

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 192 618

FL 011 874

AUTHOR Massey, Elizabeth T.; Massey, Joseph A.
TITLE CULCON Report on Japanese Studies at Colleges and
Universities in the United States in the Mid-70s.
SPONS AGENCY Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs (Dept. of
State), Washington, D.C.; Bureau of Postsecondary
Education (DHEW/OE), Washington, D.C. Div. of
International Education.
PUB DATE Mar 77
NOTE 139p.; Written for the Subcommittee on Japanese
Studies, U.S.-Japan Conference on Cultural and
Educational Interchange. Contains some small
print.
EDRS PRICE MF01/PC06 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Area Studies; *College Second Language Programs;
Community Involvement; Cultural Education; Graduate
Study; Higher Education; *Japanese; *Language
Enrollment; Language Research; Library Facilities;
Second Language Instruction
IDENTIFIERS Japan

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this report was to determine the changes that occurred from 1972 to 1976 in the field of Japanese study in the United States. The investigators compiled information from already published material and obtained data from questionnaires that were sent to all colleges and universities known to employ at least one specialist on Japan in the academic year 1976-77. The information is presented in five components: (1) teaching and training, i.e., the distribution by discipline of faculty specialists, courses and enrollment in Japanese study, study in the disciplinary courses, studying done in Japan, and Japanese study at the undergraduate, graduate, and professional school level; (2) individual and collaborative post-doctoral research and other publications; (3) service to the community beyond university walls; (4) American college and university library facilities; and (5) financial resources. The report is constructed wholly of quantitative evidence. The appendices, containing text and detailed tables, summarize the major points. (Author/PJM)

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CULCON REPORT ON
JAPANESE STUDIES
AT COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES
IN THE UNITED STATES
IN THE MID-70s

by
Elizabeth T. Massey
and
Joseph A. Massey

for
The Subcommittee on Japanese Studies
U.S.-Japan Conference on Cultural and Educational Interchange

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Published, March 1977

FL011 874

Japanese Studies 49 50

The research reported herein was conducted pursuant to a contract with the Division of International Education U. S. Department of Health Education and Welfare, under the provisions of Title VI, Section 602 NDEA.

Support for publication was received from the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, U. S. Department of State.

Published by
JAPAN SOCIETY, INC.
333 East 47 Street
New York, N.Y. 10017
\$2.50 per copy

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FOREWORD

This is a report of the institutional base for the study of Japan in American colleges and universities in the academic year 1974-75. It was commissioned by the Subcommittee on Japanese Studies of the American Panel of the U.S.-Japan Conference on Cultural and Educational Interchange.

Commonly referred to as CULCON, the Conference was organized in 1961 by agreement between President John F. Kennedy and Prime Minister Hayato Ikeda to bring groups of public and private leaders together periodically from each side of the Pacific to consider the state of our mutual cultural and educational relations. Following a number of biennial meetings in which the crucial role played by Japanese studies in America was increasingly noted, a special Subcommittee on Japanese Studies was appointed by CULCON in each country in 1974. Its assignment is advisory: to help evaluate the role these studies are playing, identify new opportunities for wider service, and bring their needs to the attention of interested persons in both the public and private sectors.

Japanese studies are a complex field. They embrace the activities of a large number of academic specialists and institutions of higher learning. They are supported by both the American and Japanese governments and by a significant number of foundations and interested individuals. Each of these persons and agencies has its own responsibilities and its own perspectives. The Subcommittee's first step, therefore,

was to explore with a number of these how it might be most helpful. The conclusion seemed unanimous: what was most needed was a new study of the state of the field to update the data base which had been so usefully provided five years earlier in the report of the Joint Committee on Japanese Studies of the American Council of Learned Societies and the Social Science Research Council.*

Fortunately, Elizabeth T. Massey and Joseph A. Massey, who had been instrumental in compiling the J.C.J.S. Report of 1969-70, accepted the Subcommittee's invitation to carry out this new survey. The academic year 1974-75 was selected for analysis; it was five years after the earlier report and the most recent year for which relatively complete data might be secured. The two reports do not follow an identical format; however, the Masseys have tried systematically to use or recast the data from the J.S.J.S. and other earlier surveys so as to provide a five-year comparison of extraordinary interest.

The entire Report deserves a careful reading. It reveals a quite remarkable expansion of the field since 1970. Library holdings of Japanese language works, for example, increased 31%. The number of institutions offering courses in Japanese studies grew 41%. Enrollment in Japanese language courses rose 45%--and this during a period when total college and university degree-credit enrollments grew only 14% and foreign language courses generally showed a 16% decline!

*The SSRC-ACLS Joint Committee on Japanese Studies, Japanese Studies in the United States: A Report on the State of the Field, Current Resources and Future Needs (New York, February 1970).

