

43. YAMANASHI NICHINICHI (Sakuracho, KOFU).
44. MIMPO (6, 3-chome, Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, TOKYO).
45. SHIMANE (383, Shingon-cho, MATSUE).
46. NARA NICHINICHI (1, 1-chome, Aburazaka-cho, NARA).

B. MAGAZINES:

47. NIPPON YORON (Ishiura-nachi, 28, KANAZAWA).
48. YORON (135, 4-chome, Honmachi, ISEZAKI).
49. YORON (6-2 chome, Tamamizurachi, Mizuho-ku, NAGOYA).
50. KORON (13-1 chome, Motomachi, Hongo-ku, TOKYO).

C. PRIVATE AGENCIES:

51. *NIPPON YORON KENKYUJO (Japan Public Opinion Research
Institute):(RI-7-PO-C-1)

Address: #5 Iwanotocho, Kanda-ku, Tokyo.

Founded: November, 1945.

Personnel: Chief and 10 assistants.

Purposes: (1) Private business.

(2) To provide democratic outlet for public
opinion.

Survey Subjects: (1) Agrarian reform

(2) Emperor System

Method: Questions broadcast over JOAK and affiliates.

Responses tabulated by the agency.

Sample: Self-selected sample of interested listeners.

Reports: Sold to interested newspapers for publication.

52. *YORON CHOSA KENKYUJO (Public Opinion Survey Research Institute): (RI-44-PO-A-8)

Address: #4-2 Yurakucho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

Founded: December, 1945.

Personnel: Chairman of Board of Directors, 2 Executive Directors, and 5 Directors controlling agency. Twenty-five other employees.

Finances: Capital ¥ 150,000, total assets ¥ 250,000.

Purposes: (1) To assist private business.
(2) To "elevate" and "enlighten" public opinion
(3) To provide democratic outlet for public opinion.

Survey Subjects: One combined survey held on (1) Emperor System, (2) Constitution revision, (3) Diet, and (4) Privy Council.

Sample: (1) Respondents selected for prominence in various fields.

(2) Chance respondents chosen at places where people assemble, e.g. factories, offices, etc.

Method: (1) Mail circularization of fairly elaborate questionnaires.

(2) Same questionnaires passed by hand to chance respondents.

Reports: Sent to Cabinet; sold to KYODO and 5 newspapers; broadcast over JOAK; and used as basis for YORON KAGAFU (Science of Public Opinion), new magazine of agency.

53. *NIPPON YORON CHOSAKAI (Japan Public Opinion Survey Association): (RI-110-PO-A-9)

Address: #76 Jiyugaoka, Meguro-ku, Tokyo.

Founded: Autumn, 1945.

Personnel: President, Managing Director, 3 Directors in control. Seventeen employees.

Finances: Dues from members and donations from personnel in control.

Purpose: (1) Private business.

(2) To perform an "educational-informational" mission.

(3) To provide outlet for public opinion.

Survey Subjects: Weekly or bi-weekly survey of various political, economic, and social topics.

Sample: Self-selected dues-paying members recruited by newspaper advertisements and direct solicitation.

Methods: Mail circularization of fairly elaborate questionnaires joined with polemic articles on the subject in question.

Reports: In the form of pamphlets including also questionnaires and polemic summaries.

54. *KOKYU HEIWA KENKYUJO (Institute for Permanent Peace)
(RI-22-PO-A-4)

Address: #41, 4-chome, Mejirocho, Toshima-ku, Tokyo.

Founded: October, 1945.

Personnel: Three for public opinion research, which is

only a small part of Institute's activities.

- Purposes: (1) To furnish information to the Institute.
(2) To perform an educational-informational mission.
(3) To provide a democratic outlet for public opinion.

Survey Subject: War responsibility of military men and politicians.

Sample: Village and town heads throughout Japan.

Method: Mail circularization of fairly simple questionnaire postcards.

Report: Results considered inadequate, and published as such.

55. *INSTITUTE OF SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL RESEARCH: (RI-39-PO-A-7)

Address: HOSHI Pharmaceutical Co., Tokyo.

Founded: September, 1945.

Personnel: Chief and 5 assistants.

Purposes: To make a scientific psychological study of attitudes. To perform no apparent specific practical ends.

Survey Subject: Attitudes toward Americans and America.

Sample: 10,000 members of families of Middle School students throughout Japan.

Method: Thurston method for formulation of questionnaire. Mail circularization of questionnaire forms to principals of Middle Schools; thence by hand to students' families.

Report: Expected to be published upon completion of survey in May, 1946.

D. GOVERNMENT AGENCIES:

56. *PUBLIC OPINION SURVEY SECTION, JAPANESE CABINET:

Address: 5th Floor, Home Ministry Bldg., Tokyo.

Transferred: From Home Ministry in January, 1946, from Board of Information, December, 1945.

Personnel: Chief, 6 officials, 25 employees and 1 technical advisor.

Operations: Suspended 14 January, 1946, pending preparation of a new plan.

57. *KAGOSHIMA PREFECTURE OFFICE, PUBLIC OPINION SURVEYSECTION:

Known to have run at least one survey. No other information available.

Ambassade de France
aux Etats-Unis

JCW/SZ

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DEPARTMENT OF STATE

L'Ambassade de France aux Etats-Unis présente

ses compliments au Département d'Etat et lui serait
reconnaissante de bien vouloir transmettre télégraphi-
quement au Général MacArthur le message personnel
ci-joint de la part du Général de Corps d'Armée
Pechkoff, Ambassadeur de France, Chef de la Mission
Française de Liaison auprès du Commandant Suprême pour
les Puissances Alliées au Japon./.

1 pièce jointe.-

L'Ambassade saisit l'occasion de la présente
note pour renouveler au Département d'Etat les
assurances de sa très haute considération.

Washington, le 19 avril 1946.

Département d'Etat,

Washington D.C.



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Washington, April 18, 1946

Personal from General PECHKOFF, Head of the French Liaison Mission with the Supreme Commander for Allied Powers to General MacArthur.

Just arrived in Washington on my way to Tokyo where I have been appointed by the French Government as head of the French Liaison Mission with you, I wish to let you know my deep gratification at my present assignment. Remembering your gallant participation in the first world war in France, and fully aware of your profound sympathy for my country in her last ordeal, I rejoice at the thought of cooperating with you in the service of common cause of our **two nations**./.

ROGER PIGNOL

Secrétaire de la Mission Française

(delivered by) *Cobye*

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Japan

ASSISTANT SECRETARY OF STATE

WASHINGTON

April 19, 1946

S - Mr. Byrnes

The attached memorandum to you is written for release to the press. This will explain the tone of the memorandum. I do not anticipate widespread press interest, even though the memorandum and the attached report deal with a subject of great world importance -- the re-orientation and re-education of the Japanese people. I believe however that the educational journals and possibly the religious journals and other specialized magazines may attach importance to the report.

I believe you will ~~at least~~ be interested in my memorandum. I am also attaching a summary of the Report in case you want to glance through it.

WB
William Benton

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DEPARTMENT OF STATE
ASSISTANT SECRETARY

April 19, 1946

S
The Secretary:

Herewith I submit the report of the U.S. Education Mission to Japan. The most striking single element, in my judgment, is the revelation that the literacy of the Japanese people has been greatly over-rated and the recommendation that Japan foster the widespread use of an alphabet. The Mission recommends that some form of Romaji (the use of a phonetic system based on the Roman alphabet instead of Chinese ideographs) be brought into common use throughout Japan by all means possible.

This proposal, if adopted, can contribute enormously to the democratization of the Japanese way of life.

Dr. George D. Stoddard, Chairman of the Mission, tells me that the much vaunted literacy rate in Japan is another Japanese myth. An elementary school graduate, after spending a high percentage of his years in school studying the Japanese ideographs, is able to recognize only six to eight hundred characters. Approximately 85% of the Japanese children terminate their education with the elementary school. The daily press, says Dr. Stoddard, uses in the neighborhood of 2400 characters. This means that a very large percentage of the Japanese populace, while theoretically rated as literate, are unable to inform themselves of the day-by-day happenings in the world through the written language. Even the average Japanese college graduate finds it necessary constantly to refer to a dictionary in ordinary correspondence.

When I was in Japan in 1937 I was informed on all sides that Japan's literacy rate was very nearly 100%. This claim is still advanced, and has been generally accepted throughout the world. But an alleged literacy in which two-thirds of the characters used in the newspapers are unintelligible to the great masses of people is not the kind of literacy that has political or democratic significance. Democracy is impossible unless the people are able to understand political, economic and social issues. Thus this proposed reform of the written language, difficult as it may be to achieve, holds great promise for the Japanese people and for the cause of world understanding and peace. It may in fact be the supreme test for the new leaders of Japan.

Further, there are some aspects of the trip of the Mission which may transcend in importance the formal content of its report. The recognition by General MacArthur of the important part played by the educational system of a nation, in enabling that nation to become and to remain democratic, is further evidence of his leadership. I am especially gratified that the important part that can and must be played by civilians in meeting the problems of military occupation has been demonstrated here in a very practical way.

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The warmth of the receptivity on the part of the Japanese was, in its extent and sincerity, a pleasant surprise to the Mission. The Mission reports a growing sense of mental and spiritual liberation among great numbers of the Japanese people. There is fertile soil for democratic development among many Japanese intellectual leaders, who are now earnestly seeking all that we can give them in the way of guidance and assistance. Their desire to prepare Japan to take her place in the family of democratic nations is a good omen for peace.

This sense of liberation is strong in Japan. Mr. Abe, the Japanese Minister of Education, welcomed the delegation with these words: "It is my conviction that democracy is to be the basis of our postwar social life, political life and economic life, and therefore also the basis of education since education is the foundation of all this. But I hold this conviction not simply because this was the principle forced upon us by America, but because this derives from a fundamental principle of the universe and is based upon the essential nature of human beings." He also sounded this note of warning to his own people:

"The liberals, who had been under the pressure of militarism during the war, took the Allied Powers for their Savior and fell under the illusion that, suddenly, their best days have come, and, forgetting the fact of our surrender, they thought that the future of our country was going to be easily built through the help of the Allied Powers. We should, however, repent like the convert of all the miseries and sacrifices we have inflicted upon our own country and the world through our faults and crimes in this war. At the same time, we should consider our position of a surrendered nation as a trial sent by God, endure it, overcome it, and turn the present misfortune into a future blessing. We believe that your country is not going to violate truth and justice on the strength of her being a victor. And we pray that the pressure brought upon us by this victor--for we cannot help feeling it as a pressure--will help to make truth and justice permeate all our country, and serve as a chance for us to eliminate quickly and vigorously all the injustices and defects existing in our society and all the weaknesses and evils underlying our national character and customs."

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The Mission was further gratified by statements by Japanese leaders, such as the following from an address delivered on the anniversary of the founding of Japan by Shigeru Nambara, President of Tokyo Imperial University, and Chairman of the Committee of Japanese educators which sat with the U.S. Mission:

"Japan....staked all her time-old tradition and indigenous spirit on this war and was defeated.... With what can the Japanese try to reconstruct their own fatherland? It will never be found in past history. It must be created in the future...."

"It should not stop simply by being a change of the political and social system, but further it must be a subjective spiritual revolution, intellectual and religious in nature."

In the Emperor's request that Dr. Stoddard secure for him an American woman to serve as tutor for the Crown Prince, there may be a symbolic crystallization of the move towards reorientation by the Japanese and the struggle towards the internationalization of Japanese culture.

While the report itself is more or less technical, the work of this Mission has demonstrated a fresh approach to the problem of international relations, and merits serious consideration for future development and expansion. The inspiration and encouragement to the earnest leaders of foreign nations by visits from similar groups from America has a potential importance that should not be underestimated.


William Benton

DIGEST OF THE REPORT

The United States Education Mission, consisting of twenty-seven representatives of American education under the chairmanship of Dr. George D. Stoddard, in the process of preparing this report, spent the month of March in Japan consulting with the officers of the Education Division of the Civil Information and Education Section, General Headquarters, SCAP, with a committee of Japanese educators appointed by the Minister of Education of Japan, and with other representatives of the schools and of various walks of life in Japan. This report to the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers is presented upon the basis of the deliberations by the members of the Mission.

The Mission recognizes the necessity for the original negative directives, such as those eradicating militarism and nationalistic Shintoism from the schools, but it has concentrated chiefly upon positive proposals. In so doing it has sought to aid the Japanese to set for themselves the conditions for reestablishing a sound educational system within their culture.

The Aims and Content of Japanese Education

A highly centralized educational system, even if it is not caught in the net of ultra-nationalism and militarism, is endangered by the evils that accompany an entrenched bureaucracy. Decentralization is necessary in order that teachers may be freed to develop professionally under guidance, without regimentation. They, in turn, may then do their part in the development of free Japanese citizens.

To this end, knowledge must be acquired that is broader than any available in a single prescribed textbook or manual, and deeper than can be tested by stereotyped examinations. A curriculum consists not merely of an accepted body of knowledge, but of the pupils' physical and mental activities; it takes into account their differing backgrounds and abilities. It should therefore be set up through cooperative action involving teachers, calling on their experience and releasing their creative talents.

Morals, which in Japanese education occupy a separate place, and have tended to promote submissiveness, should be differently construed and should interpenetrate all phases of a free people's life. Manners that encourage equality, the give-and-take of democratic government, the ideal of good workmanship, in daily life--all these are morals in the wider sense. They should be developed and practiced in the varied program and activities of the democratic school.

Books in the fields of geography and history will have to be re-written to recognize mythology for what it is, and to embody a more objective viewpoint in textbooks and reference materials. On the lower levels more use should be made of the community and local resources; at the higher levels competent scholarship and research should be encouraged in various ways.

The program in health instruction and physical education is basic to the educational program as a whole. Medical examinations, instructions

- 2 -

in nutrition and public health, the extension of the physical education and recreation program to the university level, and the replacement of equipment as rapidly as possible are recommended.

At all levels vocational education should be emphasized. A variety of vocational experiences is needed under well trained staff members, with an emphasis on technology and its supporting arts and sciences. The contributions of artisans and workers should find a place in the social studies program, and opportunities for originality and creativity should be provided.

Language Reform

The problem of the written language is fundamental to all modifications in educational practice. While any change in the form of a language most come from within the nation, the stimulus for such change may come from any source. Encouragement may be given to those who recognize the value of language reform, not only to the educational program, but also to the development of the Japanese people throughout future generations.

It is recommended that some form of Romaji be brought into common use. It is proposed that a language commission made up of Japanese scholars, educational leaders and statesmen be formed promptly in order that a comprehensive program may be announced within a reasonable period. In addition to deciding the form of Romaji to be chosen, this commission would have the following functions: (1) to assume the responsibility for coordinating the program of language reform during the transitional stages; (2) to formulate a plan for introducing Romaji into the schools and into the life of the community and nation through newspapers, periodicals, books, and other writings; and, (3) to study the means of bringing about a more democratic form of the spoken language. The commission might, in time, grow into a national language institute.

The need for a simple and efficient medium of written communication is well recognized, and the time for taking this momentous step is perhaps more favorable now than it will be for many years to come. Language should be a highway and not a barrier. Within Japan itself, and across national borders, this highway should be open for the transmission of knowledge and ideas in the interest of a better world understanding.

Administration of Education At The Primary and Secondary Levels

The principle is accepted that, for the purposes of democratic education, control of the schools should be widely dispersed rather than highly centralized as at present. The observance of ceremonies in the reading of the Imperial Rescript and obeisances to the Imperial Portrait in the schools are regarded as undesirable. The Ministry of Education, under the proposals of the Mission, would have important duties to perform in providing technical aid and professional counsel to the

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schools, but its direct control over local schools would be greatly curtailed.

In order to provide for greater participation by the people at local and prefectural levels, and to remove the schools from the administrative control by representatives of the Minister of Home Affairs at the local level, it is proposed to create educational agencies elected by popular vote, at both local and prefectural levels. Such agencies would be granted considerable power in the approval of schools, the licensing of teachers, the selection of textbooks--power now centralized in the Ministry of Education.

There is proposed an upward revision of compulsory education in schools to be tax-supported, co-educational and tuition-free, such education to cover nine years of schooling, or until the boy or girl reaches the age of sixteen. It is further proposed that the first six years be spent in primary school as at present, and the next three years in a "lower secondary school" to be developed through merging and modifying the many kinds of schools which those completing primary school may now enter. These schools should provide general education for all, including vocational and educational guidance, and should be flexible enough to meet individual differences in the abilities of the pupils. It is proposed further that a three-year "upper secondary school" be established, free of tuition costs, in time to be coeducational, and providing varied opportunities for all who wish to continue their education.

Together, the lower and upper secondary schools would continue the varied functions of other tax-supported schools now at this level; higher elementary schools, girls' high schools, preparatory courses, vocational schools, and youth schools. Graduation from the upper secondary schools would be made a condition of entrance to institutions of higher learning.

Private schools under the proposal would retain full freedom, except that they would be expected to conform to the minimum standards necessary to assure ready transfer by the pupil from one school to another, whether public or private.

Teaching and the Education of Teachers

In order that the newer aims of education may be achieved, teaching methods emphasizing memorization, conformity and a vertical system of duties and loyalties should be modified to encourage independent thinking, the development of personality, and the rights and responsibilities of democratic citizenship. The teaching of morals, for example, should be less by precept than by instruction deriving from experiences in concrete situations in school and community.

A program for the reeducation of teachers should be set up to further the adoption of democratic methods in the transitional period. Suggestions are made for a program which will gradually merge into one of in-service education.

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Normal schools should be modified so as to provide the kinds of teachers needed. They should admit students only after completion of a course in the upper secondary school equivalent in standards to that of the present middle school, thus eliminating the normal preparatory courses. The reorganized normal schools, all more nearly at the level of the higher normal schools, should become four-year institutions; they would continue general education and provide adequate professional training for teachers in elementary and secondary schools.

Other institutions for preparing teachers for certification, whether private or tax-supported, should satisfy teacher-training standards equivalent to those of the reorganized normal schools.

School administrators and supervisors should have a professional education equivalent to that for teachers and should have, in addition, such special preparation as will fit them for their assigned duties.

University and other higher institutions should develop facilities for advanced study on the part of teachers and administrators; they should promote research and exert educational leadership.

Adult Education

During this period of crisis for the Japanese people, adult education is of paramount importance, for a democratic state places much responsibility on each citizen.

The schools are but one agency for adult education, but through parent-teacher activities, evening and extension classes for adults, and the opening of buildings to a variety of community activities, adult education may be fostered.

Another important institution for adult education is the public library. It is recommended that central public libraries, with branches, be established in the larger cities, and that appropriate arrangements be made for library service in all prefectures. The appointment of a director of public library service in the Ministry of Education would facilitate this program. Museums of science, art, and industry may serve educational purposes paralleling those of the library.

In addition, organizations of all kinds, including community and professional societies, labor unions, and political groups, should be helped to use effectively the techniques of forum and discussion.

In the furtherance of these ends, the present adult education services of the Ministry of Education should be vitalized and democratized.

Higher Education

For a period of years following the first world war currents of liberal thought were fostered largely by men and women educated in the colleges and universities of Japan. Higher education now has the opportunity of again setting a standard of free thought, bold inquiry, and hopeful action

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for the people. To fulfil these purposes, higher education should become an opportunity for the many, not a privilege of the few. In order to increase the opportunities for liberal education at higher levels, it would be desirable to liberalize to a considerable extent the curricula of the preparatory schools (Koto Gakko) leading to the universities and those of the more specialized colleges (Semmon Gakko), so that a general college training would become more widely available. This would lead, on the one hand, to university study, and, on the other, to specialized training at the semi-professional level such as is provided by the Semmon Gakko, but rounded out with training of broader cultural and social significance.

