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# EDUCATION

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DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION,

TOKYO, JAPAN

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## PREFACE.

Any one who wishes to understand the source and foundation of the civilization of a nation, cannot do better than examine the past history and present condition of its educational system. Therefore it is that in the international exhibitions held in various countries, a space has generally been allotted for educational exhibits alongside of the varied products of trade and industry. Special attention has been paid to this matter in the preparations for the forth-coming Japan-British Exhibition, where the exhibits relating to education will occupy a comparatively large space; and the pleasant duty of furnishing this section of the exhibition was entrusted solely to our Department of Education. The Department accordingly directed several of the schools under its jurisdiction to send in exhibits that would illustrate the special character of the education peculiar to each. The Department furthermore decided to itself exhibit such books, pictures, etc., as should give a general idea of the past history of education in Japan, as well as of the condition of education as a whole at the present time, "Education in Japan", which was specially prepared to serve the latter purpose, is one of these exhibits of the Department of Education. It is divided into ten parts, each written by a different author, and the titles of the various parts, with the names of their respective authors, are as follows:—

## PART I. General Remarks on Japanese Education.

By

KOMAJI YOSHIDA,

*Professor of the Tokyo Higher Normal School for Girls;  
and Assistant Professor of the College of Literature in the  
Imperial University of Tokyo.*

## II. Primary Education.

By

TSUNEZŌ MORIOKA,

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*Compiler of Books in the Department of Education ; and  
Professor of the Tokyo Higher Normal School.*

PART III. Secondary Education.

By

JINTARŌ ŌSE,

*Professor of the Tokyo Higher Normal School.*

PART IV. Normal Education.

By

MATAICHI KOIZUMI,

*Inspector of the Department of Education ; and Professor  
of the Tokyo Higher Normal School.*

PART V. Higher Education.

By

the Bureau of Special Education.

PART VI. Technical Education.

By

TSUGUHISA KUROSAWA,

*Connecillor of the Department of Education.*

PART VII. Female Education.

By

JIRŌ SHIMODA,

*Professor of the Tokyo Higher Normal School for Girls.*

PART VIII. Art Education.

By

NAOHIKO MASAKI,

*Director of the Tokyo Fine Art School ; &*

MOTOICHI YUHARA,

*Director of the Tokyo Academy of Music.*

PART IX. Education of the Blind and Dumb.

By

SHIMPACHI KONISHI,

*Director of the Tokyo Blind and Dumb School.*

PART X. Libraries, Museums, Educational Societies, etc.

By

the Bureau of General Education.





It is to be regretted that the book lacks something of unity as regards form and arrangement, since the different parts have been written by different authors who were allowed but little time for the work; but, at the same time, it is allowable to cherish the pleasing belief that each author, being allowed to handle the subject in that he is most familiar with, has invested it with enough of interest and variety to compensate in some measure for the lack of unity.

December, 1909.  
Department of Education,  
Tokyo, Japan.





# PART I.

## GENERAL REMARKS

ON

## JAPANESE EDUCATION.

### CHAPTER I.

#### Development of Japanese Education.

Japanese civilization finds its source in remote antiquity. In 270 A.D., the Tripartite Kingdom (Corea) presented to our Imperial Court the Chinese classics, which opened the gates for the inflow of the Chinese and Hindoo civilizations. This gave rise to a unique development of educational culture. In the reign of Mommu Tenno, 701 A.D., an "Ordinance relating to Education" was issued, and an impetus was given to education, by the establishment of universities and national schools. It must be remembered that the foundation of these institutions antedated the "Educational Ordinance" of Charlemagne, by a hundred years or more, Oxford University by one hundred and seventy one years, and St. Peter's College, the first at Cambridge, by five hundred and fifty six years. This fact, among others, may explain how we gradually attained our present measure of culture and refinement, and at least shows that we did not advance at a single bound from barbarism to civilization.

Unfortunately, the life of our early schools was of a limited duration, and they did not have a continuous existence like Oxford and Cambridge up to the present time, because the dark clouds of feudal strife which commenced to overshadow the whole empire



towards the end of the twelfth century, finally blotted out these beneficent institutions. After an interval of several centuries, Tokugawa Iyeyasu established his shogunate at Yedo (Tokyo) upon the old feudal system, and succeeded in restoring peace, which continued undisturbed for two hundred and fifty years, and learning once more revived. But the existing system of education, with its universities and public schools, has been developed for the most part during the reign of the present Emperor. In 1868, the Tokugawa shogunate, which had been founded in the early part of the seventeenth century, was ended, and with the Restoration, the new era of Meiji—the “Enlightened Reign”—began. The question of education soon engaged the attention of His Imperial Majesty. In 1869, an ordinance relating to universities, middle, and elementary schools was issued, and in 1871 the Department of Education was established, for the control and supervision of all educational matters throughout the empire.

In the year following, 1872, the “Code of Education” was drawn up. It consisted of one hundred and nine chapters, and treated of all subjects relating to education, such as educational districts, schools, the sending abroad up students for the purpose of study, etc. By this code, the empire was divided into eight university districts, each of which was to have one university. A university district was sub-divided into thirty-two middle school districts, each with its middle school. A middle school district was, in turn, divided into two hundred and ten elementary school districts, each having one elementary school. Thus every part of the country was brought under the same system of education, and one elementary school was to be established for every six hundred inhabitants. Each middle school district was to be under the control of its own superintendent of schools, whose duty it was to look after the inhabitants of his own district, and to persuade them to send to school all children of the age of six years or over. It was also his duty to see to the establishment and maintenance of schools, and to devote his attention to various other matters connected with education.

With the promulgation of the above-mentioned code, the Council of State issued an imperial instruction, explaining that





education was essential for all persons, and that whereas in the past, learning had often been looked upon as a means of securing official position, hence forward the whole population of the country, regardless of classes, must be educated, so that no village should contain a house devoid of learning, nor any house contain an illiterate inmate.

The Code of Education issued in 1872, was, in many points, like the French "Law of Education" promulgated by Napoleon Bonaparte. But while the order and arrangement of the code were excellent, there were some difficulties in putting it into effect. The need of revision was strongly felt, and in the following year (1873), the eight university divisions were reduced to seven, while in 1879, these divisions were virtually abolished, and it was decided that such methods of education should be adopted as would be appropriate to local conditions. This may be regarded as a change from the principle of the French system to that of the United States' system.

For more than ten years in the early part of Meiji, scholars employed themselves in translating into Japanese, useful foreign books of every kind, not a few of these works having reference to education. That American authors were preferred to those of any other nation, was naturally the case, owing to geographical propinquity. These years may be called the epoch of translations.

An American professor, named Scott, was employed in 1872, as the principal teacher for normal schools, while Prof. David Murray, of the same nationality, was employed in the government service as superintendent of schools. The latter gentleman compiled laws relating to education of all kinds. In the meanwhile, not a few students were sent to England and the United States of America for the purposes of study.

About the year 1880, the doctrine that freedom was a matter that concerned the rights and liberties of the common people, was widely discussed in the political world, and gave new political ideas to the nation; but there was a danger that the radicalism of this principle of freedom might create disorder and confusion. These perils were well known in the educational world, and in 1880 the regulations relating to education were revised, while





discipline and the control of students were made more rigid and exact. In the meantime, Spencer's work entitled "Education" was being widely circulated throughout the country, and the movement to which these new ideas of freedom had given birth made considerable progress in the political world. A conservative reaction, however, arose, which was neither to be despised nor trifled with.

The revision of the "Code of Education" in 1886, by Mori Yūrei, Minister of Education, was a reform which ranks next in magnitude to the promulgation of the Code itself. Mori had been minister resident in other countries for many years. He not only thoroughly mastered the principles, and understood the condition of education in foreign countries, but he also had excellent ideas of his own in regard to national education. In 1885 a new cabinet was formed, when the post of Minister of Education was given to him. All his energies were devoted to the task of thoroughly revising the whole system of education. Setting aside old ordinances, laws, and regulations, during his tenure of office there were issued the "Imperial Ordinance relating to Universities"; the "Imperial Ordinance relating to Normal Schools", and the "Imperial Ordinance relating to Middle Schools."

At the same time, appropriate general regulations for all schools, were published. Inspectors were appointed in the Department, to examine into and control educational matters throughout the country. Steps were taken to secure the proper training of teachers: normal schools were divided into two kinds, viz: higher and ordinary; and Prof. Hausknecht, a German, was called to the Imperial University to train teachers of higher grade. This step marked the introduction of German influence into our educational world, and it was owing to this gentleman that military drill was introduced into all schools in the empire, thus adding physical to intellectual and moral educations.

The Ordinance relating to Elementary Schools was revised in 1890; the "Regulation relating to Supplementary Technical Schools," was enacted in 1893; "Regulations relating to High Schools for Girls" were framed in 1895; the "Ordinance relating to Middle Schools" was revised, and the ordinances









relating to High Schools for Girls and Technical Schools were issued in 1899, The "Ordinance relating to Elementary Schools" was revised in 1900, the "Ordinance relating to Special Schools" was issued in 1903. Only three years after this (1906) the term of compulsory education was extended to a period of six years. It will thus be seen that our present system of education has been developed within the last forty years.

According to the figures for the 40th statistical year of Meiji (April 1907—March 1908) the number of elementary schools in the empire was 27,125, and the number of children enrolled, was 5,713,698; which shows that the percentage of those attending school among children of school age, was 98.53 for boys, and 96.14 for girls, the average percentage being 97.38. If this condition of things be compared with that of 1872, when the average percentage was less than thirty, it will be seen that a great advance has been made.

The number of blind and dumb schools was 41, viz: one government school, two public, and thirty-eight private schools, with 1,684 pupils. All the normal schools (69 in number) are public institutions, with an attendance of 19,359 pupils. There were two government higher normal schools, with 975 pupils. There was one government higher normal school for girls,—there are two such schools now—with 365 pupils. The number of middle schools—including government, public, and private institutions,—was 287, with 111,436 pupils. High schools for girls, consisting of government, public and private schools, were 133 in number, with 40,273 pupils. The high schools (Kôtō-gakkō) for boys were eight in number, all government institutions, and their pupils numbered 4,888. The three imperial universities, established by the government, had 7,370 students. In addition, there were 52 special schools established either by the government, or by individuals. Of technical schools, there were 5,301, consisting of government, public and private institutions. The number of training institutes for technical school teachers was three, and there were four special institutes for secondary teachers; while the number of miscellaneous schools was 2,172.





## CHAPTER II.

### The Present System of Japanese Education.

Our school system, like that of other civilized countries, is of three kinds, viz., general education, special education, and technical education. In the wide sense of the term, special education includes technical education, but as the education which prepares farmers, mechanics or merchants has many points which are peculiar to itself for the sake of distinction, it has been placed in a separate category. Each kind of education is divided, according to grade, into primary, secondary, and higher education.

General education aims at giving the knowledge and training essential to everybody. It does not pretend to prepare pupils for any particular occupation. Training institutes for teachers of this kind of education come under this head of general education. The schools of primary grade which impart this general education are called elementary schools. It is intended that to these schools all the children of the nation, irrespective of position or difference of circumstances, should resort, in order to obtain the knowledge and training essential for everyday life. In this particular, our system of education resembles that of the United States of America, rather than those of European countries.

Kindergartens, schools for blind and dumb, normal schools, etc. have a close connection with primary general education. Secondary education is nothing more than general education of a higher grade. It is represented by middle schools (for boys), and by high schools for girls. The pupils in these schools, like those of 'high schools' in the United States, have all passed through elementary schools. But our high schools, which furnish educational courses preparatory to the imperial universities, may be looked upon as schools for the highest kinds of general education. They are like the second si cle of a lyc e in France, in furnishing some preparatory courses in special education, and like the last three years of a German gymnasium, realgymnasium, or oberrealgymnasium in giving general education. But as their name indicates, their chief object is the provision of educational





courses preparatory to the universities, and they may therefore come under the category of special education.

Special education has to do with such instruction in science and art as shall facilitate social progress. In other words, it furnishes a training for specialists. Schools in which law, politics, medicine, pharmacy, science, literature, music, the fine arts, languages, etc., are taught, all come under the head of special education. There are also grades in this kind of education. The imperial universities furnish the education highest in grade, while special schools of medicine, the Tokyo Academy of Music, the Tokyo Fine Art School, etc., give the same kind of education but of somewhat lower grades.

Technical education comprises the knowledge and training essential, for farmers, artisans, merchants, etc. It is given in agricultural schools, technical schools, commercial schools, apprentices' schools, supplementary technical schools, etc. Supplementary technical schools, apprentices' schools and technical schools of B grade may be called technical schools of primary grade. Technical schools of A grade may be called technical schools of secondary grade; while higher commercial schools, higher technical schools, and higher schools for agriculture and forestry, may be called special technical schools of high grade.

Our school system is thus complex in its nature, but still more complex and unique in character, are the means adopted for training instructors. It is true that normal schools are established in all civilized countries, for the training of teachers for primary schools; but in our country, there are other institutions in addition. For example, there is a special system of test examinations for teachers; and there are special courses, of one or two years' duration, provided in normal schools, for those graduates of middle schools (for boys) and high schools for girls, who wish to become elementary school teachers. Furthermore, special lecture classes (Kōshūkai) are provided for the training of teachers. All these may be called ripples and waves in the rising tide of Japanese education.

In like manner, arrangements are made for the training of teachers who are engaged in secondary education. While graduates





from universities become teachers of secondary education in Japan as in all other civilized countries, we have, besides universities, two higher normal schools, and two higher normal schools for girls, specially provided for the training of secondary school teachers.

In France, there are higher normal schools, but our higher normal schools are not of so high a grade as that of Paris, nor are they confined, like those of Saint-Cloud and Fontenay-aux-Roses, to the training of normal school teachers. On the whole, ours resemble rather those at Sèvres in their characteristics. A combination of Sèvres and Fontenay-aux-Roses would be equivalent to our higher normal school for girls, and if only male pupils were admitted, there would be a fair presentation of our higher normal schools. In addition, we have a "Committee for Testing the Qualifications of Teachers for Licences." The Committee provides two kinds of test; a test followed by examination, and a test without examination. The teachers of secondary schools, accordingly, are of a somewhat miscellaneous order.

Besides those schools which are under the direct or indirect control of the Department of Education, there are also schools which belong to the Imperial Household, the War Department, the Naval Department, the Department of Home Affairs, the Department of Agriculture and Commerce, and the Department of Communications.

The Gakushūin, or Peers' School, belongs to the Imperial Household, and its aim is to educate the sons and daughters of noblemen. It includes an elementary school, a middle school, and a high school, the last as a preparatory course for the imperial universities, while its female department has the grade of a high school for girls. The Military Preparatory Schools, Military Academy, Military College, Military School for Artillery and Engineering, Military Medical College, etc., are under the control of the War Department. The Military Preparatory School has the grade of a middle school. The Naval Academy, Naval College, etc., are controlled by the Naval Department. The Jailors' School, and the Kōgaku-kwan, or the School of Japanese Learning, belong to the Department of Home Affairs. The Fisheries Institute, and Agricultural Experimental Station belong to the Department of





Agriculture and Commerce. The Training School for Officials in the Post and Telegraphic Service, and the Nautical School, belong to the Department of Communications.

## CHAPTER III.

### The Agencies of our Educational Administration.

The agencies of our educational administration consist of two kinds, viz: one central and various local agencies. The former will first be described, after which will come a description of the latter.

The Department of Education, as the central agency, controls the education of the whole empire, except that of Formosa. Notwithstanding the exceptions enumerated at the end of the last chapter, the influence of the Department is supreme. It consists of three bureaus: the Bureau of Special Education, the Bureau of Technical Education and the Bureau of General Education, each transacting the business belonging to the particular kind of education which it controls. In addition there is the Minister's Cabinet, which deals with letters and drafts, and questions of finance, books and pictures, architecture, personnel, etc.

The Minister of Education controls all educational affairs which come within the province of the Department, and he is responsible for them. Under the minister, there is a vice-minister, who assists him in the discharge of all duties, and who controls the affairs of the various bureaus. At the head of each bureau is an official who is responsible for the business transacted by it. Besides these, there are other high officials, such as councillors, secretaries, private secretaries, examiners of school books and charts, compilers of the same, architects, etc., who are responsible for the discharge of the special duties assigned to them. There are also inspectors, and the whole country being divided into seven administration districts, an inspector is appointed for each division, to examine into and to give





encouragement to educational progress. The practice of appointing inspectors by the central agency exists also in France, but in that country the inspectors simply pay attention to particular subjects of study, whereas our inspectors take full charge of their respective districts. There are also some inspectors who make it their duty to supervise particular branches of study. In addition, committees are appointed to discharge similar duties.

The Higher Council of Education was first appointed in 1896. Its duty is to express an opinion upon the questions submitted to it by the Minister, as well as to present to him its own opinion upon various matters. The questions submitted to it by the minister relate to the control and establishment of imperial universities, of other kinds of schools, and libraries, subjects of study, the school year, school equipment, etc., national compulsory education, tuition fees, the qualifications of teachers, etc. The Council is composed of representatives from all parts of the educational world, and is consequently many-sided in its nature. A councillor's term of service is for three years, but ones holding an office may continue to be one as long as his appointment lasts.

A committee is appointed to test teachers for secondary schools. It consists of a chairman and a certain number of members, augmented occasionally by temporary members. There is also a committee for examining medical practitioners and one for examining pharmacutists; these committees examine those who wish to become physicians or pharmacutists and certify as to their qualifications to become such. To these must be added the following:—the Text Book Investigation Committee; Japanese Language Investigation Committee, Earthquake Investigation Committee; Geodetic Committee; Committee for the Compilation of Catalogues of Scientific Literature; the Central Meteorological Observatory, and the Special Observatory for the Measurement of Latitude, all of which come under the control of the Department of Education.

As regards local agencies of educational administration, the whole country with the exception of Formosa, is divided into three *Fu* and 43 *Ken*. The Governor General of Hokkaido and the governors of *Fu* and *Ken* have charge of educational affairs in



their civil districts. Under these governors there are secretaries who assist them in the transaction of educational affairs. There are also inspectors of *Do*, *Fu*, or *Ken*, who inspect the schools under their control. There are *shichō* and *ku* in a *Do*, as there are *Gun* and cities in a *Fu* or *Ken*, and towns or villages in a *Gun*. The expense of elementary schools is borne by cities, towns, or villages, and the schools are controlled by the heads of these civil divisions. There are also educational committees appointed, which help in securing the legally required attendance of children at school. Also there are committees that attend to matters connected with the issue of licenses to elementary school teachers in *Do*, *Fu*, or *Ken*. In every *Fu* and *Ken* there are also educational societies; and though these are private institutions, they help in the advancement of education, both directly and indirectly, in the localities to which they belong.

## CHAPTER IV.

### Special Characteristics of Japanese Education.

The system of education which followed the Restoration, was modelled on those of the civilized countries of Europe and America, what were considered to be the best parts of the occidental systems of education being taken and combined to form what is the educational system of Japan to-day. In the successive stages of education, our system is like that of the United States; our method of inspecting schools, approximates to that in use in France, and as regards the subjects of courses we have adopted what is common to all countries of Europe and America, with the exception of the study of the classics. But that part of our system which is unique is found in the matter of moral education.

In this country, education and religion have always been taught separately. Even at the time when feudalism placed education in the hands of the priesthood, and when the name





"*tera*" (temple) or "*terakoya*" (temple-house) was given to all low grade schools, during the Tokugawa period, religion was never taught in any school as one of its courses; and the Restoration consciously left this point unaltered.

The "Code of Education" issued in 1872, was European in both spirit and organization, but a course of morality, which was then unknown in all American and European schools was provided in both elementary and middle schools as an essential part of the curriculum. [It was not until 1882, that such a course was first provided in public primary schools in France.] Ever since, this provision has been left unaltered. Thus the study of morality in our schools has been historically continuous; for while it is a fact that no such distinct course existed before the Restoration, the whole body of education was nevertheless hardly anything less than one grand course of morality. Morality, it must be remembered, was never expected to take the place of religion, nor did it ever conflict with religion. It teaches what every Japanese should observe, regardless of his religious belief or occupation. Such is the sole object of our moral teaching.

What was our moral education in the past? What is our moral education at present? Japan is an old country, dating back more than two thousand five hundred years. Its history is bright in all respects. On the one hand, it has never been conquered by any foreign nation, while on the other, it has always been ruled by a sovereign of the same dynasty. During such a long period, it is no wonder that the nation should have prospered at times, and declined at times, should have enjoyed peace at some times and have suffered from anarchy and disturbances at other times; still the sovereign always loved his subjects, as a tender mother the babes at her breast, while the people at large regarded their sovereign, as a child regards its mother. Our ancestors were filial to their parents, and faithful to their feudal superiors or their sovereign. These good relations, which have been transmitted from generation to generation, resulted in happy homes and prosperous communities. Thus our morality finds its source in the very essence of the nation's historical life. The doctrine of Confucius conforms to our original moral tenets in many



points, so it was adopted in the educational system, thus making the basis of our moral education firmer and stronger. Thus filial piety and loyalty have been the foundation of our national morality.

Before the Restoration, nobody ever doubted the soundness and truth of this principle. But with the importation of American and European civilization, western works on morality were translated, and portions of these translations became unconsciously incorporated into our school text books. In the meantime, ideas of individuality and principles of liberty gradually became prevalent through the country, and the old principle of our national morality was shaken, while some went so far as to reject the whole, and to adopt foreign tenets of morality. On the other hand, a strong reaction set in, and radically progressive principles contended with radically conservative ones, which would be satisfied with nothing short of having Confucianism, and Confucianism only, as the spirit and principle of our moral education. In this way the very foundation of morality in our schools was shaken. But the Imperial Rescript issued in 1890 afforded a sure and firm basis for morality. The customary version of the Rescript, reproduced here in full, is, after all, a very poor substitute for the original:—

*Know ye, Our subjects:*

*Our Imperial Ancestors have founded Our Empire on a basis broad and everlasting and have deeply and firmly implanted virtue; Our subjects ever united in loyalty and filial piety have from generation to generation illustrated the beauty thereof. This is the glory of the fundamental character of Our Empire, and herein also lies the source of Our education. Ye, Our subjects, be filial to your parents, affectionate to your brothers and sisters; as husbands and wives be harmonious, as friends true; bear yourselves in modesty and moderation; extend your benevolence to all; pursue learning and cultivate arts, and thereby develop intellectual faculties and perfect moral powers; furthermore, advance public good and promote common interests; always respect the Constitution and observe the laws; should emergency arise, offer yourselves courageously to the State; and thus guard and*





*maintain the prosperity of Our Imperial Throne coeval with heaven and earth. So shall ye not only be Our good and faithful subjects, but render illustrious the best traditions of your forefathers.*

*The Way here set forth is indeed the teaching bequeathed by Our Imperial Ancestors, to be observed alike by Their Descendants and the subjects, infallible for all ages and true in all places. It is Our wish to lay it to heart in all reverence, in common with you, Our subjects, that we may all thus attain to the same virtue.*

*The 30th day of the 10th month of the 23rd year of Meiji.  
(Imperial Sign Manual. Imperial Seal.)*

Under present regulations, all schools, except the universities, provide a course of morality, which inculcates in pupils of all schools the very spirit of the Rescript. Hence recourse is had, at one time, to story-telling as the principal thing, at other times, precepts and exhortations are the form taken by the lesson. Historical personages or fictitious names are sometimes used in setting forth the truth. The methods pursued in teaching morality are thus varied, to suit the differing outward conditions and mental states of the learners, thus making the mode of instruction more thoroughly efficacious.

In this way the sentiment, feeling, and action of pupils relating to morality, are cultivated and refined. With the same object in view, other courses of schools are arranged, so as to harmonize with this. Furthermore, school discipline comes to its assistance, and the school life itself is intended to produce the salutary effects of moral education.

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## CHAPTER V.

### Education in Formosa and Hokkaido.

In Formosa, all affairs relating to education, are under the control of the Governor General, and the Department of Educa-





tion has nothing to do with them. But the system of education pursued in the schools, with the exception of those established specially for the natives, is similar to that of other parts of the Empire. Although the grade is low, being either that of elementary or secondary education, and never reaching to that of higher education, yet it is divided into three kinds, viz : general education, special education, and technical education.

The schools of elementary grade, which belong to general education, are the Formosan elementary schools, public schools, Japanese language schools, and normal schools, all of which are public institutions. Formosan elementary schools are established for Japanese children, and are similar in grade to elementary schools in the main island of the Empire. The public schools are established for native children, and their chief object is the teaching of the Japanese language, and the imparting of such knowledge and moral teaching as may be calculated to produce the character becoming to a Japanese citizen. Children between the ages of eight and fourteen are admitted. The school period covers six years. The subjects of study consist of morality, the Japanese language, composition, reading, writing, arithmetic, music and gymnastics. In these schools, great efforts are made to have the pupils observe the principles of hygiene; and especially are they warned against the bad effects of opium smoking.

The Japanese language schools are institutes having a two-fold aim, the propagation of the Japanese language, and the propagation of Japanese national sentiment. The Japanese language schools are divided into two classes, A and B. The former admit pupils between fifteen and thirty years of age, who are possessed of some general knowledge; while the latter admit younger pupils from eight to fifteen years of age.

The former are provided with short courses, and the pupils graduate in half a year's time, while the latter have many long courses. Besides the Japanese language, reading, composition, writing and arithmetic are taught; and, according to the local circumstances, either one or several of the following subjects are added; the Chinese language, geography, history, music, and gymnastics. For girls, sewing may also be taught. The course



extends over four years. Normal schools are established by the colonial government of Formosa, and are under the control of the Governor General. Their object is to train teachers for schools affording a general education of primary grade. The school system is similar in principle to that of normal schools in the main part of the Empire.

Besides the public institutions enumerated above, there are private schools, for general education of the primary grade. The originators, i. e., the owners or principals of private schools, must first apply to the colonial government and get its sanction, before their schools can be established. They must state in their application, the aim of the school, subjects of study, length of school year, method of examination, the text books to be used, the rules as to admission and leaving, the maximum number of pupils, the location of the school buildings, the name of the school, etc. There are in the island many private schools thus established by Japanese, as well as by foreigners. The private schools founded for the old native inhabitants are called *Shobō* (Book Houses) or *Gijiku* (Public Instruction Places). By the law issued in 1901 relating to these native schools, they are allowed to continue their old courses of study, for the time being, but the Japanese language, and arithmetic must be added, sooner or later.

The best known school of secondary grade, is the Formosan Japanese Language School. It consists of three divisions, viz: normal department, Japanese language department, and technical department. It much resembles the *kanton-schule*, or state schools of Switzerland. As may be seen by the designation of the department, the school gives general education, of both primary and secondary grades, as well as technical education of the secondary grade. Attached to this school is an institution which teaches the native Formosan language. Then there is a medical school, called the Formosan School of Medicine, where the special education required by physicians and surgeons, is given.

Hokkaido, formerly known by the name of Yezo, being looked upon as the residence of the Ainu tribes, for a time enjoyed but little of the Imperial beneficence, but now it is receiving the same care and attention as other portions of the empire. The





method of education there pursued, does not much differ from that of the main-land; but as the uncultivated districts are extensive, and many immigrants are annually coming from the main-land and elsewhere, some slight deviations from the standard method have been made, in general education of the elementary grade; and institutions with shorter courses are also established to suit local conditions.

Since the "Ainu Protection Law" was enacted in 1899, schools have been founded for the children of Ainu tribes. According to the figures of the fortieth statistical year of Meiji (1907-1908) the number of schools was eighteen, and that of school children, seven hundred and eighty-eight. If the number of Ainu children who attend the same schools with Japanese children, be added, the total is two thousand and seventy-eight. The percentage of those attending school compared with the whole number of children of school age, is 86.57 for boys, and 81.01 for girls, making a general average of 84.16.

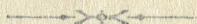
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## PART II.

# PRIMARY EDUCATION.



The institutions having to do with primary education are Elementary Schools, Kindergartens, Schools for the Blind and Dumb, and other schools similar to elementary schools; of which the schools for the blind and dumb being treated under the heading "Education for the Blind and Dumb" are here omitted.

## CHAPTER I.

### Elementary Schools.

#### SECTION I.—OBJECT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Our elementary schools, like the common or national schools in Europe and America are institutions for imparting a general education, by which is meant, it need hardly be said, not an education intended to afford an employment in life, but an education aimed at the intellectual, moral, and bodily development of children in such wise as to fit them for their place in society as members of the nation. Our middle schools (for boys) and high schools for girls, being, also, for general education, are, as defined in the Imperial Ordinance, established to afford a general education of a higher standard, while elementary schools are for general education of an elementary

Our elementary schools being established, as was said before, to afford a general education, they have to do with the three forms of culture,—intellectual, moral, and physical; but in the Imperial Ordinance the Elementary School





Education, the object of such schools is more clearly defined as follows :—

“Elementary schools are designed to give children the rudiments of moral education and of an education specially adapted to make of them good members of the community, together with such general knowledge and skill as are necessary for the practical duties of life—due attention being paid to their bodily development.”

In the regulations for carrying out the above Ordinance are given the principal points to be observed in attaining the desired object, viz. (1) That matters connected with moral and national education should be attended to in the teaching of any subject of study ; (2) That with regard to the knowledge and skill to be imparted to children, such facts should be carefully chosen and taught, as the children may be able, by repeated exercise and study, to make application of in their daily life ; (3) That with a view to the proper mental and bodily growth of the children, the teaching of all subjects of study should be in strict conformity with the stage of development already reached ; (4) That the teaching of the children should be carefully adjusted to their special conditions of sex and future life ; (5) That a close connection should be preserved between the different subjects taught, so as to make them mutually profitable without interfering with the general object and method of study.

Our school administration since the beginning of the new era of Meiji has been established upon the principle of placing religion outside of the school education. In August, 1899, a special instruction was issued by the Department of Education directing that in all government and public schools and in schools with courses of instruction coming under the provisions of our laws and ordinances, no religious education should be given nor any religious ceremonies observed, even though these should be extra to the present course of instruction. Such being the course taken in our administration, it is quite evident that the moral education in elementary schools does not stand on the basis of religion. The very source from which our education derives its strength is in itself ; that is to say, the



Precept of our Imperial Ancestors, and the ways handed down from our forefathers. Herein lies the fundamental principle from which our moral and national education takes its rise.

The Imperial Rescript on Education issued on 30th October, 1890, makes clear for us the way which we are to follow; and we take this as the rule, abiding and unchangeable, by which the education of our country is to be guided.

Consequently in our elementary as well as in all other schools, this Imperial Rescript is read aloud before all the school assembled on national holidays or on other solemn occasions; and each word in it is carefully explained in detail and its meaning made clear to every pupil, that each one may preserve in his heart, through repetition by night and by day, these words of the Imperial Will.

## SECTION II.—KINDS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Our elementary schools are of two kinds, viz: the Ordinary Elementary School and the Higher Elementary School.

The ordinary elementary schools are schools where what is commonly called compulsory education is given; to these schools people in general are under obligation to send their children, there to attend for a certain period of time in order to receive a certain prescribed course of instruction.

The higher elementary schools are established for those children who having completed their course of compulsory education wish to receive a higher general education, though not wishing to advance any higher than that; that is to say, to enter the middle school (for boys) or high school for girls.

There are also schools in which the ordinary and the higher courses of instruction are both provided. Such schools are called the Jinjō-Kōtō Shōgakkō (Ordinary and Higher Elementary School).

As before stated, the ordinary elementary school is a school for compulsory education. The state, when it makes school attendance obligatory, must provide at the same time, proper accommodation for those to be taught. In the first place, the provision of school equipment is made a legal obligation of public corporations. The cities, towns, and villages are required





to establish schools within their own school districts, for the children of school age. If a town or a village has not the necessary resources, a school union may be formed with another town or village; or if the number of children is found inadequate, or if, the population being scanty, a sufficient number of children can not be collected to form a school within a suitable distance from the childrens' homes, either a school union may be formed, or the whole or a part of the school business may be entrusted to another town or village, to fulfil all educational obligations.

When more than one school has been established by a city, town, or village, or by a town or village school union, the expenses shall be borne either by one district or by those districts for the use of which the school has been assigned; or a division may be made into several districts, and either one district or several shall bear the expense.

When circumstances do not allow a town or a village to establish its school, a school union or a school trust may be resorted to, as stated above; and when the burden is found to be still too heavy, pecuniary aid shall be granted from the *gun* (district) to make up for the deficiency; and when the aid of the *gun* is insufficient, the *fu* or *ken* shall, as a rule, be required to give additional aid.

In special cases, however, where all such means are unavoidable, there is an annulment of the obligation to establish schools and carry out the rules in connection therewith.

The elementary schools established at the expense of a city, town or village, or of a school union of towns or villages, are collectively called *shi-chō-son-ritsu-shōgakkō* (elementary schools of the city, town or village establishment). The establishment of ordinary elementary schools is a part of the duty of public bodies, while the establishment of higher elementary schools is left at the option of such bodies, though of course it is a matter of congratulation for the state to see as many higher elementary schools as possible voluntarily established by cities, towns or villages.

The period of our compulsory education, which used to be





four years, was increased to six by the Imperial Ordinance, No. 52, of 1907, much to the general gratification. Our satisfaction, however, is far from being complete, for when we look at the actual condition of things in Europe and America, we see that this is no more than a step in advance of the existing state of things in our country, as is made evident by the repeated declaration of the Minister of Education in his instruction issued at the time, in which he says that the above stated period of compulsory education will some day be extended yet further. It is accordingly to be hoped, under the present circumstances that, some more higher elementary schools may be established in order that there may be an advance in the standard of the general education, to be received by the people for two or three years after the completion of the course of instruction in the ordinary elementary schools.

Our law recognizes the existence of private elementary schools side by side with the public elementary schools, the former being those established and maintained at the expense of individuals. In the private elementary schools, with the exception of those under special provisions of law, the courses of instruction prescribed by law are given as in the case of the city, town, or village elementary schools, and they are subject to government supervision.

Besides the above there are other elementary schools which are under the immediate control of the Department of Education, such as those attached to the Higher Normal Schools of government establishment; and those attached to the normal schools of prefectural establishment, as also the elementary school department of the Gakushū-in (Peers' School) under the control of the Department of the Imperial Household. The ordinary elementary course of instruction given in these schools is recognized by law in the same way as that given in the ordinary elementary schools established by a city, town, or village.

The statistics of the 40th fiscal year (1906-7) show the number of elementary schools to be 27,125, of which those of the city, town, or village establishment are little less than 99 per cent., and those of private establishment little more than 1000.





Of the city, town, and village elementary schools, those of the ordinary standard somewhat less than 60 per cent., and those of the ordinary and higher standards are rather less than 35 per cent., while those of the higher standard stand at little more than 5 per cent.

### SECTION III.—COURSES OF INSTRUCTION.

According to the Revised Ordinance of 1907 relating to elementary schools (in force since 1908), the course of instruction in the ordinary elementary school extends over six years, the subjects of studies being moral lessons, the Japanese language, arithmetic, Japanese history, geography, science, drawing, singing, and gymnastics and (for girls only) sewing. These constitute the standard course, while in some cases lessons in manual work may be given as local circumstances may require. In the higher elementary schools the course of instruction extends over two years. To this may be added another year to make it three, the standard course of instruction being essentially the same as that of the ordinary elementary schools only that either one or more of three subjects,—manual work, agriculture, and commerce—may be added (agriculture and commerce must not be taken together), as also the English language, when local circumstances make this advisable. It is also provided that of the additional subjects all except manual work may be made optional.

The courses of study and school hours as prescribed by law are as given below :—





The Syllables in Combination for the use of the Blind in Japan.

CSL

ヤ ..... ギヤ ..... シヤ ..... ジヤ ..... チャ ..... ダヤ ..... クワ ..... グワ  
 ..... kya ..... gya ..... sha ..... ja ..... cha ..... ja ..... kwa ..... gwa

..... キユ ..... ギユ ..... シユ ..... ジユ ..... チユ ..... デユ  
 ..... kyu ..... gyu ..... shu ..... ju ..... chu ..... ju

..... キヨ ..... ギヨ ..... シヨ ..... ジヨ ..... チヨ ..... デヨ  
 ..... kyo ..... gyo ..... sho ..... jo ..... cho ..... jo

..... ファ ..... ヴ  
 ..... fa ..... va

..... フィ ..... 井  
 ..... fi ..... vi

..... ニヤ ..... ヒヤ ..... ビヤ ..... ピヤ ..... ミヤ ..... リヤ  
 ..... nya ..... hya ..... bya ..... pya ..... mya ..... rya

..... フ ..... ヴ  
 ..... fu ..... vu

..... ニユ ..... ヒユ ..... ビユ ..... ピユ ..... ミユ ..... リユ  
 ..... nyu ..... hyu ..... byu ..... pyu ..... myu ..... ryu

..... フェ ..... ヱ  
 ..... fe ..... ve

..... ニョ ..... ヒョ ..... ビョ ..... ピョ ..... ミョ ..... リョ  
 ..... nyo ..... hyo ..... byo ..... pyo ..... myo ..... ryo

..... フォ ..... ヴ  
 ..... fo ..... vo

イ シ ヤ ..... オ キ ヤ ..... ヤ ..... キ ユ ..... シ ..... キ ヨ ..... ト ..... キ ヨ .....  
 i-sha ..... okyaku ..... kyū — ji ..... kyosho ..... tōkyō

..... ギ ヨ ..... シ ..... ヤ ..... ギ ..... ヤ ..... ク ..... シ ..... ヨ ..... ..... ギ ユ ..... ニ ..... ユ ..... ..... ミ ..... ヤ ..... ク .....  
 gyosha ..... gyakujo ..... gyūnyū ..... myaku

..... チ ..... ヨ ..... ク ..... ナ ..... ヤ ..... ヲ ..... ..... ヒ ..... ヨ ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... .....  
 choku ..... chawan ..... chōchin ..... shusu ..... juzu

..... シ ..... ヤ ..... ツ ..... ナ ..... ヨ ..... ツ ..... ナ ..... ヨ ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... .....  
 shatsu ..... chokki ..... chōchin ..... shusu ..... juzu

..... キ ..... シ ..... ヤ ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... ..... .....  
 kisha ..... ryōkō — menjo ..... kome 6 pyō

.....  
 kwaji ..... gwaimusho ..... kaigwai ..... shokoku

.....  
 meiji ..... 3 2nd nen ..... 7th ..... gwatsu ..... 6th ka



Although in special cases some deviation from the above rules is permissible, the number of school hours per week shall in no case exceed 30 nor be less than 18 in the ordinary course; and in the higher course it shall not exceed 32 nor be less than 24; except, in half-time schools, in which the number of school hours may be made over 18 per week in each; and in the case of younger children the school hours may be reduced to 12 per week in the ordinary course.

The standard of the courses of instruction and the number of school hours having thus been determined, and the course of each being established, the director of the school must arrange the details of instruction for each subject of study. In order to ascertain that the course of each school year had been completed or that the whole prescribed course had been carried out, testing by examination was the only method employed in former years; but since 1900 when the regulation enforcing the Imperial Ordinance relating to elementary schools was issued, it has come to be decided not by examination but by considering the results attained by each pupil in his daily work. In this way the danger was avoided of excessive application just before the examination on the part of children whose mental and physical development was still incomplete, but who were often driven thereto by the strain of competition, with results highly injurious to both mind and body. At the end of each school year, when the course has been completed in the ordinary as well as in the higher elementary school, the director must give a certificate to each of those who have passed through the course satisfactorily.

The school year in an elementary school begins, as a rule, on the 1st of April and ends on the 31st of March of the following year; but when local conditions demand it, the school year may begin on the 1st of September and end on the 31st of August. The fixing of the school terms and the hours of opening and closing school each day is at the discretion of the local governor.

The number of holidays in elementary schools must not exceed ninety days per annum, exclusive of Sundays; and the fixed holidays are:—(1) National holidays and anniversaries; (2) Sun-



days; (3) summer vacation; (4) winter vacation; (5) holidays at the end of the school year; and (6) other holidays fixed by the local governor with reference to local custom, such as those at harvest time, or fête days celebrating the tutelary deities of towns or villages, etc. Of all these the most important are the anniversary of the accession of the Emperor Jinmu, the Emperor's Birth-day, and New-Years' day. On each of these days, the whole school is assembled in the main hall, and a ceremony is very solemnly gone through to the end that the national spirit may be sustained, and pure feelings of loyalty and love may thereby be strengthened. The programme runs as follows:—(1) "Kimigayo" (the national anthem) is sung in chorus by all the school; (2) Homage done to the portraits of the Emperor and Empress; (3) Recitation by the Director of the School of the Imperial Rescript on Education; (4) The Director's remarks respecting the foregoing; (5) Singing in chorus of some song proper for the occasion by the whole school.

