

The History of Japan's Educational Development

What implications can be drawn for developing countries today



March 2004

Institute for International Cooperation
Japan International Cooperation Agency

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This report is based on the discussion and findings of the study group on “Japan’s Policies and Approaches in the field of Education,” organized by the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA). The views expressed in the report are those of the members of the Study Committee and do not necessarily reflect those of JICA.

In this report, for convenience, the term Ministry of Education has been adopted throughout, except where special circumstances make it appropriate to use the formal name, Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology.

Throughout the report, Japanese personal names are transcribed in the order commonly used in Japan, i.e. family name first, followed by the personal name.

This report was originally published by JICA in Japanese in 2003. This English translation was prepared and produced by Maurice E Jenkins, M.B.E.

The full text of this report is available in PDF format from the JICA Home Page.
URL: <http://www.jica.go.jp/>

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Published by: Research Group
Institute for International Cooperation (IFIC)
Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA)
10-5, Ichigaya Honmura-cho,
Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 162-8433 Japan
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The photos on the front cover have been provided by the Education and Culture Center, Secretariat of the Board of Education, Matsumoto city; the elementary school attached to the University of Tsukuba; Seijo elementary school; Kanagawa Shimbun.

Foreword

Basic education is a fundamental right of every human being, and constitutes the basis for a peaceful, healthy and stable world. However, the reality of the present situation is that there are still large numbers of people for whom educational opportunities are very limited. It is for this reason that basic education has been identified as a priority support area in international cooperation, and that Japan has demonstrated a posture of willingness to expand and strengthen cooperation in basic education through such actions as the “Basic Education for Growth Initiative (BEGIN)” proposal put forward at the G8 Summit in Kananaskis, Canada, in June 2002.

At the time when a modern education system was introduced into Japan, the major issues that Japan confronted, namely “quantitative expansion,” “qualitative upgrading,” and “management improvement,” are the same kind of issues as those faced by developing countries today. As a result of actively tackling these issues, Japan was able to realize the diffusion of basic education within a comparatively short period of time. It is reasonable to assume that Japan’s experience of this process contains elements that could be useful for developing countries as they consider how to get to grips with educational development. An example of Japan’s desire to utilize its educational experience in the service of development cooperation is expressed in the “Basic Education for Growth Initiative (BEGIN)” proposal referred to above. However, in order to utilize Japan’s educational experience effectively in the context of educational cooperation with developing countries, it is necessary to note that it is not simply a question of incorporating what Japan has done as it stands into the structure of developing countries, but that Japan’s experience first has to be arranged and analyzed from the perspective of international cooperation.

It is against this kind of background that this report, focusing primarily on formal education, analyzes how Japan, in what sort of historical context, tackled the problems of “quantitative expansion,” “qualitative upgrading,” and “management improvement,” that developing countries are facing today, and identifies specific points from the perspective of educational development. On the basis of these findings and results, the report then goes on to examine and consider how Japan’s educational experience might be applied to developing countries whose history, culture and society are very different from those of Japan, and asks what points deserve particular notice in the context of the transfer of experience.

Within Japan, when thinking of the education system, we have made a comprehensive examination of all the stages of school education, but at the time when Japan introduced a modern education system, emphasis was put first on the quantitative expansion of primary education. Then, when the diffusion of primary education was virtually complete, emphasis shifted to qualitative upgrading and to the expansion of secondary and higher education. Educational management has been a consistent focus of attention, but it is possible to observe a trend whereby in terms of educational administration, there has been a devolution of authority and responsibility from central government to local governments and to schools, but on the other hand, in terms of educational finance, while in the beginning, large burdens were borne by parents and communities, over the years, the burden borne by the national treasury has gradually increased. This kind of changing pattern in terms of educational development is likely to be of use as a reference point to developing countries thinking of their own educational development.

It is also possible to identify as characteristics of educational development in Japan, on the one hand the prioritization of educational policy and the consistent implementation of educational improvements by central government against a background of comparatively favorable socio-educational conditions including the wide diffusion of traditional education, and on the other hand, the way in which educational development was carried out in a context of cooperation between government and the people. And at the classroom level, a characteristic that deserves to be highly evaluated is the way in which teachers repeatedly use their creativity and ingenuity in their continuing efforts to tackle the qualitative upgrading of education. The characteristics listed here can be

seen as offering perspectives to developing countries at the time they consider their educational development.

This kind of educational experience that Japan has passed through is not only useful information for countries that are examining educational development matched to the development stage that they have reached, but can also be referred to in the form of case studies or utilized in the form of development options in the context of educational development.

It is also worth emphasizing that the intention of this report is to present a clear picture of Japan's educational experience as a reference point for developing countries and to clarify the points that need special consideration when application of this experience is being considered, and that it is not the report's intention to suggest that Japan's experience can simply be transferred to developing countries as it stands.

In terms of the implementation of the survey investigation and the compilation of the report, a research group was established consisting of a task force of members led by Professor MURATA Yokuo from the Center for Research on International Cooperation in Educational Development at the University of Tsukuba, and with MURATA Toshio, Senior Adviser to JICA, as chief investigator. I want to take this opportunity to express my heartfelt thanks to all the members for the many investigations they carried out and for all the efforts they put into the research survey.

I will be delighted if this report is able to be of some assistance in promoting the educational development of developing countries.

November 2003
KANAMARU Morimasa
Managing Director, Institute for International Cooperation
JICA

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Terminology and Abbreviations*

Specialist terms	Outline explanation
Annual teaching plan (Chapter 11)	This denotes the basic teaching plan for a year drawn up by subject and by grade.
Basic Education (Introduction)	Since the World Conference on Education for All (WCEFA) held in 1990, the concept of “basic education” has become a focus of attention. Basic education was defined at the conference as “educational activities designed for people to acquire necessary knowledge and skills to survive.” More specifically, it was defined as an umbrella term covering early childhood education, primary education, lower secondary education and non-formal education (including religious education, community education, adult education and literacy education).
Basic Education for Growth Initiative (BEGIN) (Introduction)	On the basis of the realization that investment in education based on commitment by developing country governments is above all an effective device to eradicate poverty and stimulate growth in developing countries, the Japanese government announced this initiative on the occasion of the G8 summit held in Kananaskis, Canada, in June 2002, setting out the pattern of future Japanese support in the field of basic education. The future direction of policy is shown in the form of a basic philosophy embodying such ideas as commitment and support of ownership, recognition of cultural diversity, and assistance based on collaboration and cooperation with the international community.
Basic Human Needs (BHN) (Introduction)	The basic needs of human beings. Included in this concept are the basic necessary resources for living, such as food, shelter and clothing, also safe drinking water, public hygiene structures, good health, education, and so on. The Basic Human Needs approach is a concept that aims to provide assistance directly to people with very low incomes.
Blackboard writing (Chapter 11)	This is a structured expression, drawn up by the teacher using the blackboard, of the learning content of one class hour, including the children’s thoughts, the lesson theme and documents, questions posed by the teacher and answers given by the children, and so on.
Board of Education (Chapter 2)	Boards of Education are local educational administrative organs established on the basis of the “Law concerning the Organization and Functions of Local Educational Administration.” Established in prefectures as well as cities (wards), towns and villages, and exercising authority independent from that of the head of the local autonomous body in which they exist, they constitute administrative committees which deal with local educational matters on the basis of a discussion system.
Central Council for Education (Chapter 1)	This is an advisory organ to the Ministry of Education, established in 1952 on the basis of a proposal by the Education Reform Council, with the function of investigating and deliberating on “important basic policies concerned with education, science and culture.”
Committee for International Cooperation in Education (Introduction)	This denotes a private, round-table conference set up in 2000 by the Ministry of Education with the aim of clarifying the future direction of educational cooperation. The first series of meetings took place from June to November 2000, and the second series of meetings from October 2001 to July 2002.
Course(s) of Study (Chapter 10)	These are documents prepared by the Ministry of Education, listing the main fields and points for consideration with regard to the educational content and curriculum for elementary, lower secondary and upper secondary schools as well as special schools. They also show the criteria for the editing and compilation of textbooks and teaching materials. The first Courses of Study were produced in 1947. From the time of the 1958 revision, they acquired legally binding force.
Curriculum (including national-level curriculum and school-level curriculum) (Chapter 10)	The Japanese term “kyoiku katei” corresponds to the English term “curriculum,” but a strict general definition has not been formulated, and the content designated by the term differs according to whether the usage in question is referring to the national level or to the school and classroom level. In the former case, the term refers to the curriculum criteria determined by the Ministry of Education on the basis of relevant laws and regulations, i.e. to the “Courses of Study,” while in the latter case, the term refers to the annual teaching plan, drawn up by the school according to subject, the timetable, and so on.
Curriculum Council (Chapter 1)	The Curriculum Council, which operates on the basis of specifications set out in the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture Establishment Law, “examines and deliberates on matters concerned with the curriculum, in response to requests from the Minister of Education, and submits to the Minister the items of its deliberations that are considered to be required.” The Curriculum Council Order was promulgated in 1950. Since then, the curriculum in elementary, lower secondary and upper secondary schools has been improved on the basis of reports from the Curriculum Council.

