

Social Education/Adult Education in Japan

Policies, Practices and Movements during the last 12 years: Analysis and Recommendations

- A Report from Civil Society Organizations
to the Sixth International Conference
for Adult Education (CONFINTEA) -
(CSOs report)



Japanese Domestic Grass-roots Meeting
for CONFINTEA

Mai 2009

Preface

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

We would present it to CONFINTEA with such hope.

Japanese Domestic Grass-roots Meeting for CONFINTEA

Secretariat: Yoko Arai

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**Introduction of Some Member Associations of
Japanese Domestic Grass-roots meeting for CONFINTEA**

1. The Japan Society for the Study of KOMINKAN
2. Japan Library Association (JLA)
3. Japan Society for the Study of Adult and Community Education (JSSACE)
4. The Japan Society for the Staff Development of
Adult and Community Education
(JASSDACE)
5. Japan NGO Network for Education (JNNE)
6. Association of Nationwide Evening Junior High Schools
7. *Monthly Journal "Social Education"*
8. Japan Association for Promotion of Social Education (JAPSE)
9. Development Education Association & Resource Center (DEAR)

History of Japanese Domestic Grass-roots meeting for CONFINTEA

Editor s Note

General Remarks

- 1 General conditions of Japan Society

in about recent ten years

1. Basic data of Japan

Japan is located in East Asia and its main country is the Japanese archipelago. Its area is about 378 km² and it is the 60th largest country by area among 196 countries in the world. Japan's population is about 127 million and 660 thousands (the 10th most country in the world by population). Its population density is 337 persons per a km². It is the 33rd densest country in the world (data from the homepage of Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communication).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

years.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Then the government performed this decentralization policy with consolidating

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

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

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

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

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

(written and translated by JAPSE: Yoko Arai)

- 2 The trends of adult education and social education

policies during the last ten years

1. 'Social education' and adult education: on the term and concept

In Japan, 'adult education' ('Seijin Kyouiku' in Japanese) is not a concept or term which enjoys wide currency. A commonly used concept is 'social education' ('Shakai Kyouiku' in Japanese), roughly meaning adult and community education. It is widely used in laws, institutions and government policies as well as in research and practice. In Japan conventionally a method of categorizing education into the following three fields has been employed, focusing on *where* given educational activities are conducted:

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

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

Social education can be closely connected to home education and school education: it includes such examples as learning of parents who want to improve their practice of home education and activities of PTAs aiming for the betterment of school education. In fact in recent years some local governments have come to offer social education for the residents almost solely in the fields which are directly related to home education. This phenomenon has in its background the revision of the Social Education Act in 2001, which added a clear statement that a board of education in a local government has the responsibility of promoting the residents' learning about home education through classes, assemblies and public lectures.

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

'Seinen no Ie'. Adult education is also provided in various institutions which are not designed for education administratively: for example, labor administration offices / labor information centers can be said to be providers of adult education in that they offer seminars and public lectures for employees and employers along with other services.

Now, those of you who have already read Japanese government's national report must be aware that it often lacks in basic statistical data, such as the one about the national budgets of adult education and the number of learners participating in adult education. It is naturally not an easy task to get a whole picture of adult education out of pieces which are scattered everywhere --- adult education is provided by both educational and non-educational (e.g. welfare and labor) institutions/organizations and administered by several different ministries. In addition, while the Japanese government conducts a 'social education survey' every year, it has been largely indifferent to the profiles (such as the sex and age) of the participants of social education unless educational programs in question are targeted to specific sex/age groups. The survey has tended to be content with producing such rough data as the annual budget or the number of users of a given social education institution. For this reason it has not been very useful when one would like to know the state of adult education/learning carried out within the field of social education. As mentioned above, the concept of social education itself is all-inclusive and indiscriminatory about who (and how old) the participants are. While this is a unique way of categorizing education and has its own merit at conceptual level, it is clear that the methods of collecting data for a social education survey should be modified so that they can grasp the reality of social education in minute detail, with which adult education/learning overlaps to a large extent.

(the section 1. is written by the Committee on International Affairs of JSSACE
and translated by TOKIWA-FUSE Miho*)

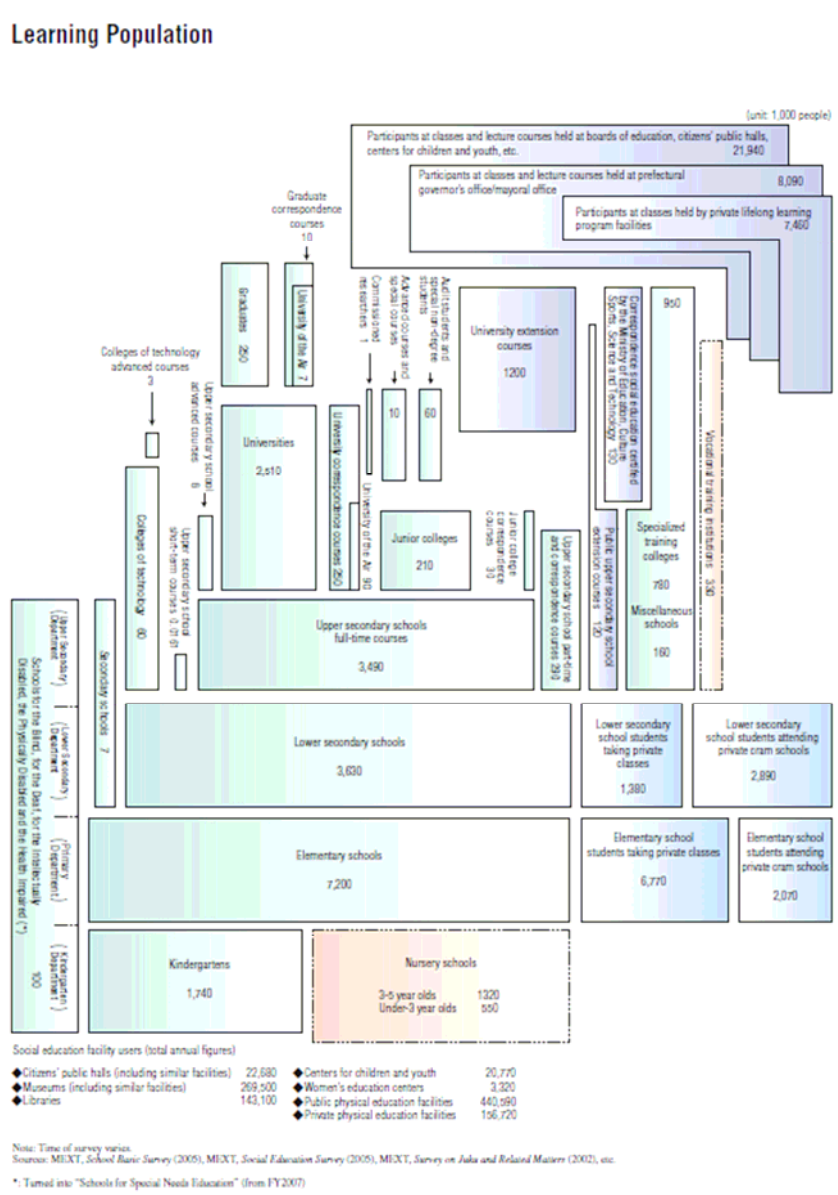
*Spelled in the original East Asian order, in which a family-name comes first.

2. The System of institution or other places for learning in Japan

and outline of learning population

From Figure 1 we can grasp the outline of whole situation of adult learners in Japan. The facilities of the right half of it are related to adult education.

Figure 1



(sited by *Japan's Education at a Glance 2006*

by Ministry of Education and Sciences, on website of it)

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

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

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

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

3.1.2. Fom the enactment of Social Education Law

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

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

Social Education Law was revised relatively large in 1951 and 1959, the latter revision met

社会教育に係る法律は、この教育基本法の下、1949年に社会教育法、1950年に図書館法、1951年に博物館法が制定された。また、その後、その制定に問題を孕みながら1953年に青年学級振興法が制定された。このほか、1961年にはスポ - ツ振興法も制定された。社会教育法はその後1951年と1959年に大きな「改正」を受けたが（後者の「改正」は社会教育への政治的統制強化が懸念され、激しい政治論争の下で断行された）、その後は微小の「改正」で推移した。

日本の成人教育・社会教育は、このような諸法のもと、主として地方自治体、とりわけ基礎自治体（市町村自治体）の施策を中心に発展してきた。民間の自発的な学習活動・社会教育活動も活発に展開されてきたが、その多くは、それら地方公共団体の社会教育施策の力を借りて、時にこれに対立し、時にこれに影響を与え、また主導して、発展してきたといえる。

社会教育法は教育基本法（旧1948年）の精神を受けてその第3条に、「国及び地方公共団体の任務」として、社会教育を発展させるために「環境醸成」を行うことを規定し、また第12条では「国及び地方公共団体」に対し、社会教育関係団体に「不当に統制的支配を及ぼし、又はその事業に鑑賞を加えてはならない」と明記していた。それはまさに学習者自身がさまざまな形での醸成された環境を享受して、自ら、学習・文化・スポ - ツ活動を発展させていくという「社会教育」観であり、それは住民の学習権を「自由権」と「社会権」の双方から明示するものであった。

しかし、このような考え方に反して、住民の学習に対する施策が統制に変質する動向が1950年代末から顕在化しはじめた。地方公共団体の職員として住民の学習を支援してきた社会教育職員が政治的理由をもって不当にその職場から異動させられるという、いわゆる

社会教育職員「不当配転事件」が、1960年代から70年代にかけて多発した。住民の学習に対して、施設貸与の拒否等による、不当な統制、介入事件も生まれてきた。

このような動向に対して、1960年代から1970年代にかけて、改め、住民の学習する権利を学習権として主張する運動が高まり、「権利としての社会教育」という考え方が普及していった。そして、これを支持する地域住民の力が、個々の地方自治体の社会教育施策を、住民主体のものへと変え、社会教育諸施策を推進するという自治体の事例も広がっていった。

こうした自治体諸施策との緊張関係の中で、全国規模の社会教育運動も複数生まれてきた。例えば、1957年の『月刊社会教育』誌創刊、1963年の社会教育推進全国協議会の発足も、こうした社会教育民主化という当時の社会教育運動の流れのなかで登場し、社会教育を推進していく力となって、今日に至っている。

3.1.3. The enact of Lifelong Learning Promotion Maintenance Act

このような流れに一つの変化をもたらしたのは1990年のThe Act for Maintenance of Urging System for Lifelong Learning Promotion Policies

「生涯学習の振興のための施策の推進体制等の整備に関する法律」(以下、「生涯学習振興整備法」と略す)の制定であった。すでに社会教育審議会答申(1976年)、中央教育審議会答申(1981年答申)や1981年度以降の予算措置で登場しつつあった「生涯教育」「生涯学習」政策が、これによって法的根拠をもつことになった。また中央省庁である文部省(当時)の担当局が社会教育局から生涯学習局に名称変更し、同局は省令において筆頭局となった。

生涯学習振興整備法は社会教育法との関係を明記しないまま、これと並置する形で制定された。それは都道府県の施策や、基礎自治体を超えた広域行政の施策を前提とする記述の条項を中心としてまとめられ、文部省(当時)と通商産業省(当時)が関係する法として、「生涯学習」を産業活動の市場分野としての開拓することと、広域自治体政策とを絡めて、推進していく姿勢が示された。

1990年代前半は、各省庁で「生涯学習」を掲げた施策がはなばなしく展開され、それは、教育政策としてのみならず、産業政策、福祉政策、労働政策、自治・地域政策等々と多様に展開された。この政策動向を受けて、各地方自治体でも、生涯学習施策のための調査、生涯学習計画策定に自治体全体を上げて取り組む動きが広がった。それらの中には、社会教育のあり方を問い直し、また策定過程での住民参加を重視し、住民自身による政策課題の整理・計画策定に挑戦した取組みも見られた。しかしその計画の実現を前に、景気の後退、地方行革推進政策が浮上した。この時期各地で策定された「生涯学習計画」(時に「社会教育計画」という名称をもつものもあった)の実効性、継続などの、その成果を検証する研究はまだ蓄積されていないが、「計画」づくりの勢いはすでに消えている。

なお、1990年代以降、日本では次々と多様な法律が策定された。その中には1998年制定の特定非営利活動促進法ほか、社会教育に遠からず関連する法律が多数含まれている。社会教育研究においては、かつてそれらを社会教育「関連」法としてとらえたこともあったが、多様に広がるそれらの「関連」法を社会教育の視点から体系化する作業はまだ成されていない(日本社会教育学会年報『社会教育「関連」法の研究』2003参照)。

3.2. The movement of 'revision' of some acts close related to Social Education

after 1997

さてこのような歴史的背景を受けて、1990年代後半以降の社会教育関係法制の動きを観てみると、その特徴は、社会教育諸政策への住民参加規程の後退、社会教育の内容統制、社会教育の権利保障の後退（行政サ・ビスの外部委託化の推進）などをあげることができる。

具体的には以下のようにとらえられる。

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

まず、前述したような1990年代後半からはじまる地方分権政策は地方公共団体の財政削減を推進すべく、さまざまな形で規制緩和政策を進めていく。その過程で1999年社会教育法の大きな「改正」が行われ、市町村自治体が設置している公民館についてのさまざまな住民参加規定が「規制」の名のもとに、「学校教育及び社会教育関係者」という漠然としたものに変更された（公民館運営審議会（公運審）必置規定の任意設置への変更、公運審・社会教育委員それぞれの委員選考に関する住民参加規定の削除・大綱化等）。なお各論で詳述されるように、図書館法でも関連した規定の「改正」があり、サ・ビス有料化策導入の懸念が生まれた。

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

社会教育法はその後すぐ再び2001年に「改正」された。具体的には、まず、それまで立法当初から手を付けられてこなかった、社会教育法立法当時の理念を代表する「環境醸成」論が示されていた第3条が、第2項を追加するというかたちで変更された。具体的には「学校との連携」と「家庭教育の向上に資する」「配慮」を求める、社会教育の内容介入の文言が挿入された。また、社会教育委員、公民館運営審議会委員構成について、今度は「家庭教育の向上に資する活動を行う者」という項目が新たに挿入された。そして教育委員会の事務事項の中にも「家庭教育に関する学習の機会を提供するための講座の開設及び集会の開催並びにこれらの奨励に関すること」と、「青少年に対し社会奉仕活動、自然体験活動その他の体験活動の事業の実施及びその奨励に関すること」という項目が新たに入った。これは直前1999年「改正」における基本方針「規制緩和」とは対立する、社会教育諸施策への内容統制の「改正」であったといえる。

3.2.3. The 'revision' of Fundamental Law of Education in December 2006 (enforcement from April 2007)

2006年12月には教育基本法が、条文数も含め、大きく改変された。ここでは、新たに「生涯学習」という条文が設けられ学習要求を「個人」と「社会」それぞれからの要請の統合という平板な理解で表現するものになった。それは個人の人格の完成・自発性の尊重を通じての社会発展を想定していた、1948年教育基本法における教育理解からの大きな後退となった。これに呼応するように、従来、控えめに、理念的に設定されていた教育目標は細かく記述され、「規律」の遵守、「郷土を愛する」など、本来法律になじまない倫理的内容まで含まれることになった。一方また、「教育は不当な支配に服すること

なく、国民全体に責任を負って行われなければならない」としていた従来の条文に、「法律にもとづいて」との一節が加えられ、教育の独立という深い教育思想にもとづいて制定され、その思想のもとに解釈されて制定されるべき下位の法律が、上意の法律を規定するような、矛盾した規定をもつことになり、教育の自由に対する保障が弱められることになった。

また第 17 条「教育振興基本計画」が新設された。これによって、国が「教育振興基本計画」を策定し、地方公共団体は国が策定したその「計画」を「参酌」して、教育振興基本計画を策定することが促されることになった。これは、教育政策・教育行政の地方主義（地方が主体となって展開する）という理念を後退させかねない条文である。教育の地方主義という理念は、中央統制の進展によって形骸化してはいるが、この条文によってその理念すら危うくされた。

こうした中では、国の計画、地方自治体の計画双方において、いかに自治体の自主性が尊重されるものとなるかが問われ、また、そのためにはまた、地方自治体の計画がいかに、学習者・教育機関の自由を守りながら人々の学習を促進する諸施策を実現できるかが、その大きな鍵となる。社会教育法が制定当初から提示してきた「環境醸成」理念の現代における継承・発展が諸施策の推進において問われている。

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

この 2006 年の教育基本法改変を受けて、2007 年 5 月には再び社会教育法が「改正」された。まず国及び地方公共団体の任務を原理的に示した第 3 条の追記によって、学校、家庭との連携の課題が強調された。また教育委員会の事業内容として、学齢児童への学習支援も強調された。その他では、第 13 条で補助金支出時に社会教育委員の会議の審議を経る必要があるとしていた点を削除し、これによって社会教育委員を設置する地方公共団体の一つの実質的な設置動機が後退させられた。社会教育委員は社会教育施策への住民参加制度の一つであるため、従来どおり任意設置にしたまま、その重要な機能が削られるということは、これに代る新たな規定が提示されない場合には、住民参加規程の後退と言わざるをえない。今回の「改正」ではさらに、社会教育主事資格の認定について、学校での経験、司書職、学芸員職の経験も、考慮範囲に加えるという大きな「改変」があった。また公民館の運営「評価」に関する条文が新たに付け加わった。

4. The movement of the other policies of social education

4.1. Impulsion to outsource the management work of social education institutions

along with market competition

- introducing the designated manager system

また、この間の日本の地方分権政策は、前述のように行政施策の外部委託（民間委託化）を地方自治体に強力に促したため、公共施設の建設・運営について外部委託化が進んだ。社会教育分野もこの影響を大きく受けた。

2003 年地方自治法「改正」による「指定管理者」制度導入時には、教育施設への適応は見合わされるのではないかとこの予測もあった。ところが 2005 年 1 月に、文科省は社会教育施設に関してもこれを認めるとする見解を「社会教育施設における指定管理者制度の適応について」という文書をもって明らかにした。これに対し、すでに財団に運営

が委託されていた広島市の公民館運営審議会も含め、各地の公民館運営審議会ほか、公民館関係者、図書館関係者、社会教育関係者から、社会教育施設への指定管理者制度の適応に反対する請願、意見が多数出された。社会教育推進全国協議会も「指定管理者制度に関する文部科学省 2005 年 1 月 25 日文書に対する社全協の見解」を公表し、「受益者負担の増大」「住民自治システムの後退」「営利性・効率性重視による学習の自由の侵害」「継続性の否定」「社会教育施設で働く職員の労働条件の切り下げと専門性の後退」という懸念事項を挙げて、導入反対の意見を明らかにした。

しかし、文科省のこの見解は国から行財政改革を迫られた地方自治体に大きく影響を与え、公立の公民館、図書館、博物館の民間委託化が加速しはじめている。

4.2. The revisions and enact of the Norms of social education institutions

1997 年以降では、他に、社会教育施設の「基準」について、大きな動きがあった。

公民館については、1959 年に制定された「公民館の設置及び運営に関する基準」が 1998 年に一部改定され、さらに 2003 年には全面的に改定されたことがあげられる（この意味については各論で詳述する）。

また、2001 年には、はじめて「公立図書館の設置及び運営上の望ましい基準」が制定された（この意味についても各論でふれる）。

また、1973 年に制定された「公立博物館の設置及び運営に関する基準」が、1998 年に「公立博物館の設置及び運営に関する望ましい基準」という名称変更とともに改定された。そしてそのあとさらに、2003 年にはこの基準が全面改定された。

4.3. Stagnant and setback of policies for adult education staff

日本の社会教育施策は、前述したように、市町村自治体を中心に展開してきた。そして各市町村は社会教育担当行政部署と担当職員を、戦後、継続して増やしてきた。特に 1970 年代には、社会教育を専門に担当する専任職員の採用を行う自治体も少しずつ増えてきていた。また、職員が社会教育を担当する部署にいる場合、本人の希望に応じて、比較的長く、社会教育を担当するよう人事を配慮する自治体もある程度あった。さらに都道府県・市町村・国ともに、社会教育職員の研修にもある程度力を入れてきていた。そこで社会教育職員の社会教育活動・実践における専門性が次第に高まっていった。

ところが 1980 年代はじめから、地方自治体では「都市経営論」等の影響をうけて、次第に職員全体を短期間で人事異動させるようになり、教育委員会所属の社会教育職員についても、この影響を受けるようになった。さらに地方自治体は国の指導の下 1980 年代以降一貫して職員定数が抑えられた。そこで自治体によっては、需要に応じて施設増設が進んだ社会教育施設等について、施設運営を第 3 セクタ - に管理委託して、表向きの職員定数増を避ける方法をとるところもでてきた。1990 年代にはまた、正規職員数を減らし、減員分を直接雇用の非常勤職員に切替える雇用施策も進んだ。さらに、近年社会教育施設にも導入されはじめている前述の「指定管理者」制度においては、地方公共団体は受託者による施設運営・事業展開に「契約」を通してしか関わらないため、受託者に雇用される社会教育職員は地方自治体との関係が、第 3 セクタ - （地方公共団体が出資者となっている）の場合以上に、薄くなる。自治体に雇用される非常勤職員の雇い止め、低賃金化、雇用の外部委託化による受託機関雇用職員化と受託競争を通じての

雇用環境の悪化は、地方公共団体等公共サービスが関わる雇用問題として社会問題にまでなっているが、社会教育職員も例外ではない。

社会教育職員は、専門性が維持できないだけでなく、不安定雇用が促進されてきており、また従来多くが地方公共団体の自治体職員として位置づけられてきたそのあり方全体が大きく変容させられかねない状になってきている（社会教育職員数の専任総数の減少、非常勤割合の拡大については公民館について、各論 1 公民館 で詳述する）。

なお、社会教育職員の専門性を尊重し、その制度を拡充するという国の政策は、この間、構想されてこなかった。日本には法律にもとづいて、社会教育主事、図書館司書、博物館学芸員の資格制度が設けられているが、その資格取得のための条件は、緩和傾向にあり、1996年の政令「改正」でも緩和された。また、1997年の生涯学習審議会答申では、資格を活用する専門職としての職場が十分広がらない中で、ボランティア活動において生かす方法を提言するまでにその姿勢は後退した。各資格内で格差をつける議論があっても、社会教育（成人教育等）という仕事全体の重要性とその専門性についての理解、それにもとづく制度構想は進展していない。

4.4. Setback and abandonment of the policies for youth education

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

日本の社会教育・成人教育政策は第二次世界大戦以前から、地域婦人会、地域青年団を重要な対象としてとらえ、これを組織し、これを社会教育の実践母体としてとらえる体質をもっていた。第二次世界大戦後も、戦時体制に協力した体質を払拭して再出発、再結成したこれら青年団、婦人会は、地域の社会教育の重要な対象かつ担い手となってきた。しかし、日本国内の都市化による地縁的人間関係の希薄化が進むなかで、地域差はあるものの、全体としてその数は減り、社会教育の対象・担い手としての位置づけも低くなってきた。

これに代わって、女性についてみれば、1960年代には、PTAを通じての活動グループ、公民館等での社会教育事業をきっかけにして結成された「子育て」サークルほか多様な目的のサークルによる活動が、社会教育の対象かつ担い手として発展してきた。

青年については、1960年代、農村部では地域青年団の活動が継続していたが、都市部では農村から都市に働きに出てきた若年労働者を対象に、公民館他の社会教育施設で「青年学級」が多数、積極的に実施された。それらの事業は大勢の参加者を集め、地域で生きる青年たちの力を育ててきた。しかし、1970年代末から80年代に入ると、高等学校進学率（1970年82.1、1985年94.1%）・大学進学率（1970年23.6%、1985年41.6%）が上昇し、青年層の地域社会への関心が薄れ、社会教育における青年教育の位置づけが弱くなっていった。

