to discuss with profit a subject on which one has only casual knowledge and not time for preparation.

Re Military Government Officers

Military Government officers should have more assistance in understanding youth work. An institute of several days' duration would, I think, be welcome by them. It should be planned well in advance with questions and problems solicited from them, and the discussions based upon these. Too often youth work is relegated to a 19-year old G. I. whose only qualification is that he has been a boy scout. These young men have been trying to do a job that requires a person with specific professional training and experience from an adult point of view in youth and group work.

High priority should be given youth work on the list of education officers' duties.

Re Cooperation with other Sections

Cooperation with Christian church groups should be established, and their leaders invited to participate in training courses. This should, of course, be worked out with Religions & Cultural Resources Division, but will undoubtedly meet with their approval as their personnel should not be expected to give youth and group work training.

Cooperation with PHW Section should include the scheduling of courses in schools of social work, in addition to planning for group work in settlements and institutions.

Cooperation concerning the rural youth groups should be worked out with National Resources Section to promote programs similar to those of the 4-h Clubs.

Re Institution of Higher Learning

Courses in recreational leadership should be included in the undergraduate college curriculum; club work for extra-curriculum activities should be included in the teacher-training; group work courses should be included in the basic curriculum of the schools of social work.

Re Facilities

The use of buildings for youth centers is a pressing and an immediate need. They cannot be currently financed by the Japanese. One cannot carry on a youth program without building and program facilities.

Literature on group work should be added to GIE libraries, Japanese translations made, and original Japanese material on the subject developed.

Re Travel to the United States

It is hoped that some plan can be made for training Japanese youth leaders in the United States. Observation visits of a few months might be sufficient

for very experienced workers, but those less experienced should have at least a year -- nine months in a school which offers professional group work training and two months in a summer camp program, especially one dealing with children of low-income families.

Re Studies Needed

A comprehensive study of existing youth organizations, their objectives, activities, finances, and membership qualifications should be made. Attendants at youth leadership training conferences should be carefully checked as to their need for and use of material offered. At present it is said that the same people go to all courses and do not use the material, but maintain a kind of hierarchy of leadership which is informed but not active.

Opportunity to study communism under expert guidance should be offered Americans and Japanese. Perhaps this could be part of an in-service training program for M.G. officers. Leadership and community organization techniques are also subjects in which courses should be offered Americans.

A study of the group factor in Japanese psychology and tradition is desirable. This should cover all forms of group cooperation and association, group sanctions, prestige and power components, and the reciprocal responsibilities of the individual and the group.

CONCLUSION

The foregoing report represents findings resulting from direct assignment in training group leaders, observations made on field trips, and many conversations with Americans and Japanese. There were many requests for consultation and activity which time did not permit. There is no doubt as to the great need and interest for this work on the part of the Japanese.

In closing I would like to add that the experience in Japan has been highly gratifying to me personally. The effort required to enter into a psychology so alien to the western one was taxing but rewarding. It has given me not only many new ideas and friends, but also added insight and perspective on our American Culture.

Dorothea F. Sullivan

Reorganization of the School System of Shikoku

15 March 1949

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15 March 1949

Reorganization of the School System of Shikoku

An attempt has been made to limit this study as much as possible to facts and conditions which have general pertinence and which do not change drastically except over long periods of time. It is believed that the general lines of reorganization described are approximately accurate and will not change to the extent where statements made would have to be appreciably altered.

1. Time Schedule of Reorganization

a. The reorganization of the school system of Shikoku in so far as the complete 6-3-3 System is concerned will be completed, according to present plans, in 1952. This does not mean, of course, that little or nothing will be done by that time. It means that in 1952 the 6-3-3 System of Shikoku should be completed in all its phases: districting, coeducation, consolidation of lower and upper secondary schools on a rational basis, comprehensive schools or approximations thereof, and a good balance between lower and upper secondary schools. It means that in 1952 any boy or girl should be able to get an adequate twelve years of education according to his or her needs and the needs of the community.

b. Reorganization of the primary school is almost complete. No comment is necessary except to say that primary education, while still below what it should be, is better than any other type of education. Primary school facilities are inadequate mainly due to the drain on local resources because of the demands of the lower secondary school, but by and large, this is a matter which is principally a problem of time and spreading of financial resources. The basic principles of primary education are planted and have taken root to a certain extent.

c. Organization of the lower secondary school is almost complete. By 1 April 1949, all boys and girls who should be in school will be in school. That is, the system of compulsory education will be complete and all nine years of education will be available to those young people who must have it. (This excludes a small percentage of handicapped and sick children. This problem, while it needs attention--the Japanese have been neglectful on this point--is not considered in this study.) However, reorganization of the lower secondary school, along the lines of consolidation is necessary and has already started. The quality of this education opportunity varies considerably. On Shikoku, an average of 34 percent of all lower secondary schools now have their own buildings. (Only a small part of these, however, have their own playgrounds and adequate facilities. Most of them are merely separate buildings adjacent to primary schools.) This leaves a considerable

number without any independent facilities to speak of, with the necessity of sharing facilities mostly with primary schools. It is impossible to say when this most undesirable situation will be completely corrected because adequate correction is a local matter. Up until now, considerable and even extreme hardship has been worked on the people of local areas due to enforced or voluntary contributions for building lower secondary school buildings. It can be said that remarkable progress has been made in building on Shikoku even though it can also be said that the situation is still not satisfactory. There is little intention to turn over upper secondary school facilities to lower secondary schools. There will be turnover of some facilities but such turnover will be quite small and will affect the whole picture very little. Vigorous efforts on the part of Military Government--which would have to amount almost to orders--would produce greater turnover but the results would not justify the possible resulting resentment. Altogether, present plans are that perhaps four or five schools will be turned over on Shikoku.

The axiom that the higher one goes in the Japanese educational system the poorer the teaching is quite true on Shikoku. The lower secondary school is next to the primary school in good teaching, but there is not nearly the amount of good teaching that can be found in primary schools. But because of the heavy and continued emphasis on lower secondary education, lower secondary instruction should be a bright spot in Japanese education within two more years.

The most unsatisfactory situation of the 6-3-3 System of Shikoku is the condition of the upper secondary school. The Japanese of Shikoku have persistently ignored this problem--or pushed it aside or passed the buck on it because it was too hot and touchy--since the publication of Hatsugaku 534 and Hatsugaku 63. Since January 1949, however, there has been extraordinary interest, activity and planning, with this problem in the forefront of all other educational problems. Interest has by no means been limited to boards of education and secretariats. An illustration of this preoccupation is the fact that upwards of fifty newspaper articles and editorials have appeared in local Shikoku newspapers, and a number of meetings on the subject have been held. All the boards of education of Shikoku now have some sort of plans for completion of reorganization--with the main emphasis on lower and upper secondary schools--and by 1 April 1949 a start will have been made. In general, four principles will have been adopted: (1) districting, (2) coeducation, (3) comprehensive schools in rural areas and, in urban areas, if not all comprehensive schools, at least comprehensive education, and (4) reduction of the number of upper secondary schools and possible turnover of facilities and teachers to lower secondary schools. Districting will probably be accomplished in 1949, coeducation, as a general policy, will start in 1949 and be complete in 1951, the setting up of comprehensive schools will begin in 1949 and will probably

be completed in 1951. There is opposition to reorganization of the upper secondary school. But this opposition amounts more to "sentiment" than to active opposition, according to some Japanese officials. Other sources, however, indicate that opposition amounts to quite a bit more than "sentiment." At any rate, it seems that Japanese educators and the people are accepting reorganization as inevitable. There can be no doubt that reorganization will be done and properly done--even if it is somewhat delayed.

d. To sum up, a time schedule of reorganization might be somewhat as follows:

- 1 April 1949: Plans made in all prefectures.
 Districting--at least on paper--in Tokushima, Ehime, and Kagawa.
 Coeducation in most primary schools, in a bit more than half of the lower secondary schools, and in the first year of the upper secondary schools. (Not satisfactory, however.)
 A few scattered upper secondary schools comprehensive.
- Fall 1949 : Districting actually completed, i.e., districts set up on paper in all prefectures.
 A majority of upper secondary schools consolidated on the comprehensive school principle.
- Early 1950 : Most lower secondary schools in separate buildings--perhaps 80%-90%.
 Second year of upper secondary school coeducational (?)
 Comprehensive upper secondary education available to most boys and girls.
 Actual districting almost completed--i.e., boys and girls attending upper secondary schools by districts.
- 1951 : Third year of upper secondary school coeducational (?)
 Actual districting completed.
 Most phases of reorganization completed.
 Comprehensive upper secondary education probably available to all boys and girls.
- April 1952 : Probable completion of all phases of reorganization.

