

# カリキュラム改訂における教育原理と教育方法論に関する研究

高木一郎\* 高木スワナ\*\*

## A Study on a Pedagogical Principle and Educational Method Regarding Reform of Curriculum

by

Ichiro TAKAGI\*

Suwanna TAKAGI\*\*

(Received October 31, 2011)

### Abstract

The Japanese universities have been experiencing the biggest educational reforms in its history due to a decreasing number of children. At the Japanese universities, by and large, there are two groups of university students, and which is very similar to the situation faced by the Japanese Weekend School of New York. Thus, the authors present an educational reform that it should pursue in order to eliminate the problems and offer its students efficient and effective education. At the same time, the authors strongly argue that a copy-cat of the American educational system does not work at the Japanese universities, since an educational system is a superstructure of a society that reflects its history and its culture. By just coping a semester system, syllabus, FD, GPA system and etc., the Japanese universities would fail to reform their educational systems.

**Keywords:** Social and Cultural Setting, Instructional Materials, Educational Aims and Objectives, Developing Courses of Study, Preparation of Texts, Preparation of Teachers' Guide, Japanese Weekend School.

### §1. Introduction.

In recent years, the Japanese universities have been experiencing the biggest educational reforms in its history due to a decreasing number of children.

Therefore, they have been going through drastic educational reforms. There exists another problem in the Japanese universities associated with a decreasing number of children. Since there are a few children in the Japanese family, they can afford sending their children to a higher education. More than 75 percent of high school graduates advance to

a higher education, and by and large there are two groups of university students. One group of the students is eager to study, and another group of the students does not like to study at all and is lack of basic knowledge and skills for the university level of learning, and they are university students just because their parents push them go to a university and/or they do not want to work just after graduating high schools. We doubt how much the Japanese universities can solve the problems they face just coping the American educational system. There is one big difference between the students at the Japanese universities and those at the American university. Generally speaking, the American students are very serious about their study, since the most students pay their own tuitions and living costs. There are plenty of scholarships, but not all of the students can get them. So, the students who cannot get scholarship,

---

\* Professor, School of Business Studies and Graduate School of Industrial Engineering, Tokai University

\*\* Junior Associate Professor, Foreign Language Center, Shonan Campus and Liberal Arts Education Center, Kumamoto Campus, Tokai University

they work a few years to earn money for going to the universities. Thus, at the American universities there is no need to take attendance because the students are in the classrooms before classes start. If a teacher comes to a classroom late or finish his lecture earlier, the evaluation by his students will be bad and if he continues to do so, he will be fired. Another example is homework. If a teacher does not give his students enough homework, his students would complain, and again the evaluation will be bad. On the other hand, at most Japanese universities, there is a university rule that the students who do not attend a class more than two-third of the total lectures are not allowed to take final examinations. At the Japanese universities, a teacher who gives lots of homework will be hated and would be wrongly evaluated by his students. We show just two examples to make our argument clear. What we want to emphasize is that the Japanese university authorities should make their own educational reforms, not by taking easy way out, i.e., coping exactly the American educational system.

The fact that there exist the two kinds of the students presents us the same kind of the problems that we had at the Japanese Weekend School of New York about twenty years ago. By studying the problems and presenting the solutions for the Japanese Weekend School of New York, we hope that the Japanese universities could find some unique solutions for their problems. We strongly believe that coping an educational system of some other country such as semester system, syllabus, evaluation of lectures by students, faculty development, GPA system, and so on would not solve the problem we have, since an educational system is a superstructure that has been instituted in its long history and reflects its own culture.

The Japanese Weekend School of New York was established by a group of the Japanese businessmen for the Japanese education of their children in 1962. Initially it had five locally employed teachers. As the school expanded, it employed more and more teachers, and has currently twelve branch schools in New York and New Jersey – 3 high schools (Grade7– Grade12) and 9 elementary schools (Kindergarten – Grade 6) – and about 4,600 students and 216 locally employed teachers. It is managed by the Japanese Educational Institute of New York; a nonprofit organization accredited by New York State and New Jersey State, and is administered by a

principal and seven other administrative teachers who are sent from Japan on three-year assignments by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. The teachers in the elementary schools are class-teachers, and in the high schools they are all specialists, moving around to the “home rooms”. Although, except for the principal and the assistant principal, the administrative teachers are experienced “classroom teachers” in Japan and not “administrators” or “administrative assistants”, they are not teaching in the classroom here: instead their duties are coordinating the teachers, preparing the curricula, and supplying teaching materials. In addition, the school does not have its own school buildings, so it rents classrooms and other facilities such as bathrooms, teachers’ rooms, gyms, and storage rooms from the public schools in New York and New Jersey on Saturdays.

The Japanese Weekend School of New York is one of the one hundred twenty-four Japanese weekend schools in the world, and over 50,000 school-age Japanese are living abroad. According to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Spots, Science and Technology, over 6,000 elementary, 2,000 junior high, and 1,000 senior high school students come back to Japan to reenter Japanese schools each year.<sup>1</sup> With the rapid expansion of Japanese interests abroad, these numbers are expected to increase rapidly in the future.