*Text Books and Charts*:—With regard to the text books and charts to be used in our elementary schools, various changes were from time to time made in the regulations, but from April, 1903 the government has adopted the system of state text books, by which the copyright of the books and charts to be used in an elementary school should, as a rule, belong to the Department of Education. When there are several books on the same subject, the local governor is to use his own discretion in making a selection therefrom. To go more into detail, in regard to text books on morals, the Japanese language, arithmetic, Japanese history, geography and drawing, the local governor is to make a selection from amongst those copyrighted by the Department of Education or sanctioned for use by the Minister of Education. As regards the subjects of gymnastics, sewing, manual work, science, and singing for a lower grade than the fourth year of the ordinary course, no books are allowed to be used by the children. As regards Japanese writing, arithmetic, and drawing, as well as maps to accompany the elementary school geography, the use of books may or may not be allowed at the discretion of the director of the school.



# OCCUPATIONS OF THE DUMB GRADUATES.

Subjects of Study.  Occupations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		10									
									Ordinary Course.	Ordinary Course. Drawing.		Ordinary Course. Sewing.	Ordinary Course. Drawing, Engraving, and Joinery.	Ordinary Course. Drawing & Sewing.	Sewing.	Ordinary Course. Engraving & Joinery.	Joinery.	Total.		Grand Total.
																		Males.	Females.	
1 Assistants in Family.	13 fem	1	8 fem 9		1 fem				14	10	24									
2 Teachers of the Dumb.	4	3	1 fem 3	1			1		11	1	12									
3 Artists.		1 fem 3							7	1	8									
4 Agriculturists.	5	1			1				7		7									
5 In Domestic Employment.	2 fem		2 fem		1 fem	1 fem				6	6									
6 Tailors.	4		1 fem						4	1	5									
7 Musical Instruments Makers.	3			2					5		5									
8 Photographers.	3			2					5		5									
9 Porcelain Painters.	3								3		3									
10 Joiners.				2				1	3		3									
11 Sock ( <i>tabi</i> ) makers.	2	1							3		3									
12 Wooden Clog ( <i>geta</i> ) makers.	2								2		2									
13 Mannikin Makers.	2								2		2									
14 Printers.	1								1		1									
15 Lithographers.	1								1		1									
16 Tailors (foreign style).	1								1		1									
17 Gold-Lacquerers.									1		1									
18 Shoe-makers.	1	1							1		1									
19 Painters on dyed stuff.	1								1		1									
20 Designers of Pictured Silk ( <i>yūzen</i> ).									1		1									
21 Lathe-workers.	1	1							1		1									
22 Wood Carvers.	1								1		1									
23 <i>Konyaku</i> dealers.	1								1		1									
24 Laundrymen.	1								1		1									
25 Painters.	1								1		1									
26 Barbers.	1								1		1									
27 Sewing Machine Workers.	1								1		1									
28 Knitting Machine Workers.	1								1		1									
29 Hot Spring Bath-House Keepers.	1								1		1									
30 In Special Study of Sewing.	13 fem 17								4	13	17									
31 " " Joinery.	6								6		6									
32 " " Drawing.	1 fem 5								4	1	5									
33 Review of Drawing.	1	2 fem 3							2	2	4									
34 " Sewing.			1 fem		1 fem					2	2									
35 " Joinery-work.							2		2		2									
36 Special Study of Ordinary Course						1 fem				1	1									
37 Unknown.	5 fem 9	1 fem 6	1	2	2 fem 3	1 fem 2			15	7	22									
38 Unknown.	11	1		1		1 fem	1		14	1	15									
39 Sick.	1				1 fem				1	1	2									
40 Total.	Males.		91	18	5	9	2		4	1	130									
	Females.		20	4	12		6	5			47									
41 Grand Total.	111	22	17	9	8	5	4	1			177									

N. B. From the 30th to the 36th line those shewn are students at school.  
Those in "Domestic Employment" are married females.  
Those in "Review" means those engaged in post-graduate study.





In September, 1903, a special committee was created by Imperial Ordinance for the investigation of the subject of school text books. The committee, under the control of the Minister of Education, were to investigate into and deliberate upon the text books in use in elementary schools on the subjects of morals, history, and the Japanese language; and in order to furnish any information demanded by the Minister of Education, they were to enquire into matters connected with other school text books.

By this means, it is hoped, not only will that keen competition between book sellers which has frequently been experienced in the past be avoided, but just such text books will be produced as are best adapted to the principles of teaching required by the state.

#### SECTION IV.--ORGANIZATION.

A school class is a collective body of children to be taught at one time in one school room. The Imperial Ordinance requires that there shall be one regular teacher for each class (or, when circumstances do not allow this, one regular and one assistant teacher for every two classes). The number of classes in a school has, of course, much to do with the school equipment and finance, and it has also much influence upon the training of children. The ordinance accordingly imposes a limit in this direction, requiring that except in some special cases, the number of classes in an elementary school shall be not more than eighteen; and that when local circumstances make it necessary to establish a branch school, the classes in each branch school shall be not more than three, making these an exceptional addition to the afore-said number eighteen. A school in which the whole of the children are formed into one class is called a single-classed school, while one in which they are arranged in two or more classes are called a many-classed school.

The number of children in one class has also much to do with the effect of the teaching. Speaking from a purely educational point of view, the number of children under one instructor's care should be small so that more attention might be paid to each individual in the class, and that the instructor's influence



might be more felt by the children. But having regard to the condition of the people, and taking into account questions relating to the equipment and financing of schools, our law places the highest limit to the number of children in one class at seventy in the ordinary elementary school, and sixty in the higher elementary school; and only under special circumstances is it permitted for an addition of not more than ten to be made to the respective numbers given above.

In the organization of a school, the maintaining of separate classes for boys and girls is a disputed point; but in the regulations of our country a discrimination is made in regard to sex and also in regard to the future mode of life, and an appropriate education is designed for each. In the ordinary elementary school accordingly, and in its branch school rooms, when a class can be formed of girls of the same school year, and in the higher elementary school and in its branch schools, when a class can be formed entirely of girls, this distinction of sex is permitted to be made in the organization. The younger children, however, of both sexes, belonging to the first and second school years in the ordinary elementary school may be formed into one class.

When a school in an out-of-the-way part of the country finds it impossible to obtain the required number of teachers, or when a school is too small to admit all the children at one time, while it is prevented by circumstances from enlarging its equipment as also when such a step is made necessary by considerations of convenience of attendance or training, either the whole or a part of the children in the school (or in its branch school) may be divided into two schools, one to be held in the morning and the other in the afternoon. It has been proved by experience of late years that with younger children in the first and second year classes, the results obtained by this two-schooled system of instruction are by no means inferior to those of the ordinary school system. The two-schooled system may also be taken advantage of, in cases where there is no obstacle to the regular attendance of the children, when any practical difficulty is found in the carrying-on of a one-classed school which includes all the children during the six school years. This system of organization, however,



should not be resorted to too readily. In all public schools, therefore, when the adoption of this system is found necessary, permission must, in the first instance, be obtained from the local governor.

An elementary school is permitted to provide a supplementary course of instruction. It being the main object of this course to make up for some lack of training in some subject of study already taught in the ordinary, or in the higher elementary school, what is aimed at is the maintenance and extension of the results attained during the course of elementary education on one hand, and on the other hand, the provision of facilities for coming in touch with the practical business of life. There are two supplementary courses, one for the ordinary elementary school and the other for the higher elementary school. The course of instruction must not extend over more than two years. The subjects of studies, the days and hours of instruction, and the number of school hours per week must be fixed by the director in the case of a public school, or by the manager in that of a private school; and the text books and charts to be used must be decided upon by the school director, all being subject to the sanction of the local governor. The object for which such courses are instituted may require that the subjects of instruction should be such as are best fitted to the local needs, and that these courses should not necessarily be continued throughout the year, like the regular courses, but that they may be open during a certain season only, and furthermore, that the hours of instruction should be in the evening, and on Sundays, too, as circumstances may prevent the carrying-out of any uniform plan. The teachers employed should be the teachers of the regular course; and as for the places of instruction, rooms in the elementary school may be appropriated for the purpose; but under unavoidable circumstances other teachers may be employed, and the course of instruction may be held in other places than the school-house.

It may here be added with regard to the necessary equipment of the school that an elementary school should possess a piece of ground, a building, furniture, and a play-ground suited to its size.

For the school ground such a place should be chosen as is perfectly free from injurious moral as well as sanitary associations,





and at the same time it should be one quite convenient for the attendance of children. The school house should be a plain and strong building well suited to the requirements of training, control, and sanitation. The present Minister of Education issued an instruction in September of this year, directing :—That in building a school house practical utility should be the first consideration, due regard being had to the local circumstances, but in no case should excessive attention be paid to its outward appearance. The law forbids the use of the school-building, ground, furniture and play-ground for other than their proper purpose. Except in the case of such extraordinary public calamities as procure the sanction of the controlling authorities for such a departure. The course actually followed by the authorities with respect to this matter is to give their sanction at any time, under proper guards, so long as the desired use causes no hindrance to education. Thus the school house is used for public meetings, and the play-ground is open to the public for the purpose of exercise.

As regards the teacher's residence, it is certainly most convenient both for the school and for the teacher to have it on the school premises, and the law accordingly provides that the teacher's residence shall be attached to the school, whenever local conditions permit of this being done.

#### SECTION V.—SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

The obligation of school attendance implies that Japanese children shall receive an education of a certain prescribed standard during a certain prescribed period of time.

The standard prescribed is, as said before, the course of instruction provided in the ordinary elementary school; the period of schooling begins on the next day after the child reaches the sixth year of its age, and expires when it reaches its fourteenth year. During these eight years the child is of school age. Our children are required to the school at the beginning of the school year that come first after the day on which the child attains its school age; and we call this the beginning of school attendance period. The time when the child has completed its course at the ordinary



elementary school is called the end of the school attendance period.

The guardian (father, mother or care-taker) of children of school age is under obligation to send the children to school from the beginning to the end of that period. In order to fulfil this obligation he must have the children entered at the ordinary elementary school of the city, town or village establishment; but as an alternative, the children may be given the same ordinary course of instruction at home or elsewhere by permission of the headman of the *shā, chō, or son* (city, town or village). As in such cases there is an element of uncertainty as to the completeness of the education imparted, the headman (or mayor) exercises a measure of supervision over such education, and if necessary, examines the children, and should he find it inadequate, the permission given is withdrawn.

There are some special cases in which there is exemption from the obligation of school attendance, some delay is granted. When there is an exemption from the obligation of establishing ordinary elementary schools within the precincts of the city, town or village, or of carrying out the duty of educating children belonging to some other city, town or village, the above mentioned obligation naturally does not apply as also in the case of children of school age who are unable to attend school through their being insane, idiotic, deformed or disabled. In cases where children can not attend school on account of feebleness or imperfect development, some delay may be allowed; and in the case of a guardian's inability to send children to school on account of poverty, either  
H an exemption from this duty or some delay is granted.

The mayor or headman has to make an investigation concerning the children living in his city, town or village who will reach the beginning of the school attendance period by the month of April of the following year, and he has to make a list of them by the end of the year; where the school year begins in September, he must have ready by the end of June his register of children who will reach the beginning of their school period in September. The guardians of such children are then notified beforehand of the day on which they must send their children to school. The names of such children, and the day on



which they should enter the school, are communicated to the school director concerned, who prepares a school register in which to enrol the names of those children entering school at the beginning of the school year, while an attendance register is also made, in which the daily attendance of the children at school is recorded. When any of those children whose names have been given by the headman do not enter the school within seven days after the day appointed for their entrance, the school makes a report thereupon to the headman in charge. When children belonging to the school absent themselves for seven consecutive days without good reason, their guardians must at once be notified thereof, and be instructed to make the children attend. In case their absence continues for another successive seven days, the headman in charge must be notified thereof. On receipt of such notification, the headman impresses upon the guardian the necessity of making the children enter the school or attend regularly. When such a pressing intimation is given for the second time and still no notice is taken of their neglect to enter or attend the school, the matter is reported to the superintending authorities. On receipt of such report, the district headman (*Guncio*) on behalf of the town, or village headman, or the local governor on behalf of the mayor, makes a fresh pressing demand that the children shall be compelled to enter or attend school. The number of school children, as shown by the statistics of 1907-8, is 5,713, 698. The rate of their school attendance is 97 out of every 100 (97%), and the average of daily attendance is 92 per cent. The yearly increase thus shown goes to prove the wider diffusion of education, which is a highly gratifying feature of the situation.

#### SECTION VI.—OFFICIALS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

The teachers of elementary schools are distinguished as Regular teachers and Assistant teachers; and again the Regular teachers are classed as Regular Teachers of the Regular Course and Regular Teachers of the Special Course. One who conducts the regular elementary course in an elementary school is a regular teacher of the regular course; and one who teaches one or more than one special subject, such as, useful arts, the English language,



agriculture or commerce is a regular teacher of the special course. Those who assist the regular teachers of the regular course are assistant teachers.

Those who can act as teacher only in the ordinary elementary school are called regular teachers of the regular course, or assistant teachers, of the ordinary elementary school. The headship of an elementary school established by a city, town, or village is a post held by one of the regular teachers of the regular course of that school. By law the regular teachers of the elementary school are entitled *Kundo* (instructor or preceptor) and the assistant teachers, *Jun-Kundo*, the director and regular teachers being ranked as *Hannin* civil officials.

An elementary school teacher must have a license certifying his qualifications as a teacher. Teachers having no license are sometimes employed in place of assistant teachers. This is simply an expedient to fill up a vacancy under special circumstances. There are two kinds of licenses; viz: a General License and a *Fu* or *Ken* License. The general license is granted by the Minister of Education on demand of the local governor, or of the directors of the Higher Normal Schools for males and females, and is available all over the country; while the *Fu* or *Ken* License is granted by the governor of a *Fu* or *Ken* to the graduates of the normal school (of *fu* or *ken* establishment) or other schools appointed as such by the Minister of Education, or to persons who have successfully passed the elementary teachers' test examination, and such a license is available only for that particular *fu* or *ken*.

For the test examination of elementary school teachers, an examination committee meeting is held in every *fu* and *ken*. There are two modes of expressing official sanction of a teacher—the one with and the other without examination. The latter takes place once at least every year, and the former at any time, under certain prescribed conditions. The license given is available for life to its possessor. The authority with which an elementary school director or teacher is invested empowers him to discharge the following functions:—the conducting of the business of the school under his care without any other interference than





the supervision of the proper controlling authorities, that is, the local governor or the district headman; the inflicting of disciplinary punishment upon the children whenever this is deemed necessary for purposes of education (corporal punishment being forbidden by law); the suspending from attendance of children who are suffering from contagious diseases, or who are suspected of such, or of children who are so bad in their disposition and habits as to make their society pernicious to the education of the other children; the arrangement of school hours in the matter of adding to or reducing the subjects of study; and the reducing the hours of instruction before or after the summer and winter vacations, &c.

The law requires that the director and teachers of an elementary school shall attend to their duties faithfully in conformity with the principles implied in the Imperial Rescript relating to education, and shall not voluntarily leave the neighbourhood of the school, or engage in any business for purposes of gain, or receive money for services rendered apart from the discharge of their own proper duties. Only under the strict supervision of the authorities may an elementary school teacher teach the children under his care at his private residence out of school hours, or accept a gift from the children's father, or brother.

Should any director or teacher of an elementary school of *shi*, *chō*, or *son* establishment violate the laws that govern his calling, or neglect his duties, or behave in such a way as to disgrace his reputation as a teacher, the local governor shall exercise his disciplinary powers by inflicting upon him an official reprimand or by making a reduction in his salary, or by dismissing him from his post. In the case of the director or teacher of a private school, he shall be suspended from duty, and if the circumstances are serious, he shall be deprived of his license.

The power of appointing or dismissing a director or teacher is vested in the local governor, the appointment being made necessarily on an application from the mayor, in the case of a city, or from the district headman in the case of a town or village; but a dismissal not being necessarily subject to such conditions. Assistant teachers are dealt with according to the provisions



previously decided upon by the local governor, while to deal with substitute teachers lies within the power of the mayor, or district headman ; but in no case shall there be disciplinary dealings without sufficient reason. The law, accordingly, makes provision concerning the cases in which a teacher may be temporarily suspended from duty or permanently dismissed. The elementary school teachers being called upon to discharge duties that have an important bearing upon national education, the state is ever endeavoring to devise means for their liberal treatment; but, hampered by local conditions of finance, there still remains much to be desired. It is, however, a fact that such liberal treatment is in the course of gradual realization. In the matter of their salaries and other allowances, the law has made repeated improvements, and gradually raised the amount thereof. By the law now in force a regular teacher of the regular course is paid a salary varying from 12 to 75 *yen* per month (for distinguished services it may be raised to 100); a regular teacher of the special course, gets from 8 to 40 *yen*; and an assistant teacher from 8 to 20 *yen*.

In addition to the above salaries paid from the city, town or village revenues, increased salaries for long service, and special additional salaries, are paid from the national treasury. The increased salaries for long service are paid to those who have served with excellent results for more than five years, in a city, town or village elementary school within the same *Fu* or *Ken*; while the special additional salaries are paid to such regular teachers of the regular course in an ordinary elementary school as belong to single-classed schools, or as have under their charge a class formed of children from the 1st to the 4th or 5th school year in many-classed schools, or, as have to carry on their work as teachers in some out-of-the-way place. Besides the above, the law provides that an allowance shall be granted to those teachers who are on duty for over thirty-two hours per week; a bonus may be given to such as have rendered distinguished service; their board is given to such as take night duty; medical expenses are allowed to such as have fallen ill or been wounded while on duty; and an official residence may be provided for a teacher



according to local circumstances.

Furthermore, an elementary school teacher is entitled to a retiring pension and family pension. The pension on retirement is a life pension granted to such regular teachers of an elementary school of the city, town, or village establishment as are ordered, after over fifteen years of service to retire, on account of old age, illness, abolition of the school, &c.; or to such as who, though with less than fifteen years' service have retired on account of physical disability owing to wounds inflicted or some disease contracted in the discharge of their duties, assistant teachers having the same privilege in this latter case. Even those who are not entitled to a retiring pension, but who retire after over one year's service, are granted a lump sum of money according to the number of years' service. A family pension is granted to the surviving members of the family in the case of the death of regular teachers of an elementary school of *shū*, *chō* or *son* establishment, who are in receipt of or who are entitled to a retiring pension, or who, though not having completed fifteen years of service, have died in the discharge of their duties. The law further provides that on the death of a teacher whether during his period of service or in retirement, an amount equal to three months' salary, reckoned at the rate allowed for the last month of service, shall be granted to his family.

According to the statistics of 1907-8, the total number of elementary school teachers is 122,038, of whom the regular teachers number 76,040, being at the rate of over 62 per cent., with 66 teachers to every 100 classes of school children; the assistant teachers are over 14 per cent. of the entire number of teachers, while regular teachers of the special course are less than 4 per cent., the remainder being substitute teachers.

#### SECTION VII.—FINANCE.

The cost of the establishment of elementary schools belonging to a city, town or village must be borne by the city, town, or village, if not by the town and village school union, or by the districts within the union.

The principal items of expenditure stand as follows:—





- (1) Equipments and this maintenance.
- (2) Officials' salaries, travelling expenses, &c.
- (3) School expenses (employees' wages, communication expenses, &c.).

The expenses for the education of entrusted children are met in the same manner as above; i. e. by the town or village, or by the town and village school union, or by the districts severally.

Cities, towns and villages, or town and village school unions and their districts, have as a general rule to bear the expenses on joint account for all the districts; but there are some exceptional cases in which the expenses have to be borne severally by each of the towns or villages in the union, such as cases where several towns or villages combine to form one school union having many ordinary elementary school, or where the rules for entrusted education apply, and the *gun* (district) headman establishes an elementary school on a separate account, without having a union divided into districts.

When, owing to a lack of resources, any city, town, or village, or any town or village school union is unable to bear the afore-said expenses, suitable aid shall be furnished, to the town or village, or to the town or village school union, by the *gun* (district); and if to a *gun* or city the aid shall be given by the *Fu* or *Ken*. In the case of the *gun*'s granting such aid, the *gun-cho* or headman after referring the matter to the *gun* council for its opinion, must submit the same to the direction of the local governor; and if it be the case of a *Fu* or *Ken*, the local governor, after referring it to the prefectural council for its opinion, must submit the same to the direction of the Minister of Education.

In addition to the above, there is a provision relating to the disbursement from the item of Hokkaido, *Fu* and *Ken* expenditures in aid of educational expenses for the city, town, or village elementary schools. The amount to be disbursed under this head is the same as that which is distributed to several *Fu* and *Ken*, in accordance with the law of subsidy, from the national treasury towards the educational expenses of the city, town or village elementary schools. These amounts of money are to be appro-





printed to meet the cost of the additional salaries, or the cost of official residences for the elementary school teachers.

In addition to the above, expenses of elementary schools are defrayed from the national treasury by virtue of the Law of Subsidy. The amount of this subsidy is settled by the Budget and is to be appropriated to increment salary for the teachers of *shi*, *chō*, or *son* elementary schools, as also to special additional salaries for the teachers of the ordinary elementary schools. The amount of money to be disbursed from the national treasury is fixed at 1,000,000 *yen* per annum, which is distributed to all the *Fu* and *Ken* except Okinawa. With this money a special system of finance is organized forming a fund for additional salaries to teachers of the city, town, or village elementary schools.

And further, with regard to the Educational Stock Fund (*yen* 10,000,000) created out of the indemnity obtained from our 1894-1895 campaign, there is a sum of money for distribution, the amount of which is decided upon in making up the Budget year by year. Hokkaido, and each of the *Fu* and *Ken* organize a special system of finance with this grant of money. From this, aid is given to the burden of expense borne by the city, town, or village for the equipments of the city, town, or village schools, and encouragement is given to the teachers of such schools. During the fiscal year for 1907-8, the amount disbursed from the national treasury to meet expenses connected with the promotion of general education, was *yen* 250,000, a large part of which the Department of Education granted to Hokkaido and to the *Fu* and *Ken* to be appropriated principally to meet the expenses of, or as an aid towards the opening of *Kōshū-kai* (lecture-classes) for the regular teachers of the regular course in elementary schools, but partly to be given as bonuses for teachers who have distinguished themselves, or for the city, town, or village officials who have shewn particular merit in the promotion of the general education, etc.

It has been made a general rule in our country, in agreement with what is the general tendency of modern times in Europe and America not to charge tuition fees in the city, town, or village ordinary elementary schools (supplementary courses ex-





cepted). This has been done with a view to the general carrying-out of the compulsory system of education. In the case, however, of such localities as had been accustomed to reckon the income from the tuition fees as one of their main resources for the support of schools, where circumstances would make the sudden abolition of the tuition fees, unbearable, permission is given, where the proceeding is sanctioned by the local authorities, to collect tuition fees of 20 *sen* or less per month in cities, and of 10 *sen* or less in towns or villages.

According to the statistics for 1907-8, the number of ordinary elementary schools in which tuition fees had not been entirely abolished was no more than four per cent. of the entire number of such schools.

The higher elementary schools being outside the scale of compulsory education, it is left to the option of the city, town, or village whether or not to charge tuition fees; these fees, when charged are to be sixty *sen* or less in a city, and thirty *sen* or less in a town or village, the amount fixed being subject to the sanction of the controlling authorities. It is further provided that tuition fees, if collected, must not be at different rates in different school years; i. e. the rate must be uniform through all the years of the school course.

In order to lighten the burden of the city, town or village, and with a view to the systematic development of school business, it has been considered necessary to create a school stock fund, to make provision for which that method may be adopted which is best suited to local conditions, such as by means of contributions, or other sources of income, the creation and disposition of the fund being matters pertaining to the controlling authorities.

The Department of Education at one time encouraged the planting of trees by school children as a means of providing a school stock fund, and this practice is now much in vogue, and offers a highly promising prospect for the future.

#### SECTION VIII.—SUPERVISION AND CONTROL.

In the laws and ordinances of our country a distinction is made in the work of education between that work as entrusted



to a city, town or village (or a town & village school union); i. e. the educational business of a public corporation, and that work as the immediate concern of the state, e. i. the educational business of the country. Such business as concerns the establishing of city, town or village elementary schools and their material equipments, as also the disbursement of money for the necessary expenses connected therewith, belongs to the public corporation; while such matters as controlling elementary schools, exercising compulsion or granting exemption in connection with carrying out the rules for the childrens' schooling, prescribing the courses of study and then execution, and engaging and dismissing teachers, are deemed to be matters for the state's own concern. The agents for the management of the educational business of the state are the Minister of Education, the governors of *Fu* or *Ken*, and the district headman, mayor, or headman of a city, town or village (or the head of the school union). Of these, the mayor or headman of a city, town or village (or head of the school union) is required to manage the educational business of the state as regards the city, town or village (or the school union) and to exercise control over the elementary schools. In this connection they are to act on their own authority independently of any interference from their city, town, or village council (or school union). The local governor, however, can make the headmen (of the urban district) or their substitutes assist the mayors or headmen of cities, towns or villages in the discharge of the state business of education.

In the discharge of school business belonging to the public corporation, as well as that of the state by the mayors or headmen, their special auxiliary agent is the educational committee. This committee must have among the members male teachers of the city, town, or village elementary schools. The duties of the committee consist of assisting the mayors, the city council, headmen of towns or villages, heads of school union, and urban district headmen or their substitutes, and in stating their views in reply to inquiries on matters relating to school attendance, school equipments, estimates of current expenses, tuition fees, stock fund, adjustment of the courses of instruction, number of school years, establishment or abolition of supplementary courses, &c.



The state business of education to be managed by the director or teachers of the city, town or village elementary schools is that which directly concerns the children's training. With this business neither mayors, nor headmen of the city, town, or village (nor heads of school unions) nor the educational committee have any right to interfere. In the discharge of their duties the director and teachers of the city school are controlled by the local governor, while those of the town or village school are under the control of the district headman. The private elementary schools in a city are under the control of the local governor, while those in a town or village are controlled by the district headman. Besides the above, for the purposes of practical inspection, not only are the officials under the direction of the controlling authorities required to act; but also school inspectors of the Department of Education, and those of *Fu* and *Ken* and of the *Gun* (district) are required to attend at any time the inspection of school business by the direction, respectively, of the Minister of Education, local governors, and district headmen.

#### SECTION IX.—MISCELLANEOUS.

The business of elementary school directors and teachers in the education of children commonly falls, under two heads:—instruction and discipline. The instruction consists in the imparting of the required knowledge and skill. With us this must be done in a definite manner, in accordance with the object of the school regulations relating to the subjects of studies prescribed by law. The methods pursued by us here in Japan are tolerably complete: for instance the directors and teachers are always studying with a view to the improvement of their methods of instruction, and meetings are held from time to time of the officials in charge of the school, or a union is formed with other schools for the critical study of methods of instruction and their improvement. Thus they endeavour to excel in assiduity and diligence. School exhibitions are sometimes held to show to the public the work of the children, and so to furnish materials for comparative study. Lecture classes are held for teachers during the school vacation, to which some lecturer of experience is invited that they may



hear from him the results of his study and researches.

The school discipline is intended to be a means of instilling into the minds of the children the principles of good conduct and this by example and practice. The methods employed are various; such as, making a school have its own set precepts, its school song and school flag and school uniform (regulation dress and regulation cap), making children clean the school room, and perform other work in such a way as to foster in them a spirit of labour and diligence. To form in children the habit of economy a limit is put to their school expenses. The children are allowed to elect from amongst themselves the head of each class or group. Sometimes all the children are gathered in one hall to listen to some lecture in a popular and easy style. The children are also required to tend the plants and flowers in the school garden, etc.

Our elementary education has gone on making good progress and has developed considerably with the lapse of years. The teachers of the day are much given to study and investigation; and they devise the putting into practise of many things suggested to them by the scientific theories of Europe and America. Their most recent subjects of study have been such as "The method of teaching mentally defective children," "The growth and development of the individual nature in children," &c.

On the part of those charged with the administration of educational affairs there is constant effort to maintain the national education on a thoroughly sound basis. While the rules and regulations are at all times subject to careful revision and improvement, attention is paid to other matters: Rules are prescribed for recognising the merit of elementary school teachers, teachers of special merit being commended and awarded a certificate of merit or a prize in money by the Minister of Education, the honour thus conferred being made publicly known throughout the country by means of publication in the official gazette. Again, an elementary school of particular excellence and worthy of being regarded as a model by others, is given an honourable mention by the Minister of Education. We now proceed to give a summary of the measures to preserve health taken in our elementary schools.

By the Imperial Ordinance of January, 1898, a regulation



was made in regard to school physicians, which requires that all schools of Hokkaido, *Fu, Ken, Gun, Shi, Cho*, and *Son* establishment should have each their own physicians. The school physicians are engaged by the local authorities, while the rules regulating their duties have been prescribed by the Department of Education. Some of the most important provisions are, as under :—

A school physician should attend the school once at least every month more especially at the beginning and end of the school year, and should inspect into and see whether or not the school rooms are well ventilated, whether the light is properly admitted, whether the desks and benches are suitable, whether the distance between the desks and the black-board, the condition of the fire-places, the temperature of the rooms, and matters connected with the books, charts, and black-board are perfectly satisfactory, looked at from the sanitary standpoint; whether the cleaning of the school is properly executed, whether the drinking water is good, &c. When he sees any of the children ill, he should give notice thereof to the director and tell him how to take care of such children, according to the nature of the illness. He should examine the physique of the children, and should carry out proper measures for the prevention of epidemic diseases, as also for disinfection.

Furthermore, the Department of Education has established rules for the physical examination of pupils and students. These rules require that a physical examination shall be held in the month of April every year and that a report thereupon shall be made in the course of the following month by the director of the school to the local authorities; and that the local authorities shall collect all the reports and send them to the Minister of Education by the month of June, in the same year.

Furthermore, the Department of Education has issued an instruction on the process of school purification, and has pointed out the method to be followed, dividing it under three heads: daily cleaning; periodical cleaning; and cleaning after submersion by floods.

To these may be added the method of prevention of epidemic diseases and the method of disinfection. By the law of vaccination,





issued in 1909, a public school director is required to have those pupils who have never been vaccinated, or in whom the result of vaccination has been doubtful, vaccinated within six months, or else to make the guardians of such pupils have them vaccinated.

## CHAPTER II.

### Kindergartens, and Miscellaneous Schools similar to Elementary Schools.

#### SECTION I.—KINDERGARTENS.

The first kindergarten established in our country was the one instituted in 1876 and attached to the Tokyo Female Normal School. According to the statistics for 1907-8, the number of kindergartens of government, public, and private establishment is altogether 386; the conductors number 1,066; and the number of the infants is 35,285 (of whom 50 are foreigners).

The kindergarten is an institution designed for the training of infants from three years of age up to the age for admission into the ordinary elementary school. The object of the training lies in the healthy development of the mind and body of the infants, fostering in them good habits and helping in their home education. The training should be in strict conformity with the stages of growth of the infant's mind and body, and should in no case overtax its mind by teaching more things than it can understand, nor require it to do too many things at one time. Care should always be taken by watching the feelings and behaviour of the infants to correct any faults by showing them such good examples as they may follow.

The means employed for the training of infants, as laid down by law, are four; sports, singing, conversation and manipulation; and the hours of training must not exceed five per day, inclusive of meal time.



The conductors employed for the training of infants are called "hobo." The "hobo" must be females who possess the qualification to act as regular teacher of the ordinary elementary course in elementary schools, or as assistant teacher, or they may be persons who have obtained a license from the local governor.

As too great a number of infants in a kindergarten, is an obstacle to proper training, our law sets a limit by restricting it to not more than 100, and says that even under special circumstances, the number shall not exceed 150, their number under the care of one conductor being 40 at most. A kindergarten may have a director. The engagement and dismissal of both the director and conductors, is the duty, in the case of those established by *Shi, Cho* and *Son*, of the local governor, and in the case of private establishment, of its founder, a report thereof being made to the local governor. A kindergarten may be attached to an elementary school.

## SECTION II.—MISCELLANEOUS SCHOOLS SIMILAR TO ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Schools of this kind are of great variety; for instance, there are some schools where the ordinary elementary courses are provided, to which the study of religious subjects is added. These are sanctioned as miscellaneous schools; and schools where children of the elementary school standard are taught sewing as a special subject, are also sanctioned in the same way, the course taken by the authorities with regard to such schools being, in most cases, to sanction them as such.

According to the statistics for 1907-8 there are altogether 894 of these schools, including both public and private establishments; the total number of teachers being 1,025 (of whom 25 are foreigners) and that of the pupils being 39,738 (of whom 217 are foreigners).

In the miscellaneous schools similar to elementary schools, there may be a director, while the teachers are required to possess the qualification proper to an elementary school teacher or to possess a license granted by the local governor. For the sake of convenience such schools are permitted to be established in





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connection with an elementary school; and there sewing is taught as a special subject. With regard to the engagement or discharge of the director and teachers of such schools, it rests with the discretion of the local governor in the case of *Shi, Cho*, and *Son* institutions, while in the case of those established privately the power is in the hands of the founder, provided that the required report is made to the local governor.

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## PART III.

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# SECONDARY EDUCATION.

### I. Secondary Education—its Object and Development.

After the Restoration of Meiji, the Government, while attending to the development of elementary schools, did not lose time in providing for secondary education.

In the 5th year of Meiji (1872) a system of education was for the first time established, by which the country was divided into eight Grand School Districts, each of which was subdivided into thirty-two Middle School Districts, with one middle school in each district. According to this plan, there would have been two hundred and fifty six middle schools, each providing a course of general education for those graduating from elementary schools. The course of instruction in the middle school was divided into an upper and a lower course. The lower course was to extend over a period of three years and was intended for pupils of the age of from fourteen to sixteen; while the upper course, also for three years, was for those aged from seventeen to nineteen. The rules for these schools were drawn up in imitation of those for like institutions in France. But in those days there were few among us who properly appreciated the real object of middle school education, and fewer still were those who were qualified to give instruction in the new subjects of study selected, for but a very short time had elapsed since the introduction of Western sciences into Japan. Furthermore, our elementary schools at the time being yet undeveloped, there were but few students who were in a position to receive an education of the secondary standard. Such being the case, our middle schools founded after the Western fashion were such in name only, they being actually only places of instruction a little higher than elementary schools. The subjects studied being chiefly the Chinese classics, the English



language, and mathematics, they could only be called middle schools of a very imperfect kind. In September of the 12th year of Meiji (1879), when the school system in question was abolished, and a new educational code was promulgated, nothing more was stated in the new code with regard to middle schools than the defining of such schools to be places in which a higher general education was to be given.

However, in the month of July in the 14th year of Meiji (1881), the Department of Education issued a general outline of the rules for a middle school and showed the standard to be observed in preparing the courses of study, it being laid down that a middle school was a place for the higher general education of middle-class persons who would go into business, or for giving the necessary preparatory instruction to those desirous of entering a higher school. It was thus made clear that the middle school was both for imparting higher general education and for giving instruction preparatory to entrance upon higher studies. Furthermore, the middle schools were distinguished as, *Primary* and *Higher*.—The former a four years' course, and the latter a course of two years, while it was made permissible, according to local circumstances, to institute a rudimentary literature course, a rudimentary science course, or special courses of agriculture, industry or commerce, in addition to or in place of the higher course; and to these courses were to be admitted those students who had graduated from the primary course.

In January in the 17th year of Meiji (1884) the Department of Education distributed among the various *fu* and *ken* general rules for the middle school, laying down the object of middle schools, and the qualifications of directors and officials, besides giving some provisions relating to their equipment. These rules required that middle schools should provide a higher general course [of instruction, on the basis of the moral principles of loyalty and filial love for those students who would after graduation follow some middle-class occupation or calling, or who would enter a higher school for a further period of study. This was most probably the result of a gradual awakening on the part of the government as well as on the part of the people in general, certain mischievous tendencies,





the outcome of too close an imitation of the Western civilization and enlightenment suddenly introduced, with a preponderating influence of intellectual culture over that of morality.

The consciousness that there existed in the spirit of the people an important element which had come down to us from ancient times, and the consciousness that there existed an element of danger in the novel ideas recently introduced, as also the fear of sweeping away the national characteristics in consequence of the general decline of the old order of things, led to a very decided pronouncement, indicating clearly what our old canons of morality were, with the high value attached by them to the virtues of loyalty and filial love.

In April, in the 19th year of Meiji (1886), an Imperial Ordinance was issued with respect to the middle school in Japan. In this it was laid down that the education given in a middle school was to be that necessary for those who would hereafter enter upon a business career, or who would after graduation enter a higher school for the further prosecution of their studies; and the middle schools were divided into two classes, *higher* and *ordinary*. The higher middle schools were placed under the immediate control of the Minister of State for Education; and the whole country being divided into five districts one was placed in each district. The schools were intended to serve as preparatory schools for the University, while permission was at the same time given for the institution of separate courses for law, medicine, engineering, literature, science, agriculture, commerce, &c. It was made permissible for ordinary middle schools to be established by the various prefectures for their own convenience.

The school course extended over five years in the ordinary middle school, students over twelve years of age being admitted if they had passed through the elementary school course and were possessed of the necessary attainments; while the higher middle schools had a two years' course of study, to which were admitted students selected from among those over the age of seventeen who had passed through the ordinary middle school course, or who had an attainments equivalent thereto. Subsequently in June, in the 27th year of Meiji (1894) with the issue of the High School Ordinance, the name of the higher middle schools





was changed and the courses previously taught were made preparatory to the University course in the High Schools, as they were now called. The ordinary middle schools still showed a healthy growth, keeping pace with the progress of the elementary schools, in point of equipment, training, discipline, &c., until in February, in the 32nd year of Meiji (1899) when the Middle School Ordinance was revised, and they came to be called simply Middle Schools (instead of Ordinary Middle Schools.)

By this Ordinance the object of the middle schools was defined to be the provision of such a higher general education as would be required by male students in general. Those eligible for admission must be over twelve years of age, and must have passed the second year course of a higher elementary school or be possessed of equivalent attainments. The course of study was fixed at five years, with a supplementary course of not more than one year. Such are in the main the provisions of law now in force, except that the qualification of students for admission was slightly changed—the pupils of higher elementary schools having been made those of ordinary elementary schools, as an effect of the prolongation of school years from four to six in the ordinary elementary schools, in the 40th year of Meiji (1907).

The middle schools are tending to increase in number with the lapse of years. This is owing to the increase in the number of applicants for admission in consequence of the general advance of learning caused by the diffusion of elementary education.

The number of middle schools in the fortieth fiscal year (1907-8), compared with that ten years back, is as follows:—

	A. D. 1897	A. D. 1907
Government Schools..	1	2
Public Schools .. ..	89	{ 223 6*
Private Schools .. ..	27	{ 53 3*
Total.	117	{ 278 9*

\* No. of branch schools.





Thus the new schools have multiplied in number, while, at the same time, the old schools already in existence are striving hard to meet the increasing demand for admission to them by working on an extended scale, and by internal re-arrangements, so as to accommodate the largest number of students possible; and yet, with all this, there is not sufficient accommodation for all the applicants. It has accordingly become necessary to select from amongst the applicants those who have shown superior attainments in an examination.

The system of education pursued in this country does not allow of any diviation from the fixed course laid down, nor adherence to the particular course of culture being required from the beginning. Secondary education being directly connected with compulsory education, it is made a fundamental principle not to admit anybody, regardless of distinctions of rank or position, unless he has passed through the ordinary elementary school course of six years, or is in possession of attainments equivalent thereto; and when the number of applicants is in excess of the number required, the choice of students is determined by comparative excellence of character and scholarship.

At present there is but one kind of middle school for the purpose of imparting a higher general education, and serving at the same time as a stepping-stone toward the attainment of a still higher education. Equal attention is paid to literary culture and to the practical studies, while care is taken not to go too far in the direction of a strict mechanical uniformity. Although rules have been made regarding the standard courses of study and the principal points to be noted in teaching, the introduction of more or less alteration or modification is permitted to each school and some subjects, as for instance, law and economics, and singing, may be omitted entirely, and the hours allotted to them may be appropriated to other studies. In the supplementary course the inclusion is permitted, as optional studies, of such subjects as are connected with the industry of the locality.

## II. Pupils of Middle Schools.

By the regulations now in force, the prescribed number of





pupils in any one middle school is limited to 400, or less, but under special circumstances the number may be increased to 600, while in a branch school it must not exceed 300.

The total number of pupils in all the public and private middle schools in the 40th fiscal year (1907-8) compared with that of the preceding year and with that of ten years ago, is as follows :—

	A.D. 1897	A.D. 1906	A.D. 1907
Public Middle Schools.	43,223	88,853	90,420
Private Middle Schools.	9,219	19,204	20,456
Total.	52,442	108,057	110,876.

As regards the age of the pupils admitted in the 40th fiscal year (1907-8) the oldest was 24 years and six months, while the youngest was 12, the average being 14. There is but little difference in the average rate, year by year.