In addition to providing more colleges, it is proposed that more universities be established according to a considered plan. Some governmental agency should be responsible for supervising the establishment of higher institutions and the maintenance of the requirements first set down. Except for examining the qualifications of a proposed institution of higher education before it is permitted to open its doors, and assuring that these initial requirements are met, the governmental agency should have practically no control over institutions of higher education. The institutions should be entirely free in all respects to pursue their objectives in the manner which they themselves deem best.

Establishment of economic and academic freedom for faculties in institutions of higher education is of primary importance. To this end, it is recommended that the present civil service plan be discontinued.

For the student, the freedom which should be guaranteed is freedom of access, on the basis of merit, to all levels of higher studies. Financial help should be given, in order that further education may be positively assured for talented men and women unable to study on their own resources. Freedom of access to higher institutions should be provided immediately for all women now prepared for advanced study; steps should be taken also to improve the earlier training of women.

The extension of libraries, research facilities, and institutes is recommended; such agencies can make invaluable contributions to the public welfare during the period of reconstruction and beyond. Attention needs to be given to the improvement of professional education in fields such as medicine, school administration, journalism, labor relations, and public administration. A special commission is recommended for the study of the whole question of medicine and public health.

REPORT

OF THE

UNITED STATES EDUCATION MISSION TO JAPAN

SUBMITTED TO

THE SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS

TOKYO

30 MARCH 1946

FW 740.00119 Central (Japan) / 4-1946

General MacArthur's Statement

In releasing a Summary of the Report of the United States Education Mission to Japan for publication in the United States as of 6 April 1946, General MacArthur made the following statement:

"The report and recommendations submitted to me by the United States Education Mission to Japan cover the whole scope of the education methods and principles very thoroughly and their analysis and representation of views reveal the high character and intelligence of the Committee members.

"It is a document of ideals high in the democratic tradition. In origin, these ideals are universal. Likewise universal are the ends envisaged by the mission. In devising possible means to achieve them, full cognizance has been taken of the views of the Japanese themselves regarding the problems of better schools, better teachers and better tools of learning. Few of these proposals, therefore, will appear entirely novel or surprising to thinking Japanese and other peoples. The report will be most helpful to the Civil Information and Education section of my headquarters in their further efforts to assist the Japanese government in modernizing the Japanese educational system. The report may well be studied by all educators regardless of individual aspects. Some of the recommendations regarding education principles and language reform are so far reaching that they can only serve as a guide for long range study and future planning.

"The eventual reforms in education as worked out by the Japanese people will provide them with a system of learning that furnishes a thorough ground in the basic knowledge essential to their becoming a member of the family of nations dedicated to the promotion of world peace and respect for the fundamental human rights. The eventual form the education organization shall take will be that as adopted by the Japanese people in their endeavor to establish a peacefully inclined and responsible government in accordance with the Potsdam Proclamation.

"I must express to the members of the Education Mission my sincere appreciation for the time they so generously gave and the contribution they have made toward a better educated world. They have earned the thanks of the entire Allied Nations for their unstinting contribution to the cause of educational uplift."

March 30, 1946

General Douglas MacArthur
Supreme Commander for the
Allied Powers

My dear General MacArthur,

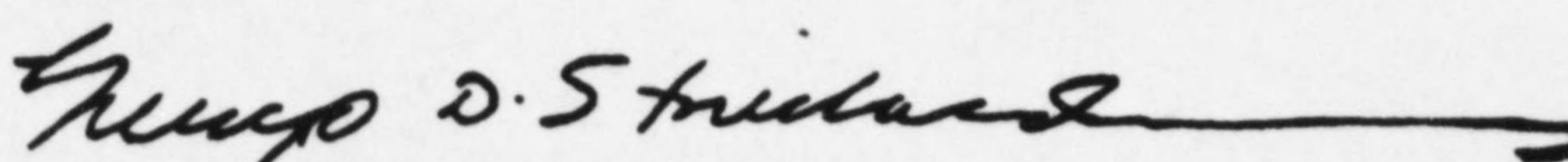
On behalf of the United States Education Mission to Japan, I have the honor to submit herewith a report on Japanese education, with recommendations.

In signing this report, the Mission asks me to thank you for the invitation which formed us into a group, for the foresight that brought us across the ocean, and for the extensive aid given by your Civil Information and Education Section. We have had the privilege of an extensive briefing in the Japanese educational system at the hands of your excellent staff, together with an ease of access to our helpful counterparts, the Japanese educators. We are deeply impressed by the efficiency and integrity of a military that solicits objective guidance in this difficult field.

We are also impressed with the cultural resources of the Japanese people and especially with the children. The people's will to move forward has survived the spiritual poverty of autocratic power and defeat. The new leaders frankly admit that Japan had been set upon the wrong path. They are prepared to follow what to them is a strange new constitutional road to peace, facing unfearfully the demands of democracy.

Our labor has progressed in a spirit of gratitude to you and your staff, of confidence in the future of Japan, and of hope for a more peaceful and humane world.

Respectfully yours,


George D. Stoddard
Chairman, Education Mission

THE UNITED STATES EDUCATION MISSION TO JAPAN

John N. Andrews
Harold Benjamin
Gordon T. Bowles
Leon Carnovsky
Wilson Compton
George S. Counts
Roy J. Deferrari
George W. Diemer
Kermit Eby
Frank N. Freeman
Virginia C. Gildersleeve
Willard E. Givens
Ernest R. Hilgard
Frederick G. Hockwalt
Mildred McAfee Horton
Charles S. Johnson
Isaac L. Kandel
Charles H. McCloy
E. B. Norton
T. V. Smith
David Harrison Stevens
Paul P. Stewart
Alexander J. Stoddard
George D. Stoddard, Chm.
W. Clark Trow
Pearl A. Wanamaker
Emily Woodward

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- II. LANGUAGE REFORM
- III. ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION AT THE PRIMARY AND SECONDARY LEVELS
- IV. TEACHING AND THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS
- V. ADULT EDUCATION
- VI. HIGHER EDUCATION

DIGEST

FOREWORD

Early in January of this year the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers requested the War Department to send to Japan, for a period of approximately one month, a group of twenty or more American educators to advise and consult with General Headquarters and with Japanese educators on problems relating to education in Japan.

In view of discussions then in progress in Washington relating to the responsibility for long range planning in the reeducation and reorientation of Japan, the War Department requested the Department of State to undertake the final selection of the personnel of the group. After consideration of a wide range of factors in addition to individual qualifications, and with full regard to the preferences expressed by General Headquarters, a group of twenty-seven persons was selected, and Dr. George D. Stoddard was appointed chairman.

Before starting for Japan the majority of the Committee met in Washington for preliminary conferences. Here they were given a large amount of valuable background information about Japan, both past and present, by members of the State Department and by others with special knowledge. Similar conferences were held by other members of the Committee. On the trip out a helpful consultation was held with a number of well informed persons at Honolulu. Also the group was able, during its stay at Guam, and through other interim conferences, to make a preliminary analysis of the task that confronted it.

The group arrived in Tokyo in two sections by plane on March 5 and 6 and constituted itself as the United States Education Mission to Japan. The Mission has remained in Japan through the month.

During the first ten days the Mission was informed concerning the organization and chief characteristics of the educational system of Japan through a series of meetings arranged by the staff of the Civil Information and Education Section, by conferences between subcommittees of the Mission and corresponding committees of Japanese educators appointed by the Minister of Education, by visits to schools, colleges, universities and other institutions and by numerous individual conferences with Japanese of all stations.

The Mission then visited Kyoto and Nara for three days to extend its conferences and to become acquainted with parts of Japan's cultural heritage that had been relatively undamaged by the war. Special trips were undertaken by sections of the Mission.

In submitting its report, the Mission desires to acknowledge its great obligation to the many persons who have given assistance. They are too numerous to be mentioned by name, but too helpful to be forgotten.

The officers of the Civil Information and Education Section of the General Staff have made available to us a large amount of well organized information. With the utmost patience, they facilitated our inquiries into the theory and practice of education in Japan.

The members of the Japanese committee appointed to confer with us gave generously of their time; their help was invaluable. The same is true of the many other teachers, administrators and citizens with whom we have conferred.

On the whole, we have had revealed to us the variegated picture of a people bewildered by the turn of events, but earnest in their striving to use an emerging freedom to forge the instruments of a democratic society. It is on their leaders that chief reliance must be placed for carrying out new educational policies, consistent with the new role of Japan in a peaceful community of nations.

It will be seen that the Mission leaves a number of proposals for action. For the most part these support trends already strong within Japanese educational circles. A few suggest courses of action involving drastic changes in the organization of education. In order to make progress, groups of educators should begin where the Mission leaves off, bringing about appropriate changes as rapidly as possible.

To make the services of the Civil Information and Education Section available in the most effective manner, as it cooperates with the Japanese people in educational reform, it is proposed that civilian advisers of high standing in professional education, representing the Allied Powers, be attached to the staff. They would advise the Ministry of Education and other agencies within the school system. Such advisers should be available at least as long as the occupation continues. It is desirable that some advisers be women, in view of the recognition to be given them in the new Japanese educational system.

In view of the greater autonomy recommended for education at the prefectural and local levels, it is further suggested that a civilian educational adviser, representing the Allied Powers, be appointed for each prefecture. Such an adviser should be an experienced educator devoting full time to the tasks of education.

INTRODUCTION

The United States Education Mission was originally proposed by the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers. Its coming has stirred the hopes of not a few liberal Japanese educators. Uniting thus the military summons and the civilian hope, we come in solemn mood at a historic moment. We do not come in the spirit of conquerors, but as experienced educators who believe that there is an unmeasured potential for freedom and for individual and social growth in every human being.

Our greatest hope, however, is in the children. Sustaining, as they do, the weight of the future, they must not be pressed down by the heritage of a heavy past. We would, therefore, not only stop wrong teaching but also, as far as possible, equalize their opportunities, providing teachers and schools to inform their minds without hardening their hearts.

To this end we have, while in Japan, sought out and learned from those who are best prepared to advise us. We have profited greatly from the American military personnel in the Civil Information and Education Section, educators themselves. We have got such information as we could from members of the Japanese Ministry responsible for education, from Japanese educators and people at every level of experience, and particularly from the Committee appointed to be of special service to the Mission. Moreover, in various types of schools, from the meager to the pretentious, we have witnessed the unfolding of the educational program. We have visited, conferred, and inspected with an inquisitiveness justifiable only in terms of the high purposes of our Mission. In every way at our disposal during the time at hand, we have sought to locate those restricting and strangling forces which held back a cultural Renaissance in Japan, in order that the natural energies of the people may again flow freely.

It is reassuring to discover that the military occupation, in cooperation with liberal Japanese leaders, has already cleared much of the ground. The Japanese will to war has been broken by superior force, and the spirit of national Shintoism and military aggression is being eradicated from the schools by straightforward directives. A revision of courses of instruction and of textbooks, together with a circumspect purging of vicious elements in the teaching profession, is well along.

In these, as in other matters of basic policy, negative measures will be effective only as they embody the will of the liberal Japanese. Eventually, an education that is administered from the top down must give way to education conceived as a responsibility and a privilege at every level of society. Others may help in saving a nation from its war lords, as the Allies have helped the Japanese, but in the long run a nation must free itself. Freedom comes only from the practice of freedom.

If there be those who decry the necessity of negative directives, we may remind them that there are relatively few things that the Japanese may not do under the new education and thousands of things which cry out to be done. To remove conditions that stifle is to free the energies of men. This is what negations are for: "to hinder the hindrances of men." In the long years ahead they will be seen in their true perspective as a removal of chains.

It has been brought home to us by the Japanese educators themselves that even the wisest negations are not enough: they demand and require of us some positive guidance. They state freely that they know the words "liberalism, democracy, science, and humanism," but that they do not always sense the fundamental meaning and may be unable to chart the painful road toward implementation.

The more detailed significance of these concepts will emerge as we proceed, but a general word at this point may help to clarify the terms *liberalism* and *democracy*. We can do this without presumption, for if we did not have faith in the democratic potential of the Japanese and did not trust their capacity to reestablish a sound culture, we should not be here.

We believe in the power of every race and every nation to create from its own cultural resources something good for itself and for the whole world. That is the liberal creed. We are not devoted to uniformity; as educators we are constantly alert to deviation, originality, and spontaneity. That is the spirit of democracy. We are not flattered by any superficial imitation of our own institutions. Believing in progress and social evolution, we welcome cultural variety all over the world as a source of hope and refreshment.

There is a lesson in this with respect to the function of the educator, whether teacher or administrator. The best capacities of teachers flourish only in an atmosphere of freedom. It is the business of the administrator to furnish this, not its opposite. The unmeasured resources of childhood will bear rich fruit only under the sunshine of liberalism. It is the business of the teacher to furnish this, not its opposite. We would preach to Japan only in terms of our painfully hammered-out practice: it is the responsibility of all in authority to find out how much can be allowed rather than how much can be forbidden. That is the meaning of liberalism. Where that spirit is, democracy has already taken root; it needs only time and patience to become representative government.

Democracy is not a cult but a convenient means through which the emancipated energies of men may be allowed to display themselves in utmost variety. Democracy is best conceived not as a remote goal, however radiant, but as the pervasive spirit of every present freedom. Responsibility is of the essence of this freedom. Duties keep rights from cancelling each other out. The test of equal treatment is the taproot of democracy, whether it be of rights to be shared or of duties to be shouldered.

No nation is without some elements of the democratic way of life, and no nation has them all. The sportsman, who plays the game for the love of it, but according to the rules, is an exemplar of this way of life. And more conspicuously for Japan, the artist furnishes an example. He works for the joy of the working, learning his discipline not from external authority but from the limitations of his medium. Through many centuries, Japan has been developing a culture touched to its very core with a sense of beauty.

Equality of rights and of duties may be come at from wherever a nation is. Some nations have found their way to equal justice by starting with liberty, saving it from license by letting rights compete with one another until a middle course emerges. Japan, which has made an art of social relations in a cohesive family system, may come at equality from fraternity.

Whatever the approach, the nation that achieves unity through democratic virtues will build for itself a new spiritual life, a dynamic synthesis of art and science, of all its traditions and values. To this end, the various religions in Japan have contributed and will contribute insofar as they are good; have detracted and will detract insofar as they are bad. Negatively, Japan's new spiritual life has been already furthered by denying ultra-nationalism the right to operate under the guise of religion. Positively, the guarantee of freedom of religious thought and practice will now enable the Japanese to judge their several religions and to embrace those forms that give the highest meaning to their culture.

Some democracies separate church and state through fundamental law. They do so in order that both religion and government may contribute their utmost to

a complete life. We believe that democracy properly conceived has this in common with religion, for in quest of the spiritual life, it emphasizes the dignity and worth of individual human beings, together with characteristics of brotherhood common to all. Liberty carried to abnormal lengths will yield irresponsibility, anarchy and chaos. But equally fatal to the human spirit can be a oneness that reduces the individual to a meaningless part of a stifling whole.

We believe that the Japanese themselves, under the vital impact of both events and ideas, are moving in the direction of a fuller meaning of the worth of the individual — that they, too, desire a more humane approach to the problems of the day. The fulfilment of this desire would give Japan a new life, spiritual in its import, guaranteeing equal opportunity to all religions and appropriating the contributions of each.

In education these new directions will yield a freedom of teaching and learning at all levels. An equality of opportunity will create a new structure of education, open to all youth, alike to both sexes. Every student and every teacher, we feel, will be encouraged by this prospect to look within himself and about him, and not only above, in order to discover what to do or what to think or what to be. In this regard the schools will be simply sharing, as schools ought, in a nation-wide enterprise, and indeed contributing notably to its success. They will join as an effective partner the great struggle against obscurantism, feudalism, and militarism.

I. THE AIMS AND CONTENT OF JAPANESE EDUCATION

The reconstruction of the curriculum, courses of study, methods of instruction and textbooks in Japanese education, should be considered in the light of the pre-war Japanese system of education and of the opportunity now given to the Japanese people to adopt a liberal, democratic form of government. Before proposals for reform can be considered, it is important to have a clear understanding of those educational practices which, unless they are brought to light, may militate against the successful adoption of the proposals.

The Japanese system of education in its organization and curricular provisions would have been due for reform in accordance with modern theories of education even if there had not been injected into it ultra-nationalism and militarism. The system was based on a nineteenth century pattern which was highly centralized, providing one type of education for the masses and another for the privileged few. It held that at each level of instruction there is a fixed quantum of knowledge to be absorbed, and tended to disregard differences in the ability and interests of pupils. Through prescription, textbooks, examinations and inspection, the system lessened the opportunities of teachers to exercise professional freedom. The measure of efficiency was the degree to which standardization and uniformity were secured. To acquire an understanding of Japanese education it would almost suffice to examine the regulations, the prescribed courses of study, and the textbooks and teachers' manuals published by the Department of Education or the prefectural governments. The staff of the Department of Education and of the prefectural sections on education, however erudite and scholarly, have had little or no professional preparation or experience in education and the classroom. The result was the sacrifice of a great reservoir of talent and ability latent in all strata of society.

It is not that loyalty and patriotism are not desirable in every nation; it is a question of how to assure them at a reasonable price. Unquestioning obedience and blind self-sacrifice constitute too high a price. Individual intelligence is too precious to barter. Moreover, conformity by teachers and pupils favors the production of the mass mind.

Thus in many respects the Japanese educational system has failed to prepare its pupils for a world of reality. It failed because these ends were inculcated without understanding on the part of the learner. The time comes when this discipline fails; and, when it does, the cure becomes worse than the disease, as was illustrated when the Bureau of Thought Control was created.

An educational system, controlled by an entrenched bureaucracy recruited from a narrow group, which reduces the chances of promotion on merit, which provides little opportunity for investigation and research, and which refuses to tolerate criticism, deprives itself automatically of the means of progress.

Mistrust engenders mistrust. The Department of Education through its apparent lack of confidence in the intelligence of teachers at all levels has succeeded in producing a lack of confidence on the part of teachers in its power for leadership. Fortunately, regimented control can not invariably be relied upon to produce the regimented mind. The teachers of Japan, in so far as their views have been represented to the Mission, are critical and restless and are looking for leadership outside the Department of Education.

This unrest among teachers is not wholly due to their pitiable economic status. It arises out of a genuine desire for guidance and for the opportunity to help in building the new Japan. Despite control and repression, there are teachers who are thinking for themselves and who are growingly aware of the

direction that Japanese education should take. Such teachers are waiting expectantly for the stimulus and encouragement of the right kind of leadership.

It is in this setting that such issues as the aims of education, curriculum, courses of study, methods of instruction, and textbooks must be considered. In the older pattern education was organized from the top downwards; its essential characteristic was authoritarianism. In the new pattern, for which we have discovered deep-lying support at all social levels, the starting point must be the individual. As we shall see, curricular problems assume a different complexion in each of these systems.

The Aims of Education

Before the reconstruction of education in Japan can be undertaken, it is imperative that the bases of a philosophy of education in a democracy be clarified. To repeat constantly the word "democracy" is meaningless unless it is clothed with content.

A system of education for life in a democracy will rest upon the recognition of the worth and dignity of the individual. It will be so organized as to provide educational opportunity in accordance with the abilities and aptitudes of each person. Through content and methods of instruction it will foster freedom of inquiry, and training in the ability to analyze critically. It will encourage a wide discussion of factual information within the competence of students at different stages of their development. These ends cannot be promoted if the work of the school is limited to prescribed courses of study and to a single approved textbook in each subject. The success of education in a democracy cannot be measured in terms of uniformity and standardization.

Education should prepare the individual to become a responsible and co-operating member of society. It must be understood, too, that the term "individual" applies equally to boys and girls and to men and women. In building for a new Japan, individuals will need the knowledge which will develop them as workers, citizens, and human beings. They will need to apply that knowledge in a spirit of free inquiry as society members participating in the manifold aspects of its organization. All this is in harmony with the fundamental principles laid down in the Charter of the United Nations Organization and in the draft Constitution of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization.

