

***Social Education / Adult Education in Japan:  
Policies, Practices and Movements  
during the Last 12 Years  
- Analysis and Recommendations -***

A Report from Civil Society Organizations to the Sixth International  
Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA VI)

[ CSOs national report ]



**Japanese Domestic Grass-roots Meeting for CONFINTEA VI**

May 2009

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Japanese Domestic Grass-roots Meeting for CONFINTEA

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## Preface

This is a report to CONFINTEA from Japanese civil society organizations (CSOs). We work for or include adult education within our activities.

The government of Japan also wrote a report to CONFINTEA for the national report at the request of UNESCO.

According to the guideline of the National report by the UIL, government must have some meetings among a wide range of organizations, including CSOs before writing the national report in order to ensure cooperation. Some of the CSOs members contact with the National Commission of UNESCO in Japan to ask for such meetings, but government didn't hold them.

So the CSOs began to share information among ourselves and hold our first meeting in September 2008, calling it "Japanese Domestic Grass-roots Meeting for CONFINTEA (JDGM for CON6)", and continued some networking activities. After having the meeting, CSO members contacted the government. The government held a meeting with the CSOs named "a meeting for exchange of opinions" about the draft of report, the Japanese National Report to CONFINTEA in early October 2008. Since the draft report was almost complete, few opinions of CSOs members could be included in it.

Due to this we JDGM members for CON6 decided to write a report about policies and practices of adult education in Japan for CONFINTEA and present it.

The National Report by the government covered policies of all ministries of it and reported widely about the practices they committed to. However, it is not easy to understand the situation of the policies and practices of social education, including adult education in Japan, because it is local governments, local organizations or the CSOs that mainly conduct them. We thought it should be also difficult for the national government to analyze and write them including national policies in fair way as critically as possible without any discussion with CSOs.

So, we want to report the real and actual stat of arts of policies and practices on adult education (social education) in Japan to other countries. We also want to report on our views and to point out challenges on these policies and practices. We hope our report will be useful for our international discussions.

We also hope that this report will be useful not only for international discussions in CONFINTEA but also for domestic discussions between CSOs and the government of Japan, and more over amongst ourselves.

We wrote this report is apart from the guideline of UIL, because we thought there were the other important parts of adult education and social education in Japan although it didn't mentioned, such as library, museum, foreign support on adult education and so on. We covered these fields in our report.

Through analyzing recent twelve years changes, we also tried to present some

recommendations for future not only to the governments but also CSOs ourselves.

Each of our organizations wrote about its favorite field. So this report may look like a patchwork. There are some fields that are important but we could not cover. We mentioned a little about them in the general remarks at best. Moreover there are some descriptions on which we could not agree. But we want to continue the discussion amongst ourselves in learning from each other about these descriptions in future and follow-up of CONFINTEA .

We hope this report can play even a little useful part in order to make the movements, practices and networks of adult education continue to grow more and more active.

We would present it to CONFINTEA with such hope.

Japanese Domestic Grass-roots Meeting for CONFINTEA

(JDGM for CON6)

Secretariat: Yoko Arai

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Editor s Note



## General Remarks

## **- 1 General conditions of Japan**

### **during the last decade**

#### **1. Basic data of Japan**

Japan is located in East Asia and its main country is the Japanese archipelago. Its area is about 378 km<sup>2</sup> and it is the 60<sup>th</sup> largest country by area among 196 countries in the world. Japan's population is about 127 million and 660 thousands (the 10<sup>th</sup> most country in the world by population). Its population density is 337 persons per a km<sup>2</sup>. It is the 33<sup>rd</sup> densest country in the world (data from the homepage of Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communication).

Now we will survey the changes in Japanese society from the mid-1990s up to the present with consideration of the year 1997 when the previous CONFINTEA was held.

#### **2. The movement of population : declining birth rate and aging society**

The total population of Japan from 1997 to September 2008 has a little increased by only 1,506 people. The birthrate has fallen lower than the death rate.

For example, in the September 2008 monthly report the Statistics Bureau of Ministry of Public Management, the population of Japan has decreased by 90 thousands. The total population of Japan is on the decrease. If we look at statistics per age group, 13.5 % populations are 0-14 years old, 64.5% populations are 15-64 years old, 22.2% populations are over 65 years old; and 10.3% populations are over 75 years old. While each of the 0-65 and the 15-64 year old populations are decreasing, the over 65 years old populations are increasing (refer to the monthly report mentioned above).

We have noticed this tendency, so called 'aging population and low birthrate' problem and our feeling of social crisis is stronger now. The government has already carried out specific policies to solve this through such as the 'Angel Plan' and the 'Gold Plan', but they haven't succeeded. Also since such new welfare policies have been carried often from a financial point of view, they have had some contradictions. We can see such examples in the new medical system especially for the elderly persons, the integration of pension systems, and other welfare policies.

#### **3. The changes of economic situations and employment surroundings and the expanding gap among people's living conditions and the increase of poor people.**

Our economic situation had not looked bad until the first half of 2008, but from the latter half of 2008 we suffered the global economic recession. This outline is only from the GDP data.

Despite of the upward GDP trend from the mid-1990s and the low rate of unemployment, the working conditions have been getting worse throughout the last 20



years.

A lot of corporations rationalized their managing system by dismissing workers in the term during the depression in the late half of the 1980s. In those days we called such harsh dismissals, 'Ristora' or 'restructuring of company', which is a Japanese-English.

Soon after we experienced a strange enthusiastic prosperity called 'the bubble economy'. At this time in reverse we suffered such social problems as the syndrome of 'Karo Shi', a Japanese term that means death from too much work. The bubble economy collapsed in the early of 1990s. After that, a lot of corporations changed their structure again. In this term, not only by reducing the number of workers but also by changing the employment conditions, corporations introduced part-time employment largely. The government also support such employment strategy with deregulating a lot of laws and acts although the working conditions should be worse by such deregulations. The economic boom from the late 1990s seems to owe much to this changing employment system. Moreover the government also reduced the welfare budget due to the financial crisis and the aging populations. Therefore, the condition of workers as a whole has been getting worse since 1990s.

A lot of people in Japan once enjoyed the plenty in the first half of 1980s as we used to share the words 'all us, a hundred million people are middle class'. We missed that there were actually poor people who faced the crisis of living, though the number was not large, despite the existence research and reports about this reality. But at last we have noticed that we have had much a large gap of living between rich and poor and a lot of people are living under the minimum living income in Japan in recent years. We now share the words 'a gap-widening society' and 'working poor' widely among people in Japan. The government has not been able to get a way from this reality since early 2006.

Within the situations as mentioned above, we faced this global economic recession. A lot of part-time workers lost not only jobs but also their houses. We have many social problems and policy challenges due to the economic crisis and the increase of poor people. We also face a new crime such as 'fraud business targeted for poor people' and a new social unrest that the government also urgently has to deal with.

Under these social situations, civil support groups both old and new are now gathering concerned people again and are developing some social movements.

Currently the employment situation for young people is worse than others bad conditions. In the early 1990s, we called such people who didn't get any permanent job, 'Freeter' that is Japanese-English and means free from a fixed work, or 'NEET' deferent from a same word in English and means lack of will to work harder. We often worried that such trends amongst young people would increase. Then the policies for this problem focused on employment training. Recently some CSOs notice that the real problem is the recent changing of the social structure. That is to say, the increase of unstable employment, such as part-time work, not only hits the working conditions of

young people but also removes on-the-job-training at work places, brings the youth to sever living conditions of poverty.

#### **4. Anxiety in mind of people - thirty thousands people have committed suicide each year during the last ten years -**

From the statistics of the National Police Agency, the number of people who committed is over 30 thousands every year since 1998 and it is on the increase. The number in 2007 was 33,093, which was more than last year by 938 increases. The number 33,093 means 26 per 100 thousand persons.

We worry the number of people who commit suicide will increase more due to the worsening living and unemployment conditions under this global reception. For this reason, the National Police Agency started to report about 'the statistics on people who committed suicide' every month from January 2009.

#### **5. Decentralization policies of the government and the hardship they cause - setback of "the autonomy of residents " and the expanding gap among local communities**

In the latter half of the 1990s, the national policies on local autonomy have much moved.

The government enacted Act on Promotion of Decentralization for five years limited act in 1995 and promoted the so called 'Decentralization Policy. But despite the title 'local autonomy', it actually promoted deregulation on the order of the government. Therefore the policies of local governments have been guided by this policy.

If we look back our history, we can notice a lot of municipalities had been compelled to consolidate in 1950s. The number of municipalities decreased from 10,505 in 1947 to 3,975 in September 1956 at the so called 'the Big Merger of in Showa' (enforced in 1953, lapsed in 1956) in Japan before. After that the number had kept over 3,200 for a long time with a little decrease. But during the decade, especially after 2000, we experienced the second largest boom of consolidation of municipalities. A lot of municipalities had been promoted to consolidate by the partial revision of the Municipal Merger Law in 1995 and the new Municipal Merger Law in 2004 with some financial "merits" such as the public loan for merger. A lot of municipalities accepted such recommendation to consolidate because they suffered financial difficulties. Therefore the number of municipalities has decreased from 3,234 in 1995 to 1,821 in 2006, and it will decrease more to 1,771 in 2010. 1,279 municipalities disappeared from 2004 to 2007.

Such large merge and reduction of the number of municipalities means the grate change of the base of social education, because we have performed social education policies mainly by the boards of educations in each municipality.

Then the government performed this decentralization policy with consolidating

municipalities by shift the administrative responsibility of the national government to the local governments. The government did not actually promote the autonomy of municipalities but also resident autonomy. The reduction of financial support to municipalities brought a large gap amongst municipalities. Since the 1960s, we have suffered the problem of overpopulation and depopulation in Japan. The decentralization policy brought difficulties to municipality that suffered the problem of overpopulation and depopulation along with aging population problem. A lot of municipal governments were guided to merge with other municipality and or outsource their services to private sectors along with the administrative reform.

In these policies, depopulation problem has become serious. In some community, people suffered much hardship if they continue to live because of depopulation. These communities lost a lot of social conditions for people. Some research called such community 'marginal hamlet' and the word are now popular in Japan not only for policy but also amongst people.

As looking above, since the latter part of the 1990s we have lost a lot of legacy of social welfare system both for working condition and for living conditions and local autonomous system has deteriorated. A gap of living conditions among people and a gape of social conditions among communities have widened and inequality has prevailed. The people who live the bottom of society suffered so severer conditions that they can not continue to live. Moreover people who should make some active social movements to change these situations cannot cultivate their will strongly, fear for every day living and unrest for the future.

In these situations, we need such learning activities that empower us to overcome the difficulties and change social situations. Nevertheless the same difficulties brought from the social changes in the last 10 years in Japan is destroying the base of social education/adult education that should support and grow these learning activities.

We will look at the trends of adult education and social education policies during the last 10 years next.

(Written and translated by JAPSE: Yoko Arai)

## **- 2 The trends of adult education/ social education**

### **policies during the last decade**

#### **1. 'Social education' and adult education: a word on the term and concept**

In Japan, 'adult education' ('Seijin Kyouiku' in Japanese) is not a concept or term which enjoys wide currency. The commonly used concept is 'social education' ('Shakai Kyouiku' in Japanese), which can be roughly translated into adult and community education and is widely used in laws, institutions and government policies as well as in research and practice. In Japan a way to classify the field of education into the following three categories has been conventionally employed, focusing on where educational activities are conducted:

- a)'home education', which is conducted privately at home for children;
- b)'school education', which is formal education for children or adults at schools; and
- c)'social education', which includes all educational activities in society at large falling outside the above categories a) and b).

A wide variety of educational activities come under the term 'social education': they can be nonformal education provided by social education institutions such as Kominkan (community learning centers run by municipal governments), public libraries and museums, or learning which accompanies voluntary activities of citizens in clubs, volunteer organizations, community organizations and so on: they can be conducted in a classroom in a school-type environment where learners are taught by a teacher, or outside classrooms as self/mutual education of a group of citizens who teach and learn from each other: and participants can be of any age -- children, youths, adults or the elderly -- and a mixture of different age groups (e.g. children and adults).

Social education can be closely connected to home education and school education: it includes such examples as parents' learning to improve their home education and the activities of PTAs (Parent-Teacher Associations) aiming for the betterment of school education. In fact in recent years some local governments have come to offer social education for the residents almost solely in the field related to home education. This phenomenon's background is the revision of the Social Education Act in 2001, in which it was clearly stated that a board of education in a local government has responsibility for promoting the residents' learning concerning home education through classes, assemblies and public lectures.

In the categorization of education mentioned above, adult education overlaps both school education and social education: the examples of institutions in the field of school education includes universities, vocational schools ('Senshuu Gakkou') and miscellaneous schools ('Kakushu Gakkou', in which practical skills such as driving, cooking and foreign languages are taught) and those in social education are Kominkan, museums, public libraries, public sports facilities and educational institutions for

young people with a lodging function called 'Seinen no Ie'. Adult education is also provided in various institutions which are not administratively designed for education: for example, labor administration offices / labor information centers offer seminars and public lectures for employees and employers.

Now, those of you who have already read Japanese government's national report must be aware that it often lacks in basic statistical data, such as the one about the national budgets of adult education and the number of learners participating in adult education. It is naturally not an easy task to get a whole picture of adult education out of pieces which are scattered everywhere --- adult education is provided by both educational and non-educational (e.g. welfare and labor) institutions/organizations and administered by several different ministries. In addition, while the Japanese government has conducted a 'social education survey' every year, it has been largely indifferent to the profiles (such as the sex and age) of the participants of social education unless educational programs in question are targeted to specific sex/age groups. It has tended to be content with such rough data as budgets or the number of users of a given social education institution. For this reason it has not been very useful when one would like to know the state of adult education/learning in Japan.

As mentioned above, the concept of social education itself is all-inclusive and indiscriminate about who (and how old) the participants are. While this is a unique way of categorizing education and has its own merit, in order to grasp in details the reality of social education, with which adult education/learning partly overlaps, it is necessary to modify the methods of collecting data for a social education survey.

(The section 1. is written by the Committee on International Affairs of JSSACE;

Translated by TOKIWA-FUSE Miho\*)

\*Spelled in the East Asian order, in which the family-name comes first.



### **3. The 'revision's of some laws close related to Social Education**

#### **3.1. The legislation system of social education in Japan and some changes - form historical view**

##### **3.1.1. The enactment of the Constitution and Fundamental Law of Education**

After World War Second we enacted our new constitution with three principles 'sovereignty resides in the people', 'respect for the right of man', 'a war-renouncing' for making peace and democracy. Under this Constitution, we also enacted the Fundamental Law of Education in 1948. This Law was made under the core idea that the purpose of education was to respect and foster the freedom and autonomy of individuals and for this education it was important to protect the independence of education from political powers. Under this idea, the local autonomous bodies got the responsibility for educational administration and each local autonomous body must have its educational board deferent and independent from the other administration parts in order to plan and perform its educational policies.

##### **3.1.2. From the enactment of Social Education Law**

###### **to the distributing the idea of 'Social Education as Right'**

About social education, under the Fundamental Law of Education, we enacted Social Education Law in 1949, Library Law in 1950, and Museum Law in 1951. After that we enacted the Promotion Law for Youth Class in 1953, although it had some trouble to be enacted. In 1961 we also enacted the Promotion Law for Sport.

Social Education Law was revised relatively large in 1951 and 1959, the latter revision met residence movement against the revision because they were afraid that political control to social education should be stronger. After that Social Education Law was sometimes revised but usually with changing a few words.

It was local governments, especially municipal governments who mainly performed Social education/Adult education policies in Japan under these national laws. We had a lot of learning and social education movements by people. These movements had developed sometimes under controlled of or with support from these policies by local governments and sometimes against or with changing and leading these policies.

Agree with the philosophy of the Fundamental Law of Education, the article 3<sup>rd</sup> of Social Education Law stated that 'The State and Public Body' –this means the national government and local Government – had to perform their roles -'functions'- to 'assist in maintaining congenial environment' for developing social education. The article 12<sup>th</sup> strictly prohibited 'The State and Public Body' from 'control the organization of social education and their activities'. The essence of these articles articulated such philosophy of 'social education' that it was the learners that developed their learning, cultural and sport activities with using some conditions prepared by variety ways. We can also see these articles as the statement of right of learning from both points of view of the freedom and welfare.

Although the Social Education Law had these ideas, the policies started to change for control on resident learning since the late of 1950s. Some of such social education

staff that supported residents hard to learn as public servants were moved to the other part of social education with some political reasons. We called these affairs the 'unfair shift problems of social education staff'. These affairs often broke out during the 1960s and the 1970s. Some municipal governments rejected to serve some public facilities for learning activities of residents and controlled or intervene in them.

Against this policy trend, there came up a lot of resident movements to articulate the right to learn and the idea 'the right to social education' got to be popular. In some municipalities the power of residents with this idea 'the right to social education' changed the policy of social education to the ones led by residents themselves and promoted social education policies.

In these tensions between people and the national and local governments, social education movements of national level were borne. For example, Monthly Magazine *Social Education* started in 1957 and Japan Association for Promotion of Social Education was established in the social education movements for democratizing social education again and made social education advance more. The magazine, the association and these movements still continue.

### **3.1.3. The enact of Lifelong Learning Promotion Maintenance Act**

It was the enactment of 'the Law Concerning the Establishment of Implementation Systems and Other Measures for the Promotion of Lifelong Learning' enacted in 1990, which we usually call with its abbreviation name 'the Law of Promotion and Maintenance for Lifelong Learning', that changed the previous trend mentioned.

The contents in the 1976 report of the Council of Social Education (National) and the 1981 report of the Central Council for Education and the policies of 'lifelong education' and 'lifelong learning' that had already started with some budget from the 1981 fiscal year got their ground legal. Moreover the Ministry of Education changed the title of the part that took social education from the Social Education Department to the Lifelong Learning Department, and this Department got the first position in the structure of the Ministry of Education.

The government enacted the Law of Promotion and Maintenance for Lifelong Learning with no care of its relation to Social Education Law. The Law of Promotion and Maintenance for Lifelong Learning mainly stated such policies by prefecture governments and for the wider district than municipality. This Law also stated not only about the policies related to the Ministry of Education but also the ones related to the Ministry of International Trade and Industry. The government tried to perform lifelong learning policies beyond the power of municipal governments and also targeted to explore market for lifelong learning business.

In the first half of the 1990s, a lot of Ministries performed their policies with the words 'lifelong learning' in the titled of these policies. Lifelong learning policies were carried not only as educational policies but also as industry, welfare, labor, home affair and community, and so on. A lot of local governments not only prefecture but also municipal government responded to this new policy movement. Each of them surveyed



the resident opinions for lifelong learning and made its lifelong learning policy plan with all the might of each government. In some of these cases, the governments reviewed social education policies and tried to make their lifelong learning policy plans together with residents. A lot of local governments faced the economic recessions and decentralization policies by the national governments in the mid-90s before they realized their plans. While we don't have enough research that analyses the effectiveness and continuity of the lifelong learning policy plans by the local governments in the 1990s yet, the boom of lifelong learning policy has gone away.

By the way, we enacted a lot of acts in variety fields since the 1990s in Japan. Among these acts, there are more than a few laws that are related to social education, such as the Act on Promotion of Specified Non-profit Activities. We tried to take the law system included these new acts related to social education, with the term 'the legal system related to social education' before, but we can not make a clear understanding about the system yet (See to *Modern Approaches to the Legal System Related to Adult and Community Education*, Studies in Adult Community Education No.47, 2003 edited by JSSACE) .

### **3.2. The movement of 'revision' of some acts close related to Social Education after 1997**

Now we go to look at the trend of legal and political affairs in social education field since the mid-90s. We can point out as the features, the setback of the regulation to promote participation of resident in the making process of social education policies, the prevailing of controls by the governments on social education, and the setback of the ideas and policies to protect and support the right of social education (such as the promotion to outsource administration services) and so on.

We look at this trend concretely, next.

#### **3.2.1. The 'revision' of Social Education Law in 1999**

First already I mentioned, since the mid-90s, through the decentralization policy, the government promoted deregulation policies in order to reduce budgets of the local governments. In this process, the government revised Social Education Law in 1999. In this revision the regulations to promote participation of residents in the policy making lost clear statements (Kominkans changed not to need to keep their Kominkan Kominkan Advisory Committees while they must have before. The apparent membership post for resident groups each of the Kominkan Advisory Committee and the Advisory Committee of Social Education submerged and disappeared in the new wide slot 'the persons who are related school or social education' and the sentences to suggest the democratic selection of representatives from resident groups also disappeared). Both of Kominkan Advisory Committees and Advisory Committees of Social Education are systems for social education of municipalities only. About more information of the former, Kominkan Advisory Committees see to the chapter - 1).

The government also revised Library Law and we worried to introduce some library

services with pay. More information will be mentioned in part -2 section.

### **3.2.2. The 'revision' of Social Education Law in 2001**

The government revised Social Education Law again in 2001 soon after the previous revision. This time they added a second section to Article 3rd, although this article so important that stated clearly the principal philosophy of Social Education Law, so called the idea of 'congenial environment', and had been not changed anything of for a long time since the Law enacted. The new section, the second section, requested for the national and social government to take care both for connecting social education with school education and for making home education better. About the members each of the Kominkan Advisory Committees and the Advisory Committees of Social Education, new sentence 'the persons who contribute to make home education better' were added in the new wide slot that inserted in the 1999 revision.

A new section 'Matters concerning the planning of courses for providing learning opportunities for home education, the sponsoring of meeting, and the encouragement thereof' and another new section 'Matters concerning the implementation of projects to provide young people with opportunities for social service experience, including volunteer activities, nature experience and the encouragement thereof', both of them were also inserted in the Article 5<sup>th</sup>, the list of 'Affairs of Municipal Board of Education.

These changes in this 2001 revision showed new direction of policies to control of social education activities. This direction seemed to be against to the basic principle 'deregulation' in the 1999 revision.

### **3.2.3. The 'revision' of Fundamental Law of Education in December 2006**

**(enforcement from April 2007 )**

In December 2006, Fundamental Law of Education was largely revised with that the number of articles increased much. A new article with the title ' Lifelong Learning' was added paralleled with the Article for Social Education. This ' Lifelong Learning' article mentioned 'lifelong learning' in the framework that situated 'individual learning's on the one corner and society to which individuals contribute by the fruit of each learning on the other corner. The Article for Social Education was also revised. It described 'social education' to meet both the individual's demands and the social needs.

The idea of education in these two articles in this 2006 revision seems to get behind compared with the idea of the original version, the 1948 Fundamental Law of Education. The 1948 Fundamental Law of Education understood that the society should develop through the development of the whole personality and spontaneous spirits of individuals, whereas the new articles in 2006 revision understand education between the paralleled two palls, 'individual's and 'society'. As it seems to related to this latter understanding, some closer purposes for education were inserted in the 2006 revision, whereas the 1948 Law stated the purposes of education were modestly and philosophically stated in. The inserted purposes in the 2006 revisions included such moralistic and close contents to as respect to the discipline in school and love to the hometown ('love to the country and region'), whereas the close moral targets seems

not to be fit to such kind of fundamental laws.

In this revision, the sentence 'Education shall not be subject to improper control, but it shall be directly responsible to the whole people' in the original article was changed with cutting the part 'but it shall be directly responsible to the whole people' and adding new sentence 'and shall be carried out in accordance with this and other acts'. This article seems to have the contradiction that the lower acts that should be enacted and be read under the philosophy of Fundamental Law with the profound idea of the freedom of education in reverse provide the upper law, the Fundamental Law. This revision weakened the idea of the freedom of education.

A new article, the Article 17<sup>th</sup> 'Basic Plan for the Promotion of Education' was also added in this 2006 revision. According to this new article, the national government make formulate 'a basic plan covering basic principles' and the local governments are urged to formulate their own 'basic plan' with 'referring' to the national 'plan'. This article seems to restore the idea that the local governments have primal authority about educational policy and administration. This idea has been kept in law system as a important principle of education in Japan although the control by the national government has been stronger and this idea sometimes seemed to be only rhetoric.

In these situations, we must take care much to keep the autonomy of local governments both in the national basic plan and in local plans themselves. Moreover and it is more important that we elaborate each local plan of education to be able promote the learning activities of people with keep the freedom of learners and educational institutions. It is our challenge to continue and develop the philosophy of 'congenial environment' in our future policies for promotion of social education.

#### **3.2.4. The 'revision' of Social Education Law in May 2008**

The government changed Social Education Law in May 2008 in accordance with the 2006 revision of Fundamental Law of Education.

A new section was again added to the Article 3<sup>rd</sup>. This 3<sup>rd</sup> section stated the importance of the connection of social education both to school education and home education stronger. Moreover the learning support for pupils was included in the affairs of municipal boards of governments as a new section. The regulation in the Article 13<sup>th</sup> was loosen. The local government can subsidize some social education groups through the approval of the other ones of the Advisory Committee of Social Education.

By this revision, the system of Social education Committee, which was a important participation system of resident but originally optional system, will be afraid to degreased. We can see this revision is also the restored one to weaken the participation of residents in the process of making adult education policy, without any other participation system presented. The government included the experiences of not only teacher but also librarian and curator in the accreditation of qualification of social education director in this 2008 revision. A new article for 'evaluation' about managing Kominkan was also added this time.

#### **4. The other trends of policies of social education**

##### **4.1. Impulsion to outsource the management of institutions for social education**

**along with market competition**

**- introducing the designated manager system**

During the last decade, the national government compelled the local governments to outsource their services under the decentralization policies, a lot of public facilities were outsourced. We can see same trend in adult education field.

When the designated system was introduced in Local Autonomous Law at the 2003 revision, this system was predicted not to be applied to educational facilities. Nevertheless, Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology stated to permit the local government to apply the designated system for outsourcing their social education facilities in the statement document 'About the application of designated system to social education facilities' in January 2005.

A lot of persons and groups related to Social Education, Kominkan and Library, stated opposite opinion against outsourcing and/or introducing designated system to Social Educational Facilities. These persons and groups included such as the Advisory Committees of s in some municipalities, even the Kominkan Advisory Committee in Hiroshima city, while the Kominkans of Hiroshima city were already outsourced to a Foundation. Some of them made some petitions to their local governments. Japan Association for Promotion of Social Education (JAPSE) made their opinion against introducing designated system to social education facilities public in January 2005. The title of this JAPSE's document is 'The Opinion of JAPSE about the statement document on 25<sup>th</sup> in January 2005 of Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology about designated system on'. JAPSE pointed out the designated system has defects 'to spread the idea that beneficiaries should pay for public services in social education', 'to be obstacle to participation of resident in policy making', 'to destroy the freedom of learning because the designated system prefers profitability and efficiency', 'to reduce the working conditions who work for social education', and announced the disagreement to the introduction of designated system to social education.

Despite of these oppositions, the statement of Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology to admit designated system influenced a lot of municipalities, who were strongly pushed to reform their administration, the number of public institutions and facilities of social education such as Kominkan, Library and Museum is increasing.

##### **4.2. The revisions and enact of the standards of social education institutions**

Some standards of social educational institutions and facilities were revised or enacted during the last decade. The Standard of Establishing and Managing Kominkan' that was enacted in 1959 was revised partially in 1998 and largely in 2003 (See to the section -1 for more information).

The Desirable Standard of Establishing and Managing Public Libraries was enacted in 2001(See to the -2 section for more information).

The Standard of Establishing and Managing Public Museum was revised in 1998 with a new title 'The Desirable Standard of Establishing and Managing Public Museum', and it was revised again in 2003 totally in this time.

#### **4.3. Stagnant and setback of policies for adult education staff**

In Japan it is municipalities that mainly perform social education policies as previous mentioned. The municipal governments was widening the part of social education in their Education Board and was increasing the number of staff for social education after the World War . Especially in the 1970s the number of municipalities who employed persons as staff to work specially for social education gradually increased. Some municipalities also took care in allocation of their staff that such staff that wanted to continue social education work could keep the position for social education in their administrative structure. The governments both of national and local carried some training courses for the staff of social education.

Since the early days of the 1980, some of municipal governments started to transfer their staff for shorter span than before with influenced by 'the managing 'theory of local government' and they also transfer social education staff although they belonged to their Education Board easily. On the other hand some local governments pretended to reduce or not to increase the number of their staff by outsourcing some social education facilities to some third sectors, which means the public-service corporations and usually established by local governments themselves, in order to keep the actual number of staff that worked at these social education facilities, because the local governments were requested by the national government to reduce the total number of their staff. In the 1990s, some local governments also reduced the number of permanent staff by increasing the number of part-time staff. When the local governments introduced the designated system for outsourcing social education institutions and facilities, the relation between the social education staff and the local governments weakened because the social education staffs were hired by the designated organizations and the local governments could contacted the social education staffs through only the contract between the organizations and the local governments.

Now we generally speak about the deterioration of employment conditions for public part-time workers hired by local governments as social problem. They were employed only in short term and their wages were decreasing. Moreover their working conditions were worse when they were transferred to be employed by some organizations to which the local governments outsourced some public facilities or services from the direct employment by the local governments. Social Education staff are in the same trend.

Social education staffs only cannot keep their professional positions but also face the deterioration of their working conditions for public workers now. We must see this

trend as serious challenge for our social education system that has situated in the administration structure of local governments (See to the section -1 for about more information of the trends of number of social education staff related to Kominkan).

The national government did not tried to make the policy that respected the specific quality for social education and improved and reinforced the professional system for social education staff for a long time. We have each qualification system for the social education director, the librarian and curator by each law but the level of requirements are declining and actually they changed to be lower in the 1996 revision of the government ordinances for these three qualifications. The government attitude about the social education staff system once retreated so that the Consulting Committee for Lifelong Learning wrote their recommendation for the persons with these qualifications but out of job to use these qualifications for their voluntary activities under the situation that only few persons could get proper jobs for their qualifications in their 1997 report. Although there are some discussions to introduce some deferent levels in each qualifications, the understanding for the value of social education and adult education jobs/works and its specific quality, and the vision for recovering or recreating the system of social education staff under this understanding cannot advance yet.

#### **4.4. Setback and abandonment of the policies for youth education**

##### **- the repeal of the Law for Promotion of the Education Class for Youth**

Before the World War the governments both national and local usually took care and sometimes organized both of women organizations and youth organizations of communities by themselves and used them for their social education/adult education policies in Japan. Although these organizations both of woman and youth reorganized and restated with eradicating their personality to support the war, they also continued the important parts both of targets and stakeholders of social education in local community. However, the number of these organizations was gradually decreasing under the urbanizations and their positions in social education have weakened.

About women, in the 1960s and the 1970s, a lot of groups of young mothers were born from the activities of PTA (Parents and Teachers Association) or some social education classes practiced in Kominkans or so on. Their purposes of learning were variety and they developed their activities. They were growing as both target and stakeholders of social education.

About youth, in the 1960s, the classes for youth who moved from the countryside prevailed for social education programs at Kominkans or so on in urban side, and support for youth to live their lives actively in their new living places, while the youth organizations continued their activities in rural parts. Since the late of the 1970s and the early days of the 1980s the percentage of students who enrolled in high school and the percentage of students who enrolled in university was getting higher. The data of the former were 82.1% in 1970 and 94.1% in 1985 and the data of the latter were 23.6%

in 1970 and 41.6% in 1985. The youth generation usually had lost their interests in local communities and the position of youth education among social education weakened since these days.

As giving in to this trend, Promotion Law for Youth Class enacted in 1953 was repealed, when the 114 laws were revised all together through the Package Law of Promotion for Decentralizing in 1999. Promotion Law for Youth Class was enacted with some troubles, because it was not satisfied one. There were some opposite movements from youth organizations and others to the enactment with fear that it should invite the control by the governments to the learning activities that were developed freely by youth organizations in local communities. There were also such critical opinions opposite to the law that the idea of this law tried to create the education for young workers on the cheap, while the education for young workers had to be situated firmly in the formal education system even such as the part-time high school.

However, the government did not repeal this law from their consciousness of the defect of it. This repeal seemed to same trend the affairs that some prefecture government abolished or changed the youth hoses since the early of the 1990s. It showed the retreat of the governments both national and local from youth education.

The Consulting Committee for Lifelong Learning, which prepared some deregulation parts of educational field inserted in the Package Law of Promotion for Decentralizing, explained that Promotion Law for Youth Class lost the need for itself because the percentage of students who advanced to higher school increased. Youth education policies in communities retreated under this trend.

After this retreat of the late of the 1990s, the youth problem occurred as a social problem as the 'will to work' problem of youth with using the word 'freeter' and 'NEET' as previously mentioned. Now Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare carries some projects such as 'Cram School for Self-help of Youth' that started from July 2005 and are the staying type seminars and 'the Support Station for Youth in Community' all over the country. But these projects is limited to support youth for employment through 'enlightening the youth about work', 'supporting the youth to adapt to the society' and looks to be far from such educational project that support the youth to make their own learning movement by themselves freely.

The government made 'the synthesis support plan for re-challenge' in December 2006. This plan was made of a lot of projects by some ministries. We cannot only see some projects to support the youth to get job but also see adult education projects in this plan. This plan looks to be lead by the idea to make people adapt to the existed social structure. We must watch that this plan can develop its perspective and can include such education projects that support people to get critical consciousness among variety fields and to become real subjects to make their own society by themselves through these critical consciousness, including union education that should support the workers' consciousness of the right to work.

## **5. The changes of expenditure for social education about recent ten years**

### **5.1. National budget for Education in recent years**

In October 2008, *Education at a Glance 2008* by OECD disclosed that the total public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP in 2005 in Japan was only 3.4% and it rate is the smallest among OECD member countries. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology also emphasized that each rate of private expenditure on both of the education before school and the higher education is higher than the standard among OECD member countries in its introduction of this OECD report in its web sit. This information made a lot of people in Japan notice the Japanese government expended only small money on education.

Before this information, the government made the Basic Plan for the Promotion of Education in July 2008 with replying to the 2006 revision of Fundamental Law of Education. According to the newspaper on these days, in this plan making process, Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology first tried to insert 'the numerical targets both of the budget of education and the rise of teachers' in this plan but gave up at last because they met 'strong opposite from Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Public Management, Home Affairs, Posts and Telecommunications and such representatives of ruling party that lead administrative reform'. That is to say Basic Plan for the Promotion of Education was made in the tough situation without enough budget. We must watch the plan for wearing some spiritual control in realizing process out of budget or for making the educational policies lost of valance with wide gap among each field of education.

### **5.2. The changes of the proportion of budget for Social Education**

#### **within the whole budget of education**

#### **the low level of ratio and continuous tendency of declining**

Table 1 is made by the data from "Statistics on Ministry of Education, Culture , Sports, Science and Technology" in 2008 (the data was made up from some statistics materials to total education expenditure both public private). According to this table, we can see the total education expenditure increased until 2000, decreased largely in 2004, and from 2005 it increased modestly.

However the social education expenditure continued to decreased from 1995.

We can not necessarily tell the expenditure on adult education is decreasing, because we must use the data by adding the data included in both expenditures of the higher education and Specialized Training Colleges and Misc. schools, which increased largely, if we analyze correctly. However we can guess the amount for adult of both expenditures of the higher education and Specialized Training Colleges and Misc. schools is small because we guess the percentage of adult students of universities in Japan is small from our experiences.



**Table 1 Total Expenditure on Education by Sphere of Education**

(made by Yoko Arai with data from “Statistics on Ministry of Education, Culture , Sports, Science and Technology” in 2008)

(unit: million yen)

Sphere	Social education		school				Expenditure on educational administration	Total Expenditure on Education, etc.	
	total	rate (%)	Higher education	Specialized Training college & Misc. school	他	total			rate (%)
7('95)	2,802,456		7,331,708	1,083,159		25,734,808		1,564,911	30,102,175
9	2,712,288		7,469,965	1,043,433		25,990,317		1,677,662	30,380,268
10	2,618,805		7,738,824	948,927		26,060,848		1,763,137	30,442,790
11('99)	2,560,859		7,953,167	912,902		26,026,396		1,780,840	30,368,094
12('00)	2,514,796		7,687,617	876,811		25,671,509		2,530,860	30,717,165
13('01)	2,465,281		7,752,866	921,090		25,812,877		2,410,638	30,688,797
14('02)	2,342,020		7,970,165	942,379		25,961,257		2,385,327	30,688,605
15('03)	2,248,408		7,896,529	931,622		25,502,773		2,477,159	30,228,341
16('04)	2,138,334		7,580,945	972,175		24,965,085		2,563,451	29,666,870
17('05)	2,043,670	100.0%	8,218,428	1,037,126		25,551,365	100.0%	2,520,715	30,115,750
Rate of shpheres in total	6.8%		27.3%	3.4%				8.4%	100.0%
			84.8%						
<by source of funds>									
National Gov.	46,189	2.3%	3,342,069	4,173		5,709,651	24.2	1,532,945	7,288,785
Local Gov.	1,997,428	97.7%	520,627	69,897		12,849,005	52.6	987,770	15,834,203
(Local pub. sch.)			(486,982)	(46,673)		(12,124,845)	(50.2)		
(Prefectures)	(359,768)	(17.6%)	(367,563)	(28,482)		(8,406,353)	(30.1)	(308,588)	(9,074,709)
(manicipalities)	(1,637,660)	(80.1%)	(119,418)	(18,191)		(3,718,491)	(20.0)	(679,182)	(6,035,334)
(Sch.corporation, etc.)	53	0.003%	4,355,732	963,057		6,992,708	23.2	...	6,992,762
(recounted)									
Tuition & other fee	...		3,131,209	782,796		5,338,225	17.7	...	5,338,225

The percentage of the total expenditure on social education was only 6.8% of total expenditure on education. Moreover the amount of the total expenditure on social education was decreasing. From these data, we can guess both of the governments and individuals tend to reduce the expenditure on adult education out of school in Japan.

### 5.3. Local governments budget for social education

We can see that almost amount of the public expenditure on social education belong to the local government, from the data of the details in Table 1 above (the expenditure of the local governments include tax revenue allocated to local governments).

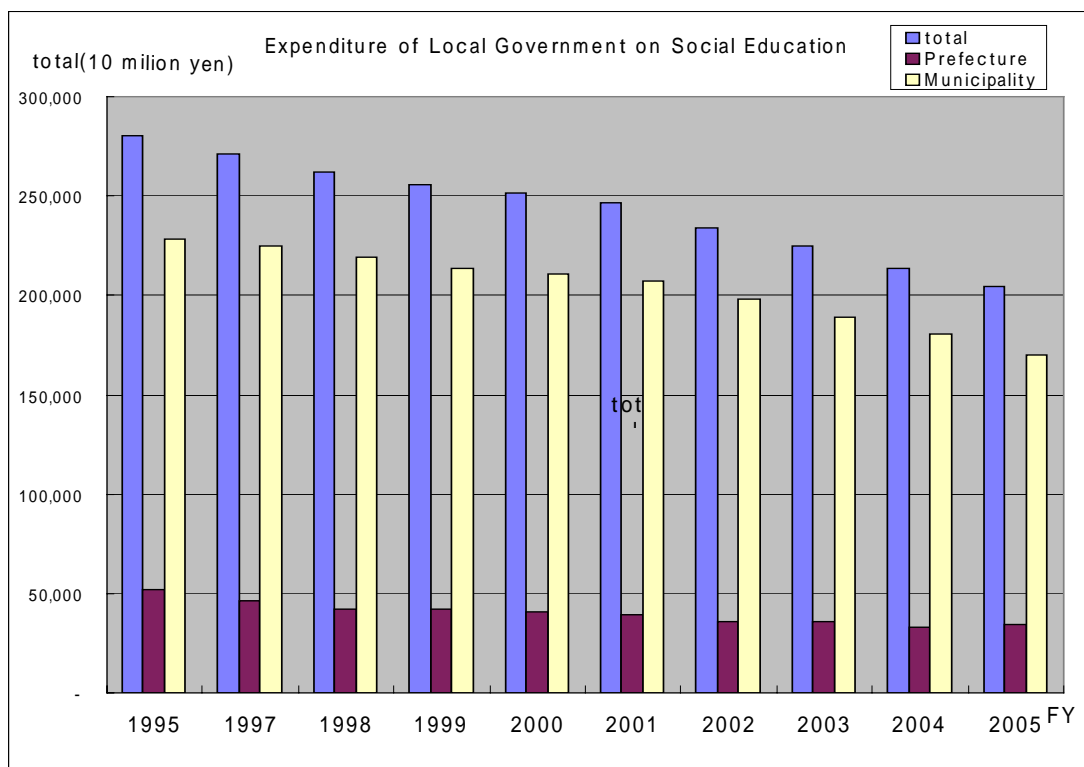
We can get the trend of the expenditure on social education of local governments in Graph 1. From this Graf, we can see the expenditure tends to decrease and especially the one of Municipality was reducing largely.

We can see also the expenditures of all the facilities of social education except Sports facilities and Youth education facilities decreased from the graph 'Year-to-year changes in social education expenses at local governments' carried on p.10 of the National report of Japan to CONFINTEA .

We will analyze each trend of these expenditures and budgets in each section of the details part as possible.

#### Graph 1 Trends in Expenditure of Local Government on Social Education

( made by Yoko Arai with data from “Statistics on Ministry of Education, Culture , Sports, Science and Technology” in 2008 )



### 6. Some other topics among changes of recent social education policies or so on

Last we will see some topics of recent social education policies to worry about and some fields we cannot deal with in the details part.

### **6.1. The strong tendency to make social education concentrate**

#### **on the support work to the schools for child**

Firs problem is that social education policies were strongly guided to concentrate on the support work to the schools for children. The trend of revisions both of Social Education Law and Fundamental Law of Education, the national government recently concentrated the social education policies on the support projects for home education and schools education for child. As responding to this, some of the local governments moved the section for adult education from their boards of education to the general part of administration structure. Some of the local governments already started to move the projects for woman to learn and the projects related culture activities from the affairs of their boards of education to the ones of the general part of administration since the 1980s. In the 1990s, the projects for woman to learn also decreased in social education policies field along with the new projects for child raising affairs by Ministry of Health and Welfare (changed to Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare after). In this trend we don't know how the support policies for home education will be carried. The projects of social education to school education for children tend to prevail as the main affairs of social education in the boards of education.

We had situated Parents and Teachers Associations (PTA) as an important social educational organization for a long time after World War . Municipalities had respected for PTA. PTA often carried the projects of family education/home education classes, which were introduced by the national government with grant, from plan to manage. A lot of mothers learned in the activities of PTA and glowed to develop social education activities in their community in the 1970s and the 1980s, whereas schools did not always support PTA activities strongly. In some recent case, the school carried a new project to connect the community activities with ruling out PTA.

We had also a variety of activities to connect social education with school education for children.

We must watch how the new policies to support school educations for child analyze and take account in their performance on one hand. On the other hand we also must watch critically that social education policies should lost diversity by concentrated to the support policy of school education because a lot of affairs of the social education section move to the general part of administration and are scatted among them.

### **6.2. Relation to the policies specific to community developments**

Another topic is the relation of social education to the community policies. From the late of 1960s the Ministry of Home Affairs started community policies when a lot of communities were changing under the urbanizing. There was a severe dispute between the idea of Community Center that was delivered by this community policies and the idea of Kominkan in the 1970s. The community policies lost the power after then.

Recent few years the Ministry of Public Management, Home Affairs, Posts and Telecommunication started new community policies together with the decentralization

policies and the discussion in Local Government Research Council. In this new policies, the government tried to make a small district structure and community autonomous organization system in the municipalities, and some municipal governments started to take this systems.

This new community policy targeted to organize small communities now started to relate to social education policies in each municipality. We must study critically how the relation has to be.

The key points in order to develop the community policies for residents should be that these policies respect the essence of social education as 'education' and situated such projects that support and develop the freedom of resident learning in their central part.

### **6.3. Relations to Social movements - labor movements, research movements on local governments, cooperation movements -**

There were some fields of social education we don't deal with in the part of Details.

For example, we could not deal with such field of labor education and union education that support the of workers from the position of workers themselves, whereas we dealt corporate education and vocational education.