Almost all the Japanese Weekend Schools face problems associated with curricula. In most schools, Japanese and mathematics are taught in the elementary schools, and in the high schools science and social studies are taught in addition to these two subjects. Even though the total school hours are much less than those of Japanese schools due to the fact that classes meet only once a week, these Japanese weekend schools are using textbooks used in Japan, and the teachers are expected to cover every page of these textbooks. This creates tremendous pressures and difficulties in teaching for teachers, and which in turn creates hardships in learning for the students. These schools definitely need their own curricula to accomplish their educational aims and objectives. In this paper, we will research on how to prepare instructional materials for the Japanese Weekend School of New York, and we hope that this study can be used for the other schools alike.

## §2. The Social and Cultural Setting for the

### Preparation of Instructional Materials.

Education in Japan has been developed primarily to respond to the political and economic needs of the country.<sup>2</sup> Japan is poorly endowed with natural resources, and about 84 percent of its land is incapable of cultivation. Human resources were only means of modernization and the economic development, and Japanese were successful in utilizing its human resources by the effective use of education.

It is well known that the fierce competition of the “entrance examination inferno” exists in Japan, and it becomes something that must be endured by every ambitious young people. According to Edmund J. King, “Japan must be the only country in the world with pre-kindergarten tests.”<sup>3</sup> King explains what causes the fierce competition as follows:

...in Japan the small group of highly predictive schools are not only educationally and socially privileged ... they are also more assuredly confident of promising a rosy future in the right firm for a lifetime, with all the blessings of Japanese patronage.<sup>4</sup>

Thus the secondary schooling has become, by and large, a preparatory process for high school and college entrance examination. Hence, the priorities in education are established to meet the demands of the entrance examinations. This obviously contradicts the formal purposes of education. Nonetheless, the fierce competition accelerates each year, and its influences can be felt in the Japanese Weekend School. A typical Japanese student in the United States goes to an American school Monday through Friday and the Japanese Weekend School on Saturday, and moreover goes to a cram school twice or three times a week. It is true that Japanese parents on the whole take an active interest in the school and play not only a supportive but also a demanding role in education. The parents, especially “education mama”, maintain the academic pressure on the school and the teachers. For instance, there were 22 students in the author’s class at the Japanese Weekend School, but over 30 parents (all mothers and some fathers of the students) attended my last teacher-parent conference at the school. The parents are apprehensive for their children’s abilities to follow courses of study when their children return to Japan in the near future.

The academic problems are not a real problem

that the children will encounter when they return to Japan, since the academic problems can be overcome with hard work. The real problem that they face is how to readjust to “being Japanese”. The Japanese children here learn the American values and norms and especially the American culture. Sometimes acculturation has been taken place. At this point, we should remind ourselves that one of the predominant traits of the Japanese is loyalty to the group. It transcends all layers of the society. It is what “being Japanese” is all about. Edmund J. King describes this group concept as follows:

Just as a sense of obligation is hard to think of outside the one particular group, so is any personal future carved out for oneself. Pity and sympathy for others outside the group are also hard to develop in Japan. The welfare services are company services. A really public social service is hard to recommend in Japanese circumstances.<sup>5</sup>

Moreover, we will quote a statement from E.J.King’s book about the group in relation to the children who return to Japan in order to understand the difficulties of readjustment. E. J. King explains it as follows:

For a young Japanese child to leave his homeland at age eight or ten to accompany the business family for five- or six-year stay in New York or Los Angeles, even though the family will speak Japanese in the home and observe Japanese customs as much as possible while abroad, the lack of experience in a regular Japanese kumi (group) during this tender school age may take many years to overcome after returning. The child who leaves the kumi for a protracted period may never fully adjust to group patterns and forever feel just out of mainstream of Japanese culture, that is, *nakama hazure*, outside the group. *Kikokushijo*, the returning student, has the implication of being somewhat different from the “real Japanese.”<sup>6</sup>

When the students return to Japan, they have to cope with not only “culture shock” but also this adjustment of “being Japanese”. However, they cannot learn the intricacies of group behavior from books, and there is no course to teach them how to adjust to the group.

There is diversity in the needs of the students at the Japanese Weekend School. About 80 percent of

the students will return to Japan before graduating the senior high school, and the rest of them will go to American universities. Many of the students who go to American universities were born in the United States or come to the United States when they were very young. Because of their poor understanding of Japanese language and lack of enthusiasm for learning Japanese, Japanese history, and Japanese geography, they are reluctant to come to the school. On the other hand, most of the students who plan to return to Japan study hard in every subject, and their parents want the teachers to assign a lot of home works. Thus there are two types of the students in the school. The data for the Table 1: The Score of the 7<sup>th</sup> Grade Japanese Exam are collected from the result of the 7<sup>th</sup> grade Japanese examination of the school. This table shows a great dispersion in the scores and indicates the existence of the two types of the students in the school.