2. General Questions

The points outlined in I Corps letter, 10 February 1949, subject: "Studies of Military Government Programs," paragraph 1, a-i, are here directly discussed with reference to reorganization of the school system:

a. The basic aim of the occupation is to make Japan peaceful, democratic, self-sustaining, friendly to the United States, and a bulwark to communism. This point is so obvious as hardly to need mentioning. Reorganization, along the lines laid down by SCAP and the Ministry of Education, is definitely in order. The Japanese educational structure was out of line with democratic objectives and had to be reorganized. The lines of the present reorganization are probably the best they could be. The current reorganization of the lower and upper secondary schools is particularly important in giving to Japanese youth equality of educational opportunity.

b. The Economic Recovery Program is of transcending importance particularly in those aspects expressed in the nine points enunciated by the Department of Defense and announced by SCAP in ten points. That reorganization of the school system very much affects the Economic Recovery Program and the nine points is quite apparent when it is realized that education budgets are very heavy and that reorganization--particularly of the secondary school with its requirements for new buildings and facilities, more teachers, etc.--is helping to swell budgets. It is believed, therefore, that while the Japanese should not lag in reorganizing the system they should not be pushed too hard--from both economic and educational viewpoints. It should be borne in mind, too, that prefectural education budgets show only part of the burden since local building expenses are borne by local areas.

c. The necessity or desirability of revising or modifying pertinent military government directives, and Japanese laws and directives. Since the reorganization of the school system is of the first importance in education for obvious reasons, certain Japanese laws and/or directives might well be modified. This could be made broader by saying that certain policies might well be modified. Article 3 of the Board of Education Law which permits the indiscriminate establishment of local boards of education should be revised. In addition, there could be considerable saving of money, time, and effort now being fruitlessly expended if present policies and practices in social education were modified or eliminated and if educational administrative practices were streamlined. It is impossible here to go into detail but much of the money being used for certain social education activities and being incorporated into educational budgets could be saved and directed to improving the school system. For example, governmental social education agencies could be drastically reduced and their many questionable

activities curtailed. Governmental agencies, as such, have little or no function with women's organizations, youth organizations, PTA's, CPH's, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, religion, etc. Naturally, the Board of Education Law needs modification. Certain articles of the Law-- particularly 3, 4, 31, 44, 45 (Sections 2 and 3), and 49--need modification and/or clarification if much needed money for reorganization is to be saved and if education in general is to be improved. There should be more limitation on board powers especially with regard to setting up secretariats, or better, setting up bureaucracies. Board members should not be paid salaries. Boards should not control social education. They should have nothing to do with religion. If present practices are repeated with the advent of local boards, there will not be enough money left to run the primary schools.

d. The best methods of implementing the program or activity.
The kind of help now being given boards of education, secretariats, principals, and teachers should be continued but with the emphasis always on local help, wherever possible. But there should not be great pressure on them to reorganize too rapidly. Much has been accomplished and the Japanese are getting used to the idea. It is fairly certain that they are, to a certain extent, sympathetic to past reforms in education. But too much pushing may destroy some of this sympathy. Pressure should be eased, guidance of American experts who have studied the Japanese system should always be available and good informational materials should always be at hand. Pushing right now will cause indigestion and resentment --concealed but nevertheless there. In other words, the Japanese should be allowed to assimilate what they already have, work out their own problems, and occasionally get expert and understanding help in working out these problems. Also, they should be freed from the "Bright, New Japan" social education bogey and the constant dinning of "democracy" in their ears without adequate practical backing up. Let some of the food be digested. In fact, it might almost be said that the Japanese already have enough to go on. Help now should be local and of the type which would assist Japanese educators in better learning and implementing ideas and materials already available.

e. The reduction of cost of implementing the program or activity.
See c and d, above. In addition to c and d, above, some mention must be made of budget practices in Japan. Considerable work has been done by CE officers of Shikoku with prefectural educational budgets and the results of this work are, to say the least, discouraging. In a brief paper of this type, it is impossible to describe such a complex subject. And, too, this subject rightly belongs under a treatment of boards of education and secretariats. It is mentioned here because it vitally affects the progress of reorganization. In brief, Japanese education budget practice are very bad. Little responsibility is shown by the officials drawing up budgets and by the agencies passing the budgets. The feeling seems to be that they are spending "their" money and not the people's money. There is little adequate surveying of actual needs and planning for the future. Too great reliance is put on the Japanese institution of the supplementary budget. If there is one single recommendation which might be made and which should be followed, it would

be to recommend that American budget experts teach the Japanese how to make up and follow budgets.

f. The simplification of the program or activity. The reorganization program can hardly be simplified. It is complex and requires a complex solution. One suggestion, however, can be made and that is that since much of the informational material given to Japanese educators has been too high-flown, too gogueish, and too far removed from the practical solution level, such material, in the future, might well be limited to the concrete suggestion type of thing with only occasional theory of education thrown in to clarify particular problems. Excellent examples of what can be done and what is effective are Parts II and III of the Ministry of Education Bulletin, "Curriculum of the New Upper Secondary Schools." Other publications tend toward the gobbledygook and defeat their very purpose. (Just consider all the educational stuff put out in three years. Not even a doughty American Ph.D. with alleged "educational background" could keep his head up.)

g. The making of the program or activity attractive and acceptable to the Japanese. To make reorganization attractive and acceptable to the Japanese is not completely possible. The Japanese accept it as inevitable and, at present, this is about all that can be expected. Actually, they do not understand the principles behind reorganization and are not likely to understand them until they have had some experience with the reorganized school system and until they arrive at some sort of maturity. Reorganization, especially of the upper secondary school, goes against Japanese sentiment and tradition. For that matter, it would go against a lot of American sentiment and tradition. To mention English and French sentiment would be supererogatory. The program should be encouraged along the above indicated lines with the hope that the Japanese will, in general, soon appreciate its virtues in a democratic country.

h. The overcoming of existing difficulties and obstacles which hinder the program or activity. This point has been explained above. It might be repeated, however, that the Japanese in local areas should be left to work out reorganization problems themselves with adequate professional help always available and with continued emphasis on professional standards for secretariat officials, principals, and teachers. Big conferences should be dropped. Help should be almost always at local levels and should be keyed to practical problem-solving. (For example, budget experts should work with the Japanese on their own budgets, and teach them budget principles while working on actual budgets. There should be a minimum of lecture on the abstract principles of budgeting. Instead, the particular budget expert should sit down with the Japanese in the prefecture whose duty it is to prepare the budget and help them prepare it. While doing this, he would try to make clear to them why such and such a practice is necessary and desirable. Naturally, he would have to master--if it is possible--the intricacies of Japanese budget practices.) In addition, it would

help greatly if American education officers could be encouraged to probe deeper into the Japanese system and especially into the Japanese level of understanding. Ignorance of Japanese thinking and practice has caused and is right now causing misunderstanding or lack of rapprochement between Americans and Japanese. The serious gap created has lead and will continue to lead to abortion of many ideas and programs. An intensive study of language problems should be made and American education officers and their interpreters should be thoroughly familiarized with language problems and with appropriate translations of educational expressions arrived at by careful study and agreement of educational experts, American and Japanese.

i. The need and desirability of the program or activity. The need and desirability of reorganization is obvious and needs no comment. It need only be said that reorganization of the school system must be done if Japanese education is to be democratized.