We have the history of labor and union education movements since before World War . The Labor College of Tokyo and the Labor College of Osaka were established already in Taisho era in the 1920s. These colleges fostered the thoughts and culture of workers who carried each union movement and sometimes engaged in labor dispute. After World War , there were a lot of clubs for study, learning and other activities within the labor unions. There are also some active learning movements of workers such as the association of labor education and the learning movement of the labor unions of contractors now.

Some movements of local government workers started to develop the administration and their works together with resident movements by developing learning movement in each municipality, especially from the 1960s. Social education staff often carried such movements for the members of local government workers together with the other part workers. Teachers union movements also carried learning movements in the community such as 'the education meetings' and some of them developed together with the learning movements of residents in the 1970s and the 1980s. A lot of farmers' cooperative movements and a lot of cooperative movements developed with adult education practices in Japan.

Japanese Trade Union Confederation was established in 1989. It is some momentum for labor movement organizations in Japan, whereas we can see this establishment from opposite ideas, as unification or as division. After that, labor movements lost their power gradually during the 1970s and the 1980s, though we cannot easily analyze the reason of it. According to the synthesis study of 'the flash news on the result of the basic survey on trade unions' by Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, the number

of members of trade unions was up to biggest as 12,699 persons in 1998 and after this it had been decreasing until 2007. The percentage of entry has been decreasing since 1975 and was 18.1% in 2007. We cannot discuss about how this trend of weakening of labor movements has influenced on learning movements and social education movements of people during the last decade here.

However, there are some movements to continue steadily and also some new movements. For example, in some regions, local government workers movements continue or recover together with resident learning movements. The activities of the Institutions for Study on Local Bodies Problems in some regions of over this country and the continuing or recovering of the School Movements of Local Bodies are also example cases. Moreover there occur new labor movements by non regular workers in the recent worse working conditions. We must pay attention to these movements from such points of social education that how and what learning movements of people develop from these movements and how do the social education movements learn from and contribute to these movements.

Nest in the part of Details, we will analyze social education/ adult education policies and practices of each field. Each of chapter points out some challenges and introduces some promising practices as possible. Each chapter also has some recommendations for policy, practice and movement at the tale of it(although one chapter includes such recommendations inside).

We have 55 government specified statistics in Japan. Four of them are related to education and Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology manage them. 'Social Education Survey' is one of these four surveys (The title of the report document by this 'Social Education Survey' is 'The Report of Social Education Survey'). After this survey 'Social Education Survey' started on 24<sup>th</sup> in August 1855 with number 81 of government specified statistics, the government has continued this survey every three years They organized questionnaire survey process with the Prefecture Boards of Education that also organize the Municipal Boards of Education about this survey all over the country. The government also opens the results of this survey with some analyzing. It serves important and useful data for studying and making the social education policies and practices in Japan. It is very valuable tradition for that we have such stable and continuous survey on social education. It is also our challenge not only to keep this survey but also to continue to qualify the contents of it. Such work to serve the data, to open the result of survey, and to elaborate the way of presentation, analyzing and reporting by Ministry of Education, Culture , Sports, Science and Technology are also very useful work for promotion of social education.

(The sections from 2. to 6. are written and translated by JAPSE: Yoko Arai)



# Details

## **- 1 Kominkan**

**- setback of policies (decrease of the number and deterioration of the system), revaluing, and challenges of the policies and practices -**

### **1. Outline of Kominkan**

Kominkans is one of the primary institutions for social education in Japan. The Ministry of Education recommend for communities to establish Kominkan through the official letter to local governments in July 1946. Kominkans were made for people, not only to learn about democracy and be engaged in educational and cultural activities, but also to provide a place for people to meet and develop their abilities by each other in order to develop their local community by performing industrial and welfare amongst other activities. Because the norm of funding was not rigid, they could have a wide range about their size and the way of operation. The number of Kominkans established in each municipality varied. The total number of Kominkans had increased rapidly and reached to 36,406 in 1955. It was the highest number in its history (Ministry of Education, *The history of Kominkan during the past ten years*, 1958).

### **2. The present condition of Kominkan**

Kominkans have been clearly addressed in the 7<sup>th</sup> article of Fundamental Law of Education that was enacted in 1948. They have been expanding as public institutions for social education that were established and managed by the new administrative system of education in Japan, 'the Board of Education', which was established by every municipality. Public-service corporations are permitted to establish Kominkan, but the numbers established by them is small. Prefecture governments are not permitted to establish Kominkans. Therefore Kominkans have taken their roots in local communities as public institutions for adult education.

Sometimes Kominkans were supposed as community activities themselves without their own buildings and sometimes with borrowing some spaces of other existing buildings such as elementary schools or temples, so they were often called 'Kominkans with no roof but blue sky' or 'Kominkan only with a signboard' in their early ages. After the booming of consolidating towns and villages in the 1950s, the total number of them had decreased rapidly in the 1960s but with a little advance of their building conditions. The number of Kominkans was down to 13,785 by 1968.

In the 1970s they began to increase in number. In these days Kominkans usually had their own buildings and "Kominkans of the town" had also prevailed. The number of Kominkan increased. By 2005 there were 17,143 Kominkans (if we include quasi-Kominkan, the total is 18,242). This number is much larger than the number of

Junior High Schools in Japan, which was 11,035 in 2005. Because of their large number, we can call Kominkans the primary institution for social education in Japan.

35% of Kominkans had 330 ~ 700 m<sup>2</sup> floor space. The average of floor space range s from under 150 m<sup>2</sup> to over 3000 m<sup>2</sup>. Although a some buildings are bigger, there have not been many changes in the size of buildings during the last ten years ( ref. “Social Education Research Report” in 2005, published by Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan 2007 and “Statistics on Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology” in 2005).

### **3. The changes from the mid-1990s**

#### **3.1. The decrease of the number of Kominkans**

When we reflect on the trend of policy for Kominkan during the past 10 years, we can find some problems.

First the number of Kominkans has decreased. According to the table about the trend of ‘each number by types of facilities for social education’ in the government report (p.3), the total number of Kominkan including quasi-Kominkans has increased to 19,063 in 1999. But they have decreased to 18,810 in 2002、 and to 18,182 in 2005. The number of only Kominkan also has decreased from 18,257 in 1999 to 17,947 in 2002、 and to 17,143 in 2005 (This means that we lost 1,114 Kominkan from 1999 to 2005 ). Compare this with the other facilities for social education which increased even in a little except for women’s Education facilities and private sports facilities, the decrease of Kominkans which are the primary institutions for social education shows us to the deterioration of policies of social education in Japan.

##### **3.1.1. One of the reasons for the decrease in number (1)**

- **retreat of Government from national policies to support Kominkan**  
: **abolition of the budget for the granting of construction costs**

There are two ways by which the Municipal governments reduce the number of Kominkans. One is the case that when they built a new institution or a new building that should be Kominkan, they put them a deferent title and a deferent position from the Kominkan. The other case is that they change the name and position of the existed Kominkan. The latter case is often happen when they rebuilding the existing building of Kominkan or when they reforms the administrative structures of local governments.

Some municipal governments took this policy because the national government stopped to support for Kominkan recently.

There was no funding support from the national government when the Kominkan system was established just after World War , although the national government recommended to establish Kominkan. They explained that people had to built and manage their own Kominkan by themselves in each community.

But soon after, in 1950s, Ministry of Education started to subsidize the Municipality governments on building or managing expenditure for Kominkan. Although this



subsidy was changed to be restricted to only building after the revision of Social Education law in 1959, it had continued and increased a little until 1980. After 1980 this subsidy had decreased in tern but it had continued. Although the amount of subsidy for each Kominkan is not large, for example five million yen for each of 47 popular size Kominkan and eighty-five million yen for each of 19 big Kominkan in the budget for 1995, a lot of the Municipal governments were encouraged to build or rebuild Kominkans by this subsidy.

However the national government stopped this subsidy for new requests in the 1997 budget and finished it for any request at last in the 1998 one. The national government explained that they stopped this subsidy because ‘they understand that the conditions of community facilities are already enough’ (from the press release by the Ministry of Education)

### **3.1.2. One of the reasons of the decrease of the number (2)**

#### **removal of the name of “Kominkan”**

##### **by intention to violate the freedom of learning**

##### **or undervaluing of “social education”**

We could suspect that the reduction of municipalities, which we discussed in the general description part of this report, has also caused a decrease of the number of Kominkans. However the relationship is unclear since some municipalities tend to keep existing Kominkans even after consolidation. They try to use them for their community policies.

Some municipal governments sometimes prefer to change Kominkans from educational facilities to other ones as like community centers, through their originally intentions. Some municipal governments move Kominkans from their Board of Education to the other administration part out of education field even keep the name of ‘Kominkan’.

We can see similar policy trend in the 1970s when the Ministry of Home Affairs promoted community policies. However it did not influence on the total number of Kominkans because a lot of municipal governments rather increased Kominkans more than before.

But discussing the last ten years, some municipalities have dared to change Kominkans even though they have performed excellent practices of social education. These buildings are now changed to ordinary community buildings, out of education or out of the meaning of Kominkan.

For example, in 1990 Nagoya city had 16 Kominkans whose names were first ‘Social Education Centers’ and then were changed to ‘Lifelong Learning Center’, but their legal position were same as Kominkan, and their staff had performed excellent social education practices with residents in each district. In 2000 Nagoya city remove the legal position of Kominkan from them and more over changed the jurisdiction over them from the board of education to the community development departments in each

district administration structure - these departments belong 'to the general part of its administration' - , although a lot of people gathered and performed a large opposite movement.

To further example, Kitakyushu city had Kominkans that had performed also excellent practices closely related to each community. After it added to the Kominkans the name and function of 'Community Welfare Center', then there was 'the double titles problem'. So the municipality changed their name to 'Citizen Center' and moved their legal position to one belonging to the general part of its administration structure.

Another case is in Hirakata City. In 1963 the advisory committee of social education and Kominkan of this city stated the clear idea about social education in their report before. They stated the idea in short sentences like below with some explanation. 'It is the citizens that primarily and subjectively perform social education', 'People have the right to social education', 'The essence of social education is to learn the Constitution', 'Social education has to empower the autonomy of residents', 'Social education is the learning part of popular movements', 'Social education has to grow, cultivate and protect democracy' (*Social Education for All the Citizens, Social Education in Hirakata*, No.2, 1963). We called these statements the 'Thesis from Hirakata'. They encouraged people who were engaged in social education movements in 1970s all over Japan to get and state the idea of the right to social education and the freedom of learning.

New residents in Hirakata city found and learned these statements again in the early 1980s. They performed their movements to create active practices of Kominkans and requested to Hirakata city government to establish more Kominkans.

But, in 2006 Hirakata city abolished the system of Kominkan and changed the names of existing Kominkans to 'Lifelong Learning Centers'. They also changed the jurisdiction over them from its board of education to the general part of its administration, although a lot of people gathered and protested this for a few years.

About Nagoya city case, after they abolishing the Kominkan system, some national newspaper reported that Nagoya city stopped one of the lectures that was planed by one of their Lifelong Centers, after consulting with its manager. The report in the newspaper said that Nagoya city explained the reason that 'they found the speaker seemed to be opposite the position of Lifelong Learning Center, which should support the policies of this local government' ('Asahi Newspaper' in 2001).

From these cases we can see that some municipal governments abolished the Kominkan system along with such policies as to reduce the value of social education and adult education or to lead or restrict the purpose of learning of residents to something only fit to community developments. We can guess such policies also have influenced the decrease in the total number of Kominkans because we can see same trend in more other municipalities, too.

### 3.2. Deterioration of Kominkan

- Expanding the outsourcing and segmenting of the managing system
- : introducing the designated manager system
- even beyond the entrusted foundation system

Another new trend of the Kominkans during the last ten years has been the managing body. The Kominkans multiplied and kept the same name and the same legal position as before, but due to the change in management, there is the possibility that Kominkans will suffer from the deterioration of its purpose.

As mentioned in the general description part of this report, the national government has promoted the decentralization policy since the 1990s. In this policy, the national government has recommended that local governments outsource their enterprises to private sectors. By the 2003 revision of the Local Autonomy Act, the national government introduced profit organizations into the designated manager system, although profit organizations were not permitted to manage public facilities. Government requested local governments strongly to use this system in their administration. *The new guideline for administrative reform of local governments* (March 2004) requested for local governments to evaluate all existing public facilities to check the possibilities to outsource management to ‘the designated manager’ until September 2006.

**Table 1 The number of Kominkans to be outsourced to the designated manager**  
(by Yoko Arai using the data from the “Social Education Research Report” of 2005, published by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan)

	Number in the whole country	The number to be outsourced to the designated manager (including of entrusted ones)							
		計	Perfec-ture	Munici-pality	Union of community	Legal person by Article34 of the Civil Law	company	N P O	others
Kominkan	17,143	574	-	1	1	184	10	3	375
Quasi-Kominkan	1,039	98	-	-	-	59	5	1	33
total	18,182	672	-	1	1	243	15	1	408

This guideline influenced social education facilities in Japan, because they have been usually managed publicly. Therefore, some municipal governments actually introduced this ‘designated manager system’ to public social education facilities (see

Table 1). The statistics are for the fiscal year 2005 yet. The number of Kominkans that were outsourced to 'the designated manager system' is still only 574, but there is a fear that the number will increased in the future.

The idea that the designated manager system in social education facilities may have some irrational result is prevailing. When the Diet discussed about the revision of Social Education Law in May 2008, they adopted the revision but with some attendant resolutions. The first resolution stated below indicated the government needs...

'To take care enough about bad effects of introducing the designated manager, when to have staff for social education facilities like Kominkans, libraries, museums, in order to support lifelong learning of people and meet the increasing learning demand' (words underline by Yoko Arai).

### **3.3. Deterioration of the residents participating system in performing Kominkan - decrease in the number of "Kominkan Advisory Committees"**

As mentioned in the general description part of this report, when the Social Education Law was revised in 1999 together with other lots of acts and laws under the decentralization policy of Government, the regulation of resident participation system in the Social Education Law was reduced to the minimum. In this revision, the Kominkans were released from the obligation to have an Advisory Committee, although it was necessary before (Each Kominkans was already changed to be permitted to share the Advisory Committee with other Kominkans within the same municipality when the law was revised in 1959). The Advisory Committee is one of the devices of the Kominkan system to embody its founding philosophy. This philosophy is that Kominkans have to be performed along with the intention and power of their community residents.

The Central Consulting Committee for the Ministry of Education whose report prepared the 1999 revision of Social Education Law, stated about the Advisory Committee system of Kominkan not only with the 'deregulation', but almost pointing out the situation that Kominkan Advisory Committees usually didn't work well. But actually, there were such active Kominkan Advisory Committees the members of which were selected through the similar system of official election and that had their official meetings so often as over every month, performed active discussions and sometimes presented their recommendation to the Director of Kominkan including such topic as selection of the director. If the previous regulation of the obligation was rested, we would be able to utilize it to recover not only this system but also the other Advisory Committees System. Therefore it is worrisome that the resident participation in managing Kominkans should be restored by this revision.

Table 2 is about the trend of the number of from 1996. From this data, we can see the rate of establishment of Advisory Committees for Kominkans has been degreasing largely since the 1999 revision of the Social Education Low by 27.84% in 2005. Some municipal governments established another system of resident participation, but there

is no research about these cases. Although the revision has been enacted, the description on the regulation of the Advisory Committee has remained in the law as an example. Nevertheless the number of them has been decreasing. We can see such essence of Kominkans to be performed through the participation system of residents has weakened by the revision of the law.

The residents and staff for social education in some municipalities were opposed to the proposal of this revision. Therefore after the revision, people look at the ordinances of Kominkan in each municipality, whereas they would be usually revised along with that revision of law. Some municipal governments have kept existed regulations or more over strengthened the resident participation regulation (see to *Modern Approaches to the Legal System Related to Adult and Community Education, the Annual Report No.47*, published by JSSACE, in 2003).

**Table 2 Changes in the number of 'Advisory Committee for Managing Kominkans'**  
( by Yoko Arai using the data from the 1996 ~ 2005 "Social Education Research Report", published by the Ministry of Education, Culture , Sports, Science and Technology of Japan )

year	number of Kominkan (the whole country)	increase	number of founders (rate of them in municipal governments)	the number of Kominkan Advisory Committees						
				total	increase (rate of founding)	City	Town	Village	Union of communi-tiie	legal person by Article 34 of the Civil Law
1996	17,819		2,967							
1999	18,257	438	2,983 (91.7%)	7,886	(43.19%)	3,846	3,322	711	1	6
2002	17,947	-310	2,950 (91.0%)	7,154	-732 (39.86%)	3,654	2,940	556	-	4
2005	17,143	-804	2,004 (89.1%)	4,773	-2381 (27.84%)	3,305	1,297	170	-	1

the data about Kominkans managed by the designated manager is not indicated in the 2005 report, though this system started.

### 3.4. Some problems about the Standard of Establishing and Managing Kominkans

The national government enacted 'the Standard of Establishing and Managing Kominkan' in 1959, when the Social Education Law was largely revised. It was a simple standard with only 9 articles that suggested 'the width of target district', 'facilities', 'equipment', 'staff' and so on. The government also stated they only indicate the minimum standard and they wanted each municipality would be improving

conditions of Kominkans to go over the standard. After that there were a lot of discussions about how the Kominkans had to be. One excellent proposal borne from these discussions is *Looking for the New Kominkan Model* presented by some staff of the Kominkans and a researcher in the suburbs of Tokyo, so called Santama in 1973. It is called 'thesis of Santama'. It indicated the four roles of Kominkans, 'a open space for residents', 'a base for group activities', 'their own university of residents', and 'a park for creating culture'. It also indicated the seven managing principles, 'freedom and equity', 'no fees', 'to keep independent as an institution for learning and cultural activities', 'to have staff qualified about Kominkans', 'to be allocated to each community', 'to have enough and various equipments', and 'participation of residents in management'. The 'thesis of Santama' contributed to 'the Resident movements for creating Kominkan'. These movements started around the early 1970s. They requested their municipal governments to establish Kominkans and they but also presented to them how do to equip it and how to perform it. In these proposals, they also have recovered the four roles and seven principals of Kominkans in 'thesis of Santama' to the ones to be more excellent or to be more fit to each community or to each municipality.

Whereas in legal level the Standard didn't have been revised for a long time even with such a lot of discussions, it has revised twice during the last 12 years.

First in the 1998 revision, a word 'specific' was erased from the sentence 'Kominkan has specific manager and officers' in the article 5 (staff), that should indicated the importance of specific director and officer with the special knowledge for social education.

In the 2003 revision, the Standard was largely revised.

The articles about facilities and equipments were removed according to the guideline of promoting decentralization, 'changing such standards as to be fixed of quantity or to be unified into ones of wide scheme or to be more flexible'. About staff, the revised Standard no longer requested strongly Kominkans to have a specific officer qualified to social education.

But despite this direction of deregulation, a lot of new articles about contents of practices of Kominkan were inserted. First the articles that recommended such activities as 'family education', 'voluntary activities and study through experience' for youth, 'cooperation between school, family and community' were added. The article 'self-evaluation of operations' was also added. It seems to reply to the trend in the administrative reform of local governments under the decentralization policy. In tern it also seemed to introduce some new articles into the 2008 revision of the Social Education Law after. Kominkans are also encouraged to implement 'night services' according to the condition of each community. We can easily imagine that such article to widening the service time attract residents without careful consideration and it promote them to support the outsourcing of public services to private sectors.

On one hand this revision of standard has resulted to forgive not to recover the

conditions of Kominkan, but on the other hand it introduce the control of the practices and the direction of management of Kominkans by the local governments.

#### 4. Kominkan Staff or Kominkan Officer

- no improvement of the system for them

and deterioration of employment and working condition -

##### 4.1. The lack of the qualification system for Kominkan Officer

**Table 3 The number of social education staff by type of facilities**

(by Yoko Arai using data from the 2005 “Social Education Research Report in” published by the Ministry of Education, Culture , Sports, Science and Technology of Japan)

Type of facilities	Number (instructional of staff staff )	Number of facilities
total (increase from previous data)	515,619 (110,294) { 8,798 } {4,569}	97,312 { 397}
Administrative office of board of education	(in detail Director of social education 4119 { 1264} Deputy director of social education 242 { 129}	2,314 { 1,003}
Number of social education institution (total)	480,103 (105,933) { 4,586 } {5,962}	94,998 {606}
<b>Kominkan</b>	<b>52,230 (17,127)</b>	<b>17,143</b>
<b>Quasi-Kominkan</b>	<b>4,081 (678)</b>	<b>1,039</b>
Library	30,660 (13,223)	2,979
Museum	17,354 (4,296)	1,196
Quasi-Museum	27,265 (2,620)	4,418
Youth education facilities	8,251 (2,961)	1,320
Women’s Education facilities	1,209 (263)	183
Social sports facilities	10,0297 (9,599)	48,055
Private sports facilities	22,0368 (53,469)	16,780
Culture Halls	18,388 (1,697)	1,885

According to Table 3, the total number of Kominkans staff is now 52,230 in Japan. The 'instructional staff' within them is called 'Kominkan Officer' and the total number of them is now 17,127. Each of them is larger number among the staff of facilities for social education social education staff, except the staff of facilities for sports that has too much staff compared to the others. Nevertheless we don't have the qualification system for the staff of Kominkan.

We have the qualification systems for the directors and the deputy director of social education, the librarian and the deputy librarian, and the curators and the deputy curators. The number of Kominkan Officer is much larger than each one of them, but the government has taken no study for establishing the qualification system for Kominkan Officers.

This challenge has been noticed among those who are concerned to Kominkan from the early stage of the founding of Kominkan. They once carried out the movement to demand the independent law for Kominkans in order to improvement the conditions of Kominkan staff in late 1950s. But in the 1959 revision of the Social Education Law, only the word 'managers' was inserted in the sentence of the Article 27, 'Each Kominkan shall have a director and may have managers and the other necessary personnel.'

#### **4.2. The decrease of the number of Kominkan staff and the deterioration of their working conditions**

Table 4 indicates the trend of the number of Kominkan staff. From it, we can see the total number of Kominkan staff has reversed to decrease since 2002. It is same to the Quasi-Kominkan. The number of full-time managers has been decreasing consistently since 1996. The deceasing number of full-time managers of only the Kominkans from 1996 to 2005 is 1,769. In reverse, part-time staff have been increasing. The number of part-time staff increased by 2,471 from 2009 to 2005, at only the Kominkans, and if we include the data of the Quasi-Kominkan, the number increased by 3,673. The rate of part-time staff of Kominkans within the whole number of Kominkan staff is 55.97%.

The number of staff of each Kominkan is as high as before. 7,478 Kominkans don't have any staff is as large as even among ones in main position. On the other hand there are 57 Kominkans that have from 6 to 10 staff (see Table 5).

From these data we can see the poor conditions for Kominkans at the number, employment condition and quality, and the large gap of them among, that means there is the large gap to support people to learn through Kominkans among municipalities.



**Table 4 Trends in the number of Staff  
in Kominkans and Quasi-Kominkans**  
( by Yoko Arai using data from the 1996 ~ 2005 “Social Education Research Report”  
published by the Ministry of Education, Culture , Sports, Science and  
Technology of Japan )

Kominkan staff	Full-time managers	(incl.Quasi- Kominkan)	Concurrent staff	(incl.Quasi- Kominkan)	Part-time staff	(incl.Quasi- Kominkan)	total	(incl.Quasi- Kominkan)
FY1996	13,751	(14679)	11,810	(12405)	26,763	(27683)	52,324	(54,767)
Rate in total	26.28%	(26.80%)	22.57%	(22.65%)	51.15%	(50.55%)	100%	(100%)
FY1999	13,445	(14376)	12,219	(13036)	28,625	(29698)	54,289	(57,110)
Rate in total	24.77%	(25.17%)	22.51%	(22.83%)	52.73%	52.00%	100%	(100%)
Increase from 1996	306	303	409	631	1862	2015	1965	2343
FY2002	12,915	(14075)	12,148	(12946)	29,533	(30886)	54,596	(5,907)
Rate in total	23.66%	(24.31%)	22.25%	(22.36%)	54.09%	(53.34%)	100%	(100%)
Increase from last data	530	301	71	90	908	1188	307	797
Increase from 1996	836	604	338	541	2,770	3203	2,272	3140
FY2005	11,982	(13060)	11,014	(11895)	29,234	(31356)	52,230	(56,311)
Rate in total	22.94%	(23.19%)	21.09%	(21.12%)	55.97%	(55.68%)	100%	(100%)
Increase from last data	933	1,015	1134	1051	299	470	2,366	,596
Increase from data before last	1,463	1,316	1,205	,1141	609	1,658	2,059	799
Increase from 1996	1,769	1,619	796	510	2471	3,673	94	1,544

**Table 5 the Number of Kominkans by the number of staff**

( by Yoko Arai using data from the 2005 “Social Education Research Report”  
published by the Ministry of Education, Culture , Sports, Science and  
Technology of Japan )

Type by number of staff	0	1	2	3	4	5	6 ~ 10	Over 11	total
Number of Kominkan	13,639	2,271	750	256	104	57	57	9	17,143
Main Kominkan	7,478	2,206	736	247	99	57	57	9	10,889
Branch Kominkan	6,161	65	14	9	5	0	0	0	6,254

#### **4.3. Some cases of municipalities and social movements by public staff and residents for expanding and qualifying the Kominkan Officers system**

While the conditions for Kominkan staff have been unstable and its system has not been established in the national legal system, some municipal governments improved the conditions by placing professional personnel in Kominkans around the 1970s and 1980s. In some municipalities, the residents carried out the movement to request that their municipal government changed the employment condition of the part-time staff of Kominkan to full-time and professional position. In these cases there were usually qualified part-time staff who supported well the residents to learn and the residents wanted to keep such staff for their learning. Some local governments had established the professional system for Kominkans through these movements or by the effort of some excellent officer of social education. But, after 1990, such municipal governments, while the total number itself was a small, abolished the professional system for Kominkan. Moreover, the trend to change the personnel from full-time manager to part-time staff has prevailed under the trend of national policy previously mentioned.

Nevertheless some municipal governments continue to employ professional social education staff and place them at Kominkans such as Kimitsu city and Kisarazu city in Chiba prefecture. Some municipal governments continue to place their personnel at Kominkans and take into account social education such as Iida city in Nagano prefecture.

In Okayama city, the government once changed most staff from full-time to part-time in the late 1980s, but these part-time staff of Kominkan have noticed the importance both of social education and their work as Kominkan staff for the people through their own practices at Kominkan. They performed excellent practices at each Kominkan by helping each other with learning about their work even under unstable working conditions. They also actively engaged in the labor movement of public workers of Okayama city and appealed the importance of Kominkan for people widely. In result their practices and movements have made a lot of people in Okayama city understand the importance of Kominkans and brought the policy to change their working conditions from unstable as part-time to full-time and professional.

#### **5. Some cases of movements to support the Kominkan system and innovative social education practices born from Kominkans**

##### **5.1. Organizations and social movements related to Kominkans**

The National Federation of Social Education (for the information of it, see to the National Report by the government) held a national training course for Kominkans in June 1950. It brought Kominkan staff to establish their organizations in each prefecture.

After that, the National Kominkan Association for the union of these organizations was founded in November 1951. This Association has held their assembly every year

from 1952, and has published the journal *Monthly Kominkan* from 1956 which grown from their newsletter *Monthly Kominkan Report*. The movement to demand the independent law for Kominkans already mentioned, was carried by this Association. It once suffered the crisis of disintegration because its close relation with the government, the Ministry of Education got to be unstable through this movement for independent law for Kominkans. After recovering the relationship, it had continued to negotiate with the government to raise the amount of subsidies for Kominkan. It also had the specific research committee from 1965 to consider how Kominkan had to be, and the first committee made the report *How Kominkans should be and their Modern Index* in 1968.

Along with the Association, each organization of Kominkan staff in each prefecture, already mentioned, have performed their own activities. Some of them also have included the members of Advisory Committees for Kominkan and the other resident learners for their membership and they also have carried some research, research assemblies for every year, and some training programs.

These traditional organizations of Kominkan usually kept their close connection with the Ministry of Education, the Board of Educations in each Prefecture, sometimes in each Municipality, and contributed to the development of the system and practices for Kominkans. But It is worrisome that their movement power should weaken because of their financial and organizational conditions that are related to the decreased number both of Kominkans and of Kominkan Officers already mentioned.

As different movements from those organizations, some Kominkan staff and some resident learners and activists also carried the movements in order to improve the Kominkan systems. A lot of people related to the Kominkans joined in the organization of national level, such as Japan Society for the Study of Adult and Community Education (JSSACE), which was founded in 1953, and Japan Association for Promotion of Social Education, which was founded in 1963, and have performed their research or movement activities.

Moreover the Study Group for the History of Kominkans was founded in the early 1990s and they had continued their research projects on the history of Kominkans with gathering a lot of materials and existing research about the history of Kominkans in each community. The Japan Society for the Study of Kominkan, which was founded in 2003, took over the Study Group's activities.

There are also other organizations related to Kominkans to support and recover Kominkans such as 'The Citizen Group of Santama for Considering Kominkans', 'The Research Institute for Kominkans in Santama' for some municipalities, or some organizations with such names as 'the group of citizens for considering about Kominkans' in each municipality. They usually carry their own learning, research activities and movements for themselves.

We had active resident movements for creating Kominkans all over the country in 1970s, 1980s and 1990s. But, since the past half of 1990s, residents carried their

movements in order to solve setback policy problems they face such as the introduction of the user fees for Kominkan and the abolishment of the Kominkan system.

## **5.2. Social Education Practices through Kominkans**

### **5.2.1. Outline of Social Education Practices through Kominkans**

Social Education practices through Kominkans are varied and their targets are not only adults and youth but also children. Their target district is usually as narrow as public school district for elementary school or junior high school.

We have a lot of small Kominkans like the affiliated Kominkans. Some of which are indicated in the Social Education Law, but the others are not counted in 'Kominkans' legally and officially by the municipal governments, even people called them 'Kominkans' or some similar names. We usually call the latter type of Kominkan as 'hamlet Kominkans' or 'autonomous Kominkans' as general terms and we do not have any statistics about them yet. People often perform their community activities with using both of these Kominkan as their base.

On the other hand there are also other types of Kominkans that have a lot of programs and projects. Kominkan Officers plan and perform these programs and projects with community residents in order to make elaborated plans. Some residents groups are sometimes born from such programs and projects and they usually continue their activities after the programs and projects. This type of Kominkans is typical in Japan after 1970s. And contents of such programs and projects are variety.

### **5.2.2. Some Notable Cases of the Practices through Kominkan**

The practices through the Kominkans including movements for Kominkans are so varied that it is difficult to introduce the innovative practices from all of them. Therefore I will introduce some cases of notable practices which are related to the recent social problems or the problems of social education and adult education policies in Japan.

#### **5.2.2.1. The practices of social education to address the problem of changing community through Kominkans**

Iida city in Nagano prefecture had a population of 106,000 in it in 2008, and it has town districts but also has semi mountainous districts. Iida city has a lot of Kominkans. It has 21 main public Kominkans. The number is larger than the number of the elementary schools in Iida city. Some of its public main Kominkans have affiliate Kominkans. The total number of the affiliate Kominkans is 27, in 2008.

One of these main Kominkans, Kamihisakata Kominkan started a project from 1990. In this project they decided that residents in each of 13 hamlets, that constitute the district of this Kominkan district, made their own plan to encourage their own hamlets. In the one of these hamlets, eight residents were gathered, made a plan and started some activities. After they had a chance to meet the person who was engaged in

supporting homeless people in Tokyo, they developed their activities to the project to meet the homeless people by inviting them from Tokyo to their village with a few days staying at each houses of them. The staff of Kamihisakata Kominkan was at first confused when he heard the idea of this project from the group. But finally he supported them and the project succeeded. Some staff, who belonged to the other Kominkans and was also once worked as a social education director of Iida city, analyzed this case and explained its meaning. He says that the purpose of their plan was first for to get some persons who would want to live in their village. But this 'meeting' project with such people who suffered not only sever living conditions but also sever prejudice, brought the group in this hamlet to overcome their closed sentiment which is common to such semi-mountainous hamlet and encouraged them to have a hope and draw the future of their hamlet.

The Kunnepe town is a small municipality that had a population of 6,099 in 2006. It has a Kominkan. The Kominkan created a class program the titl of which is 'How to do, Kunnepe?' in accepting the request from residents. They request such class after they leaned about 'a marginal hamlet' in the program named 'Women Gathering', and also just after they experienced the collapse of the consolation plan with the next town. The participants researched, learned and discussed about the welfare and the current situation of their own town in this class, 'How to do, Kunnepe?' After the class, they continued their activities such as to learn about the budget of their town (the person, Ikko Owada, has actively lead the learning movements on local government budget from 1990 and these learning projects are now prevailed in Japan), to have some other kinds of researches, to learn for local production and local consumption, to learn how to use the ideas of the seniors in preparing traditional foods related to the culture of this town and so on. They have developed learning that empowers and enables themselves to create the positive future for their town.

Kokubunji city is situated in the suburbs of Tokyo and had a population of 117,000 in 2008. It has five public main Kominkans, and one of them is told as a model for *Looking for the New Kominkan Model* previously mentioned. Kokubunji city has increased the number of Kominkans along with the resident movements to demand for Kominkan in 1970s and 1980s. Each Kominkan has its own Advisory Committee and each of them has active discussions at the monthly meeting. Kokubunji city also had employed such persons that learned about social education in universities and wanted to work in this field, for Kominkan Officers until 1970s.

One of these Kominkan in this city, Motomachi Kominkan started a class in 1981 to consider agriculture situation in town which had been diminishing. The class was planed through some networks between the staff of this Kominkan and the researchers and activists around this town. The class had continued almost every year for around 10 years. These classes first took garbage problem, but next performed farming activities and after expanded the contents and ways of learning to include activities such as creating a land map and video in order to introduce some features of this

community and so on with several attempts in every planning year. In these processes the 'new' residents, who had come to live there after 1960s and almost of them salaried workers, and the 'old' residents, whose families had been living there for a long time and a lot of them engaged in farming, met together and made new connections between themselves, whereas there was less connection before. Also, these classes brought the other movement of residents to propose the new building plan of the city with the connection of ecological challenges and support of farming. In 1990, after the staff who had taken part this practice, moved from Motomach Kominkan to Hikari Kominkan, Motomachi Kominkan continued some similar classes. They targeted to use the brushes rested in their district for resident recreation activities in the nature. Hikari Kominkan then started also similar classes, but this time to learn the geographical features of the city. The participants of these classes had gathered some data that might be useful for developing the building plan of the city through research.

These practices are only few of a huge number and variety of practices all over our country. Moreover I could introduce only part of these practices above, whereas each of them holds more valuable contents and ideas. From only these small examples, we can see the processes for people to unfold and develop their learning in order to grasp the reality of their living conditions and create their future by facing the challenges that local communities suffer through huge changes in recent Japan. We can see also that Kominkans and their staff support these varied learning processes of residents by serving the place where residents meet each other or gather, by accepting learning requests from residents and encouraging them to learn and develop their activities.

#### **5.2.2.2. The practices to persist in keeping the Kominkan system under the policies to outsource or abolish Kominkans**

As already mentioned, the recent rapid trend of outsourcing of Kominkans is itself very problematic. Under such policies, some active personnel and residents try to make the best of the Kominkan system with its facilities and operations in some municipalities.

Nara city in Nara prefecture, which had a population of 369,000 in 2008, has 24 Kominkans including 'Lifelong Learning Centers' and 28 affiliated Kominkans. This city established the third sector, the Nara City Lifelong Learning Foundation in 2001. Nara city outsourced all the Kominkans to this foundation while there was a large resident opposition movement against this outsourcing. The Foundation hired a lot of persons who had qualification for Social Education Directors as their own staff for Kominkan through the open examination. Therefore, a lot of active staff gathered and they have developed their social education practices in each Kominkan.

But the city introduced the designated manager system to Kominkans in 2005, and the Foundation itself would have to enter an open bid. Therefore the Foundation has to reduce its managing expenditure and adapted restricted conditions severely over the practices and the working conditions of staff (the allocation of staff etc) in preparing for

a bid. The Foundation staff has made their own union to develop their practices of social education and to be more qualified under this situation. This case is worth a look at for the new movement away from entrusted organizations of Kominkans (We can see the similar case in Hiroshima city in Hiroshima prefecture at the problem of outsourcing Kominkans to a Foundation. Those who were hired for proper staff of the Foundation for profession, develop their practices actively but they also suffered difficulties under the introduction of the designated manager system with their Foundation itself.

Some resident groups applied to be entrusted to manage Kominkans when their municipal governments started to introduce the outsourcing policy for Kominkans. Maibara city, which had a population of 41,000 in 2005, decided to introduce the designated manager system to its Kominkans. One youth group in it applied to be a designated manager. They were actually entrusted and started to manage one Kominkan. They try to adopt some excellent ideas and theories of social education that they learned from a lot of previous practices and researches all over the country and also to explore their practices for themselves.

Akabira city, which has a population of 13,000 in 2009, has a group called 'the Center for Supporting Civic Activities in Acabira'. This NPO (non profit organization) had been entrusted to manage the main Kominkan from 2003. When the city introduced the designated manager system to Kominkan, they also got to be it and had continued to manage the same Kominkan from 2005. But the city soon met severe financial crisis and decided to give up keeping the main Kominkan. But the group didn't give up. They decided to keep the same Kominkan but with moving from the big but old building they used before to the other building that they were looking for and at last found for no rent fee. They named the new Kominkan 'Machinaka Kominkan' (Machinaka in Japanese means 'the middle of town'). This is so called a private Kominkan apart from public official position. While the city has supported to them with small grant for their social education programs, they have carried their activities including other community activities through their Kominkan by their voluntary work with earning some funds for themselves. They have tried to develop their practices with connecting variety movements of citizens in their community such as the courses to looking for the ways to create active communities by citizens themselves with looking at the finance crisis of their city, some projects to revive their traditional cultures and so on.

These cases mentioned above are ones of the practices that confirm, keep and develop the values of Kominkans for local community. We can also see them such practices as to keep and explore the Kominkan system under the crisis it has faced during the last ten years in Japan.

## **[ Recommendations ]**

Kominkan, that is elaborated and has firmly rooted in its community, can cultivate diverse learning, cultural and sports activities that support people to develop their own local communities by themselves through their own will. Understanding this, we recommend these agenda.

### **1. To promote to settle Kominkan in every local community and to keep it even at the time of rebuilding**

In order for Municipal governments to be able to allocate Kominkan with the respected size and number for everyday life of people in each local community

(1) For the national government to make a budget to financially support municipal governments in order to establish and keep well their Kominkans.

(2) For prefecture governments also to make a budget to financially support municipal governments in order to establish and keep well their Kominkans.

(3) For municipal governments to keep Kominkans as institution for adult education, to make enough budget for Kominkans to be able to perform practices only for empowering residents, and to make and keep the system for protecting the freedom of residents' learning.

### **2. To allocate Specific officer with qualified ability for social education to each Kominkan**

(1) For the national government to establish the national qualification system of Kominkan Officers.

Kominkans need such qualified staff that understand both of the essence of social education and the functions of Kominkan, and have actual abilities to be able to perform practices through their Kominkans in accordance with the own challenges of the residents in their local communities.

So as to enable Kominkan to have such staff, we ask the national government to establish the national qualification system of Kominkan Officers with such qualified abilities.

If we have such qualification, we can apply it to the staff of other similar facilities usefully, because we have had a lot of profound experiences of social education practices through Kominkans for a long time in Japan. It should be the better policy to make the specific staff qualification system for Kominkan than the other one for social education facilities in general, because in that, we can make it better of our own experiences in our history of social education in Japan.

(2) For municipal governments to work hard to allocate the highly motivated staff with respected abilities to Kominkans and to let them to work at Kominkans for a long time in order to make the best of their own experiences.

(3) For municipal governments, prefecture governments and the national government, each of them to make such policies to support Kominkan staff groups to



have their self-designed training courses for themselves so as to develop their motivations and abilities. These policies are to send Kominkan staff to some training course in accordance with their requests, to support them to make and perform some training course by themselves independently, and so on.

### **3. To make budget for financial support for allocating Kominkan Officers**

For the national government to make budget to finally support for municipal governments to allocate Kominkan Officers to each Kominkan.

### **4. To promote democratic management of Kominkan**

(1) For the national government to declare and make some regulation in basic level for the importance of residents participation in the management of Kominkans in order that Kominkan should empower residents and should be managed through using varied abilities of residents, by re-revision of Social Education law, the Standard of Kominkans or other regal ways.

For example, it is to re-change Advisory Committee system for Kominkans to one Kominkans must have, and develop the regulations about the members of Advisory Committee for more democratic ones by introducing the clearer idear for resident participation.

(2) For municipal governments to keep Kominkans as an educational institution and independent from political control from outside, with understanding that Kominkans can contribute to the development of local community and support policies of governments only when they can support and promote independent learning of residents including the learning to research, analyze and discuss about the policies themselves critically.

### **5. To develop practices of social education through the partnership of residents and Kominkan Officers**

For community residents and Kominkan Officers to develop learning free from the fear to make tensions between or amongst them in both processes of learning and actions, and also from the wide view beyond their community, by making the best of the place and operations of Kominkans.

(Written and translated by JAPSE: Yoko Arai)

## **- 2 Public Libraries of Modern Japan**

### **Changes in the Policies, Legal system, and Service and their Issues**

#### **1. Situation of the Public Libraries**

Ever since the 1990s, the public libraries of Japan have been subject to severe changes and dilemmas. Neoliberal change and administrative measures were introduced to the municipal administration amidst a background of worsening national and local government budgets. As a result, large administrative budget cuts, outsourcing of work, reduction of staff headcount, conversion to non-permanent employment, etc. were introduced to public libraries. These led to rapid deterioration of the commonality and professionalism of Japan's public libraries. However, on the other hand, there was an increase in demand for libraries, on both a qualitative and quantitative scale, by the local residents who are the users, thus severely deepening the conflict with the neoliberal policies. This report looks into the qualitative and quantitative changes in Japan's public libraries after the 1990s, and the changes in library policies, library law, and library services, to shed light on the current state of affairs and issues.

#### **2. Statistical Changes of Public Libraries in and after the 1990s**

##### **2.1. Number of Libraries, Circulation Numbers, Changes to Materials Expenses**

According to Table 1, the number of public libraries increased 2.4 times from 1,290 libraries to 3,091 libraries between 1980 and 2007. A constant increase of 60 to 70 libraries was achieved every year. Looking at the municipal-established group, there was an exceptional increase in the number of libraries established in towns and villages. Despite the negative impact from the abolishment of subsidies for the construction of public libraries in 1998, it was observed that the municipal bodies remained undeterred in maintaining public library facilities. Public libraries benefited from the shift of fiscal investment to public works to deal with the recession after the burst of the Economic Bubble during the 1990s; this and the presence of strong demand by local residents for libraries can be considered as important factors in promoting the construction of public libraries.

< Table 1 > Number of Public Libraries (1980–2007)

	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2007
Total	1,290	1,601	1,898	2,270	2,613	2,931	3,091
( Index )	100	124	147	176	203	227	240
Established by Prefecture	72	71	67	67	66	62	62
( Index )	100	99	93	93	92	86	82
Established by City	878	1,106	1,296	1,467	1,574	2,042	2,416
( Index )	100	126	148	167	179	232	275
Established by Town and Village	340	424	535	736	973	829	613
( Index )	100	125	157	216	286	244	180

Source: Tables 1 to 5 are derived from *Japan's Libraries* published in the respective years. In addition, the “established by town” category consists of libraries established by wide area municipal circles.

If we look at the degree of usage of public libraries, according to Table 2, it can be seen that the circulation numbers between 1980 and 2007 increased 5.1 times and this by far exceeds the rate of increase in the number of public libraries during the same period. The extremely strong demand for local libraries can be seen from this. Nevertheless, at the same time, we should be aware of the great change in the proportion of the circulation of children's books with respect to general books. As shown in Table 3, more than half of the circulation numbers up to 1980 in town and village libraries near residents comprised children books, but this proportion faced a rapid decline after the 1980s to 27.4% by 2007. In other words, there was a large shift in the proportion of public library users from mainly children and housewives in the 1980s. Currently, 70% of library users are adults. This is an important change in view of the situation of public libraries in the future.