The pupils' expectations, after graduation vary with different localities; but most of them expect to enter a higher school, there to pursue their studies in some special arts or sciences. An investigation made in the 41st fiscal year (1908-9) with regard to the expectations of the middle school graduates shows that of the total number of 14,451, those who would not enter a higher school were only 3,987, while all the others intended to proceed to a higher institution, such as the preparatory course for the university, higher normal schools, military and naval schools, and other institutes for special studies.

It will thus be seen that the middle schools serve as steps for advancing to higher special studies. There was a time when aspiring youths took it for granted that their entering a middle school was a necessary condition for their advancement in life, and their fathers and brothers, too, dreaming of a glorious future for their sons and younger brothers, were most eager to send them to a middle school, with the result that a very large number of applicants flocked to the middle schools, without giving due consideration to the questions of their ability and means of support. The consequence was that many of them left school before graduating. But now that the general public realise the





THE STANDARD COURSE OF INSTRUCTION AND THE NUMBER OF SCHOOL HOURS  
IN THE ORDINARY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL.

School Year.	No. of Hours per Week.	First School Year.	No. of Hours per Week.	Second School Year.	No. of Hours per Week.	Third School Year.	No. of Hours per Week.	Fourth School Year.	No. of Hours per Week.	Fifth School Year.	No. of Hours per Week.	Sixth School Year.
Morals.	2	Principles of Morality.	2	Principles of Morality.	2	Principles of Morality.	2	Principles of Morality.	2	Principles of Morality.	2	Principles of Morality.
Japanese Language.	10	Pronunciation. <i>Kana</i> & common sentences of easy style: Reading, Writing, Composition & Conversation.	12	<i>Kana</i> , common & useful characters of daily recurrence, and common sentences of easy style: Reading, Writing, Composition & Conversation.	14	Common & useful characters of daily recurrence, and common sentences of easy style: Reading, Writing, Composition & Conversation.	14	Common & useful characters of daily recurrence, & common sentences of easy style: Reading, Writing, Composition & Conversation.	10	Common & useful characters of daily recurrence, & common sentences: Reading, Writing, Composition, and Conversation.	10	Common & useful characters of daily recurrence, & common sentences: Reading, Writing, Composition and Conversation.
Arithmetic.	5	Numeration, Notation, Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication & Division with numbers below 20.	6	Numeration, Notation, Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication & Division with numbers below 100.	6	Ordinary Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication & Division.	6	Ordinary Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication & Division; & Simple Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication & Division of Decimal Fractions. (Addition & Subtraction with abacus).	4	Integral, Decimal Fractions. Calculation of Weights, Measures, Money & Times. (Addition & Subtraction with abacus).	4	Fractions. Percentages. (Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication & Division with abacus.)
Japanese History.										Outlines of Japanese History.		Continued from the preceding year.
Geography.										Outlines of Japanese Geography.	3	Continued from the preceding year. Outlines of Geography of Korea, Manchuria & other foreign countries.
Science.									2	Vegetables, Animals, & Minerals. Natural phenomena. Common physical & chemical phenomena.	2	Vegetables, Animals, and Minerals. Natural phenomena. Common physical and chemical phenomena. First steps of human physiology.
Drawing.		Simple figures.		Simple figures.	1	Simple figures.	1	Simple figures.	2 for boys, 1 for girls.	Simple figures.	2 for boys, 1 for girls.	Simple figures.
Singing.	4	Easy Solo Singing.	4	Easy Solo Singing.	1	Easy Solo Singing.	1	Easy Solo Singing.	2	Easy Solo Singing.	2	Easy Solo Singing.
Gymnastics.		Sports.		Sports & common gymnastic exercises.	3	Sports & common gymnastic exercises.	3	Sports & common gymnastic exercises.	3	Common gymnastic exercise and sports. Military drill for boys only.	3	Common gymnastic exercises & sports. Military drill for boys only.
Sewing.					1	Needle exercises. Sewing of common garments.	2	Sewing & Mending of common garments.	3	Sewing & Mending of common garments.	3	Sewing, Mending & Cutting of common garments.
Manual Work.		Easy Workmanship.		Easy Workmanship.		Easy Workmanship.		Easy Workmanship.		Easy Workmanship.		Easy Workmanship.
Total:	21		24		27 for boys, 28 for girls.		27 for boys, 29 for girls.		28 for boys, 30 for girls.		28 for boys, 30 for girls.	

N.B. Drawing can be made 1 hour per week in the first and second year.

Manual work can be made 1 hour per week in the first, second and third year; and 2 hours per week in the fourth, fifth and sixth year.





need of acting with more prudence and a number of technical institutes of the middle school standard have been established in various quarters, such erroneous ideas as those referred to are beginning to disappear.

Nevertheless, the middle schools being for the people in general, anybody may send his sons there, whatever may be his rank or position in society or whatever vocation he may follow.

It may indeed be noted that our schools before the Restoration, and the schools belonging to the different *han* (clans), were exclusively for the *samurai* (military) classes and that even in the Meiji era the middle school in its beginning was only an institute growing out of the former clan institutes; so that most of the students were in reality the sons of *shizoku* (*samurai* class).

However, the real meaning of the higher general education coming to be properly understood by the public at large, our middle school has now become a natural institute both in name and reality.

Below will be found the different vocations followed by the fathers or elder brothers of the pupils admitted at the 40th fiscal year (1907-8):—

Total number of pupils admitted:	30,791	per cent.
Agriculture.	11,963	38.85
Technical Industries.	1,380	4.48
Commence.	6,483	21.05
Others.	10,965	35.63

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### III. Teachers of Middle Schools.

It goes without saying that the result of school education depends for the most part upon the character and ability of the teachers engaged in it. The government, therefore, with the intention of obtaining good teachers and of training them, defined for the first time in the 17th year of Meiji (1884) the qualifications of a teacher, and established regulations with regard to the granting them licences. In the general rules prescribed for middle schools (published in January, 1884) it was laid down





that the director of a middle school should be a man of upright conduct, possessing such knowledge and ability as shall enable him to do his duty as controller of a school; and that among the teachers of the school at least three should be graduates of the normal course for middle schools, or graduates of the university, or, if not, persons certified by the local governor as sufficiently qualified to act as their substitutes, subject to the approval of the Minister of Education.

In August of the same year (1884) regulations for licensed teachers of a middle or normal school were issued according to which licenses were to be granted by the Department of Education on the expression of official approval in regard to the applicant's conduct, possession of knowledge, etc., to those wishing to become teachers of a middle or normal school but who are not graduates of the normal course belonging to middle schools or of a university. The following persons might be licensed without examination: a man of erudition and good character, well qualified to teach moral lessons, a man for many years engaged in the teaching profession and competent to teach a certain branch of knowledge, one possessing a university degree or a diploma of honour and competent to teach the subjects therein specified, an expert in agricultural, industrial, commercial or other knowledge and competent to teach that particular subject.

But in December of the 18th year of Meiji (1885) the foregoing regulations were abolished and others were substituted for licensing teachers for the ordinary normal, middle, and higher female schools. By these regulations licenses were to be granted to the graduates of the Higher Normal School, as well as to those of full age who had passed the examination of the Department of Education. Once in the year an examination of candidates is held to determine the three points of adequate knowledge, moral conduct, and good health. Only to those who are able to satisfy the examination committee as to their possessing of the knowledge requisite for a teacher, being graduates of higher schools in foreign countries, are licences granted without examination. These regulations have subsequently undergone various alterations, but they remain essentially the same in regard to the chief object



aimed at. A considerable amount of attention has been bestowed upon the improvement of teachers; but really excellent teachers could never be obtained quickly enough to meet the rapidly increasing demand of late years; besides which the financial position at times did not permit of unqualified teachers being altogether dispensed with; so that even at the present time it cannot be said that all teachers, without exception, are properly qualified.

However, with the progress of normal as well as of higher education, and the improvement in the financial position, there is every indication of these temporarizing measures being dispensed with. Below will be found the number of teachers and the percentage of qualified as against unqualified teachers compared for the past few years, as shown by the annual report of the Minister of Education :

Year.	Total No. of Middle School Teachers		
36th, Meiji (1903 A. D.)	4,770	{ 57.95 per cent. qualified 42.05 „ unqualified	
37th (1904)	4,817	{ 60.93 „ qualified 39.07 „ unqualified	
38th (1905)	5,084	{ 63.49 „ qualified 36.51 „ unqualified	
39th (1906)	5,306	{ 68.58 „ qualified 31.42 „ unqualified	
40th (1907)	5,426	{ 71.69 „ qualified 28.31 „ unqualified	

The above table will serve to show how steadily school teachers are increasing in number and improving in quality.

Generally speaking, the profession of a teacher is a somewhat laborious one and by no means lucrative, the teacher having to wait long before reaping the fruit of his labour, nor is it easy for him to make a name for himself and to shine in the eyes of the world. Consequently young men aspiring for fame, turned aside from the teaching profession to follow some career. Thus it was that normal education in former times suffered not a little from such causes. Fortunately, however, of late years, an increasing number of men have become desirous of entering this profession—men who take it up merely as a means of obtaining temporary



support, but with a true and steady purpose of educating the youth of the country, not deterred by the soberness of the task or envious of those of their former fellow students who, having chosen another career, have come to play an important part in politics, or to have won glory as officers of the army or navy, but, on the contrary, assiduous and faithful in the discharge of that prosaic task of teaching children which they have made their life-work.

The salaries of a middle school director and teachers are from 600 to 2,000 *yen* per annum for the former, and 180 to 1,800 *yen* for the latter. The number of hours for teaching varies with the teacher; but in most cases it would not be less than twenty hours per week. The discipline of the pupils being one of the responsibilities of a teacher, he must pay special attention to the individual character, conditions of home life, and everyday conduct of the pupils in general or of those in the particular class under his care, and must deal with them accordingly.

Besides these duties, teachers' meetings are held, from time to time, for purposes of study as well as for conference with regard to the training and discipline of pupils. For all this, much time is needed, much care and diligence are required, and, furthermore, a teacher must not neglect self-culture, but must always keep in mind the advancement of his own knowledge, while teaching his pupils good manners and influencing their character by setting them a good example in all things. In short, the burden of toil and anxiety borne by a good teacher is well worthy of the sympathy and gratitude of the whole nation.

#### IV. Training and Discipline in Middle Schools.

Our middle school education is for the training of those youths who will hereafter form the main body of the nation, by affording them means for the advancement of their knowledge, the elevation of their character, and the confirmation of their principles in conformity with the spirit of the Imperial Rescript on Education, and the attainment of this object is sought by means of instruction accompanied by discipline.



The subjects of instruction and their distribution, which had been indicated as early as the 5th year of Meiji (1872), accompanied by a summary of school rules, and which had subsequently undergone various alterations, were finally settled by the detailed regulations for the enforcement of Middle School Ordinance of the 34th year of Meiji (1901), now in operation, as shown below :—

	First School Year	Second School Year	Third School Year	Fourth School Year	Fifth School Year
Morals .....	1	1	1	1	1
Japanese language and					
Chinese Classics .....	7	7	7	6	6
Foreign languages .....	6	6	7	7	7
History	3	3	3	3	3
Geography }					
Mathematics .....	4	4	4	4	4
Natural History .....	2	2	2	$\begin{cases} 2 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{cases}$	—
Physics and Chemistry ..	—	—	—	$\begin{cases} 3 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{cases}$	2
Law and Economics ....	—	—	—	—	—
Drawing .....	1	1	1	1	—
Singing .....	1	1	1	—	—
Gymnastics .....	3	3	3	3	3
No. of hours per week	28	28	29	30	30

The foreign language studied is English, or German or French.

Law and economics, and singing also, may be omitted for the time being. The hours for law and economics may be appropriated for the foreign language, or for history and geography; and those for singing may be devoted to drawing. The hours for gymnastics as given above may be increased by not more than 3.

In the instruction given in our middle schools we attach



much importance to the following subjects: The Japanese language, in which lie the foundations of our national sentiment, and the classical Chinese, which, having furnished the beginnings of our enlightenment, is closely connected with the thought of the nation. While such subjects are highly valued on the one hand, on the other hand we never lose sight of the importance of such studies as the following: The modern foreign languages, and mathematical and physical sciences, which, being the necessary elements of modern civilization, are capable of multifarious applications to practical life.

The object of training combined with discipline lies in the realization of the principles of the middle school education, which concerns itself little with the amount of knowledge imparted as compared with bringing into exercise what small amount of knowledge has been already acquired, so as to cultivate a habit of reflection and sound judgment. In art studies, the object aimed at is that all the students should be given practice, not too much time being to mere discourse, or lecturing on the part of the teacher; and a restriction is placed on the mere exercise of mechanical memory by the pupils, proper scope being given for the expression of thought in their own language, so that they may state their own individual views from their own special stand-point. Much importance is, therefore, attached to the fostering of the power of observation not a mere superficial observation, but a seeing into the internal relation of all those parts which together form the whole. In the 36th year of Meiji (1903) the Department of Education published a detailed programme of instruction for middle schools. With respect to its enforcement, an accompanying notice says:

"The instruction in a middle school shall always aim at the attainment of its object which is a higher general education accompanied with discipline"—and it goes on to say: "The instruction shall never go too much into detail, nor shall it be too formal, but the teachers shall always strive to make the pupils understand clearly, and make a free application of what is taught to all cases."

From this it may not be hard to infer where the main



point of importance lies in the teaching.

The importance of stability in moral conduct, combined with the accuracy of understanding, is self-evident. There is, therefore, a special course of moral lessons in middle schools, in order that good moral sentiments may be inculcated. But true moral culture can not be acquired by study alone, so that in a middle school the whole of the training, as well as all the chance occurrences in the discipline of pupils, must be made available for the advancement of their morals and the rectification of their conduct. This is the reason why so small a number of hours is appropriated to moral lessons by themselves. In addition to the above, the Japanese language, history, geography, and the like are materials for forming a solid moral foundation in the nation, by developing a correct understanding of society and the state, while the exercise of national sentiments also plays its part. The rules in detail for middle schools, of 1901 (34th year of Meiji), point out the principles of moral lessons, and say:—

“In the moral lessons it shall be made a point to foster in the pupils’ minds sound moral ideas and sentiments, so as to form in them the character proper to a man belonging to the middle class of society, and shall give encouragement to the actual display in life of such sentiments in conformity with the principles of the Imperial Rescript.”

And as regards history the following directions are given:—

“In teaching history it shall be the chief aim to make clear the peculiar points in our national constitution by showing the pupils whence come all the social changes, the decline and prosperity of a state—especially with reference to the process of development in our country.”

What is the best way of making the teaching of morals effectual? This is one of the greatest problems of the day with regard to the secondary education; and one with which all the schools in Japan are deeply concerned, and to the consideration of which they are devoting careful attention. The fundamental condition with respect to the effectiveness of such teaching is undoubtedly the obtaining of good teachers of high moral standing, and the making of the whole discipline subsidiary to moral teaching



by getting all the teachers of the school to agree in their opinions in the education of the pupils.

All the schools are, therefore, vying with one another in securing the services of good teachers of morality.

The material, as well as the method of teaching, also has much to do with the effectiveness of moral lessons; for too much theory makes the teaching dry and insipid, and there is the fear of making it tiresome to the students. Therefore by means of copious examples, and by utilizing suitable materials taken from poetical and literary sources, the efforts is made to imbue the students with those refined and graceful feelings which pure reason alone is incapable of producing.

In some schools those moral characteristics are selected for each school year which should mainly be cultivated by the pupils during that particular school year; and according to the stage of progress attained by the pupils a point is fixed, to reach which, by the concentrated efforts of heart and head, the pupils are urged in the moral lessons given to them.

Neither is the intellectual side of morality neglected; for the development of the pupils' power of understanding is carefully attended to, so that those dangerous ideas prevailing in some social circles may not infect the pupils' minds, and that all questions on morality may be rightly solved by themselves. As the period of school attendance advances, increasing attention is to be paid to this side of the teaching, until in the last school year before graduation all the principles previously inculcated are systematically arranged so as to enable pupils to form a sound judgment.

The rules given for the enforcement of the regulations say :—  
“The moral lessons shall begin with wise sayings and good deeds, and the principles of morality shall be taught with constant reference to the pupils' every day conduct; then more systematically help the pupils to understand their duties and responsibilities towards their own selves, their relatives, society and the state, or give them the general principles of ethics.

And lastly, the good manners inculcated in their moral lessons are to be given practical exercise firstly in gymnastics and then in all other lessons, as also on occasions of ceremony



on gala days; and with most schools, such displays of good manners are specially given as a part of the moral lessons.

With regard to the discipline which, in combination with instruction, is the object of secondary education, there yet remains much as a subject of study. To attain the fulfilment of this object the teachers of the middle schools take the greatest pains. Various methods are employed in different schools; some of the methods most widely adopted are as follows:—

Physical culture is given not solely with the object of strengthening the bodily frame of the pupils, but also with the aim of preventing them from falling into inactive and idle habits. With this aim in view encouragement is now given in most schools to such exercises. In training, too, the hours for gymnastics were increased in the 19th year of Meiji (1886); and in addition to common gymnastics, military drills were made a part of the regular lessons, by which means it was hoped that a martial spirit would be aroused and bodily growth be promoted, while habits of order and discipline were being fostered. Then, as extra exercises, on the one hand, such games and sports were adopted as are in vogue in Europe and America, while, on the other hand, the military arts of old Japan were added. In this way a thorough disciplinary training was established. Jūdō (the art of self-defence) and Kendō (fencing), military exercises of our *samurai* from the most ancient times in Japan, in particular, were encouraged, not merely as an accomplishment but as a help towards maintaining the national spirits, these exercises having had much to do with the development of *bushidō* (Japanese chivalry). Our present day middle schools teach these exercises as optional subjects; while in some schools regular lessons are given in either one or the other of these exercises. Swimming, too, is encouraged and taught as a good summer exercise.

Various social gatherings are held as an important medium for purposes of discipline, the teachers and pupils being thus brought into direct contact. For the school discipline the director and all the teachers are equally responsible, and they are expected to set a good example for the pupils to follow by creating opportunities for incidental teaching of an informal kind.



On the three grand national holidays (New Year's day, the anniversary of the accession of the first Emperor Jimmu, and the Emperors' Birth-day.) In particular, all the pupils are assembled in the hall of the school, and a ceremony is solemnly gone through. On this occasion the director reads the Imperial Rescript on Education and seeks to turn the occasion to profit fostering a feeling of reverence for the Imperial will as expressed in the Rescript, which sets forth the grand principles of our national morality.

Besides these, from time to time such gatherings are held as *undōkai* (athletic meetings), school anniversaries, literary meetings, *ensoku-kai* (school excursions), *shūgaku-ryokō* (travelling for study), etc. These are for the purpose of bodily exercise and scientific study; but they are also utilized for familiar and free intercourse between teachers and pupils. The teachers thus gain the opportunity of observing the individual character of the pupils and of giving practical lessons to particular pupils; while the pupils on their part, get profit on such occasions by acquiring habits of self-control and self-help in the management of things under the guidance of their teachers.

In some schools each class of pupils is placed under the charge of an individual; as in the cases where one particular teacher superintends one class, in order that he may be better enabled to know the individual character of each pupil under his charge, and familiarize himself with the circumstances of their home life and learn the hopes and desires of each pupil, so as to be able to give judicious advice, to give encouragement to one and consolation to another. Much attention is given to the connection between the home and the school. In order to preserve uniformity of discipline not in the school only but in both home and school, a social gathering is held at stated times of the pupils' fathers and brothers for conversation about them, and when any particular notices are to be given with respect to individual pupils, their fathers or brothers are invited by the director or the teacher in charge to give the information personally. In this way a constant communication is kept up between the home and the school in regard to the rate of progress of each pupil.





Many schools have dormitories, which in some localities are deemed to be of the first importance for purposes of discipline, for the following reasons: The school can teach rules of conduct, but finds it very difficult to exercise control over each pupil by observing his conduct in his every day life; and further, it often happens in some locality that the conditions of home life are very unfavourable, and the social customs are lacking in simplicity, so that a conflict occurs with the spirit of discipline at school. In such cases a dormitory for the pupils becomes a necessity, that they may live away from unfavourable surroundings, and become accustomed to a wholesome life under favourable influences.

Besides what has already been said, a school festival is sometimes held in honour of some good and great man, in order to inculcate a spirit of reverential respect for distinguished virtue. Also, a library of easy books for recreative reading is open to the pupils, the books being good ones such as biographical sketches of sages or virtuous men, and the pupils being encouraged to read them. Some schools provide workshops for the pupils, and encourage in them habits of industry.

Thus different schools employ different methods for carrying out their plans; but all agree in this,—the fundamental idea that a stable, truthful character should be formed; that the virtues peculiar to this country, as also virtue in general, should be fostered, and that students should become higher and shining lights by absorbing into themselves all that is excellent wherever in the world it is to be found.



## PART IV.

# NORMAL EDUCATION.

### I. History and Purpose of Normal Schools.

The Restoration (1868) worked a mighty revolution in all the affairs of the community at large. Among the rest, education underwent a great change. For a few years at the beginning of the new era each *Han* continued its old method of education, but in July 1872, when one and the same system of education was adopted throughout the Empire, it was found that the idea that every learned man was competent to teach could no longer be held, and the need being urgent that existing defects should be remedied, normal schools were established. The Tokyo Normal School was built on the site of the Shōheikō, the old university, on Confucian principles, which existed before the Restoration. In the following year (1873), normal schools were established in Ōsaka and Sendai; and, the year after, in Nagoya, Hiroshima, Nagasaki, and Niigata. In addition, a normal school for girls was established in Tokyo.

The normal schools above mentioned were, all of them, government schools, but, in course of time public normal schools were established in every *Fu* and *Ken*, and in 1878 all the institutions mentioned, excepting the normal school, and the normal school for girls, in Tōkyō, were one after the other abolished. The two excepted normal schools were reorganized, and became, one the Tōkyō Higher Normal School, and the other the Tōkyō Higher Normal School for Girls.

Subsequently, in 1879 and 1880, the Code of Education was revised, and in 1881 great changes were made in the regulations relating to elementary schools, those relating to normal schools also underwent a good deal of alteration.

In 1886 an Ordinance relating to various schools was issued,



by which many of the old regulations relating to education were altered, and the educational system of Japan was put in order. Although since then many slight changes have been made, the basis of the present educational system was laid in this ordinance. The "Ordinance relating to Normal Education" now in force was issued—by Imperial Ordinance—in 1897, but its main provisions had already been adopted.

Our normal schools, since the revision of 1886, have been divided into two classes, viz., ordinary and higher. The object of ordinary normal schools—hereafter referred to as "normal schools"—is to train teachers for elementary schools, these being the centres of general education for the nation; while the object of higher normal schools is to give a training to teachers who will impart general education of a higher standard in normal schools, middle schools and high schools for girls.

## II. The Main Object of Normal Education.

Elementary school education for children is compulsory all over the Empire, and as the results of this education depend very largely upon the efficiency of the teachers, it is the duty of the state to do all that is possible towards training good teachers. To this end the Ordinance relating to Normal Education was issued, directing that each *Fu* and *Ken* throughout the Empire should establish one or more normal schools within its own sphere of jurisdiction. The number of these schools in 1907-8 was 69.

The requisites for good teachers are a high character, a large amount of adequate and matured knowledge, the art of imparting this knowledge, and the ability to control schools and school children. They should, furthermore, be possessed of good health. The principles of education emphasized by the Ordinance relating to Normal Education were the strict observance of the Imperial Rescript issued in 1890, and the assiduous cultivation of such qualities as tractability, sincerity, kindness and dignity. If a teacher were not tractable he would not be compliant to the demands of the state; if he lacked kindness he could not possibly display a cheerful tact in the education of children,





while none devoid of dignity could be said to possess the proper qualifications of a teacher. This is but an outline ; further particulars may be gathered from the following articles of the regulations relating to normal schools :—

ART. I. In normal schools, the pupils should be trained in accordance with the Ordinance relating to Normal Education, careful attention being paid to the following matters.

It is of the greatest importance for a teacher to be imbued with the spirit of loyalty and patriotism, it being so necessary to make the pupils understand clearly the great principles of loyalty and fidelity, and to inspire them with exalted sentiments as members of the nation.

ART. II. The training of the youthful mind and the cultivation of virtue being a most important part of a teacher's work, the pupils must continually be led to give their attention to these points.

ART. III. To observe the rules, to keep order, and to maintain his dignity, thus becoming a model for others, is of the utmost importance for a teacher; the pupils must be made to pay careful attention not only to the instruction, but also to the admonitions of those set over them, and must be taught to be careful in their manners, actions, and speech.

ART. IV. The instruction given should be thoroughly suited to the pupils, who themselves are going to be teachers ; and it should be in accordance with the principles of the Ordinance relating to Elementary Schools and the regulations for carrying out the Imperial Ordinance relating to Elementary Schools.

ART. V. The instruction imparted should always be given in accordance with the best methods; and the pupils should be made to comprehend the methods of instruction, while they are being taught.

The pupils should never be allowed to depend for their learning only upon the instruction imparted to them, it being most necessary to foster in them the habit of self-improvement in knowledge, and the perfecting of that to which they have already attained.



### III. The Curriculum of Normal Schools.

It is not in accordance with the principles of Japanese education for young men and young women to be taught together; so in normal schools, the male and female pupils are taught in different schools; while in cases where they have to be taught in the same school, the school is divided into different sections, the curriculum and the standard being different in each section. In 1907-8 the number of normal schools was 69, of which 27 were for male pupils and 19 were for females, while there were 23 schools for both male and female pupils.

The curriculum, for both male and female pupils, is divided into a preparatory and a regular course. The regular course is divided into a first and a second section.

The preparatory course extends over one year. Those eligible for admission are persons who have completed the second year course of a higher elementary school, or who have equivalent attainments. The subjects studied are those necessary to enable them to enter the first section of the regular course. The curriculum consists of morality; the Japanese language and Chinese literature; mathematics; penmanship; drawing; music and gymnastics. For girls, sewing is added. In certain localities where no provision is made for the preparatory course, persons who have completed the third year course of a higher elementary school, or its equivalent, are admitted directly to the regular course.

The period of the first section of the regular course extends over four years. The curriculum for male pupils consists of morality; pedagogics; the Japanese language and Chinese literature; English; history and geography; mathematics; natural history; physics and chemistry; law and economics; penmanship; drawing; manual training; music and gymnastics; English being an optional subject. In addition to these, either commerce or agriculture, or both subjects may be taken up. In schools where both commerce and agriculture have been added to the list of subjects, the pupils are required to study either one or the other of these two.

The following table shows further details of the curriculum.



Subjects of Study	Preparatory Course	Regular Course (First Section)			
		1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year
Morality	2	2	1	1	1
Pedagogics	—	—	2	4	{ Pedagogics 3 Practice 9
The Japanese Language and Chinese Literature	10	6	4	3	2
English	—	3	3	3	2
History	—	2	2	2	—
Geography	—	2	2	1	—
Mathematics	6	4	3	3	2
Natural History	—	3	2	1	—
Physics and Chemistry	—	—	2	3	4
Law and Economics	—	—	—	—	2
Penmanship	3	2	1	1	—
Drawing	2	3	3	3	3
Manual Training	—	3	3	3	3
Music	2	2	2	2	1
Gymnastics	6	5	5	5	3
Agriculture and Commerce	—	—	2	2	2
Total	31	34	34	34	34

The curriculum for female pupils in the first section of the regular course includes morality; pedagogics; the Japanese language and Chinese literature; history; geography; mathematics; natural history; physics and chemistry; household management; sewing; penmanship; drawing; manual training; music and gymnastics. English may be added as an optional subject.

The following is the schedule relating to the same.



Subjects of Study	Preparatory Course	Regular Course (First Section)			
		1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year
Morality	2	2	1	1	2
Pedagogics	—	—	2	4	{ Pedagogics 3 Practice 9
The Japanese Language and Chinese Literature	9	6	4	3	2
History	—	2	2	2	—
Geography	—	2	2	1	—
Mathematics	5	3	3	2	2
Natural History	—	2	2	1	—
Physics and Chemistry	—	—	2	2	4
Household Management	—	—	—	2	2
Sewing	4	4	4	4	3
Penmanship	3	2	1	1	—
Drawing	2	3	3	3	2
Manual Training	—	3	3	3	2
Music	2	2	2	2	1
Gymnastics	4	3	3	3	2
English	—	(3)	(3)	(3)	(2)
Total	31	31 (34)	31 (34)	31 (34)	32 (34)

The second section of the regular course for male pupils extends over one year; to this section graduates of middle schools are admitted.

The curriculum includes morality; pedagogics; the Japanese language and Chinese literature; mathematics; natural history; physics and chemistry; law and economics; drawing and painting; manual training; music; gymnastics. Persons who have studied



law and economics in middle schools are not required to take up these subjects in the normal school.

The following table shows the curriculum relating to the above.

Subjects of Study	First year
Morality	2
Pedagogics	{ Pedagogics 7 Practice 8
The Japanese Language and Chinese Literature	2
Mathematics	2
Natural History	3
Physics and Chemistry	
Law and Economics	2
Drawing	3
Manual Training	
Music	2
Gymnastics	3
Total	34

The second section of the regular course for female pupils extends over a period of one or two years. For admission to the one year course those are eligible who have completed the fifth year course of a high school for girls, and for the time being those also who have completed the fourth year course of a high school for girls. For admission to the two years' course those are eligible who have completed the fourth year course of a high school for girls. The curriculum includes morality; pedagogics; the Japanese language and Chinese literature; mathematics; natural history; physics and chemistry; sewing; drawing and painting; manual training; music and gymnastics.



For those who take the two years' course, history and geography are added and English may be added as an optional subject.

The following tables relate to these courses.

Subjects of Study	First year
Morality	2
Pedagogics	{ Pedagogics 7 Practice 6
The Japanese Language and Chinese Literature	3
Mathematics	3
Natural History	3
Physics and Chemistry	
Sewing	2
Drawing	3
Manual Training	
Music	2
Gymnastics	3
Total	34

Subjects of Study	1st year	2nd year
Morality	1	2
Pedagogics	4	{ Pedagogics 3 Practice 8
The Japanese language and Chinese literature	5	3
History	2	—
Geography	2	—



Subjects of Study	1st year	2nd year
Mathematics	4	3
Natural History	2	3
Physics and Chemistry		
Sewing	3	3
Drawing	3	2
Mannual Training		
Music	2	1
Gymnastics	3	3
English	(3)	(3)
Total	31 (34)	31 (34)

In the second section, the main object is not to extend the knowledge already acquired, but it is rather to train the pupils in the methods of imparting instruction in elementary schools.

In normal schools, in addition to the above mentioned courses, there are two supplementary training courses, one of which is for the purpose of training teachers who are already engaged in educational work, that they may thereby add to their stock of knowledge, and be brought in touch with the most advanced forms of progress. The subjects of study and the length of the courses are determined as occasion may require.

The other course is for the training of assistant teachers and those who wish to be teachers of ordinary elementary schools. For admission to the supplementary training course for assistant teachers, those are eligible who have completed the second year course of a higher elementary school.

Those who wish to be teachers of ordinary elementary schools receive instruction for one year or more, while those who have the qualifications of an assistant teacher, or their equivalent, receive instruction for two years or more.

The curriculum is to be decided upon by each *Fu* or *Ken*



according to local circumstances, and in accordance with the regulations issued by the Department of Education. Besides these supplementary training courses, a supplementary training course for kindergarten conductors may be provided, where the needs of any *Fu* or *Ken* require it.

#### IV. Pupils of Normal Schools.

As before mentioned, those who are admitted to normal schools must not only possess the requisite knowledge, but must above all be of strong and healthy physique and be well behaved and well mannered. They are subjected to a very strict medical examination, and searching inquiry is made into their character. In 1907 the number of pupils was 16,704, of whom 12,294 were males and 4,410 females.

The regulations prescribe that the pupils of normal schools shall be furnished, so long as they remain upon the school register, with the cost of their board and clothing, while tuition is free. This is because of the great importance attached by the state to the training of the future educators of the nation. After graduation, the pupils are required to serve for a certain period as elementary school teachers in the locality in which they graduated. The periods are as follows:—

Graduates from the first section (males).....7 years.

“ “ “ “ “ (females) .....5 years.

Graduates from the second section .....2 years.

Those graduates who do not fulfil their term of obligatory service are obliged to pay back the whole or a part of the tuition fees as well as the cost of board and clothing during the period of their continuance upon the school register.

#### V. Instruction and Discipline in Normal Schools.

In normal schools, not only must an accurate knowledge of each branch of learning be insisted on, but also a harmonious co-ordination must be maintained of all the several branches ;





and the teaching should afford in all respects a model of the methods of instruction. In this way the pupils will acquire a theoretical as well as a practical knowledge of the various branches of learning together with a knowledge of the art of pedagogical instruction, and will imbibe the spirit that should animate the true instructor; but, to become efficient teachers, something more is required, and that is experience, for which purpose a normal school has an elementary school attached to it. The elementary school attached to a normal school should be a model to all other elementary schools in the same locality, and should include classes organised in all the ways provided for by the Ordinance relating to Elementary Schools. Each class is placed under the control of an efficient elementary school teacher. The pupils of normal schools in the last year of their course must teach a class under the direction and superintendence of the instructors of the several branches of study, and the elementary school teacher in charge. They must also have practical training in the various branches of school management, the method of instruction, the control of children and the exercise of discipline.

It is most important in a normal school that the pupils should be subject to such discipline as the principles of the school require. This purpose is not well served where the pupils live in various homes under different circumstances and subject to diverse influences, and the pupils of normal schools are accordingly to occupy the dormitories provided for them. Hitherto the dormitories for male pupils have generally been conducted on military principles, and order has been strictly maintained by means of the preparation and review of lessons, the performance of various school duties, military exercises and games. Discipline has been rigidly enforced and prompt obedience has been exacted; pupils have learned to regard one another with kindly feeling to treat their seniors with proper deference, and to cultivate other good qualities.

Recently, however, the experiment has been made of establishing a home system, not only in the case of female pupils, but in that of male pupils also. The objections raised against the scheme are the excessive number of pupils in some



schools, and the difficulty of finding proper accommodation in the school buildings, as also difficulties in regard to the distribution of teachers.

## VI. Instructors of Normal Schools ; and Higher Normal Schools.

As before stated, the responsibilities of normal schools are momentous and varied ; and as the chief responsibility rests upon the teachers, only those who have the fullest qualifications as instructors are engaged as teachers of normal schools. To be possessed of such qualifications. They must have undergone special training. Not only teachers of normal schools but also the teachers of middle schools and high schools for girls need to have had special training, and higher normal schools for boys and girls have accordingly been established at the expense of the state.

There are two higher normal schools which train male teachers only for normal schools, middle schools, and high schools for girls, viz., the Tokyo Higher Normal School and the Hiroshima Higher Normal School. There are also two higher normal schools for girls which train female teachers only for normal schools for girls, and high schools for girls, viz., the Tokyo Higher Normal School for Girls, and the Nara Higher Normal School for Girls.

### HIGHER NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The Tokyo Higher Normal School is the former Tokyo Normal School, which was reorganized in 1886. The Hiroshima Higher Normal School was established in 1901, as the one existing school was unable to supply sufficient male teachers for all the secondary schools. The curriculum of these two schools is the same. Those eligible for admission are graduates of normal schools and middle schools, who are of strong physique, and high moral character and who have attained a high degree of proficiency in their studies. The period of study extends over



one year in the preparatory course, and three years in the regular course. The object of the education provided in these schools is to give the pupils wider and more thorough equipment of general knowledge than that which is furnished by the ordinary normal schools.

The subjects of study in the preparatory course are ethics; the Japanese language; Chinese literature; English; mathematics; logic; drawing and painting; music; and gymnastics.

The regular course is divided into the following five sections, viz., the Japanese language and Chinese literature; English; geography and history; mathematics, physics and chemistry, and natural history. It is impossible for persons to be thoroughly conversant with all the various branches of higher knowledge at the same time, and on the other hand it is a general failing with teachers of higher general education that they are apt to degenerate into mere specialists. The course of study has accordingly been divided into so many different sections, each for a different branch of study. The following are the subjects of study in each section:—

1. *The Japanese Language and Chinese Literature:—*

Ethics; psychology and pedagogics; the Japanese language and Chinese literature; English; history; philosophy; philology; and gymnastics. Either German or music, or sometimes both may be added as optional subjects.

2. *The English Language:—*

Ethics; psychology and pedagogics; English; the Japanese language and Chinese literature; history; philosophy; philology; and gymnastics. German, or French, or music, or sometimes all three may be added as optional subjects.

3. *Geography and History:—*

Ethics; psychology and pedagogics; geography; history; law and economics; the Japanese language and Chinese literature; English and gymnastics. Either German or music, or sometimes both may be added as optional subjects.

4. *Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry:—*

Ethics; psychology and pedagogics; mathematics; physics and chemistry; astronomy; meteorology; English; drawing and



painting; manual training and gymnastics. Either German or music, or sometimes both may be added as optional subjects.

5. *Natural History* :—

Ethics; psychology and pedagogics; botany; zoology; physiology and hygiene; mineralogy and geology; agriculture; English; drawing and painting, and gymnastics. Either German or music, or sometimes both may be added as optional subjects.

In addition to the preparatory and regular courses, there is a post-graduate course, extending over one or two years which is provided for the benefit of those graduates of the regular course who wish to prosecute their studies in scientific and educational subjects. In order to meet the demand for teachers in secondary schools, a special course for some particular branch of study may be temporarily provided, the course of study extending over two or three years.

The maximum number of pupils is 500, all of whom reside in the dormitories. The majority of the pupils have scholarships given them. After graduation, they are required to serve for a certain number of years as teachers in normal schools, middle schools, or high schools for girls, as in the case of normal school graduates.

To the higher normal school are attached a middle school and an elementary school where a model course of education is provided for the benefit of the whole country; and at the same time in these institutions the pupils are furnished with practical training.

HIGHER NORMAL SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS.

The Tokyo Higher Normal School for Girls is the former Tokyo Normal School, which has been enlarged and changed into its present form. The Nara Higher Normal School for Girls was established in 1909. Candidates for admission must be graduates from normal schools for girls, or must have completed the fourth year course of a high school for girls. The course of study extends over four years in both the above mentioned institutions, but the curriculum is slightly different in



each. An investigation is now being made to ascertain which of these curricula is the more satisfactory.

The curriculum in the Tokyo Higher Normal School for Girls is not divided into a preparatory and a regular course, but is divided into the three sections of literature, science, and art.

The curriculum of the literature section includes morality; pedagogics; the Japanese language; Chinese literature; English; history; geography; penmanship; music and gymnastics.

The curriculum of the science section includes morality; pedagogics; English; mathematics; physics and chemistry; natural history; music and gymnastics.

The curriculum of the art section includes morality; pedagogics; English; physics and chemistry; household management; sewing; manual arts; painting, drawing and designing; music and gymnastics.

The course of study in the Nara Higher Normal School for Girls is divided into a preparatory course, extending over 4 months and a regular course, extending over 3 years and 8 months. The regular course is divided into the following sections:—the Japanese language and Chinese literature; geography and history; physics and chemistry; and natural history and household management.

The curriculum of the preparatory course includes morality; the Japanese language; Chinese literature; English; mathematics; penmanship; painting and drawing; music; sewing and gymnastics.

The curriculum of the Japanese language and Chinese literature section in the regular course includes morality; pedagogics; the Japanese language; Chinese literature; English; history; penmanship; music and gymnastics.

The curriculum of the geography and history section in the regular course includes morality; pedagogics; geography; history; the Japanese language and Chinese literature; English; law and economics; music and gymnastics.

The curriculum of the mathematics, physics and chemistry section in the regular course includes morality; pedagogics; mathematics; physics and chemistry; English; manual training; music and gymnastics.



The curriculum of the natural history and household management section in the regular course includes morality ; pedagogy ; botany ; zoology ; physiology and hygiene ; mineralogy and geology ; household management ; English ; physics and chemistry ; music and gymnastics.

In addition, drawing, music, sewing, manual arts, gymnastics and horticulture may be added to each section, and the pupils are permitted to choose any one of these subjects of study.

There is also a post-graduate course, and in addition, a special course is temporarily provided, as in the case of higher normal schools for boys.

The maximum number of pupils is 300. As regards their treatment in school, the scholarships generally given, and obligatory service after graduation, the conditions are almost the same as in the case of the higher normal schools for boys, except in the matter of control and the cultivation of the several virtues essential to the sex.

A high school for girls, an elementary school, and a kindergarten are attached to this institution.

The higher normal schools for boys and girls rank next to the Imperial universities, and the instruction given is of a very high order. Hence the instructors in these schools must be persons of first-rate ability and of good repute both in literary and scientific circles. The teaching staff consists mostly of those who have studied at the Imperial universities and have subsequently pursued their studies in Europe or America.

While the higher normal schools provide a training for teachers of the ordinary subjects belonging to higher general education, teachers of technical subjects in secondary schools or secondary technical schools need also to be furnished with a suitable training, and such courses are now temporarily provided in technical schools of higher grade.