こうした中、1999年の地方分権推進一括法により114の法律が一括して改変された。このとき、それまで社会教育施策の中で大きく位置づいてきた「青年学級」にかかわる法律、青年学級振興法（1953年制定）が廃止された。同法はもともと、1953年制定当時、同法は、地域青年団を中心とした自由な学習活動への統制になるのではないかとの懸念と、また、勤労青年教育を定時制等の正規の学校教育制度の拡充ではなく、安上がりな政策でごまかすものだとの批判を受け、問題を孕んだまま制定されたもので、青年教育を支援する法として十分なものではなかった。しかし、この法律の廃止は同法の問題を意識した故

のことではなかった。それは1990年代はじめからいくつかの都道府県で始まっていた「青年の家」の廃止・改変とも呼応しており、勤労青年のみならず、青年全体に対する国、自治体の施策の後退を象徴したものだ。地方分権推進一括法案に組み込まれる教育分野で提案を準備した、生涯学習審議会の1998年答申では、その理由を、「進学率の上昇等によるそのニーズの低下」による「その存続意義」の低下として説明した。こうして地域における青年教育施策が後退していった。

その後、前述のように、フリーター、ニート問題として青年問題が「勤労」問題として社会問題化した。そこで現在は、厚生労働省が委託事業として「若者自立塾」(宿泊型研修事、2005年7月から実施)や「地域若者サポートステーション」を全国に展開している。しかし、これは青年自身の自由で、自主的な学習運動を支援する教育事業とは様相を異にしており、「職業意識の啓発」、「社会適応支援」を通じた就職支援を主眼とする事業に限定されている。

なお、この青年就労支援策もその中入るが、政府は2006年12月に「再チャレンジ支援総合プラン」をまとめた。就職・労働支援を目的とした多様な事業が複数の省庁で施策として予算化されてきている。その中には成人教育政策の一つとしてとらえられるものもある。しかし、そこに色濃く現れがちなのは、既存の社会構造への適応支援という発想であり、労働者の権利意識を支える労働組合教育等も含む、教育が本来保障すべき、多様なレベルでの批判意識の形成、それを通じた真の意味での社会形成主体の形成にまで、支援の射程を広げたものになりうるかどうか、今後の展開・そのあり方が問われている。

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

5.1. National budget for Education in recent years

2008年10月にOECDがまとめた『図表でみる教育(2008年度)』Education at a Glance 2008で、教育機関への行財政支出の対GDPの割合が、日本は3.4%と、OECD加盟28カ国の中で最も低いことが浮き彫りされた。また日本では就学前教育と高等教育での私費負担の割合が高く、OECD諸国の平均を大きく上回っていることも、この資料の文科省による紹介の中で強調されている。この情報は当時大きく報道され、日本政府が教育に支出する予算の低さが世間に広く自覚された。

これに先立ち、その策定自体の是非は別として、教育基本法「改変」を受け、2008年7月に政府は教育振興基本計画を策定した。その策定過程で、「教育予算や教職員定数増の数値目標」を盛り込もうと努めた文科省の努力にも拘わらず、「財務省、総務省、与党の行政改革推進派議員らの強い反対」にあって断念したことが大きく報道された。つまり「基本計画」は財政的裏づけのない苦渋の策定となった。

これらの情報は、日本政府が教育政策を軽視しているのではないかとの印象を世論に広げた。なお、今後、財政的裏づけもなく教育政策が展開した場合、それは精神主義による内容統制政策のみの推進、あるいは、施策対象に大きく格差をつけた諸施策の推進となる恐れが懸念される。

5.2. The changes of the proportion of budget for Social Education within the whole budget of education the low level of ratio and continuous tendency of declining

表1は、『文部統計』(平成20年版)掲載データ(複数の統計資料から日本における公費・私費合わせた教育費支出総額を集計したもの)をもとに、作成したものである。

教育費総額は2000年まで増加したあと減少し、2004年には大きく減少した。そして、2005年には微増している。

しかし、社会教育費は1995年以降、一貫して減少し続けている。成人教育費という枠で考えた場合には、高等教育費の一部と専門学校・各種学校費の一部も成人教育費にあるので、これらの総額が大きく増加してきていることをふまえると、成人教育費総額が減少したと一概には言い切れない。しかし、高等教育費、専門学校・各種学校費にしめる成人教育費の額は、大学などの学習人口から考えて、僅かだと想像される。

Table 1 Total Expenditure on Education by Sphere of Education

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

(unit: million yen)

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

また、社会教育費は教育費総額の僅か 6.8%に過ぎないため、その額が減少し続けているということは、日本において学校形態以外の成人教育に充てられる費用が、公費・私費ともに削減される傾向にあると推測される。

5.3. Local governments budget for social education

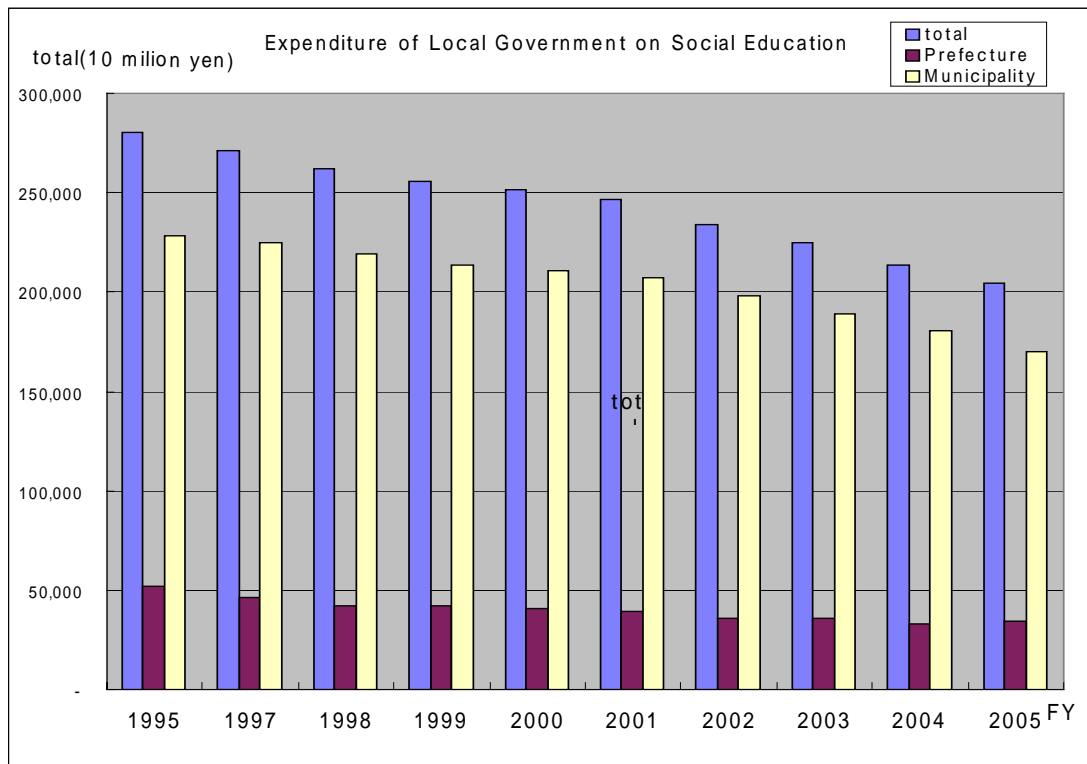
上記表 1 の財源別内訳からも分かるように、日本の公共財支出による社会教育費はほとんどが地方自治体による支出で占められている(地方交付税も含まれる)。そこでその変化を辿ってみると、図 1 のようなグラフになる。

ここから分かるように、その総額は一貫して減少傾向にあり、特に市町村の社会教育費の減少が大きい。また日本政府レポートには地方社会教育の内訳額の推移が掲載されているが、それをみると、体育館費、青少年教育施設以外はすべての項目にわたって支出額が減少傾向にあることが分かる。

なおこれらの費用支出、予算の減少に関する分析・評価については、個々の分野での施策と絡めて、各論において、可能な範囲で言及する。

Graph 1 Trends in Expenditure of Local Government on Social Education

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



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

最後に以上みてきたこととも絡めつつ、近年の社会教育政策で懸念される事柄について、今回各論では十分扱えなかった点について言及しておく。

6.1. The strong tendency to make social education concentrate

into support work to the schools for children

まず一つは、学校教育支援策への傾斜である。社会教育法「改正」、教育基本法「改正」に示されているようにこの間、国の社会教育政策は、家庭教育支援、学校教育支援に大きく傾斜している。そしてこれに連動するように、成人教育部門の多くが、教育委員会所管から外されていく傾向が生じている。すでに、女性の学習、文化関係の事業が教育委員会所管から一般行政部門所管へと移管される傾向が 1980 年代から顕著になってきていた。また 1990 年代に入ると、厚生省(後に厚生労働省)の子育て支援策の展開に引きずられ、女性の学習支援の社会教育における展開は縮小傾向が強くなっていた。この傾向の中で、「家庭教育」支援がどのように地方自治体の社会教育施策において展開されるのかはまだ分からない。しかし、学校との「連携」については教育委員会挙げて推奨する傾向にある。

ところで、日本の戦後の社会教育においては、PTA が社会教育団体として位置づけられ、市町村自治体の社会教育施策においても、ある程度重視されてきた。1960 年代、国が補助金をもって施策化し、問題もはらんで導入された家庭教育学級も、PTA にその企画・運営が担われている事例も少なくなかった。PTA で学習した母親たちが、地域の社会教育活動へとその活動を発展させていくケ - スも 1970 年代、80 年代に広がっていた。しかし、学校教育においては PTA の発展を支援する施策は弱く、近年ではむしろ PTA を排除した形で学校と地域社会を結びつける施策が展開されはじめている。また学校教育との「連携」事業も今にはじまったことではなく、これまでもさまざまな取り組みが挑戦されてきた。

そこで、この間の社会教育法「改正」によって強調されてきている学校教育支援策は、まず一つには、このような従来の施策や、PTA 施策とどのように関係してくるのか、そのあり方が問われることになる。またもう一つには、社会教育施策の多様な内容が、教育施策から離れて、一般行政部局に分散させられるなかでのこの学校教育支援策の強調について、社会教育施策が学校教育支援策に特化され、ますます狭隘化していくことが懸念されている。

6.2. Relation to the policies specific to community developments

またもう一つは、コミュニティ政策との関係である。日本のコミュニティ政策は、都市化による地域社会の変容に際し、1960 年代末から自治省(旧)の下で展開され、1970 年代にはこの施策によるコミュニティ・センタ - 構想と公民館論との激しい論争が展開された。しかし、その後、コミュニティ政策は推進力を失っていった。

ところが、ここ数年、地方分権推進政策、地方制度調査会での議論を受けて、新たな地域社会構築の議論が進み、総務省主導のもとで、新たなコミュニティ政策が浮上してきている。その中で、市町村自治体合併推進による行政組織拡大を補うように、小地域に地域自治区の設置、地域自治組織の設置などが施策として検討されはじめ、市町村自治体の具体的施策として展開されはじめている。

そして、これらの小地域組織化に焦点をあてた新たなコミュニティ政策が、市町村自治体の施策の中で、社会教育施策と重なりはじめ、その関係のあり方が問われてきている。

社会教育の「教育」としてのあり方、地域住民の学習の自由とその発展を軸にして、それを保障する諸政策が、その中でどれだけ重視されるかが、コミュニティ政策を住民本位に発展させられるかどうかの鍵になるのではないかとも思われる。

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

なお各論で特に取り上げることができなかった項目が多数ある。

たとえば企業内教育・職業技術教育についての項目は各論でとりあげることができたが、労働者の権利を支える労働者教育、労働組合教育について記述することができなかった。日本は第二次世界大戦前から、大正時代以降に、東京労働学校、大阪労働学校が設立され、労働組合を担い、労働争議などで闘っている労働者も対象に、その思考を深め、教養を高める、本格的な教育カリキュラムをもった学習運動が展開されてきた歴史をもつ。戦後も、労働組合での学習活動、サ・クル活動が活発に展開された時期があった。労働者教育協会の活動、また土建組合の学習運動など現在もその活動が活発に展開されている。

また地方自治体職員の労働運動は、1960年代、社会教育職員もその担い手となって、自治体のあり方を地域住民とともに学びあい、行政のあり方を変えていく自治体研究運動・学習運動として発展してきた。教職員組合の運動も、地域での教育懇談会の展開など、1970年代 80年代には、地域住民の学習運動と呼応して発展する勢いをもっていた。農業共同組合、生活共同組合運動も、日本の社会教育の実践と結びついて展開されてきているものが多数ある。

日本では1989年に日本労働組合総連合会（連合）の結成があった。これを労働運動の統一とみるのか、分裂とみるのかは別として、これが日本の労働運動組織の大きな転換であったことは間違いない。その後、原因は特定できないが、日本の労働運動は1970年代、80年代の勢いを失っていった。厚生労働省による「労働組合基礎調査結果速報」の経年調査によると、労働組合員数のピ・クは1998年の12,699千人で、以後、2007年現在まで減少し続けている。また労働組合組織率は1975年以降、ずっと減少し続け、現在18.1%である。このような労働運動の衰退が、ここ数十年を通して、人々の学習運動、社会教育運動の展開にどのような影響を与えているのか、ここではまだ論じられない。しかし、そうした衰退の中でも、粘り強く学習を展開し、また新たに学習運動を展開する動きもある。例えば自治体労働者の運動では、地域住民の学習運動を改めて促進する勢いをもちつつある地域もある。各地の自治体問題研究所の活動や自治体学校運動再生の動きなどはその一つの事例といえる。また、雇用不安顕在化の中で非正規雇用者等による新しい労働運動展開の兆しもあり、それらが人々の学習運動としてどのように発展するのか、これは今後注目すべき動向であるとともに、社会教育運動の課題でもある。

以下、各論では、社会教育・成人教育に関わるそれぞれの分野での政策・実践の問題が分析される。またその上で、このような困難な状況に抗する、可能性をもった実践や課題も可能な範囲で紹介される。また各論では、それぞれの項目ごとの末尾に、政策課題、実践・運動課題に対する「提言」を提示するようつとめた（一部、別立てでは提示できなかった項目もある）。

なお、日本には政府が指定した統計が現在 55 ある。そのうち教育に関するもので、文科省が担当している統計は 4 つあり、そのうちの一つに、「社会教育調査」(この調査にもとづく刊行物のタイトルは「社会教育基本調査」)がある(他は、「学校教育基本調査」「学校保健統計」「学校教員統計」)。この「社会教育調査」は 1955 年 8 月 24 日に 81 号として指定された統計である。以来、日本では 3 年に 1 回、市町村へのアンケートによる全国調査とその集計結果・分析の報告が重ねられてきた。日本の社会教育を推進する上で、その施策やあり方を考える重要な情報を提供する、このような継続的で安定した調査があることは日本の社会教育施策にとって貴重な遺産といえる。この統計を継続し、かつその内容をますます充実させていくことも、今後の日本の成人教育・社会教育政策にとって重要な課題といえる。なお、このほかの調査も含め、文科省による調査データの提供、集計結果の公開、工夫した提示・分析・報告などは、極めて有益な施策といえる。

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

Details

- 1 Kominkan

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

1. Outline of Kominkan

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

2. The present condition of Kominkan

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

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

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

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

35% of Kominkans had 330 ~ 700 m² floor space. The average of floor space range s from under 150 m² to over 3000 m². Although a some buildings are bigger, there have not been many changes in the size of buildings during the last ten years (ref. “Social Education Research Report” in 2005, published by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan 2007 and “Statistics on Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology” in 2005).

3. The changes from the mid-1990s

3.1. The decrease of the number of Kominkans

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

First the number of Kominkans has decreased. According to the table about the trend of ‘each number by types of facilities for social education’ in the government report (p.3), the total number of Kominkan including quasi-Kominkans has increased to 19,063 in 1999. But they have decreased to 18,810 in 2002、 and to 18,182 in 2005. The number of only Kominkan also has decreased from 18,257 in 1999 to 17,947 in 2002、 and to 17,143 in 2005 (This means that we lost 1,114 Kominkan from1999 to 2005). Compare this with the other facilities for social education which increased even in a little except for women’s Education facilities and private sports facilities, the decrease of Kominkans which are the primary institutions for social education shows us to the deterioration of policies of social education in Japan.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

removal of the name of “Kominkan”

by intention to violate the freedom of learning

or undervaluing of “social education”

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

3.2. Deterioration of Kominkan

- Expanding the outsourcing and segmenting of the managing system

**: introducing the designated manager system
even beyond the entrusted foundation system**

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

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

This guideline influenced social education facilities in Japan, because they have been usually managed publicly. Therefore, some municipal governments actually introduced this 'designated manager system' to public social education facilities (see Table 1). The statistics are for the fiscal year 2005 yet. The number of Kominkans that were outsourced to 'the designated manager system' is still only 574, but there is a fear that the number will increase in the future.

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

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

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

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

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

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

The Central Consulting Committee for the Ministry of Education whose report prepared the 1999 revision of Social Education Law, stated about the Advisory Committee system of Kominkan not only with the 'deregulation', but almost mentioned with the situation that Advisory Committees for Kominkans usually didn't work well. But actually, there were such active Advisory Committees for Kominkans that select their members through the official election and performed active discussions. If the previous regulation of the obligation was rested, we would be able to use it in order to recover the other Advisory Committees System. Therefore it is worrisome that the resident participation in performing Kominkans should be restored by this revision.

Table 2 is about the trend of the number of from 1996. From this data, we can see the rate of establishment of Advisory Committees for Kominkans has been degreasing largely since the 1999 revision of the Social Education Low by 27.84% in 2005. Some municipal governments established another system of resident participation, but there is no research about these cases. Although the revision has been enacted, the description on the regulation of the Advisory Committee has remained in the law as an example. Nevertheless the number of them has been deceasing. We can see such essence of Kominkans to be performed through the participation system of residents has weakened by the revision of the law.

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

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

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

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

3.4. Some problems about the standard of establishing and managing Kominkans

The national government enacted the standard of establishing and managing Kominkan in 1959, when the Social Education Law was largely revised. It was a simple standard with only 9 articles that suggested 'the width of target district', 'facilities', 'equipment', 'staff' and so on. The government also stated they only indicate the minimum standard and they wanted each municipality would be improving conditions of Kominkans to go over the standard. After that there were a lot of discussions about how the Kominkans had to be. One excellent proposal borne from these discussions is *Looking for the New Kominkan Model* presented by some staff of the Kominkans and a researcher in the suburbs of Tokyo, so called Santama in 1973. It

is called 'thesis of Santama'. It indicated the four roles of Kominkans, 'a open space for residents', 'a base for group activities', 'their own university of residents', and 'a park for creating culture'. It also indicated the seven managing principles, 'freedom and equity', 'no fees', 'to keep independent as an institution for learning and cultural activities', 'to have staff qualified about Kominkans', 'to be allocated to each community', 'to have enough and various equipments', and 'participation of residents in management'. The 'thesis of Santama' contributed to 'the Resident movements for creating Kominkan'. These movements started around the early 1970s. They requested their municipal governments to establish Kominkans and they but also presented to them how do to equip it and how to perform it. In these proposals, they also have recovered the four roles and seven principals of Kominkans in 'thesis of Santama' to the ones to be more excellent or to be more fit to each community or to each municipality.

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

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

In the 2003 revision, the standard was wholly revised.

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

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

On one hand this revision of standard has resulted to forgive not to recover the conditions of Kominkan, but on the other hand it introduce the control of the practices and the direction of management of Kominkans by the local governments.

4. Kominkan Staff or Kominkan Manager

- no improvement of the system for them

and deterioration of employment and working condition -

4.1. The lack of the qualification system for Kominkan Manager

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

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

Type of facilities	Number of staff	(instructional staff)	Number of facilities
total (increase from previous data)	515,619 (8,798)	(110,294) (4,569)	97,312 (397)
Administrative office of board of education	35,516 (4,212)	(in detail Director of social education (4,361) (1,393) Deputy director of social education 242 (129)	2,314 (1,003)
Number of social education institution (total)	480,103 (4,586)	(105,933) (5,962)	94,998 (606)
Kominkan	52,230	(17,127)	17,143
Quasi-Kominkan	4,081	(678)	1,039
Library	30,660	(13,223)	2,979
Museum	17,354	(4,296)	1,196
Quasi-Museum	27,265	(2,620)	4,418
Youth education facilities	8,251	(2,961)	1,320
Women's Education facilities	1,209	(263)	183
Social sports facilities	10,0297	(9,599)	48,055
Private sports facilities	22,0368	(53,469)	16,780
Culture Halls	18,388	(1,697)	1,885

According to Table 3, the total number of Kominkans staff is now 52,230 in Japan. The ‘instructional staff’ within them is called ‘Kominkan Manager’ and the total

number of them is now 17,127. Each of them is larger number among the staff of facilities for social education social education staff, except the staff of facilities for sports that has too much staff compared to the others. Nevertheless we don't have the qualification system for the staff of Kominkan.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Table 4 Trends in the number of Staff in Kominkans and Quasi-Kominkans

(by Yoko Arai using data from the 1996 ~ 2005 "Social Education Research Report"
published by the Ministry of Education, Culture , Sports, Science and

Technology of Japan)

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

Table 5 the Number of Kominkans by the number of staff

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

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

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

While the conditions for Kominkan staff have been unstable and its system has not been established in the national legal system, some municipal governments improved

the conditions by placing professional personnel in Kominkans around the 1970s and 1980s. In some municipalities, the residents carried out the movement to request that their municipal government changed the employment condition of the part-time staff of Kominkan to full-time and professional position. In these cases there were usually qualified part-time staff who supported well the residents to learn and the residents wanted to keep such staff for their learning. Some local governments had established the professional system for Kominkans through these movements or by the effort of some excellent officer of social education. But, after 1990, such municipal governments, while the total number itself was a small, abolished the professional system for Kominkan. Moreover, the trend to change the personnel from full-time manager to part-time staff has prevailed under the trend of national policy previously mentioned.

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

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

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

5.1. Organizations and social movements related to Kominkans

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

After that, the National Kominkan Association for the union of these organizations was founded in November 1951. This Association has held their assembly every year from 1952, and has published the journal *Monthly Kominkan* from 1956 which grown from their newsletter *Monthly Kominkan Report*. The movement to demand the independent law for Kominkans already mentioned, was carried by this Association. It once suffered the crisis of disintegration because its close relation with the government, the Ministry of Education got to be unstable through this movement for independent

law for Kominkans. After recovering the relationship, it had continued to negotiate with the government to raise the amount of subsidies for Kominkan. It also had the specific research committee from 1965 to consider how Kominkan had to be, and the first committee made the report *How Kominkans should be and their Modern Index* in 1968.

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

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

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

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

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

We had active resident movements for creating Kominkans all over the country in 1970s, 1980s and 1990s. But, since the past half of 1990s, residents carried their movements in order to solve setback policy problems they face such as the introduction of the user fees for Kominkan and the abolishment of the Kominkan system.