Equally striking, the number of Japan specialists hired by American colleges and universities increased by 107%. And financial support increased by \$12 million. These achievements reflect a dynamic vigor in which everyone concerned with Japanese-American understanding can take pride.

On the other hand, they hardly justify complacency. The data also show, for example, that 90% of American colleges and universities still offer no formal work on Japan, and many of those that do are vulnerable. There are still only 12 university libraries that have even a minimal research capacity. Japanese language instruction is concentrated ineffectively at the elementary level. Publishing costs are such that the number of scholarly works published on Japan has actually declined. Professional education on Japan seems to be expanding in relative isolation from the community of Japan specialists. And while the growth in financial support is gratifying, when discounted for inflation it registers only 32% and shows that large new resources, primarily outside the colleges and universities themselves, will have to be found if the field is not to decline. An even greater measure of dedication will be required if these studies are to continue to grow in a manner at all commensurate with their importance.

The Subcommittee hopes, therefore, that the Report will receive a wide reading. It is particularly hoped that it will serve the needs of those many individuals and institutions who provided so generously their data and advice.

James William Morley

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It has been our great pleasure to receive the most generous cooperation from many organizations and individuals during the course of our research. We wish to express deep appreciation to all those people, too numerous to mention by name, whose time and thought in answering the questionnaires sent to colleges and universities and museums around the country have provided us with the empirical evidence for describing the field of Japanese studies today.

The starting point of our research has been the earlier efforts to examine Japanese studies in particular and area studies in general. John W. Hall made available to us the original materials gathered for the Joint Committee on Japanese Studies' 1970 report on Japanese Studies in the United States. From Richard D. Lambert, we received permission to use in our questionnaire items contained in the program inventory survey created for the Language and Area Studies Review.

For supplementary or new information on undergraduate and graduate education in Japanese studies, we have turned to several people for assistance. Particular thanks go to Frank Shulman for sending us a manuscript copy of his Doctoral Dissertations on Japan and Korea, 1969-1974 prior to its publication. A special word of thanks also to Pat McIntyre of the Office of Education, Institute of International Studies, for introducing us to the varied activities of the I.I.S. and other

federal agencies. Robert Suggs, Ann Schneider and Marion Kane, also of the I.I.S., provided materials on the NDEA and NDFL programs. George H. Wade of the National Center for Educational Statistics kindly sent a copy of the most recent figures on enrollments in higher education.

Language teaching has always been a primary concern to those in the field. We are fortunate in being able to supplement the considerable information on courses and enrollments in Japanese obtained in our questionnaire with figures which place the data in context over time and in comparison with other modern foreign languages. These comparative and time-series figures come from Richard L. Brod of the Modern Language Association. Information on two special programs for Japanese language teaching, the Inter-University Center in Tokyo, and Cornell's FALCON Program, have come from Peter Duus and Eleanor Jordan, respectively.

Specific details on the related subjects of research and funding have come from Susan Pharr of the Social Science Research Council, Thomas Buckman of the Foundation Center, Burt O'Connell of the National Science Foundation, Gilbert Roy of the National Endowment for the Humanities, Melvin Cariaga of the State Department, and John Paul, Julia Petrov and Joseph Belmonte of the Institute for International Studies.

No review of Japanese studies would be complete without information on library resources. Warren Tsuneishi, Andrew Kuroda and Key Kobayashi of the Library of Congress

introduced us to materials which have been of great help. T.H. Tsien sent an early copy of his latest review of library holdings, staffing and financing, "Current Status of East Asian Collections in American Libraries: A Preliminary Report for 1974/75."

Since its inception in 1972, The Japan Foundation has been active in virtually every area of Japanese studies. Full details on the Foundation's program and funding have come from Yasushi Sugiyama.

For continued support, assistance and suggestions, we wish to give special thanks to James W. Morley, Chairman of the Committee on Japanese Studies; Robert Leestma of the Office of Education, and Robert Ruenitz of the Japan Society.

At Dartmouth, we wish to acknowledge the invaluable support of Joel Levine of the Department of Sociology. His creativity in the manipulation of computer programs has permitted us to undertake our analysis rapidly and smoothly. Susan Corderman, Laura Foster, Marina Kalem and Michael Sandoe have made essential contributions by coding and entering the data in the questionnaires, while Bruce Backa of the IMPRESS Office assisted with data processing and programming.

Finally, our thanks go to Deborah E. Bell for her editorial work.

Elizabeth T. Massey
Joseph A. Massey

INTRODUCTION

The past three decades have witnessed the growth of ever deepening cultural and educational relations between Japan and the United States. From tentative gestures toward rediscovery, the countries and their peoples have moved to informed dialogue. The increasing breadth and depth which our communications with each other are attaining depend upon the efforts of business leaders, scholars, officials, artists, journalists and private individuals alike. Yet in their teaching, research and service on local, national and international levels, scholars make a contribution of special importance, since they take the task of accurately describing and explaining the country and culture they study as a professional commitment. Hence the principal focus here is with the community of scholars who study and teach about Japan in the United States.