*The chapter numbers which can be mainly referred to in more detail, are listed in parentheses.

Specialist terms	Outline explanation
Dakar Framework for Action (Introduction)	This represents a framework for action, adopted at the World Education Forum held in Dakar in 2000, in the form of 6 specified and agreed objectives, defined as important points for action on the basis of a political commitment by each country in pursuance of attaining Education for All. The 6 defined objectives are: Expanding and improving early childhood education; Achievement of universal primary education by 2015; Provision for meeting the learning needs of young people and adults; A 50% improvement in adult literacy levels, especially for women, by 2015; Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015; and Improving every aspect of the quality of education.
Education for All (EFA) (Introduction)	This is the concept propagated at the World Conference on Education for All: EFA, held at Jomtien in Thailand in 1990. As a result, an international consensus was achieved on the need to provide education to all the people in the world.
Education Ordinance (Chapter 1)	The Education Ordinance, also known as the Education System Order, was a legal Order issued by the Meiji government and was concerned with the whole of the national school system. It was issued in the form of Booklet No. 13, issued by the Department of Education, as the Ministry of Education was then known. In terms of the educational administrative system at this time, the French system served as a model, while American influence was strong in terms of the organization of the school system, and it is clear that Japan had contact with and selected from the school systems of various Western countries. On the basis of the Education Ordinance, the building of elementary schools, the encouragement of school attendance, the construction of universities, and many more aspects of education were taken forward.
Examination-based progression system (Chapter 9)	A system whereby the level of achievement of the children in a class was assessed by means of a written examination, the results of which determined whether or not a child could progress to the next stage or the next grade.
Experimental lesson (Chapter 13)	This is a lesson that takes place before a number of observers with the aim of improving teaching methods and measuring the educational effectiveness of new plans or teaching materials.
Fundamental Law of Education (Chapter 1)	This law, enacted in 1947 on the basis of the spirit of the Constitution of Japan, determines the fundamental ideas of the new education system established in Japan after World War II. Its specifications cover educational objectives and policies, equality of educational opportunity, compulsory education, co-education, school education, social education, political and religious education, and educational administration, and it forms the basis for all educational laws and regulations.
Inquiry-oriented learning (Chapter 10)	A form of learning in which children are not force-fed with scientific knowledge in a systematic way, but are enabled to pursue inquiries in the manner of scientists.
International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) (Chapter 1)	The IEA was established in 1958 and carries out international surveys of educational achievement levels. Beginning with an international survey in mathematics, it has also carried out surveys in science and other subjects over a wide area. It provides an evaluation on an international scale of the educational achievement level of each participating country.
Japan Teachers' Union (JTU) (Chapter 2)	A trade union organization formed by teachers with the objectives of raising the economic and social level of teachers, as well as improving the working conditions of teachers, enhancing the quality of education, and so on. It was formed in 1947.
Law concerning the National Treasury's Share for the Encouragement of School Attendance by Pupils having Financial Difficulties (Chapter 4)	Enacted in 1956, this law has the objective of providing from government funds to the local public bodies responsible for encouraging school attendance necessary assistance in such forms as school implements and so on, to pupils who have difficulties in attending schools for economic reasons.
Law concerning the Organization and Functions of Local Educational Administration (Chapter 2)	Enacted in 1956 with the aim of making adjustments to the system to suit actual conditions after Japan recovered its independence following the end of World War II, this law determined the basic organization and management functions of local education administration in such ways as, for example, setting up boards of education. The system was reexamined after the enactment in 1999 of a law to promote regional devolution, and on the basis of a recommendation in a report made in December 2000 by the National Commission on Educational Reform, it was decided that necessary measures should be taken, from the point of view of greater leadership by school principals at the same time as reforming boards of education, to ensure that a diversity of opinions from parents and local communities was more accurately reflected in educational administration.