3. Conclusion

The above remarks are a synthethis of the opinions of all Shikoku CE officers, the facts contained in Inclosure 2, newspaper articles and editorials, and Japanese opinion. Accurate generalization in a complex field such as reorganization of a school system, involving as it does basic economic difficulties and problems and philosophies of life, is extremely difficult--perhaps almost impossible. This essay is only an attempt to get at some of the basic facts of the reorganization problem and an attempt to supply lines of thought which might help in adequately solving difficult problems

Prepared by CE Section
Shikoku M.G. Region

F-773

Extra

GENERAL HEADQUARTERS
 SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS
 Civil Affairs Section
 APO 500

000.8 (14 Jun 50)CAS-CE

14 June 1950

SUBJECT: Board of Education Law

5-480

TO: Chief, Chugoku Civil Affairs Region, APO 132
 Chief, Hokkaido Civil Affairs Region, APO 7-5
 Chief, Kanto Civil Affairs Region, APO 500
 Chief, Kinki Civil Affairs Region, APO 25
 Chief, Kyushu Civil Affairs Region, APO 24-5
 ✓ Chief, Shikoku Civil Affairs Region, APO 1050
 Chief, Tohoku Civil Affairs Region, APO 7
 Chief, Tokai-Hokuriku Civil Affairs Region, APO 710
 (Attn: Civil Education Officer)

Attached is copy of revised Board of Education Law. This material is being forwarded for your information.

FOR THE CHIEF, CIVIL AFFAIRS SECTION:

1 Incl
 Law

J. R. O'Brien
 J. R. O'BRIEN
 CWOC USA
 Adm 4-0 OFF

TOKUSHIMA KEMPO OR PREF. GAZETTE,Dated on 20 Nov., 1948. (Extra No.)

Rule No. 1 of Tokushima Pref. Board of Education.

In accordance with Art. 53, Clause 2 of the Bd of Ed Law, rule for advertisement way of rules of Pref. Bd of Ed will be regulated as follows:-

Date: 20 Nov., 1948
By : Pref. Bd of Ed.

Art. 1. Rules of Pref. Bd of Ed will be announced publicly on the Pref. gazette and in special cases, it may be recorded on the press Tokushima Shimbun or the Tokushima Mimpo.

Art. 2. Rules will be effective from the seventh day after the announced date except the special case when the executive date is regulated.

Additional rule: This rule will be executed from the date of announcement and applied from 1 Nov., 1948.

Rule No. 2 of Pref. Bd of Ed.

Rule for advertisement way of public notifications, instructions and orders will be regulated as follows:-

Date: 20 Nov., 1948
By : Pref. Bd of Ed.

Public notifications, instructions and orders will be announced publicly on the Pref. Gazette.

Additional rule: This rule will be executed from the date of announcement and applied from 1 Nov., 1948.

Rule No. 3 of Pref. Bd & Ed.

In accordance with Art. 32 of the Bd of Ed Law, temporary rule regarding service and duty for members of Pref. Bd of Ed. for the time being till establishment of law which regulates matters re officials in community or local public organizations.

Date: 20 Nov., 1948
By : Pref. Bd & Ed

F
Extra

Rule for service and duty for members of Pref. Bd of Ed.

- Art. 1. Member should perform educational administration proper to local situation hearing people's fair will under self-consciousness that education should be performed with responsibility directly to the whole people without suffering from unfair control, and at performance of its duty, all their forces should be exerted.
- Art. 2. After its appointment, member must sign on the written oath with following form or he ought not to take office.

Oath

Hereby I oath that I feel honorable to get membership of Tokushima Pref. Bd of Ed and I will protect faithfully the Constitution and laws in Japan and keep ordinances, regulations and rules and I will perform my duty fairly according to my conscience adhering to nothing, fearing nothing and hating none.

Date: _____

Sign and seal: So and so, member of Pref. Bd of Ed.

- Art. 3. Regarding performance of its duty, member should follow laws, ordinances, regulations and rules, and decision of the Bd faithfully.
- Art. 4. Member ought not do such deeds as it defaces its post or the name of the Bd.
- Art. 5. Member ought not to let out a secret which he know on the duty, and the same as after his retirement. When he gives expression to a secret on his duty as a witness or justice etc on laws or ordinances, it is necessary to be authorized by the Bd. This authorization should not be rejected except when concerned to conditions or procedures fixed by laws or ordinances, or rules of the Bd.
- Art. 6. The other articles necessary to member's duty, except one regulated in above Art. 5, will be settled by the Bd.

Additional rule: This rule will be executed from the date of announcement and applied from 1 Nov., 1948. But rule in Art. 2 will be applied from 8 Nov., 1948.

Rule No. 4 of Pref. Bd of Ed.

In accordance with Art. 40, Clause 1 of the Bd of Ed Law, rule for procedure of meetings of Pref. Bd of Ed will be regulated as follows:-

Date: 20 Nov., 1948
By : Pref. Bd of Ed.

Table of contents of rule for procedure of meetings.

- # 1. General rule.
 - # 2. Settlement of meeting term and its prolongation.
 - # 3. Proceedings.
 - Sect. 1. Opening, closing rest, enlengthening and adjournment.
 - Sect. 2. Business or order of the day.
 - Sect. 3. Proposition and motion.
 - Sect. 4. Proceedings.
 - Sect. 5. Utterance.
 - Sect. 6. Correction.
 - Sect. 7. Decision by vote.
 - # 4. Free discussion.
 - # 5. Petition.
 - # 6. Resignation from membership and qualification of membership.
 - # 7. Orders.
 - # 8. Punishment.
 - # 9. Minutes of meeting.
 - Additional rule.
-

Rule for procedure of meetings of Pref. Bd of Ed.

- # 1. General rule.
- Art. 1. Member must rally at the time and place designated by notification for call.
- Art. 2. Bd-meetings will be opened or closed by chairman.
- Art. 3. When both chairman and vice-chairman are out of order, temporary chairman will be elected in order to do its business. Selection of temporary chairman may be put under chairman's charge by the Bd.
- Art. 4. If they have no agent of chairman at the time of election of chairman or vice-chairman or the above Art. Clause 1, the eldest member will do temporarily business of chairman. Regarding election, for the case of nomination and recommendation, Art. 118, Clause 2-4 of Local Self-Government Law will be applied, and for the case of vote, it will be done based on examples in Art. 6 and so on of this rule.

- Art. 5. Chairman or vice-chairman can resign from his post after getting permission of the Bd.
- Art. 6. When a vote will be done at the Bd. chairman will make secretariat to deliver the fixed forms for ballot to each member. Members will vote one after another following after call of secretariat.
- Art. 7. When voting of the present members finished, chairman will sentence to close the ballot-box. After the sentence vote can not be done.
- Art. 8. When vote, chairman will shut doors of entrances of the chamber.
- Art. 9. When chief secretariat's call finished, chairman should make secretariat to get ballot-box shut after recognition of all ballot done.
- Art. 10. Chairman will examine ballots and sentence the result, under presence of two scrutieers nominated among the members.
- Art. 11. At election in the Bd, if there is no one who got the majority of effective ballots, between two who got the most plurality, decisive vote will be done. But if two ones' ballots are equal, it will be decided by lot-drawing.
- Art. 12. If the elected one refuses, the election will be done again.
- Art. 13. All questionable problems on vote will be decided by the Bd.
- Art. 14. For order of seats of the members, numerical order settled by the Bd will be used and each member's seat will have a card with numerical orders and his name.
- Art. 15. On the called day, member will inform orally or in written of address of its lodging-house to chairman. The same when address changed.
- Art. 16. When member wants to be absent, before opening of the meeting, the reason should be applied properly to chairman. When member wants to go away from the seat during the meeting, he should apply to chairman about it.
- Art. 17. Supt and persons who were required to do so by supt should attend the meeting when required to attend in order to explain.
- # 2. Settlement of meeting term and its prolongation.
- Art. 18. Meeting term will be as follows:-
- (1) For regular meeting: Within seven days from the call-day.
 - (2) For temporary meeting: Within two days from the call-day. When the meeting was opened, chairman will settle the term consulting with the Bd.
- Art. 19. When deliveration of subjects cannot be finished within the term or if necessary specially, chaيمان may prolong the term by within 3 days consulting with the Bd.

Art. 20. When the term settled or prolonged, soon chairman will inform to each member of it.

3. Proceedings.

Sect. 1. Opening, closing, rest, enlengthening and adjournment.

Art. 21. The hour-limit of the meeting will be from 10:00 to 16:00 and its opening and closing will be informed with electric bell or the other ways. Chairman may shorten or enlengthen the hour-limit from his own opinion or consulting with the Bd.

Art. 22. For opening, closing, enlengthening and short rest, it will be sentenced by chairman and it will be shown on the board in the chamber. Before chairman's sentence of opening or after it of adjournment, closing, or short rest, no one can utter on proceedings.