## VII. Teachers' Licences.

Teachers engaged in national education, and general education of secondary grade are granted licences, after their moral



character, scholarship and physique have been duly tested in accordance with prescribed regulations.

Teachers engaged in elementary schools are subjected to test by the governors of *Fu* and *Ken*, while teachers engaged in secondary education are tested under the direction of the Minister of Education. The tests are of two kinds, viz., with examination and without examination. In each *Fu* and *Ken*, there is a committee for testing the qualifications of teachers for licences, consisting of the teachers of normal schools and middle schools. In the Department of Education there is also a testing committee, consisting of professors belonging to the higher normal school, the imperial university, etc. To the graduates of normal schools in each *Fu* and *Ken*, licences as elementary school regular teachers, ordinary elementary school regular teachers, elementary school assistant teachers, and ordinary elementary school assistant teachers, are granted, with the approval of the committee, without examination, according to the particular course of study followed by the recipient while at school. To the graduates of a higher normal school, licences as teachers of secondary education are granted, with the approval of the committee, without examination, according to their respective qualifications. To the graduates of the imperial universities and other government, public and private schools, approved by the Minister of Education, licences are granted without examination, according to their respective qualifications.

Those who are not graduates of normal schools or higher normal schools, or other sanctioned schools, but who wish to become teachers, are required to be tested by examination. Examinations are held once in each year in the Department of Education, and once, or more than once, in each *Fu* and *Ken* for the testing of applicants for licences. The subjects of study pursued in normal schools are taken as the standard of examination for elementary school teachers, and the subjects of study pursued in higher normal schools are taken as the standard of examination for the teachers of secondary education. The examination is divided into two parts, written and oral; not only the scholarship of candidates but also their knowledge of and



ability to carry out the proper methods of instruction are tested.

On the whole, Japan has hitherto spared no efforts in the training of teachers, and the fullest consideration has been given to the question of the methods best calculated to supply the present demand for such.

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## PART V.

## HIGHER EDUCATION.

## CHAPTER I.

## HIGH SCHOOLS.

A High School is an institution where preparatory lessons are given to those students who are going to enter the Imperial University. It was formerly called a Higher Middle School, but by the High School Ordinance issued in the 27th year of Meiji (1894), its name was changed to the one which it now bears.

The history of this class of institution may be briefly stated as follows:—In the 10th year of Meiji (1877), the Daigaku-yobimon (the Preparatory School for the University) was established in Tokyo and was attached to the Tokyo University, the old name of the Tokyo Imperial University; but in the 19th year of Meiji (1886), when the Middle School Ordinance was issued, the name of Daigaku-yobimon was changed into that of First Higher Middle School, and several schools of the same kind were at the same time established in other places. The Daigaku-yobimon was thus the beginning of higher middle schools and consequently of high schools. Since its foundation, there have been changes in the organization and name of this institution, but its object has been the same throughout—that of giving the preparatory teaching needed by applicants for admission to the University, until it assumed its present name of the High School.

According to the High School Ordinance now in force, the chief object of the High School was, in the beginning, as its curriculum showed, to instruct the students in those special courses of study which were calculated to produce men of talent who might render important service to the state, and, as we have seen, a preparatory course for those students who were going to





enter the University was established in this institution. Until a few years ago, the High School had special courses of law, medicine, engineering, etc.

Since, however, the time of the Japan-China and Russo-Japanese Wars, everything in our country has taken rapid strides, and the expansion of the then existing universities, and the establishment of a new one, greatly increased the importance of the preparatory course for the university. Furthermore, to keep pace with the progress and development of society at large, it became necessary to give a more perfect education in all the special branches of study.

For these reasons, the special courses which had been established in the High School were either abolished or were changed in regard to their internal organization, and were made into independent special schools, while the preparatory course alone has been left in the High School, this institution having thus returned to its original form—that of the Daigaku-yobimon.

Consequently, in the 33rd year of Meiji (1900), the regulations regarding the preparatory course for the university in the High School were modified, and the subjects of study and the number of hours of teaching having been arranged, the authorities looked forward to bringing the preparatory course to perfection.

**Establishment and Maintenance:**—There are now eight high schools, from No. 1 to No. 8, in Japan. They are respectively situated in Tokyo, Sendai, Kyoto, Kanazawa, Kumamoto, Okayama, Kagoshima, and Nagoya.

As high schools, like all other government schools, are established by the government, their cost is paid out of the national treasury.

**The Subjects of Study and the Number of Teaching Hours:**—The preparatory course for the university in the high school is subdivided into three departments, namely, the First Department, the Second Department, and the Third Department.

The subjects taught in the First Department are those required for applicants for admission into the College of Law or





the College of Literature; those in the Second Department for applicants for admission to the course of Pharmacy in the College of Medicine, to the College of Engineering, to the College of Science and Engineering, or to the College of Agriculture; those in the Third Department for applicants for admission to the College of Medicine.

The subjects taught in each department and the number of the teaching hours are given in the following table:—

The First Department.

Subjects	Classes	1st	2nd	3rd
		Year	Year	Year
Ethics .. .. .		—	—	1
Japanese and Chinese ..		6	5	3
English .. .. .		(9)	(9)	(8)
German .. .. .		(9)	(9)	(8)
French .. .. .		(9)	(9)	(8)
History .. .. .		3	3	3
Logic and Mental Philosophy..		—	2	—
Elementary Law .. ..		—	—	2
Elementary Political Economy..		—	—	[2]
Gymnastics .. ..		3	3	3
Total .. .. .		30	31	29 31

Note.—( ) shows the number of hours given to elective subjects and [ ] the number of hours for applicants for admission to the College of Literature.

As regards foreign languages, the students must choose two out of the three,—English, German, and French.

The applicants for admission to the course of philosophy in the College of Literature are taught mathematics for two hours a week in the 2nd year, logic and mental philosophy being dispensed with, and physics for two hours per week in the 3rd.





year, instead of Japanese; and applicants for admission to the College of Literature are taught the rudiments of political economy for two hours a week in the 3rd year.

Those students who have been admitted after taking the entrance examination in English, and who are going to enter the course of law in the College of Law, in which they must choose either German law or French law, or who are going to enter the course of German literature or the course of French literature in the College of Literature, have four hours' teaching in English and have 14 hours a week of either German or French in the 1st and 2nd years, while in the 3rd year, English is taught 4 hours and either German or French 12 hours a week; and applicants for admission to the College of Law are taught Latin for two hours a week as an optional course in the third year.

#### THE SECOND DEPARTMENT

Subjects \ Classes	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year
Ethics .. .. .	—	—	1
Japanese .. .. .	3	—	—
English .. .. .	8	7	4
German or French .. .. .	8	7	4
Mathematics .. .. .	5	4	6
Physics .. .. .	—	3	3
Chemistry .. .. .	—	3	Lecture. 3 Experi- 2 ments.
Geology and Mineralogy .. .. .	—	—	2
Drawing .. .. .	4	4	2
Gymnastics .. .. .	3	3	3
Total .. .. .	31	31	30

As regards the foreign languages in this department, the students must select either German or French in addition to English, but those who are going to enter the course of electrical engineering, applied chemistry, chemical technology, or mining





and metallurgy, in the College of Engineering or in the College of Science and Engineering, or those who are going to enter the College of Agriculture, must choose German.

In the third year, applicants for admission to the course of pharmacy in the College of Medicine, or applicants for the course of zoology, botany, geology, or anthropology in the College of Science, or applicants for the course of agriculture, agricultural chemistry, forestry, or veterinary medicine in the College of Agriculture, need not study mathematics; applicants for admission to the course of civil engineering or mechanical engineering, in the College of Engineering or in the College of Science and Engineering, or applicants for admission to the course of naval architecture or architecture in the College of Engineering, applicants for the course of mathematics or physics in the College of Science or in the College of Science and Engineering, or applicants for the course of astronomy in the College of Science, may omit chemical experiments; and applicants for admission to any course in the College of Science, or applicants for the course of mathematics, physics or theoretical chemistry in the College of Science and Engineering, or applicants for any course in the College of Agriculture, need not take up drawing.

Applicants for admission to the course of pharmacy in the College of Medicine, or applicants for the course of zoology, botany, or geology in the College of Science, or applicants for any course in the College of Agriculture, are taught zoology and botany, with 4 hours of lectures, and 2 hours of laboratory work.

Applicants for admission to the course of civil engineering, mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, or mining and metallurgy in the College of Engineering or in the College of Science and Engineering, or applicants for the course of naval architecture or architecture in the College of Engineering, or applicants for the course of mathematics or physics in the College of Science or in the College of Science and Engineering, or applicants for the course of astronomy in the College of Science, or applicants for the course of agriculture, agricultural chemistry, or forestry in the College of Agriculture, are taught surveying for 3 hours a week in the 3rd year.



Applicants for admission to the course of pharmacy in the College of Medicine, or applicants for the course of zoology, botany, geology, or mineralogy in the College of Science, or applicants for the course of veterinary medicine in the College of Agriculture, are taught Latin for 2 hours a week, as an optional subject, in the third year.

THE THIRD DEPARTMENT.

Subjects \ Classes	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year
Ethics .. .. .	—	—	1
Japanese .. .. .	3	—	—
German .. .. .	13	13	10
English or French .. .. .	3	3	3
Latin .. .. .	—	—	2
Mathematics .. .. .	3	2	
Physics .. .. .	—	3	Lect. 3 } Exp. 3 }
Chemistry .. .. .	—	3	Lect. 3 } Exp. 3 }
Zoology and Botany .. .. .	4	Laboratory work 3	—
Gymnastics .. .. .	3	3	3
Total .. .. .	29	30	31

As regards foreign languages in the Third Department, students must select either English or French in addition to German, which is obligatory; but those who have taken the entrance examination in German are taught German for 9 hours and English or French 7 hours a week in the 1st and 2nd years, and German 8 hours, and English or French 5 hours a week in the 3rd year.

The School Year, School Term and Holidays:—The school year begins on the 11th of September and ends on the 10th of the same month of the following year. The school year is divided into three terms, the first term extending from the 11th





of September to the 24th of December; the second term from the 8th of January to the 31st of March, and the third term from the 8th of April to the 10th of July.

**The Students:**—Candidates for admission into this institution must be graduates of a middle school or persons officially recognised as being at least the equals of such in point of scholarship, and they must furthermore be persons of good moral character and healthy constitution. When the number of the applicants is greater than the number required by the high school to which they have applied for admission, a competitive entrance examination is held in the subject taught in middle schools, the standard of graduation being taken, and the school admits as many as are required, on the result of this examination.

It generally happened that young men who wished for higher education, after they had graduated from a middle school entered some high school, and thence proceeded to the Imperial University, their fathers and elder brothers commonly regarding the University as the only way to learning. As about the time of the Japan-China War, only a few special schools of any kind had been established by the government, so there was practically no other way of getting higher education, than by entering the University, besides which, middle school education had very largely developed in the course of some twenty years. In consequence of these two facts, the number of applicants for admission to high schools had increased, year after year, to such an extent, that they were more than five or six times as many as could be admitted to the high schools. Within a few years of the close of the Japan-China War, the number of special schools of every kind—government, public and private—was greatly increased and more particular, since the war with Russia these institutions have made wonderful progress. At the same time the people at large have begun to take great interest in technical education, and there has been a great increase in the number of students who applied for admission to the technical and special schools. This, however, has not interfered in the least with the number of middle school graduates applying for admission to high schools, but, on the contrary, the applicants seem to be still





increasing in number. All this is the result of the development and spread of elementary and middle school education in Japan, and each high school is compelled, in consequence, to hold an entrance examination with a view to the selection from amongst these numerous applicants of the required number for admission.

**Promotion and Graduation:**—Promotion is determined by the students daily work, taken together with the results of the two term examinations and one annual examination. The term examination is held at the end of the first and second terms respectively, and the annual examination at the end of the school year.

Graduation is determined by the results of the three annual examinations.

**Rewards and Punishment:**—To encourage diligence in study and good behaviour, students who display exceptional proficiency and who are of good moral character, are made honour students, and enjoy the privilege of exemption from tuition fees. On the other hand, those who do not observe the rules of the school, or in other ways behave improperly are reproved, cautioned, suspended from attendance, or expelled from the school.

**Privileges:**—The students have the privilege of postponing their period of army conscription or of becoming volunteers for one year's service. Graduates of the First and Second Departments who were first-rate scholars in English while they were in the school, may be granted a license to teach English in normal, middle, and girls' high schools without undergoing an examination.

From what has been said, it will be very evident that in the high schools great importance is attached to the teaching of foreign languages, more than one-half of the teaching hours being devoted thereto, which is a natural result of this institution having for its object the provision of an education preparatory to the university.

In studying any special subject in the Imperial University of our country, the use of foreign books is always necessary, especially European and American books, and the teaching of European languages in high schools is consequently a matter of much importance, that the students may be possessed of the



initial attainments essential to the use of such books. As, however, our own language differs so much in its nature from the languages of Europe, our young men find great difficulties in the study of them; therefore, in high schools, attention is chiefly paid to the teaching of foreign languages, with a view to making the education preparatory to the university thoroughly efficient.

But the object of the high school is not to give a purely intellectual preparatory education, for the Imperial University being an institution in which men of talent whose services are needed by the state are trained, both mental and moral instruction, must be given in the high school, the principal object of the education provided by the high school being, in fact, the production of in all respects thoroughly-equipped men. The students of the high school being young men of the age of twenty or thereabouts, they are of an age very susceptible of moral influence, and consequently in each high school boarding houses are provided where they are carefully shielded from evil and kept under strict control, great attention being paid to their moral and spiritual development. As regards physical education, gymnastics are taught to the students throughout the whole course of three years, great attention being paid to their health while the authorities are at the same time doing their best to foster in each student of the institution a manly character and adequate knowledge.

## CHAPTER II.

### THE IMPERIAL UNIVERSITY.

There are at present three imperial universities in our country, namely, the Tokyo Imperial University, the Kyoto Imperial University, and the Tōhoku Imperial University. The Tokyo Imperial University is the oldest of the three, the Kyoto Imperial University comes next, and the Tōhoku Imperial University is the latest established.

The Tokyo Imperial University:—The history of this institution may be given briefly as follows:—At the time of the Restoration in the 1st year of Meiji (1868), the new government, taking over and



re-constituting the "Kaiseijo" of the Tokugawa government, gave it in the following year the name of "Daigaku Nankō" and this was the origin of the Tokyo Imperial University. In the sixth year of Meiji (1873), the name "Daigaku Nankō" was changed to that of "Kaiseigakkō." In the tenth year of Meiji (1877), this institution and the Tokyo Igakkō (Tokyo Medical School) were united under the name of Tokyo University, which was furnished with the four Departments of Law, Medicine, Science, and Literature. In the nineteenth year of Meiji (1886), the Imperial University Ordinance was issued, by which the name of Tokyo University was changed into that of the Imperial University, and the "Kōbu-daigaku" having been added to it, there were established in the University Colleges of Law, Medicine, Engineering, Literature, and Science. In the twenty-third year of Meiji (1890), the Tokyo Nōringakko was added to the Imperial University under the name of the College of Agriculture, the number of the colleges being thus increased by one, and the Imperial University being thus brought to assume its present form.

In the 30th year of Meiji (1897), the Kyoto Imperial University was established in Kyoto, and to distinguish the existing Imperial University from it, the name of Tokyo Imperial University was given to the older institution.

At present, the Tokyo Imperial University consists of a university hall and six colleges, and the Kyoto Imperial University consists of a university hall, a college of law, two colleges of medicine (one in Kyoto and the other in Fukuoka), a college of literature, and a college of science and engineering. In the 40th year of Meiji (1907), an Imperial Ordinance was issued, sanctioning the establishment of the Tōhoku Imperial University in Sendai and attaching to it the Sapporo Agricultural School which the authorities transformed into the College of Agriculture, and the Tōhoku Imperial University accordingly consists at present of only a university hall and a college—the College of Agriculture; but other colleges will gradually be added to it, and the authorities are even now making preparations for establishing a College of Science in the 44th year of Meiji (1911).



The authorities also intend to establish a new college of engineering in Kyūshū in the 44th year of Meiji (1911), uniting it with the College of Medicine in Fukuoka belonging to the Kyoto Imperial University. It is also purposed to lay the foundations of an Imperial University, so that a few years hence there will be four Imperial Universities in Japan.

The object of an Imperial University is to provide instruction in literature, science and art, all of which are essential to the state, and to make minute investigations into special subjects; it consists of a university hall and colleges.

The University Hall is an institution in which minute researches in literature, science and art are carried on and into which the graduates of the various colleges are admitted. If any person who is not a graduate of any of the colleges wishes to be admitted to the institution, he must undergo an examination at the college to which his subject of study belongs, or one conducted by the committee of examiners.

The length of the course of investigation in the University Hall is five years in the Tokyo Imperial University, over one year in the Kyoto Imperial University, and from three to five years in the Tōhoku Imperial University.

A student in the University Hall carries on his investigations in one special subject under the guidance of a professor; at the end of the course he prepares a thesis, and, if he passes, a degree is conferred upon him.

Post-graduate Course:—In the Colleges of Medicine, of Science, and of Literature in the Tokyo Imperial University, a post-graduate course is established for the graduates of the various colleges, and for persons whose attainments are equal to or higher than those of the graduates. The length of the course is not more than two years.

A college is an institution in which literature or science, both theoretical and applied, is taught. The length of the course of study is three years in the Colleges of Literature, of Science, of Engineering, of Agriculture, and of Science and Engineering; four years in the course of medicine and three years in that of pharmacy, in the College of Medicine; and four years in the College of Law.



In each college in an Imperial University, an elective course is provided for those persons who wish to take up one or more subjects.

The University year begins on the 11th of September and ends on the 10th of July following.

In the Tokyo Imperial University and the Tōhoku Imperial University, the year is divided, as in all the government schools, into three terms; but in the Kyoto Imperial University, it is divided into two terms. The Spring Term begins on the 21st of January and ends on the 10th of July, and the Autumn Term extends from the 11th of July to the 10th of January following. The holidays are same as in other government schools.

Courses of Study and Subjects taught:— In the College of Law in the Tokyo Imperial University, the four courses of law, politics, political economy, and commerce are established. In the College of Medicine in the Tokyo Imperial University, the two courses of medicine and pharmacy are established.

In the College of Medicine in the Tōkyō Imperial University, the two courses of medicine and pharmacy are established.

In the College of Engineering in the same institution, the following nine courses of study are provided:—

- |                            |                             |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Civil Engineering       | 2. Mechanical Engineering.  |
| 3. Naval Architecture      | 4. Technology of Arms.      |
| 5. Electrical Engineering. | 6. Architecture.            |
| 7. Applied Chemistry       | 8. Technology of Explosives |
| 9. Mining and Metallurgy.  |                             |

In the College of Literature, the three courses of philosophy, literature, and history are established, and the course of philosophy is subdivided into philosophy and history of philosophy, Chinese philosophy, Hindoo philosophy, mental science and ethics, philosophy of religion, aesthetics, pedagogy, and sociology; the course of history into Japanese history, Chinese history and occidental history; the course of literature into Japanese literature, Chinese literature, Sanskrit, English literature, German literature, French literature, and philology.

In the College of Science, the courses provided are:—



mathematics, astronomy, theoretical physics, experimental physics, chemistry, zoology, botany, geology, and mineralogy.

The College of Agriculture has the four courses of agriculture, agricultural chemistry, forestry, and veterinary medicine.

The subjects taught in each of the courses of the various colleges being given in the Imperial University Calendar, they are omitted here.

The courses of study provided in the colleges of the Kyoto Imperial University are as follows:—

The College of Law has courses of law and politics; there courses of political economy and commerce are not provided.

The College of Medicine (both in Fukuoka and Kyoto), has only a course of medicine, no course of pharmacy being provided.

In the College of Literature, the courses of study are the same as those in the College of Literature belonging to the Tokyo Imperial University, except that none of the courses are subdivided.

The College of Science and Engineering, has eight courses, viz.—Mathematics, physics, theoretical chemistry, chemical technology, civil engineering, mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, mining and metallurgy; thus some of the courses in the College of Science and some in the College of Engineering of the Tokyo Imperial University are united in one.

The College of Agriculture belonging to the Tōhoku Imperial University has the four courses of agriculture, agricultural chemistry, forestry and veterinary medicine. The former two courses have already been opened, but the remaining two will be opened from the 43rd year of Meiji (1910).

The subjects taught in the different courses of study in the colleges of the Kyoto Imperial University and of the Tōhoku Imperial University, and the length of the courses in these colleges, are nearly the same as in the corresponding colleges of the Tokyo Imperial University.

Establishment, Maintenance, and Staff:—The universities have all been established by the government, and each one receives an annual subsidy paid out of the national treasury. The amount of the subsidy is 1,300,000 *yen* to the Tokyo Imperial University, and





1,000,000 *yen* to the Kyoto Imperial University, while a certain sum, the amount of which was determined by the needs of the institution, is paid to the Tōhoku Imperial University. Since the 40th year of Meiji (1907) a special system of finance has been in operation. Each university has a president who is of *Chokunin* rank, but the present presidents of the two universities receive the treatment due to officials of *Shinnin* rank. The president is charged with all the affairs of the university, and is responsible for the maintenance of due order. Each university has a council, consisting of the directors of all the Colleges and one professor from each College who has been chosen by vote. The president of the university convokes the council and presides at its meetings.

The matters to be submitted to a meeting of the University Council for its deliberation are as follows :

- (1) The institution or abolition of a course of study in any college.
- (2) Questions concerning the chairs in the university.
- (3) Regulations for the internal government of the university.

N. B. If it be necessary to suggest the issue of an Imperial Ordinance or an Ordinance of the Education Department, a draft of such suggestion must also be submitted for deliberation.

- (4) The granting of degrees.
- (5) Questions put by the Minister of Education or by the President of the University.

A university council may submit suggestions to the Minister of Education with regard to higher education.

There is also a committee for the management of the university finances, and the following items are submitted to it for examination :

- (a) The framing of the university budget.
- (b) The reckoning of the annual income and expenditure.
- (c) The verification of the items of expenditure and the transfer of money from one head to another.
- (d) Payments made out of the second reserve fund.
- (e) The disposal of the university fund. Other matters which the Minister of Education or the President of the University consider of importance are also submitted for their consideration.



The Committee consists of the director of the Bureau of Special School Affairs in the Department of Education, the treasurer of the Department of Education, the director of the Accounts Bureau of the Department of Finance, a secretary of the Department of Finance, the director of each of the colleges, and a secretary of the University; the president himself presides over the committee.

Each college has a director who is appointed from among the professors, and who exercises a general supervision over matters connected with the instruction given in his college. There is a faculty meeting in each college, attended by the professors of that particular College.

The matters to be submitted to a faculty meeting of any college are as follows:—

- (a) Curricula of studies.
- (b) Examination of students.
- (c) Qualifications of the candidates for degrees.
- (d) Questions put by the Minister of Education or by the president of the university.

Each college has professors, assistant-professors and lecturers. The following tables show the number of instructors in the Imperial University according to the figures for March in the 42nd year of Meiji (1909).

TABULAR VIEW OF THE NUMBER OF PROFESSORS, ASSISTANT PROFESSORS, AND LECTURERS IN THE COLLEGE OF THE TOKYO IMPERIAL UNIVERSITY.

Colleges.	Professors.	Assistant Professors.	Lecturers.	Total.
College of Law.....	28	5	10	43
„ of Medicine.....	26	11	8	45
„ Engineering.....	27	29	23	79
„ Literature. ....	18	14	25	57
„ Science. ....	22	11	13	46
„ Agriculture. ....	22	18	16	56
Total. ....	143	88	95	326



Beside these, there are 11 honorary professors. Included in the figures given in the table are 14 foreigners, viz.—three in the College of Law, one in the College of Engineering, nine in the College of Literature, and one in the College of Agriculture.

Distinguished according to their nationality, there are three Englishmen, two Frenchmen, two Germans, two Americans, two Austrians, one Italian, one Russian, one Swiss, and one Chinese.

TABULAR VIEW OF THE NUMBER OF PROFESSORS, ASSISTANT PROFESSORS AND LECTURERS IN THE COLLEGES OF THE KYOTO IMPERIAL UNIVERSITY.

Colleges.	Professors.	Assistant Professors.	Lecturers.	Total.
College of Law.....	17	8	4	29
„ „ Medicine.....	21	10	—	31
„ „ Literature. ....	9	9	19	37
„ „ Science & Engineering.	26	17	17	60
„ „ Medicine at Fukuoka	10	5	11	35
Total. ....	92	49	51	192

Besides these, there are two honorary professors. Included in the figures given in the table, are five foreigners, all of whom are teaching in the College of Literature. Classified according to their nationality, there are one Frenchman, one German, two Americans, and a Chinese.

TABULAR VIEW OF THE NUMBER OF PROFESSORS, ASSISTANT PROFESSORS, AND LECTURERS IN THE TŌHOKU IMPERIAL UNIVERSITY.

College.	Professors.	Assistant Professors.	Lecturers.	Total.
College of Agriculture.	10	14	—	24
Total.	10	14	—	24

On the first establishment of a university in Japan, after the Restoration, there were very few Japanese teachers in the



institution, and foreigners were chiefly employed in it; but with the development of education in our country, the need of employing foreign teachers in the University became gradually less, until we have come to have almost no need for them, there being only a few foreign teachers in the courses of foreign languages and in two or three other courses of study.

As already stated the applicants for admission to the various colleges are graduates of the preparatory courses for the university in high schools; but when the number of applicants is less than the number, the college is prepared to admit, students who possess any of the following qualifications may also be admitted:—

(1) Graduates of schools having courses of study, the standard of which has been recognized by the Minister of Education as being equal to or above that of the preparatory course for the University belonging to the high schools; such as, the higher course in the Gakushūin (Peers' School).

(2) Persons who have undergone an examination at the college or at the high school, at the request of the college, and who have shewn themselves to be possessed of scholarship equal to that of the graduates of the preparatory course in the high school.

But when the number of the applicants is in excess of the number which the college has decided to admit, having regard to the equipment of each of the courses of study, they are temporarily admitted, after which a competitive examination is held in the subjects taught in the preparatory course, and the required number are selected and admitted.

To keep pace with the development of middle school education, there has been a considerable increase in the number of high schools, while the condition of society in general has brought about wonderful developments in all branches of industry.

As a natural result of these two courses, the applicants for admission to the College of Engineering, and the College of Science and Engineering have shewn an extraordinary increase during the last few years, and these two colleges have consequently been holding competitive examination for admission for some years past.



The graduates from high schools having been increasing so in number, and this increase being certain to go on, the Department of Education, to meet this tendency, and provide for the wants of these young men, is now intending to establish a new university in Kyūshū.

The number of the university students, as ascertained in March in the 42nd year of Meiji (1909), is shown in the following tables :—

NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN THE TOKYO IMPERIAL UNIVERSITY.

	Students of the Regular Course.	Students of the Elective Course.	Total.
University Hall .....	814 × 1	—	814 × 1
College of Law .....	1,992 × 4	36 × 15	2,028 × 19
College of Medicine .....	561 × 3	89 × 5	650 × 8
College of Engineering....	657 × 2	— × 1	657 × 3
College of Literature .....	371 × 2	40 × 5	411 × 7
College of Science .....	158 × 5	2 × 1	160 × 6
College of Agriculture.....	297	2 × 5	299 × 5
Post-graduate courses in the College of Lit. Sci. and Med.....	52	—	52
Total .....	4,902 × 17	169 × 32	5,071 × 49

× shows the number of foreigners, viz.—one American, two Russians, one Hindu, and forty-five Chinese.



# NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN THE KYOTO IMPERIAL UNIVERSITY.

	Regular Course.	Elective Course.	Total.
University Hall .....	93	—	93
College of Law.....	219 × 5	42 .	261 × 5
College of Medicine in Kyoto.	321 × 2	6	327 × 2
College of Literature .....	79 × 1	44	123 × 1
College of Science and En- gineering ... ..	300 × 8	5	305 × 8
College of Medicine in Fukuoka.....	287	—	287
Total .....	1,299 × 16	97	1,396 × 16

× shows the number of foreigners, viz.—one Korean, three Hindus and twelve Chinese.

# NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN THE TOHOKU IMPERIAL UNIVERSITY.

	Regular Course.	Elective Course.	Total.
College of Agriculture ....	100 × 2	× 2	100 × 4
Total .....	100 × 2	× 2	100 × 4

× shows the number of foreigners—Koreans, Chinese and Hindus.

Promotion and graduation is determined on the results of regular examinations; the mode of examination differs in different universities and colleges, and also according to the nature of the course of study.

Students are required to pay their own college expenses, and when they have been admitted they pay an admission fee of five *yen*, and they pay five and thirty *yen* yearly as college fees. As



in other government schools, those students who are distinguished for their scholastic attainments and good conduct, are made honour students, in order to encourage all students in their studies. These honour students enjoy the privilege of exemption from college fees.

To further encourage the students in their studies, university regulations have been framed regarding loan-scholarships. There are two kinds of loan-scholarships, viz., college scholarships and donation scholarships.

A College loan-scholarship of a value not exceeding 120 *yen* a year is given to a student taking up a course of study for which special assistance may be required, who shows himself proficient in scholastic attainments and of good moral character, but whose private means are insufficient to enable him to meet his college expenses.

A donation loan scholarship is allotted in accordance with the wish of the donor to a student of any college. The value of this scholarship is not more than 120 *yen* a year, but cases in which the donor fixes the sum are exceptions to the general rule.

There are also college students who have come under the special patronage of the Army Department, the Navy Department, the Department of Communications, other government institutions, and private companies, and these students obtain the means of study from these sources of patronage.

In addition, the Tokyo Imperial University has framed regulations regarding research-scholarships.

A certain number of those graduates of each college, who, being possessed of superior scholastic attainments and a resolute will, desire to devote themselves for some years to study and research in science and art, are selected and appointed to research scholarships in order to enable them to pursue their courses of study and research at the University Hall.

The director of a college nominates competent candidates for appointment to research scholarships after they have been approved at a faculty meeting of the college, and recommends them to the President. Such of these candidates as have been approved at a meeting of the University Council are appointed



by the President to the scholarships to which they were nominated.

A research scholarship awarded to a graduate is of the value of fifty *yen* or less a month, and is tenable for two years; but this term may be extended, if necessary, for a period definitely fixed by a resolution passed at a meeting of the University Council.

**Privileges:—**A university student enjoys the privilege of postponing his army conscription or of becoming a one year volunteer. A graduate of the regular course may call himself a *gakushi* of the course he has studied. In addition, the graduates of the Imperial University enjoy the following privileges:—

A graduate of the course of law in the College of Law may become an advocate or be appointed as a probationary judge or public procurator, or as a paymaster in the army, without undergoing an examination. In the higher civil service examination, he need not take the preliminary examination, and he may be granted a license to teach political economy and law in a middle school without undergoing an examination.

A graduate of the College of Medicine—one who has taken the course of medicine—may become a medical practitioner, or may be appointed a surgeon in the army or navy without examination.

A graduate of the course of pharmacy may become a pharmacist or be appointed a military or naval pharmacist without examination. He may also be granted a licence to teach chemistry in a normal, middle or high girls' school, without examination.

A graduate of the Colleges of Engineering, Literature, Science, or Agriculture, may be granted a license to teach what he has specially studied in a normal, middle or high girls' school without undergoing examination. But a graduate of the elective course may only apply for a licence to teach what he has studied in that course in a normal, middle or high girls' school without examination.

**Degrees:—**Here something must be said about the Imperial Ordinance regarding Degrees in our country.

The degree is of nine kinds, namely, *Hōgaku* (Law) *Hakushi*, *Igaku* (Medicine) *Hakushi*, *Yakugaku* (Pharmacy) *Hakushi*, *Kōgaku*





(Engineering) *Hakushi*, *Bungaku* (Literature) *Hakushi*, *Rigaku* (Science) *Hakushi*, *Nōgaku* (Agriculture) *Hakushi*, *Ringaku* (Forestry) *Hakushi*, and *Jūigaku* (Veterinary Medicine) *Hakushi*.

The degree of *Hakushi* is conferred by the Minister of Education upon the following :—

1. Persons, as already stated, who have passed the prescribed examinations at the University Hall, or those who, having applied for a Degree and submitted a thesis on any subject in connection with their special branch of study, are determined at a faculty meeting of one of the Colleges of the University to be possessed of attainments equal to or higher than those necessary for passing the said examination.

2. Persons who are considered at one of the assemblies of *Hakushi* to possess the requisite attainments for the Degree of *Hakushi*.

The Degree of *Hakushi* may also be conferred by the Minister of Education upon professors of the Colleges of the University on the recommendation of the President of the University.

Supplementary Establishments :—As the Tokyo Imperial University is an institution of considerable antiquity, as already stated, it is now on a very large scale, and its equipment has been brought to the desired pitch of perfection ; but it is still growing and improving in not a few respects.

In addition to the ordinary lecture rooms, there is a library attached to the University, a large supplementary hospital is attached to the College of Medicine, an institute for historical compilation is attached to the College of Literature, and the Tokyo Astronomical Observatory, the Botanical Garden, a Seismological Laboratory and a Marine Laboratory are attached to the College of Science. The College of Agriculture has four large forests in which the students are trained in the science of dendrology, a pomological garden, a college farm, etc. Of these forests, two are situated in Tokyo-*fu*, the one having an area of 12,000 *bu* and the other an area of over 39,000 *bu* ; the third, with an area of 6,554,000 *bu* is in Chiba-*ken* and the fourth, with an area of over 69,000,000 *bu* is in Hokkaidō.

Besides all these, there are not a few laboratories of various



kinds belonging to the Colleges of Medicine, Engineering, Science, and Agriculture.

In the Imperial University of Kyoto, though this university has a comparatively short history, more than ten years have passed since its establishment, and the equipment of each of its colleges has accordingly been almost perfected. There is a library attached to the University, and a supplementary hospital is attached to each of the Medical Colleges. In the College of Science and Engineering, all kinds of laboratory essentials are provided, so that nothing is lacking to the students of the University to assist them in their researches.

The Tōhoku Imperial University is the most recent of our Universities, containing but one college—the College of Agriculture. But this college has had a long history of forty years as the Agricultural School of Sapporo, and it has consequently become an institution of considerable importance, having belonging to it eight large farms and three extensive forests, where the students may receive practical lessons in agriculture and forestry. The total area of these farms amounts to over 18,757,167 *bu*, and that of the forests to over 156,802,287 *bu*.

Besides these, the university has belonging to it specimen-rooms, a botanical garden, a library, and a museum, etc.

New buildings have been erected and the old ones reconstructed, the authorities having exerted themselves to do all possible for the improvement of the institution.

The College of Science which is to be opened in Sendai from the 43rd year of Meiji (1910), is now under construction, and all the equipments required for it are now in course of preparation.

The work carried on at the Astronomical Observatory belonging to the College of Science of the Tokyo Imperial University consists of astronomical observations and the compilation of almanacs, from which the public derives great benefit.

The object of the Institute for Historical Compilation belonging to the College of Literature of the same University, is to collect, and to compile the materials for Japanese history. Twenty eight volumes of the *Dai-nihon-shiryō* (Japanese Historical Materials) and eighteen volumes of the *Dai-nihon-Komonjō* (Old



Japanese Documents) have already been published, and continuations of these two works will be published from time to time. The copies made of materials collected from all quarters, and the matter compiled, amount to forty thousand volumes in all. In addition, there is an enormous mass of pictures of historical personages and old maps, all copied from originals, and of photographs, taken from old pictures of noted personages, old historical illustrations, old documents, &c.

The results of the scientific investigations made by professors, assistant-professors, or students in the Imperial University are published in the University Journal, the annual report of the Tokyo Astronomical Observatory, or the bulletin of the College of Agriculture.

The number of students who have graduated from the Imperial Universities is already over ten thousand. These persons, in following various professions and occupations, have been putting what they learned into practice, and have thus contributed much towards the progress and development of the Japanese nation.

The following table gives the number of the graduates of the Imperial Universities, as ascertained in March, in the 42nd year of Meiji (1909).

NUMBER OF GRADUATES OF THE IMPERIAL UNIVERSITIES.

University.	Colleges.							Total.
	College of Law.	College of Medicine.	College of Engineering.	College of Literature.	College of Science.	College of Science and Engineering.	College of Agriculture.	
Tokyo Imperial University.	2,638	1,528	2,057	1,168	523	—	748	8,662
Kyoto Imperial University.	564	522	—	—	—	537	—	1,623
Tohoku Imperial University.	—	—	—	—	—	—	26	26
Total.	3,202	2,050	2,057	1,168	523	537	774	10,311



### CHAPTER III.

In addition to special schools, high schools and Imperial universities, there are many kinds of special schools in our country.

Besides the special schools established by government, a special school may be established, in accordance with the Special School Ordinance, by a *fu*, *ken*, or city, or by a private person, with the permission of the Minister of Education.

The object of special schools is to give higher education in relation to the arts and sciences and to provide the students with the required practical knowledge.

Students possessing the following qualifications may be admitted into a special school:

- (a) The graduates of middle schools and high girls' schools.
- (b) Persons whose attainments are allowed to be equal to or higher than those of the graduates of middle schools or high girls' schools.

The length of the course of study is three years or more.

Preparatory, post-graduate and subsidiary courses may be established in a special school.

The length of the school course, the course of study and subjects taught and the standard to be set up, are all determined by the Minister of Education in the case of government special schools; while in public or private schools, the controller or founder determines them with the permission of the Minister of Education.

Persons possessing any of the following qualifications may be teacher of special schools:—

- (1) Holders of a degree.
- (2) Graduates of a college of the Imperial University or graduates of any government school who is permitted to call himself a "*gakushi*."

(c) Persons specially appointed or permitted by the Minister of Education to be teachers.

*The Special School of Medicine*:—The class of special schools to be first described, is the Special School of Medicine.



At present, there are five special schools of medicine established by government in our country, viz., the Special School of Medicine in Chiba, the Special School of Medicine in Sendai, the Special School of Medicine in Okayama, the Special School of Medicine in Kanazawa, and the Special School of Medicine in Nagasaki.

There are special schools of medicine established by *fu* or *ken* in Kyoto, Osaka, and Nagoya.

There are also a private special school of medicine in Tokyo and one in Kumamoto. The government is making arrangements for a new special school of medicine in Niigata which it is intended to open next year. The courses of study established in the government special schools of medicine are those of medicine and pharmacy, but the Special School of Medicine in Okayama, is without the course of pharmacy. In all public and private schools, there is no course of pharmacy, and the regulations for the course of medicine are generally the same as those for the corresponding course in the government special schools of medicine.

The length of the school course is four years for the course of medicine and three years for that of pharmacy. The following table gives the subjects of study and their standard in each course of study :

COURSE OF MEDICINE.

Subjects.	Classes.		1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th Year
	Standard.					
Ethics.			1	—	—	—
German.			8	4	4	4
Chemistry.	Theory and Experiment.		6	—	—	—
	Theory.		8	—	—	—



Subjects.	Standard.	Classes.	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th Year
Anatomy.	Practice		—	4	—	—
	Topographical Anatomy.		—	—	1	—
	Theory of Histology.		2	—	—	—
	Practice of Histology and Practice with Microscope.		—	3	—	—
	Embryology.		—	1	—	—
Physiology.	Physiology, (Theoretical and Experimental)		3	5	—	—
	Medical Chemistry, (Theoretical and Experimental)					
Hygiene.	Hygiene, (Theoretical and Experimental)		—	—	—	2
Bacteriology.	Bacteriology, (Theoretical and Experimental)		—	2	2	—
Pathology.	General Pathology.		—	6	—	—
	Pathological Anatomy.					
	Practice of Pathological Anatomy.		—	—	Occasion-ally.	Occasion-ally.
	Practice of Pathological Histology.		—	—	2	—
Pharmacology.	Theory and Practice.		—	3	—	—
	Method of Prescription.		—	—	0.5	—
Medicine.	Theory.		—	—	3	3
	Clinique.		—	—	3+	3+
	Polyclinique.		—	—	Irregular.	Irregular.



Subjects.	Standard.	Classes.	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th Year
	Pædiatrics.		—	—	1	—
	Diagnosis.		—	2	—	—
Surgery.	General Remarks.		—	3	—	—
	Special Surgery.		—	—	3	3
	Clinique.		—	—	4+	4+
	Policlinique.		—	—	Irregular	Irregular
	Practice in Bandaging.		—	1	—	—
	Practice in Operating.		—	—	1	—
Dermatology.	Theory and Clinique.		—	—	1+	—
Syphilis.	Policlinique.		—	—	Irregular	—
Otolaryngology.	Theory and Clinique.		—	—	1+	—
	Policlinique.		—	—	Irregular	—
Ophthalmology.	Theory and Practice of Ophthalmoscope.		—	—	4	—
	Clinique.		—	—	1+	1+
	Policlinique.		—	—	Irregular	Irregular
Obstetrics & Gynæcology.	Theory of Obstetrics.		—	—	—	3
	Theory of Gynæcology.		—	—	2	—
	Clinique of Gynæcology and Obstetrics, and practice on the Mannikin Phantom.		—	—	—	2+



Subjects.	Standard. \ Classes.	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th Year
	Policlinique.	—	—	—	Irregular
Sychiatry	Theory and Clinique.	—	—	—	2
Forensic medicin.	Theory.	—	—	—	2
Gymnastics.		3	—	—	—
Total.		31	34	33.5+	29+

COURSE OF PHARMACY.