Specialist terms	Outline explanation
Law for the Promotion of Education in Isolated Areas (Chapter 8)	A law, enacted in 1954, defining policies and measures to be taken by central and local government with the aim of promoting education in isolated areas. The designated policies and measures include the following: at municipal (city, town and village level), the provision of teaching materials and teaching tools, in-service teacher training, housing for educational personnel, supervision of teachers' health, assistance in commuting from home to school, and so on; at prefectural level, investigation and research into teaching methods and implements, pre-service training of teachers, guidance and advice to cities, towns and villages, preferential treatment regarding the set number of teachers, arrangement of conditions to enable teachers to carry out in-service training, and payment of isolated area allowances; and at national level, guidance, advice and mediation regarding education in isolated areas, and payment of expenses (at a rate of one-half of actual expenses).
Lesson plan (Chapter 11)	The lesson plan is a plan that conceives in advance the teaching order that will be followed when teaching a subject lesson. The teacher compiles a lesson plan for a single lesson plan after having drawn up a unit plan for the teaching of an entire unit. On the basis of the educational content shown in the headings of the unit teaching plan, the lesson plan considers how this content will actually be taught to children, and sets out in specific terms, for each individual lesson, the planned development of that lesson from beginning to end. Furthermore, while the teacher takes each lesson forward in broad accordance with the lesson plan, there are occasions when it is necessary, in line with changes in the children, for the teacher to check, by interacting with the children, whether he is accurately grasping their condition at any given point in the lesson.
Lesson planning - lesson structuring (Chapter 11)	This denotes the process whereby a teacher, with the aim of enabling children to learn in the classroom in the most effective way possible, examines in advance, within the framework of drawing up lesson plans and selecting teaching materials, such matters as blackboard writing, questions to ask the children so as to stimulate thought, anticipated reactions on the part of the children, and so on.
Lesson study (Chapter 13)	"Lesson study" is a form of research, whereby colleagues will gather together and observe, and then critically discuss a lesson taught by one of their peers, with the aim of improving the quality of lessons and achieving more effective teaching methods.
Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (Introduction)	These represent goals adopted at important international conferences during the 1990s, brought together in a common framework, and incorporated into the Millennium Declaration adopted in the General Assembly of the United Nations in September 2000. The development goals, which international society should aim to achieve by 2015, are: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger; Achieve universal primary education; Promote gender equality and empower women; Reduce child mortality; Improve maternal health; Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other disease; Ensure environmental sustainability; and Develop a global partnership for development.
National Council on Educational Reform (Chapter 1)	This was an advisory body set up in 1984 for a duration of 3 years under the direct jurisdiction of the Prime Minister's Office with the task of producing a report on "fundamental policies aimed at achieving necessary reforms covering a wide range of measures that look forward to the realization of a form of education that can respond to social change and cultural development in Japan."
Net enrollment ratio (Introduction)	Net enrollment ratio is the ratio of the number of children of official school age enrolled in school to the number of children of official school age in the population.
New Education Movement (Chapter 1)	An educational movement developed primarily in the U.S. and Europe at the end of the 19th and beginning of the 20th century, it took the form of educational thought and practice that laid emphasis on child-centered, spontaneous activities. Its influence was also felt in Japan in the early years of the 20th century.
Open system (Chapter 12)	This denotes a type of pre-service training practiced since 1947, whereby pre-service training courses can be established in faculties other than education faculties in national, public and private universities, and a teacher's license in a specified subject or subjects can be awarded to anyone who acquires the required credits.
Progressive Education Movement of the Taisho Era (Chapter 1, 10)	A progressive, liberal form of education in the Taisho era (1912-1926), that laid emphasis on spontaneity and individuality in children, in contrast to the uniform teaching methods and authoritarianism that had characterized education up to then. This movement is often seen as being the same as the New Education Movement.
PTA(Parent-Teacher Association) (Chapter 4)	A liaison organization which links parents of children in school with teachers. It was first formed in the U.S. in 1897, and was formed in Japan immediately after World War II. In terms of its basic ideas and concepts, the PTA is a joint organization of teachers and parents, and is an autonomous body aimed at the democratization of education, both of which characteristics differentiate it from the prewar "Association of Parents." Since the war, the PTA has been expected to take on new roles in terms of linking schools and local communities.

Specialist terms	Outline explanation
<p>Room to grow (Chapter 1)</p>	<p>One cause of the social and educational problems that occurred during the 1980s, including dropouts, listlessness on the part of young people, and so on, was identified as excessive cramming of educational content during the period high economic growth, and with the aim of remedying this situation, a new direction for education was adopted aiming to make education more fulfilling and to incorporate “room to grow” (yutori), by such measures as careful selection of educational content and reduction of teaching hours, greater flexibility in the curriculum, and creation of an environment that would give schools freedom to develop creativity. Heated public discussion took place as Japan moved into the 21st century, centered on the claim that the introduction of this new concept of “room to grow” (yutori) was inducing an alleged drop in academic ability among children and young people.</p>
<p>School councilor system (Chapter 4)</p>	<p>The school councilor system was suggested in a report by the Central Council for Education in 1998 on the future pattern of local educational administration, as a means of promoting participation in school management by local residents and of guaranteeing accountability by the school vis-à-vis local communities.</p>
<p>School culture (Supplementary chapter)</p>	<p>“School culture” can be thought of as an umbrella term embracing a number of factors concerned with human character formation, including school customs such as the morning assembly, also school rules and precepts, the pervading consciousness, school atmosphere, and so on, in other words, concepts that cannot be covered by formal terms such as the school curriculum.</p>
<p>School-based training (Chapter 12)</p>	<p>A form of research activity in which all the teachers in a school take part in the activity in a planned way and through the medium of educational practice with the aim of fulfilling the school's educational objectives.</p>
<p>Special Measures Law concerning the Securing of Capable Educational Personnel in Various Compulsory Education Schools for the Maintenance and Enhancement of School Education Standards (Chapter 3)</p>	<p>Commonly known as the “Law for Securing Capable Educational Personnel,” this law, enacted in 1974, designated special measures concerning salary payments to teachers in compulsory education schools with the aim of securing top-quality people as teachers and thereby contributing to the maintenance and the enhancement of school education.</p>
<p>Supervisor (Chapter 10)</p>	<p>This denotes an “educational staff member” who, on instructions from a senior member of the board of education secretariat, is engaged in dealing with “duties concerned with guidance on specialist matters that have to do with the school curriculum, teaching, or other aspects of school education” within a “school” as defined in Article 1 of the School Education Law. Included in the “specialist matters” are pupil guidance, professional guidance, the handling of textbooks and other teaching materials, and the in-service training of teachers. In terms of specific duties, the supervisor visits schools, prepares documents, sits on different kinds of committees, and takes part in the drafting of training plans.</p>
<p>Systematic learning (Chapter 10, Appendix 2)</p>	<p>This denotes a form of teaching and learning in which scientific and academic fundamentals are taught systematically on the basis of the stage of development reached by children. The aim is to get away from the model of the transmission and force-feeding of systematically produced educational content such as was found in postwar Japan, and to set children's development and abilities as the conditions for learning and enable them to learn in a systematic and ordered way.</p>
<p>Teaching materials research (Chapter 11)</p>	<p>Teaching materials research denotes a series of activities carried out by the teacher as a precondition to the implementation of a lesson, covering identification and selection of teaching materials, interpretation of the materials, and the drafting of a lesson concept matched to the actual situation of the children.</p>
<p>Terakoya (Chapter 1)</p>	<p>The “<i>terakoya</i>,” which can be variously described as “community learning centers” or “small town and village schools,” were voluntarily operated educational facilities that existed from the Edo to the Meiji era, run by persons of intellect drawn from the ranks of the common people, samurai warriors, lordless samurai, temple and shrine priests, and so on, for the purpose of teaching reading, writing and practical skills to the children of the common people.</p>
<p>Textbook authorization system (Chapter 1, 2, 10)</p>	<p>This denotes a system whereby the Ministry of Education examines books submitted to it which have been compiled and edited by private companies with a view to deciding on their suitability as textbooks, and authorizes the use of books considered suitable as textbooks in elementary, lower secondary and upper secondary schools. The existing system was the subject of a report in 1987 by the National Council on Educational Reform, and the screening procedures and criteria were significantly simplified and prioritized, with a view to achieving a more transparent and easily understandable system and a fairer and more appropriate system of examination.</p>