This report investigates the characteristics of the field of Japanese studies today in order to see what changes have occurred over the past five years. To accomplish this, the authors have brought together all information on the state of the field available in published materials. While the primary source has been a questionnaire sent to all colleges and universities in the United States known to employ at least one faculty specialist on Japan in the academic year 1974-75, it is data from many diverse sources (described in text and appendices) which provides an outline of patterns of growth and change.

The findings are presented within a framework which evolves from the notion that the pursuit and dissemination of academic work may be seen as having five components: teaching and training; research and publication; service to the community beyond university walls; library facilities; and financial resources. While four of the five components have been treated in the Report on Japanese Studies in the United States, the fifth service is discussed for the first time here. Likewise, while most of the discussion is on such familiar topics as the institutional distribution of specialists, course offerings and enrollments, and degrees, others such as courses on Japan in the professional schools are new. It is a measure of the vitality of Japanese studies that new activities are being undertaken at enough colleges and universities to warrant separate presentation.

The Report is constructed wholly of quantitative evidence, gathered and tabulated in a manner permitting future replication. Space has necessarily limited the amount of evidence presented in the Report, with the text and detailed tables in the Appendices summarizing the major points. The report is also limited by the very nature of the data to discussions of size and scope. It would not be appropriate to use the data for considerations of the quality of teaching, training, research or service, and this report has not attempted any such considerations. The authors hope that readers of the report will bear this in mind as they review the quantitative depiction of the state of Japanese studies in 1974-75.

I. TEACHING AND TRAINING

A. Distribution of Faculty Specialists

The number of Japan specialists employed in institutions of higher learning in the United States have increased remarkably in the past five years. In 1969-70, 408 specialists were identified as members of the faculty of U.S. colleges and universities. By 1974-75, the number had increased 107% to a total of 846.* Since the faculty pool of American colleges and universities grew only 11.4% during this period,** the remarkable increase in Japan academic specialists shows that the postwar surge of interest in Japan has not peaked, but continues to expand as the awareness of Japan's importance to the United States continues to grow.

The increase in the total number of faculty specialists has been accompanied, to a lesser extent, by an increase in the number of institutions employing Japan specialists. In 1969-70, 139 institutions were represented; in 1974-75, 196 institutions (a growth of 41%). But with 1,864 four-year

*See Table 17 in Appendix C for the complete institutional distribution of specialists on Japan in American colleges and universities in both 1969-70 and 1974-75. It should be noted that in the J.C.J.S. Report total faculty strength was estimated at around 500--a much more comprehensive number than the smaller and more narrowly defined 408 faculty and research associates figure used here.

**The national faculty pool (full-time equivalents) in 1969-70 was 430,000 positions; in 1974-75, 479,000. These figures include two-year colleges. Statistics provided by Vance Grant, National Center for Educational Statistics, Washington, D. C.

institutions in the U.S. in 1974-75,* students at 90% of American universities still have no opportunities for formal study of Japan.

Comparison of data for the two base years does illustrate an expansion in the number of schools with a sufficient number of scholars to offer a variety of courses on Japan.

Table 1

DISTRIBUTION OF FACULTY SPECIALISTS
AMONG 4-YEAR INSTITUTIONS

<u># Specialists</u>	1969-70		1974-75	
	<u># Insts.</u>	<u>% Total</u>	<u># Insts.</u>	<u>% Total</u>
1 only	78	56.1	70	35.7
2 - 3	34	24.5	57	29.1
4 - 7	17	12.2	43	21.9
8 - 11	4	2.9	11	5.6
12 or more	<u>6</u>	<u>4.3</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>7.7</u>
Totals	139	100.0	196	100.0

Source: Table 17 (Appendix C).

In 1969-70 there were 27 schools with four or more specialists; by 1974-75, 69 schools were in this category.

While there was clear growth in institutions which had already demonstrated a significant commitment to Japanese studies at the beginning of the decade, the record for schools

*National Center for Educational Statistics, Washington, D.C., 1975.

with a smaller staffing in 1969-70 is much more volatile. Table 2 summarizes the direction of the changes occurring over the past five years for institutions which had Japan specialists in 1969-70.

Table 2

FACULTY CHANGES IN 4-YEAR INSTITUTIONS
WITH JAPAN SPECIALISTS IN 1969-70

# Specialists in 1969-70	Change, 1969-70 - 1974-75				Total
	No spec. in 1974-75	Fewer spec. in 1974-75	No Change	More spec. in 1974-75	
1 only	19	---	30	29	78
2 - 3	1	8	2	23	34
4 - 7	0	1	0	16	17
8 - 11	0	0	0	4	4
12 or more	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>
Totals	20	9	33	77	139

Source: Table 17 (Appendix C).