It follows that the central authority should not prescribe content, methods of instruction, or textbooks, but should limit its activities in this area to the publication of outlines, suggestions and teaching guides. As soon as they have been suitably prepared for their professional work, teachers should be left free to adapt content and methods of instruction to the needs and abilities of their pupils in various environments and to the society in which they are to play a part.

The reorientation of Japanese education involves not only the negative aspect of a complete elimination of militaristic, ultra-nationalistic, and other objectionable features of instruction, but a careful appraisal of those aspects of the culture that will enrich the new program. For example, in such subjects as history, ethics, geography, literature, art and music, consideration must be given to what can be retained that will increase cooperation between Japan and other nations.

Education cannot proceed in a vacuum, nor is a complete break with a people's cultural past conceivable. There must be some continuity even in a crisis such as the present. It should be the task of all engaged in the educa-

tional activities of Japan to analyze their cultural traditions in order to discover what is worth preserving as humane ideas and ideals that will give strength to the new plans. Here the Japanese will find a legitimate and inspiring basis for loyalty and patriotism. The injunction of the Meiji period to "pursue knowledge everywhere" is well taken, but a frame of reference must be found in the consciousness of a worthy national culture, so as to avoid the dualism that comes from the constant addition of new elements.

The essence of this discussion of the aims of education is that freedom of teaching and of inquiry must be encouraged not only for the preservation but for the enrichment of the national culture of Japan. The ability to distinguish between fact and mythology, between the real and the fanciful, flourishes in a scientific spirit of critical analysis.

This means a shift from the aim, foremost in the minds of parents, students, and teachers, of passing examinations. A system of education that is dominated by preparation for examinations becomes formal and stereotyped, it makes for conformity on the part of teachers and students. It stifles freedom of inquiry and critical judgment, lending itself readily to manipulation by the authorities in the interests of a narrow bureaucracy rather than of society as a whole. Finally, the system engenders an abnormal competitive spirit that may lead at times to cheating and corruption, or to an unhealthy frustration.

Nevertheless, there is a place for new types of examinations that do not make the future of youth dependent upon the hazard of chance. This problem was the subject of an international inquiry in which some ten countries participated from 1931 to 1938. The study of the examination issue requires agencies of criticism and the creation of centers for educational research. Every possible device must be employed, if an accurate knowledge of a student's abilities is to be obtained. It is not an accident, but the direct result of the ideal of providing equal educational opportunity for all, that guidance and counseling are given such a prominent place in many post-war plans for educational reconstruction.

Education, of course, is not confined to the school alone; the family, the neighborhood and other social structures have their part to play in it. Education in the new Japan should seek to open as many sources and methods as possible for acquiring meaningful knowledge. Unless the learner is an active participant in the process of education, that is, unless he learns with understanding, education becomes an accumulation of items to be forgotten as soon as examinations are over.

Such an intellectual revolution demands, however, a change in the methods and content of curriculum-making.

The Curriculum

It is clear that the present method of drafting the curricula and courses of study is not designed to produce the ends indicated in the previous section. A good curriculum cannot be designed merely to impart a body of knowledge for its own sake. It must start with the interests of the pupils, enlarging and enriching those interests through content whose meaning is intelligible to the pupils. As in the statement of aims, so in the construction of the curricula and courses of study: the pupil in a particular environment must be the starting point. This principle is violated if a central authority issues an educational currency warranted valid under all circumstances, irrespective of the environment and abilities of pupils.

What then should be the part of the central authority or Department of Education in the formulation of curricula and courses of study? We believe that primarily it should create those conditions under which the process of education can best be carried out. It should exercise the functions of leadership, stimulation and encouragement. The need is not for more officials but for master teachers, demonstrators and research workers. The practice of publishing teachers' manuals should be continued provided, however, that they assume the character of guides and suggestions.

The curriculum and course of study would thus result from the cooperative action of the central authority and the teachers. It is assumed, of course, that both the officials and the teachers eventually will have received some preparation for sharing in this task of curriculum-making. In the transition period, an opportunity to participate in such work under wise leadership is in itself a valuable method for training teachers in service. The challenge is one to which many teachers will readily respond. Already they seek to understand the psychological foundations of education and instruction, with special reference to local community life. They will make mistakes, but to learn from their mistakes and from discussions with their colleagues, will be a new and exciting adventure.

Textbooks

Textbooks in Japanese education are virtually a monopoly of the Department of Education, which prepares and prescribes them for elementary schools, and has those for secondary schools prepared and submitted for approval. So far as can be discovered, teachers are not sufficiently consulted either in the preparation or the selection of textbooks. If the principles discussed in the preceding section on the curriculum are sound and acceptable, there emerges the further principle that the preparation and publication of textbooks should be left to open competition. Given an opportunity, teachers and supervisors will be shown capable of designing and evaluating teaching materials. From a plurality of effort will come a better chance to develop new and improved devices. For economic reasons in the main, the selection of textbooks cannot be left wholly to the free choice of teachers. They should be selected by committees of teachers from a given area.

Only Japanese educators can carry out these tasks. Other systems of education may serve as guides; they cannot be slavishly imitated. There are certain areas of instruction which are of critical importance in the reorientation of education in Japan. We shall now discuss these matters in a more explicit fashion.

Morals and Ethics

The course in morals as taught in the Japanese schools of late years was aimed at an obedient citizenry. This effort at order through loyalty proved so effective, upborne as it was by all pillars of society, that the means became identified with malicious ends. So the course on morals has been suspended. But a democratic system, like any other, requires an ethics to match and to perpetuate its own genius. Its appropriate virtues can be taught, and they should be taught in the schools as elsewhere. As democracy, however, represents a pluralism of values, the means to democratic ends are themselves manifold.

It is in large part because of this cultural variety of free societies that

the schools in some lands do not undertake to concentrate into one curricular effort the necessary training in virtue. Where teachers are well prepared, are independent minded, are loyal from love, and have few enough students per teacher to individualize instruction, ethical training tends to take care of itself, informing each pedagogical part with the spirit of the moral whole.

The French have proceeded in another way. The Japanese tradition has borrowed largely from the French, and there appears to be an expectation on the part of both parent and student for a special course in ethics. Let it be so, beginning the course with what the Japanese have — good manners. Japanese civilians, at least, are noted the world over for their formal gentility. Persons that come to laugh at the consummate art of face-saving may well pause to pray that they knew as well how to save human feelings from daily hurt. Even deference, highly conspicuous in Japan, is overdone only when it is invidiously done: make bowing universal, and you make it democratic. Indeed, whatever forms of politeness can be applied by all men to all men will ease the path of democracy. We would not have Japanese manners different save for the sake of a superior principle of social organization.

The political manners of democratic morals are found in parliamentary rules and in the practices which these rules make possible. Without such formal procedures it is impossible to conduct public meetings and so impossible to distill common insight and to precipitate it as joint action. This is the way that sportsmanship prevails in politics, letting the majority respect the minority and the minority abide by the rule of the majority — and letting minorities become majorities. Hence, all children of both sexes should be taught in school such rules as will safeguard their growing freedom. They need training in the arts of orderly communication. One way to do this is to let them have meetings over which they preside in turn.

Boys and girls alike should, moreover, grow up knowing their national constitution, for it is the institution under which majority rule prevails. They should know something, too, of other constitutions. They should have elections to determine the officers of their own organizations as a preparatory step for later citizenship. If they must imitate, let them imitate the Diet, having miniatures of it in every school.

Above all, pupils should be introduced to the heroes of civil life, so that the virtues of peace may become as personalized as the vices of war. Literature that glorifies civic heroism is a contribution to ethics, wherever it may appear in the curriculum.

Democratic citizens should be willing to pool their efforts, and this requires not only knowledge of the constitution and of high ideals but also a willingness to participate in practical politics. Women must see that to be "good" wives, they must be good; and to be "wise" mothers, they must be wise. Goodness does not spring from narrowness, and wisdom is not a hothouse plant. It grows from wide social experience and from political practice.

Men and women must be willing to work at democracy, and to work together, if they are to get and keep their freedom. Politics is an honor, not a disgrace. Indifference to political action is the disgrace, for it allows evil men to dominate the good and so to involve the whole nation. Not to vote is moral negligence, and not to inform oneself how to vote intelligently is culpable indolence. "Eternal vigilance is the price of liberty."

So far we have let morals appear as a matter of collective integrity, the unity of man and society. Morals are also a matter of individual wholeness — the happy relation of a man to himself. Since man is an active animal, this means primarily a satisfactory adjustment of man to his work. The artist is the individual who has fully found himself in his job; while making a living he is

also building a satisfactory life. His personal work is so much his human vocation that he requires only to be at it. This good fortune of the artist constitutes an ideal that is approached by the craftsman and by every worker who is skilled, knows that he is skilled, and enjoys his skill.

To find the secret of a happy relation between the worker and his work is to discover the mystery of morale, and the chief element in the integration of individual character. The formula for this would go far to indicate the content of any democratic course on morals. It is a matter too important to forget or to lose in any devotion to salvation through collectivism. No organization - political, industrial, or professional - can by itself make men happy who are seriously unadjusted to their work. Economic factors are important, but they are not supreme. Nowhere can happiness be taken for granted: wealth does not assure it, lack of wealth does not prevent it. The presence and practice of skill is the best formula for this good life.

Nor is it presumptuous thus to call a nation's attention to its own moral assets and to recommend that they be used as educational material. The possession of skill is a priceless ethical treasure. Japan is not without substantial resources in this regard. Wherever the worker finds self-expression in his work, there a moral is to be drawn for integrity and a picture found for the ethical textbook of a wholesome society.

We know that if Japan goes democratic in fact, democratic ethics will get taught. The manner of its teaching we leave to the Japanese, provided only that it be informed of peace and be oriented toward democracy.

But if ethics is to be taught as a single and separate course, we recommend (1) that every effort be made to save for its content such Japanese manners as are consistent with genuine equality, (2) that the good sportmanship of daily give-and-take, including the constitutional machinery which makes such accommodation possible, be studied and taught comparatively, and (3) that whatever variety of work there is in Japan, and whatever contentment of spirit the practice of skill has achieved, be celebrated in the curriculum.

History and Geography

History and geography are normally designed to assist the student in orienting himself in time and space. They are expected to provide an objective basis on which the student can develop a historical perspective, an acquaintance with his physical environment, and a sense of the relationship between his own environment and the rest of the world.

The history of Japan has encouraged a different emphasis in teaching both subjects. Its recorded history has been consciously confused with mythology, and its geography protectively and even religiously self-centered.

History and geography courses, having been assigned a place of little importance in the typical Japanese curriculum as objective subjects, have had a major role in political and militaristic indoctrination. Successive revisions of the texts have followed the course of national policy and with great damage, as in the latest revision of 1939.

Three problems are raised by the withdrawal of the history and geography texts from the teaching program of the schools:

1. The provision of adequate material in place of that withdrawn;
2. The redirection of the process of education for greater democratization in substance, ideas, and activity, and
3. The formation of acceptable standards for selecting new historical and geographical material.

There is at present great uncertainty regarding content to be provided in the fields where texts were withdrawn. This uncertainty is in part due to the many unsettled questions involved in the military occupation and in part to lack of resourcefulness on the part of the teachers themselves. The situation is critical in that texts in history and geography cannot be merely revised; they must be rewritten, and with a different historical outlook. This requires time.

As temporary measures to be used during the period of rewriting of the texts, the following may be considered:

1. A utilization of the substance of the texts used in the revision of 1926.
2. A prompt development of school teachers' manuals to serve as guides.
3. Extension of the study of the social sciences in the middle schools and above, with an emphasis on the structure and functioning of the local community.
4. Translations of texts dealing with the peoples of other countries.
5. The separation of mythology from objective history and the preservation of Japanese mythology, together with the mythology of other peoples, as literature.
6. A utilization of tours to acquaint students with examples of national achievement.
7. The objective compilation of historical data, as student work projects.

Although these suggestions are "stop-gap" devices, they need not be abandoned when satisfactory texts and reference books are again available. They can with profit be regarded as teaching aids.

The full historical and geographical reorientation will require years of scholarly work and should be so planned. A few suggestions follow.

The responsibility for the compilation of history and geography texts should not rest within the Ministry of Education. Councils of competent Japanese scholars should be established to develop authentic and objective sources for the rewriting of Japanese history. Such materials would provide a basis for the preparation of textbooks, the latter to be undertaken in accordance with principles outlined elsewhere in this report.

The council would also be concerned with the establishment of archives, the creation of learned societies, the publication of research, and the extension of the study of social sciences in secondary schools, colleges, and universities.

The over-all objective should be the promotion of democratic Japanese education within a world society committed to non-aggression and peace.

Health and Physical Education

Health instruction and physical education furnish a convenient and timely illustration of the importance of curricular reform. Food is scarce in Japan, and it may never be truly plentiful. Nutrition, therefore, as a source of knowledge and a basis for food habits, in combination with every possible contribution to physical fitness, cannot fail to engage the attention of thoughtful educators. Conversely there is neither time nor energy to support sterile militaristic activities. Their prompt elimination has restored to youth a rightful chance for health, strength and recreation.

We shall turn at once, therefore, to a rapid review of some possible ways in which educators may take hold of this problem. Here, as elsewhere, the long view is maintained, but we cannot refrain from bespeaking a high priority for the more obvious of these measures, inasmuch as health is the starting point

for a vast amount of individual and social virtue.

Health Education

Instruction in health appears to be seriously lacking in the elementary school; there is practically no teaching either of physiology or hygiene.

A study should be made by medical organizations to compile satisfactory standards and methods in school medical examinations. Teachers could be used to assist in making certain examinations. In the medical schools, a short orientation course should be introduced to acquaint prospective physicians with the needs arising in school programs. A follow-up program of the medical examinations should be organized to include physicians, nurse-teacher, classroom teacher, pupil and parent.

Most authorities will agree that health instruction in the schools should include instruction in the basic and practical elements of bacteriology, physiology, and public health measures, as well as instruction in good personal and home health practices. Nutrition, for example, cannot be left to chance; the pupil needs explicit guidance and demonstration.

Attention also should be given to adult health education. It would seem wise to promote extension education in this area to assist the very large number of adults who have received no instruction. The medium of the neighborhood associations offers a promising lead in this connection, as do the other channels of adult education to be discussed presently. Health education committees in each school may serve to unite the contributions of teachers in related subjects, bringing their joint experience to the aid of pupils, parents and members of the community.

At the higher levels, experts in nutrition, hygiene and teaching should set about to prepare up-to-date materials. There is sure to be an immediate and long-continued need at every level of instruction. Nowhere will the joy of labor be more richly rewarded. The healthy child is a constant and thrilling reminder of every step forward in this crucial area of human welfare.

It is not for us to ask it, but one great question, paradoxically, will grow more insistent with a substantial improvement in health conditions, namely, an increased crowding as Japan maintains a high birth rate and lowers its death rate. It is recommended that a distinguished committee of Japanese scientists, representing the biological and social fields, begin a serious study of these implications.

Physical Education

In addition to strengthening and conditioning the body and teaching physical skills, schools should recognize the values inherent in sportsmanship and cooperation. Every effort should be made to develop sports and games having conditioning values for use at home and in blocked off streets. Where possible, these should be adapted to co-educational play. The equipment need not be expensive.

The time devoted to physical education in the elementary schools, middle schools, special schools, and colleges is ample. Similar work should be added at the university level, where the students tend to study for long hours without much physical recreation. Steps should be taken to place more women teachers in charge of physical education activities for girls and to improve the program of activities.

It is recommended that high priorities be given to the replacement of equipment for physical education.

The drafting of new manuals should be undertaken by committees of teachers and the methods of teacher training should be developed in the light of a modern knowledge of health, physical education and recreation. Research will be needed.

Physical education associations and non-militaristic sports groups, including youth organizations, should be encouraged to revive their activities.

We believe that in physical education, Japan is in a position to move forward. Its system has many good points and the personnel is not inferior to that in Western countries. Certainly, the potential contribution to democratic education is great.

Vocational Education

Japan needs trained hands as well as educated minds to rebuild her homes, cities, factories and cultural institutions. There is no better guarantee for democracy in Japan than a body of skilled, employed, and informed workmen. It is an asset no less moral than industrial.

In order to create such a bulwark of democracy, the educators of Japan must help create the same respect for those who work with tools as for those who work only with their minds.

Creativity and noble impulse are not, and never have been, the monopoly of the scholar. Because this is so, we recommend an emphasis on the contributions and problems of artisans and workers in the social studies program, at both primary and secondary levels. There should be furnished a variety of vocational experiences, under well-trained staff members.

Conclusions

On the basis of the principles discussed above, the objectives of education as they concern the curriculum, methods of instruction, and the use of textbooks and other aids, may be summarized.

A system of education should be so organized as to encourage the fullest development of which each individual — boy or girl, man or woman — is capable as an intelligent, responsible, and cooperating member of society. Accordingly, provision should be made for the student's health and physical fitness. Freedom of inquiry, rather than exclusive memorization of factual knowledge for examination purposes, should be emphasized.

The educational system has a further responsibility in the provision of types of schools or educational institutions adapted to the ability, aptitudes and interests of the students as they advance from a foundation in general education to specialized preparation for the manifold occupations — agricultural, industrial, commercial, domestic, and professional — of modern society. A well-organized system of counseling and guidance, both educational and vocational, will prove helpful.

Finally, the educational system will do well to create new interests among students, not only intellectual, but practical and esthetic. Throughout the new program, libraries and other agencies for self-education will play an important part. In fact, one of the best methods for surmounting an over emphasis on memorization of textbook or dictated materials is to provide access to books and articles representing different points of view.

All these suggestions stem from the simple recognition of the place of

children in any nation. They must be prepared to take the lead. The future of Japan rests upon their shoulders. If we have pressed our points zealously in opening up new ways to their minds, it is only because rarely, in any country, do the young have an opportunity to speak up for themselves.

II. LANGUAGE REFORM

We come now to a matter which both modesty and ease would counsel us to avoid, if our sense of responsibility to the children of Japan permitted. Language is so intimate an organism in a people's life that it is hazardous to approach it from without. This same intimacy operates, however, to retard betterment purely from within.

There is a middle course, and it may here prove to be a golden mean. Consumption of language reform can, we know, come only from within; its initiation, however, may receive a stimulus from any source. It is this friendly stimulus we feel called upon to give, and with it every encouragement to this generation to begin at once that for which all future generations will surely call it blessed.

From a deep sense of duty, and from it alone, we recommend a drastic reform of the Japanese written language.

Clearly the question of language reform is basic and urgent. It casts its shadow over practically every branch of the educational program, from the primary school to the university. If no satisfactory answer can be found to this problem, the achievement of many agreed upon educational goals will be rendered most difficult. For example, the promotion of an understanding of other nations and of democracy at home will be hampered.

The crucial role of language in the educative process and in all intellectual growth is generally recognized. It is a major factor in learning during the period of schooling and throughout the later years of life. The Japanese, no less than other peoples, think by means of the phonetic and written symbols of language. The quality and efficiency of the entire process of education is profoundly affected by the character of these symbols.

The Japanese language in its written form constitutes a formidable obstacle to learning. Practically all informed persons agree that the memorizing of the Kanji, in which the Japanese language is largely written, places an excessive burden on the pupils. During the elementary years they are required to give a very great part of their study time to the sheer task of learning to recognize and to write the language characters. During these initial years, time that might be devoted to the acquisition of a vast range of useful linguistic and numerical skills, of essential knowledge about the world of physical nature and human society, is consumed in a struggle to master these characters.