Specialist terms	Outline explanation
The Imperial Rescript on Education (Chapter 1)	Constituting words addressed directly by the Emperor to the people, this document was issued in 1890, the year after the promulgation of the Meiji Constitution, with the stated aim of providing the basis of morality and enlightenment concerning the fundamental ideas of education. In prewar Japan, it was obligatory for the Rescript to be read aloud in schools throughout the country on the occasion of school ceremonies or national celebratory days.
Training for newly appointed teachers (Chapter 12)	This represents the first opportunity for in-service training after a teacher has been newly appointed. As a result of the 1988 revision to part of the Special Measures Law for Educational Public Service Personnel, it is made obligatory for newly appointed teachers to undertake one year of practical training under the guidance of experienced teachers.
Unit teaching plan (Chapter 11)	This denotes a teaching plan that implements time allocation in accordance with the division of learning activities, and is compiled, within the framework of implementation of the annual teaching plan, to show how the teaching of each unit will be developed in practice.
Unit-based learning (Chapter 10)	A form of consolidated learning that is carried out on the basis of units. It takes two forms, unit-based learning categorized by subject or within a subject, and comprehensive unit-based learning that cannot be contained within the conventional subject framework.
United States Education Mission to Japan (Chapter 1)	An investigation group of education specialists sent from the U.S. to Japan with the aim of examining the overall concept of education reform in postwar Japan. With democratization and equality of opportunity as the main pillars, the reform of education in postwar Japan was fundamentally carried out on the basis of the recommendations of this group.
Teaching practice (Chapter 12)	With the aim of validating and applying the theoretical study of education in the context of the practical implementation in the classroom, this is a method of educational research carried out as part of pre-service training, which is concerned with the acquisition of the specialist knowledge and skill needed in the teaching profession. The activity has been emphasized ever since the beginning of Normal Schools, but the term “teaching practice” was first adopted in the revision of “Normal School Regulations” in 1907. It is specified as a professional credit requirement for the acquisition of a teacher’s license as specified in the Educational Personnel Certification Law.
World Conference on Education for All (WCEFA) (Introduction)	An international conference held at Jomtien, Thailand, in 1990. The importance of basic education was reaffirmed, and agreement was reached at national and international level on the need to provide basic education for all by 2000.
World Education Forum (WEF) (Introduction)	An international conference held at Dakar, Senegal, as a follow-up to the World Conference on Education for All; WCEFA, held in 1990. The conference aimed to provide an assessment of progress in attaining EFA since WCEFA, and to hold discussions on the direction of future developments and related matters.
Zest for living (Chapter 1)	This was one concept that appeared in the 1996 report by the Central Council for Education. It is defined as enabling children “to identify a topic, study and think about it on their own initiative, to form judgments and carry out actions on an autonomous basis, to develop the qualities and abilities needed for better problem solving, and while maintaining their independence, to become rich in humanity with a heart that is inclined to cooperate with and show consideration for others.”

Notes

	Explanation
Educational administrative divisions	At all educational levels in Japan, from kindergarten through university, educational institutions are normally divided up according to the nature of the establishing body into three categories: national, public, and private. National institutions are established by central government, and the staff have the status of national civil servants. Public institutions are established either by prefectural or by municipal governments: the status of the staff varies according to the establishing body, but teachers in public schools, which form the vast majority of schools, have the status of local civil servants. Private institutions are established by a variety of bodies, and are in principle, fee-paying. Institutions established by religious bodies would fall into this category.
Japanese era names	The practice of era naming was originally taken over from Imperial China and adopted in Japan in 645. During Japan’s feudal period (1603-1868), era names were changed not only on the death of an emperor, but also to mark natural disasters or major social upheavals. This entire period is commonly known as the Edo era. The Meiji era began with the Meiji Restoration in 1868 and ended with the death of Emperor Meiji in 1912. The Last year of one era is also the first year of the succeeding era. Following the Meiji era, subsequent eras are: The Taisho era (1912-1926), the Showa (1926-1989) and the Heisei era (1989-present day). Although nowadays, the Western calendar is commonly used for everyday purposes, era names are still in frequent use.

	Explanation
Land designations	<p>Reference is made at many points in the text to various land divisions, particularly prefecture, city, town, village and “gun,” often translated as county. The system of prefectures, replacing the old feudal domains, was introduced in 1878; prefectural sub-divisions were counties, towns and villages. The “city” designation was introduced 10 years later, in 1888. The counties (“gun”) were abolished as administrative units in 1923. Today, in terms of administrative divisions, Japan is normally thought of as being divided into 3 separate levels: national (the country as a whole); prefectural (the 47 prefectures); and municipal (the cities, towns and villages within the prefectures).</p>

Overview of the Research Survey

1. Objectives and background

Education is a fundamental right of every human being, and constitutes the basis for a peaceful, healthy and stable world. At the same time, by making development through self-help into a possibility, education also serves as a useful device to bring about poverty eradication. But at the present time, there are still large numbers of people for whom educational opportunities are very limited, and this is why education has been identified as one of the most important areas in international cooperation. In international society, on the occasion of the 1990 “World Conference for All: WCEFA,” held in Jomtien, Thailand, with “Education for all: EFA” as the slogan, the expansion of basic education was put forward as a very important area. Japan too has demonstrated a posture of willingness to expand and strengthen cooperation in basic education through such actions as the “Basic Education for Growth Initiative (BEGIN)” proposal put forward at the G8 Summit in Kananaskis, Canada, in June 2002.

In the context of Japan’s educational experience, too, in the early Meiji era, when a modern education system was introduced into Japan, in the same way as developing countries today, the major issues that Japan confronted were “quantitative expansion,” “qualitative upgrading,” and “management improvement.” As a result of actively tackling these issues, Japan was able to realize the diffusion of basic education within a comparatively short period of time. This kind of experience on Japan’s part can be thought of as being of great use to developing countries that are thinking about their own educational development, and the “BEGIN” proposal too was aimed at making effective use of Japan’s experience in the service of the educational development of developing countries.

Against this background, and with a view to making effective use of Japan’s educational experience in the context of educational development cooperation with developing countries, this report first sets out Japan’s experience from the perspective of development cooperation, and with that as a basis, goes on to examine and consider how Japan’s educational experience might be applied to developing countries whose history, culture and society are very different from those of Japan, and asks what points deserve particular notice in the context of the transfer of experience.

It is also worth stressing again that the intention in compiling this report on Japan’s educational experience from the perspective of development cooperation was to provide a source of reference that could be drawn on in the context of implementing effective educational cooperation with developing countries. It is not the report’s intention to suggest that Japan’s educational experience can be transplanted as it stands to developing countries.

2. The composition of the report and an overview of the contents

The report is made up of three major parts. The Introduction, entitled “Educational issues in developing countries,” provides an overview of the issues that developing countries are facing today, and goes on to examine the points of similarity and coincidence with the issues that Japan faced in the past. It concludes with a summary of trends in international society and in Japan with regard to educational issues in developing countries.

Part I, “A general survey of the history of education in Japan,” gives a general history of education in Japan since the introduction of a modern education system in the Meiji era from the perspective of what is likely to be

of use as a source of reference to educational development in developing countries. On the basis of the Introduction and Part I, Part II, entitled "Japan's educational experience," categorizes the issues faced by developing countries into 3 areas: "quantitative expansion," "qualitative upgrading," and "management improvement," analyzes the policies and approaches adopted by Japan in each of the areas as well as the results and points arising from these, and examines ideas and points to be aware of in the context of thinking about educational cooperation with developing countries.

More specifically, Part II begins by taking up the issue of "management improvement" as an area that affects the whole of education, and looks at "educational administration," "educational financing," and "school management," focusing primarily on the involvement of the government and the people.

Turning next to "quantitative expansion," the issues faced by developing countries are categorized as "expansion of access to education" and "provision of equal educational opportunity," and Japan's experience in these areas is dealt with under three headings, "encouraging school attendance in the Meiji era," "girls' education," and "repeaters and dropouts," comprising a summary of the way in which the people viewed school attendance at the time of the introduction of a modern education system. In addition, policies regarding encouragement of school attendance by the "last 5 to 10%" of children are dealt with under two headings, "school attendance promotion policies for children in difficult circumstances in the postwar period," and "education of children in isolated areas."