Of the 112 schools with from 1 to 3 specialists in 1969-70, 28 (25%) suffered losses; 20 of these schools, or nearly one-fifth of the total, no longer have any Japan specialists. Clearly their commitment and support were not strong enough to withstand the financial pressures of the 1970s.

Between 1969-70 and 1974-75, 77 institutions reported Japan specialists on their faculties for the first time. But 67 of these schools have faculties with fewer than four specialists and 36 are lone-scholar institutions. Of the total

of 196 institutions offering Japanese studies in 1974-75, nearly two-thirds have Japanese studies faculties of three or fewer members. If the same percentage of failure should hold over the next five years, about 23 of them appear to be in danger of leaving the field, partially or wholly, by 1980.

During this same five-year period, the distribution of faculty specialists among the various disciplines has undergone significant change. Table 3 summarizes the trends by discipline, showing both the net changes in numbers and the percentage each discipline occupies within the entire field. While the field as a whole has doubled in size, with a net increase in the numbers of specialists in all disciplines, growth has been faster in the humanities (a 129% increase) and in the "professions and other" (up 333%) than in the social sciences (up 43%). As a result, the social sciences no longer occupy the largest proportion of specialists on Japan. It could be argued that the slower growth in the social sciences is related to the lack of sufficiently dramatic developments in American relations with Japan to attract problem-oriented social scientists. But, more important may be the increased interest among American students and scholars at looking inward toward their own society since the end of the Vietnam war, as well as the increased appeal of careers in such professions as law and business to students who would in earlier years, when the academic job market was more favorable than at present, have gone on to graduate work in the social sciences.

Table 3

DISTRIBUTION OF FACULTY SPECIALISTS BY DISCIPLINE

<u>Field and Discipline</u>	1969-70		1974-75	
	<u>Number of Specialists</u>	<u>% of Total</u>	<u>Number of Specialists*</u>	<u>% of Total</u>
Humanities				
Art/Architecture	16	3.9	50	6.2
Language/Literature	131	31.5	224	27.8
Music/Drama	1	0.2	37	4.6
Philosophy/Religion	<u>15</u>	<u>3.6</u>	<u>67</u>	<u>8.3</u>
Total Humanities	163	39.2	378	46.9
Social Sciences				
Anthropology	28	6.7	34	4.2
Economics	22	5.3	35	4.3
History	110	26.4	155	19.2
Political Science	52	12.5	89	11.0
Sociology/Psychology	<u>20</u>	<u>4.8</u>	<u>24</u>	<u>3.0</u>
	232	55.7	337	41.7
Professions and Other**				
Business	--	--	24	3.0
Law	--	--	5	0.6
Medicine	--	--	4	0.5
Other	<u>21</u>	<u>5.0</u>	<u>58</u>	<u>7.3</u>
Total Professions/Other	21	5.0	91	11.4
Grand Totals	416	99.9	806	100.0

Sources: J.C.J.S. Report, p.88

Mailed Questionnaire, "Survey of the Study of Japan by Americans"

*Includes only those specialists at institutions which returned the mailed questionnaire. Forty specialists identified through other data sources are thus excluded; in most cases their disciplinary affiliations are not clear.

**In 1969-70, "Other" included education (5 specialists), geography (8), and demography, law, business, and medicine (total of 8 specialists). In 1974-75, the 58 specialists in the "Other" category include education, geography and demography.

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B. Japanese Language Study: Courses and Enrollments

When the first survey of Japanese studies in the United States was carried out in 1928, courses in the Japanese language were being offered at only three universities--Berkeley, Columbia and the University of Washington. Only Berkeley offered courses beyond the second-year level,* and few students enrolled in any of the courses. By 1958, the first year for which the Modern Language Association has records, enrollments in Japanese for the fall term were 837.** This was still a small number for a language which had long and consistently been argued to be of vital national and cultural importance. In 1974 these enrollments reached 9,604.** During the five-year period between 1969-70 and 1974-75, Japanese language enrollments increased 45%; in contrast, over the same interval, total degree-credit enrollments increased only 14% and total modern foreign language enrollments declined 16%.***

*China and Japan in Our University Curricula, edited by Edward C. Carter and published by the Institute for Pacific Relations, contains the findings. (New York, 1929). Pp. 108-109, 117, and 159.

**Figures provided by Richard L. Brod of the Modern Language Association.

***See Appendix D, Table 18. The Table includes enrollments for the five leading "less commonly taught" languages. Note the seesawing between the absolute numbers of enrollments in Japanese and Chinese ever since the Modern Language Association began systematic collection of these data.