Art. 23. When proceedings on order of the day finished, chairman will sentence adjournment. When the proceedings unfinished, it passed after 16:00, chairman may enlengthen the meeting.

Art. 24. On holidays and Sunday, the meeting will be rested, but if necessary, chairman may open the meeting consulting with the Bd. In the latter case, it will be informed to each member by the day before it. When the meeting will be rested temporarily, it will informed as the above.

Sect. 2. Business or order of the day.

Art. 25. At the end of the meeting, chairman will report to the Bd. of business for the next meeting. When the meeting on the day before was adjourned, the above procedures will be taken at the beginning of the meeting of the day.

Art. 26. If recognized necessary by chairman or motion introduced from the floor, change or addition of order of the day may be done consulting with the Bd.

Art. 27. Chairman may introduce conveniently each subject in lump as one subject at the same time except the case when the present major members' objection exists.

Art. 28. When the meeting for matters settled on order of the day cannot be held, or some one in order of the day was unfinished, chairman should include it in order of the day for the next meeting.

Sect. 3. Proposition and motion.

Art. 29. For member's proposition, the draft with the reasons should be submitted to chairman and chairman will deliver it printed to each member. But when urgent or simple, it may be stated orally at the meeting.

- Art. 30. Proposition or motion will be taken up as the subject after getting one or over one supporters for it. Number of supporters for motion will be counted by way of documents, or utterance done after getting chairman's permission, or may be by way of chairman's recognition. In this case, chairman should declare to take it up as a subject.
- Art. 31. Urgency motion will be taken up as subject after order of the day was changed. Motion related to business procedure will be taken up as subject immediately. For Order of the matters in the above two clauses to be taken up as subject, it will be settled by chairman. When there are some objections, it should be decided consulting with the meeting.
- Art. 32. For withdrawal of bill introduced by member or proposition proposed or motion which once was taken up as subject, it cannot be done without agreement of the Bd.
- Art. 33. Bill which was proposed from member or established but once denied cannot be submitted to the meeting again during the same term.
- Sect. 4. Proceedings.
- Art. 34. When he take up some matters related to the meeting as subjects to be discussed, chairman will declare to do so.
- Art. 35. Chairman will make chief-secretariat to read aloud the bill taken up as subject, but if convenient, it may be omitted.
- Art. 36. When the submitted bill was taken up as subject for the first time, exclamation of its object or purport may be given from its author or introducer.
- Art. 37. The Bd may put business of arrangement of clauses or letters (or characters) in subjects decided or corrected under chairman's charge.
- Sect. 5. Utterance.
- Art. 38. Any member who wants to utter, will utter after getting chairman's permission, standing, calling "chairman!" saying his own number of the seat.
Any attendant, fixed in Art. 17 of this rule, who wants to utter, will utter after getting chairman's permission, standing, calling "Charian!", saying "Supt" or official, so and so.
- Art. 39. When asked utterance from two or more than two members at the same time, chairman will give utterance before to one whom chairman recognized to be sooner stander.
- Art. 40. Any one who wants to utter about the subject reported as order of the day, may notify chairman about it submitting a memo written whether it is question against or for it with his seat-number.
- Art. 41. Any members who did not notify cannot utter before finish of all members' utterance who notified.
- Art. 42. Member who could not finish his utterance on account of adjournment

or rest, can continue his before utterance when proceedings about it will begin again.

Art. 43. Utterance out of or beyond the subject should not be done, such utterance should be checked by chairman if it recognized so. And when it is not followed, chairman may stop the utterance.

Art. 44. For utterance related to proceedings except one recognized to be directly related to the subject or to be necessary to be managed immediately, chairman will settle the chance when its utterance to be permitted.

Art. 45. Any member cannot read aloud any documents of his opinion or the reasons at the meeting except the cases of it for quotation or report, or reading of the bill for introduction.

Art. 46. When chairman himself wants to participate in discussion, it should be done after its notification and getting back to his seat and giving chair to vice-chairman.

Art. 47. Chairman will sentence of finish of questions or discussion. If finished the utterance not yet, any member may introduce a motion to finish discussion or questions. In that case, chairman should decide it consulting the meeting.

Sect. 6. Correction.

Art. 48. Motion for correction will not be existed unless getting over one third's supporters of the present members.

Art. 49. When several motions for correction of the same subject were introduced at the same time, chairman will settle the order to be taken up and the motion which are the most off from the original plan will be taken up for the first.

Art. 50. When all correction bills were denied, the original bill should be taken up for discussion.

Art. 51. When any one of all correction bills and the original bills could not get major support but it was decided not to abolish, continually at the next meeting of the Bd. will be discussed. The same when its deliberation unfinished.

Sect. 7. Decision by vote.

Art. 52. Any member who is not in the chamber at the time of voting cannot participate in decision by vote.

Art. 53. When he wants to decide some matters by vote, chairman must sentence the subject for it. After chairman's declaration for it, no one can utter about the subject.

- Art. 54. Any member who is in the chamber, cannot reject his participation in decision by vote.
- Art. 55. When chairman wants to decide some matters, supporters shall stand up and chairman will sentence the result, pros and cons recognizing number of standers. When its recognition is difficult or major members protest against chairman's sentence, chairman must decide it by way of ballots.
- Art. 56. When chairman recognized necessary to do so or major members require to do so, it will be decided by way of ballots with voter's name or ballots without voter's name consulting with the meeting.
- Art. 57. When the voting finished, chairman will sentence the result.
- Art. 58. Any member cannot require to revise his own vote.
- Art. 59. Chairman can ask pros and cons about the subject to the Bd. When he recognized there is no objection, he will sentence that the subject was pressed or approved. But when over one-third of members protest against the subject or against chairman's sentence, chairman must take decision way of rising.
- Art. 60. In decision in the above articles (Art. 54. etc), chairman will participate, too.
- # 4. Free discussion.
- Art. 61. During the meeting term, the Bd. can hold a conference for it in order to perform free discussion (round-table confab). Its term will be decided by chairman.
Its opening procedures will be taken based on examples of it in the Bd meeting.
- Art. 62. For its utterance, regulations related to utterance in this rule will be used except the case specially decided by the Bd.
- Art. 63. When a motion for vote about the subject to be discussed will be introduced from the floor, chairman will decide it consulting with the meeting. For its decision, rules in # 3, Sect. 7 will be used.
- # 5. Petition.
- Art. 64. Petition should be submitted to chairman by way of document with summary of the petition, date, petitioner's address and name (sign) and seal.
When judicial person, its representative's signature and seal under its name should be done. Member who introduces petition in the above two clauses should express his introduction with his signature and seal on the cover of the petition.
- Art. 65. Petition will be introduced to the meeting of the Bd.
- Art. 66. For petitions decided to be taken up, chairman will send to Supt

and require Supt's report on its disposed result.
For ones decided not to be taken up, chairman will inform of it with the reasons to the introduces members.

Art. 67. For any petitions and such matters whose contents are proper as petitions, the Bd will receive it and will handle it samely as the petitions.

6. Member's resignation and qualification of membership.

Art. 68. When any member wants to resign from his post, he will tender a resignation to the Bd.

Art. 69. Chairman will decide whether to approve or not consulting with the meeting about it.

7. Orders.

Art. 70. Member should maintain dignity of the Bd. Persons who enter the chamber must keep its clothings not to be ugly, and cannot put on nor bring hats, over-coats, shawl or canes etc except the case permitted by chairman on account of illness or other reasons.

Art. 71. Persons who are in the chamber, should not do such deeds to hinder the proceedings as secret private talk or smoking, and should keep silence.

Art. 72. When the chamber is noisy and chairman require, any one should keep silence.

Art. 73. For problems of maintenance of order inthe chamber, chairman will settle it. If chairman recognized necessary to do so, chairman may decide it consulting with the meeting.

8. Punishment.

Art. 74. When there are some punishment cases against laws or this rule, chairman will decide it through decision of the meeting.

Art. 75. Punishment case may be introduced by proposition of over one-third of the members, but this proposition should be introduced within three days from the day when the matter occurred.