5.2. Social Education Practices through Kominkans

5.2.1. Outline of Social Education Practices through Kominkans

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

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

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

5.2.2. Some Notable Cases of the Practices through Kominkan

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

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

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

One of these main Kominkans, Kamihisakata Kominkan started a project from 1990. In this project they decided that residents in each of 13 hamlets, that constitute the district of this Kominkan district, made their own plan to encourage their own hamlets. In the one of these hamlets, eight residents were gathered, made a plan and started some activities. After they had a chance to meet the person who was engaged in supporting homeless people in Tokyo, they developed their activities to the project to meet the homeless people by inviting them from Tokyo to their village with a few days staying at each houses of them. The staff of Kamihisakata Kominkan was at first confused when he heard the idea of this project from the group. But finally he supported them and the project succeeded. Some staff, who belonged to the other

Kominkans and was also once worked as a social education director of Iida city, analyzed this case and explained its meaning. He says that the purpose of their plan was first for to get some persons who would want to live in their village. But this 'meeting' project with such people who suffered not only severe living conditions but also severe prejudice, brought the group in this hamlet to overcome their closed sentiment which is common to such semi-mountainous hamlet and encouraged them to have a hope and draw the future of their hamlet.

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

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

One of these Kominkan in this city, Motomachi Kominkan started a class in 1981 to consider agriculture situation in town which had been diminishing. The class was planned through some networks between the staff of this Kominkan and the researchers and activists around this town. The class had continued almost every year for around 10 years. These classes first took garbage problem, but next performed farming activities and after expanded the contents and ways of learning to include activities such as creating a land map and video in order to introduce some features of this community and so on with several attempts in every planning year. In these processes the 'new' residents, who had come to live there after 1960s and almost of them salaried workers, and the 'old' residents, whose families had been living there for a long time and a lot of them engaged in farming, met together and made new connections between themselves, whereas there was less connection before. Also, these classes brought the

other movement of residents to propose the new building plan of the city with the connection of ecological challenges and support of farming. In 1990, after the staff who had taken part this practice, moved from Motomachi Kominkan to Hikari Kominkan, Motomachi Kominkan continued some similar classes. They targeted to use the brushes rested in their district for resident recreation activities in the nature. Hikari Kominkan then started also similar classes, but this time to learn the geographical features of the city. The participants of these classes had gathered some data that might be useful for developing the building plan of the city through research.

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

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

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

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

But the city introduced the designated manager system to Kominkans in 2005, and the Foundation itself would have to enter an open bid. Therefore the Foundation has to reduce its managing expenditure and adapted restricted conditions severely over the practices and the working conditions of staff (the allocation of staff etc) in preparing for a bid. The Foundation staff has made their own union to develop their practices of social education and to be more qualified under this situation. This case is worth a look at for the new movement away from entrusted organizations of Kominkans (We can see the similar case in Hiroshima city in Hiroshima prefecture at the problem of outsourcing to Foundations. Those who were hired for proper staff of Foundation for

profession, develop their practices actively but they also suffered difficulties under the introduction of the designated manager system with their Foundation itself.

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

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

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

[Recommendations]

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

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

In order for Municipal governments to be able to allocate Kominkan with the

respected size and number for everyday life of people in each local community

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

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

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

2. To allocate Specific officer with qualified ability for social education

to each Kominkan

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

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

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

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

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

(3) For municipal governments, prefecture governments and the national government, each of them to make such policies to support Kominkan staff groups to have their self-designed training courses for themselves so as to develop their motivations and abilities. These policies are to send Kominkan staff to some training course in accordance with their requests, to support them to make and perform some training course by themselves independently, and so on.

3. To make budget for financial support for allocating Kominkan managers

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

4. To promote democratic management of Kominkan

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

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

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

5. To develop practices of social education through the partnership of residents and Kominkan Managers

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

(written and translated by JAPSE: Yoko Arai)

- 2 Public Libraries of Modern Japan

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

1. Situation of the Public Libraries

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(Unit: 1000 books)

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

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

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

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

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

2.2. Changes to the Library Staff Headcount and Structure

Considerable changes occurred in the structure of library staff.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

3.1. Neoliberal Policy and the Library

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

3.2. Worsening of Commonality and Professionalism of Libraries

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

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

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

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

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

4. Transformation of the Library Law

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

increasing involvement by the educational administration.

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

5. Development of Library Service

5.1. Service for the Disabled

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

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

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

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

characters, and background contrast etc.

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

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

5.2. Multicultural Service

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

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

5.3. Problem Solving Service

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

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

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

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

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

[Recommendations] Future Challenge and Suggestions

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

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

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

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

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

(written by Japan Library Association (JLA):

YAMAGUCHI, Genjiro; KOBAYASHI, Suguru; TAKAHASHI, Ryuichiro)

- 3 Museums (Hakubutsukan)

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

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

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

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

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

Notes

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

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

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

- 4 Education, Employment and Staff Development of

Social Education Staffs

Proposals Based on JASSDACE's Researches

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

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

The research outcome was published as follow:

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

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

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

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

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

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

(JASSDACE : Susumu Sato)

1. Education of Lifelong Education Staffs

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

directors.

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

1.3 Education of Social Education Staffs through Correspondence Courses

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

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

1.4 Appointment of Social Education Directors by Municipal Governments

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

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

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

1.5 Issues of the Education of Social Education Staffs

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

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

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

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

(JASSDACE : Kenji Miwa)

2. Employment

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

2.2 Positioning Rate of Social Education Directors

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

municipalities and associations have almost the same positioning rate level.

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

2.3 Positioning of Social Education Directors in Municipalities in Recent Years

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

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

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

2.4 Consideration of Qualifications in Employing Social Education Institutions Staff

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

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

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

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

2.5 Instructions to Social Education Institutions Staff to Acquire Qualifications

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

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

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

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

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

(JASSDACE : Susumu Sato)

3. Staff Development (SD) of Social Education Staffs

3.1 Implementation of SD Programs

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

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

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

3.2 Implementation of SD Programs by the Municipality Size

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

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

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

3.3 Issues in Implementation of SD programs

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

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

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

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

3.4 Social Education Staff Development Recent Years

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

Table 3-1 Implementation of SD Programs

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(JASSDACE : Susumu Sato)

[Proposals]

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(JASSDACE : Kenji Miwa)

- 5 Universities and adult education

1. Universities' involvement in adult education

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

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

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

- accepting non-traditional adult students to formal curricula leading to degrees (including those in the form of distance education through correspondence or broadcasting)
- accepting adults to formal curricula as students not pursuing degrees (e.g. students aiming to accomplish particular units, participants to the classes which permit general public)
- providing programs designed for adult education (e.g. classes, public lectures, symposiums) and establishing / running sections solely in charge of providing adult education / lifelong learning opportunities (these sections are often named as 'lifelong learning center', 'center of research and education for lifelong learning', 'community college', 'extension center', 'open college', and 'senior college'. About universities' involvement in adult educational for older people, please refer to Chapter 10 of this report).

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

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

1.1. Accepting adult students to universities' formal curriculum

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

This policy trend, however, focuses heavily upon those who have already got education of a relatively high level and is questionable. In recent years, Japanese society is burdened (challenged) with problems such as a progressive "polarization of employment forms", a widening economic divide (between the wealthy and the poor), and the stabilization / reproduction of such divide over generations. There are also strong social needs for securing educational opportunities for adults, where they can learn again, learn to change careers and to upgrade their skills, in order to make their lives meaningful lives in these unstable times. It can be said that these current social situations in Japan is urging the government to be seriously involved in promoting the education for adults at universities (particularly at the undergraduate

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

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

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

In supporting adults' learning at universities, it is important to actualize a society where adults can study at universities as they wish and the learning conducted at universities is properly recognized and appraised, in a joint effort of universities, industry and labor to create necessary systems. A system started in 2008, to issue a

certificate of completion for a certain type of university courses for adults not leading to degrees, is one of the efforts in this direction.. Adults will not dare to choose to study at universities investing profound amount of time, money and energy, if that learning is not properly recognized, for example, in a workplace or when getting a job.

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

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

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

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

As of March 2008, those who have received degrees at a undergraduate level from OUJ has amount to about 51,000. This number does not seem to be too exciting, considering the fact that OUJ has provided higher education for more than 20 years, since it started to accept students in 1985 and had the first 544 graduates in 1989. While the annual number of graduates has grown, in recent years it stays around 4,000-5,000 against 50,000 of those who are enrolled on courses leading to undergraduate degrees; it is well estimated that OUJ students are having various

difficulties which contribute to a prolonged period they have to spend before they can get a degree (students are allowed to stay enrolled for 10 years at maximum), for instance, the difficulty to secure enough time for learning and the lack of support from OIJ in acquiring study skills required for university learning (e.g. how to take notes, read books, use references, organize and write up term papers, plan and manage own learning).

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

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

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

1.3. Centers for lifelong learning

In the field of assisting citizen's lifelong learning activities, progress has been made in many Japanese universities in the 1990s, resulting in an increase of one-off lectures or courses offered to open public and the improvement in the way to meet the learning needs of adults. Particularly, there was a trend of national universities

outside the urban areas to establish 'centers for education and research for lifelong learning', a section for offering various educational programs and contributing both to local citizens' lifelong learning activities and the betterment of a local society (these centers include those which had already been set up in a different name such as 'university education extension centers' since the 1970s and was renamed in the 1990s). This trend occurred against the backdrop of social climate which demands these universities to make clear their *raison d'être* in a given region or a society at large, as institutions heavily receiving public money.

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

However, in recent years centers of lifelong learning at national universities tend to be having a hard time, by a shift in the university's management which tends to prioritize projects which are expected to contribute more directly to the entrants hunting, in order to win an ever-increasing competition to attract high school graduates in a continuous decline of 18+ population: some centers face restructuring (e.g. merger with other in-university center) and some other are made to drift away from their original mission of connecting the university to the local society and have to serve the university faculty first, for example, through its involvement in promoting the faculty's good practice of education or in faculty development activities. Apart from above, centers of lifelong learning of Japanese universities generally has a problem of poor staffing: in centers run by national universities, administrative staff is often extremely small, and in those run by private universities, full-time teaching staff is often very small.

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

[Recommendations]

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

(original chapter in Japanese written by the Committee on International Affairs,
JSSACE / translated by TOKIWA-FUSE Miho, JSSACE)

*In this chapter Japanese names are spelled in the original East Asian order, in which the family-name comes first.

- 6 Adult Education and Learning with

a Gender Perspective

Focusing on Women

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

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

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

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

1.2. Women as a Group still Discriminated and Disadvantaged

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

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

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

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

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

2.1. The Diminution of the Public Support in ALE under

the Policy for a Gender-equal Society

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

2.3. The Policy Shift on Job Training to

Self –support and Self –responsibility and Women

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

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

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

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

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

3. The Advance of Women's Movements and Learning

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

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

I'll show you some outstanding examples here .

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

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

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

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

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

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

[Recommendations]

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

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

The government should turn their policy from neo-liberal to human rights based

The government should be faithful to the international and global commitments they made and diffuse those documents to the people inside Japan

(written and translated by JAPSE: Yoko Nakato)

II - 7 Corporate education and government support to workers

1. Corporate education

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

1.1. Current state of corporate education

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

1.1.1. OJT

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

1.1.2. Off-JT

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

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

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

1.1.3. Other forms of corporate education

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

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

course fees, etc.’ (48.9%), (2) ‘concessions regarding working hours’ (41.0%), (3) ‘assistance to self-organized study circles at work, etc.’ (37.4%), and (4) ‘provision of information regarding education and training facilities, correspondence study, etc.’ (32.6%). It appears that companies have the same level of expectation from regular employees and non-regular employees when offering financial assistance, where individual employees act on their own initiative and make their own decision as to the method of self-study. However, there is a clear inequality in the level of assistance between regular employees and non-regular employees.

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

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

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

1.2.1. Corporate education and training for regular employees

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

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

When examined with reference to industry sector, no conspicuous difference is noted, but the only area in which non-manufacturing industry was ahead of manufacturing

industry was 'follow-up training for new employees' (7.8 point difference).

Looking next at education and training for regular employees differentiated by type of work and by purpose of training, the order of frequency is (1) 'education for corporate social responsibility and compliance' (48.7%), (2) 'education in communication skills' (47.4%), (3) 'training for technically skilled staff and technicians' (43.4%). 'Education for corporate social responsibility and compliance' is also relevant to risk management, as it inevitably requires comprehensive quality control, which requires compliance with ISO 9000s and the Product Liability Law, comprehensive environmental management based on ISO 14000s, and comprehensive information management in connection for instance with ISO 27000s, the Personal Information Protection Law, the Unfair Competition Prevention Law, and the Whistleblower Protection Law.

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

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

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

1.2.2. Corporate education and training for non-regular employees

Of the forms of education and training for non-regular employees differentiated by type of work and by purpose of training, the most frequently provided was 'education for corporate social responsibility and compliance' (69.2%). This was the most common form for both regular employees and non-regular employees. Here, it can be commented that, with the 2008 amendment of the Financial Instruments and Exchange Law, the introduction of a system of internal control has become unavoidable for companies, which have accordingly been obliged to ensure that all employees, regardless of the form of employment contract, are fully conversant with models of compliance-oriented management rooted in corporate social responsibility.

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

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

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

1.3. Total expenditure on education and training in the company

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

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

- Average per : 203.42 million yen (large companies 328.43 million, small and

medium companies 13.4 million yen).

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

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

- Average per : 219.29 million yen (large companies 354.59 million yen, small and medium companies 13.64 million yen).
- Average per employee : 47,365 yen (large companies 54,290 yen, small and medium companies 36,840 yen).

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

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

1.4. Measurement and utilization of the results of corporate education

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

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

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

Of the companies that collated the results, the proportion that felt that some kind of

adaptive measure was necessary when utilizing the results was 84.1%. Although this result shows that the majority of companies make use of the results, at the same time it suggests the awareness of a problem in that, although the results are utilized, issues remain outstanding. The adaptive measures required to resolve these issues (multiple responses given) were: (1) 'creation of a set of criteria or similar to allow results to be measured more accurately' (50.7%), (2) 'creation of a set of criteria to allow the education and training results to be linked to personnel assessment' (37.6%), (3) 'expertise in the formulation of an education and training curriculum' (33.5%), (4) 'assessment of employees from the standpoint of individual career development support' (32.8%). This appears to indicate that, at present, there is no clear framework within the organization offering a foundation for the educational system as a whole, for instance in terms of criteria for results and assessments.

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

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

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

At the same time, it is essential to provide a workplace environment in which

employees can work confidently by taking measures to prevent excessive workload and maintain health. However, in the 51st Survey of Staff Welfare and Benefit Expenditure conducted by Nippon Keidanren in 2008, the findings relating to 'mental health initiatives' indicated the inadequacy of mental health education for non-managerial staff, with 63.1% offering 'mental health education for managerial grades' but only 45.3% providing 'mental health education for non-managerial grades'. Meanwhile, the partial amendment in 2007 of the Industrial Safety and Health Law established a legal duty to implement a mental health policy. Given these developments, mental health policy needs to be reviewed as a more integrated part of corporate risk management and mental healthcare education needs to be implemented fully in the workplace as part of 'self-care', 'care by line managers', and 'care by corporate medical staff'.

2. Government support to workers

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

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

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

2.1.1. Policy formulation and implementation

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

employers. The four main planks of policy implementation for vocational ability development are as follows:

- (1) Implementation of human resources training offering high added value
- (2) Support for self-motivated vocational ability development by workers
- (3) Promotion of white-collar vocational ability development
- (4) Training of technically skilled human resources to support the industrial infrastructure

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

2.1.2. Systems relating to ability development

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

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

acquisition of basic employment abilities by young people, local youth support stations, youth independent living training classes.

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

2.1.3. Level of implementation of systems

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

Regarding the training for people leaving people referred to in 2.1.2-(3) above, according to The 2008 Review of Results of Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare policies, the rate of employment uptake among people who had completed publicly sponsored vocational training commissioned to private-sector education and training institutions was 59.8% in fiscal year 2004, 65.1% in fiscal year 2005, 68.2% in fiscal year 2006, and 69.8% in fiscal year 2007 (the target for fiscal year 2007 was 65%). The figure for fiscal year 2007 was thus above target. The rate of employment uptake

among people who had completed publicly sponsored vocational training at public-sector vocational and training institutions was 76.6% in fiscal year 2004, 78.0% in fiscal year 2005, 79.7% in fiscal year 2006, and 78.5% in fiscal year 2007 (the target for fiscal year 2007 was 80%). Although the level of achievement was thus slightly below target in fiscal year 2007, it did amount to 98.1% of the target figure. A necessary task for the future for Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare is to consider livelihood support during the vocational training period for people such as homeless people who frequent Internet cafe and to implement relevant policy measures.

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

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

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

2.1.4. Budgets relating to ability development

At Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, the main fiscal year 2009 budget

proposals for worker education are as follows.

- (1) Budget relating to promotion of urgent measures for the improvement of the employment situation
 - Re-employment support measures 'expansion of the scale of training schemes for job leavers' : 24.1 billion yen.
- (2) Budgets relating to youth independent living
 - Implementation of 'plan to guide casual workers' into regular employment : 45.6 billion yen.
 - Strengthened support for vocational independence for NEETs and similar young people : 2.2 billion yen.
- (3) Budgets relating to fulfillment of vocational ambitions for women
 - Support for both work and home life 'implementation of measures at small and medium companies to support the raising of the next generation' : 780 million yen.
- (4) Budgets relating to implementation of five-year plan to promote 'welfare to work'
 - Implementation of employment support for people with disabilities 'enhanced support to people with disabilities for vocational ability development' : 6.4 billion yen.
- (5) Budgets relating to construction and enhancement of vocational ability creation systems
 - Execution of commissioned training in vocational ability creation programs : 9.3 billion yen.
 - Implementation of induction training for non-regular employees, etc. : 380 million yen. Strengthened activities to promote the dissemination of the Job Card system : 3.9 billion yen.
 - Setting up of career consulting system at job placement offices, etc., and other measures : 3.4 billion yen.
- (6) Budgets relating to securing of local employment opportunities and enhanced support for small and medium companies
 - Promotion of a nation built on manufacturing 'human resources training support for local manufacturing sectors (new allocation)' : 60 million yen.
 - Promotion of a nation built on manufacturing 'Promotion of manufacturing-related technical skills through Technical Skill Olympic contests' : 1 billion yen.
 - Promotion of a nation built on manufacturing 'Promotion of transmission of technical skills by deploying baby boom generation workers' : 600 million yen.

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

2.2.1. Policy formulation and implementation

The education-related support to the workforce provided by Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry consists of an industrial human resources program as part of economic and industrial policy. This industrial human resources program, which takes

a wide perspective to include industrial sectors within Japan, the educational sector, local communities, and even international society, aims to improve productivity through the creation of mechanisms for human resources training, the construction of an employment and education system adapted to the growing diversity of values, the creation of human resources outstanding in global terms, the production of innovative and creative human resources, the promotion of environmental enhancement for the purpose of human resource utilization, and other measures.

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

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

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

2.2.2. Systems relating to human resources training

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

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

2.2.3. Level of implementation of systems

The Career Development Programme for Foreign Students from Asia referred to in 2.2.2-(1) above, which aims to promote professional activity by Asian students in Japanese industry, was launched in 2007. In concrete terms, it uses partnerships between industry and academia to carry out development and execution of specialist education programmes, internships, employment support, and education in Japanese language for business, education in Japanese business, promotion of study in Japan for overseas students, and promotion of participation in programmes. This activity is seen as one of the pillars of the government's plan to host 300,000 overseas students in Japan by 2020.

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

2.2.4. Budgets relating to human resources training

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

- (1) Budgets relating to 'creation of human resources to support growth' as part of economic and industrial policy
 - Promotion of human resources training through partnership between industry and academia : 2.1 billion yen (new allocation).
 - Career Development Program for Foreign Students from Asia : 3.4 billion yen.
 - Japanese language training, etc., based on economic partnership agreements (nurses from the Philippines and caregivers, etc.) : 1.6 billion yen (new allocation).
- (2) Budgets relating to 'securing and development of human resources' as part of small and medium-sized business policy and local economic and industrial policy
 - Projects relating to human resource measures for small and medium-sized

businesses and small-scale businesses : 12.5 billion yen.

- Projects for manufacturing-related human resources training for small and medium-sized businesses : 380 million yen.
- Projects to give guidance in ensuring appropriate systems of training and technical skill training for overseas nationals : 90 million yen (new allocation).

With a view to implementation of the projects relating to human resource measures for small and medium-sized businesses and small-scale businesses referred to in-(2) above, it has been decided from 2009 to promote 'bridge-building projects' (internships, employment seminars, manufacturing discovery tours, etc.) to link up small and medium-sized businesses and small-scale businesses with the human resources to form their core workforce and human resources to provide them with immediate strategic ability for the future; and 'practically oriented training' (e.g. sector-specific training through partnerships between agriculture, commerce, and manufacturing) to cultivate immediate strategic ability. The target for the former scheme is to find employment for 15,000 people each year, while the target for the latter is 10,000 people. A background issue in this is the creation of innovative human resources, which is an important issue for the business survival of small and medium-sized businesses and small-scale businesses amid the worsening operating conditions caused by the worldwide recession. In connection, White Paper on Small and Medium-sized Businesses (2009) establishes the importance for the cultivation of innovative human resources of ensuring the appropriate transmission of technical skills and abilities and also, in order to inspire ideas that lead to innovation. Of carrying out initiatives to activate abilities through participation in study and training courses and other contacts with external knowledge and information.

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[Recommendations]

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

In 'the ten lost years' which followed the collapse of Japan's economic bubble in 1991, companies sought to cut costs by restructuring and postponing recruitment of regular employees, shifting instead to recruitment of non-regular employees, and at the same time undertook cuts in education and other expenditure. As mentioned above, this situation has been a breeding ground for the appearance within companies of marked inequalities in educational opportunities between non-regular and regular employees. The problem of inequalities in educational opportunities has also appeared among regular employees themselves, for instance between generations of employees, between employees taken on during the yearly recruitment season and those taken on at other times of the year, and between those participating in selective training and non-participants. Meanwhile, although the government has declared a goal of having women occupy 30% of all managerial positions by the year 2020, the problem of gender inequality in educational opportunity remains stubbornly entrenched in the workplace of today. Although the economic situation in Japan began to recover in 2002, the world financial crisis of the latter half of 2008 has had a serious impact on the real economy, and the resulting present worsening situation of companies has led to budget cuts and a consequent reduction in educational opportunities.

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

2. Integrated promotion of ability development in coordination with ESD

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(written and translated by NOGUCHI Yukiko [IRU Human Capital Development
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- 7 *the Monthly Journal Social Education*

First issued in December 1958.

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Around 1956, the editor of the journal "Social Education", which was published by the National Federation of Social Education (the previous title is "Education and Society", started in 1946) with support of the government, had suffered strong control about the content of the journal by the Ministry of Education. The editor could not keep the journal as a vehicle for free discussion any more. Therefore, the editor with some researchers and some social education staff came together and started to publish a new journal as a trade edition in order to serve as a place for free discussion about social education including adult education apart from the government and other powers. It is the funding story of this journal. The specific title for the first issue was "Seeking for the unshakable direction".

From then it has been published every month, although they were worried that it might finish with the third issue. Some readers wrote for the hundredth issue, 'this journal has clear will to create popular practices of social education indigenous to Japan', 'it is a journal that can be edited only through the union of voluntary power in every part of this country', 'According to it, we can feel we have a lot of friends with whom we want to talk about Social Education for people without reserve. It serves as such connection'. These messages tell us the characteristic of this journal from the first stage.

This journal has been edited by the editorial board that is constituted by a voluntary members of a chief editor who changes in two years, researchers, staff in social education field and so on. From 1980s, we have taken the editing system of small groups. We make some small groups within the editorial board and each group take part a editing work of some issue. We pay a little fee to only one person for layout work and others engage in editing with no paid fee.