< Table 2 > Estimated Circulation Numbers for Public Libraries (1980–2007)

	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2007
Circulation Numbers	128,115	217,052	262,709	395,593	523,341	616,838	654,693
(Index)	100	169	205	309	408	481	511

(Unit: 1000 books)

< Table 3 > Estimated Proportion of Circulation of Children Books for Town and Village Libraries (1980–2006)

	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2004	2006
Proportion ( % )	52	44	38	31	27.3	28.2	27.4

Looking next at library materials expenses in Table 4, the total materials expenses in the 1990s increased smoothly but started to decline from about the year 2000 onward. There was a significant decrease especially in the materials expenses per library from 1995 onward, and in 2007, it fell below the level in 1985. As a result, similar to the materials expenses, the number of books introduced per year per library displayed a downward trend from 1995 onward and in the year 2007 it fell below the levels in 1980. The materials expenses and the number of books introduced per year greatly affected not only the quantity of library materials but also the quality. Thus, a contradiction with the users' demands is rapidly growing.

< Table 4 > Estimated figures for the materials expenses and number of books introduced per year in public libraries (1980–2007)

	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2007
Total materials expenses (million Yen)	10,382	16,154	24,560	32,670	34,492	30,678	29,447
Materials expenses per library (thousand Yen)	8,049	10,090	12,940	14,392	13,200	10,467	9,533
No. of books introduced per year	6,525	6,948	7,651	8,344	7,385	7,128	5,846 per library

## 2.2. Changes to the Library Staff Headcount and Structure

Considerable changes occurred in the structure of library staff.

As seen from Table 5, the number of regular full-time staff increased proportionately with the number of libraries up till 1990, and after the mid 1990s the number levelled out and then started declining. In contrast, the number of temporary/part-time non-regular staff was 1040 in 1980, but rapidly increased after 1990 and in the year 2007; the figure exceeded the number of regular full-time staff at 14,240.6. This was 13.7 times the figure in 1980.

In 1980, there were 7.04 regular full-time staff per library, but this decreased during the mid 1990s. In 2007, it became 4.36 which was a 2.7 headcount fewer than the year 1980. The temporary/part-time staff headcount was 0.80 per library in 1980, and became 4.60 in 2007, which exceeded the reduced number of regular full-time staff. This is especially so for village libraries where the proportion of non-regular staff reached 61.1%. Furthermore, as a result of the introduction of outsourcing of library duties at the beginning of the 1990s, the number of contract/temporary staff employed by private companies (organizations) increased dramatically, exceeding 4000 people in 2007.

The following matters could be identified from the earlier points. Substantial policy changes were implemented whereby in the 1980s there was a great jump in the number of libraries and usage, hence the increase in the employment of regular

full-time staff was the primary means to cope with this. However in the 1990s, the increase in the employment of regular full-time staff was suppressed as much as possible and increasing the employment of temporary/part-time staff was a means to cope with the inadequacy. Then, upon entering the new millennium, it was observed that the number of regular full-time staff began to be reduced instead of being suppressed; and an increase in temporary/part-time staff, or the outsourcing of library duties, was introduced as a countermeasure. The current situation is such that public libraries operate with great dependence on non-regular staff or temporary/part-time staff.

< Table 5 > Estimated number of Public Library Staff (1980–2007)

	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2007
Regular Full-time Staff	9,083	11,369	13,255	14,997	15,175	14,206	13,489
Part-time/Contract Staff	1,040	1,748	2,888	6,342	9,859	13,257	14,240.6
Contract/Temporary Staff	-	-	-	-	-	2,360.4	4,247.5

Survey of Contract/Temporary Staff commenced from the year 2003.

### 3. Library Policies from the 1990s Period onward and the Various Consequences

#### 3.1. Neoliberal Policy and the Library

Ever since the mid 1990s, Japan has had to confront issues of economic globalization, appeals for international contributions, the dawn of a low birthrate and aging society, and national and regional budget crises; thus “structural reform” policies were implemented. Neoliberalist New Public Management (NPM), in line with the phrase, “from the government to the people,” was implemented through streamlining of administration, privatization of administrative services, and relaxation of regulations.

This has to date had a great impact on the state of public libraries. The public libraries’ establishment subsidy, which is the subsidy of the country, was abolished in 1998. Large cuts in library materials expenses, the decrease in the headcount of regular full-time staff, and conversion of the manpower to non-regular employment were measures adopted even by local governments. Outsourcing of administrative work was also fervently promoted. In the year 1999, the “Law for the Active Usage of Private Funds for Promoting the Maintenance etc. of Public Facilities etc.” (PFI Law) that allows the delegation of tasks from construction to management of public facilities to private companies, was enacted. Based on this law, the first library established under the PFI style in our country was opened in October 2004 (in Kuwana City). In 2003, the Local Government Act was amended and the “Appointed Administrative System” was newly enacted. This is a system that allows for the complete delegation of

the task of managing public libraries to private organizations, inclusive of profit-making companies, in order to improve library services and reduce operational costs. Currently, nearly all the local government bodies are studying the introduction of the Appointed Administrative System to public facilities.

According to the survey by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, the adoption of the Appointed Administrative System according to Table 6 was remarkable for museums and cultural centers, whereas its introduction to public libraries was a mere 1.8%. In addition, according to a survey by the Japan Libraries Association (in the year 2006), it was observed that there were 340 local government bodies that went as far as declaring that they would not adopt the Appointed Administrative System. However, with the introduction of the Competitive Bidding System based on the Public Service Efficiency Law (Market Testing Law) by the government, the introduction of market mechanism to administrative operations and privatization of administrative services were strongly promoted, thus it is feared that public libraries may face stronger pressures to adopt the Appointed Administrative System in the future.

< Table 6 > Adoption of the Appointed Administrative System by Social Education Facilities/Cultural Centers (As at 1<sup>st</sup> Oct 2005 )

Center	Library	Community Center	Museum	Museum-type Facilities	Cultural
No. of facilities (Public)	2,958	18,172	667	3,356	1,749
No. of facilities that adopted	54	672	93	559	626
Percentage (%)	1.8	3.7	13.9	16.7	35.8

Source: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology 2005, *Mid-Year Social Education Survey Report*

### 3.2. Worsening of Commonality and Professionalism of Libraries

As a result of such library policies, materials expenses were significantly cut and, due to the decrease in the number of books brought in each year, the quantity and quality of the collections started to fall. For example, in the case of Tokyo Metropolitan Library, the materials expense of 407.8 million Yen in 1990 was cut down by 55% to 185.03 million Yen in 2005. As a result, the number of collected materials fell steeply and it is feared that the range and variety of the collection will be reduced as well. In addition, from the perspective of materials storage, this will result in a restriction of cooperative circulation to the town and village libraries which will have a negative impact on library services in towns and villages.

The fall in the quality of the library workforce is also a significant problem. As we observed earlier, the public library workforce has been moving rapidly toward

non-regular employment since the mid 1990s. Many non-regular staff are employed with low wages and under insecure working conditions. Currently, with the introduction of the PFI and Appointed Administrative System, etc., there is a large increase in the number of non-regular library staff employed under short-term/low pay conditions by private profit-making firms or organizations. These non-regular library staff working under such conditions do not have sufficient guarantee for appropriate specialization or development of skills for their jobs, thus the job turnover rate is high. Moreover, since this is short-term employment, it is difficult to execute work with long-term objectives and also to build appropriate morale. Thus the increase in the number of such staff lowers the quality of the library workforce and is set to become an obstruction factor to the professionalism of library services and their continuous development.

Moreover, it is feared that due to outsourcing, the pulling out of the local governmental library administration from the service implementation department (frontline) may mean a loss of professionalism in executing library services and loss of power in the ability to project and plan, as well as the ability to supervise and evaluate outsourcing, resulting in a worsening of the administration.

On the other hand, since a specialist system is not established in Japanese public libraries, all the regular full-time staff do not necessarily have specialist qualifications (librarian qualifications). Furthermore, in many of the local governing bodies, the library staff, like the employees in other divisions, follow the tradition of transferring to divisions outside the library after several years of service; hence there is no system for one to specially take charge of library operations for a lengthy period of time. In this way, both regular and non-regular library staff are in a situation where they lack the incentive to specialize, thus the professionalism and commonality of public libraries cannot help but decline rapidly.

#### **4. Transformation of the Library Law**

##### **4.1. Changes to the Library Law in and after the 1990s**

Deeply related to the development of neoliberal policies, this period was characterized by significant changes in library law. As already mentioned, the enactment of the PFI Law (in 1999) and the revision of local government law led to the establishment of the Appointed Administrative System (in 2003), and thus, the commonality of public libraries was changed by forces outside of the Library Law.

With the revision of the Library Law in 1999, the clause pertaining to the minimum level of subsidy from the nation was removed; the clause pertaining to librarian qualifications of the head of public libraries was removed; and the makeup of the committee members for the Japan Library Association was relaxed in the name of relaxation of regulations. In addition, though changes to the clauses were not made to the principle of free usage of public libraries stipulated in Article 17 of the

Library Law, a tolerant stance was adopted in the interpretation toward a fee-based system for the use of the internet and fee-based databases. The shunning away of the government from the duty of maintaining its regulations, the disregard for the library administrative principles by professionals, the relaxing of the principle of free usage etc., were the kind of “reforms” that can result in the regression of library services.

#### **4.2 Amendment to the Fundamental Law of Education and the 2008 Amendment of the Library Law**

In December 2006, the Fundamental Law for Education was amended and in June 2008, laws relating to social education such as the Social Education Law, Library Law, Museum Law, etc. were amended. The main changes to the Library Law are listed as follows:

In “Library Activities” of Article 3, matters pertaining to playing a part in promoting home education, and providing opportunities to make best use of learning in social education were added. In addition, “electronic records” were added to library materials.

Pertaining to the nurturing and training of librarians, the nurturing of librarians was changed to be carried out mainly in universities, instead of the conventional librarian training. The duty of implementing librarian training is imposed by the nation on city and prefecture governments.

The “Desirable Standards for the Establishment and Management of Libraries” was to be applied to private libraries. Moreover, the Standards also required an evaluation of the management status of both public and private libraries, implementation of improvement measures, and proactive provision of information pertaining to the management status to be carried out.

“Organizer of Activities to Promote Home Education” was added to the member election framework of the Japan Library Association.

Two factors can be seen in this reform. Firstly, it is a revision of the clause that goes in line with the motive to revise the Fundamental Law for Education. This involves an emphasis on the role of libraries with regard to “promoting home education,” requirement to provide opportunities to make the best use of learning in social education, and changing the principle of non-intervention in private libraries; the “Desirable Standards for the Establishment and Management of Libraries” and implementation of library evaluation etc. are applied even to private libraries, with



increasing involvement by the educational administration.

Secondly, it is a reform to align societal changes with the demands of the library authorities. This refers to the inclusion of “electronic records” to library materials, changing the training style so that the university becomes the main method of nurturing librarians, implementation of training for librarians, and implementation of library evaluation, etc. Although it was feared that national intervention in the education objectives and the strengthening of the education administrative authority would take place due to the revision of the Fundamental Law for Education, we currently do not see any strong or direct influence on the Library Law reforms. However, we should observe how these reforms can affect the way library services are going to change in the future.

## **5. Development of Library Service**

### **5.1. Service for the Disabled**

Despite the existence of difficult situations surrounding library policies and laws, the development of the following new library services are currently encouraged.

It can be said that the start of a nationwide development of service for the disabled in public libraries in Japan started only in the 1970s. Following that, from the latter half of the 1980s onward, the “service for the disabled” targeting the physically disabled was widened to include the mentally and physically disabled, and it has now broadened its perspective to become a “service to all the disabled persons in the use of the library.” The targeted groups considered are namely 1) mentally and physically disabled; 2) hospitalized persons; 3) foreigners staying in Japan; 4) illiterate persons ; 5) persons from reform facilities such as prisons; and 6) elderly persons .

From the statistical figures, according to the survey done by the Japan Library Association Service for the Disabled Committee in 2005, among the 2843 libraries that responded to the survey, 676 libraries (23.8%) provided services to people with visual disability, 512 libraries (18.0%) have services for people with hearing disability, and 940 libraries (33.1%) have services for people with physical disabilities, etc.

In recent years, there has been a visible trend of 1) the development of ICT technology that improves reading conditions especially for those people with visual disabilities, and 2) the launch of initiatives for those with hearing disability, intellectual disability, dyslexia, etc., which tended to lag behind up to now. Pertaining to 1), the DAISY (Digital Accessible Information System) is replacing the audio tape recorded books that were formerly used . The characteristics of DAISY are a) that it allows jumping to any page from the table of contents via random access; b) compared to audio tapes, it does not take up space and the deterioration of the information seems relatively lower; c) contact via Braille display or touch panel etc. is possible. It has characteristics that allow for changes to be made to the reading speed, size of

characters, and background contrast etc.

Pertaining to point 2 above, it is clear that, based on the multimedia DAISY characteristics in a, b, and c, the possibility of synchronizing words and images makes it a medium that is easy for use by all kinds of disabled people. Moreover, in the area of print media books, the publication and circulation of a kind of easily readable book called “LL Book” are being carried out.

Among future issues, the more urgent ones are the problem of nurturing people for transliteration, and how to hand over audio materials preserved in audio tapes amidst the widespread use of DAISY.

## **5.2. Multicultural Service**

In Japan, library services that cater for ethnic, linguistic, and cultural minorities (minority residents) are generally known as “multicultural services.” Today, the above-mentioned services are considered among the categories listed in the “service to all disabled persons in the use of the library.” This is a characteristic service provided by Japanese libraries in recent years, thus in view of its increasing necessity, one section shall be devoted to reporting on this issue. In Japan, services for minority residents as their target came to be clearly noticed only from the latter half of the 1980s, and there have been rapid developments of such services in various regions since that period. In the 1986 International Federation of Library Associations Tokyo Conference, it was pointed out that public libraries in Japan were lacking in such kinds of services, thus a resolution was made to bring about the development of such services and it became a great opportunity to let the concept of a multicultural service in libraries be widely accepted. Then, implementation started in the year 1988, with the Osaka City Ikuno Library’s “South Korea/ North Korea Books Corner,” and ever since, substantial numbers of multicultural services have sprouted up in Japan’s public libraries. Since the 1990s, the population of foreigners in Japan has increased rapidly, hence it will become a noteworthy service in the future.

Based on the statistics, even though the figures are a bit old, according to the “Japan’s Libraries” collateral survey conducted by the Japan Library Association, in the year 2002, there were 268 public libraries (10.0%) that had more than 1001 foreign language books in their collection and 334 libraries (12.4%) had created special corners (for foreign languages).

## **5.3. Problem Solving Service**

Up till now, the libraries of Japan have emphasized library services provided to children and a library materials circulation service. This gave rise to the rapid increase in circulation numbers as seen in Table 2. However, in recent years, accompanied by the changes in the structure of library users and society, there is a shift in emphasis toward a problem solving service to cater to the information needs of the

proportionately higher number of adult users, as seen in Table 3. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology has also positioned their library policies in the articles *Library as a Regional Information Hub: Aspiring to become a Problem Solving Library* (2005) and *Image of the Library from now* (2006).

A problem solving library service is a phrase that arises when we consider the type of library service provided to solve the issues faced by residents in their daily lives or regional issues. Business support services that provide relevant information to the user's work (or business), and also legal information services and medical information services that provide information for legal or medical questions are examples. There are many seminars held by libraries to encourage users to make use of the database search. Many libraries in the city and prefecture, as well as town and village libraries are also providing problem solving services and education for the user's use.

The idea of libraries providing users with information needed in their daily lives did not begin only in the twenty-first century. Already in the year 1957, the then Head of Administration for the Japan Library Association, Mr. Takashi Ariyama talked on information service—that is, the fundamental function of libraries, to provide materials to meet the needs of users. He stressed the importance of libraries providing various materials, such as current affairs and recreation materials, materials for education and knowledge, materials for study, materials relevant to lifestyle and work, and also various kinds of other materials (*Topic on Public Libraries in the Regional Society of the Education Newsletter*, October 1957).

Whether it is providing business, medical, or legal information, such information relates fundamentally to the daily lives of people, thus it must be deemed with importance from the viewpoint of respecting QOL (Quality of Life). For public libraries to develop further in the region, through strict evaluation of results of past library activities, services that can match the users' information needs with the region's characteristics should be developed, and activities to support a regional library network would be needed.

## **[ Recommendations ] Future Challenge and Suggestions**

The changes and analysis of the current situation of public libraries since the 1990s have been examined from four perspectives, namely the changes in the quantity and quality of libraries, library policies, library laws, and the development of library services. This led to the conclusion that, from the quantitative viewpoint, the library has successfully reached out to the masses with increasing library usage. Libraries are also actively trying out different types of services such as a service for the disabled, a multicultural service, a problem solving service, and so on. However, they are not sufficiently equipped with the material expenses or staff numbers to maintain the

quality of such library services, resulting in a decline in their quality and quantity, and they face a practical, difficult dilemma in which they cannot fulfill their public duty to ensure the people's right to knowledge.

In this aspect, the maintaining of conditions to ensure the commonality and professionalism of public libraries in this harsh public financial environment will be the biggest future issue. And in tackling this issue, the way library staff protect the commonality and professionalism bears an important meaning. In the budgetary perspective, where there is no choice but to control and cut down the number of staff, it is necessary for libraries not to continue the current method of employing staff who have low levels of professionalism or proficiency, but instead, to employ staff with professional qualifications who are highly proficient so as to enhance the work competency of employees and achieve cost cutting. Thus it is necessary for the librarian system to be established immediately. Also, although the current circumstances are such that it is inevitable to employ a certain number of non-regular staff, the poor working conditions of non-regular staff should be improved and it is also necessary to provide incentives to promote their professionalism and proficiency.

To improve the commonality of public libraries, libraries should not lack the means to deal with the surrounding societal changes. For example, the proportion of adult users of public libraries is currently increasing rapidly and thus their demand for material information will become increasingly diversified and sophisticated. To meet such demands, high quality service is required. Furthermore, it is also necessary to respond to the issues brought about by the rapidly aging society. It is necessary to re-evaluate the current status of aged people as the weak members of society and instead treat them as an age group or societal group with vitality and possibilities and then evaluate the way services should be provided to them. Furthermore, it is necessary to evaluate the way library services can play a part in responding to the increase in resident activities in recent years.

Public library services and administration must overcome deep-rooted bureaucratism. In order to deal with constant societal changes, engage in continuous improvements, and stay relevant, it is necessary for the Japan Library Association and other participating citizen organizations to be active, to be open to the citizens with regard to library information, and to assure the citizens a place to give their feedback. The commonality of public libraries can be recovered only through citizen checks. It is necessary to persevere in order to solve all these issues.

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**- 3 Museums ( Hakubutsukan )**

**- An outline of “Public-oriented and Self-governed Museums”  
and the recent tendency on Japanese Museum Policies -**

Since 1970s, the theory of “Public-oriented and Self-governed Museums”<sup>(1)</sup> has been discussed and studied completely as well as the grass-roots, voluntary and self-governed social education activities at public halls (kominkan) and public libraries (koukyo toshokan) have been carried out actively. For instance, we, the members of the workshop of museums <sup>(2)</sup> have not only accumulated the mutual organic exchanges with the societies studying the issues of public halls, public libraries and museums but also dealt with the theory of “Public-oriented and Self-governed Museums” as a theoretical clue which can overcome the essential problems in the Japanese museum policies.

Firstly, we have appreciated and discussed the fact that the residents had established the self-governed museums. In particular, we have been sure that it has been important that the residents themselves have studied how they could carry out the self-governed and democratic operations at social education institutions including museums, and they have proposed what kind of activities they could create there. Secondly, we have reconsidered how the educational activities at museums should be. We have considered what social education would be like that would not just help the visitors or users of museums to see and experience the museum materials.

However, since especially 1990s, the Japanese museums have been forced to leave the perspectives of civil rights<sup>(3)</sup> that the residents had purchased after World War , because the Japanese government has urged the museums to adapt themselves to “the postmodern, consumptive and neo-liberalistic logic the government and many managers have faith in”<sup>(4)</sup>. And it has caused many social education institutions to assume the neo-liberalistic figure.

Nevertheless, creating the grass-roots and self-governed “peace museums” has recently been so active that the number of them has been the highest in the world. That is why they have been appreciated to some extent all over the world. In this context, in 1998 and 2008, The International Conference of Museums for Peace was held in Japan.

## Notes

- (1) The theory of “Public-oriented and Self-governed Museums” (“Chiiki-Shikougata Hakubutsukan” in Japanese) was proposed by Toshiro Ito (1947-1991). He had been a scholar of museum studies who had mentioned the historical and sociological characteristics of museums in Japan.
- (2) The workshop of museums was set up at the 14<sup>th</sup> National Conference for Study on Social Education (Nagoya) in 1974.
- (3) The “Gakugeiin” labor is also included in the perspectives of civil rights. “Gakugeiin” means a special public servant of the arts and sciences who is concerned with social education.
- (4) See Yasuhiro Inuzuka (2002) “Another figure Museums have towered (Kitsuritsu-suru ibou-no-Hakubutsukan) -The National Central Museums of Manchou-kuo- ”, *Kan: History, Environment, Civilization* Vol.10, Fujiwara-Press, Tokyo, pp225-231. This paper seems to suggest that the museums have to encourage ourselves to be aware that we tend to be controlled by colonialism.

\* This report was written in cooperation with the permanent fellows at the workshop of museums in the National Conference for Study on Social Education.

(JAPSE : Kiwamu Kuriyama, supported by Yasuhito Tai in translation.)

## - 4 Education, Employment and Staff Development of Social Education Staffs

### Proposals Based on JASSDACE's Researches

The Japan Society for the Staff Development of Adult and Community Education (JASSDACE, Shayokyo) conducted continuous discussions since its establishment about the education, employment and staff development (SD) of social education staffs at such forums as research conventions and regular study meetings, and summed up the results of discussions in the annual publication, *Shakai kyoiku shokuin kenkyuu* (Social Education Staff Research). During the three years from 1997 in particular, JASSDACE made all-out efforts to cooperate in the following research project:

- "Comprehensive Research on the Education of Lifelong Education Staffs" "Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research" for FY1977-1999 by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) (research leader:Hiroki Otsuki, hereinafter referred to as "grants-supported research").

The research outcome was published as follow:

- Otsuki H. (ed.) *Comprehensive Research on the Education of Lifelong Education Staffs*, 2000 (research outcome).
- Otsuki H.(ed.) *Vision for Lifelong Education Staffs in the 21st Century: Comprehensive Research on their Education, Employment and ta*, 2002, Taga Shuppan (final report).

In this research project, we carried out a survey of universities with social education director courses, intensive education programs for social education director and correspondence courses, as well as a fact-finding survey of all municipalities in the nation on the positioning and SD of social education staffs. The surveys were carried out in 1998.

This section is based on the data taken from the above-mentioned research, particularly "Vision for Lifelong Education Staffs in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century: Comprehensive Research on their Education, Employment and SD" (hereinafter referred to "the Report"). Since the Report is so voluminous, however, the section is newly written to meet its objective of this section, i.e. the institutionalization of social education staffs in Japan, while using data contained in the Report.

Note: Wards that appear in the following descriptions mean the 23 special wards in Tokyo. Associations principally signify cases where multiple small local governments organize joint boards of education.

As a result of the mergers of municipalities carried out in the 2000s, the number of

such municipalities decreased from about 3,300 to 1,781 as of the end of January 2009, but this section is written basically using the research data gathered prior to the mergers of municipalities.

(JASSDACE : Susumu Sato)

## **1. Education of Lifelong Education Staffs**

We summarize the education of social education directors and other staffs, undertaken by full-time courses, intensive programs for social education director and correspondence courses at universities, as well as the actual situation and issues post-education employment.

### **1.1 Situation of Students Taking Full-time University Courses and Their Career Options**

In 1997, we conducted a questionnaire survey of universities that provide social education directors courses (a total of 135 universities, departments and branch schools).

- (1) The total number of students was 2,034 in 1996. 21 universities (departments or branch schools) replied the number of students was increasing in recent years, while 17 reported a downtrend and 20 no change in the number of students.
- (2) Regarding career options of students who finished university courses to acquire qualifications over the past five years or so, many took jobs in private-sector companies or became ordinary civil-service employees (at municipal governments), with no accurate data found about employment as social education directors. Among respondents who said acquiring qualifications was a definite plus, some found jobs at local museums or as librarians and school teachers, in addition to those who found jobs at boards of education or became social education staffs or social education deputy directors.

It appears likely that the situation where finishing full-time university courses does not necessarily lead to employment as social education directors has not changed much even at present.

### **1.2 Situation of Students Taking Intensive Education Programs for Social Education Director and Their Career Options**

In January-February 1998, we conducted a questionnaire survey of 22 universities which offer intensive education programs for social education director.

- (1) The number of students taking each intensive program is around 100 and the largest group of them (55.8%) is school teacher, indicating that the situation intensive programs contribute to the education of dispatched social education



directors.

- (2) Most universities, the students are selected by prefecture boards of education. Some universities require the submission for students of pledges to be appointed students as social education directors.

### **1.3 Education of Social Education Staffs through Correspondence Courses**

A questionnaire survey of 145 schooling students of the correspondence education departments of Tamagawa University and Soka University, conducted by JASSDACE in 1999, produced the following findings:

- (1) Higher-ranking reasons for taking correspondence courses include “want to take jobs in adult and community education in the future” (57% for students at Tamagawa, 36% for students at Soka) and “want to broaden the perspective of education” (53% at Tamagawa, 61% at Soka).
- (2) Asked about future hopes, 76% of students at Tamagawa and 60% of students at Soka replied they wanted to “take up jobs in the field of adult and community education.” The survey findings indicate that though there are many who want to acquire basic qualifications required for adult and community education through social education director courses and take up jobs related to adult and community education in the future, they actually find few such job opportunities. This problem remains unresolved as of 2009.

### **1.4 Appointment of Social Education Directors by Municipal Governments**

A questionnaire survey of all municipalities in the nation, conducted from May through September 1998, produced the following findings (with a total of 1,836 valid responses):

- (1) While a total of 607 municipal governments positioned social education directors, the breakdown shows that only 21 municipalities (or 3.5% of the total) hired people with adequate qualifications as social education directors under special quotas, with 441 (or 72.7%) appointing such directors from among regularly hired government employees, 93 (or 15.3%) appointing them from among school teachers, and 52 (or 8.6%) hiring others to fill such posts.
- (2) Over the past five years, the number of municipal governments that positioned social education directors and deputy directors under special quotas was merely 190 (or 10.3% of the total).

The above data clearly shows that the acquisition of basic qualifications by taking full-time courses, intensive programs or correspondence education courses does not immediately help people find jobs as social education directors. Though relevant data as of 2008 are not available, we reckon that the situation has not improved much.

### **1.5 Issues of the Education of Social Education Staffs**

The following three points are pointed out as the issues of full-time courses and intensive programs, the education of social education staffs as of 1999. Even after a lapse of nearly 10 years, there is little improvement.

Firstly, it is the clarification of the objectives of educating social education staffs at universities. Between the fundamental understanding of adult and community education and the acquisition of knowledge and skills to meet specific job requirements, the latter has been increasingly gaining in weight. This situation needs to be improved, and the profession of social education staffs has to be repositioned as the vocational qualification with more sophisticated expertise.

Secondly, it is the improvement of the way intensive programs for social education director function. It is necessary to open up the path for students to actually become social education directors. It is also necessary to make improvements to the system where school teachers, who account for the large part of students, take up positions of social education directors as dispatched social education directors after completion of intensive programs, but return to schools from the scene of adult and community education following a brief stint of two to three years in rotation. Concerning intensive programs for social education director in particular, there is an argument calling for the abolition of the SD courses themselves.

The third point is the need to clarify the institutional positioning of social education directors and deputy directors, citizen's public hall (*kominkan*) staff and staff at institutions for juveniles as the new direction of the social education director educating system.

(Written by JASSDACE : Kenji Miwa)

## **2. Employment**

### **2.1 Change in the Numbers of Social Education Directors and Deputy Directors**

Table 1 shows the changes in the numbers of social education directors (including dispatched social education directors) and social education deputy directors.

As examination of data at 1996, which is close to 1998 when the survey was conducted on "grants-supported research," reveals that 3,293 directors were appointed by municipal governments and association boards of education, excluding 47 prefectures, with the combined figure 691 by cities and wards, 1,968 by towns, 567 by villages and 67 by associations.

Table 1 Change in the Numbers of Social Education Directors and Deputy Directors (Unit: Person)

	1955	1960	1971	1975	1981	1990	1996
Social education directors (Dispatched social education directors)	813	1408	3305	4291 (924)	6557 (1794)	6988 (1645)	6796 (1643)
Social education deputy directors	504	579	793	778	921	583	563
Total	1317	1987	4098	5069	7478	7571	7359

Source: Prepared on the basis of statistics of the Ministry of Education, *Shakai kyoiku chosa hokokusho* (Report on Social Education Research) (1955-1996).

There are 6,796 social education directors, detail of them are 5,910 full-time directors (4,000 social education directors, 1,643 dispatched social education directors and 263 section chief-level directors), 856 concurrent directors (756 social education directors and 90 section chief-level directors), and 30 part-time directors (30 social education directors).

There are 4,000 full-time social education directors, detail of them are 785 at prefecture boards of education, 3,215 at municipal governments and associations. There are 1,643 dispatched social education directors, representing the actual number of people dispatched from prefectural boards of education to municipalities and associations, and as such, the number of dispatched directors is 1,706, those who serve at multiple municipalities. There are 267 full-time section chief-level social education directors, detail of them are 17 at prefectures and 250 at municipalities and associations.

There are 766 concurrent social education directors, detail of them are 17 at prefectures and 749 at municipalities and associations. None of 90 concurrent section chief-level social education directors and 30 part-time social education directors holds prefectural positions.

There are 563 social education deputy directors, detail of them are 454 full-time deputies (49 at prefectures and 405 at municipalities and associations), 104 concurrent deputies (all of them are municipalities and associations) and five part-time deputies (all of them are municipalities and associations).

## 2.2 Positioning Rate of Social Education Directors

The positioning rate of social education directors in 1996 was 88.9% for cities and wards, and 82.9% for towns, villages and associations. Given that cities and wards are required to appoint social education directors while towns, villages and associations are not required to if the population is less than 10,000, it can be said that all

municipalities and associations have almost the same positioning rate level.

As for dispatched social education directors, started in 1975, the positioning rate is 30.7% for cities and wards and 52.2% for towns, villages and associations. Small municipalities appear to benefit from dispatched social education directors, under which prefectural boards of education dispatch them to municipalities about three years without requiring the personnel costs. However, since government subsidies to cover the personnel costs of dispatched social education directors were cut off by fiscal 1997, the number of dispatched social education directors has been decreased.

### **2.3 Positioning of Social Education Directors in Municipalities in Recent Years**

The comparison between the 2005 data from MEXT and the 1996 data reveals the following findings:

- (1) The number of boards of education reached 1,026, from 3,293 in 1996 to 2,267 in 2005;
- (2) The number of full-time social education directors reached 1,277, from 3,215 to 1,938, over the same period;
- (3) The number of concurrent social education directors reached 273, from 749 to 476; and
- (4) The number of part-time social education directors increased by one from 30 to 31.

The above findings show that the number of full-time social education directors is larger than that for the number of boards of education.

### **2.4 Consideration of Qualifications in Employing Social Education Institutions Staff**

The following findings can be seen a questionnaire survey of municipal governments on "Consideration of Qualifications in Employing Social Education Institutions Staff":

- (1) 1,659 municipalities which responded to the questions regarding social education directors and deputy directors, 1.4% of them "ALWAYS," 17.8% of them "OFTEN," 33.5% "SELDAM," 24.5% "NEVER," and 22.8% "N A."
- (2) 1,190 municipalities which responded to the questions regarding librarians and assistant librarians, 17.7% of them "ALWAYS," 26.6% of them "OFTEN," 15.6% of them "SELDAM," 11.5% of them "NEVER," and 28.6% of them "N A."
- (3) 727 municipalities which responded to the questions regarding curators and assistant curators, 14.6 of them "ALWAYS," 17.3% of them "OFTEN," 13.5% of them "SELDAM," 12.1% of them "NEVER," and 42.5% of them "N A"

Though the number of respondents differs on each question, the combined percentages of municipalities that said "ALWAYS" and "OFTEN" sum up to 19.2% respondents to the questions regarding social education directors and deputy directors, 44.3% to the questions regarding librarians and assistant librarians, and 31.9% to the

questions regarding curators and assistant curators, with the ratio of librarians and assistant librarians being relatively high.

## **2.5 Instructions to Social Education Institutions Staff to Acquire Qualifications**

- (1) As to the acquisition of the qualifications of social education directors and deputy directors for the staff of social education institutions, such as citizen's public halls, 1,664 municipalities responded the questions, 22.7% of them said "encourage them to acquire the qualifications," 23.7% of them "don't particularly encourage them to acquire the qualifications," 40.6% of them "depends on the situation," and 13.0% of them "N A."
- (2) As to the acquisition of the qualifications for librarians and assistant librarians, 1,168 municipalities responded the questions, 10.5% of them said "encourage them to acquire the qualifications," 36.6% of them "don't particularly encourage them to acquire the qualifications," 23.5% of them "depends on the situation," and 29.1% of them "N A."
- (3) As to the acquisition of the qualifications for curators and assistant curators, 712 municipalities responded the questions, 2.9% of them "encourage them to acquire the qualifications," 35.1% of them "don't particularly encourage them to acquire the qualifications," 11.9% "of them depends on the situation," and 50.0% of them "N A."

It can be seen from the results, the ratio of the instructions to acquire qualifications of social education directors and deputy directors for the social education institutions staffs is relatively high.

## **2.6 The Gender Gap in Appointment and Employment of Social Education Staffs**

The gender composition of social education staffs shows that 29.2% of full-time social education staffs are women and 38.4% of part-time social education staffs are women, indicating the relatively high percentage of women are part-timers. Although these percentages are national averages, there exist large differences in such ratios by prefecture. For example, Saga Prefecture has the highest female ratio of 54.7% of the total number of social education staffs, with the female ratio also standing at 44.3% of part-timers. Kanagawa Prefecture has the lowest female ratio of 19.1% of the total, though the ratio goes up to 57.4% among part-time social education staffs.

In Kagawa Prefecture, that has the largest number of female part-time social education staffs, women account for 29.6% of the total number of staffs and for 59.7% of part-timers. In Miyazaki Prefecture, that has the lowest ratio of women among part-time social education staffs, women account for 21.7% of the total and for 13.7% of part-timers. Though we need to examine the actual number of social education staffs in each prefecture to make a precise comparison, there certainly exist large discrepancies among prefectures.

(Written by JASSDACE : Susumu Sato)

### **3. Staff Development (SD) of Social Education Staffs**

#### **3.1 Implementation of SD Programs**

A total of 1,836 municipal governments responded to our 1998 “grants-supported research” questionnaire survey on the implementation of SD programs. 56.8% of municipal governments replied to the survey, implemented at least one of the following five forms of SD programs, and 43.2% said they did not implement any form of SD programs.

- (1) Municipalities that implemented SD programs of their own accounted for 15.0% of municipalities that replied to the survey, and for 34.7% of municipalities that implemented some form of SD programs.
- (2) Municipalities that send social education staffs to SD programs sponsored by the national government or prefectures accounted for 35.2% of responding municipalities, and for 81.6% of municipalities that implemented some form of SD programs.
- (3) Municipalities that send social education staffs to SD programs sponsored by private-sector entities or universities accounted for 6.1% of responding municipalities, and for 14.1% of municipalities that implemented some form of SD programs.
- (4) Municipalities that support social education staffs in their self-support SD accounted for 14.2% of responding municipalities, and for 32.9% of municipalities that implemented some form of SD programs.
- (5) Municipalities that support SD in other forms accounted for 10.8% of responding municipalities, and for 25.1% of municipalities that implemented some form of SD programs.

As shown in the above results, the dispatch of social education staffs to SD programs sponsored by the national government or prefectures is given the largest amount among forms of SD programs, followed by SD programs of their own and support for staffs’ self-help SD with similar percentages. Sending social education staffs to SD programs sponsored by private-sector or universities still has a relatively small share.

#### **3.2 Implementation of SD Programs by the Municipality Size**

Municipalities with larger populations tend to have the higher implementation rate for “SD programs of their own” and “support for staffs’ self-support SD” (the same pattern can be seen for “sending staffs to SD programs sponsored by the national government or prefectures,” but municipalities with a population of less than 10,000 have a slightly higher implementation rate than municipalities with a population of 10,000 to 30,000). Municipalities with a population of 100,000 to 300,000 have the lower implementation rate for “sending staffs to SD programs sponsored by

private-sector entities or universities” than municipalities with a population of 50,000 to 100,000. Municipalities with larger populations tend to have the lower implementation rate for “support SD in other forms.”

The number of municipalities that do not implement any form of SD programs declines nearly in proportion to increasing population size, an indication that the population size of municipalities and progress in the implementation of SD programs are proportional.

### 3.3 Issues in Implementation of SD programs

A total of 669 municipal governments cited issues in the implementation of SD programs as described below.

While SD has a significant role to play in enhancing the capabilities of social education staffs, municipalities cite issues in the implementation of trading as shown in Table 2. In addition, to improvements to the workplace environment so as to position SD as an essential assignment, further research is also necessary concerning the contents of SD for in-service social education staffs.

**Table 2 Issues of SD (1998 “Grants-Supported Research” Survey; multiple replies allowed; the ratio to the 669 responding municipalities shown in parentheses)**

Not enough time for SD	497 (74.3)
No system	238 (35.6)
Few participatory SD programs opportunities	166 (24.8)
SD programs contents do not match with participants’ needs	115 (17.2)
Others	63 (9.4)

### 3.4 Social Education Staff Development Recent Years

Table 3-1 shows that the number of SD programs implemented has tended to decline for both social education directors and *kominkan*(citizen’s public hall) directors, while the number of participants in SD programs has also tended to decrease, except for fiscal 1995.

**Table 3-1 Implementation of SD Programs**

	Social education directors		<i>Kominkan</i> directors	
	Number of implementation	Number of participants	Number of implementation	Number of participants
FY 1992	2584	90288	2675	59570
FY 1995	2284	102105	2544	61376
FY 1998	2197	91177	2377	54357
FY 2001	2118	85755	2129	54185
FY 2004	1698	74530	1752	45578

**Table 3-2 Implementation of SD Programs for Citizen's public halls (and Similar Institutions) Staffs**

Number of institutions	Number of institutions implementing SD programs	Ratio to the total number of institutions
17941	9208	51.3%

**Table 3-3 Agents of SD Programs Implementation of Citizen's public halls (and Similar Institutions) Staffs**

Citizen's public halls	Central citizen's public halls (replies only from branch centers)	Municipalities	Prefectures	government	Others	Total
1067	1222	5656	3499	186	1449	13079

Source: Tables 3-1, 3-2 and 3-3 prepared on the basis of statistics of MEXT, *Shakai kyoiku chosa hokokusho* (Report on Social Education Research) 2005. Multiple replies allowed for Table 3-3.

Tables 3-2 and 3-3, which focus on citizen's public halls, show that only about half of citizen's public halls implement staff SD programs. Regarding agents of SD programs implementation (or institutions to send social education staffs for SD programs), no comparison is available because it is the first survey conducted to compile statistics for MEXT. While multiple replies were allowed for Table 3-3, against 100 for the total number of replies, the ratio of citizen's public halls implementing SD at own institutions and central citizen's public halls for branch centers came to 17.5% and the ratio of citizen's public halls implementing SD programs in own municipalities to 43.2%, indicating that about 60% of citizen's public halls carrying out SD programs in own municipalities. Although SD within municipalities itself should be recommended, given that about half of citizen's public halls organize SD system, the downtrend of available SD opportunities outside due to tight fiscal conditions and other reasons should be viewed as problematic. The future trend requires close monitoring.

(Written by JASSDACE : Susumu Sato)



## [ Proposals ]

In policy SD related to social education staffs in Japan since “5th International Conference on Adult Education” (CONFINTEA ) held in Hamburg in 1997, the February 2008 report by the Central Education Council, *Atarashii jidai wo kirihiraku shogaigakushu no shinkohousaku nit suite* (Measures to Promote Lifelong Education That Opens Up A New Era) and partial revisions to the Social Education Law in June 2008 should be noted. The Central Education Council report proposed the creation of a mechanism under which schools, households and communities cooperate as one of the roles that should be played by adult and community education, while the revisions to the Social Education Law add cooperation among schools, households and communities to the roles of social education directors.

Furthermore, in September 2008, the Special Committee on Adult and Community Educator’s Issues of the Japan Society for the Study of Adult and Community Education (JSSACE) presented a report, *Chishiki kiban shakai ni okeru shakai kyoiku no yakuwari: Shokuin mondai tokubetsu iinkai giron no matome* (The Role of Adult and Community Education in Knowledge-Based Society: Summary of Discussions by the Special Committee on Adult and Community Educator’s Issues). In the report, the committee proposed a further expansion of the roles of social education directors, the possibility of creating basic qualifications for relevant personnel other than social education directors, improvements to the systems of educating social education staffs at universities and a shift to a system of providing support for the lifelong capacity building of social education staffs.

In light of these SD, JASSDACE (Shayokyo) conducted the following discussions in the course of its research activities in 2007 and 2008:

- (1) It is necessary to change the curriculum for the education of social education directors at universities to include more practical contents in accordance with the current circumstances;
- (2) Social education director’s qualification courses at universities should not be limited to qualifications of social education directors but need to develop general-purpose properties as professional qualifications for expert personnel of board of education secretariats and social education institutions staffs and for staffs of related organizations.

Concerning (2) in particular, JASSDACE(Shayokyo) has been engaged in the following discussions:

- Cooperation between schools and adult and community education should be further promoted. For example, it is necessary to make such liaison

commensurate with the expanded duties of social education directors required in pursuit of “cooperation among schools, households and communities,” which was added in the 2006 revision to the Fundamental Law of Education and the 2008 partial revision to the Social Education Law.

- Qualifications provided by the social education directors courses at universities need to match with the expertise required of staff at social education institutions such as citizen’s public halls, institutions for juveniles and institutions for women’s education.
- Qualifications provided by the social education directors courses at universities need to match with the expertise for social education facilitators and university staff responsible for lifelong education projects as well as for employees of municipalities responsible for adult education-related projects and staff of nonprofit organizations (NPOs) and a broad range of other organizations engaged in adult education.

We have not yet reached any conclusions about the above-mentioned issues, and we believe that JASSDACE(Shayokyo), related academic societies and other organizations should jointly deepen discussions on these issues.

(Written by JASSDACE : Kenji Miwa)

## - 5 Universities and adult education

### 1. Universities' involvement in adult education

As of May 2008, there are 765 four-year universities and 417 two-year Junior Colleges ('Tanki Daigaku' in Japanese, literally meaning short-term universities) in Japan. A large number of these institutions (77.0% of universities and 92.6% of junior colleges) are private. In Japan, higher education is still mainly for young people of around 20 years old, most often for high school graduates continuing their academic career. While the young population is expected to stay on the decline, universities in Japan are steadily increasing in number. The deregulation on the legal conditions for establishing universities in the 1990s and 2000s triggered new universities mushrooming (including those universities which were transformed from two-year Junior Colleges) --- there was a remarkable increase in the total number of universities, from 507 in 1990 to 649 in 2000 and 726 in 2005. The number has kept steadily increasing after 2005, with more than 10 being added every year on average.

In such a situation which can be described as the 'oversupply' of higher education if the market is sought only in young high school graduates, universities are more interested and involved in providing 'adult education' --- here 'adults' means those who have decided to study at universities after having spent some period of non-academic careers (e.g. work, child-rearing), not those traditional university students who have become over 20 (legally, adults are defined as those over 20 in Japan) in the course of their academic career, which consecutively continues after their graduation from high schools at the age of 18.