The results achieved by the inordinate amount of time allotted to recognizing and writing Kanji are disappointing. On leaving the elementary school the pupils may lack the linguistic abilities essential to democratic citizenship. They have trouble in reading common materials such as daily newspapers and popular magazines. As a general rule, they cannot grasp books dealing with contemporary problems and ideas. Above all, they usually fail to acquire a degree of mastery sufficient to make reading an easy tool of development after leaving school. Yet no one who has visited Japanese schools can deny that the pupils are mentally alert and remarkably diligent.

To discharge effectively the elementary duties of citizenship, the individual must understand the meaning of simple statements of fact touching social events. He should also possess those elements of general education that will enable him, after leaving school, to master progressively conditions directly affecting his own fortunes. If a child fails to make a beginning in such matters before leaving the elementary school, he rarely will find time or inclination to make the start for himself. Approximately eighty-five percent of Japanese children

terminate their formal education at this time.

For the fifteen percent entering the middle school, the language problem remains. These older boys and girls continue to labor at the unending task of mastering the symbols of the written language. Can any modern nation afford the luxury of such a difficult and time-consuming medium of expression and communication?

The need for linguistic reform has long been recognized in Japan. Distinguished scholars have devoted much attention to the question, and many influential citizens, including publicists and editors, have explored various possibilities. It is reported that some thirty Japanese organizations today are concerned with the problem.

Broadly speaking, three proposals for the reform of the written language are under discussion: the first calls for a reduction in the number of Kanji; the second for the complete abandonment of Kanji and the adoption of some form of Kana; and the third for the complete abandonment of both Kanji and Kana and the adoption of some form of Romaji.

A choice among these proposals is not easy. But in view of the facts of history, education, and language analysis, the Mission believes that in time Kanji should be wholly abandoned in the popular written language and that a phonetic system should be adopted.

Such a system would be relatively easy to acquire and would greatly facilitate the entire learning process. It would simplify the use of dictionaries, catalogues, typewriters, linotype machines, and other language aids. More important still, it would make more accessible to the great mass of the Japanese people the knowledge and wisdom to be found in their own writings in art, philosophy, science and technology. It would also facilitate their study of the literature of other peoples.

That certain esthetic and other values residing in the Kanji can never be fully conveyed by a phonetic system is readily granted. But the common people, if they are to be well informed and fully articulate in both domestic and foreign affairs, must be given a more simple medium of reading and writing.

The perfection of a unified and practicable plan may be slow, but the present is an auspicious time to begin.

In the judgment of the Mission, there are more advantages to Romaji than to Kana. Furthermore, it would lend itself well to the growth of democratic citizenship and international understanding.

Recognizing the many difficulties involved, sensitive to the natural feelings of hesitation on the part of many Japanese, and fully aware of the gravity of the changes proposed, we nevertheless propose:

1. That some form of Romaji be brought into common use by all means possible.
2. That the particular form of Romaji chosen be decided upon by a commission of Japanese scholars, educational leaders, and statesmen.
3. That the commission assume the responsibility for coordinating the program of language reform during the transitional stages.
4. That the commission formulate a plan and a program for introducing Romaji into the schools and into the life of the community and nation through newspapers, periodicals, books, and other writings.
5. That the commission study, also, the means of bringing about a more democratic form of the spoken language.
6. That in view of the steady drain on the learning time of children, the commission be formed promptly. It is hoped that a thorough report and a comprehensive program may be announced within a reasonable period.

The Japanese language commission appointed to launch this great undertaking

might grow into a national language institute to assemble the wealth of data on the learning process that would come from the use of new forms. Such an institute would attract scholars from other countries, for many would discover in the Japanese experience ideas immediately useful everywhere.

The time is favorable for taking this momentous step in language reform — perhaps more favorable than it will be again for generations. The eyes of the Japanese people are on the future. The Japanese are moving in new directions in domestic life and international orientation that will require a simple and efficient medium of written communication. At the same time, the war has stimulated many foreigners to study the Japanese language and culture. If this interest is to be sustained and nurtured, a new system of writing will have to be found. A language should be a vast highway, not a barrier.

Thoughtful men and women everywhere, desirous of bringing lasting peace to the world, realize that wherever possible linguistic supports of the spirit of national isolation and exclusiveness need breaking down. The adoption of Romaji would constitute a major contribution to the transmission of knowledge and ideas across national boundaries.

III. ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION AT THE PRIMARY AND SECONDARY LEVELS

Basic Educational Principles

The inalienable and universal rights of people are safeguarded largely through the process of education. Schools are established to supplement and enrich the experiences of people. That education is most desirable which results in the individual's attaining progressively throughout life his own best self.

In a democracy, individual human beings are, we repeat, of surpassing worth. Their interests must not be subordinated to those of the State. Educational opportunity, commensurate with individual ability, should be equally available for all persons regardless of sex, race, creed or color. Minority groups should be respected and valued.

Schools should be integral parts of the communities which they serve. The experiences within the school which constitute the curriculum should be closely related to the out-of-school experiences of pupils.

The school should help every individual to develop strong personal, family, civic, and social loyalties. It should not exert partisan influence but help to develop an inquiring mind. Intelligent citizenship, based on freedom of thought, communication, and criticism, should be an important outcome of education.

Basic Changes

If the schools of Japan are to assume their full share of responsibility in the development of a democratic and peaceful way of life, we believe that they need correction in certain basic respects.

Our first recommendation is that a new philosophy, new procedures, and a new structure be adopted for the schools of Japan. This should be done in such manner as to recognize human personality as of paramount importance and the State as a means to that end. As the first step in that direction, we approve the discontinuance, in the public schools, of partisan teaching, political or religious.

The ceremonial use of Imperial Rescripts and the practice of obeisance before the Imperial Portraits, have in the past been powerful instruments for the regimentation of student thought and feeling; they have served the purposes of a militant nationalism. They should be discontinued. The ceremony connected with the use of such instrumentalities we consider undesirable in the development of personality and incompatible with public instruction in a democratic Japan.

From the standpoint of structure, form, and procedures, individual schools and school systems may be characterized by centralized or distributed controls. In the centralized type of school system, authority proceeds from one person or one institution or one agency. Experience indicates that the centralized system is more vulnerable from the standpoint of manipulation and exploitation by powers either outside or inside the system. The Japanese school system has been subject to criticism, for at many points, throughout the system, strategic positions have been filled by persons without professional training as educators. Many educational officials have been appointed by, and are accountable to, the Minister of Home Affairs or his representative.

On this problem of control, we recommend two changes in the Japanese educational scheme:

First, personnel dealing with the schools in relation to instruction, the supervision of instruction, or administration should be well qualified as educators and should be appointed to their positions by authority vested in persons or agencies established as a part of the educational structure.

Second, the control of the instructional program should be more dispersed than at present; vertical lines of authority and responsibility should be definitely broken at certain levels of the system.

Necessary Adjustments

At the primary school level, there has been some uncertainty as to the length of the course. We believe that the length of the primary school should be fixed at six years. This would carry most boys and girls through the period of childhood and to the threshold of adolescence. The six year primary school should be entirely free and attendance compulsory. No tuition fees should be charged. The program of instruction should prepare children to become healthy, active, thinking citizens eager to develop their innate abilities. We recommend that the primary school be conducted on a co-educational basis.

Beyond the six year primary school, the organization is somewhat confused by the addition of one or two years for pupils who fail the examinations for entrance into the middle schools or who want to extend their education before going to work. The present middle school, following the primary school, is intended to meet the needs of students who seek entrance into the next higher schools of the same type.

We recommend that there be established for the next three years beyond the primary school, a "lower secondary school" for all boys and girls, providing fundamentally the same type of curriculum for all with such adjustments as are necessary to meet individual needs. The main purposes should be similar to those of the primary school, with emphasis upon personal development, citizenship, and community life. Into this school should be introduced certain opportunities of an exploratory nature in the vocational field. We recommend that attendance in the "lower secondary school" be compulsory for three years, or until the age of sixteen. These "lower secondary schools" should be free from tuition fees. They should become co-educational, as rapidly as conditions warrant, the principle involved being as applicable at this level as in the primary schools.

Beyond the "lower secondary schools", we recommend the establishment of a three year "upper secondary school", free from tuition fees and open to all who desire to attend. Here again, co-education would make possible many financial savings and would help to establish equality between the sexes. However, separate schools might be used at this level during the transition stage, provided equal educational opportunity could be guaranteed. These schools should include academic courses leading to entrance to colleges and universities, as well as courses in home-making, agriculture, and trade and industrial education. We recommend that in the smaller prefectural districts, all these courses be included in a single school unit. In cities and other heavily populated districts, it might be desirable to concentrate some of the courses in separate schools, but, on the whole, we favor the comprehensive "upper secondary school."

What this proposal intends is that all the tax-supported schools receiving graduates of the primary schools might well be merged into a single system. These include the higher elementary, the middle, the girls' high, the vocational and youth schools, as well as schools preparatory to normal college. The differ-

entiated functions provided by these schools, including extension and continuation services, should be embraced within the secondary school curricula.

At the completion of work in the "upper secondary school", qualified graduates should be eligible for admission to normal schools, colleges and the university preparatory courses.

Attention should be given, at appropriate levels, to physically handicapped and mentally retarded children. Separate classes or schools should be provided for the blind and deaf and for other seriously handicapped children whose needs can not be met adequately in the regular schools. Attendance should be governed by the regular compulsory attendance laws.

Sound principles of child growth and development warrant the extension of school services downward to younger children. As needed changes are made and adequately financed in the regular public school system, we recommend the establishment of additional nursery schools and kindergartens and their incorporation in the primary schools.

The ultimate success of the effort to build a democratic educational system in Japan depends on the understanding and acceptance of the program by the masses of the people. High resolves will collapse if they lack a foundation of public support. Consequently, we recommend that prefectural and local school authorities develop the program of public adult education described elsewhere in this report.

Private schools which meet the standards set up for the public schools should be approved. The transfer of students between private and public schools should be made possible without loss or inconvenience to the pupils.

Teachers should have all the privileges and opportunities of other citizens. To do their best work, they must have freedom to think, speak and act. They must have security in their positions, reasonable salaries and adequate retirement provisions.

In order to be effective in the best interests of youth and in the promotion of their own welfare, teachers should organize into voluntary associations on local, prefectural, and national levels. The teacher organization must be free to act with initiative and vigor and to work closely with other organizations.

In order to provide a type of decentralization of the Japanese school system that would at least reduce the danger of exploitation, we propose that school codes be prepared and adopted to give effect to certain reforms, to which we shall now turn.

Powers at the National Level

The Ministry of Education has been the seat of power for those who controlled the minds of Japan. In order to prevent the possible misuse of the power of this office as heretofore constituted, we propose that its administrative controls be reduced. This means that many present controls affecting curricula, methods, materials of instruction, and personnel shall be transferred to prefectural and local school administrative units.

In the past, regimentation has been compelled by a system of inspectors. This system should be abolished. In its place there should be established a system of consultants and competent technical advisers who will provide inspiration and guidance, without policing or administrative powers.

The functions of the Ministry of Education should be divorced from the Ministry of Home Affairs.

Among the powers and duties of the Ministry with respect to primary and secondary education, we suggest the following:

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

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

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

4. Establishment of objective standards for the schools.

5. Distribution of educational funds provided by the national government, such distribution to be on the basis of an objective formula written into law.

Powers at the Prefectural Level

The responsibility for the administration of public primary and secondary education should rest with the prefecture and with local sub-divisions.

We recommend that in each prefecture 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 within the prefecture in accordance with statute.

The prefectural agency should appoint a prefectural educational leader. His training and experience should be in the field of education. Among his powers and duties we suggest the following:

1. Establishment and maintenance of minimum standards for the public schools of the prefecture.

2. Certification of teachers in accordance with objective standards.

3. Approval of textbooks recommended by the local school authorities.

(Teachers should be given a large responsibility in the selection of textbooks.)

4. Provision of in-service training for teachers and holding of professional meetings to improve teaching techniques.

5. Recognition or approval of schools and other educational institutions at the primary and secondary levels, in accordance with standards established by the Ministry of Education.

Powers at the Local Level

If the schools are to become effective instruments of a strong democracy, they must be kept close to the people. It is essential that teachers, school principals, and local heads of school systems be free from domination and control by higher ranking school officials. It is essential also that the educators directly in charge of school administration at every level be held accountable to the people whom they serve.

We recommend that in each city, or other prefectural subdivision, there shall be established a lay educational agency elected by the people, this agency to be in charge of all public primary and secondary schools in its locality, in accordance with statute. This agency shall appoint a professionally qualified educator as the head of the school system for the city or other prefectural subdivision.

Among the duties of the head of the local school system we suggest the following:

1. Performance of the functions of executive officer of the lay educational

agency.

2. Administration of the educational program of the city in accordance with law and under the general policies adopted by the local educational agency.
3. Recommendation to the local educational agency of teachers for appointment to the schools under his supervision.
4. Supervision of instruction in the schools and aid to principals and teachers in the development of courses of study and selection of teaching materials.
5. Survey of the educational needs of the area; determination of the proper location of school buildings and supervision of their construction.
6. Encouragement of the organization of parents and teachers to promote child welfare and to improve the educational program.

Financial Support

The financial support of schools depends potentially on the general economic level of the society of which the schools are a part.

A democratic educational program by its very nature represents a large expenditure of public funds. This is so because it calls for larger educational opportunity, a broad curriculum, enlightened supervision, better trained teachers, smaller classes and superior material equipment. As time goes on, these facilities and services, in turn, make a solid contribution to public wealth through the improved capacity and productivity of well educated citizens. Education, thus conceived, becomes a self-perpetuating investment.

The people of Japan have already demonstrated their willingness to support schools and cultural institutions on a relatively extensive scale. We believe that, even at the cost of enormous personal sacrifice, they will find a way to provide better schools at all levels of instruction.

Teachers' Salaries

At all levels, the salaries of teachers and other school officials are decidedly below a level commensurate with the importance of their work. Without supplements to these salaries in the form of additional service outside their school work, or through family subsidy, they cannot maintain a decent standard of living. We recommend that educational leaders on the national and prefectural levels develop reasonable minimum salary schedules for all school personnel and that proper legislation be enacted accordingly.

Supplies and Equipment

In addition to the payment of adequate salaries and the provision of a sufficient number of teachers and other school personnel to make possible a democratic school system, there should be provided an adequate supply of text and reference books, library books, and other instructional equipment. Visual and aural aids to instruction should be available for use more extensively than has heretofore been true.

School Buildings

It is evident that the condition of the school plant in Japan constitutes a major financial problem. A large number of school buildings have been destroyed. During recent years wartime conditions have inevitably led to neglect in upkeep. New buildings, as they are provided, should include modern developments in lighting, heating, ventilation, and electrical equipment.

General Support

Educational and taxation authorities should together formulate a plan for the adequate financial support of the schools. This plan should define the relative contributions to be made at the national, prefectural, and local governmental levels. In the interest of the general welfare it should be the aim of the national government to provide to every child, youth, and adult a reasonable educational opportunity. A plan of equalization of financial support should be worked out to make this principle effective.

There is evidently great disparity in the ability of local communities and prefectures to support an adequate educational program. At the prefectural level, the principle of equalization should again be applied in the distribution of school support. A reasonable percentage of the cost of the schools should be provided at the local level.

IV. TEACHING AND THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

The Problems Involved

The reform of teaching and of the education of teachers has the same goal as the reconstruction of education in general.

We have seen that the effects of the old regime are manifest in the teaching practices. Teachers have been told exactly what to teach and how to teach it. Teaching has been, by and large, formal and stereotyped. To prevent any deviation from the prescribed content and form, inspectors have been charged with the duty of seeing that printed instructions were followed to the letter. Such a system has the effect of putting teaching in a straitjacket.

The situation has been severely criticized by informed Japanese. However, in spite of all handicaps, not a few teachers have managed to attain an admirable degree of flexibility in their teaching. Singly and in groups leaders of education in Japan have striven to break away from paralyzing restrictions—all honor to these pioneers!

We shall now attempt to describe briefly some teaching practices generally regarded as good in that they result in satisfactory pupil growth. In so doing, we may further emphasize, or even exaggerate, those qualities that are deficient in the schools of Japan.

Japanese teachers need no one to tell them how to conduct memory exercises or to develop skill of hand. They are masters at this art. It is not proper to detract from the value of this kind of teaching; it is bad only when it shuts out the development of curiosity and originality in the attack on problems or judgment in dealing with social and moral questions.

Characteristics of Good Teaching

Good teaching practices are those which attain the desired objectives most effectively. If the objective is democratic, a wise use of democratic procedures is indicated. But when they are so employed as to result in wasted time with little learned, or when they afford more freedom than can be profitably used at a given stage of pupil development, something has gone wrong. Certain parts of the school program call for direct instructional methods and control of the situation by the teacher. The mature, well-educated teacher, as a part of the practice of his art, will be able to judge the method to employ.

In general, desirable practices will be facilitated by the maintenance of small classes and well equipped laboratories, libraries, gymnasiums, playgrounds and special classrooms. The radio, phonograph and motion picture projector are often helpful. But schools with a wealth of equipment are not necessarily good schools, and those with meager equipment may provide commendable educational experiences.

If the teacher is given sufficient freedom, he will make use of many facilities outside the school to enrich the learning of pupils. Farms, factories, offices, libraries, museums and hospitals provide educational opportunities. In some cases where classes are too large, a teacher skilled in democratic processes can call upon student leadership, breaking up the class into smaller groups under student chairmen.

Democratic education can be characterized by a recognition of individual differences in pupils, by an emphasis on the development of the potentialities

of the individual, and by the goal of acceptable and effective participation in the social group.

Individual Differences

Equality does not imply a dead level of uniformity. Some differences between pupils are properly ignored by the democratic school, such as those of religion, race and social status. Equal educational opportunity should be provided for all, in spite of any prejudices which may be found in the adult population. The democratic school, however, through its testing program, and in other ways, seeks to discover the intellectual level of its pupils and adjusts its program accordingly. It tries not to make demands on pupils which they are unable to meet, and further, it broadens its offerings to provide educational experiences for those of differing intellectual abilities. Similarly, it seeks to adjust its program to pupils of different interests, to those from rural and from urban areas, for example.

Intellectual differences between the sexes are found to be practically non-existent where boys and girls are educated in the same classrooms. The experience of growing up together is believed to be both natural and helpful. Segregation within the school for such activities as sports and physical education and, when desired, for certain manual activities, presents few difficulties, once it has become standard practice.

Development of the Individual

It is believed that an insistence on conformity to arbitrary standards does not produce the most desirable type of development. Methods which are effective for some are not for others; an atmosphere in which the teacher tells and the pupils listen and then merely give back what they have been told is not effective in stimulating pupil growth. Initiative and originality are repressed unless pupils can ask questions, consult different sources, subject their ideas to group criticism, testing solutions in the light of reason and in terms of possible or actual consequences.

Social Participation

Democratic attitudes must be learned through the experience of democratic action. Informal pupil-teacher relationships contribute to it. Training for participation in community life in a democracy calls for experience in the process of group deliberation, in the choosing of leaders and the exercise of leadership, and in the toleration of different points of view.

Suggested Practices in the Teaching of Civic Education

In order that the above generalizations concerning teaching methods may have a more definite meaning, an illustration will be given showing specific practices that may be employed. Undoubtedly many, if not all, the practices suggested can now be found in operation in one or another of the public or private schools of Japan, and some of them have been tried out experimentally, but they are not generally employed.

The field chosen for illustration is that which is referred to as ethics

and sometimes "civics" in Japan, and is a part of "social studies" in the United States. It embraces political science, economics, sociology, and ethics, adapted to the maturity of the learner.