In terms of "qualitative upgrading," the issues faced by developing countries are categorized as "improvement in educational content" and "upgrading of teachers," both of which have a great influence on the quality of education, and Japan's experience in tackling these issues is set out in four chapters, entitled "the educational curriculum," "lesson planning – lesson structuring," "teacher education: pre-service and in-service training," and "lesson study."

In addition, while the primary focus of this report is on formal, basic education, a supplementary chapter takes up the issue of "school culture," which constitutes the foundation of formal school education.

Part III, entitled "Toward the application of Japan's educational experience to developing countries," brings together the overall characteristics of educational development in Japan in the form of a summary of Part I and Part II, and analyzes and considers what aspects of Japan's educational experience are likely to be of use as a reference source for educational development in developing countries, and what conditions need to be taken into consideration when the application of Japan's experience is being considered. It then goes on to set out a number of issues or topics concerned with Japan's future involvement in educational cooperation. Specifically, educational development in Japan is broadly divided into four periods, in the prewar period, "the introduction of modern education" and "the expansion of the education system," and in the postwar period, "the reconstruction of the education system" and "the strengthening of education in response to social changes." At the same time as providing a review of historical changes in policy by way of asking the question as to what policies were adopted at each stage of development, this concluding part also offers a summary of the characteristics of Japan's educational development.

Major characteristics of educational development in Japan can be grouped under the following five headings: relative favorable socio-economic background conditions in terms of such factors as the dissemination of traditional education; the prioritization of educational policies in national policy terms; the comprehensive and consistent implementation of educational improvement; the context in which educational development took place in the form of cooperation between the government and the people expressed in such ways as the people's understanding of the importance of education and their willingness to support educational costs; and repeated examples of creativity and ingenuity at classroom level used by teachers themselves to upgrade their own specialist professionalism, and their untiring efforts to tackle the issues of qualitative upgrading.

As methods of utilizing Japan's educational experience, expressed through characteristics such as these, for the

benefit of educational development in developing countries, it is possible to think of: enabling cooperation that is matched to the stage of educational development; using the experience in the form of case studies; and using the experience as an option in educational development activities.

The major precondition for utilizing Japan's educational experience for purposes of educational cooperation is that the developing countries concerned are thinking positively about such use, and on Japan's side, points that Japan has to consider are: active dissemination of information about its educational experience; educational sector analyses, including historical aspects, of the target developing countries; giving sufficient consideration to the cultural, social, and political background factors of the target countries; and adjustment of new methods and forms of aid.

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Chapter 1. The Modernization and Development of Education in Japan	SAITO Yasuo
Part II. Japan's Educational Experience	
Chapter 2. Educational Administration	SAITO Yasuo, MIURA Ai
Chapter 3. Educational Finance	SAITO Yasuo, MIURA Ai
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Chapter 5. Encouraging School Enrollment and Attendance in the Meiji era –Tackling Local Problems	KOBAYASHI Kazue, MURATA Toshio
Chapter 6. Girls' Education	KURODA Kazuo
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Introduction The Issues of Education for Developing Countries

When thinking about how far Japanese experience can be a reference point for cooperation with developing countries, it is necessary to understand what kind of issues developing countries are facing, and what kind of response international society is trying to make. With this need in mind, this chapter aims to set out the educational issues that developing countries are currently facing, and give an overview of trends in international aid in this field as well as trends in aid supplied by Japan.

1. The Educational Issues Faced by Developing Countries

It has recently been widely recognized in an international context that education is a basic human right and is indispensable in enabling every individual to live as an independent human being. Education is very closely linked with solving social problems such as improvements in the state of health, population control, and the eradication of poverty, thus constituting a major contributing factor to a country's socio-economic development, and as such it represents one of the most important fields in international cooperation. In particular, the role of primary education should be stressed as a factor that contributes to raising the standard of everyday living, improving public hygiene, reducing the infant mortality rate, and so on.

As a result of aid and cooperation measures implemented by various agencies in the past, improvements have already been made to the state of education in developing countries. However, it remains a fact that 113 million children do not receive any form of schooling, and 150 million children drop out of primary school, also that two-thirds of illiterate persons and those children who do not receive any form of schooling are female, constituting a very serious situation.

Against the above background, this report concentrates on primary education as being the most essential and the most pressing area in the context of the educational development of developing countries. Three points are dealt with: quantitative expansion; qualitative upgrading; and the improvement of education management.

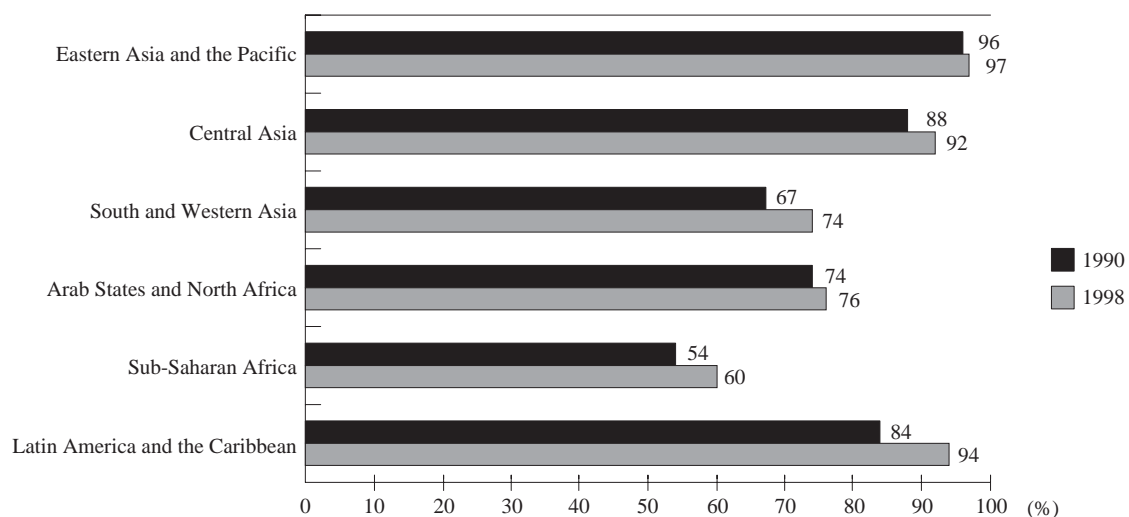
(1) Issues related to “the quantitative expansion of education”

Since 1990, there has been a noticeable increase in the number of children attending school at primary school level, but it is still the case that many countries have not reached the goal of universal and equal participation.

Diagram 1 shows the changes in enrollment ratios in primary school by region between 1990 and 1998. In Central Asia as well as in Latin America and the Caribbean, enrollment ratios increased satisfactorily, and by 1998 amounted to over 90%. In East Asia and the Pacific Region, the rate of increase is slow, but the achieved total is high. In the countries in these regions, attention is focused on providing education for the “last 5 to 10%” of children to achieve universal primary education, but many of these are **children who find it difficult to attend school** for geographical, economic, social or cultural reasons, for example, because they live in isolated areas, belong to minority ethnic groups, or are children with disabilities, so that providing educational opportunities for them is not an easy task.