Subjects.	Standard. \ Classes.	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year
Ethics.		1	—	—
German.		8	4	6
Mineralogy.		1	—	—
Chemistry.	Theoretical & Experimental.	7.5	—	—
Medical Botany.	Theoretical.	3	—	—
	Practical and practice with microscope.	3	—	—
Pharmacography.	Theoretical.	—	3	—
	Practice.	—	2	—
Analysis.	Theory.	2	2	—
	Practice.	—	9	—



Subjects.	Classes.	1st Years	2nd Year	3rd Year
	Standard.			
Sanitary Chemistry.	Theory.	—	2	—
	Practice.	—	—	6
	Bacteriology, Theory and Practice.	—	—	2
Forensic Chemistry.	Theory.	—	—	1
	Practice.	—	—	3
Pharmacopœia.	The Japanese pharma- copœia. Outline of the foreign pharmacopœia.	—	—	1.5
Examination of medicines.		—	—	5
Dispensing.	Theory.	—	1	—
	Practice.	—	—	2
Pharmaceutical Chemistry.	Theory.	—	5	—
	Practice.	—	—	11
Outline of mechanics.		—	3	—
Pharmaceutical Technology.	Theory.	—	1.5	1.5
	Practice.	—	Irregular.	Irregular.
Gymnastics.		3	—	—
Total.		28.5	32.5	39



The regulations relating to the school year, terms, and vacation are almost the same as in the high school; but the school year is divided into two terms, namely, the first and the second term. The first term begins on the 11th of September and ends with the 10th of February following, and the second term extends from the 11th of February to the 10th of September. Equipment:—There is a hospital attached to each government special school of medicine, and the school is accordingly furnished with sufficient equipment for providing a medical education.

The Students:—As already stated, persons desiring admission to this institution must be graduates of a middle school or must be possessed of attainments equal to or greater than those of the middle school graduates. The number of applicants has always been so great that there have been four or five times as many as were wanted by each special school of medicine. Consequently, each school has been obliged to hold a competitive examination for admission, as in the case of the high schools, in order to select the required number.

Promotion and Graduation:—Graduation is determined by a consideration of the results of the two term examinations, held at the end of the first and the second terms respectively.

Privileges:—The students of a government special school of medicine enjoy the privilege of delaying their terms of army conscription, and graduates of the same may become one year volunteers without examination.

Graduates of the course of medicine may become medical practitioners, and graduates of the course of pharmacy may become pharmacutists without examination. Graduates of the course of pharmacy may also obtain a license to teach chemistry in normal, middle, and high girls' schools.

If the special school of medicine be compared with the college of medicine of the Imperial University, it will be seen that no great difference exists between the length of the courses and the subjects of study in these two institutions; but in point of fundamental knowledge, the former is inferior to the latter. As has been explained, the students of the college have received three years' preparatory education in the high school after graduating



from a middle school, whereas the students of the special school of medicine were admitted directly after graduating from a middle school. Consequently, the students of a special school of medicine are wanting in that preparatory knowledge of foreign language, physics, chemistry, etc., which is essential in the study of medicine. Consequently, the question of raising the standard of the special school of medicine has been brought forward and now under consideration.

The Medical system:—A few words must here be said about the medical system. According to our medical law, those who possess any of the following qualification may become medical practitioners:—

1. Graduates of the course of medicine in the college of medicine of the Imperial University; graduates of the government or public special schools of medicine; and graduates of any special school of medicine privileged by the Minister of Education.

2. Persons who have passed the prescribed examination for medical practitioners.

3. Graduates of foreign medical schools which give Japanese doctors a licence to practice medicine without examination, or those who possess such licenses.

The standard of the examinations hitherto held seems to have been rather too low, considering the progress made by society and the development of science. Consequently, the standard of examination will be raised after the 47th year of Meiji (1914) and only those qualified as below may apply for it:

1. Graduates of the special school of medicine who had graduated from a middle school, or who are possessed of attainments at least equivalent thereto.

2. Persons who have gone through a course of at least four years' duration in some foreign medical school.

The following table shows the number of students in each special school of medicine as ascertained in March in the 42nd year of Meiji (1909).



Schools.	Course of Study.		Total.
	Medicine.	Pharmacy.	
Special School of Medicine, Chiba.	473	77	550
" " " " Sendai. ....	477 × 12	47 × 2	520 × 14
" " " " Okayama. ....	419 × 4	—	419 × 4
" " " " Kanazawa. ....	432 × 3	75 × 1	557 × 4
" " " " Nagasaki. ....	474 × 7	73 × 2	547 × 9
" " " " Osaka. ....	450 × 8	—	450 × 8
" " " " Kyoto. ....	509 × 5	—	509 × 5
" " " " Aichi. ....	462	—	462
" " " " Kumamoto. ....	421 × 1	—	421 × 1

\*Denotes Chinese and Koreans.

*The Tokyo School of Foreign Languages*:—Like many of the special schools of medicine, The Tokyo School of Foreign Languages is a government institution. It was formerly attached to the Tokyo Higher Commercial School, but, having gradually developed, it was made into an independent institution in the 32nd year of Meiji (1899).

Its object is to give instruction in the modern languages of the East and the West and to train practical linguists.

The courses of study provided in the school are as follows:—English, German, French, Italian, Spanish, Russian, Chinese, Korean, Tamil, Hindustani, Mongolian, and Malay.

The length of the courses of English, German, French, Russian, Italian, Chinese, and Korean is three years.

The subjects of study and the number of teaching hours are shown in the following table:—



Subject of Study.	Course of Study	English, German, French, Russian, Italian, or Spanish.			Chinese or Korean.		
		1st year.	2nd year.	3rd year.	1st year.	2nd year.	3rd year.
Ethics. ....		1	1	1	1	1	1
Language under study. ....		22	22	22	18	18	18
Japanese and Chinese. ....		2	2	2	2	2	2
English. ....		—	—	—	4	4	4
Philology. ....		×1	×2	—	×1	×2	—
Elementary Law. ....		×2	—	—	×2	—	—
Political Economy. ....		—	×3	—	—	×3	—
International Law. ....		—	—	×3	—	—	×3
Pedagogics. ....		—	—	×3	—	—	×3
Gymnastics. ....		3	3	3	3	3	3
Total.		29 30	30 31	31	29 30	30 31	31

Of subjects in the same year marked ×, one is chosen by the student.

In the 2nd and 3rd year classes, during the hours allotted to the language under study, teaching is given in the general history, geography and literature of the country, the language of which forms the main subject of study.

For graduates who wish to continue the study of the language they have taken up, there is a post-graduate course the length of which does not exceed two years.

Those who wish to study one or more subjects in the regular course are also admitted as elective students.

For those who wish to make special but less careful study of English, German, French, Italian, Russian, Spanish, Chinese, or Korean, a special course of two years is provided.

For Malay, Hindustani, Tamil, and Mongolian, a shorter course of one year's duration has been provided, under the name





of Tōyō-go Sokusei-kwa (Short Course of Oriental Languages) chiefly for the benefit of persons who are going to engage in business. Candidates for admission to the three years' course, must be, as in other government schools, the graduates of middle schools; but persons wishing to enter the two years' or the one year's course, may be admitted at the director's discretion.

As the number of applicants for admission is always in excess of the number wanted by the school, a competitive examination is held every year, on the results of which the required number are admitted.

When any government office, or private company, or any other school furnishes good reason for requesting that a student or students may be admitted to the regular or the elective course, the school complies with this request and admits such student or students.

Students of the regular course who display exceptional scholarship and are of good moral character, are made honour students, and they enjoy the privilege of exemption from tuition fees.

Regulations for loan-scholarships have been framed for in this institution. The loan fund consists of government money, of money lent by government offices, and of donations.

A student of the regular course who takes up a course of study for which especial assistance may be required, or one who is of exceptional attainments and good moral character, but who is unable to defray his school expenses out of his own means, may be given a loan scholarship of a value not exceeding one hundred *yen* a year. A loan scholarship which is paid out of government money can only be given to the former class of students.

The following table shows the number of students in each course of study as ascertained in March in the 42nd year of Meiji (1909).



Courses.	Kinds of Students.			
	Regular.	Elective.	Special.	Shorter.
English. ....	89	1 × 1	62	—
French. ....	65	1 × 1	21	—
German. ....	68	3 × 1	48 × 1	—
Russian. ....	59	2 × 1	12	—
Italian. ....	15	—	—	—
Spanish. ....	46	—	13	—
Chinese. ....	78	1	39	—
Korean. ....	31	1	6	—
Malay. ....	—	—	—	22
Hindustani. ....	—	—	—	16
Tamil. ....	—	—	—	5
Mongolian. ....	—	—	—	12
Total.	451	9 × 4	190 × 1	55

× Denotes Chinese and Koreans.

The Tokyo Fine Art School, the Tokyo Academy of Music and the commercial, technical and agricultural schools established by government, where technical education of higher grade is given, should all be described under the head of higher education; but, for the sake of convenience, they will be respectively described under the heads of Art Education and Technical Education.

*Private Special Schools:*—The special schools described above are chiefly government institutions, but besides these, there are thirty eight private special schools, and if to these be added the two special schools of medicine already described, it will be seen that there are forty private special schools in all.



Of these, two are special schools of medicine, nine of law, nine of law and literature, three of literature, one of literature and religion, and sixteen of religion.

According to inquiries made in March in the forty first year of Meiji (1908), the number of teachers engaged in these schools was at that time 1,486 and the number of students 21,997.

The increased number of these private schools is the result of the development of education in our country. The number of young men desirous of receiving higher education has been increasing year by year; but, as the national revenue has been limited, the government has not been able to satisfy the desire of all. To make up for this deficiency, these private special schools have been founded.

Among these private institutions, the most prominent are the Daigaku-bu of the Keiō-gijuku (the Keiō-gijuku Special School), the Waseda-daigaku (the Waseda Special School) and the Dōshisha Special School.

These three schools have each a long history, and the strongly-marked characters of their respective founders having produced salutary effects on these institutions, each of these schools has come to possess characteristics of its own, and all have been the pioneers of Western civilization in Japan. They have displayed remarkable developments and have contributed not a little towards making Japan what it is.

They enjoy the same privileges as the government special schools. The Daigaku-bu of the Keiō-gijuku, as its name indicates, was established before the Restoration of Meiji, in the period of Keiō. It therefore has a history of over forty years, and is the oldest of the special schools, whether private or public.

In this school, the subjects taught are those relating to the courses of political economy, law, politics and literature; its graduates number nearly 5,000, and they have occupied important positions in both the business and the political world—especially the former. This characteristic of the Keiō-gijuku is chiefly owing to the character of its founder.

Yūkichi Fukuzawa, the founder of this institution, was one of





the greatest men whom modern Japan has produced, and he was the man who introduced us to Western civilization, especially in its material forms, and his name is one of the best known among us.

The Waseda Daigaku was founded by the famous politician, Count Okuma, and his friends, in the 15th year of Meiji (1882). In this institution, the subjects taught are those relating to the courses of politics and political economy, law, literature, commerce, science and engineering; the graduates are about equal in number to those of the Keiō-gijuku. It has furnished all departments of Japanese society with useful members, and at present, it has three or four thousand students, and is in a very flourishing condition—perhaps more flourishing than the Keiō-gijuku Special School.

The Dōshisha Special School was founded by the late Jō Nijima in the 8th year of Meiji (1875), and, having developed considerably since then, it is now as well known as either the Keiō-gijuku Special School or the Waseda Daigaku.

The subjects taught in this school are those relating to the courses of political economy and literature, and it has, since its foundation, trained out a large number of graduates. Many of these graduates have become famous in the political or the literary world and many others, possessed of five characters, have become exemplary Christian believers, results largely owing to the character of the founder.

The late Jō Nijima, who received a Christian education in America, was rich in the spirit of self-sacrifice, and was a man of high character; he displayed zeal and kindness of no ordinary measure in the teaching of his pupils.

Besides what have been already described, there are many private special schools, the most numerous of which are schools having courses of study relating to law, politics, and political economy such as, the Meiji-daigaku, the Hōsei-daigaku, the Chuō-daigaku, the Nihon-daigaku, the Sēnshū-gakko, etc. Of those in which courses of study relating to literature and education are provided, the Kokugakuin-daigaku and the Tōyō-daigaku are the most noted.





Though there are many special schools in which the courses of study relate to religion, they are all established by different sects of Christianity or Buddhism.

There are seven Christian schools of which the most noted are the Dōshisha Shingakko (the Dōshisha Theological School) and the Theological Department of the Aoyama-gakuin.

There are eight Buddhist schools of which the best-known are the Bukkyō-daigaku, established by the West Honganji, and the Shinshū-daigaku established by the East Honganji.

Of the special schools in which the courses of study relate to medicine, the most perfect in their organization are the three public schools and the two private ones already described under the heading of special schools of medicine.

Though special schools are numerous, both as regards kind and number, they are nearly all established for male-students, these being but one or two for female students, but the Nippon Joshi-daigakko, in which the courses of study relate to literature and domestic affairs, has for its object the provision of higher education for the fair sex. It is perfect in its equipment, and displays some very praise-worthy attributes.

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## PART VI.

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# TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

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### Section I. Introduction.

The origin of technical education in Japan may be traced back to the Kō-gaku-ryō (Engineering School), established in the 4th year of Meiji (1871), the Nōji-shūgakujo (Agricultural School), founded in the 7th year of Meiji (1874), and the Shō-hō-kōshūjo (Commercial School) established in the 8th year of Meiji (1875); but these institutions, after undergoing various changes, were merged in the University, thus becoming educational agencies for imparting instruction of the highest grade in engineering, agriculture and commerce.

About the 16th or 17th year of Meiji (1883 or 1884), the government, seeing the necessity of preparing the way for the creation of technical schools of every kind and standard, framed regulations for agricultural and commercial schools, thus endeavouring to accelerate the establishment of schools of this kind. But the importance of technical education had not yet been recognized by the people, and even of the four technical schools already established, some were discontinued.

The government, however, seeing the importance of technical education, gave encouragement to the establishment of technical schools, by issuing in the 27th year of Meiji (1894) an ordinance regarding the financial aid to be given to technical education out of the national treasury. Furthermore, the government framed



regulations for an apprentices' school, for the training of workmen, and the supplementary technical school regulations were issued respecting elementary technical education.

But after the Japan-China War in the 27th and 28th years of Meiji (1894-1895), the importance of establishing technical schools was generally recognized as an accompaniment of the development and progress of all kinds of industry, and every year schools of this kind were established in the various *fu* and *ken*. The regulations which had been issued were now found to be insufficient to meet this state of things, and to make thoroughly clear the object of technical schools, the Education Department issued the Technical School Ordinance in the 32nd year of Meiji (1899). By this ordinance, technical schools were divided into (a) technical schools, (b) agricultural schools, (c) commercial schools, (d) nautical schools, and (e) supplementary technical schools. The school of sericulture, the school of forestry, the school of veterinary medicine and the marine products school, with others, are regarded as agricultural schools, and the apprentices' school as a kind of technical school. By the Technical School Ordinance, regulations were framed for technical schools, agricultural schools, commercial schools, nautical schools and marine products schools, and rules were laid down for the establishment and discontinuance of technical schools, thus it making clear what steps should be taken by those desiring to establish or to discontinue such schools.

Before the war with China, in 1894-95, there were but few special technical schools in Japan; but since then there has been a great demand for the services of intelligent young men possessed of higher technical education, owing to the sudden increase of all kinds of undertakings. The government has, accordingly, paid great attention to the question of an increase in the number of schools of this kind, and in the 36th year of Meiji (1903) issued a Special School Ordinance placing all schools of this kind under control of the regulations contained in this ordinance.

Since the war with Russia, in 1904-5, there have been such developments in our industrial world that the demand for the service of intelligent young men has become even still more



pressing, and the number of special technical schools has increased accordingly.

The number of special technical schools and technical schools now in existence is as follows:—

#### SPECIAL TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.

Technical schools—9 (of which 2 are not yet opened).	
Agricultural schools—3 (of which one is 'not yet opened).	
Commercial schools—6 (of which one is not yet opened).	
Total .....	18

#### TECHNICAL SCHOOLS OF SECONDARY GRADE.

Technical schools .....	32
Agricultural schools .....	78
Commercial schools .....	61
Nautical schools.....	11
Marine products schools .....	9
Total .....	190

#### TECHNICAL SCHOOLS OF PRIMARY GRADE.

Apprentices' schools .....	76
Agricultural schools .....	92
Commercial schools .....	17
Marine products schools .....	6
Those in which two or more than two distinct courses—as for instance: commerce and agriculture, or industry and commerce—are established.	10
Total .....	201

#### SUPPLEMENTARY TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.

Technical schools.....	227
Agricultural schools .....	4,407
Commercial schools .....	190
Marine products schools .....	94
Total .....	4,908



## Section II. Higher Technical Education.

### OBJECT AND COURSES OF STUDY.

The object of the higher technical schools is to give those intending to engage in agricultural, technical, and commercial pursuits, a more advanced knowledge of arts and sciences. The subjects taught in these schools are as follows:—

In the special agricultural schools:—agriculture, forestry, and veterinary medicine; in the special technical schools:—mechanics, dyeing, weaving, ceramics, applied chemistry, electricity, marine engineering, naval architecture, architecture, civil engineering, mining and metallurgy, designing, and brewing; in the special commercial schools:—practice in all matters connected with commercial undertakings.

The special technical schools, classified according to the subjects taught, are as follows:—

Dyeing .....	3
Weaving .....	3
Ceramics .....	2
Applied chemistry .....	2
Mechanics .....	5
Electrical mechanics .....	1
Electrical chemistry .....	1
Electricity .....	2
Marine engineering .....	1
Naval architecture .....	1
Architecture .....	3
Civil engineering .....	2
Mining and metallurgy .....	3
Designing .....	2
Brewing .....	1
Commerce .....	5
Agriculture .....	2
Forestry .....	2
Veterinary medicine .....	1

As regards schools of marine products, there is not yet one





independent special marine products school; but a course of marine products of the higher standard is provided in the College of Agriculture of the Tōhoku Imperial University. In addition, there is the Sui-san-Kōshūjo (marine industries institute) belonging to the Department of Commerce and Agriculture.

#### LENGTH OF SCHOOL COURSE.

The length of the course of study in special technical schools is three years; but for those graduates who wish to continue the study of the subjects they have taken up, a post-graduate course of one or two years' duration is provided. In some of the commercial schools, moreover, there is a preparatory course of one or two years' duration. Special technical schools and special commercial schools, have an elective course for those who are engaged in business, or who are graduates of technical schools of secondary grade and who wish to study one or more subjects.

#### QUALIFICATIONS FOR ADMISSION.

Candidates for admission to special technical schools must be graduates of middle schools or persons possessing attainments at least equal to those of middle school graduates. Such students should of course be admitted without any examination; but the number of the applicants has been increasing, year after year, and in the case of some schools it has reached seven or eight times the number required. Consequently each school holds a competitive examination in certain subjects, the standard of middle school graduates being adopted, and only the best students are admitted. In every school, importance is attached to the possession of practical experience as a qualification of the students who apply for admission to the elective course.

#### TEACHERS.

The teaching staff of the special technical schools is composed of persons possessing a degree, of graduates of one of the colleges of the Imperial University, of graduates of government schools entitled to call themselves "gakushi", of persons who have been approved by the Minister of Education as teachers, and of



foreigners. Many of these teachers are persons who have been sent to Europe or America by the government to further prosecute subjects of study with which they were already familiar. At present, there are four hundred and fifty eight teachers in special technical schools of all kinds, of whom thirty eight are engaged in agricultural schools, two hundred and fifty-two in technical schools, and one hundred sixty eight in commercial schools. Besides these, in agricultural and commercial schools there are assistants, workmen and practical teachers, who direct the students in their practical work.

### STUDENTS.

The total number of the students in special technical schools, including those belonging to the regular and elective courses, and foreigners, is five thousand three hundred and thirty-seven, of whom two hundred and seventy-two are foreigners. Among the foreigners, Chinese and Koreans are by far the most numerous. Classified by the kinds of schools, the students are as follows:—

Special agricultural schools.....	256 (of whom 11 are foreigners).
Special technical schools.....	2,577 (of whom 204 are foreigners).
Special commercial schools.....	2,504 (of whom 57 are foreigners).

The number of students admitted into special technical schools in the 41st year of Meiji (1908) was 1,942, of whom 102 were foreigners.

Classified by the kinds of schools, they are as follows:—

Special agricultural schools.....	87 (of whom 2 were foreigners).
Special technical schools.....	998 (of whom 93 were foreigners).
Special commercial schools.....	857 (of whom 7 were foreigners).

### GRADUATES.

Of 694 students who graduated from special technical schools





THE COURSE OF INSTRUCTION AND THE NUMBER OF SCHOOL HOURS  
OF THE  
HIGHER ELEMENTARY SCHOOL FOR TWO YEARS OF STUDY.

School Year. Subjects of Studies.	No. of Hours per Week.	First School Year.	No. of Hours per Week.	Second School Year.
Morals.	2	Principles of Morality.	2	Principles of Morality.
Japanese Language.	8	Common and useful characters of daily recurrence and common sentences : Reading, writing and composition.	8	Common and useful characters of daily recurrence and common sentences : Reading, writing and composition.
Arithmetic.	4	Fractions. Percentages. Proportion. (Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication and Division with abacus.	4	Proportion. Book-Keeping (ordinary) (Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication and Division with abacus.
Japanese History.	3	Outlines of Japanese History.	3	Continued from the preceding year.
Geography.		Outlines of World's Geography.		Supplementary Lessons on Geography.
Science.	2	Vegetables, Animals, and Minerals. Natural phenomena. Common physical and chemical phenomena. Elements and compounds. Construction and working of simple machinery. Rudiments of human physiology and hygiene.	2	Natural phenomena. Common physical and chemical phenomena. Elements and compounds. Construction and function of simple machinery. Rudiments of human physiology and hygiene.
Drawing.	2 for boys. 1 for girls.	Figures of various kinds.	2 for boys. 1 for girls.	Figures of various kinds. (Easy geometrical drawing)
Singing.	2	Solo Singing. (Easy singing with staff)	2	Solo Singing. (Easy singing with staff)
Gymnastics.	2	Common gymnastic exercises and Sports. Military drill for boys.	2	Common gymnastic exercises and Sports. Military drill for boys.
Sewing.	4	Sewing, Mending and Cutting out of common garments.	4	Sewing, Mending and Cutting out of common garments.
Manual Work.	2 for boys. 1 for girls.	Easy Workmanship.	2 for boys. 1 for girls.	Easy Workmanship.
Agriculture.	2	Agriculture. Principles of Agriculture. Aquatic Products. Elements of Aquatic Products.	2	Agriculture. Principles of Agriculture. Aquatic Products. Elements of Aquatic Products.
Commerce.	2	Principles of Commerce.	2	Principles of Commerce.
English Language.		Reading, writing, spelling and conversation.		Reading, writing, spelling and conversation.
Total.	28 } for boys. 30 } 30 } for girls. 32 }		28 } for boys. 30 } 30 } for girls. 32 }	



in the 40th year of Meiji (1907), the following table shows how many have got positions, with the number of those whose present condition is not exactly known :—

Engaged in business.....	335
Engaged in teaching.....	29
Engaged as government officials.....	120
In the army.....	20
Present condition uncertain .....	189

#### EQUIPMENT.

The special technical schools are provided with work-shops, attached to each course, and with implements and machines of the newest kind, while every effort is made, in addition to giving instruction in theoretical science, to the pupils by means of practical lessons, to enable them to keep pace with the progress and development of society generally. In the special agricultural schools, large farms and forests are attached to the institution, theory and practice being thus taught side by side.

In the special commercial schools, the nature of the courses of study does not call for the establishment of work-shops or the like; but there is a sufficient provision of those commercial commodities which are needed for giving practical lessons to the students.

### Section III. Technical Schools of Secondary Grade.

#### OBJECT AND COURSES OF STUDY.

The object of the technical schools belonging to the system of secondary education, is to give those intending to engage in business, the instruction they need concerning the industrial arts, agriculture and commerce.

The different kinds of this class of school are :—Technical schools, agricultural schools, schools of sericulture, schools of forestry, schools of veterinary medicine, marine products schools, commercial schools and nautical schools.

The subjects taught in the regular course are morals, Japanese, mathematics, physics, chemistry, drawing, and gymnastics, in addition to the subjects belonging to the respective technical



courses of study and practice. Beside these, other subjects may be added according to the circumstances of the locality. The subjects taught in the preparatory course are morals, Japanese, arithmetic, geography, history, science, drawing, and gymnastics. English may be added.

Distinguished according to their different courses of study, these schools are as follows:—

#### TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.

Civil engineering.....	1
Wood work.....	13
Metal work.....	4
Mechanics .....	17
Mining.....	2
Naval architecture.....	1
Dyeing and weaving.....	19
Lacquer work.....	5
Ceramics .....	5
Applied chemistry.....	3
Industrial fine art.....	1
Painting and designing.....	11
Embroidery, artificial flower making, and sewing	5

#### AGRICULTURAL SCHOOLS.

Agriculture .....	50
Veterinary medicine.....	8
Sericulture .....	14
Forestry .....	6
Agriculture and forestry.....	14
Zootechny .....	3

#### MARINE PRODUCTS SCHOOLS.

Marine products.....	8
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#### COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS.

Commerce .....	14
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## NAUTICAL SCHOOLS.

Navigation .....	9
Engineering .....	7

## LENGTH OF SCHOOL COURSE.

The length of the school course is three years; but it may be lengthened according to local circumstances. In the technical and agricultural schools, it may be lengthened by one year; in the commercial schools by two years; and in the marine products schools it may be lengthened from two to five years. In the nautical schools, the students of the navigation course, after they have completed their three years' study in the class-rooms, must spend three years on board a vessel, one year of which must be spend on a sailing vessel and those of the engineering course, after finishing their three years of study, must spend three years and six months on board a vessel, while they must be engaged as workmen for a year in some works where machines are manufactured. In this way they become qualified to apply for examination as marine engineers.

In addition, any school may establish a preparatory course of not more than two years' duration. For those who are engaged in business and who wish to study one or more subjects, a special course may be established. Those graduates of the regular course who wish to continue the study of one or more subjects which they have already taken up, may remain in the school as students of the post-graduate course.

## QUALIFICATIONS FOR ADMISSION.

Applicants for admission to the regular course must be graduates of a higher elementary school with a two years' course, and must be not less than fourteen years of age, or they must be possessed of attainments at least equal to those of higher elementary school students.

Applicants for the preparatory course must be graduates of an ordinary elementary school, or must have attainments at least equal to those of the graduates of ordinary elementary



schools. As regards applicants for the special course, no limitation is placed in regard to age, and any persons who are engaged in business and who have the same attainments as the graduates of an ordinary elementary school, may be admitted. In all cases, if the number of the applicants exceeds the number required by any school, a competitive examination is held.

#### TEACHERS.

Persons who wish to become teachers in technical schools of secondary grade must belong to one of the following classes :

- (1) Persons who possess a degree.
- (2) Graduates of a college of the Imperial University or graduates of any government school who are entitled to call themselves "gakushi."
- (3) Persons appointed by the Minister of Education.
- (4) Persons who have been approved as teachers by the Minister of Education.

When the school is unable, owing to local circumstances or the low state of its finances, to organize a teaching staff composed of those possessing some of the above-mentioned qualifications, the Minister of Education may permit, if he thinks it necessary, the employment by the school of teachers without license, but the number of these must not exceed one-third of the total number of teachers.

There are at present two thousand three hundred and seventy-seven teachers engaged in these schools. Classified by the kind of school, there are 507 in technical schools, 851 in agricultural schools, 873 in commercial schools, 86 in nautical schools, and 60 in marine products schools.

#### STUDENTS.

There are at present 34,675 students in these schools. Classified by the kind of school, there are 4,957 in technical schools, 10,509 in agricultural schools, 16,803 in commercial schools, 1,826 in nautical schools, and 580 in marine products schools.

The number admitted in the 41st year of Meiji (1908), was



14,127; classified by the kind of school, the students are as follows:—

	Number admitted.
Technical schools.....	2,158
Agricultural schools.....	4,684
Commercial schools.....	6,539
Nautical schools.....	457
Marine products schools.....	289

#### GRADUATES.

The present position of those who graduated at these schools in the 40th year of Meiji (1907) is shown in the following table:—

	Technical schools	Agricultural schools	Commercial schools	Nautical schools	Marine products schools
Engaged in business ..	411	987	1,340	70	70
Entered other schools. ..	65	76	205	—	10
Engaged in teaching ..	30	254	20	—	12
Government officials. ..	133	412	56	—	4
In the army or navy ..	5	55	55	—	2
Died.. .. .	1	4	8	—	—
Condition unknown ..	109	271	213	4	28
Total .. .. .	754	2,059	1,897	74	126

#### EQUIPMENT.

Technical schools of secondary grade, like the special technical schools, have attached to them workshops, or school farms and forests adapted to the standard of the school, where the students receive practical lessons. Implements, machines, and other requisites are provided, practice and theory being thus busily taught at the same time.



## Section IV. Technical Education of a Special Kind (Primary Grade).

The title "Technical Education of a Special Kind" is not officially recognized; but a technical school of primary grade may be established in some way appropriate to local conditions. The qualifications for admission and the standard of the courses of study are very different in different schools, and all these schools are accordingly grouped, for purposes of description, under the head of Technical Education of a Special Kind, apprentices' schools being also brought, for the sake of convenience, under this head.

### OBJECT AND COURSES OF STUDY.

The object of the apprentices' schools is to instruct those intending to become workmen, in arts and sciences so as to fit them for the adequate performance of their work, while the object of the technical school of a special kind is to impart to those intending to engage in business the knowledge of arts and sciences needed for their various callings.

The subjects taught in the apprentices' schools are morals, drawing, mathematics, general science, Japanese, and gymnastics, in addition to those subjects which are directly connected with their occupations, and practical work; but other subjects required by local circumstances, may be added, while, on the other hand, any subject save morals and those bearing directly on occupations, may be dropped or made optional.

These schools of a special kind, classified according to the subjects bearing directly on occupations, are as follows:—

Wood work.....	18
Metal work.....	5
Mechanics .....	1
Dyeing and weaving.....	35
Lacquer work.....	14
Ceramics .....	2
Paper making.....	1
Bamboo work and printing.....	4





Embroidery work, artificial flower making, and  
sewing ..... 39

The subjects of study in the technical school of primary grade are morals, Japanese, mathematics, general science, and gymnastics, in addition to those subjects, which have a direct relation to occupations, and practical work. Other subjects, made desirable by local circumstances, may be added, and, on the other hand, any subjects except morals and those having a direct relation to occupations, may be dropped.

These schools, classified according to subjects having a direct relation to occupations, are as follows:—

Agriculture .....	75
Sericulture .....	10
Agriculture and forestry.....	16
Marine products.....	8
Commerce .....	19
Industrial arts .....	4

#### LENGTH OF SCHOOL COURSE.

The length of the course in the apprentices' schools varies from six months to four years, and the length of the course in a technical school of a special kind is not more than three years. This irregularity in the length of school course is caused by local conditions, and the nature of this class of institution, and in this respect it differs greatly from other schools of secondary grade.

#### QUALIFICATIONS FOR ADMISSION.

The qualifications for admission may be determined by each school as it thinks fit. The lowest qualification is that the applicants shall be graduates of an ordinary elementary school, and shall be not less than twelve years of age.

Some apprentices' schools and some technical schools of primary grade require as a qualification that applicants shall be up to the standard of the ordinary elementary school graduates; others take as a standard the higher elementary school graduates; and in some cases the standard may be raised to that of the middle school graduates. It would therefore be possible for a technical



school of primary grade to have courses of special study nearly approaching those of a special technical school belonging to the system of higher education, with only this difference that in technical schools of primary grade the students take up only one or two special subjects.

### TEACHERS.

A teacher of an apprentices' school or of a technical school of primary grade must have one of the qualifications given under the heading of "teachers" of a technical school of secondary grade.

What has to be particularly noted here is, that in the case of a technical school of the secondary or primary grade the number of unlicensed teachers must not be more than one-third of the total number of teachers; whereas in the case of the apprentices' school, it may rise to one-half of the total number.

At present there are 1,158 teachers, of whom 505 are engaged in apprentices' schools, and the remaining 650 in technical schools of primary grade.

### STUDENTS.

The total number of the students in these schools is 15,975, of whom 5,448 belong to apprentices' schools, and the remaining 10,527 to technical schools of primary grade. The number admitted to these schools in the 41st year of Meiji (1908) was 10,250; classified by the kinds of school, they are as follows:

Apprentices' schools.....	3,532.
Technical schools of a special kind.....	6,717.

### GRADUATES.

The present position of those who graduated from these schools in the 40th year of Meiji (1907) is as follows:—



	Apprentices' Schools	Technical Schools of a Special Kind.
Engaged in business ..	266	1,018
Entered other schools ..	65	311
Engaged in teaching ..	57	13
Government officials ..	15	8
Died .. .. .	1	—
Others .. .. .	109	166
Total .. .. .	513	1,516

#### EQUIPMENT.

The equipment of these schools is the same as that of the technical schools of secondary grade, but of a more restricted kind.

### Section V. Technical Supplementary Education.

#### OBJECT AND LENGTH OF COURSE.

The object of supplementary technical schools is to furnish persons engaged, or about to be engaged, in various branches of business, with the knowledge and skill essential to their respective occupations, and at the same time to give supplementary lessons in general education; in other words, the technical subjects are the soul and centre of the instruction, while supplementary lessons in general education are given at the same time. To accomplish these two aims at one and the same time is the chief object of the supplementary technical schools, and they differ in this point from other schools in which either a general education or a technical one is given.

The length of the courses and school periods are not fixed by any regulations, and these may thus be determined by local conditions or by consideration of the time most convenient for the taking of lessons by the students. There are consequently



some schools which are open in the day-time, before or after the elementary school hours. Others are open in the evening, and there are others still which are only open during the winter months. Furthermore, there are some in which the lessons are given on Sundays and other recognized holidays.

The length of the school course, again, is different in the different-courses or even for different subjects in the same course, but in some schools the length of the school year is fixed. In a word, in the organization of these schools, the variations are numerous.

#### QUALIFICATIONS FOR ADMISSION.

Graduates of an ordinary elementary school, or those who have finished the course of compulsory education, if not less than twelve years of age, or those whose attainments are equal to or higher than those of the ordinary elementary school graduates, may be admitted to this kind of school. Further even persons whose attainments are not equal to the above-mentioned requirements and who are under no obligation to enter an ordinary elementary school, may also be admitted. Consequently there are great differences in the age and attainments of the students, which is quite a characteristic of this kind of school.

#### COURSES OF STUDY.

The subjects taught in supplementary technical schools are morals, Japanese, and arithmetic, in addition to the subjects relating to agricultural, technical or commercial occupations. Japanese and arithmetic may be dropped if circumstances make this advisable, and other subjects may be added if required by local conditions. Furthermore, a subject relating to agricultural, technical or commercial occupations may be treated as a whole or may be divided up, in order to allow the students the convenience of attending such lectures as they choose.

#### TEACHERS.

As most supplementary technical schools are attached to elementary schools, most of their teachers are the teachers of



elementary schools. As there are among them teachers who are deficient in technical knowledge each *fu* or *ken* provides, from time to time, courses of lectures for their benefit with the object of making up this deficiency. Moreover, the Department of Education every year organizes summer institutes for giving instruction to the teachers of supplementary agricultural, technical and commercial schools. Besides, any who happen to be teachers of technical schools of secondary grade may of course also become the teachers of supplementary technical schools. Persons considered fit, and having the permission of local governors may also be teachers in the supplementary technical school. There are now 1,917 teachers in supplementary technical schools.

#### STUDENTS AND GRADUATES.

The total number of the students in supplementary schools is at present 192,148, and the number of the graduates is 33,617; most of these are engaged in business at their respective homes.

#### EQUIPMENT.

As most of supplementary technical schools are attached to elementary schools, they have the use of the various apparatus and machines provided in elementary schools, but such equipment as is needed for their special use must be furnished by themselves. There are not a few supplementary technical schools which are held in Buddhist temples or private houses.

### Section VI. System for the Encouragement of Technical Education.

#### (1) INSTITUTES FOR THE TRAINING OF

##### TECHNICAL SCHOOL TEACHERS.

An institute for the training of agricultural school teachers has been established and attached to the College of Agriculture in the Imperial University of Tokyo, an institute for the training of technical school teachers has been attached to the Tokyo Higher Technical School, and an institute for the training of commercial school teachers has been attached to the Tokyo Higher



Commercial School, for the training of teachers for technical schools of secondary grade, technical schools of primary grade and supplementary technical schools.

Instruction is given by the teachers of the college or school to which each institute is attached, and the length of the course is two years in the institutes belonging to the College of Agriculture and the Tokyo Higher Commercial School, and three years and four months in the institute for the training of technical school teachers. The former two institutes admit the students every other year, and the third admits thirty students annually. Applicants for admission must be the graduates of normal or middle schools, and they are admitted after a competitive examination. To each student thus admitted, the government allows five *yen* a month to meet his school expenses.

Students of special technical schools who intend to devote themselves to teaching after they have graduated at the school, and who are possessed of a firm will, are styled "*kyū-hi-sei*" (students receiving pecuniary aid from the government.) A certain number of these students are appointed every year, up to the limit permitted by the budget of the Education Department. The sum given to each of these students, like that allowed to students in the training institute, is five *yen* per month.

A student who has received this aid is under obligation to become a teacher in any technical school or other school indicated by the Minister of Education, and his period of service is for one year longer than the term of years during which he received pecuniary aid.

If such a student leaves the school before his graduation without any reasonable cause, or if he refuses to become a teacher after his graduation, he must pay back to the government the money expended upon him.

## (2) STATE AID TOWARDS THE EXPENSES OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

To those public technical, agricultural, commercial, nautical, apprentices' and supplementary technical schools which are ac-



knowledgeed to have done much towards the advancement of technical education, the government has allowed pecuniary aid as an encouragement, and the length of the term during which the aid is given is fixed at five years; but at the expiration of this term, it may be renewed if this is thought necessary.

The sum thus given is at present 365,000 *yen*, and the number of the schools amongst which the money is distributed is as follows :—

Special technical schools.....	1
Technical schools of middle grade....	156
Technical schools of a special kind....	151 (of which 53 are apprentices' schools)
Supplementary technical schools.....	10

### (3) PRIVILEGES.

Amongst the special technical schools and technical schools of middle grade, whether public or private, those schools receive official sanction, according to the regulations, in which the discipline is good and firmly maintained, and in which teachers and equipment are alike adequate to the task of instruction in the various fixed courses of study. In the case of these sanctioned schools, the students of a public school enjoy the privilege of postponing their period of conscription and the graduates may become government officials of *hannin* rank, while the students of such private schools enjoy the former privilege only.

These sanctioned schools, classified according to privileges, are as follows :

	With both privileges.	With one privilege.
Special technical schools.....	1	3
Technical schools of middle grade .....	139	22

### (4) TECHNICAL SCHOOLS AND MEN OF BUSINESS.

The relation between technical schools and men engaged in business has lately been becoming more and more close, scientific theory has been brought into harmony with practice, and the two



have been exerting a mutually beneficial influence, the result being on both sides progress and improvement. Business men of every kind have paid visits to technical schools, have seen the students at study or doing practical work ; have handled well-made articles of the students' manufacture or the first-class products of school farms ; have wondered at machines, implements, and tools of the newest kind ; or have asked questions regarding the experiments and investigations carried on in the schools. Thus they have been enabled to appreciate the importance of this kind of education. The schools have furthermore sent out invitations to business men and have explained to them what things have an important bearing on practical business ; have published the results of experiments and investigations, urging practical workers to put these results into practice ; have lent or distributed implements, machines, manufactured articles, specimens, seeds, etc., and have thus greatly assisted various branches of industry, or have exhibited to the public what has been manufactured in the school or been produced on the school farms. Thus the schools have endeavoured both directly and indirectly to assist and promote all branches of industry. Further, the schools have sent out teachers, at the request of different bodies of business men, to deliver important lectures ; they have invited educators or business men of much learning and experience to deliver lectures which have been open to the public ; the teachers have taken the students to workshops, farms, banks, companies, offices, or private stores, where they have given practical lessons to students ; and when they have found some things in these places open to improvement, they have kindly pointed them out to the people of workshops, etc. In this way, as time goes on, the schools and men of business will be a help to each other.