The several religions have put forward systems of ethics, and these systems have merit, but since they are bound to incompatible religious dogmas, the State is wise to exclude religious indoctrination from its schools. This, however, need not be interpreted as the exclusion of the study of the different religions, particularly at the higher levels, with no attempt to inculcate the dogma of any one of them.

According to their age level, pupils should learn about local industry and local, prefectural, and national government. In the elementary and secondary schools they will profit from visits to business establishments, banks, stores, police and fire departments, and government offices; they will learn how private and public business is carried on. They should be encouraged to ask questions, express opinions and engage in discussions. Responsibilities of employers and government officials should be dwelt on, and the common rights of individuals as employees and as citizens. Questions should be raised as to the means of safeguarding these rights and ways of improving them. Film strips and motion pictures can supplement the usual methods of instruction to extend the pupil's knowledge beyond the immediate locality.

To vitalize the knowledge so gained, certain class periods could be devoted to problems of the school. A simple type of organization can be set up, with a flexible committee plan to discuss and work out solutions to such problems as improving the appearance of the school, improving health conditions, developing recreational facilities, obtaining exhibits of books or pictures, planning school parties, introducing new pupils to the school, and developing special interest clubs. It might be expected that in some schools elected representatives of each class or group would serve as a student council. This would act within its sphere of power as a governing body of the distinctively student interests, forwarding suggestions or recommendations to the faculty for their consideration.

Democratic processes may be misinterpreted; they need clarification. With the impact of other cultures on the traditional Japanese codes of behavior, a number of conflicts will undoubtedly arise between different groups and between the younger and older generations. Discussions, led by selected teachers, should help the younger generation to hold to what is good, whether it be old or new.

Besides the experience provided in the regular class period, moral behavior and ethical attitudes can be developed in other school situations, for example, in musical organizations. Chorus, speaking choir, band, orchestra and ensemble, when musical instruments are available, in addition to the aesthetic values involved, will enable pupils to combine personal enjoyment with desirable social ends. Similarly, formal or informal dramatic presentations, plays, and marionette shows call upon a variety of talent, each contribution having its respected place.

In addition, group games and team sports provide children with fine opportunities to learn the virtues of sharing, respect for others, and the rules of good sportsmanship under practical and trying situations. If these attitudes can be generalized to apply to other life situations, they are given a meaning and substance not likely to follow from purely didactic methods.

The Re-education of Teachers

The teachers now at work in the schools of Japan are faced with perplexing tasks - tasks of enormous social significance. They must interpret the events of the past years, while preparing the new generation to take its place in the new Japan. They are expected to follow democratic methods not yet entirely familiar to them. If the teachers are to meet the obligations which they have accepted, they need all the help available.

Emergency Re-education Program

In order to give the needed assistance and guidance to the teachers now in the schools, an emergency training program is required. It is recommended that such a program be undertaken at once, and in many ways. Time will be required for the transition, and it is suggested that the emergency program be planned to cover two years. Within that time, every teacher should have had an opportunity for consultation or training in the newer approaches to teaching.

Among the emergency re-education possibilities, the following are suggested:

1. *Teachers Meetings Within Each School.* Every school should have meetings of its teachers at which problems and practices are freely discussed without domination by the principal.
2. *Democratically originated practices in ordinary schools, under the guidance of educational consultants.* Wherever feasible, experienced educators qualified to assist the teachers and principal of a school to begin newer practices should select an ordinary school and, working with its staff, the parents, and the pupils, help to evolve new methods appropriate to the given school. Such demonstrations in real schools would prove helpful to other schools through showing the participation of teachers in planning, and the variety of practices which may be found acceptable.
3. *The mobile unit, or traveling group of demonstrators.* Selected teachers, skilled in democratic methods, may move about in teams or groups, from community to community, giving encouragement to the local teachers and aiding in obtaining answers to their questions. Such groups should be made up of teachers from various parts of Japan and from communities varying in size. Some plan for multiplying these teams should be arranged so that within the emergency two-year period all schools may be reached. The teams may be supplied with motion pictures and other aids.
4. *Use of the demonstration school in connection with the prefectural normal school.* The demonstration school in connection with each normal school should be rapidly revamped to represent the more desirable practices. It may be necessary to transfer teachers from these schools, replacing them with teachers who have demonstrated their ability to use the newer methods.

After the prefectural normal schools have revised the practices in their demonstration schools, teacher representatives chosen by the teachers in rural areas, villages, and cities should be sent to study in these demonstration centers. They would return to their own communities prepared to share with other teachers what they have learned.

The In-service Education of Teachers

The above suggestions are offered as an emergency program. At the same time, other practices for continuing the training of teachers already serving the schools should be begun. These programs may be described as in-service education.

The new Japan envisioned by liberal Japanese, and by their friends throughout the world, will require a dynamic, steadily improving school system. Such a system must have teachers whose professional education continues as long as they are in service. A static school is one whose instructors stop learning when they begin to teach; a dynamic school is one whose teachers start the most effective part of their professional learning when they complete initial preparation and undertake the full duties of their calling.

There are teachers in Japan today in overcrowded, poorly equipped classrooms who nevertheless bring light and warmth and gaiety to their work. There are teachers whose knowledge of children and whose wealth of skills make the drama of cooperative learning sparkle and come alive. It is the aim of in-service education to give every teacher continuing opportunities to develop that kind of teaching power.

A few suggestions for the in-service training of teachers follow.

Meetings of Teachers

The first educational necessity for teachers is that they shall be given opportunities to meet with their fellows for the interchange of counsel and inspiration. The faculty meeting of each school is one answer to this need, but is only a beginning. Professional meetings of all teachers of all types of schools in a village, a city, or a prefecture, should be encouraged. Middle school instructors and university professors follow the same calling as the elementary teachers; they should be able not only to help other members of their profession but also to discover why teaching in the elementary schools of Japan is sometimes superior to that in other schools.

Meetings of groups of teachers with special professional interests should also be held. Teachers of a particular subject, administrators of certain types of schools, and members of the profession desiring to band together for school reform could arrange meetings of deep interest to all concerned.

While the Ministry of Education and the administrative authorities in the prefectures and cities should encourage professional meetings and give needed assistance to them, it is true that the most effective meetings of teachers are usually those which the teachers themselves organize. Teachers' associations of all kinds, including teachers' unions, should be allowed this freedom of organization. No democratic principle is more crucial than the right to assemble for the extension of ideas.

Institutes and Conferences

Teacher-training institutions, such as normal schools, higher normal schools, colleges and universities, have a clear duty to provide teachers in service with those special means of professional education variously called by such terms as conferences, workshops, institutes and vacation courses.

Publications for Teachers

Professional publications may be used more widely for the discussion of teachers' problems and for reporting successful practices. In connection with professional reading, correspondence courses might well be developed.

Observation by One Teacher of the Practices of Another

One of the most effective phases of in-service education is also one of the simplest. It is the observation of another teacher in action followed by a discussion of the educational aims and methods involved. This kind of in-service experience can begin by giving each teacher in a school an occasional hour to visit another teacher in the same school. It can be extended to include visits to other nearby schools for an entire day, or to more distant localities for longer periods.

The Supervisor

The value of good supervision in furthering the continuing education of teachers should not be ignored. Perhaps the outstanding mark of an effective supervisor in the modern school is a faithful adherence to the principle that he is, above all, a helping teacher whose first duty is to aid his fellow teachers in mastering their craft. The professional quality of the present inspectional staff of the Japanese schools should be raised decidedly; the character of its functions should be changed to meet the modern conception of a supervisor as a leader and helper of teachers.

Travel

We venture to express the hope that in the not too distant future, Japanese teachers will be able to travel freely again, visiting and studying in other countries, and that exchanges between Japanese teachers and those of all the United Nations may be arranged.

Improving Teacher Welfare

In connection with all planning for in-service education, including re-education, we point again to the obvious necessity of reducing the present excessive teaching load, providing leaves for study and travel, and establishing an adequate salary scale for teachers.

General Overview of the Preparation of Teachers

In considering the education of teachers, it is necessary to include teachers of all types. Attention is given usually to primary school teachers and to the normal schools which prepare these teachers. Equal consideration should be given to teachers in middle schools, higher schools, the normal schools themselves, the vocational schools and youth schools, colleges and universities. Special preparation is now given mainly to teachers in primary schools and not more than half of these, at the most, are given specific preparation for their work.

The first outstanding fact, therefore, appears to be that preparation for teachers is meager, in that only certain types of teachers receive specific preparation, and that only a minority of this type are specifically educated for their work. Professional preparation should be extended to all types of teachers, and to all teachers within each type.

Other officials such as school principals, supervisors, chiefs of educational divisions in the prefectures, and officials in the Ministry of Education, receive even less preparation for their jobs than do teachers.

The major task of providing in-service education for teachers and other school officials is not centralized in any institution which is adequately prepared to carry it on. The prefectural staff have not had the necessary experience or training, and the Ministry of Education has been concerned with other functions. In-service education must be carried on with a conception of education different from that which, of late years, has animated the activities of the Ministry of Education. It must be carried on, furthermore, by individuals whose education has equipped them both to entertain this newer conception and to carry it out in practical activities.

The first requirement is that the work of the normal school shall be re-oriented to make it an agency in the development of democratic education. This matter is to be dealt with in more detail in this report.

The reorganization of the work of the normal schools is only half the task, because it will touch only those teachers who receive their education in these schools. Unless all primary school teachers are to be required to pass through the normal schools, which would probably be both impractical and undesirable, it will be necessary to set up programs for the education of teachers in all institutions which they attend. It will be necessary also to modify the requirements of education of teachers so that, except during an emergency, no teachers may be certificated without having had appropriate preparation in an educational institution. This means, for example, that no teacher should be certified to teach merely upon graduation from a middle school, a Semmon Gakko, vocational school, or a university, without systematic preparation in education. This is a requirement which it may not be possible to meet rapidly; it is, however, a goal which should be definitely set up.

The preparation of the teacher should be threefold:

First, a general or liberal education, including such elements as mastery of language and the means of communication; an understanding of contemporary civilization, including an appreciation of literature and art; some knowledge of the place of science in the modern world; and some understanding of the distinctive problems of an economic and political nature that confront the citizens of a modern nation.

Second, the preparation of a teacher requires a special knowledge of the subject matter which he is to teach. In the case of the primary teacher this field of instruction is varied; in the more advanced schools it becomes progressively specialized.

Third, the teacher should have a knowledge of the professional aspects of his job. He should know something of the comparative history of education and its sociological foundations; of the organization of the system in which he is to teach; of the procedures that have been found, through experimentation and experience with children, to be the most effective. This professional work should include the observation of children and of schools, and teaching under supervision. This professional preparation, in its complete form, should be extended at least to all teachers in the primary and secondary schools. At present such preparation is provided for only a part of the primary teachers and for practically no others.

If this enlarged education of teachers is to be carried out, all institutions that prepare teachers should participate in it by working towards well equipped departments or faculties of education.

Assuming that the prospective teacher has had an adequate general education, the department or faculty of education should provide certain types of education.

First, it should offer work in the history of education as re-written by competent scholars. This will enlighten the student regarding the development of education at home and abroad.

Second, the educational courses should include a thorough treatment of the psychological background of education, including the learning process, individual differences, educational measurement, and, particularly, child development and child psychology. The treatment should include experimentation and observation, not merely theoretical instruction.

Third, the student should be introduced to the study of the community in which the child lives and in which the school operates. The two foundation stones of the curriculum are the child and the community. The curriculum is everybody's concern and everybody should have a hand in it.

Finally, the student should have practical experience in putting into operation, under supervision, the principles which have been studied in courses. He will need abundant opportunity to observe the activities of children and the procedure of schools.

In the preparation for teaching and other educational services there should be no discrimination between men and women. Both should be able to qualify themselves for educational services at all levels of education. The most economical way to do this would be to admit men and women to the same institutions.

While the foregoing discussion has dealt mainly with the preparation of teachers, provision should be made also for the interests of other school officials, such as principals, heads of divisions and government officials. Beyond the basic preparation similar to that for teachers, they will enjoy work in the theory of education, the organization of the school system, and the principles of the curriculum. This program should be set up in the universities. For those who have not had such preparation before assuming their official duties, abbreviated in-service courses could be provided.

The Preparation of Teachers in Normal Schools

Apparently the number of graduates from the normal schools has been insufficient to meet the needs of the public schools of Japan, only about one-half the teachers being normal school graduates. The normal school program has repeated the familiar pattern of formalism and direction from above familiar throughout Japanese education, with an emphasis on rote learning. During ordinary times, only about ten percent of those wishing to enter the higher normal schools, and twenty percent of those applying for admission to other normal schools, were admitted. The chief basis of admission was the entrance examination.

Each normal school has an attached elementary or middle school for observation or student-teaching purposes. In selected schools of this type, we saw encouraging evidence of good teaching. Some teachers were using methods that required participation on the part of the pupils. We also saw much formal teaching of the type previously described.

Accordingly, we are making several major recommendations designed to strengthen the normal schools and to improve teacher education, wherever pursued.

Recommendations

Normal schools should be reorganized on a higher level so as to offer better professional preparation and a more adequate liberal education; they should become higher schools or colleges for the preparation of teachers. Although it may be

necessary to certificate primary teachers at the end of two years, four full years beyond the middle grade or upper secondary school should be offered by all the normal schools. Later, opportunities should be provided for two-year graduates to complete the four-year course. The selection of students for the normal schools should begin in the middle schools and young people who have the personality and aptitude for teaching should be encouraged to seek admission.

Within the limits of minimum standards, the faculty of each normal school should be free to determine the curriculum of the normal school and to make such changes from time to time as appear necessary. This should not be done casually, but after a thorough study of available resources, supplemented by full discussion. The normal schools should be free to develop the theory and practice of education without specific direction from government officials, except as may be necessary to maintain standards for certification and teaching.

Since the curriculum should be designed to educate the prospective teacher as an individual and as a citizen, emphasis is needed on the liberal aspects, as in the natural sciences, social studies, humanities, and arts.

The study of children should be made a prominent part of all preparation for teaching. The curriculum should provide for the study of home and school relationships. Everywhere, more time should be given for observation, participation and student teaching. Each normal school should provide courses, demonstrations, conferences, forums and other means for the reeducation of teachers.

It will be necessary, too, to undertake careful studies of the way in which the qualifications of normal school faculties may be raised, in order to keep these key positions on the highest professional plane. Similarly with respect to physical facility, financial support, and administrative control, there is indicated the need for a thorough survey.

It is probable that voluntary associations of schools and staffs concerned with teacher education would provide a good instrument for the clarification of many issues of deep concern to all who teach.

The Preparation of Teachers and School Officials in Colleges and Universities

A large proportion of teachers receive their education in colleges in which little training is given in professional preparation. Programs for the preparation of teachers should be set up which are similar in their essential features to those recommended for the normal schools. That is, they should provide a broad general education, a suitable concentration of courses in the subjects to be taught, courses in education and supervised teaching.

The changes to be suggested in the provisions for work in education in higher institutions, particularly in universities, will require careful study. It is recommended that a commission be appointed consisting of representatives of universities, and also of teachers and other educational officials, to consider fully the ways in which the universities may develop the leadership which it is their province to exert, no less in this field than in those already occupied.

Such a commission, we believe, might profitably consider these points: the enlargement of programs for the preparation of students who enter teaching or school administration; provision for more emphasis on learning, child development, tests and measurement, the social foundations of education, the curriculum, and administrative problems; research; forums for the discussion of educational problems.

V. ADULT EDUCATION

A broad program of adult education is essential to any society that looks toward the highest development of its human resources. Stunned and scarred by a disastrous war caused by military domination of the masses, the Japanese are turning now toward a new battle, with peace and world cooperation as its objectives.

In order to redirect the intellectual and spiritual resources of Japan, every available means should be used to effect a wide distribution of information and ideas related to human welfare. The psychological climate, in which the brutalities of war flourished, must be exposed to the searchlight of inquiry and the corrective of truth.

There is a scattered segment of the Japanese population with a background of loyalty to democracy. They have learned through the tragic experience of persecution and oppression the sinister effects of government by force. Some of them are already trying to set in motion adult programs of education. With assistance and guidance in the coordination of their efforts, such persons may be able to provide the leadership for reshaping the national destiny. With this group as a nucleus, an adult education organization could go into action.

It is recommended, therefore, that the present adult education service of the Ministry of Education be revitalized, democratized and given the prestige of an independent department. The staff should be highly qualified in leadership and social experience. Educators should be drawn also from Japan's institutions of high learning. It might be helpful to set up a board advisory to it, composed of men and women representing education, labor, industry, the press, and youth, together with committees of like character and function on the prefectural level.

Japan's schools, colleges, and universities are a great potential force for giving impetus to adult education. The holding of evening classes in the schools, the strengthening of parent-teacher associations, and the opening of school buildings for discussions and forums — these are but a few of the services to adult education which could be offered.

The Public Library

The tax-supported public library is another institution which fosters the spread of ideas. It recognizes no barriers of class, wealth or creed; everyone wishing to use it is welcome. Moreover, all sides of controversial issues are represented in its stacks and reading rooms. To those who will use their leisure time profitably, the library is an ever welcome source of cultural refreshment.

Fortunately, the roots of a public library movement in Japan already exist. Municipal and prefectural libraries in considerable numbers flourished throughout the nation, but most of these were partially or totally destroyed.

It should be recalled, however, that the library system, although public, was not free. There was usually an admission fee and a charge was made for borrowing books.

Tokyo should have a great central public library, and as rapidly as possible branches should be established throughout the city. The central library should contain books and periodicals representing all aspects of Eastern and Western

civilization, and the residents should be encouraged to use it freely and without restriction. No fees for consulting or borrowing books should be assessed. The costs should be borne by the government.

Similarly, every large city should also have its library and branches, and every prefecture, except those comprising large cities, should have a library system serving all communities.

Since large numbers of adults have not gone beyond the primary grades, educational moving pictures should be distributed through the new library system. In time, as language reform leads to the creation of a larger adult reading public, the demand for books will undoubtedly increase.

As we visualize the organization of a great public library system for Japan, it might take the following form: The Ministry of Education would have a director of public library service whose function would be to help the libraries throughout the nation by publishing booklists and bibliographies and by advising on library administrative matters. He would be responsible for the distribution of funds made available by the national government. He might also establish standards for libraries. In each city and prefecture there would be a chief librarian appointed locally or by the prefectural government. Each library would have branch collections in schools, book stations in community buildings and would provide special service to outlying areas.

Needless to say, the program here suggested is a costly one, and not to be achieved overnight. A good start could be made by setting up an experimental library program in Tokyo, to include the main services that have been discussed. It could serve as a testing ground and a model.

A gap in Japanese literature is: the comparative lack of children's books. Were the first new public library to develop fine collections of children's literature, the ultimate effect upon childhood education might be of far-reaching significance.

Museums

Public museums provide another opportunity for adult instruction. Museums of science and industry can further inform the people about the natural resources of Japan. Historical museums can help in the understanding of the present in its continuity with the past. Art museums can contribute to an understanding of human aspirations that are universal in their appeal.

Conclusion

The total program of adult education requires more than can be done through the schools, libraries and museums. The people need widespread demonstrations in the use of free speech, as in lectures, debates, and round table discussions. There can be sent out among the people groups or teams to lead them, through study and discussion, to a better understanding of the problems which Japan is now facing. In this activity the support of teacher associations, labor unions, political and youth groups may be counted upon.

The ballot in the hands of the citizens long deprived of its independent use can be a danger if it is not made a blessing. Young persons who have known too much regimentation, suddenly set free, need help in approaching new conceptions of liberty. They need to learn that the privilege of sharing the fruits of freedom imposes the obligation to contribute to the common welfare.

To those Japanese, young and old, who have the will and courage to carry

forward a program of out-of-school education, the agencies that have been mentioned and others that join with them, will offer a continuing opportunity, expanding, as time and resources permit, to include the vast potentiality of press, radio, and motion picture.