For example, universities provide the opportunities of adult education by;

- accepting adults to formal curricula (including those offered in the form of distance education via correspondence or broadcasting) as non-traditional students who pursue degrees
- accepting adults to formal curricula as students who are not pursuing degrees (e.g. students aiming to accomplish particular units, or participants of the classes which allow general public to come to)
- providing programs designed for adult education (e.g. classes, public lectures, symposiums) and establishing / running the sections solely in charge of providing adult education / lifelong learning opportunities (these sections are often named 'lifelong learning centers', 'centers of research and education for lifelong learning', 'community colleges', 'extension centers', 'open colleges', and 'senior colleges'. About the universities' involvement in adult education for older people, please refer to Chapter 11 of this report).

It is also commonly observed that universities run programs of adult and community education for local residents in cooperation with local governments, or

that members of universities' teaching/research staff are invited to teach in public adult education classes offered by local governments. While universities in Japan used to largely focus upon academic education in the past, they are more involved in providing opportunities of professional developments for adults in recent years, through 'professional graduate schools' (e.g. for training teachers) and various in-service training programs for people working in the professions requiring highly specialized skills -- such as 'school leadership' programs for teachers, training courses for the staff of public social education institutions which lead to the qualification of Social Education Coordinators (Shakai Kyouiku Shuji in Japanese), and in-service training programs for nurses or dental hygienists.

### **1.1. Accepting adult students to universities' formal curriculum**

While certainly progress has been made on the side of universities in terms of the system for accepting adult students to formal curriculum (both undergraduate and postgraduate), the rate of adults actually studying at universities in Japan is still much lower than in Europe and North America. Following OECD researches in the 1980s which revealed that Japan ranked among the lowest as to the number of adult students studying at universities (at undergraduate level), several measures were proposed and actualized since the early 1990s in order to let more adults come to campus, such as setting an exemption in the entrance examination for adults candidates. However, the number of adult university students studying at undergraduate level is currently decreasing, in contrast to the general trend of adult entrants to postgraduate courses, which is for steady expansion (with some fluctuation). This reality would have contributed to the government's policy on education for adults at universities, which is mainly concerned with the education at postgraduate level (as shown in a recommendation report by the Central Council for Education); another important background influencing the public policy on universities is increasing needs in the society for the workforce equipped with highly developed professional skills, who are able to function well in the current knowledge-based society and are thought to be the key in winning the intense international/inter-regional competitions.

This policy trend is questionable, however, as it very much centers around those who have already got education of a relatively high level. In recent years, Japanese society is challenged with problems such as a progressive 'polarization of employment forms' (the decrease of full-time employment and the increase of temporary employment with worse working conditions), a widening economic divide, and the stabilization / reproduction of such divide over generations. There are also strong social needs for securing educational opportunities for adults living in the unstable times, so that they can re-learn, learn to change careers, learn to upgrade their skills and so on. It can be said that these current social situations in Japan is urging the

government to be seriously committed to promoting the education for adults at universities (particularly at undergraduate level) -- as is mentioned later, adult learners' needs for learning at universities are in fact not small, and universities are expected to contribute to a society through meeting social needs, for example, by providing opportunities for developing vocational skills outside workplaces, and providing education for changing careers / upgrading skills particularly for those who have been unable to fully enjoy education or those who are not employed (including housewives who have finished child-rearing). Such a policy of higher education is desirable also from the general viewpoint of equal opportunity of education or redressing social divides through education, and examples of other countries, such as the UK government's effort to increase the holders of higher education qualifications in adults' population, should offer useful examples for consideration.

On the other hand, there are many problems to be solved in promoting the education for adults at universities in Japan. One of them is that the universities have not yet developed the system for helping adults who wish to learn at higher education well enough and hence remain unable to realize the latent needs of these potential learners, the number of whom should not be small. While it is said that systems for financially supporting university students are generally underdeveloped in Japan, adult students in particular tend to encounter more problems, such as the lack of scholarships suitable for them. The current system of unemployment benefits is also causing a problem because within that system the unemployed people who have entered universities are not eligible for the benefits, considered as those 'who are fully devoted to academic study': for example, someone who became unemployed and started to study at a university pursuing a teacher qualification (s/he can be a returner to the campus who has already graduated a university without gaining a qualification of a teacher) cannot receive the unemployment benefits. Generally speaking, full-time adult university students who aim at upgrading their skills or changing careers often experience difficulties in securing enough money to keep both their living and university study going right; more financial supports are needed so that they can concentrate on their study during their academic years to fully accomplish their educational aim.

Regarding national universities, from the fiscal year 2007 on, the government fund become available if they offer financial support (reduction of tuition fees) to adult students. This system was started by the cabinet headed by Prime Minister Abe at that time, which used 'Helping those who will re-challenge themselves' as its catchphrase. However, the Abe cabinet ended after a short period, and it is still unclear, hence needs to be watched, whether this policy will be extended into the future.

In supporting adults' learning at universities, it is important to actualize a society where adults can study at universities as they wish and the learning conducted at

universities is properly recognized and appraised --- in a joint effort of universities, industry and labor to create necessary systems. A system started in 2008, to issue a certificate of completion for a certain type of university courses for adults not leading to degrees, is one of the efforts in this direction. Adults will not dare to choose to study at universities investing profound amount of their time, money and energy, if that learning is not properly recognized, for example, in a workplace or when getting a job.

It is also important to tackle a problem of breaking down a fundamental barrier to learning (not limited to learning at universities), which nags many adult learners with a job, that is, long working hours and a lack of understanding they encountered in a workplace about (or worse, pressures against) their conducting learning. In this area not only the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) but also other ministries / governmental bodies should work in collaboration to take concrete steps so that the right to learn is socially secured for adults, particularly those who are working.

Some reform on people's consciousness in and outside the universities also seems to be necessary so that the practice of education for adults will flourish at universities; such practice of universities is often not so valued, and there exists also a tendency within faculties to look down upon it as something which second-rate universities are doing (this is not a problem unique to Japanese universities). In order to change this situation, some active measures should be taken, such as a program of MEXT to promote good practice of education which responds to the adults' needs of re-learning, so that universities' role of educating adults will become valued in a society.

## **1.2. The Open University of Japan (formerly titled 'the University of the Air' in English)**

The Open University of Japan (OUJ) is a university which provides formal education at undergraduate/postgraduate level to a wide public through media (ground-wave and satellite channels of TV, radio, cable TV, and internet for some programs). Students from every generation are learning at OUJ, which serves as a 'university for lifelong learning'. As of the second term of 2008, it has about 79,000 students at undergraduate level, more than 3 quarters of which are over 30 years old. Over the past several years, OUJ steadily has about 50,000 students every year who pursue degrees at undergraduate level, including 5,000-7,000 students who are at the age of 60 and older; it has also 20,000-30,000 students every year who are not pursuing degrees but studying particular units of their interests.

As of March 2008, those who have received degrees at undergraduate level from OUJ has amount to about 51,000. This number does not seem to be too exciting, considering the fact that OUJ has provided higher education for more than 20 years, since it started to accept students in 1985 and had the first 544 graduates in 1989.

While the annual number of graduates has grown, in recent years it stays around 4,000-5,000 against 50,000 of those who are enrolled on courses leading to undergraduate degrees; it is very probable that OIJ students are having various difficulties which contribute to a prolonged period they have to spend before they can get a degree (students are allowed to stay enrolled for 10 years at maximum), for instance, the difficulty to secure enough time for learning and the lack of support from OIJ in acquiring study skills required for university learning (e.g. how to take notes, read books, use references, organize and write up term papers, plan and manage their own learning).

OIJ can be said to be contributing to the learning of a broad range of adults: OIJ programs are broadcasted publicly and accessible for anyone who is or is not enrolled, and the OIJ textbooks are also available from general bookshops or by mail order. OIJ programs are made into recorded video/DVD packages and stocked in OIJ's learning centers (every prefecture has more than one such center), where OIJ students can use these materials freely for their learning regardless of the courses they are on.

On the other hand, OIJ has several problems which prevent itself from fully functioning as a higher education institution open for all citizens. For example, the existence or purpose of OIJ, let alone its system, is not always known to a public, hence OIJ fails to reach those potential learners who may be interested in becoming a university student if they know they can easily become one at OIJ without an entrance examination. Even people who do know of OIJ often do not understand what OIJ really is, including the fact that OIJ is a formal university with a capacity to give degrees, not a college of professional training for those who are working or wish to work in broadcasting industry (OIJ's Japanese name, which literally means 'broadcasting-university', would contribute to this type of misunderstanding).

At the same time, it can be pointed out that materials prepared and used by OIJ for educating their students have much room for the improvement. OIJ's TV programs are in many cases produced in such a style that models ordinary lectures commonly seen in the classrooms of Japanese universities, where a lecturer sitting at the front desk talks (and may show audio-visual materials) to the audience (in fact the lecturer speaks to the TV camera without an audience when the program is being taken): OIJ does not seem to be greatly interested in exploring the possibilities and potential merits of teaching through TV programs. Also, subject textbooks tend to stop at transmitting the knowledge which has been already sorted out by the academics: they can, and should, be designed to better serve as a guide for the learners which will help them through the process of acquiring deep understanding and ways of thinking required for a particular subject or higher education in general.

### **1.3. Centers for lifelong learning**

In the field of assisting citizen's lifelong learning activities, progress has been made in many Japanese universities in the 1990s, resulting in an increase of one-off lectures or courses offered to open public and the improvement in the way to meet the learning needs of adults. Particularly, there was a trend of national universities outside the urban areas to establish 'centers for education and research for lifelong learning', a section for offering various educational programs and contributing both to local citizens' lifelong learning activities and the betterment of a local society (these centers include those which had already been set up in a different name such as 'university education extension centers' since the 1970s and was renamed in the 1990s). This trend occurred against the backdrop of social climate which demands these universities to make clear their *raison d'être* in a given region or a society at large, as institutions heavily receiving public money.

Now universities' involvement to programs related to citizen's lifelong learning is diversified and expanding. While there are large-scale lifelong learning centers which offer wide arrays of courses to adults by lecturers recruited in and outside the university faculties (e.g. centers run by private universities in urban areas), there are small-scale centers functioning as a connecting bridge between a local society and a university, which is willing to reach out and take part in solving problems of the locality (e.g. centers run by national universities in remote areas). The latter type includes the center for research and education for lifelong learning of Wakayama university for an example, a center which was set up in 1998 and has attracted attention as one of the innovative and unique examples: it employed for its teaching staff an officer of the local government who had been for many years at the post of Social Education Coordinator and had abundant experience in promoting adult education in local communities (which is in Japan rather unusual for an in-university institution); it has attempted not only to help the local government or local citizens to solve their problems, utilizing a reservoir of knowledge and the network of human resource which the university has accumulated, but also apparently to urge the university faculty in turn to re-think about the nature of knowledge they are producing and their process of producing it, by feeding back the center's experience of work/activities conducted in cooperation with local people.

However, in recent years centers of lifelong learning at national universities tend to be having a hard time, by a shift in the university's management which tends to prioritize projects which are expected to contribute more directly to the entrants hunting, in order to win an ever-increasing competition to attract high school graduates in a continuous decline of 18+ population: some centers face restructuring (e.g. shut-down or merger with other in-university centers or sections) and some other are made to drift away from their original mission of connecting the university to the local society and have to serve the university faculty first, for example, through its



involvement in promoting the faculty's good practice of education or in faculty development activities. Apart from above, centers of lifelong learning of Japanese universities generally have a problem of poor staffing: in centers run by national universities, they often have extremely small administrative staff, and in those run by private universities, full-time teaching staff is often very small.

A current society is full of difficult challenges which await people's action; universities are expected to make most of their academic and human resources and play an important role in such a society, by committed to producing both knowledge and proactive people/organizations of people necessary for solving various problems and social betterment. Universities then, should acknowledge the value of lifelong learning of local people and the significant role which the centers of lifelong learning can play in promoting it, and offer a sincere support for the centers' mission.

### **[Recommendations]**

Appropriate measures, such as strengthening financial supports for students and creating systems for the adults' learning at universities to receive proper recognition, should be taken to help adults' learning (and to eliminate barriers to learning) at universities, so that anyone can enjoy higher education (both at undergraduate and postgraduate level) as they wish and when necessary. It is important to take a step in this direction in view of guaranteeing workers'/adults' right to learning as well as redressing the social gap and preventing its reproduction over generations. On the other hand, more efforts are necessary on the side of universities as well, which still very strongly expect 18+ generation who continue to study after high school as the main candidates of their formal students, in such areas as creating more appropriate systems for accepting adult students, advancing the quality of education they offer, and developing those curricula which are tailored for adult learners or match better the needs of the current society in which people's lives and careers can become unstable rather easily. It is also important that universities themselves deepen the understanding about their own role in promoting lifelong learning activities in a local society and sincerely include such function in their mainstream work.

(Original chapter in Japanese written by

the Committee on International Affairs of JSSACE

;Translated by JSSACE:TOKIWA-FUSE Miho\*,)

\*Spelled in the East Asian order, in which the family-name comes first.

## **- 6 Adult Education and Learning with**

### **a Gender Perspective**

#### **Focusing on Women**

##### **1. Women's State under the Policy for a Gender –equal Society and 'Structural Reform'**

###### **1.1. The Diversification of Women and Cross- bordering of ' Women's' Issues**

Since the 4<sup>th</sup> World Conference on Women (Beijing, 1995 ) gender mainstreaming has become a global challenge. In Japan, too. The policy addressing women's issues turned into the so-called policy for a gender- equal society in the middle of the 1990's. Since the 1980's the gender roles had been changing from the traditional way of men as breadwinners and of women as housewives to the one as women for dual roles . It was caused not only by women's demands and movements but by the policy to make most use of women as human resources according to their capacities . Women's labor has been polarized into the minority who don't have to bother about family roles and the majority who have to and have to take non-regular and more disadvantaged jobs .Some women have chances now to work as men if only they can manage their family roles in some way.

Men became conscious of gender issues and some started men's and men's liberation movements. In addition the neo-liberal 'structural reform 'policy since the middle of the 1990's newly produced were the socially and economically disadvantaged not only in women but in men. There have been backlashes against women's rights especially promoting sexual equality and harsh gender bashing with economic globalization and neo-liberal policies. But they demonstrated the close relationship between gender and the constitutional order. There has been diversification among both women and men though women still remain in a discriminated and disadvantaged group. There are chances for both men and women to cooperate to realize gender equality, human rights and social justice though we have a lot of difficulty caused by the neo-liberal policies and backlashes.

###### **1.2. Women as a Group still Discriminated and Disadvantaged**

The establishment of the Basic Law for a Gender-equal Society of 1999 was significant as it was the first law in Japan on gender equality in general. It aims at greater efforts toward the realization of genuine equality between women and men and the gender mainstreaming. But it has another aim ' to respond to the rapid changes occurring in Japan's socioeconomic situation, such as the trend toward fewer children, the aging of the population, and the maturation of domestic economic activities, as the Preamble says. It requires the government to' establish a basic plan with regard to the promotion of formation of a Gender-equal Society , in order to comprehensively and systematically implement policies related to promotion of formation of a Gender-equal

Society ( Article 13 ) and not to eliminate discrimination against women . Actually it seems that the measures taken are causing another gender mainstreaming to 'respond to the rapid changes' such as the trend toward fewer children rather than to eliminate discrimination against women .

Today , women still remain in an economically and socially disadvantaged group. It is very recently that the number of those who agree with the view that “ the husband should be the breadwinner; and the wife should stay at home ” went down to less than 50%. The women's labor participation rate by age bracket still shows an M-shaped curve, with their participation declining due to marriage, childbirth, and child rearing.

The proportion of the labor force engaged in work patterns other than regular employees, including part-timers, dispatch workers and contract workers, has increased, in these years particularly among women. Women account for about 30% of full-time workers , remaining almost flat since 1985. On the other hand, female part-timers and other non-regular workers have increased from 31.9% in 1985 to 53.4 % in 2007. There is a significant income gap between male and female workers. Among female salaried workers who work for a whole year, 66.6 percent earn 3 million yen or less a year (male workers:21.6 percent); and 16.5 percent make 1 million yen or less a year (male workers: 2.7 percent). Only 3.0 percent of them make more than 7 million yen a year (male workers: 21.6 percent) ( 2006, Gender Equality Bureau ,Cabinet Office, White Paper on Gender Equality 2008) . The average hourly wage level of full-time and part-time female workers still remain low comparing with that of male full-time workers,68.1 for the former 47.7 for the latter when taking male full-time worker as 100 ( 2007, ibid ) . Women spend more time than men for job and family roles and have less spare time(Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications ,Survey on Social Life 2006) for learning .The data show us that a gender analysis is effective and necessary not only in policy making but in practice and movements.

## **2. The Neo-liberal Measures in Social Education and LLL and Women**

### **2.1. The Diminution of the Public Support in ALE under**

#### **the Policy for a Gender-equal Society**

ALE plays a significant role in realizing gender equality. Providing special classes for women can be an affirmative action since they have been discriminated for a long time not only in education especially before the WW but in other spheres. Because of the ongoing diversification among women and the complication of the gender issues there should be more and diversified classes and more support. Nevertheless , the public support has been withdrawn as the budgets decreasing of both of the central and local governments clearly shows.

The women's education policy which provides women special learning opportunities , so-called 'women's classes' was taken after the WW for them to get intellectual and citizenship skills they couldn't before the War. The policy lasted even after the home education policy started and was made very much of. But since the latter half of the

1970's when women's centers for gender equality started to be set up in the municipalities they started diminishing and abolishing women's classes in the educational facilities saying that they can be taken over by those in women's centers. The White Paper of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology has been underscoring the importance of the activities in women's education centers for building a gender-equal society. But the number of them is diminishing since the survey of 1995. The women's centers don't have legal grounds and the budgets and personnel are very limited. Almost all prefectures have one by now but not yet in municipalities. In a few large prefectures such as Tokyo and Osaka 60% of them have ones but in 5 prefectures only 2% .More cities than towns and villages do have. And now even those prefectures and municipalities which have already established the facilities are cutting the support for gender equality now. The central government started to withdraw the subsidy for building the Citizens' Public Halls at the point that a little more than 90% of the municipalities had established them . More cities than towns ,more towns than villages have ones. This means that all municipalities don't have the basic facilities for learning and education including the Citizens' Public Halls ,women's education centers and women's centers and yet that the public support from either the central or the local governments is being withdrawn .

It also seems that the government is abandoning AA measures in the sphere of adult education under the policy for a gender-equal society though the state of women still needs them. We are afraid they will keep diminishing the learning opportunities of women because more of those take part in the learning activities in the communities than men now.

## **2.2. Women's Learning and Life Style Tailored into Gender Roles with the Revisions of the Acts related to Social Education**

Under the neo-liberal policy the public support for ALE is diminishing. The situation stated in 2.1 shows the violation of the obligations of the governments to realize the right to education .The disadvantaged suffer more than the advantaged in this situation , which is against the item 16 of the Agenda for the Future of 1997(hereinafter referred to as 'the Agenda' or just shown with the Item numbers).In addition , the measures taken with the successive revisions of the acts related to social education are pushing women toward family roles at first and job and community roles in addition to them if possible.

The Revision of the Social Education Act of 1999 de- regulated the member composition of the operating committee of the Citizen's Public Halls. The representatives of learners don't have to be in it any more . The experiences as its members have trained the women who are still confined in homes as citizens in a democratic way of thinking and decision making . This is against the items 12 and 28 of the Agenda.

In the revision of 2001 the act emphasized to support home education and out-of school

activities of the child and the youth as the business of the administration . As stated above , the women's classes and learning facilities have been decreasing and they are already losing chances either to be trained as citizens or to rethink about their stereotyped roles. In a still gender-roles ruling society they might be tailored into childbirth and child raising when the Revised Fundamental Act of Education of 2006 emphasizes the importance of and the family responsibility of home education with the measures to address the low birth rate being taken one after another .The revision of the Social Education Act will push them this way by tailoring their learning. Men can't have chances to rethink about their gender roles under these conditions since many of them haven't been able to practice learning in the communities. We are afraid that the stereotyped gender roles will be reproduced in the next generation when adults can't either be aware of or get over them.

### **2.3. The Policy Shift on Job Training to**

#### **Self –support and Self –responsibility and Women**

In Japan, job training after finishing school has been mainly shouldered by companies and it was done as on- the- job training in the main. Bigger ones offer better and more opportunities than smaller and medium sized .Women are disadvantaged in this situation because they are apt to be adopted by smaller and medium sized ones and even excluded because of the discrimination and family roles. Only very limited number of women can make advantage of the chances to get job training even if the Equal Employment Opportunity Law prohibits discrimination in job training.

The Lifelong Learning policy in Japan since the 1980's developed by the demands of big companies to take away their job training burdens from them and to push them out to universities, public job training and private education and training business. They are throwing away the responsibility they used to take for the education and training of their employees and it is shifting from them to the workers themselves. The cost they spare for the job training is diminishing especially since the middle of the 1990's . Japanese companies spent less money for their employees' education and training than the half of European ,and as much as the half of those of the US in 2000 according to a survey. The tendency must increase

More regular workers want to increase their knowledge and skills than non-regular ones.Their main aims are different. A half of the former wants to do so for the current job , while almost a quarter of the latter to switch jobs or to start a new one independently .The more unstable their job status , the more of them have the aim. Three quarters of the regular workers did something to increase their knowledge and skills, while a little more of the half of the non-regular ones did. Almost a half of the former made use of the education and training opportunities by their own companies , while the latter through the individual and group learning(27.6%) and through TV & radio and correspondent programs (18.1%, 2003). A few of them made use of the public training . 43.0% of the workers think they lack time and 25.9% money for self

development(2001). Many of the non- regular workers are women as stated in 1.2.

The current state of job training does not help the disadvantaged to improve their working conditions but rather excludes them .It is against the items 30 through32 of the Agenda.

### **3. The Advance of Women's Movements and Learning**

While there have been some outstanding advances in women's movements and learning in spite of difficulties stated above . The international movements for gender equality and minorities' rights influenced a lot on both of the policy and movements in Japan . It was outstanding because we are very much behind in human rights issues. The Revisions of the Equal Employment Opportunity Law of 1997 and 2006, the establishment of the Basic Law for a Gender-equal Society of 1999 and the Act on the Prevention of Spousal Violence and the Protection of Victims of 2001 and its revisions of 2004 and 2007 were the accomplishments. They influenced the consciousness of the people .The basic Law and the Act above recommend to make plans in the municipals for the purpose of them. The Next Generation Nurturing Support Measures Promotion Law stipulates that they shall make plans not only in the municipals but in the working places of a certain size. They give women the chances to take part in the decision- making such as establishing ordinances and plans in the municipals (Item 13(c))and in the working places.

Men's movements and those for the rights of sexual minorities advanced , which created learning opportunities (Item 29(m))for the people. Participatory methods of learning spread not only in social education fields but in gender equality centers and companies. Women workers' movements and learning advanced (Item 31) and there appeared an example of a municipal where the non-regular workers in social education field got the status of regular ones (Item 20(a)).

I'll show you some outstanding examples here.

#### **The movements and learning of the Working Women's Network(An Example of Item 31 of the Agenda)**

The Network was established in 1995 for gender equality in the working place and for the advance of the status of women.It has 800 members now of mainly women workers of various occupations and professions. It has been supporting women workers in the labor movements and in their activities to bring their cases to court. The education programs they provide are so realistic and full of experience of women workers that they are very valuable .There are very few programs as such in Japan.They have sent reports to the CEDAW and the ILO which showed the state of the women workers in Japan , which have made them issue recommendations and reports to the Japanese government on their realities and demands . They strongly influence the policy for pay equity in Japan.

**Active Museum Movements of the Women's Active Museum on  
War and Peace(WAM) (An Example of Item 29(h))**

WAM was established by those who had been deeply engaged in the movements of the Women's International War Crimes Tribunal on Japan's Military Sexual Slavery . It was a people's tribunal convened to gather testimony from victims, and then, based on international laws that were in place during the WW , to try groups and individuals for rape or sexual slavery, i.e., forcing women to sexually service. The museum is the first one in Japan which focuses on the sexual violence in war time . They exhibit the materials and documents presented at the tribunal and other trials by the victims to seek compensation from the Japanese government , gathered by supporters and researchers .The visitors can meet each of the victims here through the exhibition and participating activities inspired here . They can be active citizens against wars and for peace. It is a place of participatory learning.

**Exchange Program between Kenya Adult Learners' Association (KALA) and  
the Japan Association for Promotion of Social Education  
(An Example of Items 18(d),26(e),52(a)and 53(a))**

The National Coordinator of KALA visited literacy and Japanese classes , an evening school , Citizens' Public Halls, an elementary school and universities , a nursery school and forth in Japan. She stayed at homes and shared life with those who offered her their homes. It was a new experience for most of the Japanese women to accept foreigners not for sightseeing but for learning . They had to learn how the life and education in Kenya is, and learned the differences and similarities between both countries. They could also find such issues and problems in Japan they had not been able to realize as intersectional discrimination ,poverty ,illiteracy and so forth. It is an example to connect the people and issues between developed and developing countries , between communities inside and outside countries .

## **[ Recommendations ]**

Research ,practice, and movements have to have a gender perspective .We need cross- sectoral coalition and collaboration within the women's movements ;alliance -building between women's and other social movements.

The government should go through the research on women's status , provide statistics with a gender perspective , and evaluate their policy from the viewpoint of gender mainstreaming

The government should turn their policy from neo-liberal to human rights based  
The government should be faithful to the international and global commitments they made and diffuse those documents to the people inside Japan

(Written and translated by JAPSE: Yoko Nakato)

## **II - 7 Corporate education and government support to workers**

### **1. Corporate education**

Japanese Companies have up till now carried out corporate education in order to develop employee abilities with a view to improving business performance. However, with the further development of advanced information science and technology, the growth of a global economy, the labor fluidity resulting from the disintegration of lifetime employment, and other factors, this activity has taken on an altered profile. In 2006, meanwhile, the Japanese government organized a Conference on Coordinated Reform of Economic and Fiscal Policy, and began to advocate the concept of a nation built on talented human resources. Against this background, overseeing employee education has increasingly become a management issue for the companies of today and the parameters of corporate education have therefore come under still closer scrutiny.

#### **1.1. Current state of corporate education**

Corporate personnel systems have in the past ten years or so begun to function in a way oriented toward performance and ability, as a result of which personnel management has begun to focus on the importance not only of group management but also management of the individual. In this context, improving the abilities of individual employees has become an issue and ways have been sought of promoting this goal through corporate education in forms such as on-the-job training (OJT) and off-the-job training (Off-JT). In the following, information is given on the current state of corporate education based on the 2007 Basic Survey of Ability Development conducted by Ministry of Labour, Health and Welfare.

##### **1.1.1. OJT**

According to the survey mentioned above, the proportion of companies that carried out systematic OJT was 45.6% for regular employees and 18.3% for non-regular employees. Compared to the results of the same survey for the previous year, which showed a figure of 53.9% for regular employees and 32.9% for non-regular employees, opportunities for OJT had decreased regardless of the form of employment. The cause of this is thought to be related to a shortage of personnel to implement OJT caused by the mass retirement of the baby boomer generation and an increase in the number of playing managers. To remedy this situation, the 2009 Report of Nippon Keidanren's Business Management and Labor Policy Committee advocates the need to construct an organized system of OJT and to put in place a human resources education system able to carry out effective OJT so as to improve on-the-job abilities, pass on artisan skills, train successors, and strengthen risk response ability. In the revitalization of OJT in response to this, there is a trend toward introduction of internships, coaching, mentoring, and so on.



### **1.1.2. Off-JT**

Off-JT was provided to regular employees by 77.2% of companies and to non-regular employees by 40.9%. Compared to the previous year's survey figures of 72.2% for regular employees and 37.9% for non-regular employees, the figure shows a slight increase in both cases. Meanwhile, of companies providing Off-JT, 88.7% found that it increased the labor productivity of regular employees while the corresponding figure for non-regular employees was 52.5%.

Training courses, which are the typical form of Off-JT, are generally differentiated according to staff grade, topic, and work function, but in recent years, with the aim of promoting employee self-motivation toward ability development, there has been an increase in facultative training in which employees themselves select the training that interests them from among a large number of training programs. Meanwhile, in order to create the human resources to which the company looks for its future, selective training in elite small groups offered only to employees chosen by recommendation of personnel departments or managers or by competition has also become a notable feature.

Apart from training courses, there has been an expansion in other Off-JT options such as correspondence study, e-learning, internships, overseas study, and placements at universities and research centers. The proportion of companies that have introduced e-learning is 29.6% for regular employees and 24.3% for non-regular employees. Taking as a whole the systematic OJT and Off-JT mentioned above, there is a clear inequality between regular employees and non-regular employees, but in e-learning there is no significant difference.

### **1.1.3. Other forms of corporate education**

Other than the OJT and Off-JT outlined above, corporate education includes, under a broad interpretation, small group activities and the presentation of information for external education and training, placements and transfers as part of the personnel system, support for self-study, support for acquisition of qualifications, and the introduction of career development support systems, free agent (FA) systems, and other schemes.

The proportion of companies providing support for self-study was found to be 79.9% for regular employees and 48.4% for non-regular employees. The forms of support to regular employees for self-study (multiple responses given) in order of frequency were (1) 'financial assistance for course fees, etc.' (73.1%), (2) 'provision of information regarding education and training facilities, correspondence study, etc.' (40.1%), (3) 'concessions regarding working hours (38.7%),' and (4) 'assistance to self-organized study circles at work, etc.' (37.5%). For non-regular employees, meanwhile, the forms of support for self-study (multiple responses given) were (1) 'financial assistance for course fees, etc.' (48.9%), (2) 'concessions regarding working hours' (41.0%), (3) 'assistance to self-organized study circles at work, etc.' (37.4%), and (4) 'provision of

information regarding education and training facilities, correspondence study, etc.' (32.6%). It appears that companies have the same level of expectation from regular employees and non-regular employees when offering financial assistance, where individual employees act on their own initiative and make their own decision as to the method of self-study. However, there is a clear inequality in the level of assistance between regular employees and non-regular employees.

Elsewhere, only 7.9% of companies have introduced the career consulting that Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare began to implement in 2001 as one pillar of the career development support system. When examined with reference to the size of the company, the system had been introduced by 32.6% of those with 5,000 employees or more, 24.9% of those with 1,000 to 4,999 employees, and 14.5% of those with 500 to 999 employees. The rate of introduction is thus in proportion to the size of the company.

## **1.2. Facts and figures on provision of education and training in the company**

According to the findings of SANRO Research Institute, Inc., which has carried out Factual Surveys of Education and Training Expenditure at private-sector companies since 1976, figures on the provision of education and training in the fiscal year 2008 education and training budget are as set out below (multiple responses given).

### **1.2.1. Corporate education and training for regular employees**

Forms of training for regular employees differentiated by staff grade were as follows in order of frequency: (1) 'training for new employees' (92.1%), (2) 'training for new junior managers' (68.4%), and (3) 'follow-up training for new employees' (67.1%). 'Training for new employees' is thus provided by the majority of companies. The reason why 'training for new employees' and 'follow-up training for new employees' appear at the top of the list is related to the problem of the high rate of staff turnover in the first three years after recruitment. Training appears to be given as a countermeasure to this.

Meanwhile, when training differentiated by staff grade is examined with reference to the size of the company, the forms of education where the rate of provision of large companies (1,000 or more employees) was greater than that of small and medium companies (999 or fewer employees) were (1) 'training for new junior managers' (33.8%), (2) 'training for prospective employees' (25.7%) and (3) 'training for management executives' (23.9%) As new junior managers are busy acting as both players and managers, the view can be taken that professional development for talented management staff is tackled with a sense of urgency.

When examined with reference to industry sector, no conspicuous difference is noted, but the only area in which non-manufacturing industry was ahead of manufacturing industry was 'follow-up training for new employees' (7.8 point difference).

Looking next at education and training for regular employees differentiated by type of work and by purpose of training, the order of frequency is (1) 'education for corporate

social responsibility and compliance' (48.7%), (2) 'education in communication skills' (47.4%), (3) 'training for technically skilled staff and technicians' (43.4%). 'Education for corporate social responsibility and compliance' is also relevant to risk management, as it inevitably requires comprehensive quality control, which requires compliance with ISO 9000s and the Product Liability Law, comprehensive environmental management based on ISO 14000s, and comprehensive information management in connection for instance with ISO 27000s, the Personal Information Protection Law, the Unfair Competition Prevention Law, and the Whistleblower Protection Law.

Examined with reference to the size of the company, items where there was a large inequality relating to size and where the rate of provision of large companies was higher were, in order (1) 'foreign language training' (45.9 point difference), (2) 'education for goal management and assessment staff' (31.7 point difference), and (3) 'life design education' (31.6 point difference). Presumably, foreign language training has come to be seen as essential for large companies given the expansion of business into a global market.

Although the difference is only slight, the only item where the rate of provision by small and medium companies was greater than that of large companies was 'education for trainers and teaching staff' (3.8 point difference). As the education budget is smaller at small and medium companies than at large companies, these companies need to use in-house staff to lead training activities.

Examined with reference to industry sector, the items where the lead taken by manufacturing industry was greatest were, in order: (1) 'foreign language training' (43.9 point difference), (2) 'early-stage selective formative training of executive candidates' (36.8 point difference), and (3) 'global human resources education' (24.5 point difference). For manufacturing industry, 'foreign language training' and 'global human resources education' can be seen as forms of ability development contributing to strategic ability at overseas bases. At the same time, recruiting overseas nationals within Japan may be regarded as an aspect necessary to develop the communication skills needed to achieve success while sharing the goals of the organization with foreigners. In either case, not only language ability but also understanding of a different culture and sharing understanding and mutual respect with people with different sets of values are seen as essential considerations. Seen in this way, this training is related to 'education in communication skills' that had the second highest rate of provision of all the abovementioned types of education and training for regular employees differentiated by type of work and by purpose of training.

### **1.2.2. Corporate education and training for non-regular employees**

Of the forms of education and training for non-regular employees differentiated by type of work and by purpose of training, the most frequently provided was 'education for corporate social responsibility and compliance' (69.2%). This was the most common form for both regular employees and non-regular employees. Here, it can be

commented that, with the 2008 amendment of the Financial Instruments and Exchange Law, the introduction of a system of internal control has become unavoidable for companies, which have accordingly been obliged to ensure that all employees, regardless of the form of employment contract, are fully conversant with models of compliance-oriented management rooted in corporate social responsibility.

One item where inequality according to the size of the company was great and the rate of provision by large companies was high was 'education in communication skills' (30.9 point difference). Here, it seems possible that the high rate of provision reflects concern on the part of large companies that, with a large number of employees, communication problems between non-regular employees and regular employees could grow to become systemic problems.

One item where the rate of provision at small and medium companies was slightly higher than at large companies was 'training for technically skilled staff and technicians' (11.5 point difference). One form where there was a large inequality between sectors of industry, with manufacturing industry ahead, was 'education in communication skills' (21.2 point difference).

In contrast, one item where the inequality between industry sectors was great and non-manufacturing industry had a higher rate of provision was 'education for marketing and sales staff' (22.2 point difference).

### **1.3. Total expenditure on education and training in the company**

Total education and training expenditure per company and per employee according to the actual figures for fiscal year 2007 and the prospective budget figures for fiscal year 2008 as reported by SANRO Research Institute, Inc. (see above) are as indicated below. The figures for total expenditure on education and training cover training organized by the itself for regular employees and include premises hire costs, accommodation costs, food and drink costs, costs of external lecturers and teaching materials, cost of training commissioned to external educational institutions, costs of participation in seminars and courses, e-learning and correspondence study course fees, costs of assistance for the acquisition of public qualifications, daily and other allowances, travel costs, and office costs for trainees and in-house training staff, and other expenditure required for education and training (but not including the salary of trainees and training staff, which comes under personnel costs).

(1) Fiscal year 2007 total expenditure on education and training

- Average per : 203.42 million yen (large companies 328.43 million, small and medium companies 13.4 million yen).
- Average per employee : 43,524 yen (large companies 48,658 yen, small and medium companies 35,720 yen).

(2) Fiscal year 2008 budget for total expenditure on education and training

- Average per : 219.29 million yen (large companies 354.59 million yen, small and

medium companies 13.64 million yen).

- Average per employee : 47,365 yen (large companies 54,290 yen, small and medium companies 36,840 yen).

Education and training expenditure per employee rose each year in the five years from 2003 to 2007. Comparing the fiscal year 2007 figure of 43,524 yen and the fiscal year 2000 figure of 31,384 yen, education and training expenditure per employee rose by 12,140 yen or around 1.4-fold.

However, with the world economic downturn starting in the second half of 2008 and the resulting unparalleled deterioration of the domestic economy, the financial difficulties of companies have led to cuts in personnel budgets, so that education and training expenditure per employee is forecast to continue on a downward trend until the prospect of a recovery in the business climate and business performance appears.

#### **1.4. Measurement and utilization of the results of corporate education**

Regarding the measurement of the results of corporate education, methods of utilizing the results, and necessary adaptive measures, the findings of Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare's 2007 Basic Survey of Ability Development, referred to previously, establish the following points:

Firstly, the proportion of companies which measure the results of corporate education is 62.9%. The method of measurement in order of frequency (multiple responses given) is (1) 'measurement of results by collecting reports, etc., from employees' (55.1%), (2) 'measurement of results by including a final test in the curriculum' (32.6%), (3) 'measurement by managers questioning employees as to results or by setting of examination' (23.1%), and (4) 'repeat measurement of results through in-house certification or similar' (15.1%).

Of the companies which measure the results of corporate education, 94.9% took action to utilise the results. The methods of utilization (multiple responses given) were: (1) 'results communicated to the relevant employees for reference in their career development' (42.4%), (2) 'results passed on to managers as reference material for their staff assessments' (40.6%), (3) 'passed on to staff responsible for education and training for utilization in future education and training plans' (37.1%), and (4) 'subjected to in-house human resources assessment criteria to serve in employee assessment' (32.9%). There is thus a tendency to link corporate education results to career development and management of the individual.

Of the companies that collated the results, the proportion that felt that some kind of adaptive measure was necessary when utilizing the results was 84.1%. Although this result shows that the majority of companies make use of the results, at the same time it suggests the awareness of a problem in that, although the results are utilized, issues remain outstanding. The adaptive measures required to resolve these issues (multiple responses given) were: (1) 'creation of a set of criteria or similar to allow results to be

measured more accurately' (50.7%), (2) 'creation of a set of criteria to allow the education and training results to be linked to personnel assessment' (37.6%), (3) 'expertise in the formulation of an education and training curriculum' (33.5%), (4) 'assessment of employees from the standpoint of individual career development support' (32.8%). This appears to indicate that, at present, there is no clear framework within the organization offering a foundation for the educational system as a whole, for instance in terms of criteria for results and assessments.

### **1.5. Gap between employers and employees in attitudes to corporate education and how to resolve it**

According to a survey carried out in 2007 by The Japan Institute for Labour Policy and Training entitled Survey of Employee Attitudes and Human Resources Management Issues (multiple responses given), two of the most common factors in reduced employee work satisfaction, apart from 'dissatisfaction with salary' (43.4%), were 'dissatisfaction that personal growth is not possible at work' (32.6%) and 'dissatisfaction that there is no outlet for individuality at work' (28.9%). With the item 'dissatisfaction with salary', there was an awareness of the issue on the part of the companies, but although 'dissatisfaction that personal growth is not possible through work' and 'dissatisfaction that there is no outlet for individuality in work' were experienced on the employees' part, there was found to be insufficient awareness of these on the part of the companies.

In response to the findings of the above survey, White Paper on Labor Economy (2009) expounds the need for companies to be aware of the job performance of individual employees and to provide a corresponding full range of vocational ability development (career development) measures so as to enhance the employee's sense of personal growth; and the need to assign duties in a way that corresponds to employee ambitions so as to respect the individuality of each employee. In other words, there is a need to create a workplace and a society where employees feel motivated to work; one of the most strongly advocated strategies to this end is corporate education which inspires strong motivation in employees and encourages vocational ability development. This perspective also highlights the importance of corporate education linked to ES (Employee Satisfaction), which includes wide-ranging ability development to encourage personal growth, the stimulation of individual employee motivation, and the maintenance of work life balance.

At the same time, it is essential to provide a workplace environment in which employees can work confidently by taking measures to prevent excessive workload and maintain health. However, in the 51st Survey of Staff Welfare and Benefit Expenditure conducted by Nippon Keidanren in 2008, the findings relating to 'mental health initiatives' indicated the inadequacy of mental health education for non-managerial staff, with 63.1% offering 'mental health education for managerial grades' but only

45.3% providing 'mental health education for non-managerial grades'. Meanwhile, the partial amendment in 2007 of the Industrial Safety and Health Law established a legal duty to implement a mental health policy. Given these developments, mental health policy needs to be reviewed as a more integrated part of corporate risk management and mental healthcare education needs to be implemented fully in the workplace as part of 'self-care', 'care by line managers', and 'care by corporate medical staff'.

## **2. Government support to workers**

In order to adapt flexibly to recent developments - the revolution in advanced information science and technology, the restructuring of industry, the changing employment environment, changing attitudes to employment and increasingly diverse sets of values in the workforce, the increasing fluidity of labor and the mismatch between jobseekers and jobs - there is a need to promote and enhance independent vocational ability development in line with the individual professional life plans of workers. In connection, with the aim of clarifying the measures which employers need to take, the Human Resources Development Promotion Law, the basic law on vocational ability development measures, was amended in 2001.

In light of the content of the abovementioned legislative amendment, and from a perspective separate to that of the specific educational development within companies, we will now look at policy formulation and implementation and other basic trends in the activities of Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare and Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry as of 2009.

### **2.1. Support provided by Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare**

#### **2.1.1. Policy formulation and implementation**

Among the worker education sponsored by Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare is vocational ability development as part of labor policy. Against the background of the fall in the working age population caused by the falling national population, alterations in the labor environment due to international competition, and other changes, the aim is to adapt continuously to changes in the labor environment through vocational ability development by creating an employment environment that maximizes worker motivation and ability with a view to turning out highly skilled human resources with the creativity to form the next generation. Specifically, ability development initiatives are targeted at a wide variety of groups including youth, people in employment, people seeking employment, people with disabilities, and employers. The four main planks of policy implementation for vocational ability development are as follows:

- (1) Implementation of human resources training offering high added value
- (2) Support for self-motivated vocational ability development by workers
- (3) Promotion of white-collar vocational ability development

- (4) Training of technically skilled human resources to support the industrial infrastructure

The execution of the above policies is in the hands of the Japan Vocational Ability Development Association, the vocational ability development associations of prefecture-level authorities, the Employment and Human Resources Development Organization of Japan (Polytechnic University, vocational ability development promotion centers, lifelong vocational ability development promotion centers, advanced vocational ability development promotion centers, polytechnic colleges, junior polytechnic colleges attached to polytechnic colleges, junior polytechnic colleges, and centers run by prefecture level authorities).

#### **2.1.2. Systems relating to ability development**

At Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, provision of ability development to workers includes the following wide range of systems.

- (1) Systems involving grants for promotion of vocational ability development provided by employers, etc.
  - Grants for promotion of career development, allowances to support training, etc., allowances for implementation of vocational ability assessment, local employment development and ability development grants, incentive payments to small and medium-sized businesses to realize human resource abilities, small and medium-sized businesses employment creation and related ability development grants, grants for projects to facilitate the securing of human resources for small and medium-sized businesses, construction education and training grants, grants to construction business employer federations to promote employment reform.
- (2) Systems involving promotion of self-motivated vocational ability development by workers
  - Systems providing allowances for education and training, career consulting, Career Information Navigator.
- (3) Systems providing publicly sponsored vocational training
  - Training for people leaving jobs, training for people in employment, training for school graduates.
- (4) Systems targeted at youth
  - Job experience training courses, joint work-and-training schemes, projects to promote job placement through effective intensive support to youth, 'second chance' courses, 3-level technical skill certification systems, projects to support acquisition of basic employment abilities by young people, local youth support stations, youth independent living training classes.
- (5) Systems providing job-seeking support and career development support for casual workers, women, etc.
  - Job Card system.