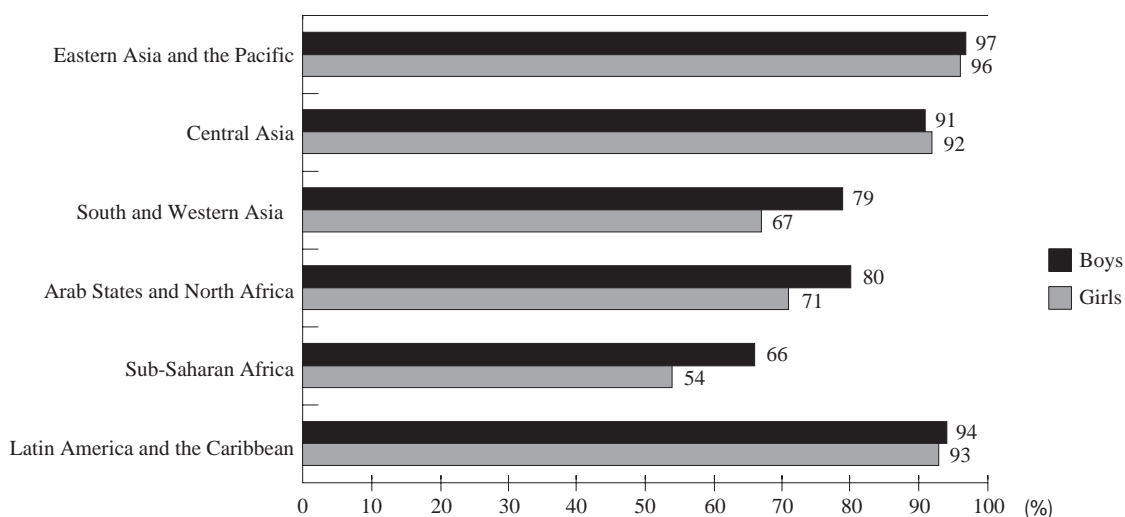
On the other hand, in the case of the Arab States and North Africa as well as South and Western Asia, although enrollment shows an increasing trend, there are still more than 15% of children who have no access to primary education, and in the Sub-Saharan Africa region, enrollment is at the low figure of 60%, so still more effort directed toward **promoting school enrollment** is needed. Among the factors that

Diagram 1 Shifts in net enrollment ratios in primary education by region between 1990 and 1998



Source: UNESCO (2000) p. 30

Diagram 2 Net enrollment ratios by sex for different regions (primary education) (1998)



Source: UNESCO (2000) p. 34

act as a barrier preventing school attendance in these regions are family poverty, an insufficient number of schools, children's involvement in family labor, and a low level of interest in education on the part of parents and communities.

Diagram 2 shows net enrollment ratios by gender for different regions as of 1998. In the regions of South and Western Asia, the Arab States and North Africa, as well as Sub-Saharan Africa, there is a difference of about 10% between boys and girls enrollment ratios. As **Girls' education** is said to influence improvements in such areas as the birth rate, infant and child mortality rates, and maternal

mortality rates support for girls' education is actively extended by many aid agencies, but factors working against girls' education include involvement of girls in household labor and other tasks, non-recognition of girls' education on the basis of cultural and religious values, and prioritization of boys' education in families with no money to spare.

In many developing countries, for a variety of reasons, including the fact that parents cannot continue to pay tuition fees because of family poverty, or the fact that children have to work to support family finances, failure in the examination to go up to the next grade, or the loss of interest in

Table 1 Completion rates for primary education

	Average	Boys	Girls
Average of low-income countries	69	77	61
Middle East and North Africa	84	88	80
South Asia	74	84	63
Sub-Saharan	53	59	48

Note 1: Data used are for the most recent year available between 1992 and 2000

Note 2: No data are available for Latin America and the Caribbean

Source: World Bank (2002)

education due to the gap between the school curriculum and everyday life, it often happens that even if children start school, they have to **repeat a year's work or drop out of school**, and finish up by not completing their education. Nonetheless, there are many cases where effective policies to enable children to complete the primary education cycle are not well examined.

Table 1 shows completion rates for primary education. In low-income countries, the average completion rate for primary education is low at 69%, and particularly in the Sub-Saharan Africa region, only just over half of the children manage to complete primary education. Also, in the South Asia region, there is a gap of more than 20% between the boys and girls completion rates.

(2) Issues related to the “qualitative upgrading of education”

The educational environment is an important element in considerations about the qualitative upgrading of education. However, in many developing countries, educational activities are inevitably carried on in a weak and fragile educational environment, characterized by such features as inferior facilities and equipment, insufficient textbooks and teaching materials, and an insufficient number of teachers. Furthermore, the extremely large loss of teaching hours in real terms as a result of such factors as unexpectedly closed schools or teachers who don't turn up for work, is a major cause of damage to children's learning.

Along with the incomplete state and inadequacies of the educational environment as outlined above, problems related to **the quality of educational content and teachers** should also not be ignored.

There are many developing countries that have problems with regard to the **curriculum**, such as the fact that textbooks are produced without consideration of the links to children's stages of growth or their living environment. Study that depends on textbooks that display a lack of consistency thus becomes a factor hindering the formation of appropriate academic abilities in children. In addition, there are many cases where teaching, for example, takes the form of unidirectional lectures which simply transmit information or teaching that is centered on rote memorization, where there is no sign of children actively participating in their learning on their own initiative; in such cases, educators are trying to find effective **teaching methods (lesson planning methods)** that will draw out children's interests and enhance their learning.

Moreover, when thinking about educational quality, the quality of teachers is a very important issue. In developing countries, recruitment of teachers lags behind increases in enrollment, and the number of teachers is insufficient. The main causes for this situation can be found in the low status and poor working conditions of teachers, and in the difficulty of assembling talented people who want to take up teaching. Because of the insufficient number of teachers, we can see problems such as those of unqualified teachers carrying out teaching, or lessons being given by teachers who lack teaching ability. The shortage of teachers is particularly severe in South Asia, where there are 66 pupils for every teacher. Also in several countries in the Middle East and North Africa, 24% of those engaged in teaching lack teaching qualifications (World Bank, 2002).

The number of teachers who have completed

secondary or a higher level of education is gradually increasing, but there are many cases where even if aspiring teachers enter an institution such as a teacher training college, as a result of the inadequacies of the curriculum they do not acquire appropriate pedagogic knowledge or skills. It follows that there is a need for improvement in the system of **teacher training**.

It is clear that in developing countries, the prevalence of teaching being carried out by unqualified teachers and the need to strengthen teaching ability in those teachers who do have a teacher's license are recognized as common problems, but many barriers to solutions still exist in the form of the inadequate or incomplete nature of a system or curriculum for training, and the emphasis that is placed on the strengthening of **in-service teacher training** also aims to enhance the quality of children's learning. And in the case that governments have limited capacity to offer sufficient training opportunities due to their limited budget, positive consideration should be given to introducing a new training format, such as **research into teaching methods** using the school cluster system, whereby at local level teachers initiate cooperation with colleagues to strengthen effective practice in teaching.

(3) Issues relating to educational management

At the present time, a process of regional and local decentralization of educational administration is being promoted in many developing countries. Measures being implemented include devolution of authority to educational administration bodies operating at state, prefectural, district level or lower, the expansion of the discretionary authority of schools, and a strengthening of links between schools and local communities. But while on the one hand, measures such as these are being implemented, little progress can be seen in terms of the establishment of a legal and regulatory structure, and administrative structures are not functioning efficiently. There is also an accumulation of problems of the kind that the number and capacity of people who can satisfactorily

carry out the drafting and implementation of educational plans is low, or that necessary facilities and resources, equipment and material have not been properly put in place. **Educational finance** is also very tight as a result of economic stagnation and an excess of debts, and in addition there is a tendency toward an expansion of recurrent expenditure in such areas as teachers' salaries. On the other hand, educational budgets suffer from chronic shortages, constituting a major factor preventing the efficient implementation of educational policies.