We have widen the topics to pick up to variety fields of life and tried to focus on learning processes and the practices to support them especially during recent years (about twenty years. By doing so, we have developed the discourses on Social Education including Adult Education. But the number of sale is not going up. It is now about 3000. So we have to get more readers not only for the purpose itself of it but also for continuing to publish it.

We introduce the special title of each issue from 1997 to 2008

(the words after “, is the second title of same issue).

in 1997 Jan.: How to read the report by the Council of Lifelong Learning? / Feb.: Partnership between children and adults / Mar.: Where the decentralization goes to? Realizing decentralization and Social Education / Apr.: Introduction of Lifelong Learning Creating learning / May: Entertainments their merits and demerits / June: the Constitution and learning / July: The 50th year after enactment of the Fundamental Law of Education / Aug.: Let's do Peace Learning actively!, the 500th anniversary issue / Sep. How about the movements of making welfare towns, now , Organizations of Social Education Staff / Oct.: The kaleidoscope of sports , The fifth International Conference of Adult Education (CONFINTEA) / Nov.: Learning by foreigner residents , Paulo Freire / Dec.: Expanding of human rights education, Analyzing demerits of the revision of law (Social Education Law)

in 2008 Jan.: Creating the Social Education of the 21st century - the 50th year anniversary issue from the start / Feb.: The potentiality of education boards - the freedom and autonomy of learning / Mar.: Addressing “the late term of old ages” / Apr.: Introduction of Social Education - power to create practices , Inspecting the revision (draft) of Social Education Law / May: Young people tackling the work and poverty problems / June: the Constitution changing the situation of now / July: Learning to expand the power of connection / Aug.: Create the future with learning about past Creation Peace Learning / Sep.: Kominkan that cultivate both autonomy and participation / Oct.: The life, work and learning of the disabled persons / Nov. : Discovering PTA, Learning from *The History of Kominkan Activities in Nagano Prefecture* / Dec.: The place and people never to be forgotten looking for the water vein of learning

And we have carried articles about CONFINTEA every time from third conference in Tokyo and the space for it has been widen. We carried *the Declaration of the Right to Learn* (Paris 1985) and *the Hamburg Declaration on Adult Learning* (Hamburg 1997) - both of them we translated into Japanese - , and we also carried the report about the Mid-tem Meeting of CONFINTEA (Bangkok 2003). About CONFINTEA , we have already carried the serialization articles on the issues of Oct. 2008, Feb.2009, and May 2009. More over we plan to have special part on CONFINTEA on Sep. 2009 issue after it.

(written and translated by Yoko ARAI)

- 8 Present Situation and Problems

on Education for Migrant Workers and

Ethnic Minorities in Japan

1. Diversification of culture, language and ethnicity

1.1. New tendency from the 1980s

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

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

1.2. The present situation of migrant workers

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

Fig.1 Foreign Residents

Japanese colonial occupation in the Second World War.

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

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

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

1.3. The present situation of the Ainu

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

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

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

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

Fig. 2 Next stage of education and living conditions

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

* in the cities where the Ainu people live

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

2. Present situation of the legal system and governmental policies

2.1. Policies on the migrant workers

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

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

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

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

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

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

2.2. The policies for ethnic minorities

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

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

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

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

3. Expansion of the movement in the civil society

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

4. Public assurance of the access to learn Japanese language

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

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

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

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

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

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

5. Assurance of ethnic education

succession of culture and language, and ethnic school

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

Although the Korean people in Japan have been disadvantaged because of

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

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

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

[Recommendations]

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

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

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- 10 The guarantee of the right for compulsory education

for the uneducated: Current Situation and Issues

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

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

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

2. Current Quantitative Status of

Illiterate People and People Who Have Not Completed Compulsory Education

2.1 Report of the year 2000 census by the Japanese Government

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

school career

NO. (%)

Did not enter elementary school / dropped out of elementary school

158,891 (0.1%)

Graduated from elementary school or junior high school

23,807,854 (22.0%)

Graduated from senior high school, etc.

45,024,501 (41.6%)

Graduated from junior college or university, etc.

26,574,891 (24.6%)

Attend school at present

88,450,172 (8.2%)

The Number of those who did not enter school ,which means the illiterate people, in the present census was 158.891 0.1% .The number of those who did not finish their compulsory education (number of those who did not finish junior high school) is not

known.

2.2. Opinion of government concerning number

of those who did not finish compulsory education

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

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

estimated by the people concerned with evening junior high school

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

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

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

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

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

3. Current Difficult Situation

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

3.1. Intensely sorrowful voices

of illiterate people and people who did not finish compulsory education

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

Man (65), Wakayama prefecture (deceased)

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

Woman (73), Hokkaido prefecture

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

Woman (57), Saitama prefecture

When she went to her child's PTA (Parent-Teacher Association) meetings, she could not take part in the topic and she could not speak a single word. When she went to the

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

Woman (57), Fukuoka prefecture

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

Man (65), Wakayama prefecture

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

discriminated against by others many times because I couldn't read at all.

Woman (22), didn't go to school

I was thinking that I wanted to go to school and study again before I would die. But the Ministry of Education told me that there is no junior high school night-course in Saitama while there are 8 schools in Tokyo. People who live in Tokyo or work in Tokyo can go to these schools. I was living in Saitama prefecture. I couldn't stop my tears after hanging up the phone.

Woman (born in 1939), Okinawa prefecture

I was born on the small island of Okinawa. My father died in a blast during the last war. My mother and elder sister were working away from home to earn money for my younger brother because he was sick. I went to an elementary school for two years, although I was absent from school many days. After that I had been working very hard such as house work, working on a farm, taking care of my brothers. From the 3rd year I couldn't go to school at all. I have had so many difficulties so far. I can't do anything by myself. I couldn't find a good job. Even though I could get a job, it was very low income. So I just could buy daily food and get a place to sleep. I always have to rely on someone when I go to the public office and a bank because I can't read and write the documents and papers. It is impossible to teach reading and writing to my children. I only take charge of the tasks that don't require reading and writing in the PTA and women's associations. I was looked down on by my classmates because I can't read and write. I can't live on my own. I can't express myself at all.

4..Document of the Opinions of The Japanese Lawyers' Union to the Nation of Japan

4.1. Document reflecting the opinions of the Japanese Lawyers' Union concerning the obstacles to the rights to an education of people who have not been able to complete compulsory education within the specified time frame

On February 20, 2003, 282 petitioners, such as those who have not been able to complete compulsory education, and all parties concerned in Independent Evening Junior High Schools and Public Evening Junior High Schools and so on, pleaded for the establishment of Public Evening Junior High Schools, in all parts of the country, to The Japanese Lawyers' Union as a human right for securing an education.

The Japanese Lawyers' Union received the petition and widely surveyed the opinions of all parties in the petition and examined the submitted documents. They then submitted the "Document of Opinions" concerning the securing of the right to receive an education of the people who were not able to study when they were school aged.

The Document is based on the next six points.

1. Those who have not finished the compulsory education have the right to demand the opportunity for education regardless of their ages.
2. The country should promptly conduct a nationwide investigation of the actual conditions about those who have not finished compulsory education.
3. The country should do guidance, advice, and financial support, etc. to the local governments based on an investigation of actual conditions for the evening junior high school installation.
4. The country should carry out various means for the substantial security of the right to receive a general education (compulsory education), namely the use of the facilities of an existing elementary school, a junior high school, a school for the blind or for the deaf, and the school for physically and mentally, disabled children as well as an offer of facilities and financial support for independent evening junior high schools, and individual teachers).
5. It is necessary to secure education regardless of the nationality based on various agreements and the UNESCO study on right declarations, etc.
6. It is necessary to secure the right to have education for the people of the next five categories - middle aged, handicapped people, Chinese returnees, Korean residents, and immigrants over age 15 (so-called newcomer foreigners), individually and concretely.

5. Response of government

5.1. Contribution to the world but lack of domestic contribution

The government hasn't changed its basic policy, even after receiving the Document of Opinions of the the Japanese Lawyers' Union.

After the submission of the Document, two Diet members made two proposals in the Diet. One was, "From the next census, making the question items separate to turn out the number of those who haven't finished the compulsory education" the other was, "Making an administrative guidance to the local governments." However both proposals got negative or passive answers. For three years, from 2003 through 2005, the Japanese ODA aid amount (3 billion 68 million dollars) to the under-developed nations in the educational area was number 2 in the world after France. However, the domestic aid for educational security to those who haven't finished compulsory education, declared to be about 700,000 people, is surprisingly small.

5.2. The leadership of the country limited to reformatory and prison

Youth Reformatory

The Kurihama Reformatory in Kanagawa Prefecture is the only reformatory in 52

places in the whole country which has an "International Department", and is a correction institution provided with a dormitory only for foreigners, Boys judged to be in the category of "Japanese guidance is specially required for the rehabilitation into society" have been sent here from the whole country. In the International Department, there are a lot of children of Japanese descent who came from South America, etc., as migrant workers. At the foreigner collective city housing conference that is composed of 26 cities where a lot of Japanese descendants from South America live, the "Yokkaichi declaration" was put out on November 21, 2006. It demanded the opportunity to return to studying while working, or the establishment of the "Evening Junior High School " for people who are over the compulsory education age.

Prison

In the Matsumoto Prison, there is a junior high school. This is the only public junior high school in a prison or rehabilitation facilities, in Japan. The prisoners who have not finished compulsory education study at this school. According to the background in which it was established, it was found that because of fewer opportunities for education, people commit crimes. So having a school is useful to rehabilitate them. To enter this school, any ages are okay, even 50 or 60 years old. Even a prisoner who is in another prison, can temporarily move into the Matsumoto Prison to enter this school.

These are valuable things that the reformatory and the prison mentioned above are doing as organizations of the government (the Ministry of Justice). It is very regrettable that there are only these schools wherein compulsory education and literacy education for adults is being led by the national government.

[Recommendations] Proposal for the future

"Compulsory education for all the people. The 21st century plan." Only 35 public evening junior high schools are in eight prefectures in Japan. So students who want to enter these schools have to move or spend a long time commuting to school. Most of the people give up because they have to make such a long journey to come to school everyday. There is only one type of "school" that makes studying convenient for the student so they can graduate without physically attending school. Previously called correspondence courses, nowadays it is called distance learning. For that they have to receive their textbooks from the school itself by post and at the time of examination, they can send their test papers through the post, but this type of system is not so common in Japan. So till now there is only one school in Japan which has adopted this system. But the main problem to get a certificate of graduation by this system is that one who wants to study by this method should be living or working in Tokyo, because there is only one of this type of school and it is in Tokyo. That means outsiders cannot get admission in this school by anyway.

In addition, there are 20 volunteer evening junior high schools in Japan, but the problem is that these types of schools are not getting enough government support. Based on this situation, the Nationwide Public Evening Junior High School Association Conference, of which all evening junior high school teachers and the principals are members, was held in December 2008 and adopted the "Compulsory education for all the people. The 21st century plan."

The plan's main points are as follows.

1. Please inform all of those who did not finish compulsory education because of not knowing about the existence of evening junior high schools that "There is a right to be educated, and there are evening junior high schools for people who need to finish compulsory education."

2."To Establish the public evening junior high school " is requested as an administrative policy.

(1)Establish at least one public evening junior high school in all the administrative divisions and the government-designated major cities.

(2)Establish a public evening junior high school in the municipality where a private evening junior high school that requests to become a public evening junior high school exists.

3."To help private evening junior high schools, etc." is requested as an administrative policy.

The local governments' administrations should carry out the offer of sufficient facilities and financial support, etc. to private evening junior high schools which are providing "educational assurance" to the people who didn't finish compulsory education in place of the administration.

4.We demand the points below as administrative policy: To accept people who didn't finish compulsory education into the existent schools. To expand correspondence courses and distance learning. To promote the dispatching of tutors, etc.

(1)Please accept widely those who did not finish compulsory education at the elementary school, the junior high school, and the special support school, etc.

(2)Execution of a communication system (correspondence, distance, etc.) education in each administrative division

(3)To dispatch tutors for those who did not finish compulsory education and have difficulties to attend school in various places nationwide.

(4)Additionally, all necessary things to ensure compulsory education for all

Regardless of age, nationality, domicile, etc., please take enough leadership to ensure compulsory education to all the people as basic education.

(written by evening Junior High School Society in Japan : Yasutaka Sekimoto)

- 11 Provision of learning opportunities for the elderly

1 . The aging of Japanese population

Japan has a society which is the most rapidly aging and the most aged in the world. According to the government report, as of 2007 the average life span of Japanese males is 79.19 and females 85.99, which ranks second and first respectively in the world. On international comparison, as of 2005, life expectancy at birth for Japanese is 82.3 and longest in the world, while that of USA is 77.9, UK 79.0, China 72.5. As of September 2008, 22.1% of the total population in Japan is 65 years old and over, and 10.3% is 75 years old and over (the so-called 'late elderly' population); this means more than 1 in 5 people is 65 years old or over and 1 in 10 people is 75 years old or over. In Japan the elderly has grown to show an unneglectable presence in a society in general and also in adult education.

1.1. A rapid progress of the aging of the Japanese society

Table 1 shows the ratio of the elderly and in average life span in Japan over some 50 years. From this it is recognizable that Japanese society has been aging remarkably fast: in Japan it took only 26 years for the ratio of the elderly population (persons 65 years old and over) to double, from 7% in 1970 to 14% in the mid 1990, while 75 years were necessary for the similar change to happen in USA, 45 years in UK and 130 years in France. The Japanese government expects this speed of aging will not pace down: the percentage of an age group 65 years old and over is projected to reach 30% about in 2025, and that of an age group 75 years old and over is projected to reach 20% in 2035.

The aging of the population is more advanced in cities remote from the metropolitan areas: in Kyushu, Shikoku, San-in and Tohoku areas, people aged 65 or older marks over 25% of the total population in all the prefectures. Nevertheless, the aging of the population is now a common phenomenon found everywhere in Japan; prefectures where people aged 65 or older represent less than 15% of the total population do not exist any more. In recent years, even in big cities and their suburbs, which are previously said to enjoy a higher ratio of young generations, several districts has emerged where the aging of the population went remarkably fast, such as in New Towns in Tama (Tokyo) and Senri (Osaka). These New Towns were developed around in the 1960s as new residential areas designed for so-called 'new families' (nuclear families which consist of couple who were born and raised in the consumer-oriented society of post-WWII Japan and their children), hence have mainly residents of a relatively similar age-band; now a large part of them are entering old ages simultaneously.

Table 1

year	1955	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2008
Percentage of persons 65 years old and over	5.3	5.7	6.3	7.1	7.9	9.1	10.3	12.0	14.5	17.3	20.1	22.1
Percentage of persons 75 years old and over	1.6	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.5	3.1	3.9	4.8	5.7	7.1	9.1	10.3
Average life span (male)	63.6		67.7		71.7		74.8		76.4		78.6	79.2
Average life span (female)	67.8		72.9		76.9		80.5		82.9		85.5	86.0

Main source: Cabinet Office of the Japanese Government, *White paper on the aging society* (fiscal year 2008)

1.2. Factors of the aging of the Japanese society

There are two main factors which propels the aging of the Japanese society. One is a continuous extension of life expectancy, thanks to the development of medical technology etc., and the other is the decline of birth rate. The average number of children that one woman is expected to give birth to in her life decreased from 4.54 in 1947 (two years after the end of the World War II) to 2.13 in 1970, almost reaching 2.09, the very number of children thought just enough to maintain the same population, and it then further dropped to 1.26 in 2005; while it slightly increased to 1.32 in 2006, the overall trend toward lower birth rate is unchanged. Japan has entered the period of shrinking population --- in this context the aging of the society is often talked about in Japan as correlated with a falling birth rate, as issues of 'the society of a declining birthrate and with an aging population'.

During the past few years, the first baby-boom generation in Japan (those born in 1947-49), frequently referred to as 'Dankai generation' (literally meaning a generation 'of a lump') flowed in their sixties, contributing greatly to the recent increase in the total number of old people. For companies this meant that a large amount of workers would become retired every year, and there was a worry that accumulated expertise and technical skills of those workers may not successfully be passed down onto younger generations before their retirement (so-called 'the 2007 problem').

It is interesting to see if the people of the 'Dankai generation' are going to make any changes to the conventional image of old people in Japan, in terms of lifestyles, consciousness, learning needs and so on: they were born after the World War II and the first to receive post-war 'democratic' education; they have experienced campus disputes and created various subcultures; they are said to become the first old generation who have no difficulties in using computers.

2. Overview of the policy and practice regarding education of the elderly

2.1. From the 1950s to the 1980s

While a few practices of education for the elderly, such as 'elderly clubs' (called Roujin Clubs in Japanese) and Rakusei Gakuen in Ina city, Nagano prefecture, which is said to be the first community-based adult education classes for the elderly (called Roujin Gakkyu in Japanese), appeared in the 1950s, they were provided in a framework of social welfare and it was in the mid 1960s when education of the elderly was included in the policy of the national government. From 1965 to 1970, the Ministry of Education commissioned, on trial bases, some municipal governments to offer adult education courses for the elderly by funding the program, and in 1973 went on to levy such courses offered by any municipal governments. In the 1960s and 1970s, local governments' sections in charge of welfare also set up places specifically designed for the elderly people's gathering, recreation and learning activities for elderly nationwide, such as 'centers for the welfare of old people' (Roujin Fukushi center) and 'houses for the recreation and relaxation of old people' (Roujin Ikoino Ie). Adult education courses for the elderly became flourishing at Kominkan, welfare centers and other public facilities in local communities, under such titles as 'Koureisha Kyoushitsu / Koureisha Gakkyuu' (which means 'classes for the elderly') and 'Roujin Daigaku' (which literally means 'colleges for old people' and in many cases have a relatively long-term curriculum lasting for a year or two).

2.2. From the 1990s on: recent trends

Against the background of this community-based adult education provision for the elderly, the 1990s saw the establishment of many prefecture-based educational institutions for the elderly, which are more oriented to school education so to speak and aim to offer higher-level, systematic knowledge and nurture citizens capable of contributing to local communities through their various activities. Already in 1969, Hyougo Prefecture's Inamino Gakuen (meaning 'Inamino school'), a pioneer institution in this field, was established in the ex-site of Prefectural Junior College of Agriculture in Kakogawa city, Hyougo Prefecture: it was started as a one-year college for old people, then later expanded its curriculum to four years and further set up a two-year graduate school and a college for old people via broadcasting.

The Ministry of Education started in 1989 to subsidize prefectures' establishment of Chouju Gakuen (literacy meaning 'longevity school', sometimes also titled 'Great

Academy') for the elderly. The opening and running of wide-area, prefecture-based colleges for old people was also promoted within the administrative framework of welfare, for example, through Akarui Chouju Shakai Suishin Kikou (meaning 'the organization for promoting a bright society with longevity'), which was set up in every prefecture in 1990 following the government's 'ten-year strategy to promote health care and welfare for the aged' (commonly referred to as the 'Gold Plan'). Many colleges which were started under the name of 'Roujin Daigaku' (colleges of old people) have recently changed their title to 'senior college' or 'Koureisha Daigaku' (colleges for the people of a high age), avoiding the term 'Roujin' (old people).

While many programs and events related to the elderly were carried out nationwide in years around the International Year of Older Persons (1999), the following decade has seen some setback in prefecture-funded Chouju Gakuen or Roujin Daigaku, with the lasting economic recession and re-examination of administrative structure and public spending as a background: some colleges were made to scale down or restructure, some other were shut down in a rhetoric of devolution or introducing the vitality of the private sector. To take one example, Osaka prefecture's colleges for old people, administrated by the elderly care section in the department of health and welfare of Osaka prefecture as a part of its program for preventing long-term care and recruiting about 1,500 students every year, was scaled down in the fiscal year of 2007; in the fiscal year of 2009, it is planned to be shut down in spite of its popularity for the reason of the prefecture's financial reconstruction.

While the prefectures' withdrawal from running colleges for old people may have its own merit --- programs/forms of education for old adults may be more imaginatively explored by other organizations or institutions (e.g. universities, NPOs), there are critical voices about this decline of public responsibility in the current society where the population of the elderly is increasing and societal securement of old people's rights to learn is ever more important. There is also a trend that a prefecture-funded, large-area college of old people is abolished and its function is taken over by municipalities' adult education courses for old peoples; this move however, tends to be steered as a part of administrative and financial reforms or in a logic of efficiency, rather than for the sake of educational merits or purposes.

Among large-area colleges for old people which continue to provide education to this date, two examples are famous; one is Hyougo Prefecture's Inamino Gakuen (it is run by Hyougo Prefecture's Koureisha Ikigai Souzou Kyoukai), the other is Yamanashi Kotobuki Kangakuin (it has taken over Chouju Gakuen programs funded by the Ministry's Education in the 1990s and is now providing courses under the administration of social education division of Yamanashi Prefecture). They are both large-scale educational institutions (as mentioned above) and offer courses for the prefecture's residents who are 60 or over. Hyougo Prefecture's Inamino Gakuen currently has; a four-year course at the college for old people, having an enrollment of 1,856 in 2008; a two-year course for training leaders of community activities, having

an enrollment of 163; a graduate school, having an enrollment of 97; and Hyougo Prefecture's college for old people via broadcasting, having an enrollment of 3,033. The average age of the students is 66. Yamanashi Kotobuki Kangakuin is a two-year senior college with nine campuses in the prefecture and the curriculum is organized under five themes, that is, 'to live in an aged society', 'to study about our home prefecture Yamanashi', 'to look deep inside of Japanese tradition', 'to grasp the currents of this time', 'to develop local communities'.

In recent years other organizations or institutions are also getting more involved in providing learning opportunities for the elderly, including NPOs such as Elderhostel and higher education institutions. While OIJ, universities' open lectures and centers for lifelong learning have many students who are middle-aged or old, recently there is a trend for universities to develop new programs targeting particularly people of so-called 'senior' generations (meaning roughly 50 years old or older in Japanese), against the background of a declining birth rate and the deregulation of rules regarding running universities. For instance, Tokyo Keizai University has made postgraduate education open, targeting people in the 50s-70s: it started in 2002 a system of 'Senior Kenkyuusei', which is for accepting middle-aged or old people who are not pursuing degrees but wish to participate in programs at a postgraduate level, and in 2007 ' "senior" postgraduate school', an alternative path to earn postgraduate degrees which is designed to meet various needs of middle-aged or old learners.

Iwate University opened 'Iwate University Senior College' for people of 50 years old or over in 2007, together with a company named Japan Travel Bureau (JTB). The courses of this college mainly aim at deepening knowledge into the nature, history and culture of local areas and include some fieldwork activities. They are offered in a cooperative relationship with local museums or governments. Now 'senior colleges' of the similar kind are also run by other universities, such as Hirosaki University, Shinshu University, Gifu University and Yamaguchi University. Rikkyo University set up 'Rikkyo "second stage" university' in 2008, which are mainly for senior generations; it aims to offer a curriculum for 'learning and challenging again' based on liberal arts, which consists of three groups of subjects, namely, 'liberal arts for the aging society', 'designing communities and doing business', and 'designing the second stage of a life'

3. Issues regarding the provision of learning opportunities for elderly people

It is important to acknowledge the fact that elderly people as adult learners are diverse in physical and intellectual abilities, prior experiences, interests and needs of learning, problems confronted in their current living and so on. While oversimplification should be avoided, 'pre-elderly' people (aged 50-64), for example, are expected to have interest in preparing for the life after retirement; people in the late elderly would probably require attention from social welfare or medical/nursing care, and for them health education and learning opportunities to stay fit as long as possible

(such as those provided nationwide in recent years in relation with the nursing-care insurance system), or learning to make the most of current physical abilities at special nursing homes or daycare centers should be promoted; on the other hand for those elderly people who are relatively healthy and can live actively without nursing care (they are said to reach 85% of the total elderly population) learning opportunities should be enriched such as classes at Kominkan and lifelong learning centers, education at University of the Third Age (U3A) and 'senior colleges', social events to do some activities together with other age groups, and educational travel (e.g. Elderhostel).