- (6) Systems providing vocational ability assessment
  - Technical skill certification systems, in-house certification and accreditation systems, business and career certification systems, systems providing standards for vocational ability assessment, systems providing standards for experience and ability assessment.
- (7) Systems to promote technical skills
  - Support measures for the transmission and development of technical proficiency, technical skill competitions, 'Contemporary Master Crafts' system for recognizing people with outstanding technical skills.
- (8) Systems providing training to overseas nationals and international cooperation
  - Systems providing training and practice in technical skills to overseas nationals, global human resources training projects, job placement support projects for people with experience of employment overseas.

### **2.1.3. Level of implementation of systems**

Regarding the need to utilize the career consulting in 2.1.2-(2) above, the report of the 2008 Career Consulting Conference, organized by Japan Vocational Ability Development Association on commission from Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, indicated that the practice was not yet widely disseminated among the workforce and organizations. However, it was also made clear that, as it was not easy for individual members of the workforce to undertake career development on the strength of their own awareness and efforts alone, career development support from career consultants to workers was very important not only for the individual but also for society and the economy, and that into the future this activity would need to fulfil a social mission. As part of this process, to improve the abilities of the career consultants themselves, reference was made to reforms involving the creation of a system with the possible introduction of technical certification or other measures in addition to the existing qualification system.

Regarding the training for people leaving people referred to in 2.1.2-(3) above, according to The 2008 Review of Results of Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare policies, the rate of employment uptake among people who had completed publicly sponsored vocational training commissioned to private-sector education and training institutions was 59.8% in fiscal year 2004, 65.1% in fiscal year 2005, 68.2% in fiscal year 2006, and 69.8% in fiscal year 2007 (the target for fiscal year 2007 was 65%). The figure for fiscal year 2007 was thus above target. The rate of employment uptake among people who had completed publicly sponsored vocational training at public-sector vocational and training institutions was 76.6% in fiscal year 2004, 78.0% in fiscal year 2005, 79.7% in fiscal year 2006, and 78.5% in fiscal year 2007 (the target for fiscal year 2007 was 80%). Although the level of achievement was thus slightly below target in fiscal year 2007, it did amount to 98.1% of the target figure. A

necessary task for the future for Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare is to consider livelihood support during the vocational training period for people such as homeless people who frequent Internet cafe and to implement relevant policy measures.

Meanwhile, according to White Paper on Health, Labor and Welfare 2008, after an increase to 2.17 million in 2003, the number of casual workers fell to 1.81 million in 2007. Among older casual workers of 25 to 34 years, however, the peak was reached in 2004 with 990,000 casual workers, after which the 2007 figure of 920,000 was the same as for 2006, indicating a stagnating tendency in the number of older casual workers. This situation leads to concern that there may be a decrease among young people in the basic abilities required of working adults.

One of the policies designed to resolve this problem is the provision of the joint work-and-training schemes mentioned in 2.1.2-(4) above, which began in 2004, consists of practically oriented vocational training which makes use of existing publicly sponsored vocational training to integrate study with practical experience at a company or other institution. According to the 2008 Overall evaluation of policy issued by Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, the number of people participating in this scheme was 23,000 in fiscal year 2004, 27,000 in fiscal year 2005, 28,000 in fiscal year 2006, and 27,000 in fiscal year 2007. The proportion of participants who had taken up employment was 68.8% in fiscal year 2004, 71.9% in fiscal year 2005, 75.2% in fiscal year 2006, and 76.5% in fiscal year 2007. In this four-year period, the training did thus lead to employment uptake, albeit in small increments.

The Job Card system referred to in 2.1.2-(5) above, which was launched in 2008, is likewise intended to encourage the progression to regular employment for casual workers. After receiving career consulting, participants undergo practical education and training through a combination of OJT in the company and Off-JT in educational institutions or other facilities, and apply the ability assessments and work experience thus acquired to job-seeking activity. Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare has a target of 500,000 people completing participation in the Job Card system by fiscal year 2010. However, this system cannot be said at the moment to enjoy an adequate level of recognition and the report of the Business Management and Labor Policy Committee (2009) compiled by Nippon Keidanren points out the need to reinforce publicity activity and promote better understanding of the system.

#### **2.1.4. Budgets relating to ability development**

At Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, the main fiscal year 2009 budget proposals for worker education are as follows.

- (1) Budget relating to promotion of urgent measures for the improvement of the employment situation
  - Re-employment support measures 'expansion of the scale of training schemes for job leavers' : 24.1 billion yen.

- (2) Budgets relating to youth independent living
  - Implementation of ‘plan to guide casual workers’ into regular employment : 45.6 billion yen.
  - Strengthened support for vocational independence for NEETs and similar young people : 2.2 billion yen.
- (3) Budgets relating to fulfillment of vocational ambitions for women
  - Support for both work and home life ‘implementation of measures at small and medium companies to support the raising of the next generation’ : 780 million yen.
- (4) Budgets relating to implementation of five-year plan to promote ‘welfare to work’
  - Implementation of employment support for people with disabilities ‘enhanced support to people with disabilities for vocational ability development’ : 6.4 billion yen.
- (5) Budgets relating to construction and enhancement of vocational ability creation systems
  - Execution of commissioned training in vocational ability creation programs : 9.3 billion yen.
  - Implementation of induction training for non-regular employees, etc. : 380 million yen. Strengthened activities to promote the dissemination of the Job Card system : 3.9 billion yen.
  - Setting up of career consulting system at job placement offices, etc., and other measures : 3.4 billion yen.
- (6) Budgets relating to securing of local employment opportunities and enhanced support for small and medium companies
  - Promotion of a nation built on manufacturing ‘human resources training support for local manufacturing sectors (new allocation)’ : 60 million yen.
  - Promotion of a nation built on manufacturing ‘Promotion of manufacturing-related technical skills through Technical Skill Olympic contests’ : 1 billion yen.
  - Promotion of a nation built on manufacturing ‘Promotion of transmission of technical skills by deploying baby boom generation workers’ : 600 million yen.

## **2.2. Outline of support provided by Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry**

### **2.2.1. Policy formulation and implementation**

The education-related support to the workforce provided by Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry consists of an industrial human resources program as part of economic and industrial policy. This industrial human resources program, which takes a wide perspective to include industrial sectors within Japan, the educational sector, local communities, and even international society, aims to improve productivity through the creation of mechanisms for human resources training, the construction of an employment and education system adapted to the growing diversity of values, the creation of human resources outstanding in global terms, the production of innovative

and creative human resources, the promotion of environmental enhancement for the purpose of human resource utilization, and other measures.

Toward the realization of the government vision of a nation built on talented human resources, the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry implements policies relating to creation of a skilled workforce around the following three policy planks.

- (1) Training of human resources based on dialog between industry and academia
- (2) Environmental enhancement to create a diverse range of human resources to work in companies
- (3) Human resources training in cooperation with global society

From the end of 2008, the country faces a severe economic situation said to represent the kind of recession that occurs once every 100 years. Under these circumstances, to address item (2) above, Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry, in a joint project with Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare and Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, undertook a nationwide survey in 2009 of companies making efforts to create superior conditions of employment despite the harsh environment. As a result, 1,400 companies were identified as companies with outstanding activities to develop staff abilities and use human resources as an asset and information on the admirable aspects of these companies is being disseminated. The aim of this initiative by Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry is to promote resolution of the mismatch between jobs and jobseekers and revitalization of corporate management. The project is being implemented as part of efforts to create an environment in which companies can undertake benchmarking of human resources training and other employment-stimulating activities.

#### **2.2.2. Systems relating to human resources training**

Systems relating to human resources training sponsored by Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry includes the following:

- (1) Systems relating to global human resources training
  - Career Development Programme for Foreign Students from Asia.
- (2) Systems of tax reductions for small and medium-sized businesses to give human resources training
  - Tax incentives to promote investment in human resources.
- (3) Systems relating to promotion of youth employment and human resources training
  - Job Cafe, strengthening of basic abilities as working adults.

#### **2.2.3. Level of implementation of systems**

The Career Development Programme for Foreign Students from Asia referred to in 2.2.2-(1) above, which aims to promote professional activity by Asian students in Japanese industry, was launched in 2007. In concrete terms, it uses partnerships between industry and academia to carry out development and execution of specialist education programmes, internships, employment support, and education in Japanese

language for business, education in Japanese business, promotion of study in Japan for overseas students, and promotion of participation in programmes. This activity is seen as one of the pillars of the government's plan to host 300,000 overseas students in Japan by 2020.

Job Cafe in 2.2.2-(3) above are one-stop service centers under the control of prefecture-level authorities which have been operated since 2004 in coordination with relevant government departments in order to assist casual workers to progress into regular employment and to promote youth employment and ability improvement in line with local employment and industry characteristics. According to the 2008 overall review mentioned above, the number of users was 1.086 million in fiscal year 2004, 1.633 million in fiscal year 2005, 1.673 million in fiscal year 2006, and 1.591 million in fiscal year 2007 (the target for fiscal year 2007 was 1.471 million). The number of users who entered employment was 53,000 in fiscal year 2004, 89,000 in fiscal year 2005, 93,000 in fiscal year 2006, and 88,000 in fiscal year 2007 (the target for fiscal year 2007 was 87,000). The Ministry of Labour, Health and Welfare interprets these findings as indicating that the degree of recognition of Job Cafe among young people has expanded to a steady level and that the number of service users and also the number of people finding employment has shown favourable growth. In the future, one task will be to enhance support to older casual workers in an ongoing way.

#### **2.2.4. Budgets relating to human resources training**

Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry's fiscal year 2009 budget proposals relating to worker education are as follows:

- (1) Budgets relating to 'creation of human resources to support growth' as part of economic and industrial policy
  - Promotion of human resources training through partnership between industry and academia : 2.1 billion yen (new allocation).
  - Career Development Program for Foreign Students from Asia : 3.4 billion yen.
  - Japanese language training, etc., based on economic partnership agreements (nurses from the Philippines and caregivers, etc.) : 1.6 billion yen (new allocation).
- (2) Budgets relating to 'securing and development of human resources' as part of small and medium-sized business policy and local economic and industrial policy
  - Projects relating to human resource measures for small and medium-sized businesses and small-scale businesses : 12.5 billion yen.
  - Projects for manufacturing-related human resources training for small and medium-sized businesses : 380 million yen.
  - Projects to give guidance in ensuring appropriate systems of training and technical skill training for overseas nationals : 90 million yen (new allocation).

With a view to implementation of the projects relating to human resource measures for small and medium-sized businesses and small-scale businesses referred to in-(2) above, it has been decided from 2009 to promote 'bridge-building projects' (internships,

employment seminars, manufacturing discovery tours, etc.) to link up small and medium-sized businesses and small-scale businesses with the human resources to form their core workforce and human resources to provide them with immediate strategic ability for the future; and 'practically oriented training' (e.g. sector-specific training through partnerships between agriculture, commerce, and manufacturing) to cultivate immediate strategic ability. The target for the former scheme is to find employment for 15,000 people each year, while the target for the latter is 10,000 people. A background issue in this is the creation of innovative human resources, which is an important issue for the business survival of small and medium-sized businesses and small-scale businesses amid the worsening operating conditions caused by the worldwide recession. In connection, White Paper on Small and Medium-sized Businesses (2009) establishes the importance for the cultivation of innovative human resources of ensuring the appropriate transmission of technical skills and abilities and also, in order to inspire ideas that lead to innovation. Of carrying out initiatives to activate abilities through participation in study and training courses and other contacts with external knowledge and information.

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### { Recommendations }

#### 1. Need for stable strategic investment in equality-based corporate education

In 'the ten lost years' which followed the collapse of Japan's economic bubble in 1991, companies sought to cut costs by restructuring and postponing recruitment of regular employees, shifting instead to recruitment of non-regular employees, and at the same time undertook cuts in education and other expenditure. As mentioned above, this situation has been a breeding ground for the appearance within companies of marked inequalities in educational opportunities between non-regular and regular employees. The problem of inequalities in educational opportunities has also appeared among

regular employees themselves, for instance between generations of employees, between employees taken on during the yearly recruitment season and those taken on at other times of the year, and between those participating in selective training and non-participants. Meanwhile, although the government has declared a goal of having women occupy 30% of all managerial positions by the year 2020, the problem of gender inequality in educational opportunity remains stubbornly entrenched in the workplace of today. Although the economic situation in Japan began to recover in 2002, the world financial crisis of the latter half of 2008 has had a serious impact on the real economy, and the resulting present worsening situation of companies has led to budget cuts and a consequent reduction in educational opportunities.

To correct this educational inequality, education must be implemented with a long-term perspective in a stable and continuous manner and without being regarded as a cost.

## **2. Integrated promotion of ability development in coordination with ESD**

To allow contemporary global society to confront the problem of sustainability, companies, which are one of its constituent elements, also need to implement corporate education from the perspective of ESD. However, under current conditions, the main focus is still on education directly related to improvement of productivity and business performance to ensure business survival. To remedy this situation, it is important for each individual to foster all-round abilities linked to ESD; this means not only developing the knowledge, skills, and other abilities required to perform professional duties but also forming a well-adjusted awareness able to ponder questions such as how a global citizen should live in the modern world, and how and for what purpose to work. To this end, corporate management itself must promote a change in awareness, coordinated with the perspective of corporate social responsibility, from which to progress with new thinking and altered behaviour.

## **3. Development of worker-centered education from the adult education approach**

Traditionally in Japan, research into corporate education has been carried out mainly from the perspective of personnel management as an aspect of the study of business administration. With the world economy facing the difficult situation outlined above, however, workers are beginning to lose the guarantee of employment, regardless of whether they are regular or non-regular employees. Through this development, companies deprive workers of a reason to work, a reason to learn, and moreover a reason to live. Given the narrow management-centered thinking whereby the individual is sacrificed for the survival of the company, it is therefore not possible at present to entrust to companies the task of providing education for the sake of the worker.

What is required of contemporary education in this situation is that it should consist of more than merely training focused on the vocational aspect and designed to raise productivity; rather it should nurture in workers the capacity to survive by adapting in a self-motivated and flexible manner to the drastic changes in the environment. There is thus an urgent need for education that adopts the perspective not only of workers but also the unemployed and NEETs.

For the future, accordingly, research is needed into the cultivation of talented human capital which, rather than concentrating exclusively on the perspective of business management, adopts the adult education approach and takes an individual-centered perspective when considering questions of work and professional life. In doing so, it will be essential to take as the two pillars of the program the practice of education - not restricted to corporate education - and the practice of adult education research, and to coordinate these two elements.

#### **4. Providing a legislative framework for the right to a career**

In the harsh employment environment brought about by the world economic downturn, there is greater need than ever for commitment to the right to a career, which, as a system of rights which would facilitate the improvement of the abilities of the workforce, was advocated by the Labor Market Policy Research Seminar to Support Career Development organized in 2002 by Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. However, this right to a career is not a right recognized under labor-related legislation.

Under Japan's employment policy so far, employment responsibility has rested with the employer, and respect for the right of the individual worker to a career was as good as non-existent. However, due to the effect of the economic crisis which began in the second half of 2008, it has become extremely difficult for companies to provide workers with a guarantee of employment, let alone a guarantee of education, and the need has therefore suddenly arisen for a shift to policies which promote an appropriate balance between employment responsibility and the right to a career.

We therefore need to put in place a varied range of labor-related legislation, starting with the Human Resources Development Promotion Act, moving away from the concept of work as the subordination of the worker to the organization and concentrating on the idea of work as the means through which the individual achieves self-realization. This step is one of the main tasks facing the government as it realigns the framework of its employment policy and is one which will allow it to embark on a careers policy founded on educational parameters that focus on the varying situations of the individual in working life.

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## **- 8 Present Situation and Problems**

### **on Education for Migrant Workers and**

### **Ethnic Minorities in Japan**

#### **1. Diversification of culture, language and ethnicity**

##### **1.1. New tendency from the 1980s**

Japan as a State, in its modernization, made up itself as the nation State with cultural, linguistic and ethnic diversity, while integrating Imperial Ryukyu, which had his own language and culture totally different from those of Japan, and reclaiming the Hokkaido island where the indigenous people the Ainu were living. And also, as a result of colonial occupation of Korean peninsula and Taiwan island by Japan in the Second World War, a lot of Koreans and Chinese continued staying in Japan after the War and composed its ethnic community. However, for the long time, the central and local governments have not paid any attention to its cultural, linguistic and ethnic diversity in Japanese society which were made up along the history, while those community and its member have been discriminated individually or collectively and forced to be assimilated to Japanese society and culture. As the same time, they have been suffering from strict discrimination in job hunting or marriage, which have not been done away up to today.

In this context, because of development of policies for migrant of each countries with increase of number of migrant workers(including family members), with international movement of migration and consciousness raising on the rights of indigenous and minority people, new civic movements have began to guarantee their right to learn.

##### **1.2. The present situation of migrant workers**

In Japan, since the second half of the 1980s, the number of foreign residents has been increased. It reached to 2,152,973 as of December, 2007, which amounted to 1.7% of population in Japan. The number of residents according to nationality is as of the Figure 1. About 500 thousands Korean people would be the people from Korean peninsula who came to Japan because of Fig.1 Foreign Residents

Japanese colonial occupation in the Second World War.

The Japanese government and the industrial world intend to receive more migrant workers because it is supposed that the shortage of workforce would continue. Almost all of those workers will work at the bottom of labor market and will be under precarious condition as like they will be used as a valve of labor market.

Nationality	Number	%
Total	2,152,973	100
China	606,889	28.2
Korea	593,489	27.6
Brazil	316,967	14.7
Filipine	202,592	9.4
Peru	59,696	2.8
USA	51,851	2.4
Others	321,489	14.9

These migrant workers are working with limited Japanese proficiency to work in Japan because they have few chance to learn Japanese. Then, they are under dangerous conditions in work places because they can't read Japanese words related to safety in work places. And also they are disadvantaged because they have few chances to get knowleges or informations necessary for their living and working as a civic in Japanese Society.

### 1.3. The present situation of the Ainu

The Ainu people, who has his own language, culture and religion, has been living as aborigine in the area of the Tohoku(north part of the Honshuu Island), the Hokkaido Island, the Saharin Island and the Kuril Islands where the Ainu calls "Ainu Mociri" that means the earth for men living. Since the 1600s, the Ainu people had been forced to migrate from one island to another by the Japanese and Russian governments which had battled for their expansion. From 1869 to 1877, the Japanese government began to rule and reclaim those area as a part of Japan regardless of intention of Ainu people, changing the name of Ezo to Hokkaido. The Japanese government established the Agency for Reclamation, integrated the Ainu people to Japanese citizens with Registration Law and forced them to change their names from their own to Japanese mode. Beside those policies, the Japanese gavernment forced the acquisition of Japanese, prohibiting the use of their own language( forcing their children to study at schools for reclamation and special schools for only indegenous children) and integrated the land of Ainu people to Japanese nationally-owned land. The Japanese government sold that land as government property to Japanese settlers, putting several laws into operation, and subordinated the Ainu people with discriminative Acts like Protection Law for Hokkaido Indegenous People or Educational Rule for Indegenous People's Children(from 1899 to 1901).(Cited by The Foundation for Resarch and Promotion of Ainu Culture, *Ainu people: Present Situation and his History*, March, 2008 )

Today, the population of the Aniu people is about 24,000 in Hokkaido and about 2,700 in Tokyo metropolitan area. In fact, it is supposed to reach to 10 times more than

the survey, because there are a lot of Ainu people who can't speak their roots on account of discrimination.

If we compare with other families the result of survey(Fig. 2) on the ratio of students who go on to the next stage of education or ratio of public assistance, we can find that there exists big diferencial and Ainu peoples are forced to live with difcult conditions. Moreover, we need to pay attention to the fact that the survey does include only the people identified by themselves as Ainu.

Fig. 2 Next stage of education and living conditions

	The Ainu	Average *	Diferencial
To high school	93.5%	98.3%	1.1
To universitie	17.4%	38.5%	2.2
Public assistance	3.8%	2.5%	1.6

\* in the cities where the Ainu people live

( Acording to the survey on the living condition of Ainu in Hokkaido, 2006 )

## 2. Present situation of the legal system and governmental policies

### 2.1. Policies on the migrant workers

The Japanese government ratified the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, taking position as it is not necessary to establish domestic law like as Act Against Discrimination. But, in fact, there exists the movement to ask for establishment of law like as Act Against Discrimination, because there are many cases of discrimination for foreigners or racial discrimination. The Japanese government has not ratified the Internationl Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migant Workers and Members of Their Families

Regarding the Japanese language education which the migrant workers face with a big dificulty, the Japanese government has not established public system to guarantee the access to classes. On the contrary, it is dependent on civic volunatary activities.

On the other hand, some local governments have developed the policies to promote social participation of foreign residents including migrant workers, establishing "The Board of Foreign Residents", and have enacted the local government by-laws to make the community with harmonious relation between Japanese residents and foreign residents. In some cities where the foreign residents live concentrated, they have some Japanese classes in the insitutions for Life-long Learning or Socail Education like Citizens Hall "Kominkan".

In spite of those efforts, generally, there are few effective programs with respects to cultural and linguistic diversity of migrant workers to abolish the discrimination or

prejudices to migrant workers, while they use the slogan “Living harmoniously with respect to cultural diversity”, but the policies don’t have effective contents.

Neither, in those programs the Japanese language education is not considered as main problem of adult basic education, nor we can find their ideas to guarantee their right with free access. In many cases, those programs are not treated as those of adult education, but as international exchange program which are cared by the department of international affairs.

## **2.2. The policies for ethnic minorities**

In 1997, the Law for the Promotion of the Ainu Culture and for the Dissemination and Advocacy for the Traditions of the Ainu and the Ainu Culture was enacted and the Law for Protection of Hokkaido Indigenous People was finally abolished. The enactment of Law for the Promotion of the Ainu Culture and for the Dissemination and Advocacy for the Traditions of the Ainu and the Ainu Culture led to establishment of the Foundation for Research and Promotion of Ainu Culture, subsidized by the Japanese government with about 340 millions yen per year. With this financial support, the projects to pass the Ainu culture down to next generation and to disseminate the comprehension to the Ainu culture have been developed, but those projects are limited to cultural activities. Another project to improve the quality of life of the Ainu people which are supported by the Japanese government and the Hokkaido government doesn’t apply to the area out of Hokkaido. For that reason, those who live out of the Hokkaido have difficulty in living and educating their children.

The Japanese government has not recognized legally their rights as aborigine, while recognizing the Ainu people as aborigine. In June, 2008, the Lower House and Upper House adopted the Resolution for Recognition of Ainu People as Aborigine. But, the Japanese government has not changed his attitude with which he approved of the Resolution with condition the United Nations’ Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous People, insisting that the definition of “indigenous” is not clear.

On the other hand, the Hokkaido government based on the Law is subsidizing the Foundation 34 millions yen as the same amount as the Japanese government do.

Concerning the Korean people, their activities to maintain their ethnic identity or to promote the comprehension to their ethnic culture, have not been encouraged. Some local governments where a lot of Koreans live concentrated are encouraging such type of activities, reflected from the movement of ethnic associations, other local governments are retreating with abolition of affirmative action for them in the impost payment because of the diplomatic problems with North Korea in these years.

## **3. Expansion of the movement in the civil society**

Against the poor policies by the central and local governments, related to adult education on migrant workers and ethnic minorities, the nationwide associations or

networkings are coming into being to insist improvement in the policies or to exchange the informations or experiences between groups.

Among those associations, the Solidarity Network with Migrants Japan, founded in 1997, is working to solve the problems related to the human rights or legal status of migrant workers, especially educational problems of schools for foreign children and ethnic schools, in order to protect migrants' rights, support their empowerment, and create a multi-ethnic and multi-cultural society in Japan. He realizes nationwide forum to exchange informations or experiences every other year and is developing active advocacy to the government with lobby activities.

The networkings to exchange experiences in the area of Japanese language education is coming into being in nationwide with participation of citizens or researchers working in the community-based learning activities. The National Networking Nihongo Forum is one of the tentatives to connect those regional associations and to ask for the policy to guarantee migrant workers publicly the access to learn Japanese. "The Tokyo Declaration and Action Plan Aiming for the Public Endorsement of Education for the Purpose of Realizing a Multicultural and Multilingual Society" adopted in 2001 has been the main activity for The National Networking Nihongo Forum. It contains 3 main activities like realization of a multi-cultural and multi-lingual society, public assurance of the access to learn Japanese and the access to education for foreign children, having national forum with partnership to regional networking.

Concerning the Ainu people, since the second half of the 1980s, the Hokkaido Utari Association, founded by themselves in 1946, has been developed active advocacy and activities to learn the Ainu language and to pass the Ainu culture down to next generation in Hokkaido.

The Forum on Ethnic Minorities is also mainly composed by the Ainu people to recover the ethnic minorities' rights. He has been developed advocacy activities related to education and culture of the Ainu people realizing periodical meeting every other month and general conference once a year in order to "protect the rights and culture of the ethnic minorities and develop the activities, including researches. He has the unique vision about the constitutional reform different from other groups.

Recently many private schools for foreign children or ethnic schools, especially Brazilian schools, have been established collectively to maintain their cultural and ethnic identity. Networking to Establish the System for Schools to Foreign Children and Ethnic Schools is one of those groups which ask for official recognition as school and remove away disadvantages of children who study in those schools. It was founded in 2006 to protect the right to education for foreign children, with new participants like as Brazilian schools, based on the rich experiences of the ethnic schools which was founded to maintain the ethnic identity of Koreans after the Second World War and have been managed against the various oppression or obstacles.

#### **4. Public assurance of the access to learn Japanese language**

The access for migrant workers to learn Japanese language is limited in work places and the communities, which leads to difficulties in everyday life, to disadvantage or to barriers to find job.

According to the result of the survey carried by the Agency for Cultural Affairs every year, in 2007, there are 122,541 persons studying in the institutions except of higher education. The total number of teachers is 31,234, of which 26,214, 83.9%, are voluntary. Although the number of learners and teachers are increasing with increase of migrant workers, the number of learners is still small with comparison to total number of migrant workers, which means that there are a lot of migrant workers without any Japanese language class.

We know that happens because there are few Japanese language classes in the communities with easy access. The Japanese language classes are insufficient for each community. For that, the help by public institutions is needed.

Independence on the efforts of voluntary teachers is causing the shortage of Japanese language class.

Against that situation, there are related persons appealing that the local governments should establish Japanese language classes in each community and put professionals like qualified Japanese language teacher to those classes, while it may be impossible to accept more migrant workers to the existing Japanese language classes. The National Networking Nihongo Forum insists with eagerness that point in "The Tokyo Declaration and Action Plan Aiming for the Public Endorsement of Education for the Purpose of Realizing a Multicultural and Multilingual Society".

In this movement to insist public assurance, there appear the movement to insist the establishment of Japanese Language Education Law. It is necessary for the State which accepts migrant workers to assure legally the access for the to learn Japanese.

#### **5. Assurance of ethnic education**

##### **succession of culture and language, and ethnic school**

Educational activities are very important for ethnic minorities to inherit their cultures and languages. Concerning the Ainu people, they have been struggling to recover their language and to succeed their culture, because there are few people who can speak the Ainu language. The learning activities have also been developed all over the country to abolish the discrimination to the Ainu people and disseminate the Ainu culture, using the support program to invite advisory by the Foundation for Research and Promotion of the Ainu Culture. On the other hand, some universities began to have the Ainu language class or classes related to the Ainu culture, stimulating the consciousness raising about the importance for the majority to learn about problems of ethnic minorities, especially for the youth to learn. .

Although the Korean people in Japan have been disadvantaged because of

international politics, they have developed their educational and cultural activities , especially in Korean schools, to maintain their ethnic identity. Recently, they are receiving a lot of requests for exchange activities by Japanese public schools.

In the new current of ethnic education like this, it is very interesting to note that there are some people to act to assure the right for the Ainu people to ethnic education and discuss the possibility to establish Ainu peoples' school.

Another point to which we have to pay attention is the fact that there are young people from ethnic minority having difficulties, among the international students from China and Chinese immigrant workers. The globalization leads to the migration acrossing borders and, as a result, the ethnic minority problems. We need to pay attention to those new problems in adult education.

## **[ Recommendations ]**

Toward the realization multi-cultural, multi-lingual and multi-ethnic society

1. It is important to realize the society where the migrant workers or ethnic minorities are not disadvantaged because of different culture or language and to have educational activities for that.
2. Assure publicly the access for migrant workers to learn Japanese.
3. Considering the recover of the Ainu language and succession of his culture as urgent problem, ethnic education for minority groups should be assured publicly.
4. Schools for foreign children and ethnic schools should be supported publicly to maintain their own ethnic identity.

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## - 9 Support for Learning and Cultural Activities of

### Disabled Persons : Its Development and Problem

#### 1. Trends and problems in social welfare policy for Disabled Persons

The International Year of Disabled Persons, 1981, advocated removing all barriers to social participation of Disabled Persons and played a decisive role in spreading the idea of normalization in Japan, which aims to offer the people with or without disabilities the equal opportunity to enjoy the dairy, vocational and cultural life. In following UN Decade of Disabled Persons, the measures were developed to improve the life and to promote social participation of people with disabilities under the motto of normalization. In 1990, eight laws for social welfare were revised. This revision advanced the change of direction of welfare policy from institutionalism to home care principle.

In 1993, the Fundamental Law for Disabled Persons was enacted, which decided to found a basic pension for disabled persons and to make a Fundamental Plan for Disabled Persons, it also advocated to remove four kinds of barriers, i.e. the barriers in our physical world, in our social institutions, in our culture and information and in our consciousness toward an equal society for all and by all. Here exists an understanding that it is the best way of welfare service for people with disabilities to deliver them a normal life based on home care. Then, in 1995, the Government Action Plan for Persons with Disabilities—A seven-year normalization strategy—was proclaimed, which contained some numerical targets to realize the Fundamental Plan and gave priority in the measures for;

Living in Communities as Ordinary Citizens,  
Promoting the Independence of Persons with Disabilities,  
Promoting a Barrier-free Society,  
Targeting the Quality of Life (QOL),  
Removing Psychological Barriers, etc.

It must be emphasized, however, that this development toward the normalization has been accompanied with an attempt to review and completely upset the welfare system before. As a decisive step for such fundamental structural reform of the social welfare for the Disabled Persons, the "Act to Amend the Social Welfare Law etc. for the Promotion of Social Welfare" was enacted in June 2000, which, under the principle of



respect for self-determination of Disabled Persons and user-oriented services, introduced a kind of *Subsidy System* instead of the previous *Service-Providing System*. Since its implementation in FY 2003, however, this new system has been criticized by many organizations of disabled persons because of its laissez-faire tendency to commercialize the social welfare services and abandon the public responsibility for them under the banner of decentralization.

In such context, the “Services and Supports for Persons with Disabilities Act”, enacted in 2005 and enforced in October 2006, also became a hot issue because of its benefit principle. This law aims to develop the employment-support for disabled persons, to promote the decentralization of administrative system for social welfare, and ultimately to make a society which enables people with disabilities to live not in isolated institution but in local community. The welfare services for disabled persons had been classified to the following categories --- these for physically, intellectually and mentally disabled persons--- and, according to this classification, carried out separately by the central government. However this law integrated all services into one and made it the task of the local authorities. Furthermore this law declared the benefit principle and tried to increase the burden-sharing by beneficiaries.

Faced with severe criticism against this new law, the Japanese government, recognizing “this new system for providing welfare services is completely different from former, therefore should be enforced carefully”(“White Paper on Persons with Disabilities 2008”), undertook a “special measure for the smooth enforcement of the Services and Supports for Persons with Disabilities Act” which cost ¥ 120 billion over three years until 2008, and then additionally an emergency measure with ¥ 32 billion to decrease the burden of beneficiaries etc. However the necessity of these measures itself has proved the defects and contradictions within this law. And the protest against it, including the insistence of its abolishment, is now growing.

## **2. Learning as the foundation of independence and communication**

Under the problematic situations concerning the welfare policy for disabled persons stated above, we must challenge not only to construct the social system which guarantees disabled persons their living and employment but also to support the independence of them by realizing normalization. We must support the growth or transformation of disabled person from a passive object of measures by administrative institutions to an active and subjective agent, who can conclude the contract of welfare services for them and use the subsidy system to create their own life based on their own will. The people with disabilities should challenge to obtain such ability, and for that

they need enough competence of communication for their social participation, and the abundant opportunities of learning and cultural activities as the base of their competence. The promotion of learning and culture is the key for the improvement of quality of life of disabled persons in local communities.

In reality, however, the measures and activities in this field are not yet developed enough. The result of our investigation shows that very few people with disabilities, especially those with intellectual disabilities, go out to play with their friends on holidays or participate in the learning or cultural program provided in community. Many of them answer to the question about the free time after work or school, "I come straight to home". Then, we could assume, they spend time alone in home watching the TV etc. On the other hand, since the enforcement of the Services and Supports for Persons with Disabilities Act, the amount of services for disable persons in the field of culture, for example cultural program organized by the social welfare institutions and facilities, has been decreasing. Now, it becomes more and more important to support the cultural activities of/for disable persons by public hand. In this context, we are asked how we can support the learning activities of people with disabilities form the view point of LLL. Here educational administration, especially the Municipal Bureau for Education (MBE) with its division of adult and community education, is expected to show its real abilities.

But, to what extent do it really provide the learning and cultural program for disabled people in Japan? I would like to show some facts revealed in my questionnaire survey at the end of 2005. To every MBE of city, word, town or village with more than 2,000 populations, I sent a questionnaire form concerning its measures and programs for disabled persons executed by its division for adult and community education, and received answers from 1,119 (i.e. about 50% of asked) MBEs. The results were rather miserable. Among them, it is only 30% that executes some measures for disabled persons. And in many cases, a measure means only a kind of accompanying support for disabled persons, which enable them easier access to the lecture meetings or culture events, for example, the acceptability of wheelchair, the arrangement of sign language interpreter etc. Therefore it is only 13% of 1,119 MBEs that offers the learning and cultural programs organized especially for disabled people, for example the disabled youth class, the personal aloud reading service of public library etc.

Of course this is only the result of the MBE. The support for learning and cultural activities of disabled persons is executed, besides MBE, also by various authorities, facilities, organizations and groups, for example, municipal bureau for social welfare, local society for social welfare, disabled people support centre, disabled people

vocational centre, special school, university, self help group of disabled persons, NPO, volunteer group etc. Indeed, many of the MBEs, which executed no measure for disabled persons, answered the reason for that, because it was the task of the social welfare bureau. On the contrary, many of the MBEs executing some measure answered that they did that to offer the opportunity of LLL for disabled persons. This means that these MBEs are duly conscious of their role and responsibility to guarantee the right of learning and culture. Here I would like to reconfirm that the MBE should be the central actor for realizing the right to learn. And starting from this basic recognition, MBE should search for the new innovative measures and programs for disabled persons, not only by its self but in corporate with other actors.

In following sections, I will try to show some practices interesting from the above stated view point.

### **3. Development of the Disabled Youth Classes**

The Disabled Youth Class (DYC) is one of the typical programs for disabled persons, which covers learning, culture, sport, recreation and group activities, and is organized in various forms by the MBE (its division of adult and community education), special school (as a support for alumni association activity), various social welfare facility or parent' group.

The first DYC, the "Sumida Class", was established in 1964 by the MBE of Sumida Ward in Tokyo, according to the petition of the parents and the teachers of young people with intellectual disabilities, who had graduated from orthogenic class in junior high school before. Through the regular meetings of alumni association of this orthogenic class they were convinced that the chance to learn more and the place to meet together at ease were necessary for their children or pupil. As is shown in this formation process, DYCs have played an important role in supporting the learning and cultural activities of disabled youth who graduated from a school.

But many of them are organized and managed as an alumni association activity of the school for disabled children (now renamed to the supporting school). DYCs, which are organized by the MBE as a measure for adult education or LLL, exist only in metropolitan areas, like Tokyo, Nagoya, Osaka, Kyoto etc.

In Tokyo, the MBE of most wards and cities is executing the DYC-program. Especially in some cities in northwest Tokyo, including Machida city and Kunitachi city as the pioneers, the MBE has developed the innovative and multipronged DYC-program by using its KOMINKAN, the center facility for adult and community education. Also in Kawasaki city, which is adjacent to Tokyo, every Community Citizen Hall, a similar

facility to KOMINKAN, organizes a DYC.

In spite of their development, many DYCs have faced the difficult problems. The age of participants of DYC has been advanced; the number of participants, especially those with serious disabilities has been increased; it becomes harder and harder to organize the appropriate programs for diversified and increasing participants; active and positive participation of disabled persons should be promoted; but the budget and the staff of the MBE is reducing along with the municipal administration reform. We must now challenge these problems and find an actual solution upon the principle of public liability for the right to learn. In this challenge, the MBE should play its own important role.

#### **4. Outreach activities by the facilities and institutions for**

##### **adult and community education**

The various facilities and institutions for adult and community education or LLL--- most of them are established by the MBEs---, could play an important role in providing the learning opportunities for disabled persons. Therefore it is indispensable to enhance and improve these facilities so that the disabled persons can use them readily. Since few decades architectural improvement toward barrier-free facilities has been advanced, but improvement of their programs and services is still insufficient. Especially it becomes a hot issue today, how to enhance the services for visually disabled persons. As the activities in library, the Braille transcriber service, the personal aloud reading service, and the recording service, etc. have been developed. It is now necessary to enrich the large number of small municipal libraries, so that they also can offer these services in tomorrow.

In case of the activities in museum, such information services, as the direction board with Braille, the spoken direction, the museum tour with special guide for visually disabled persons etc. have spread to some extent. However, these services give them only indirect information on the exhibits, i.e. they have to appreciate the painting, for instance, only through the words. Here an innovative project of "seeing with hand museum" is worthy of note. This project is intended to give visually disabled persons the chance to perceive the nature of exhibits by their act of touching. In the exhibition, therefore, not only original materials but also many models or replicas of them are displayed, which can touch by hand and prevent the valuable original being damaged; for example, a flat painting is transformed to a three-dimensional relief. This significant project, which has been tried only in few museums, should be developed.

In spite of the development of measures above stated, there are still a large number of disabled persons who cannot visit a facility or institution for LLL. The outreach service to them, i.e. every kind of measure or activity to deliver the opportunity of learning and cultural activities directly to them, is important. As the typical service by the library, the Book Mobil and the book delivery service have long tradition, and recently enhanced its target even to hospital patients.

One of the interesting trials of outreach service is the home delivered class for adult learner, which are organized by MBE of some words in Tokyo, such as Ohta or Nakano. MBE provide mainly for physically disabled person, who cannot go out alone, with learning opportunity, by sending to her/his houses an appropriate lecturer, who can support her/his personal learning. This new program based on common conception with the delivery class program for citizens, which started in 1994 in Yashio city, and has spread rapidly to whole country. Therefore it is essential to adopt the latter program to disabled persons.

## **5. The Open College program**

The concept of Open College (OC: or Open University, Open Academy etc.) has been used generally as the designation of the extramural educational program of university. But recently this is used as the name of the open lecture program planed for disabled persons, especially intellectually disabled persons. The university teachers in collaboration with the students, the school teachers for the disabled, the active citizens in local community etc. has developed the contents and methods for this program. The first OC for intellectually disabled persons was held in 1995 at Tokyo University of Liberal Arts, and its program and instructive method have been continuously developed by the university faculty and the school teachers for the disabled. In 2006 four lectures ("On the relation between human being and the nature", "The trial and the human rights", " Discover the world form class room" and "The self-understanding") were held, which consist of, beside the lectures by the university teachers, the fieldwork at the farm and the visit of the sham trial etc.

In 1998, University Osaka Prefecture and few Universities in West Japan also started a similar program, and finally the Japan Society for the Study of Open College was founded, which then promoted the start of the OC program at other universities in following years.

Since 2003, Kobe University has offered a OC program featuring the theme of "Enlarge your world in University; a challenge for the solution of the social problems concerning intellectual disability". What is notable here is that this program is planed

not only for the disabled persons but also for the university teachers and students, who work as the supporting staff at this program, to offer them the opportunity to learn about the disabilities through their experience. The OC at Goshogawara in Aomori, which started in 2000 and has developed in corporate with local community, covers various subjects, as psychology, mathematics, international understanding (English conversation, Mexican culture), library science, economics, the issue of welfare, the environmental problem, creative activities (photograph, calligraphy, art, music), sports and recreations. Learning this experience, a neighborhood city also started a similar program in 2002.

The OC program of universities plays an important role in guaranteeing the right to learn of disabled person, especially of intellectually disabled, who has less or no opportunity to higher education.

## **6. Support for disabled children in community**

The House for Children (HFC), the Pupil Childcare Centre and the programs of civil society organizations play a very important role in supporting the learning and cultural activities of the disabled children or youth of school age in local community. Many of these programs are run by the local society for social welfare or the small groups of parents and volunteers, which get some subsidy for their activities from municipal governments.

Among them the role of HFC, as a center for all children in local community, as a place of their various activities after school or in holidays, is important. It could be the center of mutual understanding between the children with and without disabilities through their common experience of playing and other activities. This possibility of HFC should be fully developed.

However, the contribution of MBEs in this area is not yet enough. The result of my questionnaire survey of 2005 shows that only 44 MBEs provide some program for disabled children and 1069 MBEs provide no program! Since the start of the five-days school week system in 1992, many parents and persons concerned have always requested for the measures to guarantee for disabled children and youth their activities after school and in holidays. But most of MBEs has not yet started any measure for that. In this context, we must recognize again the significant to support of the growth and social integration of disabled children though their learning and cultural activities in community.

(Original chapter in Japanese written by JAPSE : Shigeru Kobayashi;

Translated by The Japan Society for the Study of KOMINKAN : Kazuaki Tani)

## **- 10 The guarantee of the right for compulsory education**

### **for the uneducated: Current Situation and Issues**

#### **1. General Conditions and Issues of Illiterate People and People Who Have Not Completed Compulsory Education.**

When various documents of the Japanese Government concerning "Illiteracy" problems are looked at, they nearly always describe the problems as ones of the developing countries. However, according to the findings of educators connected to evening junior high schools, it is assumed that there are a million and several hundred thousand people in Japan who have not finished their compulsory education, including illiterate people. Those who do not finish compulsory education are put under very severe circumstances in Japanese society which is very status conscious of higher education.

The Japanese lawyers' union submitted their opinions in writing to the government requesting that the current state should be improved. I want the Government to take immediate action to make the current state better for these people.

#### **2. Current Quantitative Status of**

##### **Illiterate People and People Who Have Not Completed Compulsory Education**

##### **2.1 Report of the year 2000 census by the Japanese Government**

The academic background of people aged 15 or older is as follows according to the Japanese Government's census in 2000.

###### **school career**

**NO. ( % )**

Did not enter elementary school / dropped out of elementary school

158,891 (0.1%)

Graduated from elementary school or junior high school

23,807,854 (22.0%)

Graduated from senior high school, etc.

45,024,501(41.6%)

Graduated from junior college or university, etc.

26,574,891 (24.6%)

Attend school at present

88,450.172 (8.2%)

The Number of those who did not enter school ,which means the illiterate people, in the present census was 158.891 0.1% .The number of those who did not finish

their compulsory education (number of those who did not finish junior high school) is not known.

## **2.2. Opinion of government concerning number**

### **of those who did not finish compulsory education**

The country submitted the "Diet Reply by Prime Minister Yasuhiro Nakasone" to Diet member's questions on January 22, 1985. In this reply it is said there are about 700,000 estimated people who didn't finish compulsory education. The estimation is based on a basic school survey and the census report, etc. though it is extremely difficult to know or even estimate accurately the number of people who didn't finish compulsory education among all the people who should receive nine years of compulsory education based on the School Education Law.

## **2.3. The number of those who did not finish compulsory education in Japan,**

### **estimated by the people concerned with evening junior high school**

The people concerned with evening junior high school calculate the number of those who didn't finish compulsory education based on school research and the census, etc in Japan, saying "There are one million and several hundred thousand people ( which mark over 1% of all the people), who didn't finish compulsory education."

Of course, judging from the present state of the world, "The number of illiterate adults worldwide in 1995 was 885 million people and 23% of people aged 15 and over can not read and write," it may be said that the illiteracy of Japanese is not such a big problem. Nonetheless, it is also true that the present condition of those who haven't finished compulsory education is very tough. Even though their total number marks only over 1%, they live in a society that is extremely oriented toward a severe evaluation of one's academic background.