With the recent movement for decentralization, there have been calls for educational improvements in the actions to be taken by schools, as autonomous units. But in practice, differences can be seen among schools in their management situation and in the leadership shown by school principals, and wide disparities have emerged between one school and another in terms of their educational environment. However, it is also the case that training arrangements aimed at school principals in the hope of effecting improvements in school management have suffered from inadequate preparation. Therefore, there is an urgent need for improvements in the managerial ability of school principals and in the establishment of a system to implement efficient and effective **school management**.

2. The Common Features of Educational Problems Faced by Japan and Developing Countries

A prerequisite for effectively utilizing Japan's educational experience in the context of educational development cooperation with developing countries is that the educational problems which Japan has faced up to now and with which it has grappled in an attempt to find solutions share common features with the educational problems of developing countries as outlined in the previous section. On this point, using JICA research and survey reports¹ as a base, an examination of common features related to educational development problems shows clearly that

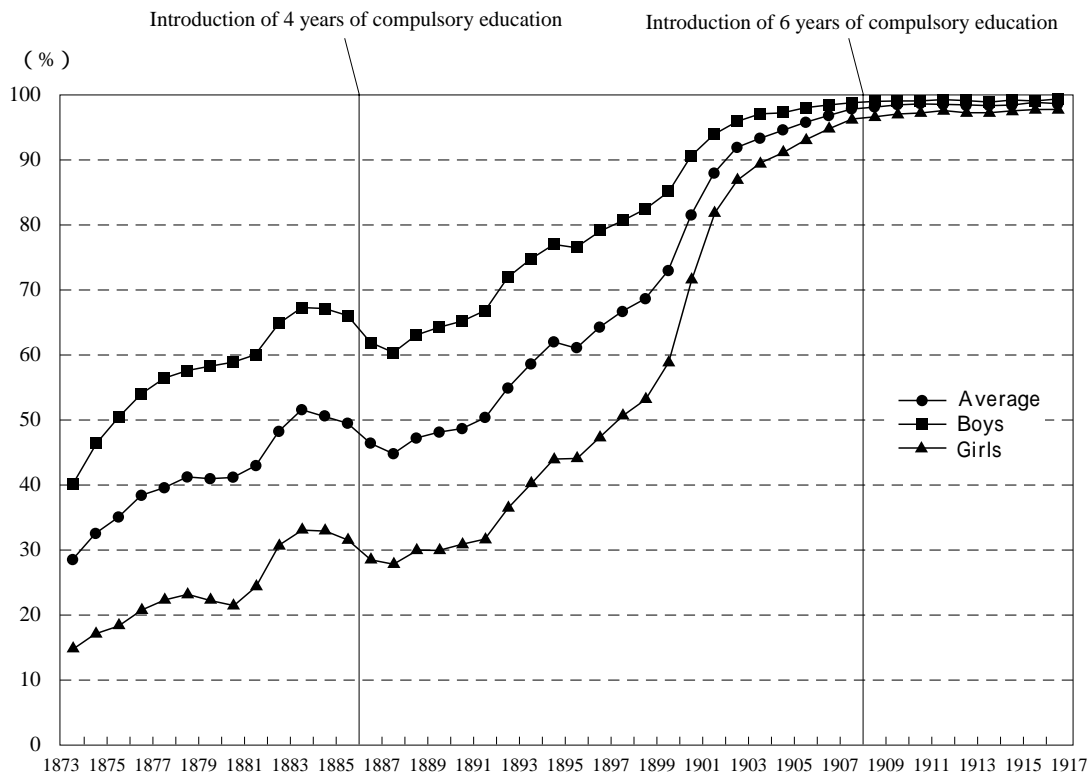
¹ Please refer to the Appendix of chapter 14 for a detailed survey of the results.

there is a high degree of commonality in the educational problems formerly faced by Japan when it was a developing country and those currently faced by developing countries. In particular, there are three areas in which it is possible to observe a very high degree of commonality with regard to the problems that Japan faced at the time when a modern education system was being introduced: 1) problems inherent in the relationship linking the community, family and children, as for example, expectations that a child will become part of the family labor force, leading to a lack of understanding and lack of cooperation on the part of parents toward school education and teachers when the expectations are disappointed; 2) problems relating to educational infrastructure such as the inadequacy of school buildings or educational equipment; and 3) problems touching on the content and quality of education, such as the fact that the educational content was far removed from the reality of people's daily lives, or that there was a dearth of high-quality teachers. Furthermore, with regard to problems concerned with educational administration

and finance, on the one hand, there is commonality in the problem of the high proportion of the educational budget occupied by personnel expenses, but on the other hand, there are differences from developing countries in terms of such factors as the existence in Japan of consistent educational policies and planning, or the way in which autonomous sources of funds for the educational budget were secured and responsibly administered, factors which illustrate particularly Japanese characteristics of educational development.

As has been shown here, Japan has faced many issues similar to those now being faced by developing countries, but in terms of the results of grappling with these issues, as becomes immediately clear from looking at Diagram 3, the dissemination of basic education was realized within a comparatively short period. In the context of this report, we at JICA think it is extremely important that we carry out a detailed, verifiable examination from the perspective of international cooperation, both of Japan's educational experience in facing problems where commonality can be observed in Japan and

Diagram 3 Changes over time in school enrollment rates in Japan (elementary school)



Source: Data from the Ministry of Education

developing countries, and of areas where experience that is particularly characteristic of Japan may serve as a point of reference for developing countries, and that we consider how Japan's experience can be effectively utilized in the service of educational cooperation with the developing world.

3. Trends in Aid Concerned with Education

(1) Trends in international aid

Since the 1960s, education in the context of international aid has been recognized as the "development of human resources" or the "development of human capital," constituting a device for bringing about the promotion of economic growth, and emphasis was put on aid for vocational training with its direct connection to productivity enhancement. In the latter part of the 1970s, the Basic Human Needs approach was advocated, and education was again recognized as an important factor in satisfying these needs, resulting in an emphasis on primary education with the objective of acquiring the basic knowledge and skills needed for everyday living. In the 1980s, as many developing countries made drastic cuts in their education budgets as part of a structural adjustment process designed to cope with an economic crisis. Educational development was headed for a crisis situation with the Sub-Saharan Africa region at the core. But with the advent of the 1990s, priority began to be given to "Human Development," which had the development of education itself as one of its objectives.

In 1990, the World Conference on Education was held in Jomtien, Thailand, and on the occasion of

adoption of the world declaration "Education for All (EFA)" as a common goal of the international society, the opportunity was taken to focus on basic education as a global priority in educational cooperation. Not only did this conference provide an opportunity for a fresh discussion and re-examination of the problem of why the universalization of basic education had still not been achieved, but also a common realization dawned of how far developing countries lagged behind in terms of the educational problems they faced. At the same time, the need for specific policies aimed at raising the quality of education was clearly articulated. The conference was followed by an expansion of aid targeted at basic education, and along with this, there was a shift in the priorities of aid from "hard" aid focusing on the construction of facilities and the like to "soft" aid targeting such things as curriculum development, teacher training, and the strengthening of educational administrative functions.