VI. HIGHER EDUCATION

The university is the crown of every modern educational system. In a free society it discharges with equal concern three great functions. First, it guards as a treasure beyond price the tradition of intellectual liberty, stimulates freedom of thought, perfects methods of inquiry, promotes the advancement of knowledge, cultivates science and scholarship, nurtures love of truth, and serves as a source of perpetual enlightenment to society. Second, it prepares young men and women of talent, through acquaintance with the best thought and finest aspirations of all ages and peoples, for positions of leadership in the improvement of family and community life, in the more efficient and humane conduct of industry and government, and in the fostering of understanding and good will among the nations. Third, it trains selected young men and women for technical proficiency in both old and new professions, being ever sensitive to the changing and emerging needs of society.

Past Limitations of Higher Education in Japan

Education traditionally in Japan has tended to be both insular and insulated. Its international intercourse has reflected more the non-conformist spirit of individual scholars, statesmen and traders, than a conscious purpose or objective of its people. There has been too wide a gap between the world of higher learning occupied by scholars and the unidentified millions of the Japanese people, a gap accentuated by the complexities of a profoundly difficult language.

In the world of science, Japan's participation has been to a great extent imitative and absorptive rather than creative and original. Nevertheless, Japan has clearly a latent genius for independent research, as appears in the fine contributions of scientists in many fields who have been freed for exploration without restraint.

The university system in Japan must rest upon the usual elements in any national program for higher education, including the continuous provision of an ample supply of young talent. Recognition of the right of access to higher learning must be made clearer to the people and to the administrative powers controlling higher education, as the prerogative and special advantages of the few are relaxed and redefined for the many. Only by such recognition can there be a corrective to the preferential treatment given today to the graduates of Imperial universities.

Public and Private Institutions

The aims and freedoms of higher education can only be achieved by giving all possible encouragement to the maintenance of colleges and universities with high standards and with broad cultural objectives.

Until the opportunity for free study and free expression is restored to all worthy institutions, public and private alike, there cannot be a normal development of public interest in new ideas and new methods from all cultures.

The conservatism of Japan in higher education can be broken. In the interest of world welfare and the welfare of Japan, we think that it should be. But the Allied Powers can do little more than give the people of Japan, free of political interference, the opportunity to do this for themselves. In the spiritual

leadership of its own economic, political and cultural life Japan's greatest single resource will be the men and women educated and trained in its own institutions of higher learning. For the discharge of this duty the colleges and universities of Japan have an inescapable obligation and an unprecedented opportunity.

The Structure of Higher Education

General education, in the usual sense of the phrase, ends in Japan with the middle school, except for the few who are received into the higher schools or into the university preparatory schools, where it is continued for three years more. Something approaching general education exists under the faculty of literature in the university and to a more limited extent in schools of the level of Koto Gakko and Semmon Gakko, but these facilities fall far short of meeting the need for general education at these levels.

Increasing the number of Semmon Gakko, Koto Gakko, and universities alone will probably not meet the demand for more general education. To accomplish this it is recommended that their curricula also should be liberalized. In professional and technological programs, subjects of general education should be more freely introduced wherever feasible.

Some governmental agency should be responsible for approving the initial establishment of such institutions and for seeing that the required standards are maintained. Whatever this agency may be, it should consist of trained, responsible, and representative educators, with duties carefully defined so as not to interfere with the autonomy of the institutions concerned.

Before an institution of higher learning is permitted to open, this responsible agency should be satisfied as to its aims, its financial resources, its proposed teaching staff, the plans for its proposed physical plant and equipment, and the need for such an institution in the particular region where it is to be located.

Beyond these protective restrictions the institutions should be free to pursue their objectives in such manner as they deem best.

Elevation of Standards

To improve the quality of higher education generally in Japan, and in the case of universities to stimulate and improve the quality of research as well, there should be established associations of institutions of higher learning. The initiative in this matter, i.e., the naming of the charter members of these associations, should be taken by a committee of educators representing in each instance various types of institutions within the group and enjoying the respect of the Japanese educational world. In order to become a member of an association, an institution should meet definite requirements laid down by the committee.

Within these associations there should be close cooperation between institutions under the direction of appropriate officials, for example, in the use of library facilities and the interchange of faculty members. The interchange both of students and of professors might well be arranged between these institutions and perhaps those of foreign lands; at least plans should be made for attendance by Japanese students and professors at foreign universities.

Status of Private and Public Institutions

No essential difference has existed between public and private institutions except for religious instruction in some private institutions. Religion is an important part of study and of life, and during the present period of reconstruction in Japan it has an especially great role to play.

It is assumed that funds necessary for the adequate support of public colleges and universities can be made available from the public treasury. But the matter is serious for private institutions. No private institution should be permitted to open its doors unless the funds for its proper maintenance can be foreseen with reasonable surety. Some financial support should be available over and above the funds derived from tuition fees, e.g., grants from individuals or groups of individuals, or from public funds. In the present crisis, if public funds are to be made available for the restoration of losses suffered through the war, they should be allocated to develop public and worthy private institutions alike. This should be done by the Ministry of Education with the advice of the advisory board previously mentioned, representing both private and public institutions. It is desirable that frozen funds to be used as approved gifts to private or public institutions of higher education be released as soon as possible. To the extent that gifts to public institutions are exempt from taxation, similar gifts to private institutions should be likewise exempt. Furthermore, the granting of public funds to an institution in this manner should interfere in no way with its freedom.

The Status of the Individual

The Faculty

The position of the individual professor is the chief factor in any proposal for the improvement of higher education. His influence depends on two gifts of society - academic freedom and economic security.

Academic freedom exists when the faculties of any university or college, public or private, are allowed to experiment with ideas, as well as with apparatus, in the search for new knowledge. The barrier of restraint on university faculties is easy to set up in any nation, and most harmful during a period of war. A recovery of spirit, therefore, is the first and greatest need today in Japan's higher institutions of teaching and research.

One sure way to preserve academic freedom is to give authority to the faculties themselves in academic affairs. It is supported also through national associations of teachers, professors, and of universities, all governed by the spirit of social responsibility to use the rights of the scholar and scientist for the good of all. High standards of teaching and research are set by men and women in active service, not by statute.

If an institution of higher learning is worthy of freedom to serve society, it is worthy of freedom from intellectual surveillance. Caution is therefore necessary whenever an issue arises that puts financial pressure upon academic freedom. The aims of trade and higher learning are as distinct as those of church and state, and they must be kept so.

At present, the professor in any college or university of Japan has personal difficulties involving recognition and security. His income and his duties are not in balance, with the result that he is tempted, perhaps forced by circumstances, to get money from other sources. If he is on the staff of an Imperial university, his civil service rating yields finally a pension and certain

current privileges. It is hoped that any changes made will not impair pension or retirement provisions, and that comparable benefits may eventually be provided in private institutions.

A release of faculties in universities and colleges from civil service ratings would be a long step toward self-government and morale. It would create also a basis of good relations for professional groups in other countries.

The Student Body

For the student, other kinds of freedom and responsibility are necessary. The young men and women of Japan should have freedom of access, on the basis of merit, to all levels of higher studies. As the channels are opened, standards of admission and of recognition can be raised. Without this free competition, Japan cannot develop fully its human resources for social and intellectual responsibilities. In some cases, financial help should be given, in order that entry into appropriate institutions may be positively assured for talented men and women unable to study on their own resources.

This obligation to assist the brightest students is greatly increased by the recently declared position on the rights of women. This bold and admirable move has settled the issue of equal rights, in principle; it now is necessary to confirm the principle by action. In order that equality may be generally true in fact, steps are necessary to insure to girls in the earlier years an education as sound and thorough as that of boys. Then a good foundation for training in preparatory schools will place them on really equal terms with men for admission to the best universities.

Variety of Opportunity

Another change to anticipate, in part through the influence of higher education, is a cultural renaissance in arts, letters, and religion. Here, as in other countries, the changes evolving from a new freedom for the individual will affect creatively all indigenous forms of Japanese culture, and will turn artists and writers toward foreign sources of stimulation. This freeing of individual expression may well enlarge the foreign acceptance of Japan's unique and varied folk arts. Furthermore, in all fields of scholarly endeavor, Japan has new tasks to perform. The rewriting of her history and the exposition of her literature are tasks for highly trained and discriminating scholars.

These are only a few aspects of the output of scholarship that could be named in a survey of possibilities. The social sciences, the physical sciences and the humanities simultaneously offer new vistas to the scholar and scientist. In all such directions, universities are expected to take the lead. They may likewise become agents of advance in music and in the graphic, plastic and dramatic arts.

A college or university becomes a community when it operates as one, giving its members the variety of experience needed to develop their capabilities. In so far as it succeeds, it becomes an example of social organization. Hence, Japanese institutions of higher learning should study the possibilities of student and faculty housing, and of reorganizing student organizations and activities. As these graduates leave the universities, they will carry with them enduring experiences in social living.

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Curriculum of Colleges and Universities

In the curriculum of Japanese institutions of higher learning, we think, as has already been suggested, that for the most part there is too little opportunity for general education, too early and too narrow a specialization, and too great a vocational or professional emphasis. A broader humanistic attitude should be cultivated to provide more background for free thought and a better foundation on which professional training may be based. This will enrich the student's later life and enable him to see how his professional work fits into the whole picture of human society.

The general education should, we feel, be integrated into the regular curriculum planned for each student, so that he can get full credit for it and not regard it as something extra and separate. Besides general education, subjects allied to the field of specialization should be included more freely than at present in a student's course of specialized study.

With regard to subjects, it is scarcely necessary to urge the obvious importance of foreign languages at this time for purposes of international communication and understanding. The study of foreign literature is desirable, but the practical use of the language for speaking and writing may well be emphasized.

The physical and biological sciences are also of obvious importance, not only for their own sake, as revealing the world of nature, but also as the essential foundation for technologies and professions necessary for Japan's rehabilitation. It is worth a word of warning from universal modern experience, however, that in education the scientific character is more important for a nation's well being than are scientific results. This character demands humility in the presence of evidence, patience before the hard task of accumulating facts, and a cooperative spirit in sharing discoveries and putting to universal use the technological fruits of this inner spirit of science. This is a far cry from science conceived as mere technology and meets a more profound human need, that for truth and justice.

The accurate thinking, based on facts, necessary for a sound study of the natural sciences, should be used also in the study of other branches of knowledge.

In the field of the social sciences, this objectivity is particularly desirable. Work in the social sciences was deflected and partly suppressed by the government during the war. It must now be revived, as our Japanese colleagues realize, in a spirit of free inquiry and thought. Not only must the internal social and economic questions of Japan be studied, but also world history and international relations.

In the field of the social sciences especially, Japan needs to make up for much that has been lost over the last twenty years.

Research

We have mentioned the fundamental importance of research in institutions of higher learning. Since the highest duty of a university is the search for truth, it is clear that it should stimulate and aid in all possible ways research by its professors and advanced students. Equipment and facilities should be provided as quickly as possible, and fellowships should be made available for advanced students who have demonstrated outstanding interest and capacity.

Believing, as we do, that disinterested scholarly research should be free, we recommend that such restrictions on this freedom as are considered necessary at present be removed as rapidly as world conditions permit.

Scientific research and development are needed at the present time in order to expand the sources of employment and livelihood. Japan must adapt itself to its new circumstances, developing handicrafts, light industries, and a more diversified agricultural and trading economy, while seeking wide international exchanges of goods and services. Technological and economic research are, therefore, indicated. In the social studies, also, research will contribute to improving the conditions of life in Japan and its relations with other nations.

Technological and Professional Education

For the purpose of improving standards of living, all technological and professional training should be re-examined and reoriented in conformity with the changed conditions of Japan's economy.

Another equally important group of technologies and professions comprises those concerned with human welfare on the physical and social side, such as medicine, nursing, and social work.

A special study should be made of medical training. Some of the medical schools of Japan appear to be of low standard. Those lacking qualified faculties or appropriate facilities should be required, we believe, to meet reasonable minimum standards or be discontinued. It is recommended that a group of experts be asked to study the whole structure of medicine, nursing and public health in order that new plans may be set up. The need is acute.

As relatively new fields deserving of special attention, when improved conditions in universities permit it, we would call attention to journalism, labor relations, and public administration. Attention has been called earlier to the need for greater attention to the training of educational personnel.

University Libraries

Essential for research and for the development of the individual student on all levels of higher education is the library.

To make available to all students the resources of the country, we suggest that each university consider unifying and consolidating its collections, preparing a single union catalogue. These, together with similar catalogues of collections of learned societies, might be incorporated in a master union catalogue to be maintained at some central agency. Thus might be achieved the basis of a national bibliography that would be of inestimable value to scholars in locating the books they want.

A system of inter-library loans should be instituted within Japan, and as soon as possible, the system of international exchange which prevailed before the war should be resumed.

It would be useful, we think, for the university libraries of Japan to organize a professional association. A library school might also well be established preferably affiliated with a university that has good library facilities, in order to train professional personnel.

Extension Education

The general subject of adult education is dealt with elsewhere in this report. We suggest, however, that universities take more responsibility in this

field. By extension courses they may bring stimulus and instruction to mature students who are not qualified for formal entrance to regular university courses. (By extension courses we refer to courses given on or off the campus for students not candidates for a degree.) This plan might be especially valuable in bringing the universities in closer touch with the people.

International Relations

The principal purpose of our mission is to help Japan to become readjusted to the community of nations.

Universities and other institutions of higher learning obviously should play a leading part in bringing the people of the nation to a helpful cooperation with the other peoples of the world.

We recommend that in the institutions of higher learning there be made available to all students courses of study or lectures on world history, as well as Japanese history, on the United Nations Organization, and on other aspects of international relations.

We trust that voluntary associations of students and of professors will be further encouraged to organize for the purpose of discussing foreign affairs and international relations and that extension courses will stress these subjects.

It would be well if books and periodicals could be brought into Japan immediately from other countries - not only scholarly texts, but also general literature. This is ardently desired by all the Japanese teachers and scholars we have met. We agree with them that they must have a chance to learn what has been happening in the world of thought and scholarship during the last ten years. They should also be able to publish and send abroad their opinions and discoveries. Thus they can rejoin the world community of scholars and work with their colleagues of other lands in the search for truth and human welfare.

It is also essential that at the earliest practicable moment Japanese scholars, teachers and other professional workers should be helped to go abroad for study, research, and observation of what is being done in their fields, and for contacts with their colleagues in other countries. Japanese organizations should also be helped to send delegates to meetings of international learned societies. Later, Japanese educational missions might be encouraged to visit other countries.

Financial assistance in the form of grants will be necessary. A few gifts might be secured through organizations in the United States of America. Donations from Japanese sources, government or private, would be the main reliance.

As the Japanese proceed with the democratization of their education and renew their contacts with other peoples, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization will doubtless be growing in strength and influence. We hope that it will be able to offer aid and encouragement to Japan. UNESCO promises to preserve "the independence, integrity and fruitful diversity of the cultures and educational systems of the States members of the Organization," while helping them to know and understand one another and to work together for the advancement of learning and the general well being of mankind.

We trust that in the not distant future Japan may be welcomed as a member of this fellowship.

DIGEST OF THE REPORT

The United States Education Mission, consisting of twenty-seven representatives of American education under the chairmanship of Dr. George D. Stoddard, in the process of preparing this report, spent the month of March in Japan consulting with the officers of the Education Division of the Civil Information and Education Section, General Headquarters, SCAP, with a committee of Japanese educators appointed by the Minister of Education of Japan, and with other representatives of the schools and of various walks of life in Japan. This report to the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers is presented upon the basis of the deliberations by the members of the Mission.

The Mission recognizes the necessity for the original negative directives, such as those eradicating militarism and nationalistic Shintoism from the schools, but it has concentrated chiefly upon positive proposals. In so doing it has sought to aid the Japanese to set for themselves the conditions for reestablishing a sound educational system within their culture.

The Aims and Content of Japanese Education

A highly centralized educational system, even if it is not caught in the net of ultra-nationalism and militarism, is endangered by the evils that accompany an entrenched bureaucracy. Decentralization is necessary in order that teachers may be freed to develop professionally under guidance, without regimentation. They, in turn, may then do their part in the development of free Japanese citizens.

To this end, knowledge must be acquired that is broader than any available in a single prescribed textbook or manual, and deeper than can be tested by stereotyped examinations. A curriculum consists not merely of an accepted body of knowledge, but of the pupils' physical and mental activities; it takes into account their differing backgrounds and abilities. It should therefore be set up through cooperative action involving teachers, calling on their experience and releasing their creative talents.

Morals, which in Japanese education occupy a separate place, and have tended to promote submissiveness, should be differently construed and should interpenetrate all phases of a free people's life. Manners that encourage equality, the give-and-take of democratic government, the ideal of good workmanship in daily life — all these are morals in the wider sense. They should be developed and practiced in the varied program and activities of the democratic school.

Books in the fields of geography and history will have to be rewritten to recognize mythology for what it is, and to embody a more objective viewpoint in textbooks and reference materials. On the lower levels more use should be made of the community and local resources; at the higher levels competent scholarship and research should be encouraged in various ways.

The program in health instruction and physical education is basic to the educational program as a whole. Medical examinations, instruction in nutrition and public health, the extension of the physical education and recreation program to the university level, and the replacement of equipment as rapidly as possible are recommended.

At all levels vocational education should be emphasized. A variety of vocational experiences is needed under well trained staff members, with an

emphasis on technology and its supporting arts and sciences. The contributions of artisans and workers should find a place in the social studies program, and opportunities for originality and creativity should be provided.

Language Reform

The problem of the written language is fundamental to all modifications in educational practice. While any change in the form of a language must come from within the nation, the stimulus for such change may come from any source. Encouragement may be given to those who recognize the value of language reform, not only to the educational program, but also to the development of the Japanese people throughout future generations.

It is recommended that some form of Romaji be brought into common use. It is proposed that a language commission made up of Japanese scholars, educational leaders and statesmen be formed promptly in order that a comprehensive program may be announced within a reasonable period. In addition to deciding the form of Romaji to be chosen, this commission would have the following functions: (1) to assume the responsibility for coordinating the program of language reform during the transitional stages; (2) to formulate a plan for introducing Romaji into the schools and into the life of the community and nation through newspapers, periodicals, books, and other writings; and, (3) to study the means of bringing about a more democratic form of the spoken language. The commission might, in time, grow into a national language institute.

The need for a single and efficient medium of written communication is well recognized, and the time for taking this momentous step is perhaps more favorable now than it will be for many years to come. Language should be a highway and not a barrier. Within Japan itself, and across national borders, this highway should be open for the transmission of knowledge and ideas in the interest of a better world understanding.

Administration of Education At The Primary and Secondary Levels

The principle is accepted that, for the purposes of democratic education, control of the schools should be widely dispersed rather than highly centralized as at present. The observance of ceremonies in the reading of the Imperial Rescript and obeisances to the Imperial Portrait in the schools are regarded as undesirable. The Ministry of Education, under the proposals of the Mission, would have important duties to perform in providing technical aid and professional counsel to the schools, but its direct control over local schools would be greatly curtailed.

In order to provide for greater participation by the people at local and prefectural levels, and to remove the schools from the administrative control by representatives of the Minister of Home Affairs at the local level, it is proposed to create educational agencies elected by popular vote, at both local and prefectural levels. Such agencies would be granted considerable power in the approval of schools, the licensing of teachers, the selection of textbooks — power now centralized in the Ministry of Education.