Perhaps of greater importance than overall enrollment figures, however, is the level to which the language is being learned. Only three programs offer full-time academic year intensive study of 15 hours or more per week--the FALCON program at Cornell, the University of Washington's intensive program, and the Inter-University Center in Tokyo. In 1974-75, a total of 61 students were enrolled in these programs.*

Intensive beginning and intermediate courses of 10-12 hours per week are offered at a small number of schools, including Columbia, Illinois and Stanford. For the average student, however, enrolled in the traditional regular and semi-intensive courses, it takes 4 to 6 course-years to be able to read and speak with ease and write with difficulty--if there is access to the necessary higher level courses.**

*The University of Washington offers 3 consecutive 15-hour/week courses of 10 weeks each, Japanese I, II and III. In 1974-75, the enrollment was 4 undergraduates and 10 graduates. Another program for intensive beginning and intermediate Japanese is the FALCON program at Cornell, which is separate from regular language instruction and accepts into its year-long course not only undergraduate and graduate students from other colleges and universities, but also individuals in business, the professions, or other occupations. In 1974-75, enrollment was 14. The Inter-University Center for Japanese Language Studies in Tokyo is primarily for degree-candidate students who have had 2 years of Japanese before entrance. Since its first year of operation in 1961-62, it has trained 372 students, of whom 33 attended during 1974-75.

**For detailed technical discussion of Japanese language teaching and learning, the reader may refer to several sources:

Summer intensive language study is available at a number of schools. While this aspect of Japanese language training was not referred to in the questionnaire, it is an important resource for both undergraduate and graduate students. The broadest range of summer offerings appears to be at Middlebury College where, during the summer of 1975, 46 students enrolled in courses on four levels.

The total number of four-year institutions with known enrollments in Japanese, fall term 1974, is 155; of these, 108 returned survey questionnaires for 1974-75.*

Joint Committee on Japanese Studies, Subcommittee on Japanese Language Training, "Report on Japanese Language Studies in the United States," Asian Studies Professional Review, vol. 5, Fall/Spring 1975-1976, pp. 71-85; Massey and Massey, "Language Competence of American Specialists on Japan: A Quantitative Inquiry," in the full version of the Report on Japanese Language Studies in the United States, Social Science Research Council, 1976; "Director's Report" and "Report: December, 1975" of the Inter-University Center for Japanese Language Studies in Tokyo; Foreign Service Institute materials on language training and proficiency; "Report of the Conference on the Status of Studies in Japanese Language and Linguistics," J.C.J.S. Report (1970), pp. 281-288; and "Report of the Conference on Japanese Language Training," ibid., pp. 289-303.

*See Table 19 in Appendix D for detailed information on Japanese language teaching at four-year colleges and universities in 1974-75.

The highest level of language offered during 1974-75 at the 108 colleges and universities is shown in Table 4.

Table 4

NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS BY HIGHEST LEVEL
OF LANGUAGE OFFERED, 1974-75

<u>Highest Level Language Teaching</u>	<u># Institutions</u>	<u>% Total</u>
1st year	30	27.8
2nd year	22	20.4
3rd year	23	21.3
4th year	<u>33</u>	<u>30.6</u>
	108	100.1
Language-using Courses	(31)	(28.7)

Source: Table 19 (Appendix D).

Both the number of and enrollments in the language-using courses are only rough approximations. They are encouraging, however, in view of the fact that 108 colleges and universities gave 349 teaching courses in 1974-75, while 31 of these institutions offered 157 language-using courses. That this represents considerable progress over the last five years is indicated by a comparison with the Lambert Report,

*A distinction has been made between language-teaching and language-using courses. The former are essentially for the purpose of teaching skills, while the latter seek to put those acquired skills to use in such areas as bibliography and research in Japanese sources, local dialects, and Edo literature. The distinction has not always been an easy one to make without reference to course syllabi, but it has nevertheless been attempted for the purposes of this report.

in which it is noted that 25 programs teaching Japanese had enrollments on the fourth-year level or higher.*

Continuity of language offerings and the level of language development appear to be related. Twenty-nine of the 31 four-year institutions offering language-using courses in 1974-75 have been consistently reporting enrollments in Japanese to the Modern Language Association since at least 1965.**

As in the past, there is a heavy concentration of undergraduate enrollments in the language-teaching courses in the Western states. Eleven schools account for almost 50% of total undergraduate enrollments. All had enrollments of over 140 and of the eleven, only Minnesota is not on the West Coast.*** On the graduate level, there is greater geographical dispersion. Six schools, each with enrollments of 40 or more in 1974-75, accounted for 50.6% of graduate enrollments in the language-teaching courses.****

In addition to the courses at the four-year colleges and universities, there is much language teaching in the two-year colleges. Enrollments in Japanese in the junior and com-

*Richard D. Lambert, Language and Area Studies Review, American Academy of Political and Social Science, October 1973, Table 5.5, p. 175.