9. Minutes of meeting.

Art. 76. On the minutes, following articles should be described:-

- (1) Articles related to call and opening and closing of meetings of the Bd and its date (with hour, day, month and year).
- (2) Date of opening, rest, closing, and adjournment.
- (3) Seat-numbers and names of the members attended.

- (4) Posts or charges and names of officials attended for explanation.
- (5) Names of secretariates attended the meeting.
- (6) Reports from chairman and Supt.
- (7) Titles of the subjects introduced to the meeting.
- (8) Propositions and motions taken up as the subjects and names of its proposers or introducers.
- (9) Articles decided.
- (10) Decision by vote, number of pros and cons and its seat-numbers and names.
- (11) Results of the speech or discussion.
- (12) The other articles recognized necessary by chairman or the Bd.

Art. 77. On the minutes, articles or words withdrawn cannot be described.

Art. 78. Member who gave his speech, may require to correct letters and characters and words in it after delivery of the minutes but he cannot change the significance of the speech.

Art. 79. When there are protesters about the articles recorded on the minutes or correction of the minutes, chairman will decide it consulting with the Bd.

Art. 80. On the minutes, all members attended to the meeting should sign his name on it.

Art. 81. Proceedings of the meeting will be recorded by way of stenography, but stenography may be omitted.

Additional rule

Art. 82. For questionable problems in this rule or the matters not regulated in this rule or the other rules, it will be decided by the Bd. When there are objections, it will be decided through the meeting.

Art. 83. For reformation of this rule, it cannot be introduced to the meeting unless requirement of over one-fourth of all the members under the active posts at the present. And this rule cannot be reformed unless agreement of over one-third of all the members under the active posts and moreover of over three-fourth of the members attended.

Art. 84. This rule will be executed from the date of announcement and applied from 1 Nov., 1948.

Rule No. 5 of Pref. Bd of Ed.

In accordance with Art. 40, Clause 1 of the Bd of Ed Law, rule for hearers (visitors) of Pref. Bd of Ed will be regulated as follows:-

Date: 20 Nov., 1948.

Bt : Pref. Bd of Ed.

- Art. 1. Persons who want to hear the meeting should follow the direction of officials in charge of the chamber.
- Art. 2. Entrance of persons who were recognized to fall under one of following conditions should not be permitted.
- (1) Person recognized to be mad or drunken.
 - (2) Bringer of arms or dangerous weapons.
 - (3) Person who wants to hear after capacity audience.
- Art. 3. Whatever reason he has, hearer should not enter the chamber (among members' seats).
- Art. 4. During hearing, following deeds should not be done:-
- (1) To leave the visitors' gallery at random.
 - (2) To put on a hat or overcoat.
 - (3) To bring with umbrella, cane etc or to get on sandal, "Geta".
 - (4) To eat, drink or smoke.
 - (5) To criticize speeches on the proceedings or to express his pros or cons to it.
 - (6) To be noisy or to do such a deed as hinder the proceedings.
 - (7) To talk secretly or privately, whisperly or loudly.
 - (8) To do or say to disgrace dignity of the Bd., neglecting the meeting.

Person who does not keep the rule in the above clauses will be warned and, if continued further as he was, he will be ordered to go away from the chamber.

- Art. 5. When hearing was prohibited or they were required to go away from the chamber, hearers should leave the chamber immediately.

Additional rule: This rule will be executed from the date of announcement and applied from 1 Nov., 1948.

AG 000.8 - BA
(15 Aug 49)

1st Ind

AMP/PNK/my

SUBJ: Sample Regulations for Prefectural or Local Boards of Education

Hq Shikoku Civil Affairs Region, APO 1050, 26 August 1949

TO: Commanding General, I Corps, APO 301
ATTN: CA, CE Officer

1. This headquarters has made a careful examination of enclosure to basic letter for the purpose of determining its possible usefulness in implementing the Civil Education program with boards of education. The result of this examination has been to withdraw enclosure from circulation in the Shikoku Region. Its obvious deficiencies are such that its use by CE officers or boards of education would lead both to the possible adoption of poor rules and regulations by the boards and to bad general practice of the boards.

2. No attempt is made here to analyze completely the deficiencies mentioned above. But enough of them are here outlined to illustrate what is meant in paragraph 1, above.

a. General arrangement of articles is poor. For example, there are too many small items dignified by the rank of "article," and arranged illogically. (See University of Missouri Bulletin, 1948, "Suggestions for Procedure for Missouri Boards of Education," pp. 40 ff. See also 24th yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators, "School Boards in Action," p. 98. See also Mort, "Principles of School Administration," Appendix D. This last reference is probably the best for the purpose at hand, that is, for help in guiding the Japanese.)

b. There are important items missing from the sample rules and regulations which, if they are to be a guide to the Japanese, must be relatively complete in their coverage of board functions. For example, there is insufficient or no material on finance, election of the board, duties of the board, and about employees of the board--principals, teachers, clerks, etc.

c. Some specific points are:

- (1) In Chapter I, although the chapter is labelled "General Rules," specific dicta are laid down. For example, the method of electing chairman and vice-chairman is given. Also, resignation of chairman and vice-chairman, board members, and position vacancies.

- (2) Article 7 is too specific in a model. The Japanese would tend to think that they must meet on the second Saturday of each month.
- (3) Article 13 is unnecessary and undesirable. Following this would unduly interrupt the business of the boards of education.
- (4) Article 14 is unnecessary and undesirable as is the chart which is used to illustrate it. This is a matter which not only does not belong in rules and regulations but which should be left to Japanese initiative.
- (5) Article 22 is questionable. Although the Missouri Bulletin says that if a board member abstains from voting he shall be considered to have voted with the majority, such procedure is questionable and possibly undemocratic. Article 22 says he must vote. This might be remedied by saying he should vote. (The English and the Japanese do not agree. The Japanese says "must" with regard to members voting and "must" with regard to the chairman too. The English says the chairman "should" vote.)
- (6) Article 24 is questionable. Voting by ballot on every issue might be undesirable and unwieldy. And what are the special cases when the chairman may take the vote by show of hands?
- (7) Article 25 is questionable. A tie vote is a negative vote. A motion lost by a tie vote is lost. Of course, the matter may be reconsidered at a later meeting but it does not necessarily have to be so reconsidered. (See pp. 191-192, Robert's "Rules of Order.")
- (8) Article 26. This order of business, although from the University of Missouri Bulletin, could probably be improved in view of the Japanese situation. This order is too obviously superintendent-centered. A few changes in headings would rectify this. See Mort, page 339, for another order of business.
- (9) Article 28. The reasons for secret meetings should be made clearer. The Japanese tendency to have too many secret meetings might be further strengthened by the ambiguity of this article.
- (10) Article 35 goes against recognized good American procedure. This is one of the most serious defects

of these regulations. Since the objection to this article is a basic one it applies equally to boards in the United States and in Japan. That is, it is now well recognized that sub-committees of boards of education are undesirable because the formation and work of such committees tends to pervert the basic desirable method of board operation as a policy-making body. It can be said that the use of committees by boards is an arrogation of the function of the superintendent of education. See Mort, page 288 ff. See also page 40, Missouri Bulletin. See also "School Boards in Action," page 40, and Leaflet No. 47, U.S. Department of Interior, Office of Education, "Know Your Boards of Education."

- (11) Article 40 is most undesirable. It is not only undesirable to have the structure of the secretariat in rules and regulations but the recommended structure of the secretariat does not apply to many prefectures in Japan. This, of course, is an opinion, but it is an opinion based on experience with boards and secretariats. The recommended structure is too large for many prefectures and tends to contribute to the undue swelling of the personnel of secretariats leading eventually to bureaucratic abuses.
- (12) Article 54. This is not a rule but a suggestion for other rules. As such, it does not belong in the rules and regulations.

3. It is believed that the use of these rules and regulations would have a deleterious effect on boards of education and their operation. It is realized, of course, that the rules and regulations now being used by boards of education are inadequate, to say the least. But the substitution of other rules and regulations which are obviously inadequate and which have the cachet of Civil Affairs approval is still worse. This headquarters has taken the attitude that rules and regulations are of such a basic and important nature that beyond general suggestions--for example, outlines of good rules and regulations or what is generally necessary in good rules and regulations--Civil Affairs should offer no sample rules and regulations. Rather, the Japanese should, in fact, must, grow to the extent where they can fashion their own rules and regulations. It is repeated that Civil Affairs officers might well give general precepts to help boards of education but the drawing up of detailed rules, even as a guide, is both undesirable and unwise. The basic reasoning behind these statements is that if the Japanese do not understand, in this case, what they are using, serious harm may result at a later date. It is re-

commended, therefore, that the sample rules and regulations referred to above be withdrawn from circulation and not be used at all. It is suggested that if anything of this nature is put out that it be in outline form and that a logical structure be observed, such a structure possibly being based on the type given in Mort, pages 337 ff.