There is proposed an upward revision of compulsory education in schools to be tax-supported, co-educational and tuition-free, such education to cover nine years of schooling, or until the boy or girl reaches the age of sixteen. It is further proposed that the first six years be spent in primary school as at

present, and the next three years in a "lower secondary school" to be developed through merging and modifying the many kinds of schools which those completing primary school may now enter. These schools should provide general education for all, including vocational and educational guidance, and should be flexible enough to meet individual differences in the abilities of the pupils. It is proposed further that a three-year "upper secondary school" be established, free of tuition costs, in time to be coeducational, and providing varied opportunities for all who wish to continue their education.

Together, the lower and upper secondary schools would continue the varied functions of other tax-supported schools now at this level: higher elementary schools, girls' high schools, preparatory courses, vocational schools, and youth schools. Graduation from the upper secondary schools would be made a condition of entrance to institutions of higher learning.

Private schools under the proposal would retain full freedom, except that they would be expected to conform to the minimum standards necessary to assure ready transfer by the pupil from one school to another, whether public or private.

Teaching and the Education of Teachers

In order that the newer aims of education may be achieved, teaching methods emphasizing memorization, conformity and a vertical system of duties and loyalties should be modified to encourage independent thinking, the development of personality, and the rights and responsibilities of democratic citizenship. The teaching of morals, for example, should be less by precept than by instruction deriving from experiences in concrete situations in school and community.

A program for the reeducation of teachers should be set up to further the adoption of democratic methods in the transitional period. Suggestions are made for a program which will gradually merge into one of in-service education.

Normal schools should be modified so as to provide the kinds of teachers needed. They should admit students only after completion of a course in the upper secondary school equivalent in standards to that of the present middle school, thus eliminating the normal preparatory courses. The reorganized normal schools, all more nearly at the level of the higher normal schools, should become four-year institutions; they would continue general education and provide adequate professional training for teachers in elementary and secondary schools.

Other institutions for preparing teachers for certification, whether private or tax-supported, should satisfy teacher-training standards equivalent to those of the reorganized normal schools.

School administrators and supervisors should have a professional education equivalent to that for teachers and should have, in addition, such special preparation as will fit them for their assigned duties.

Universities and other higher institutions should develop facilities for advanced study on the part of teachers and administrators; they should promote research and exert educational leadership.

Adult Education

During this period of crisis for the Japanese people, adult education is of paramount importance, for a democratic state places much responsibility on each citizen.

The schools are but one agency for adult education, but through parent-teacher activities, evening and extension classes for adults, and the opening

of buildings to a variety of community activities, adult education may be fostered.

Another important institution for adult education is the public library. It is recommended that central public libraries, with branches, be established in the larger cities, and that appropriate arrangements be made for library service in all prefectures. The appointment of a director of public library service in the Ministry of Education would facilitate this program. Museums of science, art, and industry may serve educational purposes paralleling those of the library.

In addition, organizations of all kinds, including community and professional societies, labor unions, and political groups, should be helped to use effectively the techniques of forum and discussion.

In the furtherance of these ends, the present adult education services of the Ministry of Education should be vitalized and democratized.

Higher Education

For a period of years following the first world war currents of liberal thought were fostered largely by men and women educated in the colleges and universities of Japan. Higher education now has the opportunity of again setting a standard of free thought, bold inquiry, and hopeful action for the people. To fulfil these purposes, higher education should become an opportunity for the many, not a privilege of the few. In order to increase the opportunities for liberal education at higher levels, it would be desirable to liberalize to a considerable extent the curricula of the preparatory schools (Koto Gakko) leading to the universities and those of the more specialized colleges (Semmon Gakko), so that a general college training would become more widely available. This would lead, on the one hand, to university study, and, on the other, to specialized training at the semi-professional level such as is provided by the Semmon Gakko, but rounded out with training of broader cultural and social significance.

In addition to providing more colleges, it is proposed that more universities be established according to a considered plan. Some governmental agency should be responsible for supervising the establishment of higher institutions and the maintenance of the requirements first set down. Except for examining the qualifications of a proposed institution of higher education before it is permitted to open its doors, and assuring that these initial requirements are met, the governmental agency should have practically no control over institutions of higher education. The institutions should be entirely free in all respects to pursue their objectives in the manner which they themselves deem best.

Establishment of economic and academic freedom for faculties in institutions of higher education is of primary importance. To this end, it is recommended that the present civil service plan be discontinued.

For the student, the freedom which should be guaranteed is freedom of access, on the basis of merit, to all levels of higher studies. Financial help should be given, in order that further education may be positively assured for talented men and women unable to study on their own resources. Freedom of access to higher institutions should be provided immediately for all women now prepared for advanced study; steps should be taken also to improve the earlier training of women.

The extension of libraries, research facilities, and institutes is recommended; such agencies can make invaluable contributions to the public welfare during the period of reconstruction and beyond. Attention needs to be given to the improvement of professional education in fields such as medicine, school

administration, journalism, labor relations, and public administration. A special commission is recommended for the study of the whole question of medicine and public health.

41

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DIVISION OF
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TELEGRAPH SECTION

DEPARTMENT OF STATE
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DIVISION OF JAPANESE AFFAIRS
APR 22 1946
DEPARTMENT OF STATE

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From: GHQ SCAP Tokyo
TO: War Department
Nr: Z-31996

Office of
DEPT. OF STATE
10:30 a.m.
APR 21 1946
DEPUTY DIR.
Department of State
rel to Tokyo 4/22/46
File

19 April 1946

To WARCOS pass to SECSTATE Z-31996 POLAD serial nbr 182, April 19 sgd Atcheson.

The Supreme Commander has issued general order number 18 under date April 18 as follows:

"1. The Diplomatic Section is established as a special staff section of this Headquarters.

"2. Minister George Atcheson Jr., the Political Adviser, is assigned as Chief of the Diplomatic Section.

ACTION: G 2 (State)

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740.00119 CONTROL (JAPAN) / 4-1946

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MEMORANDUM

In accordance with the request contained in the French Embassy's memorandum of April 19, 1946, the United States Political Adviser to the Supreme Commander for Allied Powers in Tokyo is being requested, by telegraph, to forward to General MacArthur the personal message from General Pechkoff, Head of the French Liaison Mission with the Supreme Commander for Allied Powers, attached to the Embassy's memorandum under acknowledgment.

FW 948.00119 Control (Japan) / 4-19-46

Department of State,

Washington,

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 APR 23 1946 P.M.

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DIVISION OF CENTRAL SERVICES TELEGRAPH SECTION

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DEPARTMENT OF STATE INCOMING TELEGRAM

Office of FAR EASTERN AFFAIRS APR 19 1946 12:55 p.m. Department of State

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Moscow via War

Dated April 19, 1946

Rec'd 8:27 a.m., 19th

SECSTATE

1253, Nineteenth

Summary follows of major article by I. Plyshevski on Japanese elections published RED STAR April eighteenth.

On April tenth elections took place in Japan. As was to have been expected, victory went to reactionary Liberal and Progressive Parties-parties of Japanese monopolist capital and big landowners. Secret of their success is fairly simple. MacArthur was officially warned by FEC and Soviet representative on AC of possibility of victory of anti-democratic forces. Conscious of fullest support of anti-democratic Shidehara Government and silent patronage of US occupational authorities, Japanese reactionaries halted at nothing in conduct of electoral campaign. There was buying of votes, terror against democratic candidates, use of secret police to frighten voters, insolent chauvinistic greater-Japan and anti-Allied demagoguery and much else, all of which prevented free expression of will of Japanese people.

Reactionaries not only frightened voters but in number of places attacked democratic candidates. In all these cases authorities did nothing except make platonic statements that investigation would be conducted to determine "whether incident can be explained by

political

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 DEPARTMENT OF STATE

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740.00119 CONTROL(JAPAN)/4-1946

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-2- #1253, Nineteenth, from Moscow via War

political causes". This situation encouraged reactionaries to make further provocations. Government support of candidates of reactionary parties consisted not only in rendering of material assistance, facilitating of pre-election agitation and allocating of unlimited quantities of paper but also in fact that organs of authority "did not observe" such illegal actions of these parties as buying of votes.

Anti-democratic victory was facilitated in no small degree by leadership of Socialist Party which not only rejected Communist proposal for united front but utilized electoral campaign for attacks against Communist Party thereby disorganizing democratic forces and assisting reaction. Socialist Right Wing in effect entered bloc with Liberals and Progressives in struggle against Communism.

Victory of reaction was also facilitated by circumstance that many Japanese simply could not orient themselves. High proportion of those voting-from 30 to 35% of voters according to preliminary data-bears witness to this. Tens of thousands of displaced voters were not registered at all and were thereby deprived of right to vote. Haste with which elections were held was clearly to advantage of reactionaries. American DAILY WORKER wrote on eve of elections that US demand for speediest possible holding of elections is similar to British maneuver in Greece and that Americans are striving to maintain Japanese status quo and give appearance of legality to administrative machinery of Shidehara Government in order to obstruct implementation of necessary changes insisted upon by Progressive groups.

Victory of reactionary forces shows that beneath screen of democratization which has been merely declared by occupational authorities but not realized in practice, forces of old militarist Japan whose economic and political power has not been undermined continue in active operation. These elections do not reflect real will of Japanese people and therefore cannot create foundation for the representative government provided for by Potsdam declaration.

Sent

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-3- #1253, Nineteenth, from Moscow via War

Sent Department 1253; repeated Tokyo for ACTPOLAD
23 and Frankfurt.

MESSAGE UNSIGNED

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PREPARING OFFICE
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PREPARING OFFICE WILL
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MESSAGE:

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Department of State

Charge Department: **X**

RESTRICTED
Washington

RESTRICTED

*April 22, 1946
3 Pm*

Charge to

SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS,

TOKYO.

INFO: WAR DEPARTMENT CHIEF OF STAFF

FOR POLITICAL ADVISER.

740.00119 Control (Japan) / 4-1946

In connection URTEL 182, APR 19, State and War DEPT

representatives have informally agreed following procedure
for communications between State and you:

*X R 124.946
X R 119.2
X R 051.94*

(1) DEPT telegrams will continue to carry State serial
numbers, will be addressed to SCAP QUOTE For Political
Adviser UNQUOTE, and will carry WARCOS as INFO addressee.
Telegrams will be dispatched through War DEPT communications
and cryptographic channels as at present but will not be
formally cleared by War DEPT before dispatch as WARCOS
distribution will enable WAR DEPT to dispatch its comments
on ~~any~~ message, if any, almost simultaneously with dispatch
of State message.

(2) Same procedure mutatis mutandis will be followed
for Yokohama.

(3) Direct pouch service by Army courier will be
maintained for purely administrative material both to you
and to Yokohama. SWNCC papers and other political material
to be dispatched by mail will be forwarded via War DEPT
channels. ~~through newly instituted QUOTE Directorate for~~

740.00119 CONTROL
(JAPAN) / 4-1946

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Department of State

Washington

-2-

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~~Occupied Areas, under Assistant Secretary, in charge~~

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Advise what mechanics contemplated from your end for
communications DEPT.

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(JcV)

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APR 22 1946 P.M.

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Department of State

Charge to DEPT.
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Washington,

April 19, 1946

Brigadier General Kenneth Dyke,
Chief, CI and E Section,
GHQ - AFPAC,
Tokyo, Japan.

I may have a chance to persuade a most remarkable and promising man to take on the education assignment in Japan. He is Dr. Robert Leigh, now director of the Commission on the Freedom of the Press where he has had extraordinary experience. He or more founded and for ten years/was President of Bennington College. He has had considerable experience in Washington and is very highly regarded almost universally. He was recommended for the job by David Stevens of Rockefeller Foundation. To persuade him to take it, we must spell out in some detail what the job might be, what his responsibility, duties and status would be. Can you delineate more sharply your views and General MacArthur? He might be available as early as July first.

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Sent by operator _____ M., _____, 19____

WAR DEPARTMENT
WASHINGTON, D. C.

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4/22/46
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Office of
FAR EASTERN AFFAIRS
APR 24 1946
DIRECTOR
Department of State

File
5-8-46
DC/R

20 APR 1946

DC/R
The Honorable RECORDS BRANCH
The Secretary of State
Dear Mr. Secretary:

I have received your two memoranda of 11 April 1946 and 12 April 1946 relating to publicity for SWNCC documents.

With respect to the first memorandum, in which you indicate that, responsive to General MacArthur's recommendations, the conclusions of SWNCC 92/1 on the "Treatment of Japanese Workers' Organizations" will not be published, I believe the JCS will shortly record their concurrence in this action through a memorandum to SWNCC.

Your 12 April 1946 memorandum indicates a general policy toward the publication of similar SWNCC papers which seems to me both adequate and desirable. However, since the Departments of State, War and the Navy should be equally firm in understanding this policy, I suggest that it be formalized through the medium of SWNCC. The SWNCC Secretariat should be able to produce a short paper appending a radio to General MacArthur for transmission through the JCS, with the result that all interested agencies would have a clear understanding of the governmental policy.

Sincerely yours,

RWP

Secretary of War

Confidential File
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APR 20 1946
DEPARTMENT OF STATE

740.00119 Control
Japan/4-2046



DC/R

Signed by J. Hilldring
Rec'd in SWNCC 4/30/46
JH

740.00119 CONTROL (JAPAN) / 4-2046

MEMORANDUM FROM THE STATE DEPARTMENT MEMBER OF SWNCC

Publicity for SWNCC Documents

There is enclosed a memorandum with regard to the policy to be followed by the State, War and Navy Departments in giving publicity to SWNCC documents. It is requested that the attached be considered by the Committee.

J. H. Hilldring
State Department Member
State-War-Navy Coordinating Committee

X R. 116.7

Attachment.

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E N C L O S U R E

Publicity for SWNCC Documents

1. The Secretary of State, in a memorandum to the Secretary of War dated April 11, 1946, referred to General MacArthur's message of April 7 to the War Department (C-59673) recommending against making public the conclusions of SWNCC 92/1 on the "Treatment of Japanese Workers' Organizations" and stated that, responsive to General MacArthur's recommendations, he had directed that the documents in reference not be published and that in future, consideration would be given to the views expressed by General MacArthur in respect to the policy of the Government on the matter of publicity for SWNCC documents.

2. The Secretary of State in a memorandum to the Secretary of War dated April 12, stated that the State Department would in the future adopt a policy toward the publication of SWNCC documents along the following lines:

"Initiate within the Department no action for publicity except under circumstances clearly indicating the advisability and necessity therefor, and in such cases refer the matter to both General MacArthur and to the Far Eastern Commission for prior consideration; and, in the event that General MacArthur or the Commission initiate such a request for publicity of SWNCC documents, the Department will be disposed to act favorably on such a request in the absence of some strong policy reason for not doing so."

3. The Secretary of War on April 20, 1946 acknowledged to the Secretary of State the receipt of the memoranda above mentioned and expressed the opinion that the general policy indicated in the Secretary of State's memorandum of April 12 was both adequate and desirable. He further recommended that in order that the Departments of State, War and Navy be equally firm in understanding this policy, it be formalized through the medium of SWNCC and that a radio be prepared for transmission to General MacArthur through the Joint Chiefs of Staff.

- 2 -

4. It is recommended that upon approval by SWNCC, the JCS, provided there are no objections from a military point of view, be requested to transmit to SCAP the message in Appendix "A".

APPENDIX "A"

The Secretary of State in a memorandum to the Secretary of War dated April 12, stated that the State Department would in the future adopt a policy toward the publication of SWNCC documents (REURAD C-59673) along the following lines:

"Initiate within the Department no action for publicity except under circumstances clearly indicating the advisability and necessity therefor, and in such cases refer the matter to both General MacArthur and to the Far Eastern Commission for prior consideration; and, in the event that General MacArthur or the Commission initiate such a request for publicity of SWNCC documents, the Department will be disposed to act favorably on such a request in the absence of some strong policy reason for not doing so."

The State, War and Navy Departments have agreed to the policy stated in the Secretary of State's memorandum quoted above.

Darlington, Maryland
April 22nd

~~file~~
DC/PA
encl #1/21/46
MB

Dear Mr. Borton:

My cousin, Harold Evans, who was visiting us this week-end, suggested that I write to you on the chance that your Department has a job opening in Japan that I could fill.

I have just returned from a year & a half of service in Europe with the Red Cross. I speak & understand German fairly well, having been there before with the "Experiment in International Living", also a little French.

My job there this time included quite a bit of personnel work & labor supervision - we were mainly occupied with maintaining clubs & entertainment for soldiers, though - In England we often had to vocally represent Americans by speaking to British groups attending Inter-Allied functions.

I am very much interested in American foreign occupation policy & should like to be where I can see & help it in action -

Could I stop to speak to you about this one day?

Sincerely
Barbara Mason

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encl #1/21/46

APR 30 1946

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MB

* April 25 1946

In reply refer to
JA

My dear Miss Mason:

In reply to your letter of April 22, 1946 concerning the possibility of your employment in Japan in connection with the occupation, the Department of State is not employing people for this purpose at the present time. I would suggest, however, that you communicate with the Overseas Branch, Recruitment Coordination Section, Office of the Secretary of War, as they may have a possible opening.

I should be very glad to see you whenever you are in Washington, but unfortunately will not be in a position to offer you anything specific.

Sincerely yours,

Hugh Borton
Acting Chief
Division of Japanese Affairs

Miss Barbara Mason,
Darlington,
Maryland.

JA:HBorton:mp

4-24-46

APR 25 1946

EW 940.00119 Contact (Japan) 4-22-46

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Department of State

Washington

PREPARING OFFICE WILL TYPE HERE CLEARLY THE CLASSIFICATION OF THE MESSAGE:

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SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS,

TOKYO.

265

INFO: WAR DEPARTMENT CHIEF OF STAFF

FOR POLITICAL ADVISER FROM VINCENT.

APR 23 1946
noon

We are very pleased with your designation by General MacArthur to represent him on the Allied Council and assure you of our continued desire to be helpful.

Byrnes (JcV)

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Ref:1448/16/46

The United Kingdom Liaison Mission in Tokyo has been consulting the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers on the conditions under which experts selected by His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom might be employed as members of the Supreme Commander's staff in Tokyo.

2. His Majesty's Government agree with the view which has been expressed by the Supreme Commander that such persons should be integrated into his staff in contradistinction to being employed as advisers. There would be no question of their seeking or receiving instructions from His Majesty's Government. Their salaries would be paid in sterling by His Majesty's Government, but, since they would form part of the occupation force, His Majesty's Government consider that they should receive such part of their pay and allowances as they wish to draw in local currency in "free" yen. His Majesty's Government are prepared to meet any expenses incurred by the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers on behalf of the United Kingdom members of his staff in currencies other than yen for food and accommodation, which, it is assumed, the Supreme Commander will provide.

740.00119 CONTROL (JAPAN) / 4-2246

DIVISION OF JAPANESE AND KOREAN
ECONOMIC AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF STATE

Handed to
APR 22 1946

(E.M. Martin)

by Mr. Eveson

BRITISH EMBASSY,
WASHINGTON, D.C.,
April 22nd, 1946.

Drafted reply
↓
G.S.

DCR - NE Unit	

FILED
JUL 9 - 1946

740.00119 Control (Japan)
4-2246

MEMORANDUM

The Department of State acknowledges the receipt of the Aide-Mémoire from the British Embassy dated April 22, 1946 in which it is suggested that British nationals on the Staff of the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers in Japan be permitted to receive such part of their pay and allowances as they wish to draw in local currency in "free" yen.

It is the opinion of the Department that the British Government can utilize yen drawn from the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers under terms of "Interim Procedures for Supplying Yen to Representatives of Allied Governments in Japan" for this purpose.