In recent years, internationalism and the age internationalization have called Japanese attention. Ross Mouser describes this situation in Japan as follows:

In urban commuter trains English schools are advertised as the door to the world, as the way to obtaining a global view of life, as the road to international cooperation and as the formula for being an international person.<sup>7</sup>

Most of the discussions about internationalization in Japan center on activities rather than on ends, although the idea of being international has positive connotations for many Japanese. In other words, internationalization has been seen as being a desirable process of change, even if the final outcome or the end state of affairs to be attained is not clearly defined. Now keeping this social phenomenon in mind, let's look into the social and cultural setting in which the Japanese students here are

living. Every nation cherishes its own way of life and develops its educational system to assure its continuance, and thus the Japanese students learn about the American culture at their American schools. At the same time, they learned about the Japanese culture when they were in Japan, and they are still learning about it in their homes. They are literally bilingual and bicultural people. In addition, they are living in or around New York City, the capital of the world, so they have opportunities to meet people from different parts of the world. Instead of considering

the concept of internationalization, which is an activity toward some undefined end, what we should consider is international understanding or international solidarity. Then, the situations in which the Japanese students are placed can offer the best opportunities for them to

TABLE 1  
THE SCORES OF THE 7<sup>TH</sup> GRADE JAPANESE  
EXAM

Scores	Frequency	Cumulative Frequency
Less than 10	0	0
Less than 20	2	2
Less than 30	3	5
Less than 40	1	6
Less than 50	0	6
Less than 60	1	7
Less than 70	3	10
Less than 80	4	14
Less than 90	5	19
Less than 100	2	21

develop international understanding and solidarity. Moreover, in the Constitution of Japan it is clearly proclaimed that "We desire to occupy an honored place in an international society striving for the preservation of peace, and the banishment of tyranny and slavery, oppression and intolerance for all time from the earth."<sup>8</sup> We want the students to be human

beings who firmly stand on the basis of the Constitution that has established after the war with ardent wish for peace and justice, expressing universal principles to be respected and special historical tasks to be carried out by Japanese in the Constitution. However, the ideas of the Constitution, especially the Article mentioned above, have not yet been prevailed completely among the Japanese people. Therefore, the time has come for the Japanese educational authorities to promote international understanding and solidarity so that the Japanese people will be able to sympathize with the suffering people of many parts of the world and step forward eliminating the causes of suffer, with joining in international solidarity for peace and democracy.

### **§3. Educational Aims and Objectives underlying the Preparation of Instructional Materials.**

An essential aim of education is to help and encourage children to develop their possibilities. However, we think that education must be realistic enough to meet the present social and cultural needs. Based upon what has been discussed about the social and cultural setting. We propose the following basic educational aims and objectives, which will guide the preparation of instructional materials. To help the students to adapt to the Japanese school system and society when they return to Japan. To promote international understanding and the spirit of international solidarity, and To provide the students with the courses that meets their needs.

“Cultural shock” that the returning students encounter will lessen as time passes. However, the adjustment to a new group, i.e., readjusting to “being Japanese”, can be such a trying experience for the returning students. Group formation is a way of life in Japan, and certain unique circumstances of Japan such as the few such as the few small livable areas for sheer survival against frequent earthquakes, destructive typhoons, inevitable landslides, perennial flooding, and heavy snows require cooperative efforts and necessitate group formation. The existence of the group is not a matter of good or bad, it is there and is a sheer reality. The students cannot learn the intricacies of group behavior of Japanese style from books, but they have to cope with them when they return to Japan. Therefore, the educational system should be made to be similar to that of Japan so that the school can help the students to adapt to the Japanese school system easily when they return to

Japan. At the same time, through classroom management, instructions, and extracurricular activities, the teachers should teach the students intricacies of the group behavior.

In recent years Japan’s presence abroad has received increasing attention. The Japanese are often criticized for lack of their international understanding and the spirit of international solidarity. For example, people criticize that the Japanese forget that the Japanese economic success has been achieved in an expanding world economy with relatively free trade, and Japan has become dependent on the continuation of a unified, expanding world economy composed of a great variety of independent nations. Considering that the situations in which the students are placed can offer the best opportunities for them to develop international understanding and solidarity, the school should seriously promote international understanding and the spirit of international solidarity for the sake of peace and harmony among the different people of the world.

In order to help and encourage children to develop their possibilities, the school should provide the students with the courses that meet their needs. All the students of a given age group are learning precisely the same lesson in much the same way throughout the school system. However, this causes difficulties in both teaching and learning, since there are two types of the students. One group of the students will return to Japan after staying in the United States for approximately three to five years, depending upon the decisions of their fathers’ companies. Another group of the students will stay in the United States after graduating from the school. They were born in the United States or came to the country when they were very young, and in many cases their parents force or beg them to come to the school, hoping that they will learn the Japanese language and culture. Their native language is not Japanese but is English, and they need remedial language courses. Thus, for example, learning classic Japanese or Chinese is dreadfully boring for them. Therefore, teaching the same subjects and lessons would not help or encourage the students to develop their possibilities.