1 Incl:
Sample Reg. for
Pref. or Local
Bds. of Educ.
(Eng. and Jap.)

ALBERT M. PIGG
Colonel SC
Commanding

*29 Aug 1949
Outline of a similar
document is to be prepared
by 7 K per Meeting 27 Aug 49
An outline or check list of items
which should be included*

MAY 11 1948

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION IN JAPAN

Introductory Statement and Evaluation

This pamphlet "Religious Education in Japan" has been distributed by the Japan Religious League (Nippon Shukyo Remmei) throughout Japan. Because of its wide distribution and because it is the only study of the subject generally available to the Japanese, several Military Government officers have expressed a desire for an English translation. In accordance with this request, an English copy is here made available. It is included in the mailbag as a matter of information concerning activity of the Japan Religious League in the religious education field and is not to be construed as implying SCAP sponsorship or approval. This statement applies particularly to certain questionable interpretations of the Constitution as applied to the treatment of religion in the public schools. The larger portion of the pamphlet, however, deals with religious education in private schools and is not only excellent but contains material not available elsewhere.

Religion

The experience called religion is almost universal among mankind. It has existed in all ages. It exists today in all places. When attempts have been made to eradicate religion from the lives of the people, they have resulted in failure. Well might the philosopher Sabatier say, "Man is incurably religious!"

It must be, then, that religion meets certain fundamental needs of man, or it would not be so widely and tenaciously held. For the individual, it lifts his life out of the merely mundane and temporal, and gives it meaning in terms of the spiritual and eternal. It gives inspiration and hope in life, strength in suffering, consolation in death. For the group it gives origin and support to social ideals. It is the inspiration for and a sustaining factor in those forms of human association which are essential to human brotherhood and democracy. When the spirit of high religion permeates its citizenship, a nation has one of the most important elements for its endurance and progress.

But while one may speak thus of religion in general, in actual fact there is not one religion, but many religions. This follows from the very nature of religion. It deals with ultimate causes and absolute values. In the realm of the nature and purpose of the ultimate source of being and man's relation to the Power or powers which sustain his life and determine his destiny, there is no verifiable knowledge which approaches the scientific. In the realm of values there is no absolute criterion for truth. This

does not make religion the less significant and valuable, for much of what man holds dearest is not subject to scientific verification, indeed, man can and does have much true knowledge apart from discoveries which result from scientific method.

Man's religious knowledge is based on divine revelation, but revelation works in and through the human setting in which it is given. There may be large areas of agreement among religions, but religious conviction is of such a nature that a man will regard his own religion as the only true and good one for him. Thus it happens that in any civilized country, many religions exist side by side, each with its own followers.

Freedom of religion is practiced by most modern states. This principle recognizes the value of religion. It grants the individual citizen the right to believe and worship according to the dictates of his own conscience. It permits persons to form themselves into religious associations for the practice and propagation of their faith. It denies that it is either possible or wise for a government to prescribe, control or influence the free expression of the religious spirit. In turn, while granting the right of individual citizens to criticize the actions of government by religious principles, it denies official control of government by religious groups. It prohibits a religious test as a qualification for public office.

Religion and Education

Education is the systematic effort of a society through which it seeks to interpret and establish its ideals and modes of life. Each new generation needs to be introduced into the society of which it is a part, through acquaintance with its culture, its organization and laws, its present social life, its fundamental assumptions. Hence education is provided for all the children. But there are also those of more mature years who are inadequately educated. Hence education should not be limited to the young.

The more formal aspects of education are provided by the schools. But there is a vast amount of education which goes on outside the schools--in the home, in the general community, in recreational activities, in labor and business. Proper inter-relations between the more formal and the informal aspects of education must be maintained if the best interests of education are to be served.

A society properly includes in the curriculum of its schools those elements of its culture and those aspects of its life which it regards as of greatest value. By this test, religion should have a place of importance in the curricula of all schools. This, however, raises a serious problem for the public schools when considered in relation to the principle of religious freedom. To this problem further attention will be given later.

Religion needs education. Like other elements of the culture, religion is most effectively propagated by educational processes. Through education, religion may be effectively related to other elements of human knowledge.

Education can save religion from sinking into superstition and other irrational manifestations. By education, the pupil will not simply have religion transmitted to him, but will be prepared to make a creative contribution to its development and progress. At graduate and research levels, education may contribute to religion that constant reconstruction of its thought forms and expressions which will keep it abreast of general human knowledge, and enable it to make its proper contribution to man's understanding of himself and his universe.

Education needs religion. So important is religion in culture that no education can be complete which does not include it. The objectives of the good life which education seeks to achieve cannot be had without the inclusion of religion. Men and women need a faith to live by, and for most of them naturalism or humanism is not adequate for the yearning spirit. Education for democracy needs religion, for the ideals of democracy and the spirit of religion have much in common. Education for the abundant personal life and for wholesome group life needs religion.

Religious Education

The term religious education may be used in a variety of ways, as follows:

1. Objective and informational teaching about religion. Such teaching is necessary if people are to understand what religion is and how it manifests itself in history, literature, art, and religious institutions. Without this, citizens are inadequately prepared to understand much that is of significance in personal and social living. Such teaching need not be given with a bias toward any particular religion. Its purpose should be tolerant understanding and appreciation, not the winning of converts. Such education may be a legitimate function of the public school, for without it there can be no adequate preparation for citizenship.

2. Propagandist education in a particular religion. People do not become religious in general. If they become "believers", they will be adherents to a particular religion, and accept its beliefs and practices. Education of the children of its adherents in its history, literature, cultus, disciplines, and work, is a necessary part of the activity of every religious sect or denomination which desires to perpetuate itself. Such education comes in part through the influence of the family, the religious social group and the setting and activity of the institution, but requires also the more formal teaching of the content of religion. Moreover, such education should not be limited to the children of believers, but be continued with the more mature members, and provided for those who are newly converted. Such propagandist education in religion has no place in a public school, but is reserved for the shrines, temples, and churches, and the private religious schools which they support and conduct.

3. Education which in all its aspects is permeated and motivated by the spirit and teaching of religion. (The Religious Private School) Reli-

religious education may be given not only through the teaching of religious doctrine, scriptures, and practices, but also through religious interpretation in all the school subjects. Thus history, science, literature, social studies, and all other school subjects may contribute to religious education in the hands of a religious teacher. Nor does this require that the religious issues be forced into the curriculum at every opportunity. There are many legitimate points where such subjects may yield religious values. The common life of the school may also express the spirit of religion, so that the influence of its atmosphere leads the student into religious living without conscious learning on his part. Specific courses in religious history, doctrine, and practices serve to make articulate what is implicit in the whole curriculum and life of the school. Such complete religious education can only be given by the private religious school.

Religion and Public Education

To be most effective, religious education, in the full sense of its meaning, should be an integral part of all education. But we have noted that the principle of religious freedom lays serious restrictions on public education. For a public school to teach religion, except in objective and factual manner, is to have the State determine the kind and amount of religion which the pupils will receive. This would be in violation of the pupils' religious freedom. The Constitution of Japan has protected this point in Article 20, which provides: "The State and its organs shall refrain from religious education or any other religious activity." Since this provision appears in the Article which deals with religious freedom, it may be assumed that what it was intended to prohibit is the kind of education which seeks to influence the pupil in behalf of any particular religion. It could hardly be intended to rule out all objective and factual references to religion, for it would be hard to teach some of the general school subjects without some reference to religion. But even here it is difficult to draw a line, for it may often be a matter of opinion whether a given reference to religion is purely objective, or whether it includes an element of interpretation which might be favorable or unfavorable to a particular religion. Also, it is difficult for a teacher not to manifest an unconscious bias for his own particular faith.