**A list of the 31 colleges and universities appears in Appendix E.

***For the eleven institutions with the largest undergraduate enrollments in Japanese language courses, see Appendix E.

****See Appendix E.

munity colleges have grown by leaps and bounds over the past decade, from 27 in 1965 to 1,674 in 1974. There is little stability, however, in the specific colleges reporting enrollments to the Modern Language Association.* As with the four-year colleges, enrollments are heavily concentrated on the West Coast, particularly California and Hawaii.

Despite impressive increases in course enrollments, the acquisition of an effective level of language proficiency remains plagued by several problems. The first is attrition. The most pronounced characteristic of enrollments in Japanese language-teaching courses is the precipitous decline after the first term. The figures suggest that after the first semester, enrollments decline by about half for each successive term until the fourth-year level is reached, when they become fairly stable.**

*Of the 8 which reported enrollments in both 1972 and 1974, only 2 returned completed questionnaires. Both offer Japanese through the second-year level, while Leeward College in Hawaii is experimenting with a new course on "Japanese for the Travel Industry" in 1975-76.

**This attrition rate is inferred from the difference between enrollments in language-teaching courses at each level, and between total enrollments in all language-teaching courses compared with enrollment in the highest level teaching-course offerings for those institutions for which detailed information is available. With total undergraduate and graduate fall-term enrollments of 6,703, these colleges and universities reported enrollments totalling 880 in the highest level of language offered, varying by institution from first through fourth year. Of the 880, 243 were on the fourth-year level; this represents 3.6 percent of the total of 6,703. Attrition of this magnitude does not seem to affect the intensive courses and special programs; nor is it likely to be as high for graduate students as undergraduates.

A second problem is the shortage of the four-year programs considered minimally necessary for general reading and speaking competence. Only 33 schools offer Japanese through the fourth-year level. Furthermore, 33 of the schools listed in Table 19 as offering Japanese have no instructional staff. They rely instead on the Self-Instruction in Critical Languages Program.* Clearly this is an inexpensive means for providing instruction in Japanese and in some cases serves as a transition to a regular instructional program. But the Program is limited to elementary instruction.

Therefore, although the rise in overall language enrollments is impressive, the basic problem remains--few students are acquiring an effective skill.

C. Japanese Studies in the Disciplinary Courses

Responses to the survey questionnaires provided detailed information about course offerings and enrollments in disciplinary courses on Japan at 133 four-year institutions in 1974-75.** Unfortunately, comparable statistics for earlier years are not available, so it is not possible to assess trends at this time.

*Originated at Kalamazoo College and with headquarters today at the State University of New York at Buffalo, the program has prepared packages of tapes and other materials to enable students to work on their own, with evaluation by outside examiners at the end of the course. Japanese is only one of several of the less commonly taught languages included in the program.

**See Table 20 in Appendix F for enrollment figures and distribution of courses among the 133 institutions.

There are essentially three types of courses being given which include Japan in their coverage. First are those concerned exclusively with that country; second are the area courses on East Asia or Asia in the various disciplines, in which countries tend to be treated individually with the multinational context permitting illustration by comparison and contrast; third are the comparative courses in which the aim is the exposition or development of middle-or general-level theory with reference to specific cases. This summary of Japanese studies in the disciplinary courses focuses on two types--those courses exclusively on Japan and those which are multinational, the latter including courses of a comparative nature.

A total of 637 undergraduate courses dealing exclusively with Japan were offered at the 133 institutions in 1974-75. Graduate and undergraduate enrollments in these courses totalled some 13,021, or 0.7% of total fall-term degree enrollments at the colleges and universities involved. (These institutions, in turn, comprise 4.4.% of the 3,004 institutions of higher learning in the country in 1974-75.) An additional 16,910 enrollments were reported in undergraduate multinational courses on Japan. If enrollments in graduate courses are added, it appears that, at most, 1.8% of total degree-credit enrollments at institutions reporting non-language courses dealing with Japan in 1974-75 were in these courses.*

*It bears restating that the figures in Table 5 represent enrollments, not individual students.

Despite the general growth of Japanese studies, exposure to the field is still limited to a small proportion of college and university students.

As with language enrollments, there is heavy concentration of enrollments at a few schools. At the undergraduate level, 19 schools account for approximately 50% of total undergraduate enrollments in courses devoted to Japan; each school reports enrollments of 200 or more undergraduates. Twenty-eight institutions offer courses concerned exclusively with Japan in four or more disciplines. On the graduate level, eight schools represent 54.7% of total graduate enrollments in graduate courses dealing exclusively with Japan. All of the schools reporting course offerings in six graduate disciplines are included in this group.*

In Table 5 the distribution of course offerings and enrollments by discipline for courses concerned exclusively with Japan is summarized. History courses account for 41% and 32% of total undergraduate and graduate enrollments respectively. On the undergraduate level, art is second in disciplinary frequency and literature is third. The three disciplines represent nearly two-thirds of all undergraduate enrollments in courses on Japan. At the graduate level, political science replaces art as the second most popular discipline, followed by literature; the three areas account for 62% of total graduate enrollment.