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## PART VII.

# FEMALE EDUCATION.

### I. Introduction.

The education of women in Japan is of ancient origin. From the earliest period of her history there have been many women of talent and accomplishment who left immortal works behind them. But female education in general consisting chiefly of the fostering of feminine virtues, such as gentleness, chastity, &c., together with the teaching of domestic management, and no specific educational agency like that for males being established, with woman everything was done at home, so that female education, it must be confessed, came very far behind, as compared with that provided for males.

In the antique period the social status of women was very high; but after A. D. 284 (944 of the Japanese era) when Chinese letters and learning were brought over to Japan, women, under the influence of Chinese ideas, were placed on a lower level than men, and, taught to obey, they attended chiefly to domestic duties at home. As far back as A. D. 552 (1212 of the Japanese era), Buddhism was introduced. This religion looks down upon women as subordinate beings deeply immersed in sin. Thus, by the two influences of Chinese Confucianism and Indian Buddhism, women were reduced to a condition of subjection. Not only were they degraded in social status, but they were humiliated in spirit. Furthermore, it being thought that learning would be detrimental to feminine virtue, women were taught only such things as domestic management, etiquette, manual work, &c., so that in spite of the general advance of enlightenment, female education remained inconsiderable and made little progress until the beginning of the seventeenth century of the Christian era. Although during the Hei-an Period (about the tenth century) female





education among the upper classes flourished for a time, and the period was distinguished by the appearance of many a female genius of undying fame. This was quite an exceptional state of things. In the Kamakura Period (about the 12th century) there began to appear what might be termed "female *bushidō*" (the way of brave women). According to this a woman once married should lay down her life rather than allow her chastity to be infringed upon. This was considered the chief point of feminine virtue. A practical education for the needs of everyday life was held in esteem—a distinguished feature of this age that should be carefully noted.

Consequently in the Yedo Period (17th century) secular education attained a climax, and advocates for female education appeared in large numbers. It then became the general fashion throughout the upper and lower classes in general to make girls learn reading, composition, penmanship, &c., in addition to household management, manual crafts, &c., with the addition in some cases, of female etiquette, music, incense-burning, flower-arrangement, tea ceremony, &c. However, the education of those days consisted principally of moral culture, so that many books of precepts for women appeared, of which the most widely known was that which is handed down to us as written by Kaibara Ekiken, a leading light among our educationists of modern times. It goes by the name of *Onna Dai-gaku* (Great Precepts for Women). It teaches women according to the principle of Chinese Confucianism, to have reverential love and modesty, to preserve their chastity, to observe propriety of language and deportment, and to esteem as merit in women the exhibition of virtue as wife and mother. The leading principles of female education in the Tokugawa period can be best learned from this book of precepts.

Such was the state of our female education before the Meiji era. Having passed through various vicissitudes, it entered upon a new phase with the Meiji period, and, as time went on, the education of women developed rapidly.

The happy turn of national affairs in the Meiji era is unquestionably largely owing to our contact with Europe and America. So at the beginning of the period there came a



development of female education, as well as of education in general, owing to the introduction of the western arts and sciences. Then in the fifth year of the new era (1872), our code of education was promulgated, by which it was ordered that hence-forth the whole nation—including *kazoku* (nobility), *shizoku* (gentry), and the agricultural, industrial and merchantile classes, both male and female—should so strive after learning that there should not be a house in a village with an illiterate family in it, nor an individual in a house who was illiterate; thereby was laid the foundation of female as well as of general education. Later on, the further development of the life of the nation and the progress of civilization necessitated the issue of the Imperial Ordinance on Education, the reformation of educational systems, &c. The progress of female education has gone on, accompanied by the establishment of girls' schools in increased numbers, until it has reached its present state of prosperity.

## II. Period of Development.

### THE FIRST PERIOD.

The first period begins with the first year of the Meiji era (1868) and terminates at about the time of the promulgation of the Imperial Ordinance on education (1879). This was a rudimentary period in which a new system of education was formed on the patern of European and American institutions, and much labour was expended in the initiatory work of general education. Proceeding on the principle of almost direct imitation, mental culture was the chief object aimed at, so that the subjects of study in the secondary schools for girls were much the same as in those for boys. The government at this time established a female school and trained female teachers, and then the different prefectures instituted similar schools, and thereby the progress of female education was facilitated.

### THE SECOND PERIOD.

The time from about 1879 till 1886 when the Imperial Ordinance relating to various schools was issued may be taken



as the second period. In the beginning of this period education was in a state of temporary retrogression, which, however, was followed by gradual progress. Much attention began to be paid to the quality of education, stress being laid upon moral culture and the subjects of study being differentiated from those for boys so as to bring them into closer relation with the facts of practical life.

As above stated, the ordinance of 1886 relates to various schools, and as yet no special edict was issued with respect to female schools of a higher grade, so that secondary education for girls was conducted according to the regulations for boys' middle schools. Now, however, came the opening of a new era for girls' secondary education. From about 1885 till 1887 or thereabouts the zeal for Europeanization was at its height, and there sprang up many girls' schools founded on Christian principles, which lent valuable aid to the cause of female education in Japan. But it may be said in brief, this was a period in which much attention was devoted to the mere formalities of education, the rules and regulations having been changed and revised ever so many times.

### THE THIRD PERIOD.

This period extends from 1887 to 1895. In the beginning of this period the spirit of Europeanization was still in the ascendant, but in 1890, when the Imperial Rescript on Education was issued, the essential course of education was fixed. The principle of education founded on the history of the nation and based on nationalism began to play an important part; and once 1893 the government has been encouraging female education as it does technical education in general. In consequence of this, the regulations relating to female high schools were established in 1895. Thus female education took a step towards the goal of completeness.

### THE FOURTH PERIOD.

This period lasted from the close of the preceding period till about 1904 or 1905. The Japan-China war occurred during





this period, and the whole nation, seeing the real causes of our victory, began to lay greater stress than ever on the importance of education—more especially on the influence of mothers and wives, they having had much to do with bringing about the happy result of victory. This idea gave great impetus to the progress of female education, and in 1899 an Imperial Ordinance was issued for higher female schools, as the result of which such schools came to be established in every *fu* and *ken* (prefecture), as well as in Hokkaido. In this period, too, the advance of the times necessitated a yet higher degree of education for women, and a girls' college was established as the result of private enterprise. The government accordingly despatched two teachers, one of each sex, to Europe and America for the study of female education and female gymnastics. This, in short, was the period in which the importance of female education came to be realized by the general public. Consequently the number of female schools and pupils greatly increased and there came a gradual improvement into the quality of education for women.

#### THE FIFTH PERIOD.

In this period we have the present state of education as the outcome of all the preceding periods. In the beginning of this period the Russo-Japanese war took place, as the result of which the self-awakening of the people became more manifest. With the general expansion of enterprises in every quarter, educational matters displayed a remarkably rapid progress and development. With regard to female education, the desire of girls for learning growing yet more ardent, girls' schools increased in number with the lapse of years; and professional and industrial education for women also made great progress. Among the steps taken by the government to meet the advancing requirements of female education may be mentioned (1) the extension of the term of compulsory education, (2) the revision of the course of study in the higher girls' schools, (3) the prolongation of the term of school years for the study of girl pupils in the normal school, (4) the additional establishment of higher normal schools for girls (all of





which occurred after 1907), &c. It may be mentioned that preparations are at present being zealously made to meet a still greater development of female education in the future. There follows a summary showing the growth of female education in different directions given under their separate heads :—

### III. Growth of Female Education in Different Directions.

#### (1) PRIMARY EDUCATION FOR GIRLS.

In the beginning of the Meiji era, the government exerted itself on behalf of general education—ordering that schools should be established all over Japan, and building schools itself. In 1872 a code of education was established, by which children were six years of age were under obligation to attend school, instructions being given at the same time that girls should receive education as well as boys. From this time forward, elementary education for girls made progress until in 1882-3 the number of those attending school had greatly increased. About this time, however, in consequence of the depression in the financial world, there was for a time a condition of retrogression; but from about 1888 things began to advance again, and in 1893 the education of girls was particularly insisted upon, with the effect of a greatly increased attendance on their part. Just about this time the Chino-Japanese war took place and afterwards came the Russo-Japanese conflict. The result of these two wars was a great acceleration of education in general and a remarkable advance took place in the rate of the school attendance of girls.

During the year 1907 (fiscal) the girls attending elementary schools numbered 2,541,549 (against 3,172,113 boys), being at the rate of 96.14 per cent. of girls of school age (boys being 98.53 %). Comparing the yearly increase, as is shown by 91.46% for 1904, 93.34% for 1905, and 94.83% for 1906, it becomes evident that the increase in the rate will grow still greater in the years to come. When this is compared with the number of boys' attendances of so remote a date as 1877, we see that the





attendance of girls was something more than one-third, and in 1893, about one-half. This goes to show that the rate of increase with girls is something remarkable. Things being so, many new elementary schools for girls are now in the course of construction, quite apart from those for boys. The number of girl graduates from elementary schools during the fiscal year 1907 was 498,443, of whom 70,286 were graduates of the higher elementary course (in the ordinary elementary course, school period was at that time fixed at four years, children of six years of age being admissible, while the higher elementary course extended over two to four years, children being admissible after graduating from the ordinary course). The number of elementary school teachers was 122,038, of whom 27,656 were females.

## (2) SECONDARY EDUCATION FOR GIRLS.

In the opening of the Meiji period, the government seeing the necessity of female education, instituted in 1871 a union girls school (Kyōritsu Jogakko), into which were admitted girls aged from 8 to 15 years. The pupils rapidly increased in number, so that in the following year a new building was erected, and the new school took the name of the Tokyo Girls' School. The course of study included the Japanese language, English, manual arts, manual work, &c., and extended over six years. Besides this, there was a preparatory course of two years, in which the Japanese language was made the principal subject of study, while English was placed under the supervision of a foreign teacher. Then in 1875 the standard of instruction was made equal to that for boys in middle schools; while only such girls were admitted as had attainments equal to those of the graduates of an elementary school, and were over fourteen years of age and less than seventeen.

Next to the foregoing, in 1872, another school was established in Kyoto. At the outset, only the daughters of kazoku (nobility) were admitted, and the subjects taught there were the English language and feminine accomplishments, both Japanese and foreign; but afterwards the school was thrown open to the





public at large, and the following subjects were added to the course of study:—operations with the abacus, arithmetic, penmanship, and the Chinese classics. In 1877 some civil disturbances occurred in the south-west of Japan which produced a financial panic in the country, and the progress of female education was temporarily checked in consequence. But from about 1879 it began to resume its former course of development, and many public schools for girls were opened in various districts. In those days, however, the course of instruction being the same as that for boys, there were many points ill-suited to the needs of girls.

The Department of Education accordingly issued an instruction with rules for the guidance of such schools and at the same time provided a model by the establishment, in 1883, of a higher female school under the direct control of the Education Department. The course of study in this school extended over five years, the students to be admitted being those whose attainments were superior or equal to those of graduates of elementary schools having a six years' course. Through such means great reforms were introduced into the girls' schools in different prefectures.

Previous to this, just after the promulgation of the educational code of 1872, a privately established girls' school was opened in Tokyo; and in 1885 girls' schools began to be established on Christian principles, through the enterprise of foreigners in Japan; so that in 1887 there were seven such schools of government or public establishment, and eleven of private establishment. The number of teachers was 136 (of whom 80 were females) and that of pupils was 2,363, while the graduates numbered 64. Such was the degree of development of secondary education for girls in those days.

The government, however, had as yet done nothing towards regulating the higher female schools excepting that in 1886 it classed such schools together with ordinary middle schools for boys, in which the higher general education is given. About the year 1893, however, the government began to give encouragement to female education as well as to technical education in general. Furthermore, a great impetus was given to its progress by the





result of the China-Japan war. There was a sudden increase in the number of school girls who, having graduated from elementary schools, desired to receive a higher education. So in 1895 regulations relating to higher female schools were drawn up, making the course of study extend over six years, though one of these years was to be left optional according to local circumstances, girl graduates of ordinary elementary schools having a four years' course, or those of equal attainments, were made admissible; while the course of study included morals, the Japanese language, a foreign language (actually English), history, geography, mathematics, science, domestic management, sewing, penmanship, drawing, music and gymnastics. To these were added as elective subjects of study, education, the Chinese classics, and manual arts. The school hours per week were 28-30; but the foreign language, drawing and music might be omitted, or left to the pupil's option, by which a reduction of 7 or 8 hours might be effected.

Any schools not complying with the above regulations were forbidden the title of higher female school. At length in the month of February, 1899, an Imperial Ordinance relating to Higher Female Schools was issued, whereby all the provincial districts (including Hokkaido, 3 *fu*, and 43 *ken*) were required to establish in each district at least one higher female school having a four years' course of study, it being, however, permissible to reduce the course by one year where local circumstances make this advisable. Girls over the age of twelve years were eligible for admission if they had completed the two years' course in a higher elementary school. A supplementary course of two years or less was provided for graduates of the principal course, besides a special course of art and a post-graduate course. By the issue, in 1901, of the regulations for the enforcement of the Imperial Ordinance relating to the Higher Female Schools, the rules hitherto in force were amended and supplemented, much to the advantage of those schools. The effect of all this was seen in the rapid progress made by secondary education for girls and the establishment of more than ten new schools every year; so that in 1899 the schools of government, public and private establish-



ment—one was a government school—numbered 37, the teachers 450, the pupils 8,857, and the graduates 1,347. These numbers went on increasing, the statistics for 1903-4, showing 91 schools, 1,349 teachers, 25,719, pupils, and 6,024 graduates; while the statistics for 1907-8, showed 133 schools, 2,011 teachers, 40,273 pupils, and 9,179 graduates.

In 1903 the Department of Education compiled a detailed programme of the course of studies for the higher female schools showing the standard of the subject matter to be given for instruction. Since then secondary education for girls has continued to keep pace, not only as regards quantity but also as regards quality, with the advance of years—its progress after the war of 1904-5 having been particularly rapid.

Then in 1907 the Ordinance for the Higher Female Schools was revised, the permissive three years' course was entirely abolished, and the four years' course was made obligatory, while a further permissive course of one year was added to it.

The regulations enforcing the above ordinance underwent revision in 1908, the sphere of optional study being thereby made wider than before, in order to render the education better adapted to the requirements of actual life, and a new optional subject of study was allowed to be added to suit local circumstances. By this revision it was made permissible to omit such subjects as the physical condition of the pupils debarred them from studying. The subjects of study and the hours of instruction are as under:—

#### I. FOUR YEARS' COURSE OF STUDY.

	First Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.	Fourth Year.
Moral Lessons .. .. .	2	2	2	2
Japanese Language .. ..	6	6	5	5
Foreign Language .. .. .	3	3	3	3
History } .. .. .	3	3	2	3
Geography }				



	First Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.	Fourth Year.
Mathematics .. .. .	2	2	2	2
Science .. .. .	2	2	2	1
Drawing .. .. .	1	1	1	1
Domestic Management ..	—	—	2	2
Sewing .. .. .	4	4	4	4
Music .. .. .	2	2	2	2
Gymnastics .. .. .	3	3	3	3
Total .. .. .	28	28	28	28

## II. FIVE YEARS' COURSE OF STUDY.

	First Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.	Fourth Year.	Fifth Year.
Moral Lessons .. ..	2	2	2	2	2
Japanese Language ..	6	6	6	5	5
Foreign Language .. ..	3	3	3	3	3
History } .. .. .	3	3	3	2	2
Geography }					
Mathematics .. .. .	2	2	2	2	2
Science .. .. .	2	2	2	2	—
Drawing .. .. .	1	1	1	1	1
Domestic Management ..	—	—	—	2	4
Sewing .. .. .	4	4	4	4	4
Music .. .. .	2	2	2	2	2
Gymnastics .. .. .	3	3	3	3	3
Total .. .. .	28	28	28	28	28

Of the above-mentioned subjects of study, the foreign language (English or French) may be omitted or be made optional, while drawing and music may be entirely dispensed with.



In conclusion, the most recent figures (1907-8) relating to secondary education for girls are as under:—

	No. of Schools.	Teachers.	Pupils.	Graduates.
Public or Government Establishment.	108	1,649 { male. 652 female. 997	33,766	7,806
Private Establishment.	25	362 { m. 134 f. 228	6,497	1,373
Total.	133	2,011	40,263	9,179

The development of girls' high schools of late years has indeed been remarkable; notwithstanding which, the number of pupils, for example, is but little more than one-third the number of boys (111,436) in the middle schools, so there still remains much room for development. Besides the girls' high schools, there are some schools of a similar nature to them, of which 8 are of public establishment and 93 of private establishment, with 13,000 pupils and 2,700 graduates.

### (3) HIGHER EDUCATION FOR GIRLS.

The rise of higher education for women in Japan is of very recent date. From the oldest times Japanese women have held it to be their proper duty to be "a good wife and wise mother," and they have attended chiefly to the matters of the household. In the new era of Meiji, accordingly the importance of providing higher education for women has not been generally recognized and the government has not yet established any institution for that purpose. A college for women (Nippon Joshi Daigakko) has been established in Tokyo as a private institution, thus initiating measures for the higher education of women in Japan. This college which was established in 1901, has since made remarkably rapid progress. The object aimed at is to educate a woman, first, as an ordinary individual, in the next place, distinctively as a woman, and thirdly as a subject of Japan. The college provides four courses of instruction:—a Domestic Science course, a Literature course, an English course and an Educational course. Each course extends over three years, and those eligible for admission



are girl students over the age of seventeen who have passed through the five years' course of a higher female school, or who have attainments equal thereto. There are also a preparatory course of one to two years, and a post-graduate course of three years or less. The number of graduates sent out, up to the present year, is eight hundred and seventy-seven. There are 527 students in the college course. The college has a higher female school, an elementary school, and a kindergarten attached to it. The students and pupils number altogether more than 1,200.

Besides the above, there are two special schools where English is made the special study; both schools are in a progressive condition.

In short, higher education for women is at present still in its infancy, the women of Japan being as yet unable to receive an education equal to a university standard.

Furthermore, at present there is no school in Japan where instruction is given to girls preparatory to a university course. The Imperial University does not admit female students; and there are but a few among the general public who urge the necessity of higher education for women.

This may possibly be owing to the traditionary national idea that amount of education is quite sufficient for a woman which makes her, "a good wife and a wise mother."

#### (4) EDUCATION FOR GIRLS BELONGING TO THE HIGHER CLASSES.

In 1871 the Emperor of Japan laid down that the sons and daughters of the nobility should be well educated. Hereupon the nobles (Kazoku) took counsel together, with a view to the establishment of a new school, and this at last came into existence in 1877. Arrangements having been completed by October, the opening ceremony was duly held, and the Emperor gave the school the name of Gaku-shūin. The pupils at that time numbered over two hundred, males and females included, of whom one hundred and thirty belonged to noble families. This institution which was at first a private school dependent on the noblemen's association (Kazoku Kai-Kwan) was changed into a government establishment belonging to the Imperial Household Department, in 1884. In the





following year, the female department was detached and was made into an independent establishment, under the name of the Peeresses' School, where the education given was to be of the elementary and middle school standard.

The opening ceremony was honoured by the presence of the Empress, who gave the school words of gracious approval. In 1894 a kindergarten was established within the school, and this was opened with ceremony in April of the same year. Some years later, in 1906, in consequence of a reform of the constitution of the Gaku-shū-in, the appellation of the Peeresses' School was abolished, and the school again became the female department of the Gaku-shū-in.

A course of special study was instituted at this time for the purpose of imparting higher education. To sum up, the entire scheme of education in the female department of the Gaku-shū-in is made up of three sections, viz., the kindergarten and elementary school section, with a six years' course, pupils being admitted at six years of age; the middle school section with a five years' course; and the special study section, with a 3 years' course. The special study course comprises five subjects, namely, Japanese literature, English literature, drawing and penmanship, sewing and embroidery, and music; and students are required to devote themselves exclusively to one of these special studies.

The number of students and pupils at present is 215 in the elementary course, 319 in the secondary course, and 39 in the special study course.

The infants in the kindergarten number 97, of whom one belongs to the Imperial Family, while the others all belong to the nobility. The pupils in the elementary, secondary and special study course include some representatives of the gentry (Shizoku) and some belonging to the plebeian classes; but the tendency seems to be in the direction of reserving the school exclusively for the members of noble families. Five members of the Imperial Family are at present studying in the school.

#### (5) NORMAL EDUCATION FOR GIRLS.

Ever since the beginning of the Meiji era, the government,





while taking various measures for the advancement of education in general, has paid special attention to the question of normal education. In 1874 the Tokyo Female Normal Schools was established by government, those eligible for admission being girl students aged from fourteen to twenty. Similar schools now began to spring up in various prefectures, until in 1878 there was one government establishment and there were eleven public schools of this kind, the pupils numbering in all, 977. In 1883 the rules of the Tokyo Female Normal School were revised and the standard of study was raised; and in 1885 the school was amalgamated with the normal school for males. Soon the prefectural authorities followed this example by amalgamating the male and female normal schools. In 1886 an Ordinance relating to the Normal Schools was issued, by which normal schools were distinguished as higher and ordinary—the higher normal school being in Tokyo, while the ordinary normal schools were to be distributed one in each prefecture.

In this ordinance it was laid down that tractability, sincerity and dignity were indispensable requirements in a teacher; and hence forward much importance was attached to the fostering of these qualities.

As a result of the above-mentioned ordinance, the Tokyo Normal School was made the Higher Normal School, and in 1890 the female department of the said school was made an independent establishment with the name of the Higher Female Normal School. To this were attached at the same time the Tokyo Higher Girls' School, an elementary school and a kindergarten.

In this way a further development was effected in the normal education for girls.

In 1892 a similar reform was made in the subjects of study and their standard in the female department of the ordinary normal schools in different prefectures.

By the issue of an ordinance relating to normal schools, in 1897, Hokkaido and the various *fu* and *ken* (prefectures) were to provide one or more normal schools in each locality, and here also permission was given for male and female schools to be made separate establishments. Since this time female normal schools



have continued to increase in number, and in 1907 a new regulation for normal schools was issued, by which the training was divided into two courses—a first course and a second course. The first course extended over four years while the second course lasted for one or two years.

The students for admission to the first course were required to be graduates of the three years' higher elementary course or to be possessed of equal attainments, and they were to be over fifteen years of age; while those to be admitted to the second course must be graduates of a four years' or five years' course in a higher girls' school, or they must be over sixteen years of age in the former case and over seventeen years in the latter case, and be possessed of equivalent attainments.

There is also a preparatory course of one year for those entering the above courses; the subjects of study for females being ethics, the Japanese language and Chinese classics, mathematics, penmanship, drawing, music, gymnastics and sewing, with 31 hours' study per week. In the first course are included ethics, education, the Japanese language and Chinese classics, history, geography, mathematics, natural sciences, physics and chemistry, household management, sewing, penmanship, drawing, manual arts, music, gymnastics, and English—English being an optional study.

In the second course, the two years' standard has the same subjects of study as the first course, excepting household management and penmanship, and the hours per week are 31-32 (34, if English be added); and the one year's standard has the same subjects of study as the two years' standard with the omission of history, geography and English,—the number of school hours per week being 34.

In each of the above courses in its last school year, lessons in practical training are given in the elementary school attached, as also nursery practice.

These regulations will, it is expected, have the effect of producing excellent school teachers and of advancing the standard of attainment possessed by female teachers. The establishment of the second course is a newly devised plan whereby the



graduates of the female high schools may become elementary school teachers. This expedient has been adopted to obtain elementary school teachers, in order to meet the deficiency in the teaching profession.

Judged from present tendencies, there need be little doubt as to the yearly increase of females willing to engage in education in the elementary schools.

With regard to the Higher Female Normal School, it has become a training place not only for teachers for the ordinary normal schools but also for teachers for the higher female schools, as the effect of the Normal School Ordinance of 1897, issued in consequence of the development of female education after the Japan-China war.

In the same year the principal studies of the school were divided into two courses, Literary and Scientific. The full number of students was limited to 200. In addition, post-graduate, special and elective courses have been established. In 1899 a course of arts was added to the curricula of the school, the full number of students was fixed at 300, and the education was made more specialised as well as extended in scale.

Candidates for admission to this school must be graduates of a normal school, or of a higher female school with a four years' course, or else persons possessing equal attainments, between seventeen and twenty-two years of age, and unmarried. Candidates must produce a recommendation from the local authorities, and selection is dependent upon examination conducted by the school. The principal courses of study extend over four years in each case; and in the fourth school year practical instruction in training is given in the elementary school and kindergarten attached, for one term. The school hours are 25 to 32 per week in the principal courses.

From 1890, when this school became an independent establishment up to the current year, the number of graduates has been 763 in the higher normal course, 9 in the post-graduate course, 17 in the elective course, and 309 in the special courses of domestic science, the Japanese language and Chinese classics,



geography and history, the Japanese language and gymnastics, mathematics, physics and chemistry.

The number of students at present in the school is 288 in the principal course, 3 in the post-graduate course, and 75 in the special course; and the number of children and infants in the school and kindergarten attached is 1,130, making a grand total of 1,510, not counting two Chinese students who are studying science. In the kindergarten, *hoko* (nurses or conductors) are sometimes trained. In addition to all this, a provisional training institute was established in 1906; and the English and domestic science courses were opened in succession for the training of female teachers in the secondary school for girls.

The Empress of Japan has for long shewn an interest in female education and in 1876 Her Majesty favoured the school with the gift of a poem of her own, which says:

*Migakazu-ba*

*Tama-mo Kagami-mo*

*Namika-sen*

*Manabi-no Michi-no*

*Kaku koso arikere*

Without polish, whether a gem or a mirror,

What it would be?—

With the way of learning

It is likewise so.

This much-prized verse has since become the school song. Since Her Majesty's gracious visit in 1875, Her Majesty has paid eight other visits to the school, a fact well worthy of special mention.

In May of the present year another Higher Female Normal School was established in Nara. There are four courses in this school; viz. (I) the Japanese language and Chinese classics; (II) history and geography; (III) mathematics, physics and chemistry; and (IV) natural and domestic science. Each of these courses extends over four years, the first four mouths of which are given to preparatory studies for all the courses. The number of students is limited to 300. The students at present in the school are 78 in the first year course.



## (6) PROFESSIONAL AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION FOR GIRLS.

As women in Japan have been accustomed from the earliest times to regard the discharge of their domestic functions as their principal duty any education for a business life was mainly conducted under the system of apprenticeship at home; and no special institute such as the so-called girls' technical school ever existed before the Meiji era. Under the new regime, in the Meiji era, a complete change has come in the social order of things; the general expansion of industrial and professional life, and the new mode of doing business, has produced an increasing demand for women in different departments of life.

Consequently, the education which prepares girls to earn their own living had been making constant progress, and keeping pace with female education in general, while in recent years its advance has been rapid. A summary of its development here follows:—

The earliest institute of this kind was one for the training of female teachers; and next came the establishment of sewing schools. The training of school teachers began with the establishment of the Tokyo Female Normal School in 1874, and of the Female School in Kyoto two years later. A detailed account of the development of this kind of education is given under the title of Normal Education.

With the rise of kindergartens, came the training of nurses or conductors (hobo) and in 1907 their number throughout the country amounted to 1,066.

As regards sewing schools, the oldest is the Female School in Kyoto, and next come two or three schools established in 1879-80. In particular, the Tokyo Girls' Sewing School established in 1881 and the Union Girls' Technical School (Shiritsu Kyōritsu Joshi Shokugyō Gakko) established in 1886 (principally for needlework and manual crafts) may be mentioned as amongst the oldest and most thriving institutions, they having at all times from 700 or 800 to over 1,000 girl pupils. Since 1902 female schools that prepare for various callings have sprung up one after another, thus bringing about a remarkable development in the





professional and industrial education provided for girls.

According to the latest investigations there are about 300 such schools of private establishment, and the pupils amount to over 10,000. Of these the most numerous are the domestic and foreign sewing schools, manual crafts schools, schools of cookery, &c. In addition, there are schools for teaching domestic management and the fine arts. Sericulture and weaving have given occupation to females from the earliest times.

When the Empress of Japan graciously showed a noble example by herself performing handiwork, the effect produced was great; and since 1899, when the Department of Education instituted a Bureau of Technical Education, there has been development in all directions. At present the female schools for sericulture, weaving, dyeing, agricultural technology, &c. number altogether over sixty.

For teaching music there are one government school, and two or three private schools.

In the Tokyo Academy of Music, a government institution established in 1879, the schedule of study (extending over three years) is divided into three courses, viz. vocal music course, instrumental music course, and musical language course. Here male and female students are taught together.

Besides the above there is a normal course of from one to three years' duration, in which girls are trained to fit them to be teachers of girls' schools or elementary schools. There are also preparatory, post-graduate, and elective courses. The number of students attending in 1907 was 540, of whom more than two-third were females.

The female teachers of gymnastics are trained chiefly in the Tokyo Female Higher Normal School, but there is also a Japan Physical Culture Association, a corporation of much influence in Japan. There is at present a considerable demand for female teachers of gymnastics, but girls show little inclination to qualify themselves for teaching of this kind.

The development of medical education is worth nothing. The granting of licenses to females for medical practice dates from 1884. Originally women used to enter man's medical school and



study there; but in 1904 a Female Medical School was established in Tokyo. Over 300 students are at present attending this school. Also, in a few private medical schools, there are female departments. According to the latest investigations the number of female physicians throughout the country is about 180.

Midwives and nurses, too, are trained in large numbers, first in the Medical College of the Imperial University, and then in the hospitals and other institutes specially established for them.

Such are the results coming from the general diffusion of sanitary ideas in general, while special value is attached to the distinguished service of the nurses trained by the Red Cross Society in Japan rendered during the late wars with China and Russia. The stories of their noble devotion to duty will lastingly adorn the pages of narrative of these campaigns. Their heroic deeds, so widely talked about, must be attributed to the historic spirit that so largely animates the nation. Of late there has been a greatly increased demand in business circles, for the services of girls. There are only a few female schools where preparatory training is given to girls going into business, but such schools are in a thriving condition, and have a hopeful future before them. Besides all these, there are institutes where girls are taught book-keeping, arithmetic, photography, &c. Cookery schools are very numerous, and foreign cooking, too, is coming into favour in Japanese families.

After the campaign of 1904-5, when business enterprises were suddenly inflated for a time, the female pupils coming up to Tokyo from all parts of the country greatly increased in number.

This continued for a time, but just at present their number has decreased somewhat.

This state of things may be taken as a sign of the growing tendency of women to show increasing earnestness in their studies. While the fact that professional and industrial education for girls has made remarkable progress in recent years is a note-worthy one, it is also a fact that a good many of those who receive such education, obtain it, not for purposes of occupation, but chiefly for domestic purposes.





#### IV. Conclusion.

The above is a summary of the development of female education since the beginning of the new era of Meiji.

Reflecting upon the progress of its development, we shall see that from the first year of Meiji down to the 20th year, the principles of female education, under the influence of the changing ideas of the times, were founded on intellectual culture introduced from the West, together with other European things, and the idea of Europeanization reigned supreme, so much so that the dress of ladies was at one time completely Europeanized. As a reaction, however, to the above tendency, the principle of preserving the national characteristics soon began to get the upper hand. The two opposing influences naturally produced a severe conflict and tended at one time to disturb the harmony of society; and these complications apparently had their effect upon female education in Japan.

In 1890, however, the issue of the Imperial Rescript on Education, and our two foreign wars, which came within the short space of little more than ten years, produced a remarkable self-awakening of the whole nation; and having come to recognize the importance of historical influence upon the spirit of a nation which can look back upon an unbroken existence of so many centuries, more stress was laid than ever upon the culture of national sentiment in education. In the midst of these changes of ideal on the part of individuals, the fundamental principle of female education remained the same as it had been from the beginning, namely, that a girl should grow into "a good wife and a wise mother," the chief aim of the education of women being the attainment of the three virtues. Filial Obediences, Chastity and Compassionate Love. From the antique or mythic period, this country having evolved a peculiar family system founded upon caste, its people have been accustomed to regard their family lineage with an extreme degree of reverence; and further, under the influence of *bushido* (the spirit of chivalry), respect for the honour of their family, and reverence and loyalty towards their



lord or master did much to strengthen the feelings of chastity and faith in a woman.

Consequently, for a Japanese woman to bestow filial love upon her father and mother, or her father-in-law and mother-in-law, to be chaste and true towards her husband, to be obedient to her elders, to be zealous in the discharge of her domestic duties, to bring up her children with tender love, never sparing any pains for their sake—to be and to do all this was to display the characteristics of a Japanese woman.

During the recent wars with China and Russia, there were many praise-worthy incidents of women encouraged their sons or husbands, and of ladies of all ranks giving every help and encouragement to the soldiers at the front all displaying the true characteristics of the typical woman of Japan.

That in spite of the possession of such fine qualities, continually nourished by historical inspiration, the women of Japan had so long been denied the means of developing their knowledge was undoubtedly one of the greatest of our social defects. But now that there has been so great an advance in the right direction not only has there been a great increase in the number of schools and the number of students, but great improvements have been made in the quality of the education provided for women.

One of the striking features of the case is the great increase in the number of journals and magazines published relating to women and their home life. The fact that the best amongst them have a larger circulation than any other journals and magazines published in Japan, is of itself enough to show how female education is spreading in Japan.

Nor is it the intellectual side only of female education that is advancing, but the progress of women's physical culture as well as their knowledge of the laws of health in general is also worthy of notice. In school they perform various gymnastic exercises and take part in out-door sports. The school girls in Japan wear, most of them, a peculiar sort of plaited skirts called *hakama*, and wear shoes, too, instead of wooden clogs, permitting a quickness of movement and freedom in walking which all tends to help their bodily growth.



The recent development of education fitting girls to follow some calling is a feature worthy of special notice, but it must not be too hastily assumed that this shows a tendency of women towards taking to earning an independent living.

Our population is, according to the latest statistics, about 26,750,000 males against 25,960,000 females, being at the rate of 97 females to 100 males; and the fact that living is comparatively cheap here, makes marriage easy,—there being but few women of marriageable age who remain single; so that we can say we have not yet reached the days when women are compelled to lead an independent single life.

The recent growth of professional and industrial education for women is chiefly owing to the increasing demand for women of ability as mistresses of house-holds,—a necessary consequence of the general progress of civilization and enlightenment. But judging from the present state of things there can be little doubt but that the problem of women's life will arise, along with other problems at some future date.

Some of the principal occupations in which women in Japan are engaged at present are as follows:—school-teaching—needle-work—manual crafts—midwifery—nursing of the sick—medical practice—communication business—banking and clarking—short-hand writing—music—fine arts—editing newspapers and magazines—factory-work—menial labour, &c. By far the greatest number are engaged in agriculture, sericulture, and other forms of productive industry.

In a country like ours where women make it their principal business to attend to their house-holds, the amount of public work undertaken by women is naturally not large. There are, however, more than ten schools—such as special schools for girls, higher girls' schools and similar schools as well as girls' technical schools, &c., which are managed and conducted entirely by women.

Of women's educational societies, besides the one called Dai Nippon Fujin Kyōikukai (Japan Ladies' Educational Society) composed of ladies belonging to the upper classes in Tokyo, there are many others in different prefectures. There are also such





societies as the Ladies' Society for the Reform of Manners, Ladies' Sanitary Society, &c. One of the ladies' societies was formed at the time of the late war with the object of helping our armies at the front by giving relief to the surviving families of our dead soldiers and bringing up their orphan children. It is called the Patriotic Ladies' Society, presided over by a Princess of the Imperial Family and having members over 784,000.

Akin to this there are other societies; such as the Army and Navy Officers' Wives' Association, Voluntary Nurses' Association, &c.

Women's activity, moving in corporate unison and for public purposes, is just beginning to make itself felt, and this with ever-increasing earnestness.

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## PART VIII.

### ART EDUCATION.

#### I. FINE ART.

Education in fine art, in the widest sense of the term, implies not only the teaching given by the artist in his studies or in a school, with a view to the training of those who are to carry on the profession in time to come, but also everything that tends to promote in the nation a taste for the fine arts.

Any great work or rare article of fine art, which has been handed down from the time of our ancestors and is preserved with reverence and care by their posterity, has its influence on the national taste for the fine arts.

To collect and exhibit to the public the works of living artists, with just and impartial criticism from the artistic standpoint appended to each, is the most suitable way of encouraging artists and of diffusing aesthetic tastes amongst the people.

In giving an account of the present state of fine art education in Japan, the following questions have to be dealt with:—

- (1) How are ancient specimens of fine art preserved in Japan?
- (2) What training is there for the artists of the future?
- (3) How are the works of living artists criticized?

#### (1) How are Ancient Specimens of the Fine Arts preserved?

It is a matter for much thankfulness that the course of events has been such that there has been preserved to the country a rich store of ancient specimens of Japanese fine art.

(a) Japan being an insular empire in the Pacific and separated from the continent of Asia, those great commotions which caused trouble on the continent never crossed the sea to





Japan, and this country has never been overrun by foreign invaders.

(b) As Japan has been ruled by one unbroken line of sovereigns, and the line of demarcation between sovereign and subject has been clearly marked, the country has never known any bloody revolutionary wars.

(c) The introduction into Japan of Buddhism had salutary effects upon our civilization; but Buddhism itself speedily underwent a process of adaptation, with the result that we have never known the bitterness of cruel religious wars.

(d) As the custom of paying reverence to ancestors prevails in Japan, the people have a love for and carefully preserve whatever their ancestors have left them.

For these reasons, it will readily be understood that Japan is rich in ancient specimens of the fine arts.

(A) *Hōryūji* (a Buddhist temple).

Hōryūji was founded in the year 607 A.D. by Prince Shōtoku, the great patron of Japanese civilization. Its shrines, pagodas, and images of Buddha, together with the grandeur of the temple itself, have been preserved just as they were some thirteen hundred years ago. The pictures on the walls of Kondō, together with those on the walls of the rock temples at Ajanta in India, are the remains of the grandest pictures the world has ever seen.

(B) *Treasure Store-house of Shōsōin* (a Buddhist temple).

Until the 7th century, the civilization of Northern China came into our country by way of the Korean Peninsula; but in the 8th century, when China was under the rule of the most prosperous emperors of the Tō dynasty, direct communication between Japan and central and southern China became very common, each country sent ambassadors to the other, and priests and students were continually going and coming. Not a few articles of Persian or India origin found their way to Japan through southern China at this time. These foreign articles had a salutary effect upon our fine arts, which in consequence made



great progress. Nara, then the capital of Japan, may be said to have been the centre of civilization in Asia.

In A.D. 756, the year following that in which the Emperor Shōmu died, the widowed Empress Kōmei dedicated to Beroshana-butsu (the huge image in Nara) all the valuable things which had belonged to the late emperor, and ordered them to be kept in the treasure-house in Shōsōin. As these things had been chosen by the emperor himself, there can be no doubt that they were the best and the most beautiful things that time could furnish.

From that time down to the present, this treasure-house has been under the control of successive emperors, for the space of twelve hundred years. The adjoining buildings were often burnt to the ground, but this escaped; and the Imperial family declined at times, but this remained as precious and well-preserved as ever. Neither the monks living in the temple nor rough knights laid hands upon this precious store-house. The priceless treasures preserved in a frail wooden building were sacred even to robbers during the most troubled times, and when the building was struck by lightning by it did not take fire. Thus it is that all these priceless treasures have been handed down to us.

These treasures consist of articles of every kind and examples of industrial art which furnish us with the means of knowing the literature and arts and the condition of society, of days long since gone by. The city of Pompeii, in Italy, long buried under ashes and forgotten, was many years ago discovered, and the work of excavating this ancient city has furnished historical materials in abundance; but this was the result of accident. The case of Shōsōin is quite different. It never disappeared, even for a day, from the sight of man, and it has nevertheless been perfectly preserved. Such a case has never been met with in any other country of the world. When the treasures come to be examined it is found that some of the articles were manufactured on the continent of Asia, but there is also an abundance of articles of home manufacture:—porcelain, lacquer ware, metal work, wood work, inlaid with ivory, embroidery work, etc. These articles show to what a pitch of perfection various branches of





industrial art were brought in Japan at the period to which they belong.

(C) *Treasures belonging to Shinto and Buddhist Temples.*

In the early part of the ninth century, Kūkai, Saichō, Yenchū and other celebrated priests, who paid visits to the court of the Tō dynasty in China for the purpose of religious study, brought back with them the religious principles of Shingon and Tendai. Many statues and pictures of Buddha which were needed for religious purposes were brought over from China and, in addition, large numbers of images of Buddha were carved and painted, some of which still remain in Kōya-san Higashidera, Hiyeizan and other Buddhist temples.

Buildings, pictures, carved figures, and all articles belonging to the industrial arts were largely subject to continental influences up to the year 895 when communication between Japan and the continent of Asia was interrupted by the great commotion which took place in China under the Tō dynasty.