### **§4. Developing of Courses of Study.**

Of all aspects of education, curriculum is critical to the entire process, and those who select subject areas, whether they are informal experiences of

nursery school or formal subjects of pre-college curriculum, exercise a great influence on what curriculum can achieve for students.<sup>9</sup> Whatever educational aims and objectives are initially set, the curriculum developed to achieve those aims and objectives determines students' likely response to school and what they will take away from the learning experience. Therefore, decisions about curriculum development require expertise regarding (1) what subject areas should be chosen, (2) educational psychology, human growth and development, and (3) the socio-political and philosophical aspects of culture.<sup>10</sup> Paying close attention to the experts' opinions on those matters and the educational aims and objectives discussed in the previous section, the staff members of a Curriculum and Textbook Project should decide on the subject areas to be included in the new curriculum and the time allotments for each area. An example of the subject areas and the time allotments for each area is presented below.

Even though class periods assigned to each subject always cause

TABLE 2  
COURSES OF STUDY FOR Grade 7-9

Periods Subject	Weekly	Class
	Type A	Type B
Language Arts I	3	0
Language Arts II (Remedial Coerce)	0	4
Mathematics	1	0
Social Studies	2	2

Note: Type A students are ones who will return to Japan.

Type B students are ones who will stay in the U.S..

The Japanese Weekend School has 48 school days a year.

a major dispute because subject teachers are

interested in the largest possible share for their subject, these time allotments are appropriate for the students in order to achieve the educational aims and objectives.<sup>11</sup> To attain functional literacy in the Japanese language requires great efforts because of its highly intricate system. Edmund J. King describes the difficulties as follows:

In the millennia of almost self-sufficient isolation, despite fruitful contacts and borrowings, the Japanese developed their language to reveal in infinite subtly the decorous forms of hierarchy and social interdependence, which prevailed. For example, linguists tell us that there are 36 ways of saying "I", depending on the speaker's social relationship to the person he is addressing .....In place of the purest form of ancient Chinese calligraphy with its more than 23,000 characters. Japan evolved a simplified Kanji (Chinese script) of her own, and supplemented that with two syllabifies, each of 48 signs representing a syllable. This facilitated the incorporation of foreign words and ideas into Japanese culture. It was in a mixture of Kanji and the two scripts katakana and hiragana that poems and novels were written.....<sup>12</sup>

Thus it is necessary to spend a half of the total class periods on the language arts. Although the students are learning mathematics at the American schools, many students are far behind a new class when they return to Japan, since there is a remarkably high standard of mathematics in Japanese schools. Thus in order to supplement their studies at American schools, we should provide a class period of mathematics to the Type A students. The main purpose of social studies at the school is to develop in the students a sense of national identity and international understanding through a comprehensive program of curriculum. In other words, it is intended to provide "experiences and opportunities for the young people to develop proper attitudes and grow with pride in their nation and friendship for peoples of other countries."<sup>13</sup> After deciding on the subject areas and the time allotments, the staff members, organized into subject-area section, will proceed to develop a course of study for each subject area. "Each course of study consists of a topical outline of the subject matter to be covered in successive grades (i.e., the scope and sequence), and includes a selection of suggested learning experiences

related to the topics.”<sup>14</sup> An example of “scope and sequence” is presented below.

TABLE 3

EXAMPLE OF “SCOPE AND SEQUENCE”

ORGANIZATION

Subject: Social Studies

Units	Grade 7	Grade 8	Grade 9
Inter-national Understanding	Under- standing of peoples of the world -culture -language -history	International Organi- zations -function -structure -search for better ones	Inter- national Conflicts -realities -causes -solutions -better world
History	The medieval ages in Japan -culture -people -government -major events	The modern ages in Japan -culture -people -government -major events	The present age in Japan -culture -people -government -major events
George- phy	African Nations -topography -weather -industries -relationship with Japan	Asian Nations -topography -weather -industries -relationship with Japan	European Nations -topography -weather -industries -relationship with Japan

### Social Studies

Grade: 7<sup>th</sup> grade

Unit: International Understanding

Topic: Aborigines (Ainu, Eskimos, American Indian, Wigwam, Maoris, Hottentots, and Bushman)

Learning Objectives:

- (1) To inform students about the lives of aborigines
- (2) To realize development of culture and civilization
- (3) To develop a better attitude toward the aborigines and peoples of the world

Content	Suggested Learning Activities
1. Country and place of dwelling 2. History 3. Language 4. Culture 5. Governmental assistance 6. Their attitude towards civilization 7. Our attitude towards their way of life	1. draw a map of the world and write in the places 2. write letters to embassies in order to get more information about them 3. visit the United Nations

Finally we should notice that many worthwhile reforms have sometimes been defeated because plans were submitted to groups affected by the project in final form rather as drafts to be amended. Thus, it is important that these groups should have a chance to discuss final plans before they go into effect and to recommend changes, even where the groups have consulted all along the way.<sup>15</sup> Moreover, a director of the project should encourage the teachers to participate in the project whenever possible, then they have an incentive not only to accept the change but to promote it because they feel that they help shape the project.