There are recommendations concerning this "extremely competitive educational situation in Japan ( recommendations were made by the Children's Rights Committee of the United Nations, on January 3, 2004, that this condition should be changed" as well as the shocking fact that "in comparison with its GDP, Japan has an extremely low national budget for education ( which in 2004 was the second to the worst among the 30 signatories of OECD)."

Against the background of these recommendations, there appeared many pupils who stopped going to school, especially at the junior high school level, which has become a big social problem. ( in fiscal year 2007, there were 105,197 long term absentees within junior high school students' "Truancy" which represented 2.91% of all junior high school students. This is the highest rate so far. )

We want to inform you herewith of the urgent voices of a variety of people who were not able to finish their compulsory education.



### **3. Current Difficult Situation**

**in Which People Who Have Not Finished Compulsory Education Have Been Put**

#### **3.1. Intensely sorrowful voices**

**of illiterate people and people who did not finish compulsory education**

Because in Japan, a person's educational background decides his worth and social position, the people who were not able to obtain a basic education or any education at all have experienced life-long suffering and inconvenience in various scenes of their social lives. Also, there are quite a few scenes where their character's are ignored. Following are the testimonies of seven such people.

##### **Man (65), Wakayama prefecture ( deceased )**

I threw all the letters away because I couldn't read or write. When I explained something to others, I felt miserable and too worthless to live. In any election, I just wrote the name though I couldn't understand who said what or who was good to vote. for When the door -to-door salesmen came to my house, even if didn't understand well, I just said, "Yes, yes" and I easily made a contract with them. When getting food to eat, I bought and ate things without knowing whether they were made of pork or beef. When I went to the city office and had them write my name and address, I was very ashamed of it. I have never filled out a medical form at the hospital.

##### **Woman (73), Hokkaido prefecture**

I've remained unmarried all these years, but there was a person whom I wanted to marry. He and I decided to get married, so we went to his parents' house. Then his mother said to me, "I have searched for your background information. You have gone through many hardships, haven't you? A mother without an education can't raise a child." I was too humiliated to shed tears. Since then I haven't thought that I would marry or haven't even wanted to marry. When I was working before, I asked a working student to check all the slips and give change, too. Some of my colleagues said, "She didn't go to school,..." behind my back. But it was true I couldn't read or write, so I just endured it. And I had absolutely hoped that I'd be able to study reading and writing, and read newspapers someday. I wanted to live in society like others someday. Even if I arranged to meet my friend somewhere, I couldn't read the name of the building. Even when I went to a public office, I explained that I couldn't write because my hand was trembling, and I asked a clerk to write for me. I have become timid of doing anything. However, as I had a dream to study someday, thanks to that dream, I have overcome various kinds of hardships.

##### **Woman (57), Saitama prefecture**

When she went to her child's PTA (Parent-Teacher Association) meetings, she could not take part in the topic and she could not speak a single word. When she went to the station, she was not able to buy a ticket, because she could not read Japanese letters or the Roman alphabet. She was often embarrassed when she went to a public office because of not being able to write. In the case of going to the hospital, she couldn't

read the signs so she had to ask many people how to get to the target places. Every time after visiting the hospital, she felt exhausted. She could understand that she was in poor health but she could not figure out where she should go to have a medical examination. She is embarrassed because she can't read the subtitles of foreign movies even though she loves to watch western-style movies. When she goes shopping, she cannot calculate the discount rate. She occasionally has a painful time because she has no academic background. Even if she wants to work, on her resume she can write only elementary school graduation in the personal history section. Her son looks down on her because she has no academic background. She sometimes worried about being her son's parent. She doesn't know how to speak Japanese words correctly so sometimes she is scolded by some persons. She has a very painful time when she is asked "What school did you graduate from?"

**Woman (57), Fukuoka prefecture**

I am a second generation Korean resident. I have five siblings. Only my elder brother could go to school a little. But the rest of us couldn't go at all. My family was so poor that we weren't able to study at school. I couldn't study reading and writing at elementary school. So I couldn't read or write. So I used to do manual labor. These kinds of jobs didn't require reading or writing. When I went to the hospital, I was in trouble. One day the nurse asked me to go to the X-ray room. But I didn't know how to go there. I couldn't understand the meaning of the letters on the signs. And what's more, I couldn't understand what was written on my medical record which the doctor gave to me. I was just embarrassed and I didn't know what to do at all. Today I go to Independent junior high school and enjoy studying. Our teachers work as volunteers. Therefore I would like someone to make Public Evening Junior High Schools. In the housing complex in which I live in, some people can't read or write even now. If people like me could have Public Junior High Schools in the City of Northern Kyushu, they might be able to go there to study. It must be convenient for them to live their lives and have a lot of fun in life.

**Man (65), Wakayama prefecture**

I was not able to go to school because I'm a physically handicapped person. The Board of Education categorized me as being "exempt from enrollment" at school. Moreover my family was very poor, so I couldn't study "reading and writing letters" at home. When my parents got sick, I was sent to a "handicapped person's home". I was not allowed to attend my own mother's funeral and my elder brother's wedding. I had been having a very hard time at the home because of my lack of education. I was discriminated against by others many times because I couldn't read at all.

**Woman (22), didn't go to school**

I was thinking that I wanted to go to school and study again before I would die. But the Ministry of Education told me that there is no junior high school night-course in Saitama while there are 8 schools in Tokyo. People who live in Tokyo or work in Tokyo

can go to these schools. I was living in Saitama prefecture. I couldn't stop my tears after hanging up the phone.

**Woman (born in 1939), Okinawa prefecture**

I was born on the small island of Okinawa. My father died in a blast during the last war. My mother and elder sister were working away from home to earn money for my younger brother because he was sick. I went to an elementary school for two years, although I was absent from school many days. After that I had been working very hard such as house work, working on a farm, taking care of my brothers. From the 3rd year I couldn't go to school at all. I have had so many difficulties so far. I can't do anything by myself. I couldn't find a good job. Even though I could get a job, it was very low income. So I just could buy daily food and get a place to sleep. I always have to rely on someone when I go to the public office and a bank because I can't read and write the documents and papers. It is impossible to teach reading and writing to my children. I only take charge of the tasks that don't require reading and writing in the PTA and women's associations. I was looked down on by my classmates because I can't read and write. I can't live on my own. I can't express myself at all.

**4..Document of the Opinions of The Japanese Lawyers' Union to the Nation of Japan**

**4.1. Document reflecting the opinions of the Japanese Lawyers' Union concerning the obstacles to the rights to an education of people who have not been able to complete compulsory education within the specified time frame**

On February 20, 2003, 282 petitioners, such as those who have not been able to complete compulsory education, and all parties concerned in Independent Evening Junior High Schools and Public Evening Junior High Schools and so on, pleaded for the establishment of Public Evening Junior High Schools, in all parts of the country, to The Japanese Lawyers' Union as a human right for securing an education.

The Japanese Lawyers' Union received the petition and widely surveyed the opinions of all parties in the petition and examined the submitted documents. They then submitted the "Document of Opinions" concerning the securing of the right to receive an education of the people who were not able to study when they were school aged.

The Document is based on the next six points.

1. Those who have not finished the compulsory education have the right to demand the opportunity for education regardless of their ages.
2. The country should promptly conduct a nationwide investigation of the actual conditions about those who have not finished compulsory education.
3. The country should do guidance, advice, and financial support, etc. to the local governments based on an investigation of actual conditions for the evening junior high school installation.

4. The country should carry out various means for the substantial security of the right to receive a general education (compulsory education), namely the use of the facilities of an existing elementary school, a junior high school, a school for the blind or for the deaf, and the school for physically and mentally disabled children as well as an offer of facilities and financial support for independent evening junior high schools, and individual teachers).
5. It is necessary to secure education regardless of the nationality based on various agreements and the UNESCO study on right declarations, etc.
6. It is necessary to secure the right to have education for the people of the next five categories - middle aged, handicapped people, Chinese returnees, Korean residents, and immigrants over age 15 ( so-called newcomer foreigners), individually and concretely.

## **5. Response of government**

### **5.1. Contribution to the world but lack of domestic contribution**

The government hasn't changed its basic policy, even after receiving the Document of Opinions of the the Japanese Lawyers' Union.

After the submission of the Document, two Diet members made two proposals in the Diet. One was, "From the next census, making the question items separate to turn out the number of those who haven't finished the compulsory education" the other was, "Making an administrative guidance to the local governments." However both proposals got negative or passive answers. For three years, from 2003 through 2005, the Japanese ODA aid amount ( 3 billion 68 million dollars ) to the under-developed nations in the educational area was number 2 in the world after France. However, the domestic aid for educational security to those who haven't finished compulsory education, declared to be about 700,000 people, is surprisingly small.

### **5.2. The leadership of the country limited to reformatory and prison**

#### **Youth Reformatory**

The Kurihama Reformatory in Kanagawa Prefecture is the only reformatory in 52 places in the whole country which has an "International Department", and is a correction institution provided with a dormitory only for foreigners, Boys judged to be in the category of "Japanese guidance is specially required for the rehabilitation into society" have been sent here from the whole country. In the International Department, there are a lot of children of Japanese descent who came from South America, etc., as migrant workers. At the foreigner collective city housing conference that is composed of 26 cities where a lot of Japanese descendants from South America live, the "Yokkaichi declaration" was put out on November 21, 2006. It demanded the

opportunity to return to studying while working, or the establishment of the "Evening Junior High School " for people who are over the compulsory education age.

### **Prison**

In the Matsumoto Prison, there is a junior high school. This is the only public junior high school in a prison or rehabilitation facilities, in Japan. The prisoners who have not finished compulsory education study at this school. According to the background in which it was established, it was found that because of fewer opportunities for education, people commit crimes. So having a school is useful to rehabilitate them. To enter this school, any ages are okay, even 50 or 60 years old. Even a prisoner who is in another prison, can temporarily move into the Matsumoto Prison to enter this school.

These are valuable things that the reformatory and the prison mentioned above are doing as organizations of the government (the Ministry of Justice). It is very regrettable that there are only these schools wherein compulsory education and literacy education for adults is being led by the national government.

## **[ Recommendations ] Proposal for the future**

"Compulsory education for all the people. The 21st century plan." Only 35 public evening junior high schools are in eight prefectures in Japan. So students who want to enter these schools have to move or spend a long time commuting to school. Most of the people give up because they have to make such a long journey to come to school everyday. There is only one type of "school" that makes studying convenient for the student so they can graduate without physically attending school. Previously called correspondence courses, nowadays it is called distance learning. For that they have to receive their textbooks from the school itself by post and at the time of examination, they can send their test papers through the post, but this type of system is not so common in Japan. So till now there is only one school in Japan which has adopted this system. But the main problem to get a certificate of graduation by this system is that one who wants to study by this method should be living or working in Tokyo, because there is only one of this type of school and it is in Tokyo. That means outsiders cannot get admission in this school by anyway.

In addition, there are 20 volunteer evening junior high schools in Japan, but the problem is that these types of schools are not getting enough government support. Based on this situation, the Nationwide Public Evening Junior High School Association Conference, of which all evening junior high school teachers and the principals are members, was held in December 2008 and adopted the "Compulsory education for all the people. The 21st century plan."

The plan's main points are as follows.

1. Please inform all of those who did not finish compulsory education because of not knowing about the existence of evening junior high schools that "There is a right to be educated, and there are evening junior high schools for people who need to finish compulsory education."

2."To Establish the public evening junior high school " is requested as an administrative policy.

(1)Establish at least one public evening junior high school in all the administrative divisions and the government-designated major cities.

(2)Establish a public evening junior high school in the municipality where a private evening junior high school that requests to become a public evening junior high school exists.

3."To help private evening junior high schools, etc." is requested as an administrative policy.

The local governments' administrations should carry out the offer of sufficient facilities and financial support, etc. to private evening junior high schools which are providing "educational assurance" to the people who didn't finish compulsory education in place of the administration.

4.We demand the points below as administrative policy: To accept people who didn't finish compulsory education into the existent schools. To expand correspondence courses and distance learning. To promote the dispatching of tutors, etc.

(1)Please accept widely those who did not finish compulsory education at the elementary school, the junior high school, and the special support school, etc.

(2)Execution of a communication system (correspondence, distance, etc.) education in each administrative division

(3)To dispatch tutors for those who did not finish compulsory education and have difficulties to attend school in various places nationwide.

(4)Additionally, all necessary things to ensure compulsory education for all

Regardless of age, nationality, domicile, etc., please take enough leadership to ensure compulsory education to all the people as basic education.

( Written by evening Junior High School Society in Japan : Yasutaka Sekimoto)

## **- 11 Provision of learning opportunities for the elderly**

### **1 . The aging of Japanese population**

Japan has a society which is the most rapidly aging and the most aged in the world. According to the government report, as of 2007 the average life span of Japanese males is 79.19 and females 85.99, which rank second and first respectively, in the world. Overall life expectancy at birth for Japanese is 82.3 years (as of 2005), which is the longest in the world. By comparison, in the USA it is 77.9, in the UK it is 79.0, and in China it is 72.5. As of September 2008, 22.1% of the total population in Japan is 65 years old and over, and 10.3% is 75 years old and over (the so-called 'late elderly' population); this means more than 1 in 5 people is 65 years old or over and 1 in 10 people is 75 years old or over. Given their sheer numbers, in Japan the elderly have become a population that cannot be neglected, either in society in general or in adult education.

#### **1.1. A rapid progress of the aging of the Japanese society**

Table 1 shows the percentage of the population that is elderly and average life spans in Japan over the last 50 years. From this it is recognizable that Japanese society has been aging remarkably fast: it only took 26 years in Japan for the percentage of the elderly population (persons 65 years old and over) to double, from 7% in 1970 to 14% in the mid 1990. In the United States, by comparison, it took 75 years for a similar change to take place. It took 45 years in UK and 130 years in France. The Japanese government does not expect the speed at which the population is aging to decrease: the percentage of the population 65 years old and over is projected to reach 30% about in 2025, and the population 75 years old and over is projected to reach 20% in 2035. The aging of the population is more advanced in cities remote from the metropolitan areas: in Kyushu, Shikoku, San-in and Tohoku areas, people aged 65 or older make up over 25% of the total population in all the prefectures. Nevertheless, the aging of the population is now a common phenomenon found everywhere in Japan; prefectures in which people aged 65 or older represent less than 15% of the total population do not exist any more. In recent years, even in big cities and their suburbs (which have tended to have a higher ratio of younger generations) several districts have emerged where the aging of the population went remarkably fast. Some examples of this are 'New Towns' in Tama (in Tokyo) and in Senri (in Osaka). These New Towns were developed around in the 1960s as new residential areas designed for so-called 'new families' - nuclear families consisting of a couple (typically born and raised in the consumer-oriented society of post-WWII Japan) and their children. Communities in New Towns mainly consist of residents in relatively similar age-brackets, so a large part of them are entering old age simultaneously.

Table 1

year	1955	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2008
Percentage of persons 65 years old and over	5.3	5.7	6.3	7.1	7.9	9.1	10.3	12.0	14.5	17.3	20.1	22.1
Percentage of persons 75 years old and over	1.6	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.5	3.1	3.9	4.8	5.7	7.1	9.1	10.3
Average life span (male)	63.6		67.7		71.7		74.8		76.4		78.6	79.2
Average life span (female)	67.8		72.9		76.9		80.5		82.9		85.5	86.0

Main source: Cabinet Office of the Japanese Government, *White paper on the aging society* (fiscal year 2008)

## 1.2. Factors of the aging of the Japanese society

There are two main factors propelling the aging of the Japanese society. One is a continuous extension of life expectancy, thanks to the development of medical technology and other advances in health care, and the other is the decline of the birth rate.

The average number of children that one woman is expected to give birth to in her life decreased from 4.54 in 1947 (two years after the end of the World War II) to 2.13 in 1970, and it then further dropped to 1.26 in 2005. While it slightly increased to 1.32 in 2006, the overall trend toward lower birth rate is unchanged. Given that a birth rate of 2.09 is the number thought necessary just to maintain the same population, Japan has entered a period of a shrinking and aging population. In this context the aging of the society and the falling birth rate is often talked about in Japan as a set, as in a phrase like 'issues of the society of a declining birthrate and with an aging population'.

During the past few years, the first baby-boom generation in Japan (those born in 1947-49, often referred to as the 'Dankai generation' (literally, the generation 'of a lump'), has moved into their sixties, contributing greatly to the recent increase in the total number of old people. For companies this has meant that a large amount of



workers have retired every year, and there is a worry that the accumulated expertise and technical skills of those workers may not successfully be passed down onto younger generations (so-called 'the 2007 problem'). It will be interesting to see if the people of the 'Dankai generation' are going to make any changes to the conventional image of old people in Japan, in terms of lifestyles, consciousness, learning needs, and so on. They were born after the World War II and were the first to receive post-war 'democratic' education. They have experienced campus disputes and created various subcultures, and they are said to become the first older generation who have no difficulties in using computers.

## **2. Overview of the policy and practice regarding education of the elderly**

### **2.1. From the 1950s to the 1980s**

The provision and policy of education for the elderly changed over the course of the second-half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. In the 1950s, a few practices of education for the elderly appeared, such as 'elderly clubs' (called Roujin Clubs in Japanese) and Rakusei Gakuen in Ina city, Nagano prefecture, which is said to be the first institution to offer community-based adult education classes for the elderly (called Roujin Gakkyu in Japanese). These programs were provided under the framework of social welfare. It was in the mid 1960s that the education of the elderly was included in the policy of the national government. From 1965 to 1970, the Ministry of Education commissioned, on trial bases, some municipal governments to offer adult education courses for the elderly by funding the program, and in 1973 went on to subsidize such courses offered by any municipal governments.

In the 1960s and 1970s, local governments' sections in charge of welfare also set up places specifically designed for elderly people to gather and for recreation and learning activities. Among them were Roujin Fukushi centers ('centers for the welfare of old people') and Roujin Ikojino Ie ('houses for the recreation and relaxation of old people'). Adult education courses for the elderly started to flourish at Kominkan, welfare centers, and other public facilities in local communities, under such titles as 'Koureisha Kyoushitsu / Koureisha Gakkyuu' (which means 'classes for the elderly') and 'Roujin Daigaku' (which literally means 'colleges for old people' and in many cases have a relatively long-term curriculum lasting for a year or two).

### **2.2. From the 1990s on: recent trends**

Against the background of this community-based adult education for the elderly, the 1990s saw the establishment of many prefectural-based educational institutions for the elderly. These are more oriented to school-like education, so to speak, and aim to offer higher-level, systematic knowledge and hope to nurture citizens capable of contributing to local communities through their various activities. Hyougo Prefecture's Inamino Gakuen (meaning 'Inamino School') is a pioneer institution in this field, and was established already in 1969 on the ex-site of the Prefectural Junior

College of Agriculture in Kakogawa city. It was started as a one-year college for older people, then later expanded its curriculum to four years. It also set up a two-year graduate school and a college for older people delivered via broadcasting.

The Ministry of Education started in 1989 to subsidize prefectures' establishment of Chouju Gakuen (literally -- 'longevity school', sometimes also titled 'Great Academy') for the elderly. The opening and running of wide-area, prefectural-based colleges for older people was also promoted within the administrative framework of welfare: for example, the Akarui Chouju Shakai Suishin Kikou (meaning 'the organization for promoting a bright society with longevity') was set up in every prefecture in 1990 following the government's 'ten-year strategy to promote health care and welfare for the aged' (commonly referred to as the 'Gold Plan'), and several colleges of this type were established through its initiative. Recently, many colleges which were started under the name 'Roujin Daigaku' (literally -- colleges for old people) have changed their title to 'senior college' or 'Koureisha Daigaku' ('colleges for the people of a high age'), avoiding the term 'Roujin' (old people).

While many programs and events related to the elderly were carried out nationwide in years around the International Year of Older Persons (1999), the following decade has seen some setbacks in prefecturally-funded Chouju Gakuen or Roujin Daigaku. With the lasting economic recession and re-examinations of administrative structures and public spending as a background, some colleges were made to scale down or restructure, and some others were shut down (following a rhetoric of 'devolution' or 'introducing the vitality of the private sector'). To take one example, Osaka prefecture's colleges for old people, administrated by the elderly care section in the department of health and welfare of Osaka prefecture as a part of its program for preventing long-term care, was scaled down in fiscal year 2007. In fiscal year 2009, as part of the prefecture's financial reconstruction, it is scheduled to be shut down entirely, in spite of its popularity (servicing about 1,500 students every year).

While the prefectures' withdrawal from running colleges for older people may have its own merit -- programs/forms of education for older adults may be more imaginatively explored by other organizations or institutions (e.g. universities, NPOs) -- there are critical voices about this decline in public responsibility. In current society, given the fact that the population of the elderly is increasing, securing societal support for the rights of the elderly to learn is ever more important. A current trend sees prefecture-funded, large-area colleges for older people being abolished and their functions being taken over by municipalities' adult education courses for the elderly. This move, however, tends to be done as a part of administrative and financial reforms based on a rhetoric of 'efficiency', rather than for the sake of educational merits or purposes.

Currently, there are two famous examples of large-area colleges for older people that continue to provide education. One is Hyogo Prefecture's Inamino Gakuen (it is run by Hyogo Prefecture's Koureisha Ikigai Souzou Kyoukai), and the other is Yamanashi

Kotobuki Kangakuin (it has taken over Chouju Gakuen programs funded by the Ministry's Education in the 1990s and is now providing courses under the administration of the social education division of Yamanashi Prefecture). They are both large-scale educational institutions (as mentioned above) and offer courses for the prefecture's residents who are 60 or over. Hyougo Prefecture's Inamino Gakuen currently has a four-year course at the college for older people (with an enrollment of 1,856 in 2008), a two-year course for training leaders of community activities (with an enrollment of 163), a graduate school (with an enrollment of 97), and Hyougo Prefecture's college for older people via broadcasting (with an enrollment of 3,033). The average age of the students is 66. Yamanashi Kotobuki Kangakuin is a two-year senior college with nine campuses in the prefecture and the curriculum is organized under five themes. These are; (1) To live in an aged society, (2) To study about our home prefecture Yamanashi, (3) To look deep inside of Japanese tradition, (4) To grasp the currents of this time, and (5) To develop local communities.

In recent years other organizations or institutions are also getting more involved in providing learning opportunities for the elderly, including NPOs such as Elderhostel and higher education institutions. While Open University of Japan, universities' open lectures and centers for lifelong learning have reached many students who are middle-aged or older, recently there is a trend for universities to develop new types of programs particularly targeting people of so-called 'senior' generations (meaning roughly 50 years old or older in Japanese). This activity is taking place against the background of the declining birth rate and the deregulation of rules regarding running universities. For instance, Tokyo Keizai University has made postgraduate education open, targeting people in their 50s-70s. In 2002, it started a system called 'Senior Kenkyuusei', which is for middle-aged or older people who are not pursuing degrees but who wish to participate in programs at a postgraduate level. In 2007 it started ' "senior" postgraduate school', an alternative path to earn postgraduate degrees which is designed to meet various needs of middle-aged or older learners.

Iwate University opened 'Iwate University Senior College' for people of 50 years old or over in 2007, together with a company named Japan Travel Bureau (JTB). The courses of this college mainly aim at deepening knowledge of the nature, history and culture of local areas and they include some fieldwork activities. These courses are offered in a cooperative relationship with local museums or governments. Now 'senior colleges' of a similar kind are also run by other universities, such as Hirosaki University, Shinshu University, Gifu University and Yamaguchi University. Rikkyo University set up the 'Rikkyo "second stage" university' in 2008, which is mainly for senior generations. It aims to offer a curriculum for 'learning and challenging again' based on liberal arts and consisting of three groups of subjects; (1) Liberal arts for the aging society, (2) Designing communities and doing business, and (3) Designing the second stage of a life.

### **3. Issues regarding the provision of learning opportunities for elderly people**

It is important to acknowledge the fact that elderly people as adult learners are diverse in terms of their physical and intellectual abilities, prior experiences, interests and needs for learning, the problems they confront in their daily life, and so on. While oversimplification should be avoided, 'pre-elderly' people (aged 50-64), for example, are expected to have interest in preparing for the life after retirement. People in the late-elderly period (many of whom require attention from social welfare or medical/nursing care) will benefit from health education and learning opportunities to stay fit as long as possible (such as those provided nationwide in recent years in relation with the nursing-care insurance system). This population will also benefit from learning to make the most of current physical abilities at special nursing homes or daycare centers. On the other hand, for those elderly people who are relatively healthy and can live actively without nursing care (they are said to represent approximately 85% of the total elderly population), learning opportunities should be more enriched and promoted, in places such as classes at Kominkan and lifelong learning centers, education provided at University of the Third Age (U3A) and 'senior colleges', social events that foster interaction with other age groups, and educational travel (e.g., Elderhostel).

In addition, it should be stressed that elderly people can continue to demonstrate intellectual/spiritual growth or achieve a transformative change of the self. They can also acquire new knowledge and skills and enjoy applying them in practical or social activities. This perspective seems to be particularly needed today, as learning opportunities for elderly people are very often provided in within the framework of welfare work or medical/nursing care. Elderly learners can be easily treated as objects or as passive receivers of such professional service. In contrast, in the philosophies and practices of social education there is a tradition of seeing learners as subjects and the task of education is to empower learners to become the originators of their own lives and communities. From this viewpoint elderly people should also be guaranteed, for instance, the chance to learn the knowledge and skills necessary for becoming or staying an active citizen who participates in building a society. Commonplace learning opportunities such as classes for PC/internet skills or of liberal education could serve this purpose if they are designed not solely for skill/knowledge development or personal enjoyment but also for the nourishment of citizenship (e.g., learning to gain media literacy and to utilize IT skills to fully participate in civic activities or learning to develop the attitude to solve current social problems cooperatively with other fellow citizens). Indeed, old age may be thought of as a good time for active involvement in society, since the elderly have knowledge, skills and experiences accumulated over the course of their life and a lot of free time on hand after retirement. At a basic level, it is important for us to ask ourselves a fundamental question -- What kind of learning should be promoted for the elderly, and for what purpose?

### **[Recommendations]**

The combination of an increase in the elderly population in Japan and a commitment to the ideal of a lifelong learning society means that there must be clear government policies on learning opportunities for the elderly within the framework of education policy. Elderly people's right to learning must be guaranteed, and abundant opportunities of meaningful learning must be provided. It is also necessary to investigate the factors that prevent elderly people from participating in learning and then to take appropriate measures to redress the problems. Such issues as poverty in the elder years and insufficient social welfare (which makes elderly people to take care of their old parents or spouses on their own at home) should be explored.

In supporting the learning activities of elderly people, it is important to recognize their diversity as learners. An 'elderly age' can span some 40 years and elderly learners vary in prior experiences, interests and needs. The situations in which they are living are often very different according to their gender, social class, and educational background, etc.

Many learning opportunities for the elderly are currently planned and provided within welfare work without any involvement of education staff. Social education's rich reservoir of philosophy and practical knowledge about assisting adult learning has much to offer in this field and should be tapped into.

(Original chapter in Japanese written by

the Committee on International Affairs of SSACE;

Translated by JSSACE: TOKIWA-FUSE Miho\*)

\*Spelled in the East Asian order, in which the family-name comes first.

## **II - 12 Japanese Adult Education for Peace**

Alternatively, Japanese Peace Education conducts for issues of domestic violences, school violences, and foreign residences in Japan. But activities for war issues are our main focus. The reason is that (1) the military expansions of Japanese Self-Defense Forces are moving through by the expansion of military demands by the US and domestic political influences despite Japanese Constitution Article 9 which defines unarmed and renunciation of war. Political movements leading toward the aggressive war country by amending the Constitution article 9 are currently going on, (2) There are many US military bases in Japan and its functions are upgrading and expanding year by year. Tens of thousands in Tokyo metropolitan districts with 30 million residences could die from the radioactive injuries, if the US nuclear fleets had an accident. Again, the responsibilities of the complicit of Japan toward the Iraq war and so forth are questioning, and the learnings of US base issues spread in certain districts as the movements of the anti-US military bases expand.(3) Japanese responsibilities of Asia-Pacific War between 1931 and 1945 ,especially to Chinese, Korean, North Korean, have not been inexpressed. Our peace activities include the issues of Japanese military sex slaves, the suffering of foreign people in Hiroshima and Nagasaki, foreign dead people by wartime forced workers.

### **1. Learning for the Elimination of Nuclear Weapons**

Japanese peace movements had been developed after the execution of US H-bomb test in 1954. Adult education activities for peace also have been carried out widely since then. The main purpose of this activities is to know about the facts of Hiroshima & Nagasaki damages. Listening to the testimony and attending to the photo exhibitions of Hibakusha had been carried out in cities and towns across-the-country and these activities have continued even today. The importance of nuclear disarmament is increasing at the present, and the significance of this activities is also growing.

### **2. The Redefine of Learning of War Experiences and Understanding of History**

Since 1980<sup>th</sup> , Japanese started looking at the truth of perpetrators of Japanese military as well as Japanese victims during the Asia-Pacific War (1931-1945). The reason is that Japanese had to weight to other Asian countries. Because of this, Japanese military sex slaves and the contents of Japanese school textbooks became social issues. The movements of many-sided learnings on war experiences, damages, perpetrations, Japanese resistances, and national cooperative implicates to the US have spread out.

### **3. War Monuments Conservation Movements and Museums for Peace**

The civic movements, researches and studies for conservation of war monuments for learning on war have spread out across-the-country. Again, the movements of constructions of Peace Museums have continued until now and its number became over 60 at present. This number became top and totally different all over the world. Peace museums are the place for resource corrections, for researches and developments of cooperations, and for displays for peace and to learn about peace for adults and children in any time, and its significances for peace education are quite large.

### **4. The Learning Movements for Japanese Constitution**

In Japan, today, the learning movements associated with today's war and Japanese future as well as the Asia-Pacific War have been deployed. In Japan, the political movements of amendment of the Constitution which try to change Japanese Self Defense Force into military force for the purpose to dispatch troops abroad and to use force have been built up by Japanese conservative party. For the resistance of these movements, "Japanese Association for Article 9" was off the ground in 2004, and by this association, more than 7,000 of its local and specialized field's gropes have been established only within years. These created the places of learning of Japanese Constitution to learn the significance of Japanese Constitution. Again, the importance of learning to consider about the relations of structural violence, verbalization, poverty, environment, and human-rights suppression were recognized.

### **5. Local Government and Adult Education for Peace**

The local governments of declaration of nuclear weapon free or non nuclear weapon exceeded 80% which means more than 2000 units. However, local governments which positively exert efforts for abolishment of nuclear weapons are currently 244. On the other hand, peace education in school are strongly restricted. In such situation, many of Japanese adult education for peace depend on civilian NGO activities. Local governments supports peace museums and citizen lectures for peace by only portion of its budget. We must do something about the expansion of public supports using of all necessary measures.

## **{ Recommendations }**

1. We will carry out actual condition survey in public about Japanese military sex slaves, the issues of the suffering of foreign people in Hiroshima and Nagasaki,

domestic enforced labor during Asia-Pacific War (1931-1945), and hand down these issues to posterity and come out with enforcements of policy so as not to repeat themselves. this is the education for reconciliation.

2. We will deepen our understanding of the reality of A-bomb in Hiroshima & Nagasaki and actual conditions of A-bomb survivors and positively carry out the learning for the elimination of nuclear weapons. In order to conjugate these activities with world activities, we will contribute to enforce the education for the general and complete disarmament of nuclear weapons in the world.

3. We will spread Japanese peace activities to the world. Again, we will make an attempt to expand the supports of Japanese local governments.

4. We will propellant the educations for human rights and democracy to deal with current issues such as human rights, environments, developments, and peace. We will attend especially education for the Culture of Peace established by U.N. in 1999 and promoted by UNESCO and carry out the developments of civil education programs obtaining cooperation of related structures.

5. We will develop the declaration of nuclear weapon free policy of local governments in order to create autonomous and local peace policies and constitute peace municipal regulations, and establish structure to propellant and ,as a part of that, support human rights and peace leaning programs with a central focus on the studies of the Constitution in many places such as schools, local governments, enterprises and so on.

(Written and translated by JAPSE: Hideo Fujita, Yasunori Tanioka)



## **II - 13 Health Education Trends**

Because health is one of the most basic human issues, health education has been designated as a key component of administrative policy. However the role of education as part of administrative policy, and of health education in the context of social education have not been closely connected in the current system, which is characterized by a lack of coordination among ministries and agencies in carrying out governmental obligations and policies.

There are great discrepancies between policy based on the purpose and the aim of the administration, and learning based on unrestricted ideas related to local residents' demand for learning. In this paper, the author attaches greater importance to independent projects such as working for better health. Furthermore, the author inquires into the current state of health education.

### **1. Recent Developments in Health Policy in Japan**

#### **1.1 Prevention of lifestyle-related illnesses— Contradictions in development under administrative guidance**

Since 2000, the Government has initiated forward-looking policies that focus on the prevention of lifestyle-related illnesses on the municipal level. “Healthy Japan 21” was launched as a national movement in 2000, at which time the Government requested the municipalities to devise and implement plans to handle lifestyle-related illnesses. Though local governments emphasized the participation of residents in these projects, such participation turned out to be mere formality. The local governments acted in contradiction to the concept of self-government.

Various government policies based in the bureaucratic approach have resulted in a top-down style that does not allow for meaningful discussions with residents. Municipal government staff fails to understand the significance frank talks with local residents. They simply accept policy and inform residents of said policies as a matter of course. Furthermore, the person chosen to represent the people did not oppose the head faction.

The local government administration assesses residents' health condition by compiling the results of health examinations and death rates in the administrative position. The government then sets up a practical plan, submits it in meetings with residents, requests residents to pose questions and opinions, and then decides upon a plan.

#### **1.2 Enactment of the Health Promotion Law (2002)**

##### **- Emphasis on Self-Responsibility and the Retreat of Public Support**

The Japanese government enacted the Health Promotion Law (2002) for the purpose of a thorough prevention of lifestyle-related illnesses, since then proclaiming these to

be the individual responsibility of residents.

As stated in Article 2 of the Health Promotion Law, each of us needs to be aware of the state of our own health, and to strive to promote good health. As such, this law emphasizes self-responsibility on the issue of health. Furthermore, the public role of Health Education explained in Article 3, as well as improvement of staff initiatives, is required. This Law provides various activities not only by the administration but by nongovernment entities as well. In other words, this represents a shift from the government to nongovernment (the insured). The retreat of public support is believed to stem from this move toward greater responsibility.

To give some concrete examples, the government established its Health Frontier Strategy (2004), Health Exam Basic Guidelines (2004), Fundamental Food Education Law” (2005), and also launched medical system reforms from 2008. This type of government activity lends support to the top-down approach, and the result has been that the government has lost touch with the self-governing initiatives of the people.

The Government set forth measures to stabilize the insurance system (National Health Insurance and Social Insurance system, etc.), with the expectation that nongovernment and residents would initiate activities for health promotion. One of the main targets is lifestyle related illnesses. Here medical examinations designed to assess the patient’s state of health is valued highly. In addition, the Government cites Target-Specific Health Examinations and Target-Specific Health Guidance as an initiative focused on the 40-74 age groups. Moreover, they attempt to indicate the details of their action, and thereby to reach the targeted value. Such preventive measures are based on the concept of reducing medical expenses and shifting fiscal resources to stabilize the insurance system.

This activity is aimed at reducing medical expenses by preventing disease, instead of emphasizing each individual’s efforts at health promotion. These conditions have brought about the discrepancy between government projects and the concept that emphasizes independent studies on health. Such measures address only the immediate issues and not the root of the problem. Therefore, decisions derived from the Assessment/Establishment of Goal Efficient/Evaluation addresses only temporary issues. The tendency toward random action and evaluations had served to destroy cooperative interpersonal relationships in various fields. Present circumstances require that we take independent action to clarify the root of the problems of health deterioration and to share these issues with others.

## **2. Attention to Independent Activities of Residents**

Concepts such as local autonomy and the power of local governing bodies are expected in administrative reform. However, here cooperation is emphasized from the beginning. On the administrative side, community building does not tend to stem from administrative encouraging of self-governance.

## **2-1. Two aspects of resident independence**

The movement toward a concrete ideal on the issue of health requires that residents be conscious of their own health issues and medical exam results. Such interest, however, has faded. The current situation requires that public health nurses and dieticians support residents' self-study on health.

Second is the movement toward systematic understanding of a variety of current health problems and elements on lifestyle habits, as well as activities designed to criticize government policy and encourage thinking about one's own health problems. Here, we need to reaffirm the meaning of Public Health (Article 25 of the constitution) before it becomes obsolete. The latter concept tends to agree with the aspect of the Ottawa Charter. (This Charter was published during the following year of "Health Promotion" (1986). The Declaration of the Right to Learn" (1985)) that WHO specifies positive understanding of the concept of Health Education derived from Country health studies.

### **2.1.1 Reconsidering Health Education**

Regarding the first issue, we need to address independent activities on health. Specifically, the concept of Health Education needs to be reexamined. The general understanding on Health Education was once considered "guidance" concerning the method of health care and health building.

Comprehending the health of both mind and body is the key component here. Since it is difficult to understand and judge the condition of our own bodies, we depend on medical specialists. As a result, Health Education has become characterized by dependency. This has led to the belief that self management means faithfully following a specialist.

Self responsibility is emphasized despite the fact that it is impossible for us be aware of our physical condition, except by judging by the symptom and feelings, without changing residents' views on health.

Primary prevention is considered a matter of course. However, we cannot adopt these concepts completely if we cannot grasp what we should do what is important for us. It can be said that currently the key issue is to approach greater awareness.

What is needed now is to address issues from the standpoint of residents. In this context, we need to initiate forward-looking proposals and related Social Education policy.

### **2.1.2 Synchronization of the individual's grasp of health and learning: a proposal from the aspect of social education -**

It is critical nowadays that we recollect the WHO's fundamental concept/definition (1946) on health, which states "Health is not only a disease-free condition but also a stable condition from mental and social perspectives." At present in Japan there is a need to re-establish this definition as a starting point on the issue of health.

In addition, we need to re-affirm the right to live a more human life, as in Article 25

of the Constitution, and to public health administration as our starting point. Based on these considerations, it is critical to consider an ideal way of a way of life and a natural social environment. Additionally, a good base from which to take action should be developed.

Naturally, we need to break with the idea of Health Education, which was based on the idea of disease in the past, and to establish learning about health as the basis of independent action.

Lifestyle diseases such as stroke, heart apoplexy, and diabetes are put in the category of damage to blood vessels. Therefore, the lifestyle disease is diseases of the blood vessels. To prevent this type of disease, then, we need to consider how to protect the blood vessels. So what are blood vessels? Many residents do not understand the issue to the previous system of Health Education supported pain treatment.

However, some fundamental questions are not easily answered, such as “What is the blood from the blood vessel?”, “What role does the blood have?”, and “How does blood flow in the body?” In studying our own bodies, we can better grasp the issue of lifestyle management.

The concept of Sanitary Education is not denied here. Education for development of independent study is important, and we need to recognize the concept of Health Education.

## **2.2 Policy at the Outset**

### **2.2.1 From confirmation to Public Health**

A review of public health in the context of people working separate from the government. In the traditional ways of thinking, people have believed that essential things are determined, accomplished, and secured by the government. This concept should be urgently reconsidered by both administrative people and residents. People utilize the power of the private-sector on a personal level, where they can demonstrate their own individual abilities. It is necessary to secure the exercise of individual rights with regard to welfare for people are protected as public health.

### **2.2.2 Confirmation to Ottawa Charter**

Sleep and the life rhythm of food are key to the prevention of the lifestyle disease. The instability of the present Japanese society is leading to the deterioration of state of human health. To achieve the stated goals, the cooperation of all the administration and private sectors is needed. Cooperation occurs through clarifying the reality of peoples' mental and physical state concretely and scientifically, and identifying obstacles.

This is a key issue for all sectors. Here it is necessary to construct social relationships to facilitate health and health education. These ideas are instituted in nationwide public health nursing research meeting, public health societies, etc. It is therefore necessary to recollect the Ottawa Charter (1986) advocated by the WHO and to realize the ideas stated in the Charter.

## **The Ottawa Charter and Health Promotion (1986)**

Preconditions such as resources and social justices for peace, shelter, education, food, income, stable ecosystem, and living a healthy lifestyle.

Guiding principles with regard to various conditions (politically, economically, socially, environment, acting and biologically) .

The ability for the individual to facilitate his or her own health must be sufficiently demonstrated.

Cooperation of all related sections is measured and facilitated.

## **[Proposals]**

1. The general concept of health needs clarification, followed by activities based on clarified health issues and broad-based solutions to problems.

- Draw a distinct line between central and local government bodies, addressing social problems such as suicide, depression and ill-treatment; devise means of cooperation with residents.

- Residents devise a substantial learning plan

(Learning under Government leadership does not equate to resident learning).

Joint learning opportunism are a requirement for jobs such as hygienist, dietitian, medical workers, social education staff education, etc.- the securing of opportunities and continuation of learning.

2. Focus is placed in the prevision of lifestyle-related illnesses (Metabolic syndrome prevention). Review health care activity in the region on the whole from the aspect of public health.

The number of health nurses at the level, along with further training, is crucial. Saddling the private sector with all problems is detrimental to public health.

3. Currently, it is critical that all people strive to attain good health independently, and to work to build the foundations for good health.

4. It is critical to consider how to promote organizational activity in the local community. Isolation of the individual is no fault of the individual under the present situation. We have seen numerous examples of excellent results brought about by individual counseling with a view to mutual understanding in a given region. This negates the uneasiness of isolation. Projects to boost social relationships are required now.

5. The Government should consider the approaches adapted to the current circumstances of various localities, based in a flexible basic framework and subsequent development.

(Original chapter in Japanese written by JAPSE: Hiron Matsushita;

Ttranslated by JSSACE : Asuka Kawano)

## **II-14 Literacy education and the learning of Japanese as**

**a second language:**

**with particular reference to movements in Osaka**

### **1. Aspects of literacy education in Japan**

In Japan one often hears that Japan's literacy rate is 99.9% (the percentage is sometimes 99% or 95%). But this prevailing notion of Japan's almost universal literacy is an ungrounded one because no single nationwide survey on adult literacy has been conducted in Japan during the past 50 years. In reality, the number of those who have difficulty in reading and writing Japanese and require literacy education is not as small as people would expect. In addition, in recent years there have been an increasing number of people who come to live in Japan from overseas, and this population needs to learn Japanese as a second language (in both oral and written form).

#### **1.1. Voluntary and grass-roots literacy movements**

Because the Japanese government has had almost no policy on literacy and adult basic education, voluntary, non-governmental initiatives of active citizens have been the driving forces behind the development of literacy education in Japan. Although there had been activity in the past, the 1960s and 70s was marked by a variety of burgeoning literacy education movements. To just mention a few well-known examples, there were;

- a movement to increase the number of Yakanchuugaku (public evening junior high schools administered by local governments) – Yakanchuugaku offers night classes which are open to youths and adults who have not finished their compulsory education (for more about Yakanchuugaku please refer to the section II-10 of this report).

- a literacy class movement in 'Buraku' communities (a caste-like group that has historically faced discrimination) -- it began as a few local literacy initiatives (started by local school teachers or chapters of the Buraku Liberation League) and developed into to a national network of programs.

- a literacy class that opened in 1978 in Kotobuki-cho of Yokohama city -- Kotobuki-cho is the district where many poor day laborers live, and the class was taught from 1980 to 2007 by OOSAWA Toshirou (1945-2007).

- classes run by Seikyuusha in Kawasaki – Seikyuusha is a social welfare organization founded in 1973 by a Japanese-educated Korean clergyman LEE In-Ha (1925-2008), and the classes were targeted for local first-generation 'Zainichi' Koreans. They are Korean residents who moved from, or were made to move from, a colonized

Korea to Japan before and during World War II, and stayed in Japan since then. They often became fluent in spoken Japanese but did not have a chance to develop their Japanese literacy skills.

- Jishu Yakanchuugaku – it means voluntary Yakanchuugaku, run independently and taught by volunteers.