While we may readily agree that the Constitution clearly rules out any sectarian teaching, the question still remains as to just what it does permit. This will differ with the differing maturity of the pupils or students.

In the elementary school, little will be possible beyond incidental interpretation and attitudes which may come in relation to school and community activities such as religious festivals, and simple direct efforts in teaching that religion is important to people, that there are different religions, that the spirit of tolerance should be exercised toward those of other religious beliefs than the pupil's own, and the different types of religious institutions and buildings in the community.

In the secondary school, especially the new koto gakko, the subjects of study are such that more of them require the inclusion of elements of

religious information. The history of Japan cannot be adequately taught without a consideration of the creation myth which is an integral part of Shintoinism, the part which Buddhism and Confucianism played in the introduction of Chinese culture into Japan, and the introduction of Western culture through Christianity. Western history cannot be taught without undue distortion unless some reference to the Christian church is included. The inevitable questions concerning science and religion make it impossible to ignore current religious thinking concerning science without giving a negative impression on the relevance of religion to modern life. Moreover, the secondary school student has matured to the point where he can look objectively at different sides of controversial issues, and may without confusion learn that religions differ in their interpretation on many important questions. It is important, however, that teachers learn how to deal with such issues without putting the weight of their prestige behind particular religious beliefs to the detriment of views held by other religious groups. The public school teacher is not a religionist and may not set himself up as a judge for others of the truth or falsity of religious doctrines. In secondary schools it is customary for students to organize themselves into voluntary associations, and such associations may include those that are organized with a religious purpose, but the school authorities should not influence any student to participate in such religious associations.

In the college and university, especially in the upper classes, it is assumed that students are sufficiently mature that they may explore any field of human knowledge in objective fashion, including religion. Courses in history, literature, science and other fields which require the inclusion of religious elements for adequate treatment may include such elements, provided that teachers and textbooks must maintain the objective and impartial attitude. Only by such inclusion may the danger be avoided of a secular and anti-religious emphasis in higher education. A liberal arts education should be expected to acquaint the student with the major fields of human interest, including religion, and allow him to study in comparative fashion the history, doctrines, numerical strength and present programs of the different religions which exist in the society of which he is a part. If higher education is to produce not simply skilled technicians, but also citizens who understand their place in the natural world and the human struggle, it must give an inclusive theoretic outlook from which the world and oneself can be understood, and a dynamic by which all that one is, thinks and does may be vitalized and directed. This is religion. A government-supported school may not determine what this outlook shall be, but it will be less than adequate if it does not confront the student with the opportunity of developing that aspect of his life. A university should be free to study and teach all fields of human knowledge. Consequently it is proper for a government or public university to maintain a department of general religious studies. As in the secondary school, students in the colleges and universities should be free to form themselves into religious associations.

Such handling of religion in the public schools is not sectarian. It does not violate the religious freedom of pupils and students. It is not contrary to the spirit and purpose of the Constitution. Its judicious

application, however, requires the preparation of teachers who are competent to deal with such matters without prejudice for or against a particular religion. Such training needs to become a part of the curriculum of the teacher training institutions.

What has here been described is not religious education in the true sense of the term. Its purpose does not go beyond that of producing an intelligent and informed citizenship, capable of making their own approach to the problems of religion. It should leave students free to associate themselves with a religious sect or denomination of their choice, or to reject religious affiliation altogether. It should lay the ground work on which the sects and denominations may do their specific work of religious education.

Private Religious Schools

Because of the limitation on religious education in government supported schools, many religious sects and denominations conduct private religious schools. The number of students enrolled in such schools, compared to the total number of students in Japan, is small. But they have rendered an important service to Japanese education, particularly the education of women.

The private religious school is free to organize its entire program so as to teach religion. It is subject to the government standards of accreditation, but other than that, should be completely free of government control. The private religious school performs its function of religious education through any or all of the following ways:

1. Through the employment of teachers who are religious by conviction and outlook and the selection of textbooks. All the courses of the school may be taught in the spirit of the religion which the school represents, and utilized for religious interpretation where that is natural and possible. Religion may often be more effectively taught in general courses than in those which deal specifically with religious subjects. Conversely, it is not good education to have all general knowledge presented from a secular or neutral point of view, and then to try to overcome the negative effect by a few specific courses in religion.

2. Through the practice of religious activities on the campus. These may include chapel services or other religious services, the observance of religious festivals, and other activities through which worship and religious emphasis become a normal part of the life of the school.

3. Through student religious clubs. Such clubs may exist for mutual enlightenment and support, for worship, and for service activities. Through the activities of such clubs the students may learn to practice the work which is part of the program of the sect or denomination.

4. Through the religious spirit which pervades the atmosphere of the campus. The ideals of human relations which its religion upholds should characterize the relations among faculty and students of the school.

5. Through courses in religion. Such courses will introduce the student into the religion which the school represents, and will make articulate all that is implied in the above points. Such courses may be of little effect when the rest of the life of the school does not support them, but may be the crowning effort of religious education when the other conditions are present. Such courses may be given on a voluntary basis or for credit. The number of religious courses which may be required for credit is limited only by the number of other courses which a student must take in order to meet the requirements for admission to the next higher school, or for fulfilling the requirements of the major field of study for which he is enrolled.

The question may be raised whether a school will violate a student's religious freedom in requiring him to take courses in religion and participate in religious exercises. If the conditions of enrolment are clearly stated and understood by the student and his parents, there is no violation of religious freedom involved, since enrolment in the private religious school is itself a voluntary matter.

Non-religious Private Schools

There are private schools which are not established primarily for religious education. Whether such schools include religious courses in the curriculum, and maintain religious activities, is a matter of their own choice. Since they expect to draw their enrolment from all religious groups, they will probably not limit their offerings to a particular religion. They may make provision for general religious courses and activities. In addition to this, they may provide courses on an elective basis in the several religions, and provide worship and other activities for the different religious groups represented on the campus. Such private schools should not do less for the religious development of their students than is permitted to the public schools to which they correspond, and they may do much more.

Religious Education by Shrines, Temples and Churches

The vast majority of people will receive their education in public schools. Hence their education in religion will be limited by the comparatively secular character of such public schools. If they are to receive religious education, it must be given them through religious education activities outside of and in addition to the education provided by the public schools. This becomes primarily the responsibility of the shrines, temples and churches, and the larger denominational organizations of which the local units are a part.

These religious organizations will need to plan and conduct a teaching program for the education of the people in the religion which they represent. Such a program must be extensive enough to reach millions who will otherwise be left without religious education. It must be effective enough to produce persons who are intelligently and actively religious.

Since religious education of this type is a voluntary matter, it will need to be conducted at such times as to reach the maximum number of persons

when they are free of other activities. How this may be worked out will vary in different communities and with different sects and denominations. In certain Western countries, Sunday is kept comparatively free from school business and other secular pursuits, and is therefore widely used for religious activities. The case is somewhat different in Japan, especially in the rural districts, but it is reasonable to expect that public support will be given to an effort of the religious bodies to preserve Sunday for religious activity, especially that children will be free from school activity. However, religious education may be given at any time when the conditions are favorable. The ingenuity of the religious leadership should be adequate to finding the opportunity for religious education.

Past experience has evolved the following as the most important agencies of religious bodies for giving religious education:

1. Preaching and lecture meetings. These are most effective for the more mature students, and not particularly useful for the education of children. Interpretation of religious truth, and inspiration for religious living, may be given to mass audiences through the spoken word. Thus an important contribution may be made to adult education.

2. Sunday schools. A Sunday school is a school for religious education conducted by a shrine, temple or church. Like any other school, it applies the best method and material to the purpose of religious development. Pupils are graded and formed into classes, so that teaching may be adapted to their needs, and so that standard teaching procedures may be utilized. In addition to class teaching, Sunday schools include also such activities as hymn singing, worship, and activities of religiously motivated service. The Sunday school need not be limited to children, but may readily be applied to the needs of all ages of pupils.

3. Youth groups. It is the nature of youth to desire organizations of their own. This tendency may readily be applied to religious education. Youth is the time when life attitudes are being formed. The religious youth group offers an opportunity for religious knowledge and ideals to become an element in the developing life outlook.