In addition, it should be stressed that elderly people can make progress in intellectual/spiritual growth or achieve a transformative change of the self, as well as acquiring new knowledge and skills or enjoying to apply them in practical or social activities; this perspective seems to be in need particularly today, as learning opportunities for elderly people are very often provided in the framework of welfare work or medical/nursing care and elderly learners can be easily treated as objects or passive receivers of such professional service. On the other hand, in philosophies and practices of social education there is a tradition to see learners as subjects and the task of education as to empower learners to become the originator of their own lives and communities. From this viewpoint elderly people should also be guaranteed, for instance, the learning of knowledge and skills necessary for becoming or staying an active citizen who participates in building a society; commonplace learning opportunities such as classes of PC/internet skills or of liberal education could be served for this purpose if they are designed not solely for skill/knowledge development or personal enjoyment but also for the nourishment of citizenship (e.g. learning to gain media literacy and to utilize IT skills to fully participate in civic activities or learning to develop the attitude to solve current social problems cooperatively with other fellow citizens. Indeed, the old age may be thought as a good time for active involvement in a society, as the elderly has knowledge, skills and experiences accumulated in previous life and much free time at hand after retirement. At any rate it is important for us to ask ourselves a fundamental question, what kind of learning should be promoted for the elderly, for what purpose.

[Recommendations]

The increase in the elderly population in Japan and the ideal of a lifelong learning society put together calls for the clear government policies on learning opportunities for the elderly within the framework of education policy, so that elderly people's right to learning is guaranteed with abundant opportunities of meaningful learning. It is also necessary to investigate the factors which prevent elderly people from participating in learning (such issues as poverty in the elder years and insufficient social welfare which makes elderly people to take care of their old parents or spouses on their own at home, should be explored), and then to take appropriate measures to

redress the problems.

In helping the learning activities of elderly people, it is important to recognize their diversity as learners: an 'elderly age' can span some 40 years and elderly learners vary in prior experiences, interests and needs; also, the situations in which they are living are often very different according to their gender, social class, and educational background etc.

Many learning opportunities for the elderly are currently planned and provided within welfare work without any involvement of education staff. Social education's rich reservoir of philosophy and practical knowledge about assisting adult learning has much to offer in this field and should be tapped into.

(original chapter in Japanese written by the Committee on International Affairs,
JSSACE / translated by TOKIWA-FUSE Miho, JSSACE)

*In this chapter Japanese names are spelled in the original East Asian order, in which the family-name comes first.

II - 12 Japanese Adult Education for Peace

Alternatively, Japanese Peace Education conducts for issues of domestic violences, school violences, and foreign residences in Japan. But activities for war issues are our main focus. The reason is that (1) the military expansions of Japanese Self-Defense Forces are moving through by the expansion of military demands by the US and domestic political influences despite Japanese Constitution Article 9 which defines unarmed and renunciation of war. Political movements leading toward the aggressive war country by amending the Constitution article 9 are currently going on, (2) There are many US military bases in Japan and its functions are upgrading and expanding year by year. Tens of thousands in Tokyo metropolitan districts with 30 million residences could die from the radioactive injuries, if the US nuclear fleets had an accident. Again, the responsibilities of the complicit of Japan toward the Iraq war and so forth are questioning, and the learnings of US base issues spread in certain districts as the movements of the anti-US military bases expand.(3) Japanese responsibilities of Asia-Pacific War between 1931 and 1945 ,especially to Chinese, Korean, North Korean, have not been inexpressed. Our peace activities include the issues of Japanese military sex slaves, the suffering of foreign people in Hiroshima and Nagasaki, foreign dead people by wartime forced workers.

1. Learning for the Elimination of Nuclear Weapons

Japanese peace movements had been developed after the execution of US H-bomb test in 1954. Adult education activities for peace also have been carried out widely since then. The main purpose of this activities is to know about the facts of Hiroshima & Nagasaki damages. Listening to the testimony and attending to the photo exhibitions of Hibakusha had been carried out in cities and towns across-the-country and these activities have continued even today. The importance of nuclear disarmament is increasing at the present, and the significance of this activities is also growing.

2. The Redefine of Learning of War Experiences and Understanding of History

Since 1980th , Japanese started looking at the truth of perpetrators of Japanese military as well as Japanese victims during the Asia-Pacific War (1931-1945). The reason is that Japanese had to weight to other Asian countries. Because of this, Japanese military sex slaves and the contents of Japanese school textbooks became social issues. The movements of many-sided learnings on war experiences, damages, perpetrations, Japanese resistances, and national cooperative implicates to the US have spread out.

3. War Monuments Conservation Movements and Museums for Peace

The civic movements, researches and studies for conservation of war monuments for learning on war have spread out across-the-country. Again, the movements of constructions of Peace Museums have continued until now and its number became over 60 at present. This number became top and totally different all over the world. Peace museums are the place for resource corrections, for researches and developments of cooperations, and for displays for peace and to learn about peace for adults and children in any time, and its significances for peace education are quite large.

4. The Learning Movements for Japanese Constitution

In Japan, today, the learning movements associated with today's war and Japanese future as well as the Asia-Pacific War have been deployed. In Japan, the political movements of amendment of the Constitution which try to change Japanese Self Defense Force into military force for the purpose to dispatch troops abroad and to use force have been built up by Japanese conservative party. For the resistance of these movements, "Japanese Association for Article 9" was off the ground in 2004, and by this association, more than 7,000 of its local and specialized field's gropes have been established only within years. These created the places of learning of Japanese Constitution to learn the significance of Japanese Constitution. Again, the importance of learning to consider about the relations of structural violence, verbalization, poverty, environment, and human-rights suppression were recognized.

5. Local Government and Adult Education for Peace

The local governments of declaration of nuclear weapon free or non nuclear weapon exceeded 80% which means more than 2000 units. However, local governments which positively exert efforts for abolishment of nuclear weapons are currently 244. On the other hand, peace education in school are strongly restricted. In such situation, many of Japanese adult education for peace depend on civilian NGO activities. Local governments supports peace museums and citizen lectures for peace by only portion of its budget. We must do something about the expansion of public supports using of all necessary measures.

{ Recommendations }

1. We will carry out actual condition survey in public about Japanese military sex slaves, the issues of the suffering of foreign people in Hiroshima and Nagasaki,

domestic enforced labor during Asia-Pacific War (1931-1945), and hand down these issues to posterity and come out with enforcements of policy so as not to repeat themselves. this is the education for reconciliation.

2. We will deepen our understanding of the reality of A-bomb in Hiroshima & Nagasaki and actual conditions of A-bomb survivors and positively carry out the learning for the elimination of nuclear weapons. In order to conjugate these activities with world activities, we will contribute to enforce the education for the general and complete disarmament of nuclear weapons in the world.

3. We will spread Japanese peace activities to the world. Again, we will make an attempt to expand the supports of Japanese local governments.

4. We will propellant the educations for human rights and democracy to deal with current issues such as human rights, environments, developments, and peace. We will attend especially education for the Culture of Peace established by U.N. in 1999 and promoted by UNESCO and carry out the developments of civil education programs obtaining cooperation of related structures.

5. We will develop the declaration of nuclear weapon free policy of local governments in order to create autonomous and local peace policies and constitute peace municipal regulations, and establish structure to propellant and ,as a part of that, support human rights and peace leaning programs with a central focus on the studies of the Constitution in many places such as schools, local governments, enterprises and so on.

(written and translated by JAPSE: Hideo Fujita, Yasunori Tanioka

II - 13 Health Education Trends

Because health is one of the most basic human issues, health education has been designated as a key component of administrative policy. However the role of education as part of administrative policy, and of health education in the context of social education have not been closely connected in the current system, which is characterized by a lack of coordination among ministries and agencies in carrying out governmental obligations and policies.

There are great discrepancies between policy based on the purpose and the aim of the administration, and learning based on unrestricted ideas related to local residents' demand for learning. In this paper, the author attaches greater importance to independent projects such as working for better health. Furthermore, the author inquires into the current state of health education.

1. Recent Developments in Health Policy in Japan

1.1 Prevention of lifestyle-related illnesses— Contradictions in development under administrative guidance

Since 2000, the Government has initiated forward-looking policies that focus on the prevention of lifestyle-related illnesses on the municipal level. “Healthy Japan 21” was launched as a national movement in 2000, at which time the Government requested the municipalities to devise and implement plans to handle lifestyle-related illnesses. Though local governments emphasized the participation of residents in these projects, such participation turned out to be mere formality. The local governments acted in contradiction to the concept of self-government.

Various government policies based in the bureaucratic approach have resulted in a top-down style that does not allow for meaningful discussions with residents. Municipal government staff fails to understand the significance frank talks with local residents. They simply accept policy and inform residents of said policies as a matter of course. Furthermore, the person chosen to represent the people did not oppose the head faction.

The local government administration assesses residents' health condition by compiling the results of health examinations and death rates in the administrative position. The government then sets up a practical plan, submits it in meetings with residents, requests residents to pose questions and opinions, and then decides upon a plan.

1.2 Enactment of the Health Promotion Law (2002) - Emphasis on Self-Responsibility and the Retreat of Public Support

The Japanese government enacted the Health Promotion Law (2002) for the purpose of a thorough prevention of lifestyle-related illnesses, since then proclaiming these to be the individual responsibility of residents.

As stated in Article 2 of the Health Promotion Law, each of us needs to be aware of the state of our own health, and to strive to promote good health. As such, this law emphasizes self-responsibility on the issue of health. Furthermore, the public role of Health Education explained in Article 3, as well as improvement of staff initiatives, is required. This Law provides various activities not only by the administration but by nongovernment entities as well. In other words, this represents a shift from the government to nongovernment (the insured). The retreat of public support is believed to stem from this move toward greater responsibility.

To give some concrete examples, the government established its Health Frontier Strategy (2004), Health Exam Basic Guidelines (2004), Fundamental Food Education Law” (2005), and also launched medical system reforms from 2008. This type of government activity lends support to the top-down approach, and the result has been that the government has lost touch with the self-governing initiatives of the people.

The Government set forth measures to stabilize the insurance system (National Health Insurance and Social Insurance system, etc.), with the expectation that nongovernment and residents would initiate activities for health promotion. One of the main targets is lifestyle related illnesses. Here medical examinations designed to assess the patient’s state of health is valued highly. In addition, the Government cites Target-Specific Health Examinations and Target-Specific Health Guidance as an initiative focused on the 40-74 age groups. Moreover, they attempt to indicate the details of their action, and thereby to reach the targeted value. Such preventive measures are based on the concept of reducing medical expenses and shifting fiscal resources to stabilize the insurance system.

This activity is aimed at reducing medical expenses by preventing disease, instead of emphasizing each individual’s efforts at health promotion. These conditions have brought about the discrepancy between government projects and the concept that emphasizes independent studies on health. Such measures address only the immediate issues and not the root of the problem, Therefore, decisions derived from the Assessment/Establishment of Goal Efficient/Evaluation addresses only temporary issues. The tendency toward random action and evaluations had served to destroy cooperative interpersonal relationships in various fields. Present circumstances require that we take independent action to clarify the root of the problems of health deterioration and to share these issues with others.

2. Attention to Independent Activities of Residents

Concepts such as local autonomy and the power of local governing bodies are expected in administrative reform. However, here cooperation is emphasized from the beginning. On the administrative side, community building does not tend to stem from administrative encouraging of self-governance.

2-1. Two aspects of resident independence

The movement toward a concrete ideal on the issue of health requires that residents be conscious of their own health issues and medical exam results. Such interest, however, has faded. The current situation requires that public health nurses and dieticians support residents' self-study on health.

Second is the movement toward systematic understanding of a variety of current health problems and elements on lifestyle habits, as well as activities designed to criticize government policy and encourage thinking about one's own health problems. Here, we need to reaffirm the meaning of Public Health (Article 25 of the constitution) before it becomes obsolete. The latter concept tends to agree with the aspect of the Ottawa Charter. (This Charter was published during the following year of "Health Promotion" (1986). The Declaration of the Right to Learn" (1985)) that WHO specifies positive understanding of the concept of Health Education derived from Country health studies.

2.1.1 Reconsidering Health Education

Regarding the first issue, we need to address independent activities on health. Specifically, the concept of Health Education needs to be reexamined. The general understanding on Health Education was once considered "guidance" concerning the method of health care and health building.

Comprehending the health of both mind and body is the key component here. Since it is difficult to understand and judge the condition of our own bodies, we depend on medical specialists. As a result, Health Education has become characterized by dependency. This has led to the belief that self management means faithfully following a specialist.

Self responsibility is emphasized despite the fact that it is impossible for us be aware of our physical condition, except by judging by the symptom and feelings, without changing residents' views on health.

Primary prevention is considered a matter of course. However, we cannot adopt these concepts completely if we cannot grasp what we should do what is important for us. It can be said that currently the key issue is to approach greater awareness.

What is needed now is to address issues from the standpoint of residents. In this context, we need to initiate forward-looking proposals and related Social Education

policy.

2.1.2 Synchronization of the individual's grasp of health and learning: a proposal from the aspect of social education -

It is critical nowadays that we recollect the WHO's fundamental concept/definition (1946) on health, which states "Health is not only a disease-free condition but also a stable condition from mental and social perspectives." At present in Japan there is a need to re-establish this definition as a starting point on the issue of health.

In addition, we need to re-affirm the right to live a more human life, as in Article 25 of the Constitution, and to public health administration as our starting point. Based on these considerations, it is critical to consider an ideal way of a way of life and a natural social environment. Additionally, a good base from which to take action should be developed.

Naturally, we need to break with the idea of Health Education, which was based on the idea of disease in the past, and to establish learning about health as the basis of independent action.

Lifestyle diseases such as stroke, heart apoplexy, and diabetes are put in the category of damage to blood vessels. Therefore, the lifestyle disease is diseases of the blood vessels. To prevent this type of disease, then, we need to consider how to protect the blood vessels. So what are blood vessels? Many residents do not understand the issue to the previous system of Health Education supported pain treatment.

However, some fundamental questions are not easily answered, such as "What is the blood from the blood vessel?", "What role does the blood have?", and "How does blood flow in the body?" In studying our own bodies, we can better grasp the issue of lifestyle management.

The concept of Sanitary Education is not denied here. Education for development of independent study is important, and we need to recognize the concept of Health Education.

2.2 Policy at the Outset

2.2.1 From confirmation to Public Health

A review of public health in the context of people working separate from the government. In the traditional ways of thinking, people have believed that essential things are determined, accomplished, and secured by the government. This concept should be urgently reconsidered by both administrative people and residents. People utilize the power of the private-sector on a personal level, where they can demonstrate their own individual abilities. It is necessary to secure the exercise of individual rights with regard to welfare for people are protected as public health.

2.2.2 Confirmation to Ottawa Charter

Sleep and the life rhythm of food are key to the prevention of the lifestyle disease. The instability of the present Japanese society is leading to the deterioration of state of human health. To achieve the stated goals, the cooperation of all the administration and private sectors is needed. Cooperation occurs through clarifying the reality of peoples' mental and physical state concretely and scientifically, and identifying obstacles.

This is a key issue for all sectors. Here it is necessary to construct social relationships to facilitate health and health education. These ideas are instituted in nationwide public health nursing research meeting, public health societies, etc. It is therefore necessary to recollect the Ottawa Charter (1986) advocated by the WHO and to realize the ideas stated in the Charter.

The Ottawa Charter and Health Promotion (1986)

Preconditions such as resources and social justices for peace, shelter, education, food, income, stable ecosystem, and living a healthy lifestyle.

Guiding principles with regard to various conditions (politically, economically, socially, environment, acting and biologically) .

The ability for the individual to facilitate his or her own health must be sufficiently demonstrated.

Cooperation of all related sections is measured and facilitated.

[Proposals]

1. The general concept of health needs clarification, followed by activities based on clarified health issues and broad-based solutions to problems.
 - Draw a distinct line between central and local government bodies, addressing social problems such as suicide, depression and ill-treatment; devise means of cooperation with residents.
 - Residents devise a substantial learning plan
(Learning under Government leadership does not equate to resident learning).
Joint learning opportunism are a requirement for jobs such as hygienist, dietitian, medical workers, social education staff education, etc.- the securing of opportunities and continuation of learning.
2. Focus is placed in the prevision of lifestyle-related illnesses (Metabolic syndrome prevention). Review health care activity in the region on the whole from the aspect of

public health.

The number of health nurses at the level, along with further training, is crucial. Saddling the private sector with all problems is detrimental to public health.

3. Currently, it is critical that all people strive to attain good health independently, and to work to build the foundations for good health.

4. It is critical to consider how to promote organizational activity in the local community. Isolation of the individual is no fault of the individual under the present situation. We have seen numerous examples of excellent results brought about by individual counseling with a view to mutual understanding in a given region. This negates the uneasiness of isolation. Projects to boost social relationships are required now.

5. The Government should consider the approaches adapted to the current circumstances of various localities, based in a flexible basic framework and subsequent development.

(written by JAPSE : Hirom Matsushita, translated by JSSACE : Asuka Kawano)

II - 14 Literacy education and the learning of Japanese

as a second language:

with particular reference to a recent movement in Osaka

1. Aspects of literacy education in Japan

A phrase like 'literacy rate in Japan is 99.9%' (the percentage could be a little different and may be 99% or 95% for example) is often used and heard in Japanese society. But this prevailed notion of Japan's almost universal literacy is an only ungrounded one because no single nationwide survey on adult literacy has been conducted in Japan in the past 50 years. In reality, those who have difficulty in reading and writing Japanese and require literacy education exist in not so small numbers. In addition, more and more people come to live in Japan from overseas in recent years due to the advance of globalization and need to learn Japanese as a second language.

1.1. Voluntary and grass-roots literacy movements

While the Japanese government has had almost no policy on literacy and adult basic education, voluntary, non-governmental initiatives of active citizens have been the main source of contribution to the development of literacy education in Japan. In the 1960s and 70s, there was a variety of burgeoning literacy education movements. To just mention a few, there was a movement to increase the number of Yakanchuugaku (public evening junior high schools), which are open to youths and adults who have not finished their compulsory education; a literacy class movement for 'Buraku' people (a socially discriminated minority group who are descendants of outcast communities in a feudal rank system), which started from a few local initiatives of school teachers or Buraku Liberation League and then spread nationwide; a literacy class opened in 1978 in Kotobuki town of Yokohama, a district where many poor day laborers lived, and since 1980 had been run by OOSAWA Toshirou (1945-2008); and classes run by Seikyuusha (青丘社) in Kawasaki, a social welfare organization founded in 1973 by a Japanese-educated Korean clergyman LEE In-Ha (1925-2008), which were offered for local first-generation 'Zainichi' Koreans (Korean residents who moved from, or were made to move from, a colonized Korea to Japan before and during World War II and stayed and worked in Japan since then, very often without skills of reading and writing Japanese). There were also other voluntary of activities of literacy education in many places, including those known as Jishu Yakanchuugaku (meaning voluntary Yakanchuugaku, run independently and taught by volunteers), literacy learning circles, and classes offered by churches, civil groups, or Kominkan (community learning

centers). They all provided learning opportunities for adults who lived and worked in Japanese society without sufficient literacy skills. Among the learners there were residents of Buraku communities, first-generation Zainichi Koreans, people with disabilities, members of ethnic minority groups such as Ainu, people from Okinawa islands, Hibakushas (survivors of the atomic-bombing of Hiroshima or Nagasaki); their reason for having been unable to enjoy the right to basic education varies --- ranging from the war which left them orphaned to social discrimination, poverty, long absence from schools, and exemption from compulsory education because of their physical/intellectual disabilities.

Yakanchuugaku, which means night classes of public junior high schools administered by local governments, are another important places open to adults who want to learn reading and writing (for more about Yakanchuugaku please refer to the section II-9 of this report); however, there is a limit on the years the students are allowed to be enrolled for even if they wish to continue to pursuit their learning. To redress this problem, for example in Osaka, a volunteer class for adults named Mugimame Kyoushitsu was created to accept graduates of Yakanchuugaku (mainly Zainichi Korean students) who want to continue learning.

1.2. Lack of literacy surveys

In writing about the condition of adult literacy in Japan it must be emphasized that reliable data or survey results of a national level are lacking. Since the Japanese government conducted a national survey on literacy in 1948 and a smaller scale survey focused on youths in two regions in 1955, no serious efforts have been made by the government to grasp the accurate picture of literacy / illiteracy of the nation. This lack of well-founded date helps such a myth as 'literacy rate in Japan is 99.9%' or 'there is no illiterate people of Japanese nationality who need literacy education in Japan' to remain widely prevalent in a society, making the people without sufficient literacy ashamed and hesitant about speaking out on their difficulties; this in turn contributes to strengthen the myth further by making the existence of those people more invisible in a society.

In other countries, often a full-scale national literacy survey was conducted in or soon after the International Literacy Year (1990), the result of which attracted wide public attention and pave the way for much progress in literacy policy and in a system to promote literacy education and research during International Decade of Literacy (1991-2000): such countries as South Korea, Australia, France and USA adopted measures including the establishment of a law on literacy -- for example USA's National Literacy Act of 1991 mentions the establishment of a national literacy institute and state- level resource centers, with reference to the scale of their annual budgets. On comparison, as to government policies and the structure to promote

educational practice and research, the situation in Japan is very regrettable; almost no policies on adult literacy exist; the structure to support practice and research is undeveloped; and there exists only exceptionally few researchers and fulltime staff involved in literacy education.

1.3. Lack of government policy on literacy

The Japanese government does not have a policy on adult basic education including literacy education and education of Japanese as a second language. While adult literacy is the basis for lifelong learning and hence should be at the core of government policy for promoting lifelong learning, the Japanese government's involvement in adult literacy has been extremely rare and almost single example was a funding started in 1969, which was given for the teaching of adult literacy classes in Buraku communities. It was a part of a larger scheme to promote overall welfare of Buraku communities and disappeared when the scheme ended in 2002, although it much contributed to the development of literacy education for the residents. After 2002 some local governments took over to provide a similar funding for Buraku literacy classes on their own but others did not: this situation clearly exemplifies the importance of the government's lead in setting a national-level policy on adult literacy.

As to the effect of United Nations Literacy Decade (2003-2012) on government policy, there has been almost none so far; no discussion has been going on about preparing overall literacy policies, including the enactment of a basic law of literacy.

1.4. Increase of non-Japanese residents and new challenges

During the past 20 years the number of non-Japanese residents more than doubled from 867,000 in 1986 to over 2 million in 2005 (1.57% of the total population in Japan).