### §5. Preparation of Texts.

In Japan, the criteria for authorizing a manuscript suitable for textbook use are contained in an official announcement published in 1958. The four broad stipulations concerning textbook content are: The material must conform to the purposes of the Fundamental Law of Education, the material must conform to the purposes of the School Education Law, the material must conform to the standards of the appropriate Course of Study published by the Ministry of Education, and the material must be fair and impartial regarding politics and religion. No propaganda or material biased toward or against a specific political party, religious sect, or ism may be included.<sup>16</sup> However, the Japanese Weekend School has institutional freedom, so the textbooks that the school will publish do not require the government authorization. Nonetheless, we should consider some broad general standards. First of all, the materials must conform the courses of study that have been developed. Then, the material must be fair and

impartial regarding race, color, creed, religion, sex, and politics.

Another important thing to keep in mind before preparing the textbooks is that “there has been relatively little basic experimenting with the books as a learning device”,<sup>17</sup> even though books has been and probably will continue to be the most widely used “thing of learning”. Most of the work has been concerned with how best to organize subject matter in a particular field for presentation in a textbook. However, we should realize that textbook must be developed in a reiterative process of testing and revision with a team effort.

In a project of preparation of textbooks, the school has prepare textbooks for Social Studies and Language Arts 2 for Grade 7-Grade 9. The textbooks currently published in Japan should be used for Mathematics and Language Art 1, since these subjects are offered so that the school can help the students to adapt to the Japanese school system as early as possible when they return to Japan.

Now let's consider important points and issues for preparation of the textbooks, taking a textbook for Social Science as an example.

Vocabulary Control: The materials should be adjusted to appropriate levels of comprehension. To perform this task, the staff should consult competent Japanese language teachers about the matter and ask them to revise if necessary. At the same time, the staff remind themselves that the textbook will be also used by the students who need remedial Japanese coerces. Thus, they should show the reading of a difficult Chinese character by writing kana (letters of the Japanese phonetic syllabify) at the side. When different vocabularies must be used, the meanings of the words should be printed in the textbook.

Relevance and Interest: The materials should be made interesting and pertinent to the students' concerns by providing attractive format and colorful pictures and incorporating the results of a survey regarding their concerns on the subject.

Purpose: The materials in social studies for Grade7-9 should be designed primarily to develop international understanding and the spirit of international solidarity, instead of imparting information or building literacy skills. Thus, we should be especially careful about the aims of the Japanese history section of the textbook. Robert Leach warns that in history courses national identity is overemphasized so that students do not develop

proper attitude toward peoples of the world as follows:

In short, in each country the schools teach national history as a kind of magnet around which to establish common national identity. Outsiders are technically “outlaws” as far as the national laws are concerned and often potential or actual enemies --- in the view of certain national educational systems.<sup>18</sup>

Japan is not an exception. The aims of Japanese history textbooks defined by the Ministry of Education (currently Ministry of Education, Culture, Spots, Science and Technology) are (1) to recognize the efforts of the Japanese ancestors through the study of history, (2) to heighten the awareness of a student as a Japanese, and (3) to foster affection toward Japan.<sup>19</sup> However, we should try to inculcate a sense of belongingness and responsibility to the nation and the world at large.

Order: The new materials should be readied on a new-grade-each-year basis, starting with the 7<sup>th</sup> grade, so that the new curriculum will take three years to introduce in its entirety. Because curriculum should be presented as a continuum over time.

Reinforcement and Overlap: The language arts textbooks can contain some essays on international understanding, Japanese history, and geography, and at the same time, an essay on a topic of social studies can be assigned at the end of each chapter of the social studies textbooks so that the students will be able to gather more detailed information on some topics of social studies and to enhance their writing ability. This is one of the examples on how the work on materials for different subjects is coordinated to provide complementary and mutually reinforcing learning experiences.

Use of Foreign Materials: Since most students are bilingual and the purpose of the subject is not building literacy skills, foreign materials written in English could be useful to be included.

## **§6. Preparation of Teachers' Guide.**

When there is a centralized system of educational control over textbook content, teachers' guide are also carefully scrutinized by the Ministry of Education for approval so that it too conforms to a national standard. Then the average teachers are naturally influenced by or dependent upon teachers' guide accompanying each textbook. The Japanese teachers' guides contain step-by-step specifications of



procedures. The use of this kind of teachers' guides is that even in the hands of poor teachers, most students still learn the basics. For instance, in spite of any given teacher's poor teaching ability, he or she can still be effective in presenting basic mathematical processes and understandings by readily following a carefully structured teachers' guide. The misuse of this kind of teachers' guides is that creativity, imagination, and innovativeness of teachers are sacrificed through slavish uses of the teachers' guide. Benjamin Duke describes a class in which a teacher is dependent upon this sort of teachers guide as follows:

To a foreign observer, the kokugo (Japanese) class, especially at the upper school levels, can be deadly dull .....The typical secondary teacher, for example, rather faithfully follows the teacher's guide by painfully poring over the lesson sentence by sentence, dissecting it for meaning, analyzing nuances, and repeating the meanings of new characters. A student is called upon to stand and read a passage. He then promptly sits down. Seldom is a discussion conducted. Seldom do the students ask questions. No creative writing assignments in the American sense are given whereby a student's imagination is set loose on paper. Copious notes are taken verbatim. And so the process of mass literacy goes on day in and day out, five and a half days each week, 230 days a year, for 12 rather demanding years.<sup>20</sup>

Then a question to Prof. B. Duke is whether you have seen a creative writing class, in which a discussion is conducted and students ask questions. We believe that Japanese language learning is a continual process of memorization, repetition, drilling, and testing, and it cannot be done in any other ways. We think that the flexibility of teachers' guides should depend upon the subjects and the qualities of the teachers.