4. Week day classes. Many religions have used the opportunity of meeting school pupils for religious instruction immediately after the sessions of the public school. In some cases such classes have been permitted to meet in the school building, thus making it particularly convenient for pupils to attend. In other cases the classes are held in the building of the shrine, temple or church conducting them. In America the practice is widely followed of allowing a period of the school week for pupils to attend the class in religion of their choice. This recognizes religious education as a legitimate part of education, even though the public school itself is prohibited from giving it.

5. Vacation schools for religious education. The time when pupils are free from public school has great possibility for use for religious education.

Such vacation-time schools need to be so conducted as to make them interesting to the pupils, for otherwise they could not appeal as a vacation activity. But interesting activity is not contrary to the purpose of a school vacation, and it is better for pupils to be wholesomely engaged than to be left to their own resources. There are many activities of high value for religious education which can be made pleasant vacation enterprises.

6. Religious literature and pictures. It has frequently been noted that the Japanese people are great readers. Attractive literature which supports the aims of religious education might readily become an important part of the reading of numberless people, young and old. Similarly, motion pictures, kamishi-bai, and other visual expressions may readily be used to further the purposes of religious education.

These are but a few of the ways which are open to the shrines, temples and churches in their endeavor to give religious education. Other means may be found which will be more effective. It should be emphasized that whatever works best in any particular community is the proper means for the religious institutions in that community to apply.

Requirements for Effective Religious Education

If an adequate system of religious education is to be developed, leadership for it must be taken by the overhead national organizations of the religious bodies. While the actual teaching will be done by the local shrine, temple, or church, such local institutions need the help of the larger body in such important respects as the following:

1. The development of practical plans for a local parish program which best fits its sect or denomination. How the local units shall be organized for religious education; whether they shall use the Sunday school, youth group, or other type of program; what kind of curriculum shall be used; whether teaching shall be by professional teachers or lay people; these, and many other elements of policy need to be developed for the sect or denomination as a whole. For this purpose the religious body needs a strong department of religious education.

2. The creation and publication of lesson materials and other literature, and the preparation of audio-visual aids. This can only be done on a scale which includes the whole sect or denomination. No local shrine, temple or church has the resources in leadership or money to do these things for itself and publication for the constituency of one local unit only is not practical. More is involved here than the mere publication of material. Such material must be prepared on the basis of a theory of curriculum which is adequate to the purpose, and be faithful to that theory. It must also meet the needs of the best psychology of religious development.

3. The development of educational leadership. Professionally trained leadership is needed in every parish if its work in religious education is to

be properly done. In many cases this function must be assumed by the minister or priest in addition to his other duties. In some it may be possible to employ professional religious education leadership in addition to the regular minister or priest. Some sects or denominations may plan to have all the religious teaching done by those who are professionally trained. In the preparation of such professional leadership, the sect or denomination will need to work with its universities and priest training schools, so that adequate provision is made for training in religious education leadership.

In case the actual teaching in the local parish is to be done by lay men and women, a plan for the selection and training of lay workers will need to be provided by headquarters. This will require the writing and publication of textbooks, plans for accreditation of training enterprises, and suggestions for best ways of organizing a training program. Here again the schools of the sect or denomination should take responsibility for giving their students, who are the future lay workers in the parishes, a measure of practical education in the work of religious education.

4. Promotion and supervision. The development of program and literature is not enough. There needs to be field service to help the local shrines, temples, and churches to properly utilize that which is provided by the headquarters. Supervisors should be available to help individual parishes and schools to study their needs and develop a program of religious education which is within their resources. They should hold conferences for the leaders of religious education in the parishes of geographical areas. They should carry on correspondence with individuals in local parishes who may seek their help.

In the local shrine, temple and church there is also a problem of proper organization and administration if an adequate program of religious education is to result. Provision needs to be made for adequate time for religious education, proper teaching rooms and equipment, teachers, teaching materials, enlistment and organization of pupils.

To perform these tasks, it is suggested that there be a board or committee on religious education, as a part of the shrine, temple or church organization, whose duty it is to give guidance and supervision to all educational matters. This board will work through designated officers. The minister or priest should be regarded as the head educational officer, and it is to be hoped that he has the proper training to perform this important function. Supporting him there will need to be directors of the different phases of the program, and teachers. All these officials should be selected by the board of religious education, and subject to its guidance and supervision. The board itself is, of course, subject to the authority of the shrine, temple, or church which it represents.

Such a board of religious education will perform the useful function of keeping unity in the entire program, and keeping it in harmony with the sect or denomination which it represents. The temptation for a Sunday school or a youth organization to become independent should be avoided.

Moreover, the board should help to assure that each agency makes the contribution which it can best make to religious education, without too much overlapping with the work of others.

An adequate program of religious education requires financial support. Equipment, good lesson materials, audio-visual aids--these things cost money. The best way to finance these expenditures is to include them in the budget of the institution conducting the work. The board of religious education should prepare such a budget, and supervise its disbursement. It is proper to receive contributions from the pupils, but they should not be expected to meet the whole cost of their religious education. Such contributions may go toward the budget of the shrine, temple or church, which in turn meets all the expenses of religious education from its budget.

The Content of Religious Education

Since religious education is education in the religion of a particular sect or denomination the aims of each sect or denomination will determine its content. Each sect or denomination will state its objectives in terms of the mature religious person which it holds ideal. It will then select the content which is best suited to achieve these objectives.

In general, the content will include such elements as the following:

1. The doctrines which constitute the essential beliefs of the educating sect or denomination.
2. The sacred scriptures of the religion which embody the basis for its beliefs and practices, and contain inspirational and devotional materials.
3. The history, present situation, and program of the sect or denomination, including also the lives and work of its great men and women.
4. The disciplines and practices whereby the sect or denomination seeks to cultivate and express the religious life, including its hymns and liturgies.
5. The origin, meaning and observance of its festival days.
6. The ethical practices which the teaching of the religion requires of its adherents.

But religious education is also more than a sectarian matter. The religious person should not only know and appreciate his own religion, but should be broadly familiar with all great religions, and particularly with those which exist in his own country. Such ecumenical education should not only make the religious person more tolerant of all religions, but should serve to help him appreciate his own religion the more because he can see it in comparison and contrast with others.

In the realm of humanitarian ideals, also, there is much common ground among the religions. The basic personal and social virtues which are

important in harmonious and peaceful human association are supported by almost all religions, and impressed on their followers as religious obligations. In this, religious education also has common cause with the moral and social aspects of general public education.

It should be noted, however, that in social-ethical teachings religious education may, and often must, transcend anything which is possible in state-supported schools. Public schools are always more or less the tools of the government in power. When that government seeks to attain ends which contradict humanitarian and religious ideals, the public schools are available to propagandize the people for those ends. It is then that religious education, conducted by free religions, may keep alive the ideals of human welfare, world peace, and brotherhood, which the religious viewpoint imperatively demands. It is their duty to prepare a citizenship which can stand in judgment on the policies of their government and through the exercise of their democratic powers influence the government to strive for more worthy ends. Religious education, because of its world outlook, may thus render a patriotic service in calling its nation to greatness through membership in a family of nations which are striving for peace and the welfare of the whole of humanity. That religions have achieved this ideal so poorly in the past is due not so much to weakness in their inherent character as to the failure of their religious educational efforts to make these ideals the convictions of their followers.

The Method of Religious Education

The method used in education bears a close relation to the purpose of education. If the aim is to prepare the obedient and subservient citizen, one type of method is appropriate. If the aim is to prepare citizens who as free persons can function in a democratic society, a different type of method is appropriate.

Religious education, as it has here been defined, has for its aim the introduction of persons into the thought and practices of a particular religion. But to be true education, it must do more than produce unthinking belief and blind loyalty. Democratic ideals apply to citizenship in a religion as well as to citizenship in a state. No living religion is ever so perfect and final that it may merely be transmitted to the next generation. The revelation which it proclaims may indeed be ultimate and final, but imperfect and incomplete human apprehension and application to the changing conditions of a living world make it inevitable that religion maintain its capacity for growth. Educational method needs to develop those qualities in pupils which will keep alive their capacity for creative adjustment. Through this, religious education also contributes in no small measure to the development of democratic citizenship, for it must not be forgotten that the adherents of a religion are also citizens of the state.

Religious education is not propaganda of the type which seeks to manipulate the person for the attainment of some ends outside of that person. It is concerned with its pupils as persons, that they may develop into the