With respect to the question of supplying food and accommodations to British nationals on the Staff of the

Supreme

DOR - EE Unit	
TO: <i>MS</i>	
FROM:	
DATE:	
DIST:	

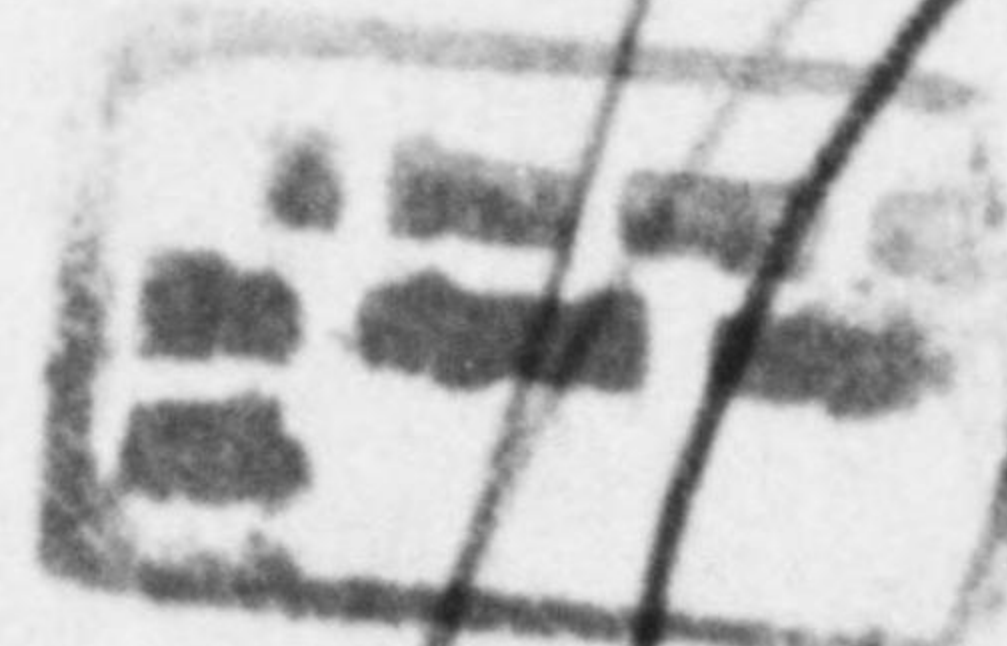
140.00119 CONTROL (JAPAN)
 14-2246
 CS (Japan) 14-2246
 140.00119 Control

- 2 -

Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers, the Department is taking the matter up with the War Department and will inform the Embassy of the final decision taken.

Department of State,

Washington, July 3 1946



740.00119 Control (Japan)/4-2246

RAM 6/18/46
JK:GShaskan:emh 6-18-46

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BC

A-H

JHH/C

JUL 3 1946

ACTION COPY

DIVISION OF
CENTRAL SERVICES
TELEGRAPH SECTION

DEPARTMENT OF STATE
INCOMING TELEGRAM

ACTION: ~~FE~~ ^{JA}
INFO:

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ACM -M
No paraphrase necessary

7767

JA

Tokyo via War

Dated April 22, 1946

Rec'd 11:10 a.m., 22nd

RESTRICTED

SECSTATE

URGENT

183, April 22

Office of
FAR EASTERN AFFAIRS
APR 22 1946
Department of State

Action	
Information	
FE	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
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SEA	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
PI	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

cont'd 1/4-22

As announced in the press General MacArthur on April 21 assigned me as his deputy to be the Chairman and United States member of the Allied Council for Japan.

ATCHESON

LMS

RESTRICTED

DIVISION OF JAPANESE AFFAIRS
APR 22 1946
DEPARTMENT OF STATE

740.00119 CONTROLL (JAPAN) / 4-22-46

*201 Easton, Mr
251 Cheselins, Col
SCAP
311.22 Data 98336
1947 259*

Mr J H Hilldring, Assistant Secretary of State
Chief, Civil Affairs Division

12 Jul 46

"Free yen" for British nationals on SCAP's Staff

It is considered advisable that the inclosed draft cable as proposed by the State Department be not dispatched.

It is our understanding that the British Nationals in question are British Mission experts and loaned to SCAP's staff. It is also understood that payment for their services is to be made by the British Government.

Procedure has already been established authorizing yen advances to Allied Governments against receipt, WARX 98336 February, and it would not be considered feasible to instruct SCAP further.

In accordance with a telephone conversation with Mr Easton of your Department, the proposed draft cable as prepared by the State Department is being returned.

Incl
draft cable dtd 2 Jul 46

O. P. ECHOLS
Major General, USA
Chief, Civil Affairs Division

NAVY DESKLINEAL
CLINT VALLIS 102 DIVISION
DISTRIBUTION



201 13 82

*100-71109
FWD 740, 60119
Contra (Paper) 4-2-46*

July 2, 1946

Dear General:

The Department has received an aide memoire from the British requesting that the British nationals integrated into SCAP's Staff receive such part of their pay and allowances as they wish to draw in local currency in "free yen". The aide memoire further requests that nationals assigned to SCAP's Staff receive food and accommodations from SCAP with all non-yen expenses connected with such maintenance provided by the British.

The Department has already advised the British that the procedure for making "free yen" available by SCAP to United Nations representatives, as per SWNCC 259, is applicable. This information was given to the British after talking with Captain Hartley of your office.

The Department concurs in the feeling that, since the British nationals under reference will be on SCAP's Staff and divorced from the British Government, SCAP should have the same responsibility for supplying rations and accommodations to these persons as he has for U.S. nationals.

I am enclosing a draft of the proposed cable for dispatch to SCAP informing him of the Department's reply to the British on the matter of the "free yen", and also requesting information on which to base a reply to the British on the subject of rations and accommodations.

This cable has been discussed by Mr. Easton with Colonel Cheseldine of your office.

Sincerely yours,

J. H. Hildring
Assistant Secretary

Enclosure:

Draft cable

Major General Oliver P. Echols
Director, Civil Affairs Division
War Department

A-H:ROEaston:dmd

GA Secretariat

DC, 2
Jan 19
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Cat



Page Document must be returned to the Public Control Files

740.00119-CONTROL (JAPAN) / 4-2246
740.00119 Control (Japan)
CS/B

War Department
To

Easton

WOG

4-2246

Not Disputed
See memo from
Adm. Serv. Div. July 12, 1946
R

CONFIDENTIAL

July 2, 1946

Routine

SCAP

Action

State (General Hillring)

D/PO-Mr. Petersen: GAD (SWNCC Directorate): GAD (State)

The British have requested that their nationals assigned to your staff receive such sums as they wish to draw in free yen. State has advised the British they may use for this purpose free yen drawn from you as provided in OURAD WARK 98336, 24 February.

British also request that nationals assigned to your staff receive food and accommodations from you with all non-yen expenses connected with such maintenance provided by British.

In view of your position as Allied Commander, it is considered desirable that you take equal logistic responsibility for all members of your staff. Indicate soonest what reply can be given to British.

FW 740.00119
General (Japan) 4-2246

A-H:ROEaston:dmd

GA Secretariat

STANDARD FORM NO. 64

Office Memorandum



TO : A-H - General Hilldring
FROM : JK - Mr. Whitman
SUBJECT: Payment of Yen to Allied Nationals Attached to SCAP's Staff

Japanese and Korean Economic Affairs Division

The British Embassy in an aide memoire of April 22, a copy of which is attached, requests that the British nationals integrated into SCAP's staff, their salaries paid in sterling by the British, should receive such part of their pay and allowances as they wish to draw in local currency in "free yen."

One of the conditions laid down by SCAP for employment of Allied personnel on his staff is that food and lodging must be supplied by that government's mission or comparable agency in Tokyo. The British Government believes that in view of the fact that their nationals on SCAP's staff will be completely divorced from the British Government and will be performing services presumably vital to SCAP, SCAP should have the same responsibility for supplying rations and accommodations to these persons as he has for U. S. nationals.

In view of the fact that General MacArthur is Allied Commander, JK believes it should be the Department's position that he should be equally responsible for meeting logistic requirements of all members of his staff.

If you approve the following draft cable, we would appreciate your forwarding it to the War Department for transmission to SCAP:

"The British have requested that their nationals assigned to your staff receive such sums as they wish to draw in free yen. State has advised the British they may use for this purpose free yen drawn from you as provided in OURAD WARX 98336, 24 February.

"British also request that nationals assigned to your staff receive food and accommodations from you with all non-yen expenses connected with such maintenance provided by British.

"In view of your position as Allied Commander, it is considered desirable that you take equal logistic responsibility for all members of your staff. Indicate soonest what reply can be given to British."

Handwritten notes in a box: DC, 2, Jun 19, 1946

JK:RHWhitman
Enclosure: British aide memoire of April 22.

FW 740.00119-CONTROL (JAPAN) 14-2246

This Document must be Returned to the RM/R Central Files

2: 300 740.00119 CONTROL CS/B (Japan) 14-2246

Approved by FE:JK:RHW

A I D E M E M O I R E

Ref:1448/16/46

The United Kingdom Liaison Mission in Tokyo has been consulting the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers on the conditions under which experts selected by His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom might be employed as members of the Supreme Commander's staff in Tokyo.

2. His Majesty's Government agree with the view which has been expressed by the Supreme Commander that such persons should be integrated into his staff in contradistinction to being employed as advisers. There would be no question of their seeking or receiving instructions from His Majesty's Government. Their salaries would be paid in sterling by His Majesty's Government, but, since they would form part of the occupation force, His Majesty's Government consider that they should receive such part of their pay and allowances as they wish to draw in local currency in "free" yen. His Majesty's Government are prepared to meet any expenses incurred by the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers on behalf of the United Kingdom members of his staff in currencies other than yen for food and accommodation, which, it is assumed, the Supreme Commander will provide.

BRITISH EMBASSY,
WASHINGTON, D.C.,
April 22nd, 1946.

File 740.00119 Central (Japan) / 4-22-46

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OFFICE OF THE UNITED STATES POLITICAL ADVISER

Tokyo, Japan, April 22, 1946.

DC/R

No. 383

SUBJECT: Interview with Mr. ITOGA Atsugi, Former "Manchukuo" Charge d'Affaires in Spain.

The Political Adviser has the honor to forward a memorandum of an interview held in this Office at the request of Colonel P. H. Bethune of the G-2 Section, General Headquarters, between Mr. ITOGA Atsugi, former "Manchukuo" Charge d'Affaires in Spain, Colonel Bethune, and two members of the staff of this Mission. The memorandum was prepared by Colonel Bethune.

Paragraph 6 of the enclosure somewhat incorrectly records the statement made by Mr. ITOGA regarding the exchange of intelligence between the Japanese and Germans. Mr. ITOGA stated that the Germans occasionally furnished intelligence to the Japanese, but the Japanese failed to reciprocate in this exchange. He also added that no information was received by the "Manchukuo" Legation from either the Germans or Japanese.

Summary. The staff of the "Manchukuo" Legation in Spain was relatively small, consisting of Mr. ITOGA, one Third Secretary, two attaches, and two Spanish employees. The chief activity of the Legation was concerned with gathering intelligence of a political, military, and economic nature. Principal sources of information were the press and magazines, many of which were purchased in Lisbon. Upon occasions, intelligence reports to the Hsingking Government were in response to special instructions, such as requests for reports on the capabilities of the B-29 bomber early in 1944 and the probability that a second front would be established in Europe. Little collaboration was maintained with the Japanese Legation, the staff of which desired to monopolize the intelligence field. Initially, relations with the Spanish Government were cordial, but deteriorated during 1944 until relations with Germany, Japan and Manchukuo were disrupted in April 1945. Only the staff members of the Japanese Legation were interned. A chart showing the organization of the Manchukuoan Government, furnished by Mr. ITOGA, is attached. End of Summary.

740.00119 CONTROL
(JAPAN)/4-2246

DEPARTMENT OF STATE
MAY 1 - 1946
DIVISION OF FOREIGN REPORTING SERVICES

RECEIVED
DEPARTMENT OF STATE

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1946 APR 23

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Enclosure:

Memorandum of interview.

Original and hectograph to Department.

Copy to Embassy, Chungking.

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Enclosure to despatch no. 383, April 22, 1946, from the United States Political Adviser, Tokyo, on the subject "Interview with Mr. ITOGA Atsugi, Former "Manchukuo" Charge d'Affaires in Spain."

CONFIDENTIAL

GENERAL HEADQUARTERS
SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS
Military Intelligence Section, General Staff

Interrogation of Mr. Atsugi Itoga by Mr. Max W. Bishop, Mr. W. J. Sebald office of the U.S. Political Adviser and Col. P.H. Bethane of the G-2 Section.

1. Mr. Itoga served 12 years in the Manchukuoan Foreign Service. After graduating from the Tokyo Imperial University and passing the necessary examinations to enter the Japanese foreign service, Mr. Itoga went to Manchuria in 1933. His first post was in the foreign office there. In 1938 he left Manchuria and Japan for Italy. In Italy he was the First Secretary of the Manchukuoan legation. During the time he was in Italy the ministers there were Mr. Shou Shaw Ching and Mr. Lo Ching-Pan.
2. After the fall of the Italian government in 1943, Mr. Itoga went from Italy to Spain via Paris. There he became the Charge d'Affaires of the Manchukuoan Legation. The Legation Staff consisted of three other officials. There was one Third Secretary, a Manchurian, and two attaches, one a Japanese and one a Manchurian. These were employed mostly in translation work and as interpreters. There were also two Spanish employees, a typist and an advisor.
3. The principal activities of the legation were concerned with collecting information of a political and military nature. Practically the only sources which Mr. Itoga used were newspapers and magazines, many of them British and American. Lisbon was an easy place to purchase these. However, Mr. Itoga could not visit Portugal as a diplomat, but he made two trips there to procure magazines and newspapers. The ones which he found the most valuable, were the London News, the London Times and Life.
4. Intelligence reports which Mr. Itoga made to the Hsingking Government were sometimes based on special instructions. His government asked him for a report on the B-29 early in 1944. He was able to furnish a considerable amount of information based on newspaper and magazine articles. His opinion was asked concerning the allied capabilities of establishing a second front. His government asked him when and where this would take place. His estimate, based upon information from newspapers and magazines, was that the allies could and would succeed in landing in Northern France. In addition to information in answer to special requests, Mr. Itoga made other reports. For example, he sent information on the Leyte campaign. Spanish newspapers gave both sides. Mr. Itoga informed Manchukuo that if Japanese information were true, the Japanese could counterattack and expel the Americans from Leyte. Mr. Itoga never received any instructions directly from the Kwantung Army. It may have requested information from the Manchukuoan Government.
5. There was little or no collaboration with the Japanese in so far as rendering intelligence reports. The Japanese wanted to monopolize in this field and wanted to send only good news. Mr. Itoga met the Japanese privately and attended social functions as a Japanese citizen. Some of the activities of the Japanese Manchukuoan Legations duplicated one another.
6. Mr. Itoga received no information from the Germans and believed that there was no exchange of information between the Germans and Japanese in Spain.
7. Initially, relations between the Manchukuoan Legation and the

Spanish

- 2 -

Spanish Government were cordial, but as the war progressed they became worse. In 1944 Manchukoan representatives were not invited to diplomatic corps functions.

8. The Legation fund consisted of between 100,000 and 160,000 Swiss francs. Because of this relatively small fund, the Legation could not afford to pay for information and even refrained from sending very many telegrams to the home government with which it communicated in code by telegraphs. The Japanese employed three or four Spaniards, one an able newspaper man, to secure information for them.

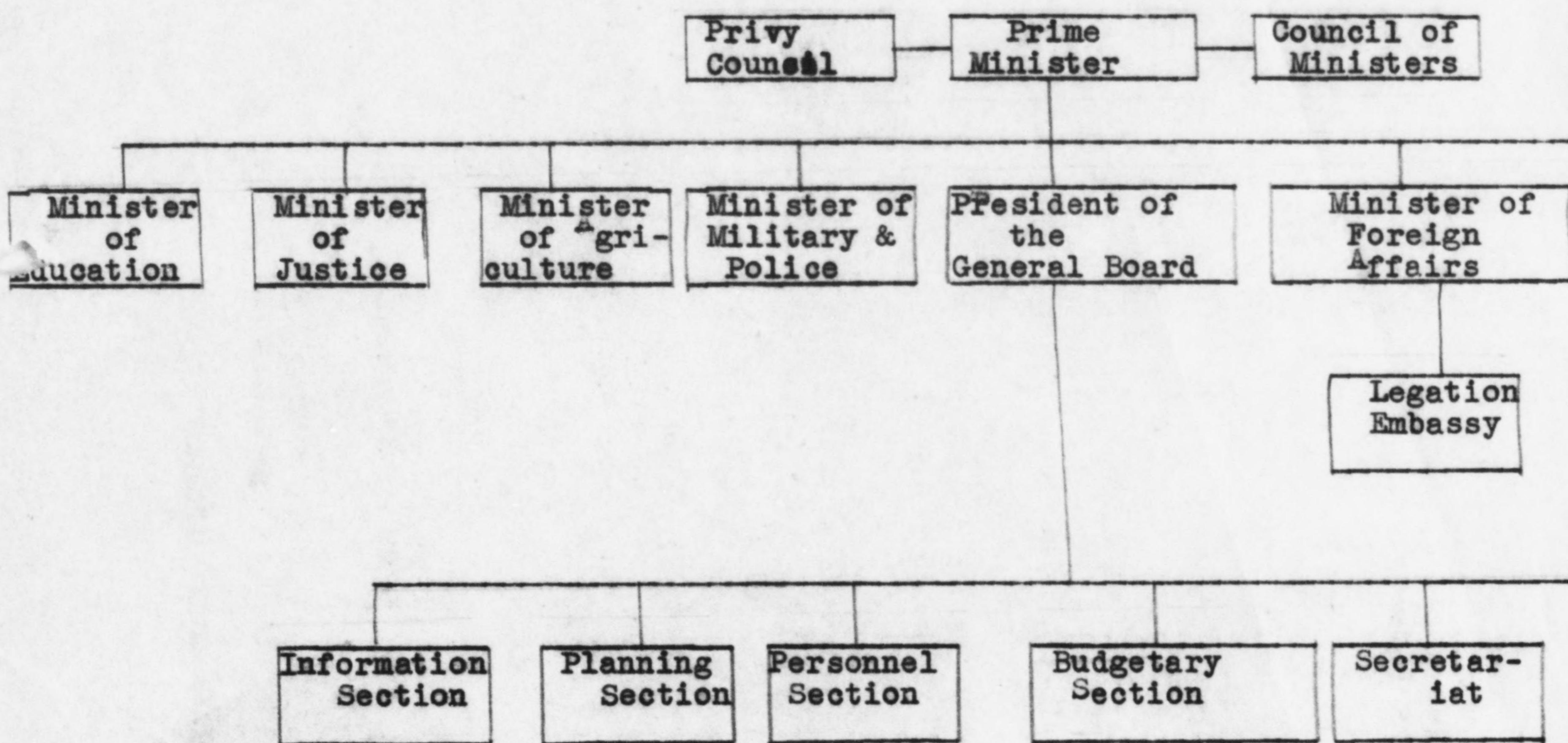
9. Mr. Itoga knew of a submarine which visited Bordeaux in 1944. Three officers from this submarine came to Spain after visiting German. One of these was Captain Machaka, who became Naval Attache to Spain. The remaining two proceeded to Portugal.

10. In April 1945 when the Spanish Government closed the German, Japanese Embassies and Manchukoan legation, only the Japanese were interned. Manchukoan and Wang-Ching-Wei puppet government representatives were allowed to go free.

11. Mr. Itoga produced the attached chart showing the organization of the Manchukoan government.

CONFIDENTIAL

CONFIDENTIAL



- Notes: 1. The Prime Minister was, in addition to his other duties:
- a. President of the Council of Ministers.
 - b. Member of the Privy Council.
 - c. President of the Association for Promoting Cooperation and Harmony.
2. Ministers were Manchurians, Vice Ministers and the President of the General Board were Japanese.

CONFIDENTIAL