The demographic structure of foreign nationals has also changed: Koreans have always topped the list (678,000 in 1986 and 599,000 in 2005) but the proportion drops sharply, from 78.2% in 1986 to 29.8% in 2005; residents of Chinese nationality (e.g. those who are married to Japanese, students, Japanese 'war orphans' in China, who were raised as Chinese and were able to come to Japan only after 1980, and their families) increases from 84,000 in 1986 to 520,000 in 2005 (from 9.7% to 25.8% of the total non-Japanese residents) and has become the second largest group followed by Brazilians (302,000 people; 15.0% of the total non-Japanese population), people of the Philippines (187,000; 9.3%), and Peruvians (58,000; 2.9%). These people often live and work in Japan without sufficient Japanese language skills and need to learn the language as well as various knowledge related to life and work. For these people classes (mainly classes to teach Japanese) are offered but they have problems such as heavy reliance on volunteers for teaching and management, a lack of training system for teaching staff, an insufficiency of the development of curricula and teaching

methods suitable for the needs of non-Japanese learners. Some non-Japanese residents do not have sufficient literacy in their mother tongues and requires mother tongue education in addition to education of Japanese as a second language. Issues of language skills of foreign nationals are very important and deserve serious attention as they are directly affecting their children's process of acquiring language skills. On the other hand the progression of multiculturalization of Japanese society calls for more learning on the side of Japanese people as well, such as learning to establish good relationships with non-Japanese residents as fellow members of a same community or leaning about problems they face in their life in Japan.

Public policy on non-Japanese residents are decisively lacking in measures for ensuring them foundational learning necessary for living in a Japanese society (in other counties such measures are often offered in the framework of adult basic education). Local governments of those regions where non-Japanese populations concentrate have been pressed to provide multiple services for residents of foreign nationals, including those related to education of Japanese as a second language, so that they can enjoy decent lives as members of a community. On the other hand, the Japanese government has considered issues of non-Japanese residents almost solely from the rather narrow viewpoints of labor immigration and immigration/foreign resident control. It can be also pointed out that the promotion of education of Japanese as a second language in communities is administered nationally by the Agency for Cultural Affairs within the framework of the policy on international cultural exchange, not by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology within that of education.

2. Progress in the movement and public policy: an example in Osaka

Osaka has been one of the leading prefectures in the field of literacy education in Japan – it has large population of Zainichi Koreans and boasts a history of active literacy movements, exemplified in the literacy class movement in Buraku communities and the movement to increase the number of Yakanchuugaku (night time junior high schools), both dating back to the 1960s. This section will present some examples of recent progress in the movement and public policy of literacy education in Osaka.

2.1. Widening networks and connecting movements

In the late 1970s and 1980s people involved in literacy education in Osaka -- learners, teachers and volunteers – started to hold meetings to know each other and exchange experiences. These meetings took place within each strand of literacy education movements separately (e.g. Buraku literacy classes, Yakanchuugaku, classes of Japanese as a second language for Japanese war orphans in China and other foreign

nationals). Then in 1989, a year prior to the International Literacy Year, an overarching network of organizations and individuals active in the field of adult literacy was established in Osaka. This network, 'Osaka Liaison Association to Promote the International Literacy Year' (referred to as 'Osaka Liaison Association' hereafter) has been widening and deepening the network of adult literacy, by linking up with emerging movements/practices (e.g. a movement for the literacy of people with disabilities and literacy classes of a non-Buraku type at Kominkan) and by promoting the interaction among different strands of movements. From 1990 on, Osaka Liaison Association has organized an annual gathering named 'Get together, fellow learners of literacy' with back up from Osaka prefecture and Osaka city, an event which attracts some 700 people from different kinds of literacy classes (e.g. classes in Buraku communities, Yakanchuugaku, classes of Japanese as a second language and literacy classes for people with disabilities) and produces a report and a collection of learners' compositions. Osaka Liaison Association also seeks to grasp the reality of literacy in the region, through surveys jointly conducted with Osaka prefecture and Osaka city on learners and volunteers of literacy classes.

2.2. Local governments' drawing up the guideline for the promotion of literacy

Osaka Liaison Association requested Osaka prefecture and Osaka city to draw up the guideline for the promotion of literacy in order for adult literacy to be firmly anchored in public policy and both local governments actualized the request in 1993. Other cities and towns which belong to Osaka prefecture followed them and has drawn up basic guidelines or action plans for the promotion of literacy. This trend in Osaka area is a quite unique one in Japan, for which no parallel is found elsewhere.

2.3. Setting up the Center for Adult Learning, Literacy and Japanese as a Second Language, Osaka (CALL-JSL, Osaka)

Osaka Liaison Association also wrote a recommendation in 2000 for the establishment of a public center of adult literacy and Japanese as a second language which will offer multiple services ranging from organizing meetings and promoting the interaction among different literacy classes, giving information and advice for learners to developing teaching materials and literacy education programs and providing training for the staff of literacy classes. Large part of this recommendation was made realized when the Center for Adult Learning, Literacy and Japanese as a Second Language (CALL-JSL; renamed to 'CALL-JSL, Osaka' 4 years after) was set up in 2002 in jointly by Osaka prefectural government, Osaka city government, Foundation for Osaka Prefectural Human Rights Association and Osaka City Human Rights Association, in cooperation with Liaison Association of Literacy and Japanese as a Second Language (to which Osaka Liaison Association had renamed itself). In Japan

there are no other centers for literacy with overall functions like this, either at a national or local level. This center was also epoch-making in that the local governments funded it and hence apparently acknowledged their responsibility to promote literacy education and related work. We should not forget though, other countries have many centers for literacy, public or private, established at various levels, ranging from small-scaled grass-roots centers in a local communities to universities' institutes for literacy research and large national centers such as National Institute for Literacy in USA and National Literacy Research Centre in India.

At the end of this chapter it should be added that there is a trend in recent years for local governments to withdraw from providing support to, or weaken their involvement in, adult literacy. Osaka prefecture also planned to discontinue funding adult literacy works in the region (including the funding going to the Center for Adult Learning, Literacy and Japanese as a Second Language), claiming that this was a necessary step within their 'fundamental reexamination' of budget spending. About this plan, Liaison Association of Literacy and Japanese as a Second Language sent a letter of plea for the continuation of Osaka prefecture's work of promoting adult literacy (dated May 2008), which highlights the significance of the Center's existence, to Mr. HASHIMOTO Tohru, the governor of Osaka prefecture. However, the plan was executed in the fiscal year 2009 and the public funding for the Center was abolished.

[Recommendations]

1. Toward the central and local governments

The following actions by the central and local governments would be advisable:

- to conduct surveys --- large-scale surveys should be conducted as soon as possible to grasp the real condition of adult literacy in Japan (e.g. the number of adults without sufficient literacy skills or in need of basic education, including graduates 'on paper' of compulsory education, who for various reasons had a very unsatisfactory attendance and failed to be educated well enough but was certified rather mechanistically as graduates by the school, based upon the number of years that passed since the entrance), the needs for adult literacy/basic education (e.g. the number of classes currently offered in the field of adult literacy and Japanese as the second language and difficulties those classes are experiencing) and roles expected for the central/local governments to play in promoting adult literacy/basic education, as well as to collect data and information on relevant government policies or good practices of other countries and international pictures of adult literacy/basic education. The literacy survey in 1955 and the survey conducted in Buraku communities in the 1990s strongly suggest that the current number of adults who have insufficient literacy skills is not

small. Surveys to be conducted should take into consideration, and be designed accordingly, the fact that the notion of literacy or literacy skills is expanding due to the development of information society.

- to set up a section which deals with, and construct concrete policies and systematic measures about, adult literacy/basic education and education of Japanese as a second language, based upon the result of the above surveys --- this would necessitate the enactment of a grounding law, such as 'Law for promoting adult literacy'. At the same time, the Japanese government is required to construct necessary policies and measures for helping residents from overseas, whose number is increasing under globalization, to live safe and sound in Japan, because it has ratified the International Covenant on Human Rights, which includes the principle of the equal rights regardless of nationality (the rule orders the Japanese government to treat those with Japanese nationality and those without equally in its policy measures regarding human rights).

- to establish centers of adult literacy at national, regional and local level, which will serve as the central core in promoting programs and research of literacy education

- to open a network with other countries and develop collaborative relationships internationally regarding adult literacy --- central/local governments should get information on, and learn from policies and practices of, adult literacy in other countries, particularly those countries in East Asia, with which Japan has had close relationships in terms of culture and economy. While Japan is expected to play its role in the international community through international cooperation/aid programs to various countries in Asia and Africa (in particular the regions of East and East-South Asia, with which Japan has profound historical relationships), it is rather doubtful if the Japanese government, which has not been very enthusiastic about dealing with domestic issues of adult basic education, is well equipped of planning and conducting appropriate cooperation/aid programs in the same field for the sake of other countries. To become active in promoting adult literacy/basic education domestically, then, seems greatly beneficial also for the Japanese government, helping itself to accumulate much relevant knowledge and experience in the field, which is necessary in an attempt to make meaningful contribution to the international community.

2. Toward the civil society

The following actions by the citizen and civil society would be desirable:

- to pursuit both in thinking and action, questions like 'is anyone around us having difficulties in writing or reading?' 'how can the places for their learning be realized?' ----

recently there exists a tendency in Japan to understand the issue of illiteracy in the logic of self-responsibility: their problem of an inability to properly write and read was caused personally by themselves, hence should be solved also personally by themselves.

But the reality is that they were not guaranteed sufficient opportunities to learn in their lives due to various reasons having social aspects, such as wars, diseases, poverty and discrimination. Their learning then, which is an act of recovering what they were socially prevented from having in the past, should be supported socially.

- for groups and organizations which have already been involved the provision (e.g. running classes, supplying teachers) in the field of literacy education and education of Japanese as a second language --- to get to know each other, work in cooperation and establish a network with other groups/organizations, in order to give the learners opportunities to meet other similar students learning elsewhere, to share, exchange or jointly develop teaching materials, and to effectively conduct lobbying or advocacy activities towards local governments and other organizations, as well as to increase fellow citizens in society (including the staff of central/local governments) who are supportive of the promotion of literacy education/ education of Japanese as a second language --- the merit of organizing a network can be seen in the example of the Osaka Liaison Association mentioned in this chapter: this network as a platform where many groups, organizations and individuals involved could come together helped the movement to become visible in a society and reach out to yet many others, and enabled these initiatives to be made into a collective power --- it can be seen as one of the sources of their success in having several local governments in Osaka prefecture accept and realize much of the recommendation for a guideline/action plan on adult literacy or the proposal to establish the Center for Adult Learning, Literacy and Japanese as a Second Language.

- to submit a request to a local government of the place we live in, that they should conduct surveys, develop programs, adopt a guideline or action plan for promoting adult literacy, set up a section charged with adult literacy and so on. While local governments often do not want to make a move on their own in the field where the national government's lead or a legal responsibility specified in a law does not exist, local governments in Osaka did make up their guidelines or action plans as we have already seen --- steps of local governments, though small but if taken all over Japan, will eventually set the national trend and influence the central government's policy on adult literacy.

(original chapter in Japanese written by the Committee on International Affairs,
JSSACE / translated by TOKIWA-FUSE Miho, JSSACE)

*In this chapter Japanese and Korean names are spelled in the original East Asian order, in which the family-name comes first.

- 15 Education for Sustainable Development (ESD)

1. Launch of the Decade of ESD and Implementation of ESD in Japan

1.1. A Proposal to the Global Community

Recognition of the need for education for sustainable development (ESD) predates the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (Rio Earth Summit) and Chapter 36 of *Agenda 21* is designated to the implementation of ESD. Pursuant to this, UNESCO assumed the role of lead agency and for the first time an ESD session was held during the 1997 World Conference on Higher Education. Though promotion of ESD was attempted, satisfactory results were not achieved.

In 2002 at the World Summit on Sustainable Development (the Johannesburg Summit) the Japanese Government and NGOs jointly proposed to designate a “Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (UNDESD).” The proposal was adopted by the UN General Assembly and the “decade” commenced as a UN project in 2005.

1.2. Launch of Civil Society Network Promoting ESD, “ESD-J”

Following the adoption of the DESD, Japanese NGOs, who took the lead on the proposal, reached out to stakeholders to found the Japan Council on the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (ESD-J) in June 2003 with the goal of advancing domestic and international ESD as a partnership. ESD-J has formed a network of 100 organizations including NGOs, educational institutions, enterprises, and other groups active in such fields as environmental education, development education, human rights education, peace education, and youth development and is currently engaged in such efforts as policy proposals, training, information dissemination, and international networking.

In March 2005, ESD-J hosted the UNDESD Kick-off Meeting at which government, enterprise, NGO and local municipality representatives convened a roundtable discussion and proposed a framework for implementing ESD. Thereafter ESD-J has acted as the engine behind ESD advancement in Japan by proactively working on arranging roundtable meetings, creating a Diet Members Caucus for ESD Promotion and formulating Japan’s Action Plan for UNDESD.

<http://www.esd-j.org/en/>

1.3. Government Implementation System and Diet Members Caucus

In December 2005 the Japanese government established the Interministerial Meeting on the “United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development” (hereafter “the Interministerial Meeting”) within the Cabinet (11 ministries and agencies: Cabinet Secretariat, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Ministry of the Environment, Cabinet Office, Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and

Fisheries, Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry, Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism [observers: Ministry of Justice, Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare]).

Additionally, in March 2006, “Japan’s Action Plan for UNDESD” (hereafter “the Action Plan”) was developed. The plan emphasized “programs leading to sustainable community development,” “implementation in diverse settings through multi-stakeholder partnership,” “an integrated approach to diverse agendas,” “participatory and experiential learning,” “fostering citizen participation.”

Based on the Action Plan, the government has facilitated discussions on measures for implementing ESD by holding ESD Roundtable Meetings since 2008 as forums for exchanges of opinions among academic experts, educators, and related persons from NPOs and enterprises.

The Diet Members Caucus for ESD Promotion was launched in June 2007. About 50 Diet members have joined the league, which has held a number of discussions to explore ways of promoting ESD.

1.4. Promoting ESD in Collaboration with Global Community

The Japanese Government is engaged in the global advancement of ESD through UNESCO and the United Nations University with a particular focus on strengthening the contributions to ESD by regional Centers of Expertise (RCEs) on ESD and higher education institutions and fostering primary and middle school education institutions’ programs through UNESCO’s Associated Schools Project Network (ASPnet).

ESD-J implemented a joint project with NGOs from seven Asian countries, and has been presenting Asia ESD perspectives through the website for sharing ESD good practices in a seven language. <http://www.agepp.net/>

2. Features of ESD in non-formal Education in Japan

2.1. Features of Approach

Prior to the UNDESD, NGOs, universities and other higher learning institutions, community centers and other social education facilities, local museums, zoos, aquariums and enterprises had already carried out participatory and problem-solving based learning, with a “perspective of creating a better society” under themes such as the environment, development, human rights, social welfare, peace, and community building. Around the start of the UNDESD, there have developed partnerships under the ESD umbrella.

Another feature of ESD in Japan is cooperation and linkages of various actors and working through partnerships.

2.2. Local ESD Efforts

Among recent developments in environmental education, for example, are activities that contribute to building a sustainable society, such as efforts to carry on the

traditional knowledge from times when people lived in harmony with nature through experiences of agriculture and everyday life, and learning programs that explore ways to forge a better society by connecting the challenges facing the international community to daily living and local issues.

Numerous sustainable community development projects featuring energy and food to revitalize rural areas through exchanges with urban areas are being pursued across Japan on the initiative of local governments and civil organizations. ESD is incorporated into the activity process as a venue for learning.

2.3. Business Sector's Efforts

In Japan, businesses are facing an increasing demand for social responsibility, leading many firms to establish dedicated departments to enhance their environmental and social credentials in their main lines of business and to pursue the activities that contribute to society. As part of this trend, there is heightened interest in ESD within companies; companies are incorporating social responsibility into employee training; companies are supporting employees in participating in volunteer activities; and employees are supporting environmental education initiatives in formal/non-formal education as a part of their corporate social responsibility activities.

3. Achievements and Issues in the First Half of UNDESD

3.1. Achievements

During the first 4 years of the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development, a major achievement was the development of the framework to enhance the partnership between the public and private sectors, including Interministerial Meeting on UNDESD and ESD Roundtable Meetings. Other major achievements in this period include the affirmation of ESD's status as an important government policy in such plans as the Basic Promotional Plan for Education and the Twenty-first Century Environment Nation Strategy. Additionally, practical models for ESD implementation at the community level and in institutions of higher education were developed, and the civil society networked the multi-stakeholders who promote ESD promotion at the local community level.

3.2. Challenges

Though progress has been made, the concepts of ESD have not been sufficiently disseminated to even the primary stake holders that should be working on ESD. ESD is "an educational process that fosters individual awareness and behavioral transformation, which develops into community building." ESD is not a new effort but is possible through developing existing education programs, however, recognition of this is lacking. There are many who have never even heard the term of ESD, including those who work on the frontlines in the education field.

For example, in a 2008 survey conducted by the Ministry' of the Environment's

Environmental Partnership Office Chubu, 84% of those surveyed in Nagano, Aichi, Gifu and Mie Prefectures' municipal boards of education responded "no" to the question, "Do you have anything that could be considered ESD within your board of education facility?" This study shows that ESD is not sufficiently disseminated in the classroom or in school facilities (<http://www.epo-chubu.jp>).

Closer partnership among government ministries, agencies and other actors is vital for promoting ESD. Efforts must be made to strengthen the system for cooperation and to implement policies toward this end. Other remaining tasks include raising the status of ESD in government policies and taking a more comprehensive approach that incorporates ESD principles in teaching individual topics on the environment and international understanding.

[Recommendation] ESD-J Proposals for Promotion of ESD

1. Formulation of Recommendations

In 2008 ESD-J formulated policy proposals to further promote ESD. In the formulation of these proposals, comments were solicited online as well as through community workshops held in seven locations in order to hear the voices of a broad range of stakeholders and to be based on the achievements and challenges of ESD practices to date. The voices of approximately 180 practitioners are reflected in these proposals. The followings are the overview of proposals related to promotion of ESD within non-formal education.

2. Broaden Understanding about ESD and Make Achievements Visible

In order to improve public awareness about ESD throughout Japan, first, the existence and importance of ESD must be known to a majority of people. It is important to convey the appeal of ESD, the individual and social transformation possible through ESD, and the methodology behind ESD, to a broad population: educators, government officials, corporate managers, NGO staffs and community residents. Making local initiatives visible through an ESD program registry should be an effective strategy, while effective public relation strategies targeting the priorities should be created.

Related policy proposals

- Create and implement PR strategy to popularize ESD
- Implement ESD program registration to help visualize and popularize ESD
- Establish ESD information corner in public spaces, such as libraries

3. Create National Framework for Practice of ESD

Creating a sustainable society requires that people from all walks of life work together. This is why it is indispensable to create a system that fosters the intergovernmental as well as public-private collaboration in the implementation of ESD. It is important to support ESD nationwide by establishing a national ESD center for information

exchange and professional training for ESD implementation, as well as to bolster ESD Roundtable Meetings in order to implement policy for enhancing collaboration and cooperation.

Related policy proposals

- Establish national ESD center
- Bolster national ESD Roundtable Meetings
- Strengthen ESD in private sector

4. Empower the local community to deliver ESD programs

Multi-stakeholders should be proactively involved in the sustainable community development, in both adult and children's education. The coordinators, who organize the learning settings through connecting the local people and their efforts, play a significant role in order to implement ESD based on the multi-stakeholder partnership.

For the continuity and development of ESD practice, the efforts need to be institutionalized and should not be based solely on the ability and diligence of individuals.

Universities, community education facilities, and NGO centers practical need to function as the local ESD centers for ESD dissemination and human resource development, in order to enable school coordinators and volunteer coordinators to organize the learning settings with ESD perspectives. It is important to develop the ESD framework, such as local ESD roundtable meetings and ESD coordinators' councils, by utilizing the existing systems.

Related policy proposals

- Develop function of local ESD centers
- Establish local ESD roundtable meetings
- Arrange coordinators to promote ESD in municipalities and set up ESD coordinators' council

5. Connect ESD in Asia and lead global ESD

In March 2009 the Japanese government proposed hosting the end-of-decade world conference on ESD in Japan. The intention was welcomed by participants at the World Conference on Education for Sustainable Development – Moving into the Second Half of the UN Decade, held in Bonn. As both the original proposing country and host to the end-of-decade world conference, Japan's work on promoting ESD is highly expected domestically and globally.

ESD-J hopes to contribute to foster global ESD by providing Asian ESD perspectives obtained through strengthening the partnership with Asian NGOs.

(written by ESD-J [Japan Council on the UN Decade
of Education for Sustainable Development]
: Katsunori Suzuki and Chisato Murakami,
and translated into English by Gregory Michel and Fumiko Noguchi)

II - 16 Development Education and Adult Education in Japan

1. Development Education (DE) in the 1980s: DE born from out-school education

It was a starting point of Development Education (DE) in Japan that the first symposium on DE was held in 1979 in Tokyo. It was sponsored by UNICEF, the UN University and United Nations Information Centre (UNIC). After this symposium development NGOs, youth organizations such as YMCAs and UN-related associations organized a study group on DE. This group supported the same kind of symposiums at Yokohama, Osaka and Nagoya in the following years. Under the initiative of this group, the Development Education Council of Japan (DECJ), which was the former body of the present Development Education Association & Resource Center (DEAR), was established in 1982. DECJ shared information and experiences on DE by publishing its periodicals as well as holding its national gathering every summer since 1983. The main field of DE has not been a formal sector like school education, but a private and voluntary sector such as international cooperation and youth work from the beginning.

On the other hand, the globalization of Japanese society has been so rapid during the 1980s, but the educational community remained somewhat backward. Especially, the second report of the National Council on Educational Reform recommended that new education should respond to “internationalization,” but the policy and contents of the reform was based on a kind of neo-liberalism, and totally different from the UNESCO recommendation concerning International Education in 1974. In those days, it meant that it was almost impossible for NGOs to make collaboration with schools and teachers. DE had made trials and errors at the grassroots level of voluntary activities during the days without enough cooperation with non-formal education facilities such as public libraries, museums, local learning centers etc., as well as any understanding and supports from formal education authorities.

2. DE in the 1990s: Implications from Hamburg Conference and changes of DE

2.1. UN conferences and Hamburg Conference

The curtain of the 1990s opened out after the fall of Berlin Wall in 1989, which brought big changes to the international community. Also, there was a series of “global forums” sponsored by UN and its agencies in the 1990s, which brought in no small, part the impacts and implications to DE in Japan. Needless to say once again, UN conferences like World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien and UN Conference on Environment and Development (Earth Summit) in Rio de Janeiro were held almost every year on the theme of global issues such as education, environment, development, human rights, population, gender, etc.. The fifth International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA V) in 1997 reaffirmed that “only human-centered

development and participatory society based on the full respect of human rights will lead to sustainable and equitable development" on a combination of educational issues discussed during those global conferences. In "the Agenda for the Future" it also emphasized the role of the NGO's capabilities for offering occasions of education as well as adult education and lifelong learning, so as to find out a solution to the global challenges of mankind.

2.2. Reconsidering the definition of DE

The biggest impact from those UN conferences and CONFINTEA V to DE in Japan would be the enlargement of the notion of "development". Japanese DE in those days absorbed the knowledge and experiences of some pioneering countries such as UK and Canada and paid much attention to the typical development issues like famine and poverty in the developing "South." Accordingly, its goal was to understand the North-South issues and to mobilize people to take part in NGO activities and international cooperation to solve development issues.

But, after the discussions and implications from a series of the global conferences, it became apparent that global issues were inter-related with each other. DE turned its perspective much wider and focused on other issues as well as development issues. Consequently, DECJ reconsidered its old definition of DE and announced the new definition as follows: DE aims that "each of us will understand various problems concerning development issues, consider the nature of development, and participate in building a just global society that we can live together." The contents of learning is 1) respect for diversity, 2) the present situations and its causes of development issues, 3) inter-relatedness of global issues, 4) our ties with the world, and 5) our challenges to solve global issues.