There are other examples as well, such as literacy learning circles, and classes offered by churches, civil groups, or kominkan (community learning centers run by municipal governments). All of the above provided learning opportunities for adults who lived and worked in Japanese society without sufficient literacy skills.

Among these adult learners learning literacy, there were residents of Buraku communities, first-generation Zainichi Koreans, people with disabilities, members of ethnic minority groups such as Ainu, people from the Okinawa islands, and Hibakushas (survivors of the atomic-bombing of Hiroshima or Nagasaki). The reasons for having been unable to enjoy the right to basic education varied from group to group, ranging from the war (which left them orphaned) to long absence from schools or an exemption from compulsory education because of their physical/intellectual disabilities.

For many of the learners, social discrimination or poverty was a key factor that limited their educational opportunities.

While Yakanchuugaku is an important place open to adults who want to learn reading and writing, students are not allowed to be enrolled for unlimited numbers of years, even if they wish to continue to pursue their learning. To redress this problem, for example in Osaka, a class for adults named Mugimame Kyoushitsu was started by volunteers in order to accept graduates of Yakanchuugaku (mainly Zainichi Korean students) who want to continue learning.

## **1.2. Lack of literacy surveys**

In writing about the condition of adult literacy in Japan it must be emphasized that reliable data or survey results of a national level are lacking. Since the time the Japanese government conducted a national survey on literacy in 1948, and a smaller scale survey focused on youth in two regions in 1955, no serious efforts have been made by the government to grasp the accurate picture of literacy / illiteracy of the nation. This lack of well-founded data helps perpetuate the myth of the '99.9% literacy rate' and the idea that there are no native born Japanese who need literacy education. These unfounded beliefs make those without sufficient literacy ashamed and hesitant about speaking out about their difficulties; this silence further serves to strengthen the myth by making their existence more invisible.

In many other countries, full-scale national literacy surveys were conducted as part of the International Literacy Year (1990) and these led to other efforts during the International Decade of Literacy (1991-2000). The results of the surveys attracted

wide public attention and paved the way for the advancement of literacy policy and systems designed to promote literacy education and research, including the establishment of the law on literacy. Examples of this can be seen in such countries as South Korea, Australia, and France. The United States also passed the National Literacy Act of 1991, which ordered the establishment of a national literacy institute and state-level resource centers, referring to the scale of their annual budgets. By comparison, the situation in Japan is very regrettable. Almost no policies on adult literacy exist, the structure to support practice and research is undeveloped, and researchers and fulltime practitioners in the field of literacy education are exceptionally few.

### **1.3. Lack of government policy on literacy**

The Japanese government does not have a policy on adult basic education, literacy education, or Japanese as a second language. Although adult literacy is the basis for lifelong learning and hence should be at the core of the government policy for promoting lifelong learning, the Japanese government's involvement in adult literacy has been extremely rare. One notable exception is funding provided to teach of adult literacy classes in Buraku communities (starting in 1969). This funding contributed a great deal to the development of literacy education for Buraku residents. It was only possible as part of a larger program to promote the overall welfare of Buraku communities, and it disappeared when the program ended in 2002. After 2002, some local governments took over to provide a similar funding for Buraku literacy classes on their own, but others did not. This situation clearly exemplifies the need for the national government to take the lead in setting a national-level policy on adult literacy.

The recent United Nations Literacy Decade (2003-2012) have seemed to have little effect on government policy so far; no discussion has been started about the possibility of creating systematic literacy policies or the enactment of a basic law regarding literacy.

### **1.4. Increase of non-Japanese residents and new challenges**

During the past 20 years, the number of residents registered as those who have non-Japanese nationality more than doubled from 867,000 in 1986 to over 2 million in 2005 (1.57% of the total population in Japan). The demographics of people with non-Japanese nationality have also changed: Koreans have always topped the list (678,000 in 1986 and 599,000 in 2005), but they have gone from representing 78.2% of the non-Japanese population (in 1986) to being just 29.8% of that group (in 2005). On the other hand, residents of Chinese nationality, such as those who are married to Japanese, students studying in Japan, and Japanese 'war orphans'\* from China and their families (\*they are Japanese left in China as children and raised as Chinese after



WWII, only able to come to Japan after 1980; they require Japanese as a Second Language services), increased from 84,000 in 1986 to 520,000 in 2005 (from 9.7% to 25.8% of the total non-Japanese residents). They have now become the second largest group, followed by Brazilians (302,000 people; 15.0% of the total non-Japanese population), people from the Philippines (187,000; 9.3%), and Peruvians (58,000; 2.9%).

These people often live and work in Japan without sufficient Japanese language skills or key pieces of knowledge related to life and work.

For these people, classes (mainly classes to teach Japanese as a second language) are offered, but they have several problems --- there is heavy reliance on volunteers for teaching and management, a lack of training system for teaching staff, and an insufficient development of curricula and teaching methods suitable for the needs of non-Japanese learners. In addition, some non-Japanese residents do not have sufficient literacy in their mother tongues and require mother tongue education in addition to education of Japanese as a second language. The issue of the language skills of foreign nationals is very important and deserves serious attention. One reason is that parents' ability to speak Japanese has a direct affect on their children's process of acquiring language skills. On the other hand, the increasing multiculturalization of Japanese society calls for more learning on the side of Japanese people as well. Part of this means learning to establish good relationships with non-Japanese residents, treating them as fellow members of the same community, and leaning about problems they face in their life in Japan.

Public policy on non-Japanese residents is decisively lacking in measures for ensuring them the foundational learning necessary for living in Japanese society (in other counties such measures are often offered in the framework of adult basic education). Local governments of those regions where non-Japanese populations concentrate have been pressed to provide multiple services, including those related to education in Japanese as a second language, so that they can enjoy decent lives as members of the community. On the other hand, the Japanese government has considered issues of non-Japanese residents almost solely from the rather narrow viewpoints of labor immigration and immigration/foreign resident control. It can be also pointed out that the promotion of Japanese as a second language in communities is administered nationally by the Agency for Cultural Affairs within the framework of the policy on international cultural exchange, not by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology within the framework of education.

## **2. Progress in the movement and public policy: An example in Osaka**

Osaka has long been one of the leading prefectures in the field of literacy education in Japan. It has a large population of Zainichi Koreans; and it boasts a history of active literacy movements, exemplified by adult literacy efforts in Buraku communities

and the movement to increase the number of Yakanchuugaku (night time junior high schools), both dating back to the 1960s. This section will present some examples of recent progress in grassroots efforts and public policy regarding literacy education in Osaka.

### **2.1. Widening networks and connecting movements**

In the late 1970s and 1980s, the people involved in literacy education in Osaka -- learners, teachers and volunteers -- started to hold meetings to know each other and exchange experiences. These meetings at first took place within each of the types of literacy education movements or provision (e.g. Buraku literacy classes, Yakanchuugaku, classes of Japanese as a second language for Japanese war orphans in China and people of non-Japanese nationality).

Then in 1989, a year prior to the International Literacy Year, an overarching network of organizations and individuals active in the field of adult literacy was established in Osaka. Since its inception, this network, 'The Osaka Liaison Association to Promote the International Literacy Year' (referred to as 'The Osaka Liaison Association' hereafter) has been widening and deepening the adult literacy network, by linking up with emerging movements (e.g., a movement for the literacy of people with disabilities and literacy classes of a non-Buraku type at Kominkan) and by promoting the interaction among the different strands of the general effort to provide literacy and education to those who need it.

From 1990 on, the Osaka Liaison Association has organized an annual gathering named 'Get together, fellow learners of literacy' with back-up from Osaka prefecture and Osaka city. This event attracts some 700 people from different kinds of literacy classes (e.g. classes in Buraku communities, Yakanchuugaku, classes of Japanese as a second language and literacy classes for people with disabilities) and produces a report and a collection of learners' compositions. The Osaka Liaison Association (in conjunction with Osaka prefecture and Osaka city) also seeks to capture the reality of literacy in the region, through surveys of learners and volunteers in literacy classes.

### **2.2. Local governments' drawing up the guideline for the promotion of literacy**

In 1993, Osaka prefecture and Osaka city responded to the Osaka Liaison Association's request to draw up guidelines for the promotion of literacy (in order for adult literacy to be firmly anchored in public policy). Other cities and towns in Osaka prefecture followed their lead and have drawn up basic guidelines or action plans for the promotion of literacy. This trend is unique to the Osaka area, and there are no parallels found elsewhere in the country.

### **2.3. Setting up the Center for Adult Learning, Literacy and Japanese as a Second**

### **Language, Osaka (CALL-JSL, Osaka)**

In 2000, the Osaka Liaison Association also wrote a recommendation for the establishment of a public center of adult literacy and Japanese as a second language that would offer multiple services, including organizing meetings and promoting the interaction among different literacy classes, giving information and advice for learners, developing teaching materials and literacy education programs, and providing training for the staff of literacy classes. In 2002, a large part of this recommendation was realized when the Center for Adult Learning, Literacy and Japanese as a Second Language (CALL-JSL) was set up jointly by Osaka prefectural government, Osaka city government, Foundation for Osaka Prefectural Human Rights Association and Osaka City Human Rights Association, in cooperation with Liaison Association of Literacy and Japanese as a Second Language (to which Osaka Liaison Association had renamed itself). Four years later, CALL-JSL changed its name to "CALL-JSL, Osaka." The establishment of this center was epoch-making in that by funding it, local governments were acknowledging their responsibility to promote literacy education and related work. In Japan there were no other centers for literacy with overall functions like this, either at a national or local level. On comparison, many centers for literacy, both public and private, exist in other countries. These centers have been established at various levels, including small-scaled grass-roots centers in local communities, to university-based institutes for literacy research, and large national centers such as the National Institute for Literacy in the USA and the National Literacy Research Centre in India.

Although this center in Osaka was a milestone in adult literacy in Japan, it should be added that there is a trend in recent years for local governments to withdraw from providing support to, or weaken their commitment to, adult literacy. Recently, Osaka prefecture made clear its plans to discontinue funding adult literacy work in the region (including the funding going to the Center for Adult Learning, Literacy and Japanese as a Second Language), claiming that this was a necessary step within their 'fundamental reexamination' of budget spending. The Liaison Association of Literacy and Japanese as a Second Language sent a letter (dated May 2008) to the governor of Osaka prefecture (Mr. HASHIMOTO Tohru), asking for the continuation of Osaka prefecture's work in promoting adult literacy. The letter highlighted the significance of the Center's existence. However, the budget cuts went into effect in fiscal year 2009 and the public funding for the Center was abolished.

## **[Recommendations]**

### **1. Toward the central and local governments**

The following actions by the central and local governments would be advisable:

- Large-scale surveys should be conducted as soon as possible to grasp the real condition of adult literacy in Japan, by getting the data on, for example, the number of adults without sufficient literacy skills or in need of basic education, including those who have not completed compulsory education (so-called graduates 'on paper' who were given certificates rather mechanically, regardless of their unsatisfactory attendance).

The literacy survey in 1955 and a survey conducted in Buraku communities in the 1990s strongly suggest that the current number of adults who have insufficient literacy skills is not small. These surveys should also investigate the needs and the existing resources for adult literacy/basic education (e.g. the number of classes currently offered in the field of adult literacy and Japanese as the second language, as well as what difficulties those classes are experiencing), and the roles which central/local governments should play in promoting adult literacy/basic education (this includes collecting data and information internationally, such as relevant government policies regarding adult literacy/basic education and best practices in other countries). In addition, the surveys should take into account expanding notions of literacy (or literacy skills) that reflect the realities of the information society.

- The government should set up a section that deals with adult literacy/basic education and Japanese as a second language programs. Based upon the result of the above noted surveys, this section should construct concrete policies and systematic measures to promote adult literacy. This would necessitate the enactment of a grounding law, such as 'The Law for Promoting Adult Literacy'. At the same time, since Japan has ratified the International Covenant on Human Rights, which includes the principle of the equal rights regardless of nationality, the Japanese government is required to enact necessary policies and measures for helping residents from oversea (whose numbers are increasing with globalization) to live safe and sound in Japan. This principle orders the Japanese government to treat those with Japanese nationality and those without equally in its policy measures regarding human rights.

- The government should establish centers for adult literacy at the national, regional and local levels, which will serve as the central core in promoting programs and research on literacy education.

- The government should develop collaborative relationships with a network of other countries in order to learn about their policies and best practices regarding adult

literacy. In particular, the government should work closely with those countries in East Asia that Japan has had close relationships with in terms of culture and economy.

While Japan is expected to play its role in the international community through cooperation/aid programs to various countries in Asia and Africa (in particular the regions of East and East-South Asia, with which Japan had profound relationships in the modern history), it is rather doubtful that the Japanese government is well equipped for planning and conducting international adult basic education aid programs given its lack of enthusiasm for dealing with domestic issues of adult basic education. Becoming active in promoting adult literacy/basic education within Japan would help authorities accumulate a great deal of relevant knowledge and experience in the field, which is necessary in order to make a meaningful contribution to the international community. In this way, attention to domestic issues would benefit the Japanese government with regards to its activity outside of Japan.

## **2. Toward the civil society**

The following actions by the citizen and civil society would be desirable:

- Citizens should ask themselves questions like, “Is anyone around us having difficulties in writing or reading?” and “How can we create places that serve their learning needs?” and answer these questions in their action. Recently there has been a tendency in Japan to understand the issue of illiteracy solely in the logic of self-responsibility: the problems of people who have an inability to properly write and read were caused by their own actions, and so they should solve these problems by themselves. But the reality is that they were not guaranteed sufficient opportunities to learn in their lives due to various reasons such as wars, diseases, poverty and discrimination. Adult learners are trying to recover what society prevented them from having in the past, and their efforts should therefore be supported by society.

- Groups and organizations that have already been involved the provision of literacy education and Japanese as a second language programs (e.g., running classes, supplying teachers) should get to know each other, work in cooperation and establish a network with other groups/organizations. Such a network would give learners opportunities to meet those are who are in similar situations learning in other places, it would help teachers share, exchange or jointly develop teaching materials, and it would help the field as a whole to effectively conduct lobbying or advocacy activities towards local governments and other organizations. It would be helpful in increasing support among fellow citizens (including the staff of central/local governments) for the promotion of literacy education/ education of Japanese as a second language. The merit of organizing a network can be seen in the example of the Osaka Liaison Association mentioned in this chapter. This network served as a platform where

many groups, organizations, and involved individuals could come together, which helped the movement to become visible and reach out to many others. The collective power of this initiative can be seen as one of the sources of their success in having several local governments in Osaka prefecture accept and realize many of the recommendation for a guideline/action plan on adult literacy or the proposal to establish the Center for Adult Learning, Literacy and Japanese as a Second Language.

- Individuals and organizations should request that their local governments conduct surveys, develop programs, adopt guidelines or action plans for promoting adult literacy, set up sections charged with adult literacy, and so on. Although local governments often do not want to make a move on their own when the national government is not taking the lead, or when a legal responsibility is not specified in a law, local governments in Osaka did make up their guidelines and action plans, as we have already seen. Steps taken by local governments may be small, but if they are taken all over Japan, they will eventually set the national trend and influence the central government's policy on adult literacy.

(Original chapter in Japanese written by

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\*\*In this chapter Japanese and Korean names are spelled in the East Asian order, in which the family-name comes first.

## **- 15 Education for Sustainable Development (ESD)**

### **1. Launch of the Decade of ESD and Implementation of ESD in Japan**

#### **1.1. A Proposal to the Global Community**

Recognition of the need for education for sustainable development (ESD) predates the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (Rio Earth Summit) and Chapter 36 of *Agenda 21* is designated to the implementation of ESD. Pursuant to this, UNESCO assumed the role of lead agency and for the first time an ESD session was held during the 1997 World Conference on Higher Education. Though promotion of ESD was attempted, satisfactory results were not achieved.

In 2002 at the World Summit on Sustainable Development (the Johannesburg Summit) the Japanese Government and NGOs jointly proposed to designate a “Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (UNDESJ).” The proposal was adopted by the UN General Assembly and the “decade” commenced as a UN project in 2005.

#### **1.2. Launch of Civil Society Network Promoting ESD, “ESD-J”**

Following the adoption of the DESD, Japanese NGOs, who took the lead on the proposal, reached out to stakeholders to found the Japan Council on the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (ESD-J) in June 2003 with the goal of advancing domestic and international ESD as a partnership. ESD-J has formed a network of 100 organizations including NGOs, educational institutions, enterprises, and other groups active in such fields as environmental education, development education, human rights education, peace education, and youth development and is currently engaged in such efforts as policy proposals, training, information dissemination, and international networking.

In March 2005, ESD-J hosted the UNDESJ Kick-off Meeting at which government, enterprise, NGO and local municipality representatives convened a roundtable discussion and proposed a framework for implementing ESD. Thereafter ESD-J has acted as the engine behind ESD advancement in Japan by proactively working on arranging roundtable meetings, creating a Diet Members Caucus for ESD Promotion and formulating Japan’s Action Plan for UNDESJ.

<http://www.esd-j.org/en/>

#### **1.3. Government Implementation System and Diet Members Caucus**

In December 2005 the Japanese government established the Interministerial Meeting on the “United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development” (hereafter “the Interministerial Meeting”) within the Cabinet (11 ministries and agencies: Cabinet Secretariat, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Ministry of the Environment, Cabinet Office, Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and

Fisheries, Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry, Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism [observers: Ministry of Justice, Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare]).

Additionally, in March 2006, “Japan’s Action Plan for UNDESD” (hereafter “the Action Plan”) was developed. The plan emphasized “programs leading to sustainable community development,” “implementation in diverse settings through multi-stakeholder partnership,” “an integrated approach to diverse agendas,” “participatory and experiential learning,” “fostering citizen participation.”

Based on the Action Plan, the government has facilitated discussions on measures for implementing ESD by holding ESD Roundtable Meetings since 2008 as forums for exchanges of opinions among academic experts, educators, and related persons from NPOs and enterprises.

The Diet Members Caucus for ESD Promotion was launched in June 2007. About 50 Diet members have joined the league, which has held a number of discussions to explore ways of promoting ESD.

#### **1.4. Promoting ESD in Collaboration with Global Community**

The Japanese Government is engaged in the global advancement of ESD through UNESCO and the United Nations University with a particular focus on strengthening the contributions to ESD by regional Centers of Expertise (RCEs) on ESD and higher education institutions and fostering primary and middle school education institutions’ programs through UNESCO’s Associated Schools Project Network (ASPnet).

ESD-J implemented a joint project with NGOs from seven Asian countries, and has been presenting Asia ESD perspectives through the website for sharing ESD good practices in a seven language. <http://www.agepp.net/>

## **2. Features of ESD in non-formal Education in Japan**

### **2.1. Features of Approach**

Prior to the UNDESD, NGOs, universities and other higher learning institutions, community centers and other social education facilities, local museums, zoos, aquariums and enterprises had already carried out participatory and problem-solving based learning, with a “perspective of creating a better society” under themes such as the environment, development, human rights, social welfare, peace, and community building. Around the start of the UNDESD, there have developed partnerships under the ESD umbrella.

Another feature of ESD in Japan is cooperation and linkages of various actors and working through partnerships.

### **2.2. Local ESD Efforts**

Among recent developments in environmental education, for example, are activities that contribute to building a sustainable society, such as efforts to carry on the



traditional knowledge from times when people lived in harmony with nature through experiences of agriculture and everyday life, and learning programs that explore ways to forge a better society by connecting the challenges facing the international community to daily living and local issues.

Numerous sustainable community development projects featuring energy and food to revitalize rural areas through exchanges with urban areas are being pursued across Japan on the initiative of local governments and civil organizations. ESD is incorporated into the activity process as a venue for learning.

### **2.3. Business Sector's Efforts**

In Japan, businesses are facing an increasing demand for social responsibility, leading many firms to establish dedicated departments to enhance their environmental and social credentials in their main lines of business and to pursue the activities that contribute to society. As part of this trend, there is heightened interest in ESD within companies; companies are incorporating social responsibility into employee training; companies are supporting employees in participating in volunteer activities; and employees are supporting environmental education initiatives in formal/non-formal education as a part of their corporate social responsibility activities.

## **3. Achievements and Issues in the First Half of UNDESD**

### **3.1. Achievements**

During the first 4 years of the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development, a major achievement was the development of the framework to enhance the partnership between the public and private sectors, including Interministerial Meeting on UNDESD and ESD Roundtable Meetings. Other major achievements in this period include the affirmation of ESD's status as an important government policy in such plans as the Basic Promotional Plan for Education and the Twenty-first Century Environment Nation Strategy. Additionally, practical models for ESD implementation at the community level and in institutions of higher education were developed, and the civil society networked the multi-stakeholders who promote ESD promotion at the local community level.

### **3.2. Challenges**

Though progress has been made, the concepts of ESD have not been sufficiently disseminated to even the primary stake holders that should be working on ESD. ESD is "an educational process that fosters individual awareness and behavioral transformation, which develops into community building." ESD is not a new effort but is possible through developing existing education programs, however, recognition of this is lacking. There are many who have never even heard the term of ESD, including those who work on the frontlines in the education field.

For example, in a 2008 survey conducted by the Ministry' of the Environment's

Environmental Partnership Office Chubu, 84% of those surveyed in Nagano, Aichi, Gifu and Mie Prefectures' municipal boards of education responded "no" to the question, "Do you have anything that could be considered ESD within your board of education facility?" This study shows that ESD is not sufficiently disseminated in the classroom or in school facilities (<http://www.epo-chubu.jp>).

Closer partnership among government ministries, agencies and other actors is vital for promoting ESD. Efforts must be made to strengthen the system for cooperation and to implement policies toward this end. Other remaining tasks include raising the status of ESD in government policies and taking a more comprehensive approach that incorporates ESD principles in teaching individual topics on the environment and international understanding.

## **[ Recommendation ] ESD-J Proposals for Promotion of ESD**

### **1. Formulation of Recommendations**

In 2008 ESD-J formulated policy proposals to further promote ESD. In the formulation of these proposals, comments were solicited online as well as through community workshops held in seven locations in order to hear the voices of a broad range of stakeholders and to be based on the achievements and challenges of ESD practices to date. The voices of approximately 180 practitioners are reflected in these proposals. The followings are the overview of proposals related to promotion of ESD within non-formal education.

### **2. Broaden Understanding about ESD and Make Achievements Visible**

In order to improve public awareness about ESD throughout Japan, first, the existence and importance of ESD must be known to a majority of people. It is important to convey the appeal of ESD, the individual and social transformation possible through ESD, and the methodology behind ESD, to a broad population: educators, government officials, corporate managers, NGO staffs and community residents. Making local initiatives visible through an ESD program registry should be an effective strategy, while effective public relation strategies targeting the priorities should be created.

#### Related policy proposals

- Create and implement PR strategy to popularize ESD
- Implement ESD program registration to help visualize and popularize ESD
- Establish ESD information corner in public spaces, such as libraries

### **3. Create National Framework for Practice of ESD**

Creating a sustainable society requires that people from all walks of life work together. This is why it is indispensable to create a system that fosters the intergovernmental as well as public-private collaboration in the implementation of ESD. It is important to support ESD nationwide by establishing a national ESD center for information

exchange and professional training for ESD implementation, as well as to bolster ESD Roundtable Meetings in order to implement policy for enhancing collaboration and cooperation.

Related policy proposals

- Establish national ESD center
- Bolster national ESD Roundtable Meetings
- Strengthen ESD in private sector

**4. Empower the local community to deliver ESD programs**

Multi-stakeholders should be proactively involved in the sustainable community development, in both adult and children's education. The coordinators, who organize the learning settings through connecting the local people and their efforts, play a significant role in order to implement ESD based on the multi-stakeholder partnership.

For the continuity and development of ESD practice, the efforts need to be institutionalized and should not be based solely on the ability and diligence of individuals.

Universities, community education facilities, and NGO centers practical need to function as the local ESD centers for ESD dissemination and human resource development, in order to enable school coordinators and volunteer coordinators to organize the learning settings with ESD perspectives. It is important to develop the ESD framework, such as local ESD roundtable meetings and ESD coordinators' councils, by utilizing the existing systems.

Related policy proposals

- Develop function of local ESD centers
- Establish local ESD roundtable meetings
- Arrange coordinators to promote ESD in municipalities and set up ESD coordinators' council

**5. Connect ESD in Asia and lead global ESD**

In March 2009 the Japanese government proposed hosting the end-of-decade world conference on ESD in Japan. The intention was welcomed by participants at the World Conference on Education for Sustainable Development – Moving into the Second Half of the UN Decade, held in Bonn. As both the original proposing country and host to the end-of-decade world conference, Japan's work on promoting ESD is highly expected domestically and globally.

ESD-J hopes to contribute to foster global ESD by providing Asian ESD perspectives obtained through strengthening the partnership with Asian NGOs.

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## II - 16 Development Education and Adult Education in Japan

### **1. Development Education (DE) in the 1980s: DE born from out-school education**

It was a starting point of Development Education (DE) in Japan that the first symposium on DE was held in 1979 in Tokyo. It was sponsored by UNICEF, the UN University and United Nations Information Centre (UNIC). After this symposium development NGOs, youth organizations such as YMCAs and UN-related associations organized a study group on DE. This group supported the same kind of symposiums at Yokohama, Osaka and Nagoya in the following years. Under the initiative of this group, the Development Education Council of Japan (DECJ), which was the former body of the present Development Education Association & Resource Center (DEAR), was established in 1982. DECJ shared information and experiences on DE by publishing its periodicals as well as holding its national gathering every summer since 1983. The main field of DE has not been a formal sector like school education, but a private and voluntary sector such as international cooperation and youth work from the beginning.

On the other hand, the globalization of Japanese society has been so rapid during the 1980s, but the educational community remained somewhat backward. Especially, the second report of the National Council on Educational Reform recommended that new education should respond to “internationalization,” but the policy and contents of the reform was based on a kind of neo-liberalism, and totally different from the UNESCO recommendation concerning International Education in 1974. In those days, it meant that it was almost impossible for NGOs to make collaboration with schools and teachers. DE had made trials and errors at the grassroots level of voluntary activities during the days without enough cooperation with non-formal education facilities such as public libraries, museums, local learning centers etc., as well as any understanding and supports from formal education authorities.

### **2. DE in the 1990s: Implications from Hamburg Conference and changes of DE**

#### **2.1. UN conferences and Hamburg Conference**

The curtain of the 1990s opened out after the fall of Berlin Wall in 1989, which brought big changes to the international community. Also, there was a series of “global forums” sponsored by UN and its agencies in the 1990s, which brought in no small, part the impacts and implications to DE in Japan. Needless to say once again, UN conferences like World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien and UN Conference on Environment and Development (Earth Summit) in Rio de Janeiro were held almost every year on the theme of global issues such as education, environment, development, human rights, population, gender, etc.. The fifth International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA V) in 1997 reaffirmed that “only human-centered development and participatory society based on the full respect of human rights will lead to sustainable and equitable development” on a combination of educational issues

discussed during those global conferences. In “the Agenda for the Future” it also emphasized the role of the NGO’s capabilities for offering occasions of education as well as adult education and lifelong learning, so as to find out a solution to the global challenges of mankind.

## **2.2. Reconsidering the definition of DE**

The biggest impact from those UN conferences and CONFINTEA V to DE in Japan would be the enlargement of the notion of “development”. Japanese DE in those days absorbed the knowledge and experiences of some pioneering countries such as UK and Canada and paid much attention to the typical development issues like famine and poverty in the developing “South.” Accordingly, its goal was to understand the North-South issues and to mobilize people to take part in NGO activities and international cooperation to solve development issues.

But, after the discussions and implications from a series of the global conferences, it became apparent that global issues were inter-related with each other. DE turned its perspective much wider and focused on other issues as well as development issues. Consequently, DECJ reconsidered its old definition of DE and announced the new definition as follows: DE aims that "each of us will understand various problems concerning development issues, consider the nature of development, and participate in building a just global society that we can live together." The contents of learning is 1) respect for diversity, 2) the present situations and its causes of development issues, 3) inter-relatedness of global issues, 4) our ties with the world, and 5) our challenges to solve global issues.

Thus, compared to the old definition, the new one puts its more focus on global issues relevant to development on the basis of cultural diversity and human dignity. Also, it emphasizes that each of us should learn links between us and our world, so that it focuses on our participation in the process of problem solving. These changes gave some influences to the activities in 1990s such as research and learning materials.

## **2.3. Introduction and evolution of Participatory Learning**

As well as those changes in the aim and contents of DE, another change was observed in the learning methodology. The learning style of DE in the 1980s was so-called “banking education” as Paulo Freire named. It was quite contrary to the Participatory Learning (PL) which DE today thinks highly of. In those days NGO workers and volunteers explained or taught their donors and supporters what happened in developing countries and what the solutions for those problems were, by using the slides and pictures they took in their fields. The donors and supporters were only sitting there in a room or a hall, and they were just like innocent students not familiar with Asia and Africa at all.

In the 1990s, some British guidebooks concerning PL began to be translated and published in Japan, and many of British DE materials like the "Trading Game" became

well-known among Japanese DE practitioner. As the result, in the late 1990s, the style of training and seminars of DE turned to be participatory. At the same time, much attention were likely to paid to only the know-how and technique of PA and some beginners of PL had some tendency not to understand the philosophy and original aims of PL. In this situation, the question "what is PL" was also to come out among the DE practitioners. It was the message of the Hamburg Declaration that gave a key to answer this question. It says that "only human-centered development and participatory society based on the full respect of human rights will lead to sustainable and equitable development."

The goal of DE is to build a just global society that we can live together through education and learning. If so, it is indispensable for DE that the methodology themselves is "participatory". It seems that this has led to the great encouragement and self-confidence for Japanese DE activities.

#### **2.4. Forming and enlargement of local and national networks of DE**

Local initiatives to support DE have widely spread in the 1990s. The present DEAR (the former DECJ) started a series of local seminars on DE in 1992 at three local cities. Since 1996, local seminars on DE have been held in six regional areas, with the funding support of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. DEAR provided 64 local seminars until 2003, and it covered 44 among 47 prefectures in Japan. These seminars were organized by local NGOs, teachers and adult educators in each of the cities and towns. In most cases they continued to keep the partnership and network to promote DE in the local areas. These seminars contributed to disseminating the knowledge and approaches of development and other global issues.

Also, at the end of every year, DEAR organized a conference for networking among 40 to 50 practitioners from every regions of Japan, who shared those local seminars and discussed common issues. These networking conferences have made great contributions for building the rapport and new networks at local and national levels.

### **3. DE in the 2000s: Challenge of DE toward "Participation" and "Local Community"**

#### **3.1. Approach to Adult Education and Participatory Development in the South**

The Hamburg Declaration praises in the beginning, "Only human-centered development and participatory society will lead to sustainable and equitable development." If it does, how can we realize this ideal goal through education and learning? DE has tried to find out the clue in the fusion and collaboration between Participatory Development (PD) and Participatory Learning (PL).

The 20th national gathering organized by DEAR in 2002 was the most symbolic occasion. Kamal Pyual, who is a well-known Nepali rural development facilitator, was invited to this gathering and he introduced Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) in his workshop. The participants of Phual's workshop found that PRA was quite similar to PL of DE in the points of its idea and methods, so Japanese practitioners of DE have

paid their attentions to PRA in rural development in the South since then.

PRA is a participatory method of rural development by local people themselves, and it has been groped from the late 1980s in the developing “South.” Previously, poor village people were the mere beneficiaries of development projects and foreign aid. But in the process of PRA, they actively and voluntarily participate in rural community development, study their situations and problems, and find out their own answers and solutions. This process also means self-learning and self-empowerment, and recently it is often called Participatory Learning and Action (PLA).

Also, DEAR became a member of the Asian and South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education (ASPBAE), and have tried to learn from the experiences of adult education and participatory development in the south-east Asia region. In fact, DEAR has sent its staff members to some training course and workshops organized by some community organizations so as to study from experiences in south-east Asia. In addition, DEAR and the Rikkyo University ESD Research Center (ESDRC) have had a joint project of NGO staff training in Chaingmai, Thailand. DEAR had introduced some typical Japanese DE teaching materials and the methods of participatory learning in the workshops in cooperation with a certain Chaingmai local NGO. And then those materials were considered by the participants to be quite effective for their village people to understand and analyze the socio-economic situations and problems in the northern part of Thailand under the influences of economic globalization.

This effort between Japan and Thai has been still a limited and experimental trial. But it means that participatory development such as PRA/PLA in the South and participatory learning of DE in the North could share the common ideas and goals for building a equitable community that we can live together rather than the similarities in their techniques and methods. Also, it is important that the method of PL has been evolved in incidental learning as well as non-formal education by CSOs and CBOs, not in formal education by governments and local authorities.

The activities and movements of Japanese DE were limited only in the inland of Japan so long time. But at the moment it has made some challenges towards “human-centered development and participatory society” under the exchange and mutual learning with the efforts of rural development and adult education in south-east Asia.

### **3.2. DE in the future with the context of local community and culture**

The Section 5 of the Hamburg Declaration says, “The objectives of youth and adult education are to develop the autonomy and the sense of responsibility of people and communities, to reinforce the capacity to deal with the transformations taking place in the economy, in culture and in society as a whole, and to promote coexistence, tolerance and the informed and creative participation of citizens in their communities.” In other words it emphasizes the promotion of education and learning for local participation in “human-centered development and participatory society” declared in

the Section 1 of the Declaration.

Looking back on Japanese DE until the 1990s, it didn't have enough viewpoints or perspectives in such a sense and that it did not take any domestic issues as the content of learning. As for the appeal, "Think globally, act locally", it always means the local actions for solving such issues as starvation and poverty in the South, and it wasn't the appeal for solving domestic issues. But such global issues as rural development in the South have been seemed to be so far away from Japan that DE cannot receive enough understanding and supports from the general public as well as the education community in the inward-looking Japanese society. Though Japanese DE had been faced with such a dilemma or contradiction between global issues and local issues, some DE practitioners began to point out the necessity of drawing lessons from good practices of learning global issues linked with local community.

Based on the request of the Hamburg Declaration and some good learning practices in Japanese local areas, DEAR started a new research project regarding "DE in the future with the context of local community and culture" from 2003, and DEAR published the outcome of the project in 2008. This book introduced 18 domestic and foreign learning activities as good practices over seven themes of "multi-cultural society," "agriculture," "environment," "local economy," "citizen participation," "women and children," and "networking." And it emphasizes the importance of community development based on the participatory learning as the resistance against the globalization.

The details of those good practices should be omitted here, but it seems that they are good examples of the Japanese social and adult education that can respond to the promotion of creative participation of citizens in their communities in the Section 5 of the Hamburg declaration.

### **3.3. Making of ESD integrated curriculum**

While DE meets participatory development, especially PRA/PLA in the South and Japanese domestic development issues in the 2000s, World Summit on Environment and Development was held in South Africa in 2002. In this summit Japan proposed ESD (Education for Sustainable Development), and the Decade of ESD started in 2005.

Sustainability as well as environment and development are the main issues of ESD, but those issues have been pointed out in the Hamburg Declaration and the Agenda for the Future. In such a context, DESD can be considered as an international campaign for the realization of the Declaration and the Agenda

While the surroundings of DE in Japan changed remarkably, there was a growing tendency to question what the goal, the contents and the method of DE are, and to show the new curriculum as ESD. Therefore, DEAR started a new research project regarding the ESD Integrated curriculum and reported the results of research at the end of 2008.

According to the report, the ESD integrated curriculum is "a process of the



integration of learning for realizing the sustainable and equitable society that we can give together. And, the integration does not mean the mere mixture or the simple accumulation of such global issues as development, environment, human rights, peace, gender, etc. It does mean holiness as human beings who are active learners, multi-layeredness of issues and problems in local and global communities, and diversities and inter-connectedness of learning approaches.

### **(Recommendations)**

#### **1. Emphasis on development issues in the policy of social and adult education**

Human-centered development and sustainable development are very important key concepts. But those concepts are not emphasized in the policies and programs of Japanese social and adult education. In the sense that such domestic issues as poverty, unemployment, and differences between rich and poor, or urban and rural have become more and more remarkable in Japan today, development issues should be placed a great emphasis on in those related policies and programs.

#### **2. Cooperation and equal partnership with local facilities of social and adult education**

There have been little cooperation and equal partnership between DE practitioners and public facilities of social and adult education such as libraries, museums and local learner's centers administered by local authorities. In order to make more opportunities of learning development issues in local communities, the knowledge and experiences of DE should be shared with those facilities.

#### **3. Carrying on international campaigns on development issues**

International campaigns about "Human-centered Development" and "Sustainable development" have been carried on by NGOs as well as UN agencies and governments. For example, "Millennium Development Goals (MDG)", "Education for All (EFA)", and "Education for Sustainable Development (ESD)" are ongoing now. But there are very few opportunities that those international campaigns are emphasized in the Japanese public policies and programs of social and adult education, and therefore it is necessary that the government and local authorities of social and adult education should support or carry on those international campaigns in cooperation with NGOs and DE practitioners.

#### **4. Setting-up of financial support system for NGOs and DE practitioners**

Development NGOs are important actors of DE and ESD, which have abundant information and experiences in the field of community development in the South. But most of the Japanese development NGOs don't have enough capacities of carrying on domestic activities of DE and ESD because of the lack of financial and human resources. Also, the funding schemes for development NGOs such as governmental subsidies and grants from private foundations are likely to put more priorities on overseas projects than domestic ones. Therefore, it is necessary to set up some financial support systems for development NGOs as well as DE practitioners.

(Written and translated by DEAR : Hiroyuki Yumoto)

## - 17 The Current Status and Challenges

### of Japan's Cooperation

### in Adult Literacy in Developing Countries 1

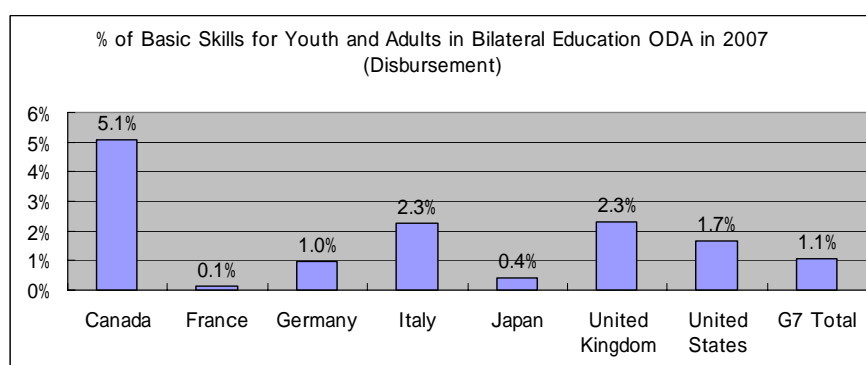
This report examines the current status and challenges of literacy programs for youth and adults in developing countries supported by the Government of Japan and NGOs. Recommendations are also made towards more effective assistance for literacy education, including strengthening cooperation between the government and NGOs.

#### 1. Support to adult literacy by the Japanese government

##### 1.1. Policy

In 2002, Japan developed its first ever policy on basic education assistance for developing countries, the Basic Education for Growth Initiative (BEGIN). Japan considers that “providing effective and flexible opportunities for education to people having difficulties in accessing the formal educational system is essential for the achievement of Education for All” (EFA) and thus “assistance for non-formal education (promotion of literacy education)” is included as one of the measures to ensure access to education. Literacy for women is given particular attention. It is also mentioned that Japan will promote cooperation with NGOs to support non-formal education in remote or impoverished areas having no schools.

##### 1.2. Financing



Source: OECD, DAC. The Creditor Reporting System

[http://www.oecd.org/document/31/0,3343,en\\_2649\\_34447\\_41798751\\_1\\_1\\_1\\_1,00.html](http://www.oecd.org/document/31/0,3343,en_2649_34447_41798751_1_1_1_1,00.html), accessed on 19 March 2008

Analyzing financing to adult literacy, however, the aforementioned policy has not been implemented sufficiently. Out of the total Japan's ODA to education in 2007

(USD 739 m), only 0.4 % or USD 3.2 million was allocated to “basic skills for youth and adults” including literacy. This amount remains only one third of the G7 average 1.1 %, as shown in the above table, which has reduced Japan to one of the countries giving least aid to this field following France.

The Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) includes non-formal education as one of the priority areas in its basic education assistance 2. However, its financial allocations to non-formal education are relatively small compared to other ‘sub-sectors’. Only 6.1% of JICA’s total aid to education was spent for non-formal education programs in 2004, while 26.2 % for technical and vocational education and 22.4% for primary and secondary education 3.

The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology has been supporting literacy and non-formal education in the form of Funds-in-Trust for UNESCO since the 1990s. It contributed to promoting literacy in Asia and the Pacific through the “Japanese Funds-in-Trust for Literacy Education” (US\$6,865,000 1990-2001) and the “Japanese Funds-in-Trust for Community Learning Centers (US\$1,385,000 1996-2001)”. In 2002, these two were integrated as the “Japanese Funds-in-Trust for Education for All” and a total of JPY 512 million was disbursed to the Funds from 2002 to 2008 4.

### **1.3. Target countries, regions and groups**

There were only 26 adult literacy programs supported by the Japanese government between 2001 and 2008 5. Out of the 26 programs, 9 were conducted in Africa, 8 in Asia, 5 in the Middle-East, and 4 in Central and South America.

The data shows that Japan prioritizes Afghanistan where 5 programmes have been implemented, followed by Pakistan with 3 programs, Vietnam with 2 programs, and Brazil with 2 programs. For the rest of the countries, only 1 programme was implemented in each. As Afghanistan and Pakistan are both low-income countries with low literacy rates (28% in Afghanistan and 54 % in Pakistan respectively), Japan’s contribution to these countries is regarded very valuable. At the same time, one third of the target countries are in fact high-income or middle-income countries with relatively high literacy rates, such as Trinidad and Tobago (literacy rates: 99%), the Philippines (literacy rates: 93%), Brazil (literacy rates: 90%), South Africa (literacy rates: 87%), and Mauritius (literacy rates: 85%).

The target groups include minorities and marginalized people who have little or no access to education, economy and political systems in Brazil, the Philippines, Vietnam and so on. Particular attention is being paid to female learners in many literacy programs.

### **1.4. Implementing agencies and aid modalities**

While implementing agencies/organizations vary from NGOs to the government and the United Nations (UN) utilizing different funding schemes and modalities of the Japanese government, most of the literacy programs are conducted by NGOs. Out of

the 26 literacy programs supported by Japan, 19 programs are implemented mainly by local NGOs and local authorities through Grassroots Human Security Grant Aid.

There are 4 technical cooperation projects of JICA, two of which are implemented directly by JICA, and other two were supported through a consultancy firm and an NGO. JICA also has a particular scheme to support NGOs called Grassroots Technical Cooperation and one of the Japanese NGOs conducted two literacy programs in Vietnam with funding support from JICA.

The Japanese government is currently supporting UNESCO in the form of Grant Aid for a literacy project in Afghanistan for 5 years.

### **1.5. Project scale**

The project scale ranges from JPY 0.5 million (a local NGO) to JPY 380 million (JICA) and JPY 1.49 billion (UNESCO). The number of beneficiaries also varies. For example, UNESCO plans to reach 0.3 million people and JICA supported approximately 10,000 people in Afghanistan.

### **1.6. Project activities**

The most common approach is to support infrastructure especially through Grassroots Human Security Grant Aid. It can be said that UNESCO's support is more comprehensive, which includes capacity development of the government officials, support for learning facilities, promoting literacy, developing learning materials, facilitator training, post-literacy, microcredit, recommendations to the non-formal education system, Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Programme (LAMP) and so on. JICA has its own strength to support its governmental counterparts and contributed to developing their capacities on data management and training for supervisors, for example. At the same time, JICA has cooperated with NGOs to reach non-literate people especially in remote areas.

### **1.7. Coordination and collaboration among main stakeholders**

Afghanistan is an interesting case in which UNESCO, JICA, and NGOs (Japanese NGOs, local and international NGOs) are supporting literacy projects funded by the Japanese government. Some good aspects have been found in terms of coordination and collaboration among these stakeholders, such as the distribution of literacy primers and facilitators' guide developed by UNESCO in JICA project as well as cooperation between JICA and NGOs to promote literacy effectively. Cooperation between JICA and NGOs has also made coordination with the Afghan authorities relatively smooth, while there are often some kind of 'competitions' between the Afghan authorities and NGOs in general.