From that time, peace reigned in Japan for three hundred years, and not only did the Imperial House flourish, but the Fujiwara family reached the highest point of their prosperity. There was a great development in the national customs, and the civilization of Japan took a form quite its own. Our choicest works of fine art are the productions of this period, many of them having been preserved in Shinto and Buddhist temples in Kyoto which had close relations with the Imperial House and the Fujiwara family.

In the year 1186, the government of the Shōgun established itself at Kamakura, and frugality of life combined with devotion to martial customs prevailed under its rule.

At this period, the intercourse between Japan and first the Sō dynasty and afterwards the Gen dynasty of China began and the priests of the Zen sect, who had gone over to China, brought back with them many works of fine arts from that country. The Shōgun Ashikaga Higashi-yama-dono was extremely fond of specimens of hand-writing, pictures and curios, and calling together men of refined taste, he determined the rules for tea-





ceremonies, and the methods of decorating rooms, and brought the art of connoisseurship to perfection. Further, the method of laying out gardens and the practice of burning incense also were fixed at this period.

Many of the artistic treasures collected by Higashi-yama-dono still remain in temples belonging to the Zen sect, and in the mansions of noblemen and rich men.

After that time, Japan fell into a state of disorder, and in the sixteenth century, fighting became general throughout the empire, as a result of which warlike appliances of every kind were brought to perfection, this being the golden age of metal work.

(D) *Artistic Treasures belonging to the Nobility and  
Upper Classes.*

In 1615, the Toyotomi family had fallen and peace was once more restored to Japan under the rule of the Shōgun Tokugawa. This peace was of long continuance, and the national prosperity increased year by year until, at the beginning of the eighteenth century, it had reached its zenith.

What should be particularly noted here is that a high state of civilization had been limited before the sixteenth century, to the Imperial family and the nobility, and that the people at large had all been strangers to it.

Though there was still, during the Tokugawa period, a clear distinction made, politically, between the different classes, yet in the point of literary and artistic tastes, the distinctions hitherto made now disappeared, and men were all one in matters of taste. There were, accordingly, many others besides noblemen who collected and kept in their possession works of fine art.

With the Restoration of Meiji (1868), the government of the Shōgun, which had lasted for seven hundred years, came to an end, and soon afterwards, the various feudal lords gave up their lands to the Emperor, and all "samurai" were set free from their hereditary duties.

This political reformation also brought about a social one,





and works of fine art fell for a time into such low estate as almost to be thrown away as rubbish.

But this reformation which for the time being caused such a stir in Japan, had not been brought about for purposes of destruction, and consequently the new Imperial government not long after, made the "*kuge*" (direct retainers of the Emperor) and all the feudal barons under the Tokugawa government into "*ka-zoku*" (nobles), with Tokugawa Shōgun at their head, and placed them over the common people, by which means perfect peace was restored to Japan.

The temples and shrines have not, consequently, been deprived of their artistic treasures, while the various noble families have also been able to preserve those treasures of a like kind which have been handed down to them from their ancestors.

It might at first sight appear that during these years of transition a great many specimens of fine art found their way abroad. In connection with the altered condition of things in our country, and the consequent change in the manner of living, it is true that many articles used for decorative purposes, articles of furniture, and so forth, were no longer of use, and many of these useless articles must have been sold, and many sent abroad; but the true artistic treasures, which had been handed down from ancestors, were seldom sold, and the number of these exported must have been very small indeed.

(E) *Committee for the Preservation of Old Shinto Shrines and Buddhist Temples. Imperial Museums.*

The buildings which suffered most from the Restoration were the Shinto shrines and Buddhist temples.

All the famous Buddhist temples in Japan were either established by the order of successive emperors, or had been the family temples of Shōguns and barons.

Before the Restoration, each temple possessed its own land and allowances; but when the new Imperial government was established, these lands were taken away, the allowances were stopped, and the respect which had been shewn to temples diminished considerably.





THE COURSE OF INSTRUCTION AND THE NUMBER OF SCHOOL HOURS  
OF THE  
HIGHER ELEMENTARY SCHOOL FOR THREE YEARS OF STUDY.

SL

Subjects of Study	Year.	No. of Hours per Week.	First Year.	No. of Hours per Week.	Second Year.	No. of Hours per Week.	Third Year.
			Principles of Morality.	2	Principles of Morality.	2	Principles of Morality.
			Common and useful characters of daily occurrences, and common sentences. Reading, writing and composition.	5	Common and useful characters of daily occurrences, and common sentences. Reading, writing and composition.	5	Common and useful characters of daily occurrences, and common sentences. Reading, writing and composition.
Arithmetic.		4	Fractions, Percentage, Proportion. (Abstract arithmetic of four rules.)	4	Proportion. (Abstract arithmetic of four rules.)	4 for boys. 3 for girls.	Supplements of the preceding years. Measurement. (Book-learning for daily use) (Abstract arithmetic of four rules.)
Japanese History.		3	Outlines of Japanese History.	3	Sequel of the preceding year.	2	History of Japan during Meiji Era (the Restoration.)
Geography.		3	Outlines of World's Geography.	3	Supplementary Lessons on Geography.	2	Supplementary Lessons on Geography.
Science.		3	Vegetables, Animals, and Minerals. Natural phenomena. Common physical and chemical phenomena. Elements and compounds. Construction and working of simple machinery. Rudiments of human physiology and hygiene.	3	Natural phenomena. Common physical and chemical phenomena. Elements and compounds. Construction and working of simple machinery. Rudiments of human physiology and hygiene.	3	Supplementary Lessons on Science.
Drawing.		2 for boys. 1 for girls.	Figures, various.	2 for boys. 1 for girls.	Figures, (various). (Easy geometrical drawing)	2 for boys. 1 for girls.	Figures, (various). (Easy geometrical drawing)
Singing.		2	Solo Singing. (Easy singing with staff)	2	Solo Singing. (Easy singing with staff)	1	Solo Singing. (Easy singing with staff)
Gymnastics.		3	Common gymnastic exercises and Sports. Military drill for boys.	3	Common gymnastic exercises and Sports. Military drill for boys.	3	Common gymnastic exercises and Sports. Military drill for boys.
Sewing.		4	Sewing, Mending, and Cutting of common garments.	4	Sewing, Mending and Cutting of common garments.	4	Sewing, Mending and Cutting of common garments.
Manual Work.		2 for boys. 1 for girls.	Easy Workmanship.	2 for boys. 1 for girls.	Easy Workmanship.	2 for boys. 1 for girls.	Easy Workmanship.
Agriculture.		2	Agriculture. General principles of agriculture. Aquatic Products. General principles of aquatic products.	2	Agriculture. General principles of agriculture. Aquatic products. General principles of aquatic products.	2 for boys. 1 for girls.	Agriculture. General principles of agriculture. Aquatic Products. General principles of aquatic products.
Commerce.		2	General principles of Commerce.	2	General Principles of Commerce.	1 for boys. 1 for girls.	General Principles of Commerce.
English Language.			Reading, writing, spelling and conversation.		Reading, writing, spelling and conversation.		Reading, writing, spelling and conversation.
Total.		28 for boys. 20 for girls.		28 for boys. 20 for girls.		28 for boys. 20 for girls.	



Thus deprived of their lands and allowances, it seemed hopeless for many of these temples to maintain their existence. If they had been left in this condition, famous temples would have gone to decay, and their artistic treasures, would have been scattered abroad. Seeing this, the government issued, in 1896, the Law for the Preservation of Old Shinto Shrines and Buddhist Temples.

By the provisions of this law, those old shrines or temples, which cannot maintain and keep in repair their buildings, with the artistic treasures which they contain, may submit to the Minister for Home Affairs a written application for the pecuniary assistance needed for the purpose in question.

The Home Minister, with the approval of the Committee for the Preservation of Old Shrines and Temples, shall then register those shrines or temples, together with such of their artistic treasures as are valuable for historical reference or as examples of fine art, as buildings requiring special protection or as national treasures. These buildings and treasures, when once registered, cannot be disposed of by those connected with the shrines or temples in question, while there is the further obligation of exhibiting the treasures in the government or public museums at the order of the Home Minister.

Since the promulgation of this law, many shrines and temple buildings throughout the Empire have been registered in accordance with its regulations, and many buildings have already been repaired with money given by the government under the provisions of this law. Also their treasures have been exhibited at Tokyo, Kyoto and Nara in the Imperial Museums established in these cities by the Department of the Imperial Household.

As regards the artistic treasures belonging to noble families, those which are especially to be handed down to their descendants, may be annexed to their hereditary properties in accordance with the Noblemen's Hereditary Property Law, issued in 1886. These treasures, when once registered, cannot be sold, given away or pawned. Noble families are expected to from time to time open their treasure-houses and exhibit the contents to those who have





a special interest in such matters or they may be caused to exhibit the treasures to the public at museums.

## (2) How are Artists trained?

### (a) THE TOKYO FINE ART SCHOOL.

With the Restoration of the Imperial Rule, and the fall of the Tokugawa government, the feudal system came to an end, and all the barons returned their hereditary domains to the Emperor. Consequently, the country was full of "*samurai*" without the means of living, and merchants and artificers without occupation. There were other troubles, too, both at home and abroad. The consequence was, that nobody in Japan would look at works of fine art, and precious specimens of art and famous old pictures were regarded as having little more value than so much rubbish.

Before long, however, peaceful times returned; but even so people's minds were turned towards the advancement of their own interest, and they were busy assimilating the material civilization of the West, so that nobody would turn his attention to works of art. The poverty and destitution of artists and artificers—especially those who were engaged in painting and metal work—were beyond description.

In 1873, an International Exhibition was held at Vienna. The Japanese representatives who had gone to that exhibition, returned with their minds stored with knowledge concerning the industrial arts, and in the report presented by them to the government, the words "fine art" occurred. As Western civilization gradually made progress in Japan, the importance both of the fine arts and industrial art came to be appreciated. In 1876, the Kōbu-daigaku was founded, and in that institution a course of fine art was provided, in which instruction in European painting and sculpture was given by an Italian teacher. But in 1884 the Kōbu-daigaku was closed. In 1885, the Department of Education appointed a committee to inquire into (a) the method of teaching drawing; (b) the compilation of text-books for drawing; (c) how to train teachers of drawing, in connection with general education. In the following year, the principal members



of the committee were sent to Europe and America to make inquiries regarding the subjects above mentioned. In 1888, the Tokyo Fine Art School was organized. The object of this school was to teach Japanese painting, Japanese sculpture and the Japanese industrial arts, and at the same time to train teachers of drawing in connection with general education.

In 1896, a course of European painting was added, and in 1896, modelling was added to the course of sculpture. In 1907, a normal course of drawing was established in the school, and the system of training teachers of drawing up to this time pursued was abolished.

This is the only fine art school established by government and it has at present eight courses, viz: Japanese painting, European painting, sculpture, designing, engraving on metal metal casting, and lacquering, and the normal course of drawing. The length of each course—except the normal course—is five years, while the normal course extends over three years. Applicants for admission must be the graduates of middle schools, who are admitted after an examination.

The subjects of study in each course, together with a general statement in regard to the teaching, will now be given.

#### COURSE OF JAPANESE PAINTING.

Classes. Subjects.	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	5th year
Practice .....	31	29	31	33	graduation work.
Anatomy .....	2	2	—	—	
Perspective .....	—	—	2	—	
Designing .....	—	2	—	—	
Aesthetics and History of Fine Art. } ..	2	2	2	—	
Archæology .....	—	—	2	—	
English or French } .....	2	2	2	2	
Gymnastics .....	2	2	2	2	

The study of Japanese painting is carried on in three





class-rooms, in each of which there is a professor in charge of the room, and a student may enter whichever of these rooms he pleases, there to receive lessons in Japanese brush work. The lessons are divided into copying, sketching and designing. Copying begins with pictures drawn or painted by professors of the school or by famous painters of former days, the work proceeding from simple examples gradually on to more complex ones. The art of composition and the use of the brush are chiefly taught.

Copying is taught to the students of the 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th year classes.

Sketching—In the beginning, plants, flowers and fruit are given to the students for sketching. Next, insects, fish, birds and animals are brought into the class-room for sketching; or the students are taken to the Zoological Gardens, where they have to sketch the insects, fish, birds and animals that they see there. As the skill of the student gradually matures, a living human model is given him to sketch. The model is made to put on ancient armour or the fashionable dress of the present period. Sketching is also taught to the students of the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th year classes.

Designing—Turning to account the power of copying and sketching already acquired, the student has now to prepare a picture of his own design, on a subject given by his teacher. This is done in the 2nd, 3rd, and 4th year classes, and in the 5th or last year he is required to paint a graduation picture of some new design.

#### COURSE OF EUROPEAN PAINTING.

Classes. Subjects.	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	graduation year
Practice .....	31	29	29	33	graduation work.
Anatomy .....	2	2	—	—	
Perspective .....	—	—	2	—	
Aesthetics and History of Fine Art. }	2	2	4	—	
Archæology .....	—	2	2	—	



Subjects. \ Classes.	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	graduation year
English or } French }	2	2	2	2	
Gymnastics	2	2	2	2	

Instruction in European painting is given in three class-rooms, charcoal drawing and painting in oils being chiefly taught, while drawing with the pencil and in water-colours are also taught in addition.

The first class-room is for the 1st and 2nd year students, to whom instruction in charcoal drawing is given. In the 1st year the student has to copy specimens and to sketch plaster figures with charcoal, according to the measure of his ability.

In the 2nd year the student has to sketch the human body in addition to the plaster figures. He has also to draw the still objects and landscapes with pencil, in water-colours, and in oils. The 2nd and 3rd class-rooms are for the students of the 3rd, the 4th, and the 5th or graduation year. The student has to sketch the human body with charcoal and in oils, and as the year advances, the hours allotted to charcoal drawing are decreased, while those for oil painting are increased—the object of charcoal drawing being to teach the student to draw the forms of things correctly and so form a preparatory study to oil painting. Besides this, the student in the third year has to rapidly make pencil sketches of human beings in various postures, and has to draw still objects and landscapes in both water colours and oils.

In the 4th year, the student is instructed, as in the preceding year, in making quick pencil sketches of human being in various postures. Instead of sketching common stationary objects, the student has to make pencil drawings showing the various details of dress, with folds and wrinkles, etc. In painting landscapes, the student must work in oils only, and he must paint, from time to time, pictures of his own design on historical and ordinary subjects.

In the 5th year the student has to draw, with charcoal and



in water colours, various articles, plants, flowers, and men, making use of these sketches, the student has now to paint ornamental pictures of his own design, dispensing with the sketches of clothing taught in the preceding year. While engaged in this work, he has also to paint his graduation picture.

In each year, student has to produce competitive work, three or four times, in connection with what they have been taught, and by means of these productions the relative skill of the students is determined.

### COURSE OF SCULPTURE.

Classes. Subjects.	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	Graduation year
Practice .....	27	27	27	33	graduation work.
Painting .....	4	4	—	—	
Anatomy .....	2	2	—	—	
Perspective .....	—	—	2	—	
Aesthetics & History of Fine art. }	2	—	4	2	
Archæology .....	—	2	2	—	
English or French .....	2	2	2	2	
Gymnastics .....	2	2	2	2	

The Course of Sculpture is subdivided into the three departments of modelling, wood carving and ivory carving.

In the modelling department, the students are throughout the course of five years, taught the art of sculpture by the shaping of figures out of modelling materials. At first, slightly finished ornamental articles made of plaster, and models of plants and animals are given to the students, who have to copy them in modelling materials. As the skill of the students advances, animals and busts are given them to copy.

In all classes above the second year, animals are brought into the class-room, or the student is taken to the Zoological Gardens, where he is taught to make figures of the animals in modelling



materials. As the skill of the student advances, the living human model is given him to copy. The model puts on various costumes and assumes various attitudes and the student has to reproduce these in modelling materials.

In the departments of wood carving and ivory carving, the process of teaching is very much the same as in the modelling department.

From the first year up to the fourth, the student may choose either of these two courses. In the class room, he has to copy either ancient models or those of his teacher, or he may produce articles from his own design. During a part of the time allotted for practice, he has to learn how to shape things out of modelling materials.

#### COURSE OF DESIGNING.

Classes. Subjects.	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	Graduation year
Practice .....	14	14	16	15	Graduation work.
Painting .....	9	9	9	9	
Designing .....	—	2	—	—	
Architecture .....	4	4	4	3	
Industrial Art Manufactures. } .....	4	4	4	3	
Perspective .....	2	—	—	—	
Mechanical Drawing ....	—	—	—	3	
Aesthetics & History of Fine art } .....	2	2	—	2	
Archæology .....	—	—	2	—	
English or French	2	2	2	2	
Gymnastics .....	2	2	2	2	

Two rooms are allotted to this course, in which designing of every kind in connection with industrial art and the decoration of buildings are the subjects taught.

The practice of this course is subdivided into practice in designing, painting and modelling.



In the teaching of practical designing, typical designs belonging to the industrial arts and decoration of all ages both in Japan and in other countries, are given to the students, and from the study of these, they are required to prepare designs of their own. Forms of designing, designs, and the distribution of colours in all ages are taught to the students, and they are required to sketch animals and plants, and afterwards to make designs of their own in the composition of which the sketches made are to be used.

### COURSE OF METAL WORK.

Classes. Subjects.	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	Graduation year
Practice .....	30	26	28	28	graduation work
Painting .....	4	4	4	4	
Designing .....	—	2	—	—	
History of metal work and its execution } ..	1	1	—	1	
Chemical Technology....	—	2	3	—	
English or French .....	2	2	2	2	
Gymnastics .....	2	2	2	2	

Two rooms are provided for this course, in which engraving on metals and hammered metal work are respectively taught. The former consists of incising all kinds of metals or alloys with a chisel, and the latter of beating metals and alloys into various forms with a hammer. In metal chasing, the instruction begins with the use of the chisel. In the first year, a model is given, and the student begins with carving straight and curved lines, and then by the use of these lines, he has to cut symbolical figures, and other figures of his own design on metals. As he becomes more skilful, he is instructed in the art of "Katabori" (carving in one direction only), inlaying with other metals, chasing on gold, etc. Subjects are given, from time to time, to students, for work of their own designing.

Instruction in hammering metals begins with the hammering



of iron and copper into articles of some simple form. With increased skill, the student is taught to hammer out vases, incense burners and similar articles, till he advances to figures of insects, fishes, birds and animals. Making use of all that he has hitherto learned, the student has to produce a piece of graduation work.

### COURSE OF METAL CASTING.

Classes. Subjects.	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	Graduation year
Practice .....	22	26	28	28	graduation work.
Modelling .....	8	—	—	—	
Painting .....	4	4	4	4	
Designing .....	—	2	—	—	
History of metal work and its execution } ..	1	1	—	—	
Chemical Technology...	—	2	3	—	
Outlines of Mechanics	—	—	—	2	
English or French .....	2	2	2	2	
Gymnastics .....	2	2	2	2	

For use in the course of metal casting, a cleaning class-room, a wax-model class-room, a colour-imparting class-room, and a casting workshop are provided.

Instruction in metal casting consists of teaching the method of modelling the original forms of decorative articles, figures, and the like, in clay or wax for casting, and the art of imparting colour to these things when they have been cast.

At first, the student has to cast simple, roughly finished plates, after a model, but as he grows in skill, he casts articles of his own design, and casts figures of birds, animals, or men from sketches of his own. The student is also required to produce graduation work.



### COURSE OF LACQUER WORK.

Classes. Subjects.	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	Graduation year
Practice .....	30	26	26	30	graduation work.
Painting .....	4	4	4	4	
Designing .....	—	2	—	—	
History of lacquer work and its manufacture }	1	1	—	—	
Archæology .....	—	—	2	—	
Chemical Technology....	—	2	3	—	
English or French .....	2	2	2	2	
Gymnastics .....	2	2	2	2	

In the course of lacquer work class-rooms are provided for “makiye” (painting in gold and other materials), and for the preparation of lacquer.

In these rooms, the instruction given relates chiefly to the art of painting in gold, and the way of laying on lacquer.

In the practice of “makiye,” the student at first paint simple plane surfaces and embossed pictures on plates, and then follows the painting on articles.

In the practice of preparing lacquer, the students are taught the method of preparing wax and other coloured lacquers.

In the special technical courses described above, there are regular students and elective students. Besides these, there are graduates of the school who still remain as post-graduate students, in order to continue their studies. The following table shows the number of all these students.



Students. Course of Study.	Regular Course.	Elective Course.	Post-Graduate Course.	Total.
Japanese Painting ..	75	28	12	115
European Painting ..	129	19	15	163
Sculpture .....	40	24	10	74
Designing .....	46	—	—	46
Metal Work .....	18	10	—	28
Metal Casting .....	13	1	3	17
Lacquer Work .....	19	6	1	26
Total .....	339	88	42	469

(b) THE KYOTO SPECIAL SCHOOL OF  
 PAINTING AND “KAJUKU.”

Kyoto was the former capital of our empire, and it is still regarded as the centre of the fine arts in Japan. Of the numerous cities in Japan, Kyoto is the only one that can rival Tokyo in the point of fine art. In 1880, a school of painting was established in that city, at a time when Tokyo had no schools of the kind. The younger artists of Kyoto at the present time were most of them trained in that school.

After undergoing many changes, in 1908, the standard of the institution was raised to the level of the course of Japanese painting in the Tokyo Fine Art School, and the institution assumed its present name, “The Special School of Painting.”

Though there are only two schools,—the Tokyo Fine Art School and the Kyoto Special School of Painting,—for the training of artists, various well-known Japanese painters of Tokyo and Kyoto have established “Kajuku,” art studios, in which young artists are taught painting. Many of our young artists were trained in such “Kajuku.” There are also many noted European painters, sculptors, and artificers in metal or lacquer work who have established “Kenkyū-jo” (institutes) or “Kajuku” where pupils are taught.



(c) NORMAL COURSE OF DRAWING.

The only provision made for the training of teachers of drawing for normal, middle, and high girls' schools, is the normal course of drawing in the Tokyo Fine Art School and the special course of drawing and handicraft in the Tokyo Higher Normal School. The latter is, however, only a temporary arrangement, and the former school is the only permanent institution of the kind in Japan.

The subjects taught in the normal course of drawing in the Tokyo Fine Art School is as follows:—

Subjects.	Classes.	1st year	2nd year	3rd year
Ethics .....		1	1	1
Pedagogy and the Art of Teaching } .....		2	2	2
Aesthetics and History of Fine Art } .....		2	2	2
Anatomy .....		2	—	—
Designing .....		—	2	—
Free-hand drawing .....		19	19	18
Mechanical drawing.....		3	3	2
Handicraft .....		4	4	2
Handwriting .....		2	2	—
English .....		2	2	—
Practice in teaching.....		—	—	10
Gymnastics.....		2	2	2

As the normal course of drawing has for its object the training of teachers of drawing for the purposes of general education, the students of this course should be possessed not only of artistic powers, but of the knowledge and character essential to educators. Consequently, from amongst those applicants who are the graduates of normal and middle schools, and who are recommended by local governors, those are selected for admission who are found, upon inquiry, to be of exceptional scholarship and good character, and



the school expenses of these students are paid by the government. There are at present sixty of these students.

The details of the course of study in the normal course are as follows :—

Ethics—Practical morality and general outline of ethics.

Pedagogy and the art of teaching—Pedagogy, theoretical and practical; history of education; school hygiene; art of teaching.

Aesthetics and History of Fine Art—History of fine art in the East—for the 1st year class.

History of fine art in the West—for the 2nd year class.

Aesthetics—for the 3rd year class.

Anatomy—General outline of the skeleton and muscles.

Designing—chiefly plane designs with a small amount of solid designing.

Free-hand drawing—charcoal drawing, pencil drawing, Japanese brush work, water colour drawing.

Drawing from plaster models, specimens, or other objects and shading and colouring are taught, chiefly with a view to sketching, while there is also training in rough sketching and the exercise of artistic conception.

In the 2nd and 3rd years, black board exercises are added, while in the third year the practice of teaching is the chief end in view, the students being required to prepare plans of teaching for all the classes in schools of primary and secondary grade.

Mechanical drawing—Plane drawing, projection drawing, geometrical drawing, perspective drawing, and shade and shadow. The students have to practice on subjects given by the teacher.

Handicraft—Clay work, paper cutting, thick paper work—in the 1st year. Wood work and metal work—in the 2nd and 3rd years.

The theory of handicraft and the art of teaching are taught during the time allotted to practice.

#### (d) DRAWING IN RELATION TO GENERAL EDUCATION.

Since the establishment of the educational system in 1872, drawing, as a part of general education, has been reckoned as



one of the courses of study to be provided in elementary schools. But it was not actually instituted until the issue of the Elementary School Ordinance in 1880. The regulations of that Ordinance provided that there should be a course of drawing in elementary schools, where the local circumstances made this desirable. Consequently, in a few schools this course was established, but most schools did not have it.

After many changes, the present elementary school system came into existence, and at present drawing is taught as one of the regular courses in all classes from the 3rd year class of ordinary elementary schools up to the 2nd year class of higher elementary schools. In the 1st and 2nd year classes of the ordinary elementary school, the provision of this course is to depend upon circumstances.

In the regulations enforcing the Elementary School Ordinance, it is stated :—

“The object of drawing is to give the pupil the capacity of rightly seeing the forms of things and of drawing them correctly on paper, and at the same time to inspire him with elevated feelings. In the ordinary elementary school, beginning with lines, the teaching goes gradually up to simple and complex forms and the child is required, by the use of straight and curved lines, to draw things of his own invention. In higher elementary schools, the child continues, in the beginning, the course he has hitherto been following in the ordinary elementary school, and as he gradually advances, he draws pictures from examples given him to copy, or from the actual objects, and from time to time he has to draw pictures of his own invention. Where the circumstances of the locality make this desirable, mechanical drawing may also be taught. In teaching drawing, the teacher is to give the child a copy representing something about which the child has learned more or less in other courses of study, or which he sees every day. In teaching drawing, the teacher must be careful to foster habits of cleanliness and of close observation in his pupil.”

Acting on these principles, the Department of Education compiled text-books of drawing, and distributed them throughout the country.



In the middle schools and high girls' schools, drawing is one of the regular courses of study and the Department of Education has made the following statement in regard to its objects:—

“Drawing gives the student the habit of close observation, enables him to represent, correctly and easily the forms of things he has seen; it strengthens his powers of invention and inspires him with elevated feelings. Drawing is divided into free-hand drawing and mechanical drawing. In the former, the power to sketch is made the chief object, but copying is also taught. The student is to draw, from time to time, pictures of his own designing. In mechanical drawing, descriptive drawing is taught.” From this it will be seen what an important place drawing holds in the primary and secondary systems of education in Japan.

### (3) Competition in Fine Art.

#### (a) THE PUBLIC FINE ART EXHIBITION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

To exhibit to the public the works of living artists, with just and discriminating criticisms attached to them, is calculated to be the best means of elevating the aesthetic ideas of the Japanese people. This would also afford encouragement to the artists themselves, and greatly promote their skill.

In 1877, a Domestic Industrial Exhibition was held in Tokyo at the suggestion of the late Mr. Ōkubo, then Minister of Home Affairs. In that exhibition, one building was assigned to fine arts, and a competitive exhibition of the fine arts was held there for the first time in Japan. It was then decided that a domestic industrial exhibition should be held every five years. In 1882 and in 1884, an exhibition of paintings was held in Tokyo by the government. In 1887, the Japanese Fine Art Association was organized. Since then the Tokyo Metal Workers' Association, the Tokyo Lacquer Ware Association, and the Tokyo Sculptors' Association have come into existence in rapid succession. Besides these, small associations of Japanese painters and of European painters were also organized. As these minor associations, held public competitive



exhibitions, there was a succession of exhibitions all the year round, and people consequently got tired of them, and made light of them.

Regretting this state of things, Baron Makino, then Minister of Education, held the Education Department's first public exhibition of works of fine art at Uyeno, in October, 1907. The exhibition consisted of the three departments of Japanese paintings, European paintings, and sculpture. Having appointed certain noted artists and leading fine art critics as examiners, a great number of exhibits that had been sent in were subjected to a careful examination, and only the best examples were exhibited at Uyeno. The exhibition galleries also underwent careful preparation, with the result that both the public and the artists were satisfied, and expressed their gratitude towards the Minister of Education. This kind of exhibition has been held in succeeding years, from October to November, with increasing success. Encouraged by this, young artists have made great efforts to produce good work for exhibition, year by year, and a great impetus has been given to the progress of the fine arts.

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## II. MUSIC.

At the dawn of our history, we find a clear distinction made between vocal and instrumental music. However rude and imperfect it may have been, Japanese music is as old as the national life, if not older; but intercourse with China and Corea, led to the introduction into Japan of music from those countries. The new melodies, which doubtless contained some Hindoo elements, were welcomed by the Imperial Court, and by persons belonging to the higher circles. They grew so much in favour that they at last became incorporated with, or were metamorphosed into native tunes, which led to fresh developments, and the *Gagaku* ("elegant music") of the Imperial Court is undoubtedly the outcome of this process of assimilation. The foreign melodies, and tunes invented in imitation thereof, by Japanese, combined with the *Kagura* and *Saibara*, as the native tunes used for religious purposes were called, gave birth to a very exalted class of music. Our musical instruments, used in connection therewith, have been similar in principle, to those of a foreign orchestra.

When feudalism placed the temporal power in the hands of the *Samurai* class, it pleased Apollo to favour the valiant sons of the "Land of the Rising Sun" in their invention of new tunes, rich, harmonious and inspiring. The music was of two kinds, viz: *utai* and *kōwaka* or *saiwaka*. Accompanied with gestures, the former becomes the 'Nō' dance, and, the latter the 'Mai' dance. They may both be called opera dances. Besides these aristocratic kinds of music, there were many common songs, and tunes which were played on various instruments. During the period of the Tokugawa Shogunate, a musical instrument called *samisen* came into fashion, and various kinds of music, such as *jōruri*, *nagauta*, *haute*, etc., were played upon it. This *samisen* music may without question be termed the music of Japan.

Music, however, was never taught as a part of the regular course in Japanese schools, this idea having been adopted from abroad, after the Restoration. When the "Code of Education"





was issued in the fifth year of Meiji (1872), music was made one of the courses of elementary schools. But, the native airs not being quite suited to the purpose, this kind of music remained untaught, for the time being. In the twelfth year of the new regime (1879), the Department of Education instituted a Board for the Investigation of Music, and in the year following, an American professor of music, Luther Whiting Mason, was engaged. He took up the work of investigation and also taught foreign music to a small class of boys and girls, who were collected by the authorities. At that time the greatest attention was paid, with good results, to the selection of materials for the composing of songs for use in the music course of elementary schools, and to the method of teaching songs. The value of music, as one of the school courses, soon came to be recognized by the public; and in the twentieth year of Meiji (1887) an independent institution was founded in a quiet and attractive part of the metropolis, under the name of the Tokyo Academy of Music. There is an annual increase in the endowment of the school, and its extension is kept steadily in view. Good foreign professors of music are constantly employed, while pupils who display talent are sent abroad for study.

The Tokyo Academy of Music may justly be regarded as the one refreshing source of those melodies which sweeten the whole system of our otherwise dry school education. The curriculum is similar to that of European schools of art. It is divided into two courses, one of which is for professional musicians, while the other is for the purpose of training teachers of music. The former is called the regular course, and the latter, the normal course. To each course students of both sexes are admitted, to the number of about one hundred and fifty. There are also elective pupils, some four hundred in all. Two concerts are held every year; one in spring, and the other in autumn, at which European masterpieces are sung and played before mixed audiences of Japanese and foreigners, with unfailing success.

The teachers of music in normal and high schools for girls, are mostly graduates from the normal course of this Academy and their unquestionable ability is being increasingly recognized.





The elementary school music also is improving, as a result of this, year by year, and this assists, to no small degree, in the elevation and full development of the rising generation.

In this Academy, there is a "Committee for Native Music," the chief work of which consists in the examination on a scientific basis, of native music, with a view to preserving what in it is found worthy, and discovering in it the essential materials, out of which, combined with good foreign elements, may be built up a distinctively unique national music. In addition, attention is paid to the coining of technical musical terms, and the compilation of text books for elementary schools, middle schools, high schools for girls, normal schools, etc.

In Tokyo, there are a few private schools which teach foreign music, but no school is in existence which teaches Japanese music. Students and admirers of this must all resort to the houses of their respective music masters, there to have their tastes satisfied in private. Schools for actors and actresses have, however, recently come into existence, and at these native music is taught somewhat after the school system.

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## PART IX.

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# EDUCATION OF THE BLIND AND DUMB.

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The blind and the dumb among us have ever been held as objects of pity, like all other helpless beings. The Imperial Court had bestowed some share of attention on their relief; but no deliberate aid had been devised until, in 1878, the first school for the blind and dumb was established in Kyoto under the name of Kyoto Mō-a-in (Institute for the Blind and Dumb). It was followed soon after by others of different kinds, established either by the government or by public and private enterprise. There are at present 1 government, 2 public and 35 private schools, making 38 in all, and containing 1,679 pupils in the aggregate.

One thing to be noted about these blind and dumb people is their mode of obtaining an independent livelihood. Although the dumb have not been altogether helpless, there being many among them who can manage to earn a living by the handicrafts they have acquired, the blind with us form quite a class by themselves, having a monopoly of some occupations peculiar to them. Such are massage, acupuncture, music, &c., of which the chief one, massage, is carried on to an extent unknown in Europe and America. There have been some blind persons of such retentive memory and extensive learning as to have attained undying fame by compiling voluminous histories and other elaborate works. These are instances well worthy of notice.

The government regulations relating to the education of the blind and dumb point out simply the object and the necessary equipment of such schools, as shown in the following articles, plans and arrangement being left to the discretion of the founders or managers.

1. The object of blind and dumb schools is to teach blind and dumb youths such things as may enable them to earn their living.





2. Such schools are, with regard to establishment and maintenance, classed with elementary schools.

3. The officials are the director and teachers. The teachers must possess the same qualifications as those of elementary schools or be licensed as such by the local governor. The rules as to appointment and dismissal are also the same.

In a school of public establishment, the teachers are ranked as *hannin*, but they do not share in the privileges of the regular elementary teachers.

Of this kind of schools, the two most conspicuous as to their history, standing, and the results attained, are the Tokyo Blind and Dumb School, and the Kyoto Institute for the Blind and Dumb.

#### 1. TOKYO BLIND AND DUMB SCHOOL.

The foundation of this school is due to a society of six gentlemen named Rakuzenkwaï, who started a scheme for the education of the blind in Tokyo, in 1874-5. The enterprise was approved by the Imperial Court, and a grant of money was made for its aid from the Imperial Treasury. In 1880, a school named Kunmōin (Institute for the Blind) was established in which the dumb also were taught. In 1884, the name was altered to the Institute for the Blind and Dumb, and in the following year, the school came under the control of the Department of Education. In 1887, it assumed its present designation. It has since been gradually extended and improved, and considerable results have been attained owing to the indefatigable efforts of the men in charge, in devising various methods of teaching, and improved appliances, and owing to the appreciation and sympathy of the Imperial Court and of various gentlemen and ladies interested in the work of charity. The material aid afforded by their contributions gives great encouragement to the work of the school.

The Course of Instruction.—The object of the school is to give instruction to the blind and dumb, so as to enable them to earn a livelihood. There are two courses, the ordinary and the industrial. The pupils are at liberty to choose one or two of the subjects in the two courses. They are also allowed to study exclusively the subjects in the ordinary course, or one of the subjects in the industrial course, according to the wish of their parents or guardians.



The subjects of study in the ordinary course for the blind are Japanese, Arithmetic, Conversation and Gymnastics, and those in the industrial course are Music, Acupuncture and Massage.

The ordinary course for dumb pupils includes Reading, Writing, Composition, Arithmetic, Written Conversation and Gymnastics, and the industrial course, Drawing, Carving, Joinery and Sewing.

ORDINARY COURSE FOR THE BLIND { Point letters to be used in making phrases. In Arithmetic, Mental Exercises & Use of Abacus.

School Year. Subject of Study.	First Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.	Fourth Year.	Fifth year.
Japanese	Point letters, Elementary Sounds, <i>Katakana</i> , Names of Objects, Hearing of phrases, etc.	Meaning & Use of Words, Hearing & Composition.	The same & Hearing & Composition of Familiar Letters & Current Expressions.	The same & Poetry.	The same.
Arithmetic	Counting, Addition & Subtraction.	Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication.	Multiplication, Division, Weights, Measures & Money.	Problems on the same.	The same.
Lectures	Morals & Etiquette, Conversations on Directions, Road, Drains, etc.	The same & Conversations on Geography.	The same & Conversations on History, Geography, & Natural Science.	The same & Directions on daily conduct of life.	The same.
Gymnastics	Sports & Gesture.	Exercises without Apparatus.	do.	do.	do.

#### INDUSTRIAL COURSE FOR THE BLIND

Music	<i>Koto</i> , <i>Samisen</i> , Organ, Singing, First art.	do.	do.	do.	do.
Acupuncture		Second & Third art.	Fourth art, Naming of different regions of the human body.	Fifth art, Anatomy & Physiology.	Practice, Classification of Diseases.
Massage	Shampooing, Anatomy & Physiology.	The same & Shampooing of abdominal regions.	Practice.		



ORDINARY COURSE FOR THE DUMB { Reading, Pronunciation & Oral Expressions to be taught to some pupils only.

School Year. Subject of Study.	First Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.	Fourth Year.	Fifth Year.
Reading	<i>Katakana, Hiragana, Numerals, Vocabulary, Expression of Phrases.</i>	Words in <i>Kana</i> , Phrases. Words in 'Chinese characters, oral exercises on easy phrases.	The same & Composition in <i>Kana</i> & characters.	Notes & Letters, short composition & oral exercise.	The same & Letter-writing.
Writing	<i>Katakana, Hiragana, Words in Kana.</i>	The same & some Chinese characters.	Two styles of writing of Proper Names.	Notes & letters in two styles.	Letters in two styles.
Composition	Words & Phrases in <i>Kana</i> .	The same & Chinese characters.	Composition in <i>Kana</i> & characters.	Notes & letters.	Letter-writing.
Arithmetic	Counting, Addition, Subtraction.	Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication.	Multiplication, Division, Money, Weights & Measures.	Division & Problems.	Problems.
Written Conversation		Colloquial Phrases.	Conversation on Physics.	Conversation on Geography & Physics.	Conversation on History & Natural Science.
Gymnastics	Sports & Gesture.	Sports & Exercises with or without apparatus.	The same.	The same.	The same.

INDUSTRIAL COURSE FOR THE DUMB

Drawing	Ornamental lines, shading & colouring.	Birds, flowers & beasts & Ornamental Designs.	Scenes & Characters, Copying & Designing.	Drawing from nature (Scenes & Characters).	The same.
Engraving	Use of tools & Making of small boxes.	Boxes, Trays & Ornamental Pieces.	Birds, flowers and beasts in relief.	Figures of birds & beasts, Scenes in relief, Plastic work.	Human figures, in whole or in relief-plastic work.
Carving		The same & Boxes & Trays.	Tables & chests of drawers.	Tables & Shelves.	The same in hard wood.
Sewing.	Use of needles, Sewing of under-wear.	Under-wear, garments unlined or stuffed.	Garments lined or stuffed <i>Haori</i> (coat) <i>Haikama</i> , <i>Obi</i> , &c.	<i>Haori</i> , <i>Haikama</i> , <i>Obi</i> , <i>Tabi</i> (socks), Drawers, &c.	The same & Night clothes, &c.





In reference to the foregoing schedule, the following points may be noted :—

1. That K. Ishikawa, an instructor of this school, succeeded in applying the Braille's points system to our *Kana* syllabary in 1890, since which time recitation and oral lessons have given place to lectures and dictation with point letters, and the method of teaching the blind has, in consequence, undergone a complete change.

2. That acupuncture being a medical art peculiar to our country, and having been for a long time the occupation for the blind, it has, together with massage and *Koto* playing, been introduced into the industrial course for the blind, along with some principles of anatomy, physiology and hygiene.

3. That reading, pronunciation and conversation are taught by Bell's system of visible speech to those dumb pupils only in the ordinary course who are quick enough to learn. It is not taught all of them for the following reason: Our characters in common use having been originally introduced from China, and subsequently developed in this country, have each several pronunciations and almost as many or more meanings, and each has three forms in writing; moreover, the spoken and written languages are entirely different, and a great variety of styles are used in composition, so that the task of teaching the language is beset by overwhelming difficulties, and some of the pupils would make little or no progress in pronunciation and reading.