Thus, compared to the old definition, the new one puts its more focus on global issues relevant to development on the basis of cultural diversity and human dignity. Also, it emphasizes that each of us should learn links between us and our world, so that it focuses on our participation in the process of problem solving. These changes gave some influences to the activities in 1990s such as research and learning materials.

2.3. Introduction and evolution of Participatory Learning

As well as those changes in the aim and contents of DE, another change was observed in the learning methodology. The learning style of DE in the 1980s was so-called "banking education" as Paulo Freire named. It was quite contrary to the Participatory Learning (PL) which DE today thinks highly of. In those days NGO workers and volunteers explained or taught their donors and supporters what happened in developing countries and what the solutions for those problems were, by using the slides and pictures they took in their fields. The donors and supporters were only sitting there in a room or a hall, and they were just like innocent students not familiar with Asia and Africa at all.

In the 1990s, some British guidebooks concerning PL began to be translated and published in Japan, and many of British DE materials like the "Trading Game" became well-known among Japanese DE practitioner. As the result, in the late 1990s, the style of training and seminars of DE turned to be participatory. At the same time, much attention were likely to paid to only the know-how and technique of PA and some beginners of PL had some tendency not to understand the philosophy and original aims of PL. In this situation, the question "what is PL" was also to come out among the DE practitioners. It was the message of the Hamburg Declaration that gave a key to answer this question. It says that "only human-centered development and participatory society based on the full respect of human rights will lead to sustainable and equitable development."

The goal of DE is to build a just global society that we can live together through education and learning. If so, it is indispensable for DE that the methodology themselves is "participatory". It seems that this has led to the great encouragement and self-confidence for Japanese DE activities.

2.4. Forming and enlargement of local and national networks of DE

Local initiatives to support DE have widely spread in the 1990s. The present DEAR (the former DECJ) started a series of local seminars on DE in 1992 at three local cities. Since 1996, local seminars on DE have been held in six regional areas, with the funding support of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. DEAR provided 64 local seminars until 2003, and it covered 44 among 47 prefectures in Japan. These seminars were organized by local NGOs, teachers and adult educators in each of the cities and towns. In most cases they continued to keep the partnership and network to promote DE in the local areas. These seminars contributed to disseminating the knowledge and approaches of development and other global issues.

Also, at the end of every year, DEAR organized a conference for networking among 40 to 50 practitioners from every regions of Japan, who shared those local seminars and discussed common issues. These networking conferences have made great contributions for building the rapport and new networks at local and national levels.

3. DE in the 2000s: Challenge of DE toward "Participation" and "Local Community"

3.1. Approach to Adult Education and Participatory Development in the South

The Hamburg Declaration praises in the beginning, "Only human-centered development and participatory society will lead to sustainable and equitable development." If it does, how can we realize this ideal goal through education and learning? DE has tried to find out the clue in the fusion and collaboration between Participatory Development (PD) and Participatory Learning (PL).

The 20th national gathering organized by DEAR in 2002 was the most symbolic occasion. Kamal Pyual, who is a well-known Nepali rural development facilitator, was

invited to this gathering and he introduced Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) in his workshop. The participants of Phual's workshop found that PRA was quite similar to PL of DE in the points of its idea and methods, so Japanese practitioners of DE have paid their attentions to PRA in rural development in the South since then.

PRA is a participatory method of rural development by local people themselves, and it has been groped from the late 1980s in the developing "South." Previously, poor village people were the mere beneficiaries of development projects and foreign aid. But in the process of PRA, they actively and voluntarily participate in rural community development, study their situations and problems, and find out their own answers and solutions. This process also means self-learning and self-empowerment, and recently it is often called Participatory Learning and Action (PLA).

Also, DEAR became a member of the Asian and South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education (ASPBAE), and have tried to learn from the experiences of adult education and participatory development in the south-east Asia region. In fact, DEAR has sent its staff members to some training course and workshops organized by some community organizations so as to study from experiences in south-east Asia. In addition, DEAR and the Rikkyo University ESD Research Center (ESDRC) have had a joint project of NGO staff training in Chaingmai, Thailand. DEAR had introduced some typical Japanese DE teaching materials and the methods of participatory learning in the workshops in cooperation with a certain Chaingmai local NGO. And then those materials were considered by the participants to be quite effective for their village people to understand and analyze the socio-economic situations and problems in the northern part of Thailand under the influences of economic globalization.

This effort between Japan and Thai has been still a limited and experimental trial. But it means that participatory development such as PRA/PLA in the South and participatory learning of DE in the North could share the common ideas and goals for building a equitable community that we can live together rather than the similarities in their techniques and methods. Also, it is important that the method of PL has been evolved in incidental learning as well as non-formal education by CSOs and CBOs, not in formal education by governments and local authorities.

The activities and movements of Japanese DE were limited only in the inland of Japan so long time. But at the moment it has made some challenges towards "human-centered development and participatory society" under the exchange and mutual learning with the efforts of rural development and adult education in south-east Asia.

3.2. DE in the future with the context of local community and culture

The Section 5 of the Hamburg Declaration says, "The objectives of youth and adult education are to develop the autonomy and the sense of responsibility of people and communities, to reinforce the capacity to deal with the transformations taking place in the economy, in culture and in society as a whole, and to promote coexistence, tolerance

and the informed and creative participation of citizens in their communities.” In other words it emphasizes the promotion of education and learning for local participation in “human-centered development and participatory society” declared in the Section 1 of the Declaration.

Looking back on Japanese DE until the 1990s, it didn't have enough viewpoints or perspectives in such a sense and that it did not take any domestic issues as the content of learning. As for the appeal, “Think globally, act locally”, it always means the local actions for solving such issues as starvation and poverty in the South, and it wasn't the appeal for solving domestic issues. But such global issues as rural development in the South have been seemed to be so far away from Japan that DE cannot receive enough understanding and supports from the general public as well as the education community in the inward-looking Japanese society. Though Japanese DE had been faced with such a dilemma or contradiction between global issues and local issues, some DE practitioners began to point out the necessity of drawing lessons from good practices of learning global issues linked with local community.

Based on the request of the Hamburg Declaration and some good learning practices in Japanese local areas, DEAR started a new research project regarding “DE in the future with the context of local community and culture” from 2003, and DEAR published the outcome of the project in 2008. This book introduced 18 domestic and foreign learning activities as good practices over seven themes of “multi-cultural society,” “agriculture,” “environment,” “local economy,” “citizen participation,” “women and children,” and “networking.” And it emphasizes the importance of community development based on the participatory learning as the resistance against the globalization.

The details of those good practices should be omitted here, but it seems that they are good examples of the Japanese social and adult education that can respond to the promotion of creative participation of citizens in their communities in the Section 5 of the Hamburg declaration.

3.3. Making of ESD integrated curriculum

While DE meets participatory development, especially PRA/PLA in the South and Japanese domestic development issues in the 2000s, World Summit on Environment and Development was held in South Africa in 2002. In this summit Japan proposed ESD (Education for Sustainable Development), and the Decade of ESD started in 2005.

Sustainability as well as environment and development are the main issues of ESD, but those issues have been pointed out in the Hamburg Declaration and the Agenda for the Future. In such a context, DESD can be considered as an international campaign for the realization of the Declaration and the Agenda

While the surroundings of DE in Japan changed remarkably, there was a growing tendency to question what the goal, the contents and the method of DE are, and to show the new curriculum as ESD. Therefore, DEAR started a new research project

regarding the ESD Integrated curriculum and reported the results of research at the end of 2008.

According to the report, the ESD integrated curriculum is “a process of the integration of learning for realizing the sustainable and equitable society that we can give together. And, the integration does not mean the mere mixture or the simple accumulation of such global issues as development, environment, human rights, peace, gender, etc. It does mean holiness as human beings who are active learners, multi-layeredness of issues and problems in local and global communities, and diversities and inter-connectedness of learning approaches.

(Recommendations)

1. Emphasis on development issues in the policy of social and adult education

Human-centered development and sustainable development are very important key concepts. But those concepts are not emphasized in the policies and programs of Japanese social and adult education. In the sense that such domestic issues as poverty, unemployment, and differences between rich and poor, or urban and rural have become more and more remarkable in Japan today, development issues should be placed a great emphasis on in those related policies and programs.

2. Cooperation and equal partnership with local facilities of social and adult education

There have been little cooperation and equal partnership between DE practitioners and public facilities of social and adult education such as libraries, museums and local learner's centers administered by local authorities. In order to make more opportunities of learning development issues in local communities, the knowledge and experiences of DE should be shared with those facilities.

3. Carrying on international campaigns on development issues

International campaigns about "Human-centered Development" and "Sustainable development" have been carried on by NGOs as well as UN agencies and governments. For example, "Millennium Development Goals (MDG)", "Education for All (EFA)", and "Education for Sustainable Development (ESD)" are ongoing now. But there are very few opportunities that those international campaigns are emphasized in the Japanese public policies and programs of social and adult education, and therefore it is necessary that the government and local authorities of social and adult education should support or carry on those international campaigns in cooperation with NGOs and DE practitioners.

4. Setting-up of financial support system for NGOs and DE practitioners

Development NGOs are important actors of DE and ESD, which have abundant information and experiences in the field of community development in the South. But

most of the Japanese development NGOs don't have enough capacities of carrying on domestic activities of DE and ESD because of the lack of financial and human resources. Also, the funding schemes for development NGOs such as governmental subsidies and grants from private foundations are likely to put more priorities on overseas projects than domestic ones. Therefore, it is necessary to set up some financial support systems for development NGOs as well as DE practitioners.

(written and translated by DEAR : Hiroyuki Yumoto)

- 17 The Current Status and Challenges

of Japan's Cooperation

in Adult Literacy in Developing Countries 1

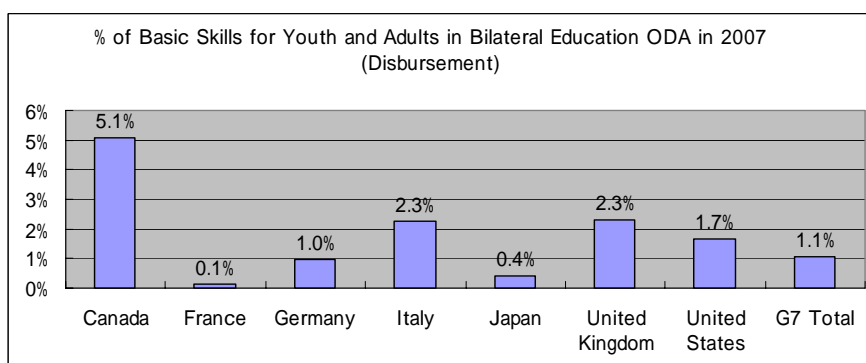
This report examines the current status and challenges of literacy programs for youth and adults in developing countries supported by the Government of Japan and NGOs. Recommendations are also made towards more effective assistance for literacy education, including strengthening cooperation between the government and NGOs.

1. Support to adult literacy by the Japanese government

1.1. Policy

In 2002, Japan developed its first ever policy on basic education assistance for developing countries, the Basic Education for Growth Initiative (BEGIN). Japan considers that “providing effective and flexible opportunities for education to people having difficulties in accessing the formal educational system is essential for the achievement of Education for All” (EFA) and thus “assistance for non-formal education (promotion of literacy education)” is included as one of the measures to ensure access to education. Literacy for women is given particular attention. It is also mentioned that Japan will promote cooperation with NGOs to support non-formal education in remote or impoverished areas having no schools.

1.2. Financing



Source: OECD, DAC. The Creditor Reporting System

http://www.oecd.org/document/31/0,3343,en_2649_34447_41798751_1_1_1_1,00.html, accessed on 19 March 2008

Analyzing financing to adult literacy, however, the aforementioned policy has not been implemented sufficiently. Out of the total Japan's ODA to education in 2007

(USD 739 m), only 0.4 % or USD 3.2 million was allocated to “basic skills for youth and adults” including literacy. This amount remains only one third of the G7 average 1.1 %, as shown in the above table, which has reduced Japan to one of the countries giving least aid to this field following France.

The Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) includes non-formal education as one of the priority areas in its basic education assistance 2. However, its financial allocations to non-formal education are relatively small compared to other ‘sub-sectors’. Only 6.1% of JICA’s total aid to education was spent for non-formal education programs in 2004, while 26.2 % for technical and vocational education and 22.4% for primary and secondary education 3.

The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology has been supporting literacy and non-formal education in the form of Funds-in-Trust for UNESCO since the 1990s. It contributed to promoting literacy in Asia and the Pacific through the “Japanese Funds-in-Trust for Literacy Education” (US\$6,865,000 1990-2001) and the “Japanese Funds-in-Trust for Community Learning Centers (US\$1,385,000 1996-2001)”. In 2002, these two were integrated as the “Japanese Funds-in-Trust for Education for All” and a total of JPY 512 million was disbursed to the Funds from 2002 to 2008 4.

1.3. Target countries, regions and groups

There were only 26 adult literacy programs supported by the Japanese government between 2001 and 2008 5. Out of the 26 programs, 9 were conducted in Africa, 8 in Asia, 5 in the Middle-East, and 4 in Central and South America.

The data shows that Japan prioritizes Afghanistan where 5 programmes have been implemented, followed by Pakistan with 3 programs, Vietnam with 2 programs, and Brazil with 2 programs. For the rest of the countries, only 1 programme was implemented in each. As Afghanistan and Pakistan are both low-income countries with low literacy rates (28% in Afghanistan and 54 % in Pakistan respectively), Japan’s contribution to these countries is regarded very valuable. At the same time, one third of the target countries are in fact high-income or middle-income countries with relatively high literacy rates, such as Trinidad and Tobago (literacy rates: 99%), the Philippines (literacy rates: 93%), Brazil (literacy rates: 90%), South Africa (literacy rates: 87%), and Mauritius (literacy rates: 85%).

The target groups include minorities and marginalized people who have little or no access to education, economy and political systems in Brazil, the Philippines, Vietnam and so on. Particular attention is being paid to female learners in many literacy programs.

1.4. Implementing agencies and aid modalities

While implementing agencies/organizations vary from NGOs to the government and the United Nations (UN) utilizing different funding schemes and modalities of the Japanese government, most of the literacy programs are conducted by NGOs. Out of

the 26 literacy programs supported by Japan, 19 programs are implemented mainly by local NGOs and local authorities through Grassroots Human Security Grant Aid.

There are 4 technical cooperation projects of JICA, two of which are implemented directly by JICA, and other two were supported through a consultancy firm and an NGO. JICA also has a particular scheme to support NGOs called Grassroots Technical Cooperation and one of the Japanese NGOs conducted two literacy programs in Vietnam with funding support from JICA.

The Japanese government is currently supporting UNESCO in the form of Grant Aid for a literacy project in Afghanistan for 5 years.

1.5. Project scale

The project scale ranges from JPY 0.5 million (a local NGO) to JPY 380 million (JICA) and JPY 1.49 billion (UNESCO). The number of beneficiaries also varies. For example, UNESCO plans to reach 0.3 million people and JICA supported approximately 10,000 people in Afghanistan.

1.6. Project activities

The most common approach is to support infrastructure especially through Grassroots Human Security Grant Aid. It can be said that UNESCO's support is more comprehensive, which includes capacity development of the government officials, support for learning facilities, promoting literacy, developing learning materials, facilitator training, post-literacy, microcredit, recommendations to the non-formal education system, Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Programme (LAMP) and so on. JICA has its own strength to support its governmental counterparts and contributed to developing their capacities on data management and training for supervisors, for example. At the same time, JICA has cooperated with NGOs to reach non-literate people especially in remote areas.

1.7. Coordination and collaboration among main stakeholders

Afghanistan is an interesting case in which UNESCO, JICA, and NGOs (Japanese NGOs, local and international NGOs) are supporting literacy projects funded by the Japanese government. Some good aspects have been found in terms of coordination and collaboration among these stakeholders, such as the distribution of literacy primers and facilitators' guide developed by UNESCO in JICA project as well as cooperation between JICA and NGOs to promote literacy effectively. Cooperation between JICA and NGOs has also made coordination with the Afghan authorities relatively smooth, while there are often some kind of 'competitions' between the Afghan authorities and NGOs in general.

However, there is a great room to plan and implement these activities more strategically. Even in a same project, capacity development of the government officials and NGO's support to literacy classes were not coordinated sufficiently. Although NGOs' innovative approaches to adult literacy and life skills have been gradually appreciated by the Afghan government, it is not yet a stage of scaling them

up or integrating them into the government system, partly due to fragility of the Afghan government. Linkages between literacy and life skills need to be further strengthened.

2. Support to adult literacy by Japanese NGOs 6

2.2. Number of NGOs involved in adult literacy

The Japan NGOs Center for International Cooperation (JANIC) estimates that 60% among 354 Japanese NGOs working for international development are engaged in the education sector, and that 48 NGOs are involved in the field of adult literacy. Needless to say, these NGOs also work for other sectors or sub-sectors in education on top of adult literacy.

2.2. Target areas

The majority of NGOs engaged in adult literacy target Asian region. Among 17 surveyed adult literacy projects, 15 projects were implemented in Asia and the Pacific, 1 in Latin America and 1 in Africa. This trend is common not only about literacy projects but also about projects in other sectors implemented by Japanese NGOs. In terms of target levels of intervention, 1 project intervenes at national level, 2 projects at provincial/prefecture level, 11 projects at city/district/council level, and 3 projects at community level, showing one of the features of Japanese NGOs is to support at municipality level.

2.3. Project scale

The projects implemented by Japanese NGOs are relatively small, which in turn indicates that the capacity of many Japanese NGOs is not sufficient yet. The total number of beneficiaries of 15 adult literacy projects of which data is available is 47,837, meaning that one project serves 2,609 people on average. However, standard deviation of this average figure is large, suggesting that the median value of 325 people would represent the project scale. Annual budget of 15 adult literacy projects range from US\$ 3,900 to US\$ 608,800, which suggests again that median value of US\$ 61,500 would represent the size of projects.

2.4. Target groups

Most of adult literacy projects of Japanese NGOs target marginalized groups including ethnic minorities, the poor, the landless, women, the disabled and minority groups. This would stem from the organizational missions and visions to empower the marginalized population through adult literacy.

2.5. Facilitators

In many adult literacy projects, efforts are being made to ensure that facilitators are friendly to learners. For example, National Federation of Unesco Associations in Japan (NFUAJ) once had Vietnamese primary school male teachers as facilitators of literacy classes for ethnic minority communities in Vietnam. However, as ethnic minority women tend to be afraid of Vietnamese men due to historical and social

reasons, NFUAJ decided to select facilitators from literate women in the community after giving them training. This made learners feel friendly to facilitators.

2.6. Learning spaces

Japanese NGOs also try to create learner-friendly spaces. Most of the NGOs are skeptical about providing financial input to infrastructure for learning. Instead, they utilize community meeting spaces and private houses as learning spaces for literacy, because learners are already familiar with these places through their everyday life activities. For example, home-based learning has resulted in high attendance rates in Afghanistan where it is often difficult for women to go out from home.

2.7. Learning materials

NGOs utilize local resources as learning materials in a flexible manner. While in most of the projects national literacy curriculum is followed, it is often revised and additional materials are supported based on learning needs of communities. In case that adult literacy is one of the components of comprehensive community development projects, materials for agriculture and maternity health are also used for learning literacy. For example, fertilizer packages are used as materials to learn how to use fertilizer properly in the livelihood development project supported by World Vision Japan. The evaluation survey of this project suggests that utilization of local resources enhances learner's motivation, improves the synergy between adult literacy and livelihood development efforts, and makes the project more cost effective than developing new learning materials.

2.8. Approaches

Two approaches are common to adult literacy programs by Japanese NGOs. First, they try to adopt a rights-based approach with community participation. They tend to spend lots of time for socialization, raising consciousness and readiness for learning processes by forming and strengthening groups of the marginalized, before starting literacy programs. Some NGOs employ Participatory Learning and Action (PLA) during socialization process. Participatory process involves raising consciousness, which results in a rights-based approach. For example, after organizing women groups for income generation, members of the groups realized that it was their own right to be able to read Holy Koran and they started the literacy classes with the support from Peace Winds Japan in Afghanistan.

Second, most of the NGOs integrate adult literacy components into livelihood improvement projects, which include income generation, maternity health, agriculture, housing and environment.

2.9. Sustainability

Japanese NGOs make efforts to ensure sustainability of adult literacy projects. Regarding organizational sustainability, they try to enhance community initiatives and ownership at the planning stage, and to organize learners' groups with equity and fairness through spending time for preparation and socialization and lowering

visibility of NGOs as donors.

In terms of technical sustainability, NGOs try to utilize locally available materials and resources which are relevant to local contexts. This allows learners and local people engaged in literacy to continue to develop materials by themselves after the completion of the projects. They also emphasize training of trainers and facilitators with management aspects.

Regarding policy and institutional aspects, there are only 4 projects which impacted on national education policy among the 17 adult literacy projects surveyed. Limited efforts include strengthening linkage between community and schools and advocacy for promoting adult literacy. Even though NGOs' projects might be participatory, rights-based and innovative, the projects would not be sustainable without policy changes of governments. This suggests that Japanese NGOs should make more efforts for involving governments and for advocacy towards policy changes.

Lastly, efforts for ensuring financial sustainability include maximizing utilization of community resources and minimizing financial input, and integrating literacy components in broader livelihood improvement activities such as forming income generation and banking groups at community level.

2.10. Challenges and difficulties

The survey found two challenges and difficulties faced during the implementation of literacy projects by Japanese NGOs. First, it is difficult for the poorest to attend literacy classes because they need to work. After joining literacy class, the poorest group in rural area tends to drop out because of migration to the urban area for seeking jobs. To address this issue, Shapla Neer employs the target approach which focuses the poorest and the most marginalized within community rather than all the illiterates in community.

Second challenge is the low priority to adult literacy given by education administration. In general, governments' interest in adult literacy is lower than schooling for children, which results in limited funding and human resource allocation to adult literacy. Low commitment to adult literacy hinders project sustainability of NGOs' projects, indicating the importance of advocacy efforts.

Footnotes:

1 This report focuses on Japan's support to literacy programmes for adults and youth, especially those implemented after 2000 when the World Education Forum was held in Dakar, Senegal.

2 Non-formal education defined by JICA targets from children to adults. Also, there are cases that literacy is an integral component in vocational education projects. This report focuses on only projects with clear objectives for promoting literacy and non-formal education.

3 Ogawa, K. and M. Nishimura (eds.). (2008). Basic Education Support in

Developing Countries: International Trends and Japanese Assistance.

4 Information obtained from UNESCO.

5 This report deals with 26 literacy projects for youth and adults implemented from 2001 to 2007 searched at <http://www3.mofa.go.jp/mofaj/gaiko/oda/search.php> (key words: literacy or non-formal education) and JICA website/

6 This section is based on the survey commissioned by Non-formal Education Study Group, National Institute for Education Policy Research in 2004, conducted by Takafumi Miyake, Akiko Kitamura and Miho Iwamoto. The methodology of the study is questionnaire and interviews to 17 Japanese NGOs which are engaged in adult literacy in their projects. The survey has the limitation that it only deals with adult literacy projects and not with adult learning projects.

(written by Japan NGO Network for Education (JNNE))

[Recommendations]

Based on the findings described above, the following recommendations are made to the Japanese government and NGOs for more effective approaches to adult literacy and education.

1. Recommendations to the Japanese Government

1.1. Increase aid volume to adult literacy

Japan should increase ODA for adult literacy and adult education in the framework of the EFA goals and targets. Donors should agree to mobilize resources in accordance with indicative standards : at least 15% of ODA should be allocated to education; with at least 60% of this allocated to basic education including adult literacy and life skill programs for youth and adults, which was recommended by the EFA working group in 2007. Donors also should agree that the EFA Fast Track Initiative to include adult education and literacy components, and ensure efficient and prompt delivery of financing support.