*See Appendix G for lists of the institutions in each category.

Table 5
DISTRIBUTION OF COURSES AND ENROLLMENTS
BY DISCIPLINE

1974 - 1975

Part 1: Primarily Undergraduate Courses Exclusively on Japan

<u>Discipline</u>	<u>No. of Schools*</u>	<u>No. of Courses</u>	<u>Distribution of Courses</u>	<u>Distribution of U.G. Enrollment</u>	<u>Distribution of Grad. Enrollment</u>
Art	36	65	10.2%	15.9%	18.2%
Literature	36	109	17.1%	8.4%	12.6%
Music & Drama	12	16	2.5%	1.3%	7.3%
Religion/Philos.	29	44	6.9%	5.6%	2.6%
Anthropology	12	15	2.4%	3.5%	3.3%
Economics	11	15	2.4%	1.6%	3.9%
History	101	193	30.3%	41.3%	32.2%
Political Science	37	48	7.5%	6.6%	7.2%
Sociology	12	12	1.9%	1.4%	3.8%
Business	1	1	0.2%	0.3%	0%
Other	32	<u>119</u>	<u>18.7%</u>	<u>14.1%</u>	<u>8.9%</u>
Total (N)		637	100.0%	100.0% (12,170)	100.0% (851)

Part 2: Primarily Graduate Courses Dealing with Japan

<u>Discipline</u>	<u>No. of Schools*</u>	<u>No. of Courses</u>	<u>Distribution of Courses</u>	<u>Distribution of U.G. Enrollment</u>	<u>Distribution of Grad. Enrollment</u>
Art	10	16	4.4%	3.0%	4.0%
Literature	13	59	16.4%	13.0%	10.8%
Music & Drama	6	23	6.4%	0.4%	2.2%
Religion/Philos.	6	17	4.7%	11.7%	2.2%
Anthropology	6	8	2.2%	0.6%	0.8%
Economics	11	18	5.0%	1.7%	4.7%
History	41	99	27.4%	24.9%	31.5%
Political Science	20	39	10.8%	18.1%	20.1%
Sociology	9	12	3.3%	2.1%	2.7%
Business	3	5	1.4%	0%	9.4%
Other	20	<u>65</u>	<u>18.0%</u>	<u>24.5%</u>	<u>11.6%</u>
Total (N)		361	100.0%	100.0% (470)	100.0% (1,611)

*Only schools reporting enrollments for courses listed are included in this table.

Source: Mailed Questionnaire

It is difficult to interpret the meaning of the obvious imbalances in the distribution of courses and their enrollments without knowing what the comparable distributions are for all courses and all enrollments at the 133 institutions. It is clear, however, that the distribution of courses offered reflects only moderately the disciplinary distribution of the specialists, with even greater variation between the distribution of specialists and the enrollments in the courses. The figures do indicate that the most widely available courses--in history, literature, art, political science and religion--tend to draw the highest proportions of students and that the most popular courses are apparently those in history and art on the undergraduate level and history and political science on the graduate level.

The discussion of courses and enrollments at specific colleges and universities may be completed with reference to a trend of great significance for Japanese studies. This is the increasing participation of colleges and universities in formal arrangements and consortia which permit cross-registration among institutions and otherwise increase the accessibility of courses on Japan to students. While it is impossible to estimate the number of students who have benefited from these consortia, responses to the questionnaire indicated 28 formal relationships involving more than 150 member schools.*

*A list of the widespread networks of institutional affiliations is included in Appendix H. Note that the 28 formal relationships enumerated above excludes the joint colleges (e.g., Hamilton-Kirkland, Columbia-Barnard, Harvard-Radcliffe).

D. Study in Japan

Residence and travel in Japan have always been powerful influences motivating individuals to surmount the obstacles of language and culture to become specialists. Detailed study of the responses by Japan specialists to Lambert's questionnaire in 1969 indicates that Japan was cited as a prime motivating factor by 53% of the graduate students and 29% of the faculty specialists in their twenties and thirties.* And the J.C.J.S. Report called for "...a nationally available program of summer travel and study in Japan closely articulated with existing Japanese studies programs."**

Responses to the mailed questionnaires and other sources provided information on 165 colleges and universities whose students have an opportunity to participate in study-in-Japan programs either directly through their college or through consortia in which their institutions are members.*** While in Japan, the participants engage in a variety of

*Massey and Massey, "Language Competence of American Specialists on Japan: A Quantitative Inquiry," mimeographed, pp. 119-120 of the Report on Japanese Language Studies in the United States, J.C.J.S. Subcommittee on Japanese Language Training, 1975.