*Point System for the Japanese Syllabary adapted from Braille's System, by K. Ishikawa, Assistant-Instructor in the Tokyo Blind and Dumb School.*

ア a カ ka サ sa タ ta ナ na ハ ha マ ma ヤ ya ラ ra ワ wa ン n

イ i キ ki シ shi チ chi ニ ni ヒ hi ミ mi リ ri ギ gi

ウ u ク ku ス su ツ tsu ヌ nu フ fu ム mu ユ yu ル ru

エ e ケ ke セ se テ te ネ ne ヘ he メ me レ re エ e

オ o コ ko ソ so ト to ノ no ホ ho モ mo ヨ yo ロ ro ワ wo

ガ ga ザ za ダ da バ ba パ pa

ギ gi ジ ji チ di ビ bi ピ pi

グ gu ズ zu ヅ du ブ bu プ pu

ゲ ge ゼ ze デ de ベ be ペ pe

ゴ go ゾ zo ド do ボ bo ポ po

*The Braille Numeral Characters are adopted.*

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0





The school period, as shown in the foregoing schedule, is five years, excepting in the Massage course, for which three years are sufficient. The graduates who wish to review or supplement the lessons they have learned are allowed to remain in the school for a term of not more than two years. The school hours are six per day, but five for the special students in the ordinary course, and three for the special students of massage. A course was instituted in 1903, for the training of teachers for blind and dumb schools.

**Officials.**—The officials of this school are the director, 2 instructors, 16 teachers, and 4 clerks, besides some temporary employés. There is an advisory committee to which are to be referred matters relating to the course of instruction, and other matters of importance.

**Pupils.**—New pupils are admitted annually, in April. They must be aged from 10 to 16, and be in good health. Such good pupils as may be taken as models for the others are given pecuniary assistance. All the pupils receive tuition free of charge.

The present number of pupils is 356, of whom 227 are male and 129 are female pupils.

They are classified as follows:—

THE BLIND.				THE DUMB.			
	Males.	Females	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	
Ordinary Course.	83	19	102	103	83	186	
				17*	12*	29*	
				Drawing	{ 5 9*	{ 3 0 9	
Industrial Course.	{ Koto-playing	2	9	11	Joinery	{ 9 5*	{ 0 0 0
		6*	10*	16*		{ 5*	
	{ Acupuncture & Massage}	19	—	19	Sewing	{ 4 7*	{ 15 12* 19
		75*	9*	84*		{ 7*	
Total :	104	28	132	123	101	224	
	81*	19*	100*	38*	24*	62*	

\* shows the number of pupils in the ordinary course taking such subjects as additional.



OCCUPATIONS OF THE BLIND GRADUATES.

Subjects of Study.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		11
											Total.	Grand Total.	
Occupations.		Ordinary Course, Acupuncture & Massage.	Ordinary Course.	Acupuncture & Massage.	Ordinary Course, Music.	Music.	Ordinary Course, Acupuncture, Massage & Music.	Acupuncture, Massage & Music.	Shampooing & Music.	Ordinary Course, Shampooing.	Males.	Females.	
1	Acupuncture & Massage.	29	2								38		38
2	Teaching the blind.	20		2	1 fem.		1				24	1	25
3	Hospital Shampooing.	10		3							13		13
4	Teaching Koto-Music.				4 fem	1 fem		1			4	5	9
5	Upholstering.				6	2							
6	In Domestic Employment.					1					1		1
7	Biwa-Music playing.	1			1 fem							1	1
8	Poultry-raising.		1								1		1
9	Special Study of Acupuncture & Massage.		10								10		10
10	Reviewing Koto Lessons.				1 fem	2 fem					1	4	5
11	Reviewing Lessons in Acupuncture and Massage.	1			2	3					1		1
12	Special Study of Koto.		1								1		1
13	Sick.		1						1		1		1
14	Dead.	13 fem.	4	6	1	1 fem				1	28	1	29
15	Unknown.	1	1			3 fem					1	2	3
16	Total.	Males.	74	20	18	4	5	1	1	1	1	35	
		Females.	1			8	5						14
17	Grand Total.	75	20	18	12	10	1	1	1	1			139

N. B. From the 9th line to the 12th the students shewn are at school; and those in Domestic Employment are married females.



An investigation has been made into the causes that led to the loss of sight and speech in the cases of the pupils of this school, and the results obtained show that the causes are entirely different in the two cases—that of the blind, and that of deaf-mutes. Among the former there were only nine cases of congenital blindness, while among the latter, dumbness is congenital in the majority of cases, as appears in the tables annexed.

CAUSES OF BLINDNESS.

Causes.	Age.	Congenital.																		Total.		
		1 year.	2 years.	3 years.	4 years.	5 years.	6 years.	7 years.	8 years.	9 years.	10 years.	11 years.	12 years.	13 years.	14 years.	15 years.	16 years.	17 years.	18 years.		Unknown.	
1. Congenital.		9																				
2. Suppurative inflammation of Conjunctiva.		6		1		2	1						3	2	1	3	1		1	2	23	
3. Chancre.		1		3	3	2	2		1												12	
4. Congenital syphilis.		5	2	3															1		11	
5. Measles.		1	3		2	2	1														9	
6. Inflammation of cornea				1			1	1	1		2			2							8	
7. Amaurosis.			1	2				1		1	1	1									7	
8. Injury.				1		1													2		4	
9. Meningitis.			2		1																3	
10. Trachoma.								1		1			1								3	
11. Inflammation of Cornea itself.		1								1											2	
12. Inflam. of conjunctiva				1			1														2	
13. Convulsions.				2																	2	
14. Burnt by fire.				1			1														2	
15. Atrophy of the optic nerve.													1								1	
16. Swelling of cornea.		1																			1	
17. Brain disease.				1																	1	
18. Exhaustion of nerves of brain.																			1		1	
19. Ox-eye.		1																			1	
20. Extreme near-sightedness.										1											1	
21. Small-pox.		1																			1	
22. Retinitis.																		1			1	
23. Unknown.		11	1	2	7	1			1	1	1								1	1	27	
24. Total.		9	28	9	18	13	8	7	3	3	4	5	1	5	2	3	3	1	1	3	6	132





## CAUSES OF DUMBNESS.

[illegible]



### REMARKS.

1. The most common cause of the loss of sight in the blind has suppurative inflammation of conjunctiva; next comes chancre; and then congenital syphilis.
2. In most cases the loss of speech in the deaf-mutes was congenital; next comes as a cause meningitis, and then blow on the head.
3. Most of the blind lost their sight between the ages of eleven to eighteen years.
4. One of the dumb lost his speech at eleven years of age, but this happened to none over twelve.
5. In both cases, however, most of the blind or dumb became so between the first and the third year of their age, so persons in charge of nurseries should take warning by this.
6. With the blind but few were the offspring of a marriage between cousins; but with the dumb, 54 out of 224 were the fruit of such marriages, that is, a little over one-fourth.

### DEAF-MUTES BORN AS THE RESULT OF MARRIAGE BETWEEN NEAR RELATIONS.

No. of Pupils at school.		Born of married Relatives.		Between Uncle and Niece.		Between First Cousins.		Between Second Cousins.		Between more remote Relatives.		Total.	
		Number.	per cent.	Number.	per cent.	Number.	per cent.	Number.	per cent.	Number.	per cent.	Number.	per cent.
1. Males.	123			19	15.4	3	2.4	1	0.9	23	18.6		
2. Females.	101	1	0.9	21	20.7	7	6.9	2	1.9	31	30.6		
3. Total.	224	1	0.4	40	17.4	10	4.4	3	1.3	54	24.1		

It has been already remarked that thanks to the zeal and energy of the men in charge, and the sympathy and aid given by the public, the work of the school is showing satisfactory results. There is a dormitory attached to the school, where the pupils coming from distant places outside of Tokyo are allowed to live. The superintendent lives in the dormitory with his family and takes care of the boarders in a homely way in lieu of their parents or guardians.



The school has an endowment fund amounting to *yen* 162,658.16, consisting of *yen* 6,795.79 in cash, *yen* 115,055.00 in negotiable securities, *yen* 4,359.96 in land, and *yen* 36,447.41 in buildings. This fund, it is hoped, will grow larger in time and enable the school to maintain itself without support from the Government.

## 2. THE INSTITUTE FOR THE BLIND AND DUMB ESTABLISHED BY THE CITY OF KYOTO.

This Institute is the very first of the kind established in Japan. It was opened in 1878, was taken over by the city corporation the following year, and continues to the present time. The origin of this school was somewhat as follows: A teacher of an elementary school in Kyoto, Furukawa Tashiro by name, happened to have two dumb pupils under his care. Moved by compassion, he determined to devote his life to the education of the blind and the dumb. He bent all his energies to this kind of education, and invented various methods and contrivances for use in teaching. His school was fast growing when, in 1889, he fell sick and was obliged to resign. His successor was no less energetic in his efforts and the school continued to develop.

A new school house was recently built and the pupils at present number 74 in the blind and 155 in the dumb department. There are two courses of instruction—the ordinary and the special, for the blind as well as for the dumb. Each course extends over five years. The pupils are admitted between 6 and 20 years of age.

The originator of the school, it is said, from his long experience in teaching could discern clearly the nature of the blind and the dumb, and succeeded in discovering that there are four kinds of blind and five of dumb. The four kinds of blind are:—(1) Congenitally blind; (2) Grown blind through want of care in infancy; (3) Grown blind in consequence of wounds or disease, or unfavourable home surroundings at a later age; (4) Slightly sensible of light and darkness. The five kinds of dumb are:—(1) Congenitally dumb; (2) Dumb through neglect in infancy; (3) Dumb through deafness accompanied by defects in the vocal





organs, or where the vocal organs are injured ; (4) Dumb through injuries ; (5) Dumb in consequence of wounds or disease.

He made many important improvements in the mode of teaching morals, reading, composition, writing, arithmetic, history, geography, object lessons, mode of inference, physics, drawing, sewing, gymnastics, singing, &c.

In short, this Institute and the Tokyo Blind and Dumb School together form the centre of education for the blind and the dumb.

The graduates turned out by this institute are, by the latest statistics, 38 in number, 30 of whom are males, and 8 are females. Most of these are following some occupation.





## PART X.

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# LIBRARIES, MUSEUMS, EDUCATIONAL SOCIETIES, SCIENTIFIC ASSOCIATIONS, ETC.

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### I. Libraries.

There have been in Japan from an early period many collections of books and pictures preserved by the *han* (clans) or by individuals under the name of *bunko* (library). After the Restoration the Department of Education established for the first time a library, in the 5th year of Meiji (1872). This was the origin of the present Imperial Library. Regulations were established in the 14th year of Meiji (1881) with regard to the establishment and abolition of public libraries; and in the 32nd year of Meiji (1899) an ordinance relating to libraries was issued, by which the establishment of libraries by local corporations or by individuals was encouraged. Thenceforward libraries began to be established and to multiply in number, until in September of the 42nd year of Meiji (1909) they numbered altogether 264, one of these being a government institution, while 93 were of public and 170 of private establishment.

**THE IMPERIAL LIBRARY :—**The Imperial Library which is the only library established by the government, was opened in the 5th year of Meiji (1872). Since then there has been a continuous development,—especially during the past ten years—to keep pace with the progress of education in the country. Its scope has been greatly extended, and its position much improved, so that it is now the most complete library in all Japan.



The books in the library, as shown by the returns of March, in the 41st year of Meiji (1908), number 418,127 volumes of Japanese and Chinese books, and 68,144 volumes of foreign books, making a total of 486,271 volumes.

The number of readers in one year—according to the latest returns—was 206,061, giving an average of 618.80 per day.

The books in the library are divided into eight groups:—

Group I. Mythology and Religion.

Group II. Philosophy and Education.

Group III. Literature and Language.

Group IV. History, Biography, Geography, Travels, etc.

Group V. Statecraft, Law, Economics, Finance, Social Science, Statistics, etc.

Group VI. Mathematics, Natural Science and Medicine.

Group VII. Engineering, Military Science, Fine Arts, Polytechnics, Industries.

Group VIII. Miscellaneous Books and Collections.

The public and private libraries number, as stated above, over 260, and vary in size—some being on a small and others on a larger scale. Being scattered over various parts of the country, as auxiliary organ of education they contribute much to the diffusion of knowledge.

Amongst the best equipped libraries, public and private, are the Library of Osaka Prefecture, the Library of Yamaguchi Prefecture, the Hibiya Library of the City of Tokyo, the Nanki Bunko (a privately established library), &c. Of these libraries, some establish communications with other libraries founded on a smaller scale in the neighbourhood, and send round their books periodically, for the benefit of readers; and some taking advantage of the summer vacation lend books on the subject of general education to the elementary schools in their district for the children to read, etc. In this way all that is possible is done for the benefit of the reading public.

**LIBRARIES ATTACHED TO SCHOOLS:—**Besides the libraries—government, public and private—already mentioned, each government, public or private school affording a higher course of education has its own library. The main object of such is to





help the teachers and students of that school in their studies. Many such libraries have been thrown open to the public in recent years, so as to add to the means provided for public instruction. Of these libraries attached to schools, the one on the most extensive scale and possessing the most complete equipment, is the library attached to the Tokyo Imperial University. The books in this library at the end of the 41st year of Meiji (1908) number 228,000 volumes in Chinese and Japanese, and 173,000 volumes of foreign books, making a total of 401,000 volumes.

## II. Museums.

THE EDUCATIONAL MUSEUM:—Of our educational museums, the one on the largest scale is the museum attached to the Tokyo Higher Normal School, those established in consequence of the educational development of recent years being, most of them, on a smaller scale, and having but a limited number of articles on exhibition.

The Educational Museum attached to the Tokyo Higher Normal School owes its origin to a collection of the various productions of the country arranged for exhibition at a government office provisionally established under the name of the Production Bureau in the first year of Meiji (1868). Subsequently, in the 4th year of Meiji (1871), a Museum Bureau was instituted in the Department of Education, under the control of which a show-room was opened, whither all the articles kept in store by the former Production Bureau were transported; and in the following year (1872) it was for the first time opened to the inspection of the public. It subsequently underwent innumerable changes until in the 10th year of Meiji (1877), when its name was changed to the Educational Museum, it was placed upon a firm basis. In the 22nd year of Meiji (1889) it was attached to the Higher Normal School (the present Tokyo Higher Normal School), the position in which it now stands.

The object of the existing institution is to collect and to display for public inspection various educational articles, together with books and pictures, obtained both at home and from abroad, in such a manner as shall best afford means for the improve-





ment and development of education. The articles as at present collected and exhibited are (1) Those illustrating school architecture, (2) School equipments, (3) Apparatus for teaching, (4) Specimens of work done by pupils, (5) Statistics, rules and regulations relating to education, &c.

The exhibition room is divided into three compartments. In the first are exhibited principally various educational apparatus for use in elementary schools, and kindergartens or at home, and in the second and third the articles exhibited are mostly such as have a relation to secondary and technical education. In addition, there is a special room in which foreign text books are shown, pictures, diagrams, educational apparatus and specimens of pupils' work. The number of exhibits, according to the figures made up in July, 1909, is 18,978, which may be classified as follows:—

A. Those relating to school architecture	992
B. Those relating to school equipment	500
C. Those relating to school apparatus	7,576
D. Those relating to pupils' work	2,080
E. Books, Pictures, Statistical Tables, &c.	8,830

Articles of these various kinds are purchased not only to be shown in the present institution, but to be lent for the purpose of local exhibition to various government offices and schools. In order to give some idea of what is being done in the present museum, a statement of some of the principal rules here follows:—

1. The museum is open to all persons, without charge for admission.

2. It is open throughout the year on every day of the week but Monday, except December 25th to the 5th of January following.

N. B. On the Mondays in the month of April, and on other Mondays falling on the 1st, and 15th days of the month or on holidays it is specially opened.

3. Permission to use articles on exhibition may be granted on application, whenever such a course is not deemed objectionable.

4. Enquiries concerning books, pictures, and articles used for primary education, or requests for an opinion in regard to such articles are responded to, whenever possible.





5. Fac-similes, models or copies of the exhibits may be made and forwarded, whenever possible, on the receipt of an application from government or from school authorities.

6. Persons directly concerned with education may be admitted to a private room for purposes of special inspection and investigation.

7. Inquiries made by school authorities relating to the purchase of school apparatus are replied to, or recommendations made in regard to them.

According to the returns of the 41st year of Meiji (1908) the total number of visitors was 40,717, the number of those engaged in school work who visit the museum growing larger year after year; while the number of those who made use of the articles on exhibition was 1,767.

THE MUSEUM BELONGING TO THE COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE IN THE TÔHOKU IMPERIAL UNIVERSITY :—The Museum belonging to the Agricultural College in the Tôhoku (North-Eastern) Imperial University is in Sapporo, Hokkaido, where the college is situated. The main object of the museum is the collection and display for the purpose of study and investigation on the part of the students, of specimens of the animals and of the vegetable and mineral products of Hokkaido, as well as of articles of all description manufactured by the Ainu; but the museum is also open to the public for a certain period of time in order to diffuse a general knowledge of the productions of Hokkaido.

The articles on exhibition are arranged in four sections; viz.

1. Natural Products Section.
2. Industrial Section.
3. Historical Section.
4. Bibliothecal and Photographic Section.

According to the figures of the 42nd year of Meiji (1909) the total number of exhibits was 22,358.

The museum being situated in the quietest and most picturesque quarter of Sapporo, visitors are most numerous in summer.

THE IMPERIAL MUSEUMS :—The Imperial Museums under the control of the Imperial Household Department are three in number, one being in Tokyo, one in Kyoto and one in Nara. The exhibits there displayed are principally historical relics, and



specimens of the fine arts and of arts and industries, such as help to set forth and illustrate the changes of the times. The Tokyo Imperial Museum was the first founded of these, and dates from the 5th year of Meiji (1872), since which time it has gradually extended in its equipment until it has grown into the largest museum in Japan. The Hyōkei-Kwan (a new building erected in commemoration of the wedding of the Crown Prince and Princess), which was finished only this year, contributes much to the completeness of the show of objects representing the fine arts and art industry. This museum has, among the articles exhibited, various costumes, utensils, &c., showing the customs and habits of different times and places, as also specimens of various natural productions. There is a zoological garden attached to this museum where a large number of living animals are kept for show.

The number of articles displayed in this museum is, according to the figures of the 41st year of Meiji (1908):—

A. Historical Relics .. .. .	11,217
B. Objects belonging to the Fine Arts .. .. .	9,700
C. Objects belonging to Art Industries .. .. .	4,043
D. Natural Products .. .. .	67,601

The number of animals in the zoological garden is 582; the number of visitors is much on the increase, and grows in proportion to the development of facilities for communication. The total number of visitors from January to December in the 41st year of Meiji (1908), was 214,125 to the museum and 646,367 to the zoological garden—visitors are found to be most numerous in and about the month of April, every year.

### III. Educational Societies.

The Kyōiku-kai (Educational Society) is a corporation privately formed with a view to the advancement and improvement of education, the members being such persons as are directly or indirectly interested in educational matters.

When in the first year of Meiji (1868) our educational system was first established, the country was divided into eight grand school districts; and each grand district was subdivided into many middle and elementary school districts. In the beginning





of the 9th year of Meiji (1876) a meeting was held of officials charged with school affairs, school inspectors, and teachers in the first grand school district, which included one *fu* and eight *ken*. At this meeting they discussed the principles of educational measures and the minutes taken were printed and distributed among the members, this was the beginning of educational societies in Japan. A similar society sprang up in each of the other grand school districts, an example that was followed in every *fu* and *ken* (prefecture). Rules of meeting were laid down, meetings of school inspectors and teachers were convened, and discussions were held on matters relating to education generally once and sometimes more often in a year.

Afterwards, in the 12th year of Meiji (1879), when the system of school districts was abolished, and the educational meetings of the grand districts came to an end, the educational societies of different *fu* and *ken* began to develop at a rapid rate, and they have assumed such importance that public opinion concerning education has come to be expressed chiefly through these societies. But the Kyōiku-kai of those days merely discussed matters relating to the administrative part of education and rarely concerned itself with the practical study of education. Owing, however, to the diffusion and progress of school education in recent years, these societies are now doing much in the way of furnishing matter for consideration in connection with educational administration, and contribute not a little towards the practical effects of education.

At present, there is scarcely a *fu* or *ken* in which there is not a Kyōiku-kai. The members are school teachers, government officials in charge of school business and other persons interested in education. It is constituted either as a foundational juridical person or as an incorporate juridical person. The operations undertaken differ more or less with different societies; but generally speaking they are as follows:—

(1) Studying and deliberating upon all questions relating to education.

(2) Answering inquiries made by government authorities in relation to education.



(3) Holding Kōshū-kai (lecture-classes) to aid teachers in acquiring necessary knowledge, or to give preparatory training to those intending to become teachers.

(4) Holding lecture-meetings for the benefit of the general public.

(5) Establishing libraries and keeping books in circulation.

(6) Publishing journals as the organs of the society.

(7) Opening educational exhibitions and giving magic lantern displays.

(8) Conferring honour upon persons of educational merit.

(9) Doing posthumous honour to the work of by-gone sages.

(10) Commending the worthy deeds of dutiful children and heroic women.

(11) Giving aid to needy young men for their school expenses, and bringing up poor infants, &c.

The Kyōiku-kai is, thus, on the one hand, an instrument for the promotion of educational discussion and study by helping in the improvement of teaching and training, by arousing a spirit of public opinion among the people, by contributing to the general culture, by stimulating the efforts of those responsible for education, and by promoting the public morals of the locality; while on the other hand it is the most effective organ of popular education.

Of the educational societies in Japan the one established on the most ambitious scale, and possessing members all over Japan, is the Imperial Educational Society (Teikoku Kyō-iku-kai). It was founded in Tokyo in the 16th year of Meiji (1883) and was called at its birth Dai-Nihon-Kyo-iku-kai (Educational Society of Japan).

The members number many thousands; and the society is established on a very firm basis. Its operations are the publishing of a journal entitled "Imperial Education," the maintenance of its popular library, the opening of summer schools (Kōshūkai), the holding of lecture-meetings, and the holding on various occasions of a general conference on matters relating to education, to which representatives from various prefectural educational societies are limited; while in addition to the above the society





confers honour upon persons of educational merit, and does posthumous honour to the meritorious work done by eminent scholars and educationists, not to mention many other things which fall within the scope of its activities. Thus the society is doing a great deal in the way of forming public opinion as also doing much for the progress and improvement of education.

The journals published by the Imperial Educational Society and other similar societies in different prefectures, at present number many hundreds. Besides these, there are dozens of different kinds of publications printed in Japan, such as, "Jidō Kenkyū" devoted to the study of children, "Kyō-iku Gakujiutsu-Kai" (Educational Science World) and "Kyō-iku Kenkyū" (Study of Education). These are for the study of the principles and methods of education in general; while such as the "Kyō-iku Jiron" (Educational Times), "Kyō-iku-Kai" (Educational World), "Kyō-iku Jikken-Kai" (Experimental Education), "Kyō-iku-no Jissai" (Practical Education), "Nai-Gai Kyō-iku Hyōron" (Home and Foreign Educational Review), "Nippon Shōgaku Kyōshi" (Japanese School Master), "Shotō Kyō-iku" (Primary Education), &c. give expression to opinions and the results of study and impart information in regard to education.

#### IV. Scientific Associations.

Various kinds of scientific associations, formed for the purpose of study and investigation, are growing more numerous as time goes on, and as the arts and sciences are coming to be more specialized.

There are now hundreds of such societies; some of these are under the control of the Department of Education; some are composed of the teachers and students of certain schools; some are associations of private individuals; some are organised on a large, and some on a small scale, while there is an endless variety in their constitution.

As each of these has a definite object of study on its own particular lines, these associations are contributing not a little towards the advancement of civilization in this country.



Those associations which are under the control of the Minister of State for Education, are given, together with their organization and their objects, below :—

**THE IMPERIAL ACADEMY :—**The Imperial Academy, which is under the control of the Minister of Education, and was founded in the 12th year of Meiji (1879), has for its object the advancement of sciences, and the encouragement of learning and culture ; and it serves as an organ of inquiry for the Minister of Education on matters relating to science, learning, and culture. It is divided into two departments, the members belonging to the one or the other department each according to his speciality.

The First Department—Literature and Social Science.

The Second Department—the Natural Science and their Application.

The members of the Imperial Academy are elected from the general body of candidates by the members of the respective departments and are appointed by the Emperor himself on the recommendation of the Minister of State for Education.

Foreign scholars who have rendered distinguished service in the advancement of learning in this Empire may be appointed as honorary members of this academy. The fixed number of members is sixty. Once every month an ordinary meeting is held in each department, when the members make their report to the academy on the result of their scientific researches or they may make a report upon the investigations pursued by other persons, provided this is deemed beneficial to the interests of science.

When members of the Academy are engaged in some scientific investigation which is considered by the Academy to be of peculiar value, some pecuniary aid may be given for the prosecution of such investigation. Many of those now at work are in receipt of such aid.

The essays and reports sent in to the Academy are published under the title of the Academy Journal. The present Academy joined the United Conference of the International Academy in the 39th year of Meiji (1906) and in the 40th year of Meiji (1907) two representatives of the Academy were sent to take part in the International Conference held at Vienna.





THE NATIONAL LANGUAGE INVESTIGATION COMMITTEE :— This body is also under the control of the Minister of Education, and has for its object the investigation of matters relating to the national language of this country. This language, with the characters in which it is written, and the structure of its sentences, being extremely complicated, great difficulties stand in the way of those engaged in educational matters. How to meet these difficulties, and to establish order and uniformity by investigations into these matters, has been the urgent question of the day in relation both to national aggrandizement and to the development of education. In the 35th year of Meiji (1902), accordingly, the present committee was formed, and the investigations of the committee have gone on steadily since then.

The Committee consists of a chairman and of not more than fifteen members; but, whenever necessary, special members may be added.

CENTRAL METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATORY AND METEOROLOGICAL STATIONS :—The Central Meteorological Observatory, which is also under the control of the Minister of Education, has to do with meteorological business, and devotes attention to all matters connected therewith. It is the central office for the management of affairs in connection with meteorological investigations and reports, storm warnings, weather forecasts, meteorological bulletins, the inspection of meteorological instruments, and observations concerning terrestrial magnetism, aerial electricity, earthquakes, etc.

The present observatory has belonging to it many local meteorological stations, situated in the Hachijō and Ogasawara (Bonin) islands in Tokyo *fu*, the Ōshima, Okinawa (Loochoo) and Ishigaki islands in Kagoshima *ken*, as also in Dairen, Port Arthur, Yinkow, Mukden, Chanchun, Tientsin, Chefoo, Tsingtao, Shanghai, Amoy, Kiaochao, Nankin, Hankow, and Shashi in China; and it receives from each station meteorological reports twice every day.

It has also seven meteorological stations in Korea. The mode of communication between these stations and the central office is very much the same as in the case of the local stations in Japan and China. All of these stations are considered of



much importance, as the meteorological changes of this country are often directly influenced partly by changes in the Pacific Ocean, partly by changes in the Philippines and their adjacent islands, and partly by changes in the Siberian region; since the foundation of these stations, accordingly, the investigations made by the central office have grown more accurate than before.

**LOCAL METEOROLOGICAL STATIONS:**—The local meteorological stations are erected in such convenient places as the Minister of State for Education may choose and are maintained out of the local budgets, being controlled by the local governor under the supervision of the Minister of Education.

The local offices make meteorological observations of their neighbourhood and send their report twice every day to the central office by telegraph.

The central office on receiving the reports every day from these local stations and from their attached stations, investigates the meteorological conditions in the interior of Japan and the vicinity, and sends telegrams to each station giving any information necessary. Whenever signs of a storm are observed in any locality, a telegram to that effect is at once sent as a warning to such local stations, both on land and sea.

**EARTHQUAKE INVESTIGATION COMMITTEE:**—This committee, which was formed in the 25th year of Meiji (1892), investigates matters relating to precautionary measures against earthquakes, and deliberates on the mode of putting them into execution; it is accordingly an indispensable institution in a country like ours, the geological construction of which is the cause of frequent earthquakes.

This Committee is also under the supervision of the Minister of Education, and consists of a chairman, a manager and twenty-five members.

The present committee is constantly engaged in investigations relating to earthquakes; and on such occasions as an international conference on seismology is held, or whenever an earthquake occurs in any part of the world, representatives are despatched thither. It may be noted here that for the investigation of the great earthquakes that occurred in India, at San



Francisco, and in Italy, a committee was sent out on each occasion.

Reports on matters investigated by this committee are compiled and published as reports of the committee. The volumes already published in Japanese and other languages are 102 in number. Those, more particularly, in European languages are much valued in Europe and America, they having contributed much to the better information of the seismological world.

**GEODETIC COMMITTEE:**—This committee, created in the 31st year of Meiji (1898), is also under the supervision of the Minister of Education, and transacts the business belonging to the International Geodetic Association, which has for its object the study of matters relating to geodesy. With regard to geodetic investigations, these are making steady progress, and their results are reported to the general meeting from time to time.

The Geodetic Committee consists of a chairman, a manager and not more than fifteen members. The chairman takes charge of all the business of the committee, and represents the committee at meetings of the International Geodetic Association.

**SPECIAL OBSERVATORY FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF LATITUDE:**—The Special Observatory for the Measurement of Latitude also is under the control of the Minister of Education. It makes observations on the variation of latitudes according to the agreement made between the Imperial Government of Japan and the International Geodetic Association, and it makes its report once every month to the central office in Germany.

**COMMITTEE FOR THE COMPILATION OF CATALOGUES OF SCIENTIFIC LITERATURE:**—This committee is also under the control of the Minister of Education and deals with matters relating to the International Committee for the Compilation of Catalogues of Scientific Literature.

It was created in the 33rd year of Meiji (1900). The present committee charges each member with the duty of caring for his own special subject of study in connection with the literature on pure science published in Japan, and requires him to prepare slips as material for the catalogues to be forwarded to the central committee for the compilation of catalogues of scientific literature, in London.





The above-mentioned are all of them government institutions. There are, besides, scores of like institutions which are not of government establishment, such as those societies that have been formed for the study and investigation of special sciences by the professors and students of the Imperial Universities and colleges. These societies generally hold their meetings for study and discussion every month, and give public lectures, or publish their journals periodically, to make the results of their studies known to the public.

Of these societies the most important are the various societies existing within the Imperial Universities, and the value of their contributions to scientific circles in our country can perhaps be hardly over-estimated.

### V. Kōshū-Kai.

The progress and development of education, and of the arts and sciences has made it inexpedient that the study of education and training therein should be left to schools and to unaided individual effort; and the necessity was felt of devising some simple and appropriate method to meet the needs of the situation. The Kōshū-Kai, or system of lecture-classes is just what was needed, it being an educational instrument of a special kind which can be formed in any part of the country, whenever needed. The tendency of recent times has been in the direction of its development, and the Kōshū-Kai is now found almost everywhere, sometimes under the auspices of the Department of Education, sometimes formed by a *fu*, *ken*, *gun*, or city, or by the educational societies and other private corporations as well as by individuals.

The Kōshū-Kai makes it its business to diffuse and propagate a knowledge of the progressive sciences and arts, to make up for deficiencies in the intellectual attainments of men who are engaged in practical pursuits, as also to provide preparatory instruction for those who wish to receive a higher school education. Chief amongst the things performed by the Kyō-iku-Kai, are the supplementing of the deficient knowledge possessed by the teachers in the middle and elementary schools of the subjects





they have to teach, and the training given in the methods of teaching such subjects, as also the imparting of the knowledge which ought to be possessed by the officials of *fu* and *ken* who are in charge of school matters.

The period during which the classes of the Kōshū-kai are held varies with the subjects of study; but in any case it seldom exceeds ten weeks. As regards the season, the classes are held, in most cases, during the summer vacation, so that during the summer time what are called summer schools are held everywhere. Some, however, are opened during the winter vacation, or at any other time. The lecturers are of different kinds and vary according to the audiences. As the course instituted by the Department of Education is designed to provide lectures for the teachers of normal, middle, and girls' high schools and of technical institutes, and also for the officials of *fu*, *ken* and *gun* in charge of school business, the lecturers are generally professors of the Imperial University and other institutions under the direct control of the Department of Education, or else officials of that department. Those instituted by a *fu*, *ken*, *gun*, or city, however, are principally for the purpose of giving lectures to the teachers of elementary schools or of technical institutes of a lower standard, and it is generally the case that such Kōshū-kai invite the assistance of some of the afore-said professors and officials, or some other gentlemen not inferior to the above-mentioned lecturers in social position, personal experience, and learning. In addition, some of the teachers of the normal, middle, or girls' high schools or of technical institutes of the higher standard in the *fu* or *ken* are employed as lecturers. In the Kōshū-kai instituted by an educational society, or by some private individual, the lecturers employed are very much the same as those above mentioned when the object aimed at is similar. To be brief, there are no particular rules regulating the Kōshū-kai, the condition of things connected with the holding of such being different in different localities. As a special instrument of education, it is the one best adapted to the need of the times, institutions of this kind, accordingly, increase, as the years go on, in number; and the value of the Kōshū-kai is far from small, seeing that it contributes



largely towards the advancement of education, and the diffusion of knowledge concerning the every day progress of the arts and sciences.

THE KŌSHŪ-KAI OPENED BY THE MOMBUSHO :—The Kōshukai, as instituted by the Mombusho (Department of Education), was for the first time opened in Tokyo in the 20th year of Meiji (1887). Since that time the Kōshūkai has continued to be held, chiefly in connection with studies pursued in the normal, middle, and girls' high schools, but in the 28th year of Meiji (1895) it was much extended in its scope—the subjects studied in technical schools being added and places of meeting in various districts other than Tokyo having been arranged for. The time for holding it, which had previously been in the summer season only, was altered from the 38th year of Meiji (1905); and a Kōshūkai for school inspectors, held at some other time, was instituted, which the school inspectors of *fu*, *ken* and *gun* were invited to attend, that they might make themselves more efficient for the discharge of their duties. Towards the end of the 41st year of Meiji (1908), a Kōshūkai for middle school teachers was opened at an ordinary period of the year, which teachers of this description were invited to attend that they might increase their knowledge of the subject they were engaged in teaching. The attendants at these Kōshūkai were persons who had been recommended on each occasion by their respective *fu* and *ken*, in accordance with rules as to number and qualification already decided upon; and they were, in most cases, allowed their travelling expenses by their respective *fu* and *ken*.

The following will show what Koshukai of recent date have been held, with the number of those attending :—

SUMMER LECTURES (KŌSHŪKAI) HELD BY THE DEPARTMENT  
 OF EDUCATION (MOMBUSHO) FOR TEACHERS OF NORMAL,  
 MIDDLE, AND GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOLS.

Year.	Places of Meeting.	No. of Lecturers.	No. of Attendants.	Received Certificates.
41st, Meiji (A.D. 1908)	{ Tokyo, Hiroshima, Sendai, Kanazawa, Kumamoto.	14	689	628



Year.	Places of Meeting.	No. of Lecturers.	No. of Attendants.	Received Certificates.
40th (1907)	{Tokyo, Sendai, Kanazawa, Hiroshima, Kumamoto.	20	687	655
39th (1906)	{Tokyo, Kanazawa, Hiroshima, Kumamoto.	13	552	496
37th (1904)	{Tokyo, Kyoto, Sendai, Morioka, Kanazawa, Kumamoto.	19	602	591
36th (1903)	{Tokyo, Kyoto, Sendai, Kanazawa, Okayama, Kumamoto.	19	717	701

SUMMER KŌSHUKAI HELD BY THE MOMBUSHO  
 FOR THE TEACHERS OF TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.

Year.	Places of Meeting.	No. of Lecturers.	No. of Attendants.	Received Certificates.
41st, Meiji. (A.D. 1908)	{Aichi, Fukuoka, Nara, Nagasaki.	9	230	222
40th (1907)	{Tokyo, Shiga, Fukuoka.	8	367	350
39th (1906)	{Tokyo, Nagano, Osaka, Kagoshima, Yamagata.	13	183	177
38th (1905)	{Tokyo, Niigata, Fukuoka.	11	313	301
37th (1904)	{Tokyo, Ibaraki, Hyogo.	12	356	321
36th (1903)	{Tokyo, Kyoto, Ehime, Hokkaido.	20	314	262

KŌSHUKAI HELD BY THE MOMBUSHO  
 FOR SCHOOL INSPECTORS.

Year.	No. of Times held.	No. of Lecturers.	No. of Attendants.
41st, Meiji. (A.D. 1908)	2	21	101
40th (1907)	2	21	100
39th (1906)	3	31	145
38th (1905)	3	35	146



LOCAL KŌSHUKAI HELD DURING THE SUMMER  
IN THE 41ST YEAR OF MEIJI.  
(1908)

	No. of Koshukai.	No. of Lecturers.	No. of Attendants.
Public Institution.	293	582	25,509
Private Institution.	650	1,327	71,461
Total.	940	1,909	96,970

## VI. Popular Lectures.

Popular lectures, like the Kōshūkai, are showing a growing tendency to development. Lectures inaugurated for the improvement of public morals, or intended to contribute towards the development of the arts and sciences, or having for their object the advancement of industry are delivered every year in all parts of the country, and their value is coming to be more and more recognised.

Concerning these lecture-meetings it may be remarked:—(1) Most of them are initiated by the various educational societies,—(2) Those, however, which are arranged for by local young men's associations have been growing more numerous of late years, (3) In various special professional schools—especially in those private institutions where a special study is made of politics, law, and economics, easy popular lectures are given, from time to time on legislation and on other subjects that are of direct advantage to the public at large. Of late years some of the lecturers connected with such schools have gone out on lecturing tours to various prefectures. (4) In the Tokyo Imperial University some of the professors of the various colleges join together to form a lecturing party of the said kind. (5) Various Buddhist and Christian associations and other associated bodies interested in the improvement of public morality give popular lectures treating of various social phenomena, in order thereby to stimulate the moral sense of the public at large. These have come to be much in vogue in recent years in all cities and towns, and in Tokyo on every



Saturday and Sunday lectures of this kind are delivered in dozens of places. (6) In addition to the foregoing, popular lectures having as their object the advancement of industrial business, and the diffusion of educational, sanitary and military knowledge, are delivered in the various prefectures under the auspices of *Fu, Ken, Gun* or cities.

By the use of the magic lantern, the cinematograph and other devices, it is sought to make the lectures more interesting and the subjects dealt with more easily understood by the auditors. (8) Furthermore, in the magazines for boys and girls at school, as also for home reading, popular lectures always appear, and in the Sunday issue of some newspapers special lectures of this kind are given. These lectures, in fact, co-operating, as they do, with the school education, may be taken as contributing in no small measure to the advancement of morals, and of science and the arts and industries.

## VII. Correspondence Schools.

The only schools in this country which undertake instruction by means of correspondence are certain special professional schools, on a private foundation, in which the subjects of instruction are chiefly those relating to politics, law, and economics, though literature, language, mathematics and the natural sciences are sometimes taught by such means. The object of such instruction is principally to afford the means of self-culture to general readers by publishing written lectures on the subjects of study pursued in such schools. Some of these schools hold periodical examinations for promotion, and to such of their correspondents as successfully pass the examination, certificates of qualification are issued.

There are also what are called Gakkai (or associations), besides schools, that undertake tuition by means of correspondence. The leading Gakkai are those that give lectures relating to the subjects taught in middle schools, those that give lectures relating to the subjects taught in girls' high schools, those that give lectures on the subjects studied by persons intending to become elementary school or middle class teachers; those that publish lectures on subjects relating to technical studies, &c. Some of these, it must





be confessed, leave much to be desired; still, for such individuals as are unable to attend the school lectures on such subjects as they wish to study, the above method of instruction is undoubtedly very useful.

### VIII. Young Men's Associations.

The Seinen Dantai (young men's association) is a special association of young men in a town or village, privately incorporated with the object of making up for their deficiency of knowledge, or of preserving their social morality, or of developing their industrial resources. Such associations are very popular, and are becoming very numerous in different localities—their leaders being in most cases elementary school teachers, or town or village officials, and the place of meeting being mostly one of the elementary schools, though in some cases special places are provided for them. The expenses are mainly defrayed from the members' fees, though sometimes the profit accruing from work done by members is devoted to that purpose, the surplus, if any, accumulating to form a reserve fund. Some *cho* or *son* grant pecuniary aid to such associations.

The young men thus associated not only improve themselves in their leisure hours by studying with elementary school teachers, or other persons, the Japanese language and arithmetic, or such technical subjects as are best adapted to local circumstances, but they also collect books and pictures so as to form a reading room open to young men, thereby to assist them in gaining knowledge and at the same time to reform any bad habits they may have, and to impose a strict moral restraint upon one another. They are thus doing much towards the maintenance of public morals.

Besides all this, they often reclaim waste land, introduce agricultural reforms, undertake the planting of trees, afford aid to public works, and give relief to the sufferers in any town or village where some calamity has occurred. They are thus doing a great deal for the improvement of local industry, and at the same time they contribute not a little towards the advancement of self-government in their respective towns or villages.

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印刷所

三秀舍

東京市神田區美土代町二丁目一番地

印刷人

島連太郎

東京市神田區美土代町二丁目一番地

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