We agree with the statement that "the validity of any educational system naturally is dependent upon the quality of the teaching and the availability of competent teachers."<sup>21</sup> However, the quality of the teaching and the availability of competent teachers are somewhat in doubt at the Japanese Weekend School. About 20 percent of the locally employed teachers have received formal teacher's trainings and hold the teacher's licenses from the Japanese educational authorities, and about 20 percent of them are graduate students and approximately 10 percent of

them are college professors and researchers. Then the majority of the rest of the teachers are housewives who are not necessarily poor teachers but have been away from schools for a long time, and thus need extensive trainings. Some of them make great efforts to become a good teacher. However, due to the special characteristics of the school such as once-a-week class meetings and the diversity in the students' educational needs that result in the differences in the students' eagerness to learn, even the teachers with the teacher's licenses are not necessarily good and the administrative teachers who are experienced classroom teachers often cannot give appropriate advices on classroom teaching methods and classroom management. Moreover, the school hires about 40 new teachers every year, which are nearly 20 percent of the total number of the teachers. This trend continues as long as many of the teachers are housewives of the businessmen who are sent to the United States by Japanese companies on three-to-five-year assignments. Furthermore, a new immigration law prohibits the school to hire the housewives who do not hold a working visa that is almost impossible to obtain for the wives of the Japanese businessmen. At the same time, further increases in enrollment at the school are expected. Thus the availability of the competent teachers cannot be secured at the school in the future.

When the teachers' guides are prepared, we should take factors discussed above into consideration. It is important for the school to hold teachers' training sessions as often as possible. At the same time, the school should provide new and untrained teachers with a teachers' guide which contains general pedagogical principles, guidelines for learning about pupils, and idea for classroom teaching methods and classroom management methods. Realizing that some general principles and guidelines are not sometimes applicable to the school due to a special characteristic of the school, the school should ask the teachers' cooperation in preparing the teachers' guide. Moreover, the content should be limited to indispensable and basic matters and be simple as possible. When the teachers' guides are prepared for the textbooks, the content should depend upon the courses of study. When we consider the presence of many untrained teachers at the school and the nature of the courses such as a Japanese language course, the content of some teachers' guides should be made to be a

step-by-step specification of procedures. However, in the other courses such as science and creative writing the content of the teachers' guides ought to be flexible about procedures so that the creativity, imagination, and innovativeness of the classroom teachers could be well utilized in teaching. At the same time, all the teachers' guide should contain objective of subject, supplemental information on subject, references to relevant resource materials, and so on. We think it is also important to include a guideline for the allotment of class-hours on each subject so that teachers could cover all the subjects specified in the curriculum. In science and social studies, it is also helpful for both teachers and students to include real-life examples and applications and suggestions for learning experiences outside the school in the teachers' guide, but if possible they should be included in the textbooks. Finally, the teachers should be involved in the preparation of the teachers' guides so that invaluable suggestions that come from actual teaching experiences can be incorporated into the guides.

### §7. Utilization of Other Materials.

The following instructional materials other than textbooks might appropriately be used along with the texts and teachers' guides to enhance learning experience of the students.

Dictionaries (lexicon of classical Chinese explained in Japanese, dictionary of the Japanese language, and dictionary of classical Japanese)

Supplementary Books

Globe, Wall Map, and History Chart

Overhead and/or Power Point Projector

Video Cassette Recorder and Television Set

Audio Tape Cassette Player

Movie Camera Projector

Slide Projector

Now let's examine uses of these instructional materials at the Japanese Weekend School.

Dictionaries: The school should provide instructions on usage of these dictionaries. Especially a lexicon of classical Chinese explained in Japanese and a dictionary of classical Japanese are considerably difficult to use without knowing proper usage of them. The school should furnish about 30 dictionaries of the Japanese language to each branch school, and supply about 25 dictionaries of classical Chinese and 25 dictionaries of classical Japanese to each branch high school. Prices of the dictionaries range from \$15 to

\$25.

Supplementary Books: The school library is now very poorly stocked, and there are no other libraries in which the teachers can borrow Japanese books. Therefore, the school should furnish books of quality to its library so that both teachers and students can use them as supplemental materials and references.

Globe, Wall Map, and History Chart: These materials facilitate the students' understanding of subjects.

Overhead and/or Power Point Projector: It facilitates board work of the teachers.

Video Cassette Recorder and Television Set: Audiovisual aids are indispensable for the students to understand their own culture and peoples of the world. For example, most students have never seen a Noh play (the classical Japanese play), a Noh farce (a comic interlude performed as supplementary entertainment during a Noh play), or a Kabuki performance. NHK (Japanese Broadcasting Association) produces excellent video tapes which can be used in social studies, and provides them free to Japanese schools oversea.