1.2. Set clear budget /finance targets

Japan should address that governments to allocate at least 6% of its education budget for adult education, of which 3% to be reserved for adult literacy programmes, which is recommended by a mid-term review on the United Nations Literacy Decade (UNLD).

1.3. Linkage with poverty reduction plan

Japan should address that adult literacy and adult education plans and targets are clearly included as part of the education sector and overall poverty eradication plans of governments, and that these plans need to be fully financed and resourced for effective implementation. Japan should also integrate literacy and life skills components into broader poverty reduction aid programs.

1.4. Capacity building

Japan should strengthen support to capacity building for improving relevant laws, policy and institutions for implementation, data collection and assessment of adult literacy and education with demand-driven, context-based and ensuring education quality. The participation of civil society should be ensured in the process of decision-making in support to capacity building.

1.5. Collaboration with NGOs and comprehensive support

Japan should promote collaboration with NGOs and strengthen comprehensive support ranging from adult literacy programs at community level to building institutional capacity at central government level with maximizing complementarities of different actors including the UN, JICA and NGOs.

1.6. Implementation and monitoring mechanism

Japan should address that governments agree on strong and effective monitoring mechanisms to be established for CONFINTEA 6 commitments, based on time-bound goals and targets. The Global Report on Adult Learning and Education (GRALE), which will be released in CONFINTEA 6, should form part of this regular monitoring/tracking mechanism.

2. Recommendations to Japanese NGOs

2.1. Scale of support

The scale of adult literacy projects should be expanded considering the fact that at least 776 million people are non-literate in the world. To do so, Japanese NGOs need to strengthen project management capacity and capacitate their own staff with expertise in the field of adult literacy and learning. Japanese NGOs are also expected to work in Africa as well as in South Asia where literacy needs are very high.

2.2. Sharing experiences in adult literacy

Opportunities for sharing experiences in the field of adult literacy should be increased. At headquarters level, sharing project evaluation reports would be helpful. At field level, ACCU supported literacy resource centers for women facilitate this process in many countries in Asia. Japanese NGOs should participate in their experience sharing meetings.

2.3. Policy advocacy and institutionalization of innovation

Japanese NGOs should strengthen advocacy efforts at country level to ensure that adult literacy is a state's responsibility. NGOs also should institutionalize their innovative interventions at community level for sustainability and expansion.

2.4. Integrating adult literacy into various projects

The survey found that only 48 NGOs have adult literacy components in their projects among 354 NGOs, suggesting that adult literacy is not prioritized even among NGOs. NGOs should integrate adult literacy and education components into comprehensive poverty reduction and livelihood improvement projects.

Introduction of Member Associations

Of

Japanese Domestic Grass-roots meeting for CONFINTEA

第6回国際成人教育会議のための国内「草の根会議」に参加している団体のいくつかを紹介します。

なお、「草の根会議」の**呼びかけ団体・機関**は、現在以下の団体です。

社会教育推進全国協議会（略称 社全協, JAPSE）
日本社会教育学会(JSSACE)
日本公民館学会
全国社会教育職員養成研究連絡協議会（略称 社養協, JASSDACE）
シャンティ国際ボランティア会(SAVO)
『月刊社会教育』編集委員会
(特活)開発教育協会(DEAR)
財団法人 ユネスコ・アジア文化センター(ACCU)
教育協力NGOネットワーク(JNNE)
図書館問題研究会(JLA)

また本レポートの ・ の論稿を**執筆に参加した団体**は以下のとおりです。

社会教育推進全国協議会（略称 社全協, JAPSE）
日本社会教育学会(JSSACE)
日本図書館協会(JLA)
全国社会教育職員養成研究連絡協議会（略称 社養協, JASSDACE）
アイル人財研総
日本語フォーラム全国ネット
少数民族懇談会
全国夜間中学校研究会
NPO法人 持続可能な開発のための教育の10年推進会議（ESD-J）
(特活)開発教育協会(DEAR)
教育協力NGOネットワーク(JNNE)

- 1 The Japan Society for the Study of KOMINKAN

The Japan Society for the Study of KOMINKAN was founded in May 2003 to advance the interdisciplinary study about Kominkan or community learning centers (CLCs) in Japan and other countries. The society's membership as of the end of March 2009 is 173, composed of researchers, adult educators of Kominkan, officials in local educational administration, students, etc.

Academic activities of the Society are as follows:

(1) Research Convention, held every December

Its program comprises three main parts.

- 1) Sessions for the presentations by participants on the results of their research
- 2) Sessions dealing with selected subject matters
- 3) Symposium

(2) July Workshop, held every July from 2006.

It aims to discuss the current problems of Kominkan.

(3) Publications

1) A Bulletin is published every November.

Vol.1. Local Government "Reform" and Kominkan. 2004

Vol.2. The present direction of Kominkan Reform. 2005

Vol.3. 60 years of Kominkan—Review and prospect. 2006

Vol.4. Publicity and Kominkan—Questioning their significance . 2007

Vol.5. Viewpoints for the Analysis of Kominkan Practices Today. 2008

2) Books for the theory and the practice of Kominkan or CLC. For example:

Handbook for Kominkan and the Community based Learning Institutions. 2006

The Design of Kominkan. 2010

<Contact>

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Home Page address: <http://www1a.biglobe.ne.jp/kominkan/home/php.htm>

- 2 Japan Library Association (JLA)

Address: 1-11-14 Shinkawa, Chuo-ku, Tokyo 104-0033

Tel. +3 3523 0811 Fax +3 3523 0841

<http://www.jla.or.jp> info@jla.or.jp

Members: 4,800 (individual), 2,500 (institutional)

Founded: 1892

Activity:

The Japan Library Association (JLA) is the only organization that represents all types of libraries in Japan. Its mission is to promote libraries through cooperation with those libraries.

JLA conducts surveys and research to deal with important issues for all types of libraries: establishing a system to employ and deploy professional librarians in a library and developing an evolving administrative management model.

JLA hosts its "All-Japan Library Conference" every year, and it is the only national conference in which librarians from any type of library and staff in related fields can participate. JLA holds a variety of committee meetings, and the participants discuss and exchange studies on such themes as promoting children's reading, services for people with disabilities, preservation and conservation, copyright, ICT: information communication technology, intellectual freedom of libraries, publication and distribution, services to multicultural populations, and record management technology, in addition to the issues mentioned earlier relating to librarian deployment and the management model.

UNESCO's "Right to Learn" (1985) made clear that life-long education is a right, and it has become the basis of the role libraries play. Also, this right helped JLA to deal with pressing issues more seriously than before, and consequently, JLA fulfilled the following tasks: developing a theory based on the "Right to Learn," expanding activities to build up libraries, equipping libraries to be centers for life-long education, acquiring information materials, and ensuring that library management considers those who have difficulties accessing information.

JLA publishes periodicals, *Library Journal* and *Libraries Today*, annual books, *Library Yearbook* and *Statistics on Libraries in Japan*, and a textbook for a librarian course, *JLA Textbook Series of Library and Information Studies*. Additionally, JLA publishes about 20 new books a year, including *JLA Monograph Series for Library Practitioners*, *Selection from the Cases on Intellectual Freedom in Japanese Libraries*, *The Library Architecture Award of JLA 1985-2006*, *Japanese Library Laws and Regulations*, and *Guide to Japanese Reference Books*

In addition, JLA publishes such tools as *Nippon Cataloging Rules*, *Nippon Decimal Classification*, and *Basic Subject Headings* for bibliographic data creation.

III - 3 Japan Society for the Study of Adult and Community Education (JSSACE)

Japan Society for the Study of Adult and Community Education (JSSACE), established in 1954, is a national academic organization in the field of adult and community education ('Shakai Kyouiku' in Japanese, literally meaning 'social education'). It has nearly 1,000 members, and among them there are: researchers of adult and community education / lifelong education; members of the administrative staff in local governments who are in charge of adult and community education; people working for Kominkan (community learning centers), public libraries, museums and other facilities of adult and community education; graduate students; volunteers and leaders of adult and community education; and school teachers.

JSSACE aims at contributing to the development of the theory and practice in the field of adult and community education / lifelong education, through the following activities:

- a) holding a national research conference and regional research conferences annually
- b) running joint research projects focusing on important contemporary themes and issues of adult and community education
- c) publishing *Annual Reports* ('Studies in adult and community education' series) based upon the result of joint research projects (see below for the list of recent titles in translation), *Bulletins* which contain academic articles written by JSSACE members, and other publications.

Followings are the titles of *Annual Reports* published by JSSACE as 'Studies in adult and community education' series No.41-52.

Networking volunteer activities: Lifelong learning and civil society (1997)

Higher education and lifelong learning (1998)

Issues of adult and community education in an aging society (1999)

Perspectives on the decentralization and adult education provision by local governments in Japan (2000)

Gender equality and adult education (2001)

Community education for children and youth: A new perspective (2002)

Modern approaches to the legal system related to adult and community education
(2003)

Adult learning (2004)

Social education and lifelong learning under globalization (2005)

Proposal for measures to counter social exclusion based on adult and community education (2006)

New trends in adult and community education and the growth of NPOs (2007)

"Local knowledge": Toward an alternative theory of lifelong learning (2008)

For some titles front cover images and summaries in English are available on the following websites:

http://shakyogakkai.org/HPBU/publication_e070102.html

<http://wwwsoc.nii.ac.jp/jssace/e-page/e-menu7.html>

JSSACE seeks to promote international exchange of research and practice of adult and community education. It is a member of ICAE (International Council for Adult Education) and ASPABE (Asia South Pacific Association for Basic and Adult Education), and held an international conference 'Adult and community education for sustainable development: Challenges and possibilities in a globalizing Asia' in 2003 in celebration of its 50th annual national conference.

Contact details

address: Japan Society for the Study of Adult and Community Education (JSSACE)
c/o Faculty of Education, Waseda University,
Shinjuku-ku, Nishi Waseda 1-6-1, Tokyo 169-8050, Japan

tel: +81-090-3875-5096

email: jssace@edu.waseda.ac.jp, jssace_intl@yahoo.co.jp

website: <http://wwwsoc.nii.ac.jp/jssace/>

**- 4 The Japan Society for the Staff Development
of Adult and Community Education (JASSDACE)**

The Japan Society for the Staff Development of Adult and Community Education (JASSDACE, Shayokyo) is an organization composed mainly of university researchers involved in the education of social education staffs and those playing Active roles in a diversity of scenes of adult and community education. Established in 1993, Shayokyo has 16 institutional (university) members (41 people) and 116 individual members for the total membership of 157 as of August 2008.

- 5 Japan NGO Network for Education (JNNE)

Japan NGO Network for Education, founded in 2001, is a coalition of 28 Japanese NGOs working for international education development. The mission is to contribute to achieving full EFA goals through advocacy, campaigning, capacity building, research and networking. JNNE is a member of Global Campaign for Education (GCE).

c/o Shanti Volunteer Association, 31, Daikyo-cho, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 160-0015
Web: <http://jnne.org/English%20top.html>, E-mail: jnnegeneral@hotmail.co.jp

- 9 Association of Nationwide Evening Junior High Schools

All school personnel, including the administrators, of all public evening junior high schools throughout the whole country formed this association as constituent members in 1954. Currently, the personnel from 35 public evening junior high schools in eight prefectures (with 2000 and several hundred students), are members of the organization. The 8 prefectures include Chiba Prefecture, Tokyo, Kanagawa Prefecture, Kyoto Prefecture, Osaka Prefecture, Nara Prefecture, Hyogo Prefecture, and Hiroshima Prefecture.

The group has received financial assistance from ward and city boards of education. Also, in December every year, a time when large meetings are held by various government agencies, grants of support have been received from the related groups of those municipalities and Ministries such as the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. So, it can be said that the organization has the character of being partly a public group.

At the same time, cooperation has been received from independent organizations at various locations nationwide which have been offering places of study for those people who have not been able to complete their compulsory education.

At the same time, this group has been requesting local governments to establish public evening junior high schools for these people. For more than half a century, this group has been requesting the national government to provide and secure a sufficient education for the people who haven't been able to complete their compulsory education. The national government, however, from the beginning to the end, has taken a backward stance in spite of the pleas from this organization.

For these reasons, on February 20, 2003, the independent organizations mentioned above, individuals who have not been able to complete their compulsory education, and experts from various fields have joined forces as the Association of Nationwide Evening Junior High Schools with the purpose of expanding public evening junior high schools throughout the country and have submitted a statement on these human rights infringements to the Japan Bar Federation

As a result, on August 10, 2006, the Japan Bar Federation submitted to the national government the document containing its opinions concerning the securing of the right of people (who have not been able to complete their compulsory education) to receive an education.

The Association of Nationwide Evening Junior High Schools, at a meeting in December, 2008, issued the following proclamation: "Regardless of age or nationality or municipality" we are aiming at all people getting a basic education through the securing of compulsory education for all. "Compulsory education for all the people! The 21st century plan!" was adopted, and an outpouring of power for the realization of this goal is underway.

History
of
the Domestic Grass-roots Meeting for
CONFINTEA in Japan

History of the Domestic Grass-roots Meeting

for CONFINTEA in Japan

ユネスコは第6回国際成人教育会議の準備過程で、各国に国内の成人教育の政策・実践の到達水準と課題をまとめたナショナル・レポートの作成を求めた。またその作成過程で、各国政府・各国ユネスコ国内委員会が、国内の多様な関連機関・組織を広く組織した会議を設けることを推奨し、そこでの討議・協力による正確な情勢及び課題把握が報告内容に反映されることを重視した。

第6回国際成人教育会議のための国内「草の根会議」は、このユネスコの趣旨に共鳴した日本国内の成人教育・社会教育関連諸団体が、政府にそのような国内会議の開催を求め、迅速に開催されない情勢の中で、自らそのような国内会議を組織する必要に迫られて、組織された。当初は継続した組織になることは想定されていなかったが、第1回目から継続の必要性についての共通認識が生まれ、第6回本会議にむけた国内の市民社会諸組織の会議として継続することになった。開催準備過程、第1回会合を通じて、政府との緩やかな協力関係も生まれ、政府作成ナショナル・レポート草稿への意見提出（時間不足で十分な対応はできなかった）アジア・パシフィック準備会議への日本国内からのオブザバ参加希望者の集約、本会議参加希望者の集約等の活動も行ってきた。

また主要には、国際成人教育会議に関する関心を高める努力をとともに、同会議に日本の市民社会諸組織として協力し、その成果を日本の社会教育の政策・実践に生かすことができるよう、諸活動を模索しつつ展開してきた。

これまでの当面の主要な活動となってきたのは、本報告書『市民社会組織レポート』をまとめ、これを英訳してユネスコ生涯学習研究所に提出するとともに、本会議に持参し、本会議での討議に日本からの参加者を通じて生かしていくこと、また日本語版も今後の活動に活用することであった。

またその他、第6回国際成人教育会議での成果文書作成過程で、日本の市民社会諸組織の課題意識を反映してもらうよう、日本政府代表に働きかけることも課題として自覚され、これはすでに2009年4月9日の政府主催第2回目の「意見交換会」で達成した。この成果は本会議での政府代表の活躍にまたなければならないが、しかし、本「草の根会議」が用意した文書をめぐって、この「意見交換会」で政府と市民社会諸組織との間で、社会教育の個別分野に関する若干の討議も行うことができ、これは意図せざる成果となった。

さらにまた、これまで話題にすることさえできなかったことであったが、海外のNGOの動向・働きかけに学び、政府代表に市民社会組織メンバーを入れるという要望を政府関係者を通じて正式に提案することができた。この要望は実現しなかったが、この問題をめぐっても4月9日の「意見交換会」で政府と市民社会諸組織の間での一定の議論を行うことができた。

また政府との関係のみならず、市民社会諸組織間でも、この「草の根会議」を通じて、これまで相互討議の場を十分設けることができなかった活動分野の異なる諸団体間で、社会教育・成人教育政策全体について、また、各分野での運動・実践について、情報交換等を開始することができた。

さらに政府とも、また「草の根会議」に参加した市民社会諸団体、政府関係諸団体とも、今後、会議中及び会議後も、厳しい批判を相互に保障しつつ、協力して討議していく場をもっていきたいという、将来へ積極的な姿勢を共有することになった。これは、今後の運動・政策・研究・実践を通じた、日本の社会教育の発展への新しい一歩になったのではないかと思われる。以下、この間の「草の根会議」の歩みを年表にして、記録に残しておく。
 (第6回国際成人教育会議のための国内「草の根会議」事務局 荒井容子)

[Chronology]

History of the Domestic Grass-roots Meeting for CONFINTEA in Japan

Back Grand

- 2005年 10月 ユネスコ第33回総会
 2009年に第6回国際成人教育会議開催を決定
- 2007年 3月 第6回国際成人教育会議準備のための審議会(協議会)第1回開催
 11月 第6回国際成人教育会議準備のための審議会(協議会)第2回開催
 ユネスコ ナショナル・レポート依頼 各国へ
 12月 ユネスコ生涯学習研究所 ナショナル・レポートのガイドライン送付 各国へ
 ~NGOのネットワークを通じて、市民社会組織にも情報が伝わる
 ガイドラインの第7・第8条の意義共有~
- 2008年 1月 ナショナル・レポート作成に関する、各国でのNGOの活動情報交換活発化
 2月15日 ユネスコ生涯学習研究所(UIL)
 ガイドライン締め切り延期(当初3月末 4月末)
 4月 ユネスコ 開催日時確定
 準備会議(特にリ-ジョンごと)の大枠スケジュール公開

Germ

- 2008年 3月 社会教育推進全国協議会 日本ユネスコ国内委員会への問合せと依頼
 4月 日本社会教育学会 日本ユネスコ国内委員会へ「要望」送付
 5月 社会教育推進全国協議会
 ナショナル・レポート ガイドラインの和訳をホームページ上で公開
- 6月 日本社会教育学会6月集会 ラウンド・テーブル 第6回会議をテーマに開催
 7月 日本政府 ユネスコ生涯学習研究所の示唆を受け、
 国内会議9月開催を検討
 社会教育推進全国協議会 国内会議開催のための準備会企画・呼びかけ
- 8月6日 第6回ユネスコ国際成人教育会議にむけた
 民間主催国内会議開催企画準備会
 趣旨、会議名、開催日時・場所、事務局、参加呼びかけ方法、
 情報周知方法(ホームページ作成ほか)等検討
 会議名称確定 第六回国際成人教育会議のための国内「草の根会議」
 日本政府 ナショナル・レポート草稿作成

Start

9月13日 第6回国際成人教育会議のための国内「草の根会議」 開催
第1回会合(於 国立教育政策研究所会議室 文部科学省ビル)

開催趣旨

1. 第6回国際成人教育会議関連情報周知と関心喚起
2. リージョン会議(アジアパシフィック)(2009年10月)と
日本からのナショナルレポート(既に草稿あり)についての取り組み

- ・(日本政府から) ナショナルレポートについての「意見交換会」
開催(2009年10月1日)案内
- ・「草の根会議」継続の確認 当面の活動確認
 - 1) 府主催「意見交換会」情報周知
 - 2) リージョン会議(アジアパシフィック)への取り組みを打合せ
 - 3) 市民社会組織レポート作成をめざす
(CSOs: civil society organizations)

日本からのナショナルレポートでは不十分
現状把握・伝達の点で
課題提起の点で
作成過程での相互討議の点で

10月1日 日本政府主催「意見交換会」(第1回)(於国立教育政策研究所)
英語版配布

「草の根会議」リージョン会議(アジアパシフィック)向け打ち合わせ

10月28日 「草の根会議」第2回会合 (於 法政大学)

呼びかけ団体追加情報/「意見交換会」報告

アジアパシフィックリージョン会議報告/

市民社会組織レポート作成のスケジュールと方法

12月3日 「草の根会議」第1回運営委員会 (於 法政大学)

- ・市民社会組織レポート構成案・項目案のまとめ方、スケジュール、経費
(・呼びかけ団体、参加呼びかけ方法についての確認)

2009年 1月21日 「草の根会議」第3回会合 (於 法政大学)

- ・市民社会組織レポート
各団体執筆希望項目の調整、執筆内容についての意見交換
全体の構成・各項目ごとの構成、各章原稿量の目安、
編集スケジュール確認
- ・日本政府への要請 「意見交換会」開催の要請
市民社会組織メンバーを公式代表団に入れること

(2月中旬～下旬 ユネスコ、本会議参加方法情報をホームページにアップ
ワークショップ企画募集情報もアップ)

3月初旬 「草の根会議」事務局 日本政府への要請(関係者を通じて)
「意見交換会」開催について

市民社会組織関係者の公式代表団への参加
(参加候補者選定について受依頼)
日本からのオファー参加者希望者集約について
(逆に、「草の根会議」関係者分の集約の受依頼)

- 3月9日 「草の根会議」第4回会合 (於 法政大学)
市民社会組織レポートについて
政府主催「意見交換会」について 課題
・市民社会組織レポートを政府にもこのとき提出予定
・本会議での成果文書作成における公式代表への要望を文書提出
- 3月14日 市民社会組織レポート構成案と草稿(未完)
- メンバ-内回覧・意見交換・リフト要請 -
- 3月16日 「草の根会議」レポート本会議参加希望者リストを
関係者経由で日本ユネスコ国内委員会に提出
- 3月30日 「草の根会議」第2回運営委員会 (於 法政大学)
・市民社会組織レポート 日本語版最終調整
・政府主催「意見交換会」時提出予定の
本会議時の要請文書作成手順確認
- 4月4日 市民社会組織レポート(未完)回覧用 送付・アップ 第1弾
- 4月8日 日本政府より「意見交換会」(第2回)参加申込書受領 回覧
- 4月9日 市民社会組織レポート(断定版)回覧用 送付・アップ 第2弾
- 4月9日 日本政府主催「意見交換会」(第2回)(於 国立教育政策研究所)
・日本政府 第6回国際成人教育会議についての説明、
政府準備資料の配布と説明
・「草の会議」 市民社会組織レポート(暫定版) 政府に提出
本会議中の成果文書に向けた活動に関する要望文書提出
(「草の根会議」としての本会議中のスタンプ展示について、検討開始)
- 以後、日本語版最終版確定にむけた最終調、英訳原稿編集作業ほか活動継続
- 5月6日 英訳版確定・5月7日入稿のスケジュールで作業中に、
6日未明に延期情報受領
参加予定者へ確認連絡、
正式文書情報等について諸注意(NGOネットワークからのアドバイス等伝達)
- 5月19日 市民社会組織レポート編集作業スケジュール
本会議延期に際しての、編集スケジュールの若干の変更連絡
- 11月9日 「草の根会議」第3回運営委員会 (於 法政大学)
- 11月16日 日本政府主催「意見交換会」(第3回)(於 国立教育政策研究所)

詳細情報入手先

第6回国際成人教育会議のための国内「草の根会議」ホームページアドレス

[Hhttp://prof.mt.tama.hosei.ac.jp/~yarai/confintea%20JAPSE/Confintea6%20grassroots%20meeting%20jp/Confintea6%20grassroots%20meeting%20jp.html](http://prof.mt.tama.hosei.ac.jp/~yarai/confintea%20JAPSE/Confintea6%20grassroots%20meeting%20jp/Confintea6%20grassroots%20meeting%20jp.html)

事務局 連絡先 荒井容子(法政大学 社会教育推進全国協議会) yarai@hosei.ac.jp