However, there is a great room to plan and implement these activities more strategically. Even in a same project, capacity development of the government officials and NGO's support to literacy classes were not coordinated sufficiently. Although NGOs' innovative approaches to adult literacy and life skills have been gradually appreciated by the Afghan government, it is not yet a stage of scaling them

up or integrating them into the government system, partly due to fragility of the Afghan government. Linkages between literacy and life skills need to be further strengthened.

## **2. Support to adult literacy by Japanese NGOs 6**

### **2.2. Number of NGOs involved in adult literacy**

The Japan NGOs Center for International Cooperation (JANIC) estimates that 60% among 354 Japanese NGOs working for international development are engaged in the education sector, and that 48 NGOs are involved in the field of adult literacy. Needless to say, these NGOs also work for other sectors or sub-sectors in education on top of adult literacy.

### **2.2. Target areas**

The majority of NGOs engaged in adult literacy target Asian region. Among 17 surveyed adult literacy projects, 15 projects were implemented in Asia and the Pacific, 1 in Latin America and 1 in Africa. This trend is common not only about literacy projects but also about projects in other sectors implemented by Japanese NGOs. In terms of target levels of intervention, 1 project intervenes at national level, 2 projects at provincial/prefecture level, 11 projects at city/district/council level, and 3 projects at community level, showing one of the features of Japanese NGOs is to support at municipality level.

### **2.3. Project scale**

The projects implemented by Japanese NGOs are relatively small, which in turn indicates that the capacity of many Japanese NGOs is not sufficient yet. The total number of beneficiaries of 15 adult literacy projects of which data is available is 47,837, meaning that one project serves 2,609 people on average. However, standard deviation of this average figure is large, suggesting that the median value of 325 people would represent the project scale. Annual budget of 15 adult literacy projects range from US\$ 3,900 to US\$ 608,800, which suggests again that median value of US\$ 61,500 would represent the size of projects.

### **2.4. Target groups**

Most of adult literacy projects of Japanese NGOs target marginalized groups including ethnic minorities, the poor, the landless, women, the disabled and minority groups. This would stem from the organizational missions and visions to empower the marginalized population through adult literacy.

### **2.5. Facilitators**

In many adult literacy projects, efforts are being made to ensure that facilitators are friendly to learners. For example, National Federation of Unesco Associations in Japan (NFUAJ) once had Vietnamese primary school male teachers as facilitators of literacy classes for ethnic minority communities in Vietnam. However, as ethnic minority women tend to be afraid of Vietnamese men due to historical and social

reasons, NFUAJ decided to select facilitators from literate women in the community after giving them training. This made learners feel friendly to facilitators.

## **2.6. Learning spaces**

Japanese NGOs also try to create learner-friendly spaces. Most of the NGOs are skeptical about providing financial input to infrastructure for learning. Instead, they utilize community meeting spaces and private houses as learning spaces for literacy, because learners are already familiar with these places through their everyday life activities. For example, home-based learning has resulted in high attendance rates in Afghanistan where it is often difficult for women to go out from home.

## **2.7. Learning materials**

NGOs utilize local resources as learning materials in a flexible manner. While in most of the projects national literacy curriculum is followed, it is often revised and additional materials are supported based on learning needs of communities. In case that adult literacy is one of the components of comprehensive community development projects, materials for agriculture and maternity health are also used for learning literacy. For example, fertilizer packages are used as materials to learn how to use fertilizer properly in the livelihood development project supported by World Vision Japan. The evaluation survey of this project suggests that utilization of local resources enhances learner's motivation, improves the synergy between adult literacy and livelihood development efforts, and makes the project more cost effective than developing new learning materials.

## **2.8. Approaches**

Two approaches are common to adult literacy programs by Japanese NGOs. First, they try to adopt a rights-based approach with community participation. They tend to spend lots of time for socialization, raising consciousness and readiness for learning processes by forming and strengthening groups of the marginalized, before starting literacy programs. Some NGOs employ Participatory Learning and Action (PLA) during socialization process. Participatory process involves raising consciousness, which results in a rights-based approach. For example, after organizing women groups for income generation, members of the groups realized that it was their own right to be able to read Holy Koran and they started the literacy classes with the support from Peace Winds Japan in Afghanistan.

Second, most of the NGOs integrate adult literacy components into livelihood improvement projects, which include income generation, maternity health, agriculture, housing and environment.

## **2.9. Sustainability**

Japanese NGOs make efforts to ensure sustainability of adult literacy projects. Regarding organizational sustainability, they try to enhance community initiatives and ownership at the planning stage, and to organize learners' groups with equity and fairness through spending time for preparation and socialization and lowering

visibility of NGOs as donors.

In terms of technical sustainability, NGOs try to utilize locally available materials and resources which are relevant to local contexts. This allows learners and local people engaged in literacy to continue to develop materials by themselves after the completion of the projects. They also emphasize training of trainers and facilitators with management aspects.

Regarding policy and institutional aspects, there are only 4 projects which impacted on national education policy among the 17 adult literacy projects surveyed. Limited efforts include strengthening linkage between community and schools and advocacy for promoting adult literacy. Even though NGOs' projects might be participatory, rights-based and innovative, the projects would not be sustainable without policy changes of governments. This suggests that Japanese NGOs should make more efforts for involving governments and for advocacy towards policy changes.

Lastly, efforts for ensuring financial sustainability include maximizing utilization of community resources and minimizing financial input, and integrating literacy components in broader livelihood improvement activities such as forming income generation and banking groups at community level.

#### **2.10. Challenges and difficulties**

The survey found two challenges and difficulties faced during the implementation of literacy projects by Japanese NGOs. First, it is difficult for the poorest to attend literacy classes because they need to work. After joining literacy class, the poorest group in rural area tends to drop out because of migration to the urban area for seeking jobs. To address this issue, Shapla Neer employs the target approach which focuses the poorest and the most marginalized within community rather than all the illiterates in community.

Second challenge is the low priority to adult literacy given by education administration. In general, governments' interest in adult literacy is lower than schooling for children, which results in limited funding and human resource allocation to adult literacy. Low commitment to adult literacy hinders project sustainability of NGOs' projects, indicating the importance of advocacy efforts.

#### **Footnotes:**

1 This report focuses on Japan's support to literacy programmes for adults and youth, especially those implemented after 2000 when the World Education Forum was held in Dakar, Senegal.

2 Non-formal education defined by JICA targets from children to adults. Also, there are cases that literacy is an integral component in vocational education projects. This report focuses on only projects with clear objectives for promoting literacy and non-formal education.

3 Ogawa, K. and M. Nishimura (eds.). (2008). Basic Education Support in

Developing Countries: International Trends and Japanese Assistance.

4 Information obtained from UNESCO.

5 This report deals with 26 literacy projects for youth and adults implemented from 2001 to 2007 searched at <http://www3.mofa.go.jp/mofaj/gaiko/oda/search.php> (key words: literacy or non-formal education) and JICA website/

6 This section is based on the survey commissioned by Non-formal Education Study Group, National Institute for Education Policy Research in 2004, conducted by Takafumi Miyake, Akiko Kitamura and Miho Iwamoto. The methodology of the study is questionnaire and interviews to 17 Japanese NGOs which are engaged in adult literacy in their projects. The survey has the limitation that it only deals with adult literacy projects and not with adult learning projects.

## **[ Recommendations ]**

Based on the findings described above, the following recommendations are made to the Japanese government and NGOs for more effective approaches to adult literacy and education.

### **1. Recommendations to the Japanese Government**

#### **1.1. Increase aid volume to adult literacy**

Japan should increase ODA for adult literacy and adult education in the framework of the EFA goals and targets. Donors should agree to mobilize resources in accordance with indicative standards : at least 15% of ODA should be allocated to education; with at least 60% of this allocated to basic education including adult literacy and life skill programs for youth and adults, which was recommended by the EFA working group in 2007. Donors also should agree that the EFA Fast Track Initiative to include adult education and literacy components, and ensure efficient and prompt delivery of financing support.

#### **1.2. Set clear budget /finance targets**

Japan should address that governments to allocate at least 6% of its education budget for adult education, of which 3% to be reserved for adult literacy programmes, which is recommended by a mid-term review on the United Nations Literacy Decade (UNLD).

#### **1.3. Linkage with poverty reduction plan**

Japan should address that adult literacy and adult education plans and targets are clearly included as part of the education sector and overall poverty eradication plans of governments, and that these plans need to be fully financed and resourced for effective implementation. Japan should also integrate literacy and life skills components into broader poverty reduction aid programs.

#### **1.4. Capacity building**

Japan should strengthen support to capacity building for improving relevant laws,



policy and institutions for implementation, data collection and assessment of adult literacy and education with demand-driven, context-based and ensuring education quality. The participation of civil society should be ensured in the process of decision-making in support to capacity building.

#### **1.5. Collaboration with NGOs and comprehensive support**

Japan should promote collaboration with NGOs and strengthen comprehensive support ranging from adult literacy programs at community level to building institutional capacity at central government level with maximizing complementarities of different actors including the UN, JICA and NGOs.

#### **1.6. Implementation and monitoring mechanism**

Japan should address that governments agree on strong and effective monitoring mechanisms to be established for CONFINTEA 6 commitments, based on time-bound goals and targets. The Global Report on Adult Learning and Education (GRALE), which will be released in CONFINTEA 6, should form part of this regular monitoring/tracking mechanism.

## **2. Recommendations to Japanese NGOs**

### **2.1. Scale of support**

The scale of adult literacy projects should be expanded considering the fact that at least 776 million people are non-literate in the world. To do so, Japanese NGOs need to strengthen project management capacity and capacitate their own staff with expertise in the field of adult literacy and learning. Japanese NGOs are also expected to work in Africa as well as in South Asia where literacy needs are very high.

### **2.2. Sharing experiences in adult literacy**

Opportunities for sharing experiences in the field of adult literacy should be increased. At headquarters level, sharing project evaluation reports would be helpful. At field level, ACCU supported literacy resource centers for women facilitate this process in many countries in Asia. Japanese NGOs should participate in their experience sharing meetings.

### **2.3. Policy advocacy and institutionalization of innovation**

Japanese NGOs should strengthen advocacy efforts at country level to ensure that adult literacy is a state's responsibility. NGOs also should institutionalize their innovative interventions at community level for sustainability and expansion.

### **2.4. Integrating adult literacy into various projects**

The survey found that only 48 NGOs have adult literacy components in their projects among 354 NGOs, suggesting that adult literacy is not prioritized even among NGOs. NGOs should integrate adult literacy and education components into comprehensive poverty reduction and livelihood improvement projects.

(Written by Japan NGO Network for Education (JNNE))

# Introduction of Member Organizations

Of

## Japanese Domestic Grass-roots meeting for CONFINTEA VI

The followings are main organizations that have participated  
in Japanese Domestic Grass-roots meeting for  
CONFINTEA VI.

### Organizations that supported the foundation of

#### Japanese Domestic Grass-roots meeting for CONFINTEA VI:

Japan Association for Promotion of Social Education (JAPSE)  
Japan Society for the Study of Adult and Community Education (JSSACE)  
The Japan Society for the Study of KOMINKAN  
The Japan Society for the Staff Development of  
Adult and Community Education (JASSDACE)  
Shanti Volunteer Association(SVA)  
Monthly Journal "*Social Education*"  
Development Education Association & Resource Center (DEAR)  
Asian Pacific Cultural Center for UNESCO(ACCU)  
Japan NGO Network for Education (JNNE)  
Japan Library Study Association (English name is interim)

### Organizations that have contributed chapter(s)

#### to the part I and II of this report:

Japan Association for Promotion of Social Education (JAPSE)  
Japan Society for the Study of Adult and Community Education (JSSACE)  
Japan Library Association (JLA)  
The Japan Society for the Staff Development of  
Adult and Community Education (JASSDACE)  
IRU Human Capital Development Center  
National Networking of Nihongo (Japanese) Forum  
Forum on Ethnic Minorities  
Association of Nationwide Evening Junior High Schools  
Japan Council on the UN Decade of Education for  
Sustainable Development [ESD-J]  
Development Education Association & Resource Center (DEAR)  
Japan NGO Network for Education (JNNE)

## - 1 The Japan Society for the Study of KOMINKAN

The Japan Society for the Study of KOMINKAN was founded in May 2003 to advance the interdisciplinary study about Kominkan or community learning centers (CLCs) in Japan and other countries. The society's membership as of the end of March 2009 is 173, composed of researchers, adult educators of Kominkan, officials in local educational administration, students, etc.

Academic activities of the Society are as follows:

(1) Research Convention, held every December

Its program comprises three main parts.

- 1) Sessions for the presentations by participants on the results of their research
- 2) Sessions dealing with selected subject matters
- 3) Symposium

(2) July Workshop, held every July from 2006.

It aims to discuss the current problems of Kominkan.

(3) Publications

1) A Bulletin is published every November.

Vol.1. Local Government "Reform" and Kominkan. 2004

Vol.2. The present direction of Kominkan Reform. 2005

Vol.3. 60 years of Kominkan—Review and prospect. 2006

Vol.4. Publicity and Kominkan—Questioning their significance. 2007

Vol.5. Viewpoints for the Analysis of Kominkan Practices Today. 2008

2) Books for the theory and the practice of Kominkan or CLC. For example:

Handbook for Kominkan and the Community based Learning Institutions. 2006

The Design of Kominkan. 2010

<Contact>

E-mail address: [kominkangakkai@yahoo.co.jp](mailto:kominkangakkai@yahoo.co.jp)

Home Page address: <http://www1a.biglobe.ne.jp/kominkan/home/php.htm>

## - 2 Japan Library Association (JLA)

Address: 1-11-14 Shinkawa, Chuo-ku, Tokyo 104-0033

Tel. +3 3523 0811 Fax +3 3523 0841

<http://www.jla.or.jp> [info@jla.or.jp](mailto:info@jla.or.jp)

Members: 4,800 (individual), 2,500 (institutional)

Founded: 1892

Activity:

The Japan Library Association (JLA) is the only organization that represents all types of libraries in Japan. Its mission is to promote libraries through cooperation with those libraries.

JLA conducts surveys and research to deal with important issues for all types of libraries: establishing a system to employ and deploy professional librarians in a library and developing an evolving administrative management model.

JLA hosts its "All-Japan Library Conference" every year, and it is the only national conference in which librarians from any type of library and staff in related fields can participate. JLA holds a variety of committee meetings, and the participants discuss and exchange studies on such themes as promoting children's reading, services for people with disabilities, preservation and conservation, copyright, ICT: information communication technology, intellectual freedom of libraries, publication and distribution, services to multicultural populations, and record management technology, in addition to the issues mentioned earlier relating to librarian deployment and the management model.

UNESCO's "Right to Learn" (1985) made clear that life-long education is a right, and it has become the basis of the role libraries play. Also, this right helped JLA to deal with pressing issues more seriously than before, and consequently, JLA fulfilled the following tasks: developing a theory based on the "Right to Learn," expanding activities to build up libraries, equipping libraries to be centers for life-long education, acquiring information materials, and ensuring that library management considers those who have difficulties accessing information.

JLA publishes periodicals, *Library Journal* and *Libraries Today*, annual books, *Library Yearbook* and *Statistics on Libraries in Japan*, and a textbook for a librarian course, *JLA Textbook Series of Library and Information Studies*. Additionally, JLA publishes about 20 new books a year, including *JLA Monograph Series for Library Practitioners*, *Selection from the Cases on Intellectual Freedom in Japanese Libraries*, *The Library Architecture Award of JLA 1985-2006*, *Japanese Library Laws and Regulations*, and *Guide to Japanese Reference Books*

In addition, JLA publishes such tools as *Nippon Cataloging Rules*, *Nippon Decimal Classification*, and *Basic Subject Headings* for bibliographic data creation.

### III - 3 Japan Society for the Study of Adult and Community Education (JSSACE)

The Japan Society for the Study of Adult and Community Education (JSSACE), or Shakai Kyouiku Gakkai in Japanese (Shakai Kyouiku literally means 'social education'), is a nationwide academic organization in the field of adult and community education established in 1954. It has nearly 1,000 members, and among them there are: researchers of adult and community education / lifelong education; members of local governments who are in charge of adult and community education; employees of Kominkan (community learning centers run by municipal governments), public libraries, museums and other facilities of adult and community education; graduate students; volunteers and leaders of adult and community education; and school teachers.

JSSACE aims at contributing to the development of the theory and practice in the field of adult and community education / lifelong education, through the following activities:

- holding a national research conference and regional research conferences annually
- running joint research projects focusing on important contemporary themes and issues of adult and community education
- publishing *Annual Reports* ('Studies in adult and community education' series) based upon the result of joint research projects (see below for the list of recent titles in translation), *Bulletins* which contain academic articles written by JSSACE members, and other publications.

The following are the titles of *Annual Reports* published by JSSACE as 'Studies in adult and community education' series No.41-52.

*Networking volunteer activities: Lifelong learning and civil society* (1997)

*Higher education and lifelong learning* (1998)

*Issues of adult and community education in an aging society* (1999)

*Perspectives on the decentralization and adult education provision by local governments in Japan* (2000)

*Gender equality and adult education* (2001)

*Community education for children and youth: A new perspective* (2002)

*Modern approaches to the legal system related to adult and community education* (2003)

*Adult learning* (2004)

*Social education and lifelong learning under globalization* (2005)

*Proposal for measures to counter social exclusion based on adult and community education* (2006)

*New trends in adult and community education and the growth of NPOs* (2007)

*"Local knowledge": Toward an alternative theory of lifelong learning* (2008)

As to some titles, the front cover images and summaries in English are available on the following websites:

[http://shakyogakkai.org/HPBU/publication\\_e070102.html](http://shakyogakkai.org/HPBU/publication_e070102.html)

<http://wwwsoc.nii.ac.jp/jssace/e-page/e-menu7.html>

JSSACE seeks to promote the international exchange of research and practice of adult and community education. It is a member of ICAE (International Council for Adult Education) and ASPABE (Asia South Pacific Association for Basic and Adult Education), and held an international conference entitled 'Adult and community education for sustainable development: Challenges and possibilities in a globalizing Asia' in 2003 in celebration of its 50<sup>th</sup> annual national conference.

#### **Contact details**

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website: <http://wwwsoc.nii.ac.jp/jssace/>

**- 4 The Japan Society for the Staff Development  
of Adult and Community Education (JASSDACE)**

The Japan Society for the Staff Development of Adult and Community Education (JASSDACE, Shayokyo) is an organization composed mainly of university researchers involved in the education of social education staffs and those playing Active roles in a diversity of scenes of adult and community education. Established in 1993, Shayokyo has 16 institutional (university) members (41 people) and 116 individual members for the total membership of 157 as of August 2008.

**- 5 Japan NGO Network for Education (JNNE)**

Japan NGO Network for Education, founded in 2001, is a coalition of 28 Japanese NGOs working for international education development. The mission is to contribute to achieving full EFA goals through advocacy, campaigning, capacity building, research and networking. JNNE is a member of Global Campaign for Education (GCE).

c/o Shanti Volunteer Association, 31, Daikyo-cho, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 160-0015  
Web: <http://jnne.org/English%20top.html>, E-mail: [jnnegeneral@hotmail.co.jp](mailto:jnnegeneral@hotmail.co.jp)

## - 6 Association of Nationwide Evening Junior High Schools

All school personnel, including the administrators, of all public evening junior high schools throughout the whole country formed this association as constituent members in 1954. Currently, the personnel from 35 public evening junior high schools in eight prefectures (with 2000 and several hundred students), are members of the organization. The 8 prefectures include Chiba Prefecture, Tokyo, Kanagawa Prefecture, Kyoto Prefecture, Osaka Prefecture, Nara Prefecture, Hyogo Prefecture, and Hiroshima Prefecture.

The group has received financial assistance from ward and city boards of education. Also, in December every year, a time when large meetings are held by various government agencies, grants of support have been received from the related groups of those municipalities and Ministries such as the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. So, it can be said that the organization has the character of being partly a public group.

At the same time, cooperation has been received from independent organizations at various locations nationwide which have been offering places of study for those people who have not been able to complete their compulsory education.

At the same time, this group has been requesting local governments to establish public evening junior high schools for these people. For more than half a century, this group has been requesting the national government to provide and secure a sufficient education for the people who haven't been able to complete their compulsory education. The national government, however, from the beginning to the end, has taken a backward stance in spite of the pleas from this organization.

For these reasons, on February 20, 2003, the independent organizations mentioned above, individuals who have not been able to complete their compulsory education, and experts from various fields have joined forces as the Association of Nationwide Evening Junior High Schools with the purpose of expanding public evening junior high schools throughout the country and have submitted a statement on these human rights infringements to the Japan Bar Federation

As a result, on August 10, 2006, the Japan Bar Federation submitted to the national government the document containing its opinions concerning the securing of the right of people (who have not been able to complete their compulsory education) to receive an education.

The Association of Nationwide Evening Junior High Schools, at a meeting in December, 2008, issued the following proclamation: "Regardless of age or nationality or municipality" we are aiming at all people getting a basic education through the securing of compulsory education for all. "Compulsory education for all the people! The 21st century plan!" was adopted, and an outpouring of power for the realization of this goal is underway.



## - 7 Monthly Journal *Social Education*

First issued in December 1958.

Contact: Yutaka Tsuji (the editor in chief) only in Japan [y-tsuji@jcsu.ac.jp](mailto:y-tsuji@jcsu.ac.jp)

Yoko Arai (a member of editorial board) [yarai@hosei.ac.jp](mailto:yarai@hosei.ac.jp)

Around 1956, the editor of the journal "Social Education", which was published by the National Federation of Social Education (the previous title is "Education and Society", started in 1946) with support of the government, had suffered strong control about the content of the journal by the Ministry of Education. The editor could not keep the journal as a vehicle for free discussion any more. Therefore, the editor with some researchers and some social education staff came together and started to publish a new journal as a trade edition in order to serve as a place for free discussion about social education including adult education apart from the government and other powers. It is the funding story of this journal. The specific title for the first issue was "Seeking for the unshakable direction".

From then it has been published every month, although they were worried that it might finish with the third issue. Some readers wrote for the hundredth issue, 'this journal has clear will to create popular practices of social education indigenous to Japan', 'it is a journal that can be edited only through the union of voluntary power in every part of this country', 'According to it, we can feel we have a lot of friends with whom we want to talk about Social Education for people without reserve. It serves as such connection'. These messages tell us the characteristic of this journal from the first stage.

This journal has been edited by the editorial board that is constituted by a voluntary members of a chief editor who changes in two years, researchers, staff in social education field and so on. From 1980s, we have taken the editing system of small groups. We make some small groups within the editorial board and each group take part a editing work of some issue. We pay a little fee to only one person for layout work and others engage in editing with no paid fee.

We have widen the topics to pick up to variety fields of life and tried to focus on learning processes and the practices to support them especially during recent years (about twenty years. By doing so, we have developed the discourses on Social Education including Adult Education. But the number of sale is not going up. It is now about 3000. So we have to get more readers not only for the purpose itself of it but also for continuing to publish it.

We introduce the special title of each issue from 1997 to 2008

(the words after “, is the second title of same issue).

in 1997 Jan.: How to read the report by the Council of Lifelong Learning? / Feb.: Partnership between children and adults / Mar.: Where the decentralization goes to? Realizing decentralization and Social Education / Apr.: Introduction of Lifelong Learning Creating learning / May: Entertainments their merits and demerits / June: the Constitution and learning / July: The 50<sup>th</sup> year after enactment of the Fundamental Law of Education / Aug.: Let's do Peace Learning actively!, the 500<sup>th</sup> anniversary issue / Sep. How about the movements of making welfare towns, now , Organizations of Social Education Staff / Oct.: The kaleidoscope of sports , The fifth International Conference of Adult Education (CONFINTEA ) / Nov.: Learning by foreigner residents , Paulo Freire / Dec.: Expanding of human rights education, Analyzing demerits of the revision of law (Social Education Law)

in 2008 Jan.: Creating the Social Education of the 21st century - the 50th year anniversary issue from the start / Feb.: The potentiality of education boards - the freedom and autonomy of learning / Mar.: Addressing “the late term of old ages” / Apr.: Introduction of Social Education - power to create practices , Inspecting the revision (draft) of Social Education Law / May: Young people tackling the work and poverty problems / June: the Constitution changing the situation of now / July: Learning to expand the power of connection / Aug.: Create the future with learning about past Creation Peace Learning / Sep.: Kominkan that cultivate both autonomy and participation / Oct.: The life, work and learning of the disabled persons / Nov. : Discovering PTA, Learning from *The History of Kominkan Activities in Nagano Prefecture* / Dec.: The place and people never to be forgotten looking for the water vein of learning

And we have carried articles about CONFINTEA every time from third conference in Tokyo and the space for it has been widen. We carried *the Declaration of the Right to Learn* (Paris 1985) and *the Hamburg Declaration on Adult Learning* (Hamburg 1997) - both of them we translated into Japanese - , and we also carried the report about the Mid-tem Meeting of CONFINTEA (Bangkok 2003 ). About CONFINTEA , we have already carried the serialization articles on the issues of Oct. 2008, Feb.2009, and May 2009. More over we plan to have special part on CONFINTEA on Sep. 2009 issue after it.

( Written and translated by Yoko ARAI )

## - 8 Japan Association for Promotion of Social Education (JAPSE)

JAPSE was founded in 1963. Membership is individual base.

Every activity of JAPSE is conducted voluntarily by members.

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Web site <http://japse.txt-nifty.com/>

<http://homepage3.nifty.com/japse/english.html> (English)

<http://japse.txt-nifty.com/kokusai/> (International affairs - Japanese)

*"the Monthly Journal Social Education"* that first published in December 1957 started reading circle named "monthly journal" Seminar some part of our country from 1960. This activity and some movements against political control getting stronger on social education to invade its freedom in each part of our country came together to make people feel the necessity to have some meeting where they could meet and talk in face to face about social education beyond the exchange on the journal.

In 1961 the first National Conference for the Study of Social Education was founded under the call through *"the Monthly Journal Social Education"*. At this first Conference there happened to talk about the necessity of some national voluntary organization (on social education field). JAPSE was formally founded with the discussion about the prospectus and rules at the third Conference in 1963, after the preparatory committee at the second Conference in 1962.

After the fourth Conference, JAPSE has settled this National Conference for Study of Social Education usually together with the ad hoc committee at the conference site in order to promote and exchange of the research, practices and movements. The number of participants of the Conference has been getting larger from about 100 first to about 1000 from around the late half of 1970s with gathering not only staff and researchers but also activists as resident learners who has carried variety movements of social education. This Conference is settled every year in changing the site place in each year. And it has three days program that has two plenary, around thirty workshops between them, and some meetings focused on topic themes. We have active and profound research discussions in order to exchange experiences each other and analyze the practices and policies, on diverse fields of social education through the Conference every year.

Every person can be a member of JAPSE who want and pay annual fee of it, and all the membership is individual. The number of members of JAPSE is getting a little smaller and now it is around 600. After the late half of 1970s, the number of members who are residents learner and activists are getting a little larger.

JAPSE is carried by the executive committee with the national committee under the

president of JAPSE whose tenure is two years. Each number of these committees is both around 40. The executive committee carry everyday activities of JAPSE and it has a caucus and some specific sections.

JAPSE has had some regional affiliates and some close related regional organizations from early stage. Now it has 9 regional organizations like that in our country.

Sometimes JAPSE has some ad-hoc research conferences for current topics, and some seminars for supporting regional organizations, and we JAPSE also organize the specific group so as to inquire violation cases of the right to social education and help some groups or persons for protecting their right to social education, when necessary. And JAPSE publishes material books each of them gather the reports in each National Conference for Study on Social Education and its statement book after the Conference, and it also publishes "Learning and Materials for Residents ", "Research on Social Education " and "Booklet of JAPSE" for periodical research publications, and so on. Moreover it has published "Handbook for Social Education · Lifelong Learning" in revising every five or fewer years from the first issue "Handbook for Social Education" in 1979. This book covers wide ranged field of social education and carry a lot of concrete materials. We can publish such book through the wide network of JAPASE.

All the activities of JAPSE are conducted by members of it voluntarily with no fee.

The list in the tail is the titles, sits and so on about each National Conference for Study on Social Education from 1997.

This year in 2009 we have National Conference for Study on Social Education from 22-24 August at Achi-village in Nagano Prefecture. This region is famous place for the history of active popular learning movement by farmers before World War and also the history of grass-roots and democratic active movements of Kominkan. The group of Kominkan staff who were public servants belonged to the municipalities in this region, Iida · Shimoina district wrote the recommendation "The nature and role of Kominkan stuff" to the annual journal of Japan Society of study for Social Education –this is the previous English name of JSSACE–*The Modern Theories of Kominkan* (1965) with considering their own practices by earnest group discussions. This recommendation attracted attentions and called 'the Thesis of Shimoina', because they wrote the essence of the work of Kominkan stuff sharply like that Kominkan stuff had to support people's lives through their learning activities and in such understandings they had to keep and unify their both positions of the public workers and the educational professions.

And this region also attracts attentions from the point relating to the recent change of decentralization system in Japan. A lot of people related to social education will come to this Conference from all over our country. We tank very much to the Korean Federation for Lifelong Education for participating in our Conference every year and would be looking forward about this year, too. And we also welcome the participants from other counties to this Conference (but we are sorry we cannot give translation

service).

The web site of the Conference this year is <http://japse.txt-nifty.com/achinagano/>.

FY	time	Title of each year Conference	site	date	number of participants
1997	37	Let s make connections among people who grow and create their lives together, now.	Kobe	8/23-25	800
1998	38	Let s create humanity by the power of cooperation with cultivating the culture of "Freedom and Learning"	Hachioji	8/29-31	986
1999	39	For a jump to 21 <sup>st</sup> century Stock and Develop of Learning that protecting lives	Isawa	8/28-30	326
2000	40	Seeking for Peace and making both the independence and cooperation for living in humanity- Let s grow the freedom and autonomy of residents f or knowing and learning -	Nagoya	8/26-28	700
2001	41	Let s explore to get the future "the globe connects local communities " by the power of social education the 21 Century is of the power of "Learning" and "Autonomy" -	Seiro	8/25-27	793
2002	42	To Okinawa, SURI SA SA ! Let s create Autonomy, Culture and Local Communityby gathering "JINBUNN"(human wisdom)	Nago	8/30-9/1	1174
2003	43	Social Education to create powers to cultivate lives and local communities - each person can live in her and his own way	Okayama	8/23-25	857
2004	44	For freedom and autonomy of social education to create Peace, Lives, Local Communities	Inawashir	8/28-30	600
2005	45	Cultivating lives from local communities and Promote Social Educationtion for Autonomy and Living close together-creating the situations of now by Making the best of the Constitution-	Fukuoka	8/26-28	800
2006	46	Let s built the publicity of social education to cultivate lives and local community in making the most of the Constitution and the Fundamental Law of Edcucation	Kannami	2008/5/7	432
2007	47	Let s spinning out of cooperating learning to cultivate both autonomy and culture into local communities where people are growing with bringing up each other! Do social education at every time and every place, just now	Kaizuka	8/25-27	1163
2008	48	Let s create such local communities where people can grow with bringing up each other by widening the power to connect ! -Let s create such social education as to encourage "live, work and learn", from the ground of North region-	Sapporo	8/23-25	946

about these conference, JAPSE carried them solely and they didn't have the ad hoc committee at the conference site.

(Written and translated by Yoko Arai)

## **- 9 Development Education Association & Resource Center (DEAR)**

### **1. Who are we?**

DEAR is a network organization which works with members at local and national levels to promote Development Education. One characteristic of DEAR is that many people with diverse backgrounds and knowledge get together to create and participate in a learning community and connect their learning communities with the world. The participants are educators, NGOs/NPOs staffs, academics, students, and so on. We have some international network with UK, Korea and South-East Asia.

### **2. Mission:**

- To communicate with the government and give suggestions on its policy.
- To develop networks and exchange information with related organizations.
- To research Development Education
- To help to provide learning opportunities in communities and schools.

### **3. Activities:**

- Annual national gathering and networking conference
- Research activities
- Workshops/ Seminars/ Training
- Development Educational Information Center
- Publications (journal, newsletter, handbook, teaching materials, etc.)
- Sending a facilitator(s) to local authorities, communities, schools and universities
- Advocacy and Consultation

### **4. Contact us:**

2-17-41-3F Koishikawa, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 112-0002 JAPAN

Tel: 81(0)3-5844-3630

Fax: 81(0)3-3818-5940

E-mail: [main@dear.or.jp](mailto:main@dear.or.jp)

URL: <http://www.dear.or.jp/eng/index.html>



**History**  
of  
**Japanese Domestic Grass-roots Meeting for**  
**CONFINTEA VI**

## History of the Domestic Grass-roots Meeting

### for CONFINTEA in Japan

#### [ Chronology ]

##### Back Grand

October, 2005	UNESCO General Conference 33th session decided to hold CONFINTEA VI in 2009.
March, 2007	The 1 <sup>st</sup> Council (meeting) for preparations of CONFINTEA VI was took place.
November, 2007	The 2 <sup>nd</sup> Council (meeting) for preparations of CONFINTEA VI was took place. UNESCO requested to prepare National Report every country.
December, 2007	UNESCO/Institute for Lifelong Learning (UIL) has sent Guideline for National Report every country. Civil Society Organization has received the information via NGO's network. They have significance of article 7 and 8 on Guideline jointly.
January, 2008	NGO's action of information exchange regarding to prepare National Report became active.
February 15, 2008	UNESCO/Institute for Lifelong Learning (UIL) extended deadline for Guideline from the end of March to the end of April.
April, 2008	UNESCO decided the date and time of CONFINTEA VI. Regional Preparatory Conferences' schedules were announced.



## Germ

<p>March, 2008</p>	<p>Japan Association for Promotion of Social Education(JAPSE) inquired and requested at Japanese National Commission for UNESCO concerning CINFINTEA VI.</p>
<p>April, 2008</p>	<p>The Japan Society for the Study of Adult and Community Education (JSSACE) has sent “The Demands” to Japanese National Commission for UNESCO concerning CINFINTEA VI.</p>
<p>May, 2008</p>	<p>Japan Association for Promotion of Social Education(JAPSE) has opened Japanese translation of National Report and Guideline to the public on Web-site.</p>
<p>June, 2008</p>	<p>Round table session regarding CONFINTEA VI was held in the Japan Society for the Study of Adult and Community Education (JSSACE)'s each Small Meetings in June, 2009.</p>
<p>July, 2008</p>	<p>The Japanese Government considered holding Domestic Conference in September, 2009 based on a suggestion of UNESCO/Institute for Lifelong Learning (UIL). Japan Association for Promotion of Social Education(JAPSE) planned and appealed about Domestic Conference.</p>
<p>August 6<sup>th</sup>, 2008</p>	<p>Arrangement meeting towards Domestic Conference for CONFINTEA VI was organized by Civil Societies. The purposes, name of meeting, the date and time, place, secretariat, means of appealing (Home Page etc.) were discussed.</p> <p>The Meeting was named the Domestic Grass-roots Meeting for CONFINTEA VI in Japan. Japanese Government prepared a draft of National Report.</p>

## Start

September 13 <sup>th</sup> , 2008	<p>The 1<sup>st</sup> Domestic Grass-roots Meeting for CONFINTEA VI in Japan was held at National Institute for Educational Policy Research, the ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science &amp; Technology.</p> <p><b>Purposes:</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. Appealing regarding CONFINTEA VI and people's interest elevation.</li><li>2. Actions for CONFINTEA VI Regional Preparatory Conference for Asia &amp; the Pacific (October, 2008) and Japanese National Report (Draft).</li></ol> <p>Exchange views meeting on October 1<sup>st</sup>, 2009 with Japanese Government concerning National Report was announced by Japanese Government.</p> <p>Continuation of the Domestic Grass-roots Meeting for CONFINTEA VI in Japan was confirmed.</p> <p><b>Actions:</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1) Appealing of Exchange views meeting organized by Japanese Government.</li><li>2) Arrangements for CONFINTEA VI Regional Preparatory Conference for Asia &amp; the Pacific.</li><li>3) Preparing CSOs Report</li></ol> <p>* CSOs: civil society organizations</p> <p>Japanese National Report by Japanese Government is incompetent from the point of present situation in Japan, transmission, posing a questions and discussion for National Report.</p>
October 1 <sup>st</sup> , 2008	<p>Exchange views meeting with Japanese Government concerning National Report was held at National Institute for Educational Policy Research.</p>

<p>October 28<sup>th</sup>, 2008</p>	<p>The English version of National Report was distributed. Arrangements of the Domestic Grass-roots Meeting for CONFINTEA VI in Japan towards CONFINTEA VI Regional Preparatory Conference for Asia &amp; the Pacific were given.</p>
<p>December 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2008</p>	<p>The 2<sup>nd</sup> meeting of the Domestic Grass-roots Meeting for CONFINTEA VI in Japan was held at Hosei University.</p> <p>Participating organizations, results of Exchange views meeting, CONFINTEA VI Regional Preparatory Conference for Asia &amp; the Pacific, and CSO Report's Schedule and means were reported.</p>
<p>January 21<sup>st</sup>, 2009</p>	<p>1<sup>st</sup> Steering committee for the Domestic Grass-roots Meeting for CONFINTEA VI in Japan was held at Hosei University. The contents of CSO Report, schedule, and expenses were discussed.</p>
<p>January 21<sup>st</sup>, 2009</p>	<p>The 3<sup>rd</sup> meeting of the Domestic Grass-roots Meeting for CONFINTEA VI in Japan was held at Hosei University. The contents, details, construction, volume and schedule regarding CSO Report were discussed.</p> <p>The 2<sup>nd</sup> Exchange views meeting with Japanese Government concerning National Report was requested by the Domestic Grass-roots Meeting (about necessity of participation of CSO member).</p>
<p>Around the middle of February-</p>	<p>UNESCO updated the information of registration for CONFINTEA VI. (included Workshop information)</p>
<p>The beginning of March</p>	<p>Secretariat of the Domestic Grass-roots Meeting requested the 2<sup>nd</sup> Exchange views meeting with Japanese Government. Participation of CSO members to official delegation, selection of candidates for official delegation and observers from Japan were discussed.</p>

March 9 <sup>th</sup> , 2009	<p>The 4<sup>th</sup> meeting of the Domestic Grass-roots Meeting for CONFINTEA VI in Japan was held at Hosei University.</p> <p>CSO Report and the Exchange views meeting was brought for discussion. CSO Report will be submitted to Japanese Government. “The Demands” for documents of results at CONFINTEA VI submitted to official delegation.</p>
March 14 <sup>th</sup> , 2009	<p>Proposal and draft of CSO report (incomplete) were circulated in the Domestic Grass-roots Meeting and requested to rewrite.</p>
March 16 <sup>th</sup> ., 2009	<p>The Domestic Grass-roots Meeting submitted to Japanese National Commission for UNESCO Participants’ list.</p>
March 30 <sup>th</sup> , 2009	<p>2<sup>nd</sup> Steering committee of the Domestic Grass-roots Meeting for CONFINTEA VI in Japan was held at Hosei University. CSO Report (Japanese version) and “The Demands” for Exchange views meeting with Japanese Government were discussed.</p>
April 4 <sup>th</sup> , 2009	<p>CSO Report (incomplete) for circulation was submitted and reported on Web-site. (First step)</p>
April 8 <sup>th</sup> , 2009	<p>Letter of application was sent from Japanese Government and circulated.</p>
April 9 <sup>th</sup> , 2009	<p>CSO Report (tentative) for circulation was submitted and reported on Web-site. (Second step)</p>
April 9 <sup>th</sup> , 2009	<p>2<sup>nd</sup> Exchange views meeting with Japanese Government concerning National Report was held at National Institute for Educational Policy Research.</p> <p>CONFINTEA VI and government’s preparation documents were explained by Japanese Government.</p> <p>CSO Report (tentative) and the Demands were submitted to Japanese Government.</p>

	<p>The Domestic Grass-roots Meeting started to plan Stand exhibition at CONFINTEA VI.</p> <p>Editing CSO Report (Japanese version) and translation from Japanese into English were continued.</p>
<p>May 6<sup>th</sup>, 2009</p>	<p>The notice regarding postponement of COMFINTEA VI due to H1N1 was announced during editing.</p>
<p>May 19<sup>th</sup>, 2009</p>	<p>The Domestic Grass-roots Meeting informed official announcement from UNESCO and advises by NGO network.</p> <p>Schedule of editing of CSO Report was changed.</p>
<p>November 9<sup>th</sup>, 2009</p>	<p>3<sup>rd</sup> Steering committee of the Domestic Grass-roots Meeting for CONFINTEA VI in Japan was held at Hosei University.</p>
<p>November 16, 2009</p>	<p>3<sup>rd</sup> Exchange views meeting with Japanese Government concerning National Report was held at National Institute for Educational Policy Research.</p> <p>CSO Report (new but tentative) and the Demands (revised version) were submitted to Japanese Government.</p>

(Written by JAPSE: Yoko Arai; Translated by JSSACE: Kaori Kawano)

### **Editor's note for translation**

There are some deference in selecting English Words for Japanese special wards related to social education in this report. Some of writers and translators advise to us to coordinate the deference. We also understand the necessity of it.

For example, even in the government report and the new booklet that the government published for CONFINTEA , the names of laws such as the fundamental ones for social education had changed form those that we used to use before, learned from the translation in the big report *Post-War Developments in JAPAN Education published by CIE ( Civil Information and Education Section) of GHQ ( General Headquarter Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers) in 1952*. It is same to the names of social education staff.

We will exemplify some changes below.

1. Fundamental Law of Education    Basic Education Law
2. Social Education Law    Social Education Act
3. Library Law    Library Act
4. Museum Law    Museum Act
5. Social Education Director    Social Education Coordinator
6. Staff of the Citizens' Public Hall    Kominkan personnel
7. Kominkan Manager    Kominkan Director
8. (Kominkan) officer    Kominkan Chief Coordinator

It seems that Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology started use the word 'Act' to the name of laws from 2006 in their Wight Paper, when the government revised Fundamental Law of Education.

About Kominkan, now we already usually changed the word from 'the Citizens' Public Hall' to 'Kominkan' itself from around 2000. In the new booklet above mentioned, the government changed the word 'Kominkan' but also added the word 'community learning center' in the English version of Social Education Act.

We could not arrange about English equivalent of these or other special words related social/adult education mainly because of time.

We could share this matter not only as the translation problem but also as the research subject that the selection of equivalent should be related to some changes of understanding for social education policy and practices or no and if so how it should.

It is also one of the results for us from the process to make this report.

( Editor: Yoko Arai)

## Editor's Note

We planned to make this report for COMFINTEA that would be held in May 2009. We first wrote this in Japanese. Next we planned to translate this into English by the responsibility of each organization and each writer. We planned to edit this so that the participants of our members brought the English version copies of this with them to the Conference and also put it on our web site to be open.

However COMFINTEA was postponed because of the spread of the new type of influenza. We remade the editing schedule because we could not finish the English version of this yet. It took too much time to finish the English version beyond expectation even with the support and encouragement from a lot of persons.

Almost of the contents of this report were written before April 2009 except some of sections were revised a little after that. Only the third part 'History of Japanese Domestic Grass-roots Meeting' was newly added. In this part recent memories of the activities of us also inserted.

A lot of organizations and persons cooperated for making this report from idea, discussion of the structure and request of writing to writing and translation. Through these patient cooperation we could finish this report both Japanese version and English version together at last.

We may not use this report enough in the discussion at the conference because it was finished just before the conference. But we bring this to the conference with network that we made the editing process and also open it by putting it on our web site. We expect this report will be utilized not only the discussion at the conference but also follow up activities of the conference and social education/adult education activities both in domestic and international fields.

We would so appreciate those who cooperated us with warm and patient mind to making this report.

Japanese Domestic Grass-roots Meeting for COMFINTEA

Editor : Yoko Arai

Editorial support : Miho Tokiwa-Fuse