Audio Tape Cassette Player: The students can learn about different cultures through listening to music of the world. It also helps the students in learning the Japanese language.

Movie Camera Projector and Slide Projector: The use of these instructional materials is the same as that of video recorder. Many educational materials from abroad are in the form of slide or movie, so it is convenient for the school to have these projectors.

### §8. Concluding Remarks.

We have studied that we should consider carefully a social and cultural setting for an educational institution before making any reform in its curriculum or any educational reform, so that we can prepare effective instructional materials. At any level of education, an essential aim of education is to help and encourage children to develop their possibilities. However, we think that education must be realistic enough to meet the present social and cultural needs. At the current time in Japan, social needs should be emphasized, since the Japanese firms cannot afford to give newly graduate university students on-the-job training due to a long lasting economic recession, even though education should be a superstructure of the society. Therefore the Japanese universities should provide their

students with the courses that meet their immediate needs in order to help and encourage their students to develop their possibilities and to get jobs.

As we know, curriculum is critical to the entire process of all aspects of education, and those who select subject's area, whether they are informal experiences of nursery school or formal subjects of university curriculum. It exercises a great influence on what curriculum can achieve for students.

One of the most important thing to be remembered in making curriculum is that teachers should have a chance to discuss final plans before they go into effect and to recommend changes, even where they have consulted all along the way, since we know that worthwhile reforms have sometimes been defeated or unsuccessful because reforms are submitted to teachers affected by the reforms in final form rather as drafts to be amended.

In the United States, most textbooks for introductory courses are accompanied by teachers' guide or manuals. In Japan, up to the high school textbooks are accompanied by teachers' guide or manual. The university level of textbooks is hardly accompanied by them except some language textbooks. In Japan, the university professors seldom use textbooks, and they are not well written as textbooks. Since they are rather academic research books, the students have usually hard time to understand the contents. The merit of using teachers' guide is that even in the hands of poor teachers, most students still learn the basics.

It is needless to say that the success of any kind of educational reforms naturally dependent upon the quality of the teaching and the availability of competent teachers. However, the quality of the teaching and the availability of competent professors are somewhat in doubt in many Japanese universities. Thus in Japan the faculty development is an urgent matter.

**We do not know what we want; however we are responsible for what we are. J. P. Sartre, *Introduction to Les Temps Modernes***

## NOTES

<sup>1</sup>Benjamin Duke, *The Japanese School* (New York: Praeger,1986), p.40.

<sup>2</sup>Nobuo K. Shimahara, *Adaptation and Education in Japan* (New York: Praeger, 1979), p.166.

<sup>3</sup>Edmund J. King, *Other Schools and Ours* (New York:

Praeger, 1979), p.459.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., P.461.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p.467.

<sup>6</sup>Benjamin Duke, *The Japanese School* (New York: Praeger,1986), pp.40-41.

<sup>7</sup>Ross Mouer and Yoshio Sugimoto, *Images of Japanese Society* (London, England: KPI Ltd., 1986), p.379.

<sup>8</sup>Edward R. Beauchamp, ed., *Learning to be Japanese* (Hamden, Connecticut: Linnet Books, 1978), p.354.

<sup>9</sup>P.H. Taylor and M. Johnson, *Curriculum Development* (New York: Humanities Press, 1974), p.192.

<sup>10</sup>Brian Holmes, ed., *Diversity and Unity in Education* (London, England: George Allen & Unwin Ltd., 1980), p.146.

<sup>11</sup>Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, *School-Based Curriculum Development* (Paris, France: OECD, 1979), p.158.

<sup>12</sup>Edmund J. King, *Other Schools and Ours* (New York: Praeger, 1979), p.477.

<sup>13</sup>M. Duraiswamy and G. Srinivasachari, *National Unity and International Understanding Through Curricular and Co-curricular Activities* (Madras, India: The S.I.T.U. Publications Ltd., 1972), p.3.

<sup>14</sup>William C. Sayres, "Instructional Materials for Developing Countries," Lecture presented at Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, Spring, 1988).

<sup>15</sup>Barbara Fogel, *Design for Change* (New York: International Council for Development,1975), p.22.

<sup>16</sup>Edward R. Beauchamp, *Learning to be Japanese* (Hamden, Connecticut: Linnet Books,1978), p.246.

<sup>17</sup>James W. Armsey and Norman C. Dahl, *An Inquiry into the Uses of International Technology* (New York: The Ford Foundation, 1973), p.71.

<sup>18</sup>Robert Leach, *International Schools and Their Role in the Field of International Education* (New York: Pergamon Press,1969), p.5.

<sup>19</sup>Edward R. Beauchamp, *Learning to be Japanese* (Hamden, Connecticut: Linnet Books,1978), p.241.

<sup>20</sup>Benjamin Duke, *The Japanese School* (New York: Praeger,1986), p.64.

<sup>21</sup>Taher A. Razik, *Systems Approach to Teacher Training and Curriculum Development: The Case of Developing Countries* (Paris, France: UNESCO, 1972), p.9.