However, at the World Education Forum held in 2000 in Dakar, Senegal, 10 years after EFA, it was acknowledged that despite all the efforts made up to that time, the state of the world was such that it was still a long way from achieving the EFA objectives. On the basis of the collective commitment of each country and each aid organization, the international objectives were set out afresh in the form of the "Dakar Framework for Action," as summarized in Box 1. It should be noted that of the objectives listed in Box 1, objectives 1 and 2 were adopted as 2 of the 8 Millennium Development Goals announced in the General Assembly of the United Nations in September 2000.

Box 1 Objectives of the Dakar Framework for Action

Expanding and improving early childhood care and education.

Achievement of enrollment of all school-age children and completion of Universal Primary Education by 2015.

Provision for meeting the learning needs of young people and adults.

A 50% improvement in adult literacy levels, especially for women, by 2015.

Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015.

Improving every aspect of the quality of education.

Box 2 Summary of Basic Education for Growth Initiative (BEGIN)**Priority areas:****Assistance for ensuring “access” to education**

construction of school buildings, girls’ education, non-formal education, active utilization of ICT

Assistance for improving the “quality” of education

assistance for science and mathematics education, teacher training, school administration and management

Improvement of the “management” of education

assistance for education policies and planning, and for educational administrative systems

(2) Japanese actions

Since the 1960s, Japanese educational cooperation, focusing primarily on higher education and vocational training, has developed to include the dispatch of experts, project-type technical cooperation, dispatch of Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers, construction of facilities or supply of materials through grant-aid programs, and acceptance of overseas trainees and overseas students.

At the same time as acceptance of the dissemination of basic education was identified at the World Conference on Education for All in 1990 as a priority issue in educational cooperation, vigorous debate also took place in Japan, centered on the area of basic education, about the form and direction that educational aid should take. Since the ODA White Paper in 1993, “emphasis on basic education” has been added in terms of the direction of educational aid. And in 1999, in the paper “Japan’s Medium-Term Policy on Official Development Assistance (ODA),” “basic education” was identified as one of the priority areas for aid; also, in addition to cooperation in “hard” fields such as physical facilities and construction, mention was also made of the need to strengthen cooperation in “soft” areas such as support for school administration and management, curriculum development, and teacher training, and particularly girls’ education.

Within a different framework, the Ministry of Education which had extended educational cooperation particularly through acceptance of

overseas students in Japan, set up the “Conference for International Educational Cooperation Responding to Current International Needs” in 1995, and since then, it has on a number of occasions clearly spelt out the significance of international educational cooperation and the role it is expected to play, and has provided a forum for the discussion of the form that effective and efficient international cooperation should take. In 2001, the “Committee for International Cooperation in Education” was set up, and it has hosted discussion on how to utilize the educational experience of Japan, which has regarded education as the mainstay of national development, on the importance of taking educational cooperation in specific fields forward in a prioritized way, and on the possibilities of applying Japan’s educational experience to the needs of developing countries.

And at the G8 Summit held in Kananaskis, Canada, in June 2002, Japan proposed the Basic Education for Growth Initiative (BEGIN) (see Box 2); one fundamental concept that characterized the direction of this initiative, in addition to efforts to achieve the objectives of the “Dakar Framework for Action,” was the aim of effectively utilizing Japan’s educational experience in support of the educational development of developing countries.

For its part, JICA² has established a number of different research committees, including the “Study Committee on Development assistance in Education” in 1992, and the “Study Committee on DAC’s New Development Strategy” in 1996 where the form and

² On the basis of support from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Japan, and within the framework of its grant aid cooperation program, JICA administers general project grants, overseas students’ grants, fisheries grants, cultural grants, food aid, and aid for increased food production; JICA’s work includes prior studies, supervision of implementation and follow-up.

Box 3 Strategic Development Objectives in Basic Education

Expansion of primary and secondary education:

promotion of enrolment in primary and secondary education, and qualitative improvement in primary and secondary education.

Reduction of disparities in education:

reduction of gender disparities, reduction of urban/rural disparities, assurance of educational opportunities for children with special needs.

Satisfaction of educational needs of youths and adults:

acquisition of literacy and numeracy, and of necessary life skills, by youths and adults.

Expansion of infant care and early childhood education:

expansion of infant care and of early childhood education programs.

Improvement of educational management:

establishment of political commitment and enhancement of educational administration systems.

Source: JICA(2002)

direction of assistance to basic education was discussed. On the basis of the discussions that took place within these forums, in a 2002 report entitled “Approaches for Systematic Planning of Development Projects: Basic Education,” the issues and problems in basic education faced by developing countries and approaches to cope with them are comprehensively discussed and systematically arranged in the form of a Development Objectives Chart; the 5 strategic development objectives were set out as in Box 3.

JICA's assistance in education has traditionally focused on putting infrastructure in place in the form of school buildings or the provision of equipment or for projects aimed at the improvement of mathematics and science education, centering on teacher education. There have also been some cases, although small in scale, of cooperation in the area of girls' education aimed at reducing gender disparities, and of the provision of educational facilities in isolated areas. Mention should also be made of the diversification of forms of educational cooperation, including, within the context of the educational devolution that has occurred in recent years, cooperation with the objectives of improving the capacity in local educational administration and in school management, also newly devised programs such as the one aimed at promoting literacy education in collaboration with NGOs.

The importance of utilizing Japan's educational experience in the context of the prioritization of cooperation for basic education has already been referred to, and with the aim of ensuring that such utilization is both effective and efficient, it is important firstly to know how Japan, in the past, when it was itself a developing country, set about establishing and ordering education, and secondly to put this process in the context of development issues.

This report, taking as a base the Development Objectives Chart found in the report “Approaches for Systematic Planning of Development: Basic Education Projects,” categorizes the basic education issues faced by developing countries into three areas, “quantitative expansion,” “qualitative enhancement” and “improvement of management,” and with respect to each area, sets out, as shown in Table 2, the Japanese response.

Part I comprises a commentary on the history of Japanese education, aligned to the history of social developments. Part II provides an ordered account of the historical transitions of policies and activities concerned with the Japanese educational experience in the categories set out in Table 2, and at the same time gives a commentary on policies or approaches that have special relevance. Using these accounts as a foundation, Part III draws out the implications that can be drawn from Japan's educational experience in terms of reference points that need to be considered

Table 2 Japanese educational experience by reference to issues in basic education

Issues in Developing Countries	Japanese Educational Experience
Quantitative expansion - Expansion of access to education - Equality of educational opportunity	Promotion of school enrollment and attendance in the Meiji era
	Girls' education
	Postwar policies for children in difficult circumstances
	Education in isolated areas
	Repeating a year and dropping out of school
Enhancing educational quality -Raising the quality of teachers -Improving educational content	Curriculum
	Lesson planning
	Teacher education and training
	Lesson study
Improving management -Improving educational administration and finance -Improving school management	Educational administration
	Educational finance
	School management

Source: Compiled on the basis of information in JICA (2002).

when Japan is thinking about implementing educational aid in the future.

Finally, a note on definitions. In this account, we define “Japanese educational experience” as “the knowledge, skill and know-how accumulated or shared in organizations of a reasonable size as a

result of educational policies or practices carried out within Japan, embracing both what has been systematized or abstracted to a certain extent and the knowledge, skill and know-how in its entirety.”

< YAMAGUCHI Naoko >