## REFERENCES

1. Reginald D. Archambault, *John Dewey on Education* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964).
2. James W. Armsey and Norman C. Dahl, *An Inquiry into the Uses of International Technology* (New

- York: The Ford Foundation, 1973), p.71.
3. Edward R. Beauchamp, *Learning to be Japanese* (Hamden, Connecticut: Linnet Books, 1978), p.241.
  4. Otto Friedrich Bollnow. *Human Space* (translated by Christine Shuttleworth) (New York: Princeton Architectural Press, 2008).
  5. Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, *School-Based Curriculum Development* (Paris, France: OECD, 1979), p.158.
  6. B.G. Davis, L. Wood and R. Wilson. *ABC's of Teaching with Excellence : Teaching Innovation and Evaluation Services, University of California at Berkeley* (Berkeley, California: University of California at Berkeley Press, 1995).
  7. David Denton, "The Mode of Being Called Teaching," *Existentialism and Phenomenology in Education* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1974), p.102.
  8. Ibid., *The Language of Ordinary Experience* (New York: Philosophical Library, 1970)
  9. Ibid., "Existentialism in American Educational Philosophy," *International Review of Education*, XIV (1968), 97-102.
  10. Ibid., "Albert Camus: Philosopher of Moral Concern," *Educational Theory*, XIII (April, 1964), 99-102.
  11. Otto Friedrich Bollnow, *Human Space* (translated by Christine Shuttleworth) (New York: Princeton Architectural Press, 2008).
  12. David Denton (ed.), *Existentialism and Phenomenology in Education* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1974).
  13. John Dewey. *Reconstruction in Philosophy* (Boston: Beacon Press, 1957).
  14. Ibid., *Experience and Nature* (New York: Dover Publications, 1958).
  15. Ibid., *Essays in Experimental Logic* (New York: Dover Publications, 1953).
  16. Benjamin Duke, *The Japanese School* (New York: Praeger, 1986)
  17. M. Duraiswamy and G. Srinivasachari, *National Unity and International Understanding Through Curricular and Co-curricular Activities* (Madras, India: The S.I.T.U. Publications Ltd., 1972).
  18. Martin S. Dworkin, *Dewey on Education Selections* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959).
  19. Barbara Fogel, *Design for Change* (New York: International Council for Development, 1975), p.22.
  20. Martin Heidegger, *Being and Time (Sein and Zeit)* (London: SCM Press, 1963).
  21. Ibid, *Martin Heidegger: Basic Writings* (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1977).
  22. Ibid, *What Is Called Thinking* translated by J. Glenn Gray (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1968).
  23. Brian Holmes, ed., *Diversity and Unity in Education* (London, England: George Allen & Unwin Ltd., 1980).
  24. David Hume, *A Treatise of Human Nature* (London, England: Penguin Books, 1969).
  25. Edmund J. King. *Other Schools and Ours* (New York: Praeger, 1979),
  26. Robert Leach, *International Schools and Their Role in the Field of International Education* (New York: Pergamon Press, 1969).
  27. Ross Mouer and Yoshio Sugimoto, *Images of Japanese Society* (London, England: KPI Ltd., 1986).
  28. Edmund J. King, *Other Schools and Ours* (New York: Praeger, 1979).
  29. George Kneller, *Existentialism and Education* (New York: Philosophical Library, 1958).
  30. Marvin Lazerson (Ed.) *American Education in the Twentieth Century: A Documentary History* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University Press, 1987).
  31. John Passmore. *The Philosophy of Teaching* (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1980).
  32. William C. Sayres, "Instructional Materials for Developing Countries," Lecture presented at Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, Spring, 1988).
  33. Richard Stanley Peters. *The Philosophy of Education* (London: Oxford University Press, 1973).
  34. Taher A. Razik, *Systems Approach to Teacher Training and Curriculum Development: The Case of Developing Countries* (Paris, France: UNESCO, 1972).
  35. Erwin M. Rosenfeld and Harriet Geller, *Global Studies Volume 1: Asia, Africa and Latin America-A Vivid, Objective Survey of the World's Peoples and Cultures* (New York: Barron's Educational Series, Inc., 1979).
  36. Gilbert Ryle. *The Concept of Mind* (New Univer edition) (Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1984).
  37. Israel Scheffler, *The Language of Education* (Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas, 1968).
  38. Ibid. *Reason and Teaching* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill; London: Routledge and Kagan Paul, 1973).
  39. Nobuo K. Shimahara, *Adaptation and Education in Japan* (New York: Praeger, 1979),
  40. P.H. Taylor and M. Johnson, *Curriculum Development* (New York: Humanities Press, 1974).
  41. Hiroshi Usami , *Pathology of Lectures at*

*Universities: Criticism of FD* (Tokyo: Tohsindo, 2004).

42. Alfred N. Whitehead, *The Aims of Education* (Toronto, Canada: Macmillan, 1967).

43. Council of University, ed. *The Image of Universities in the 21th Century and Reforms in the Future* (Tokyo: Council of University, 1998).