**J.S.J.S., Japanese Studies in the United States, p. 49.

***There are at least 9 consortia and 34 individual colleges and universities which have established formal relationships with Japanese universities. An additional 18 institutions and 1 consortium operate without such affiliations. Some institutions have both individual and consortia affiliations. For a complete listing, see Appendix I.

activities; in most programs, students can be involved in a combination of courses or projects, from language study to formal course work to independent research. Most of the consortia links are with Waseda; Sophia is also widely used by individual colleges and one consortium. On an individual level, the affiliations extend from Hokkaido to Kyushu.

Three-quarters of the study-in-Japan programs are primarily for undergraduates. Fourteen percent are for graduate students while the remaining 11% accept both types of students. Most programs (62%) are an academic year in length; 18% are for the summer or one semester, and the remaining 20% are for some other period of time such as a calendar year. In 1974-75, 545 students were reported to have participated in the programs for which information is available.*

This is an impressive change since 1969, when there appear to have been far fewer formal links. The pioneers in the overseas programs have tended to be the smaller schools in the East and Midwest, and the California schools. They have been joined more recently by associations of state colleges and universities in Oregon and Washington.

Nonetheless, there still remain a fair number of colleges and universities with faculty specialists on Japan which

*This figure is undoubtedly lower than the total number of American students in Japan in 1974-75, but complete quantitative data is unavailable.

lie outside any of the consortia networks and do not yet offer regular opportunities for study in Japan to their students. Among these, most notably, are many of the colleges and universities with the most highly developed institutional programs in Japanese studies. Of the 30 institutions with "full" undergraduate programs in Japanese studies (and these include all of the 15 "complete graduate programs"),* only 13 have formal study-in-Japan programs.**

E. Japanese Studies Programs at the Undergraduate Level

In 1974-75 an undergraduate could receive a B.A. degree for work in Japanese studies at 71 colleges and universities.*** During that same year 291 B.A. degrees were awarded for work on Japan. In contrast to doctoral studies (where over 90% of the degrees awarded in 1974-75 were disciplinary), undergraduate programs tend to be divided more evenly between interdisciplinary and disciplinary programs of study. Table 6 summarizes the situation for 1974-75 academic year:

*See the next section of this report, "Japanese Studies Programs at the Undergraduate Level."

**An additional 8 colleges and universities are supporters of the Inter-University Center for Language Studies in Tokyo. However, the Center is a highly specialized and highly competitive program for advanced language training and is qualitatively different from the study-in-Japan programs which are the subject of this discussion.

***See Appendix J for a list of the institutions offering B.A. degrees for work in Japanese studies.

Table 6

UNDERGRADUATE DEGREE PROGRAMS IN JAPANESE STUDIES
(1974-75)

	<u>Interdisciplinary</u>		<u>Disciplinary</u>	
	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>
Students enrolled	592	55.5	474	44.5
Degrees awarded	159	54.6	132	45.4

Source: Mailed Questionnaire, "Survey of the Study of Japan"

Any discussion of program development at either the undergraduate or graduate level is bound to be hazardous. The seemingly limitless combinations of language and course offerings, numbers of specialists, spread of specialists and courses among the disciplines, types of degrees, library resources and supporting facilities are compounded by the fact that in any given year a specialist may be on leave and not offering regular courses, a visiting professor may be supplementing the usual fare, or the year surveyed may be the one just prior to introduction of a new degree. The levels of categorization are themselves arbitrary; they must be specific enough to reflect breadth and depth and flexible enough to take account of annual variation.

A careful look at various groupings of undergraduate programs revealed that the two most important characteristics are disciplinary spread of course offerings and the highest level of language offered. From combinations of these char-

acteristics, four groups of institutions emerge from the 156 schools returning questionnaires with information on program levels. These groups and their size are shown on Table 7 on the following page.

The categories established here for undergraduate programs are slightly different from those used in the J.C.J.S. Report.* It is possible, however, to make a rough comparison with similar distributions for 1969-70 by adding the inactive institutions to Group I. The resulting total corresponds closely to the "Minimal Undergraduate" category of the J.C.J.S. Report; the sum of the remaining groups (II through IV) corresponds to the "Undergraduate Area Program" category of 1969-70. The results are shown in Table 8 (see page 31). They demonstrate that expansion and dispersion of specialists and institutions has been accompanied by expansion and consolidation of programs as measured by the disciplinary spread of course offerings and language instruction. There are certain other characteristics which are associated with program development, such as the offering of B.A. degrees for work on Japan and size of Japanese-language holdings in the library; these are general characteristics more directly related to overall program size and scale, including graduate work and service, than to undergraduate programs in and of themselves.

*J.C.J.S., Japanese Studies in the United States, pp. 35-36.

Table 7

UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAMS IN JAPANESE STUDIES

<u>Group</u>	<u>Qualifying Criteria</u>	<u># Programs in 1974-75*</u>	<u>% of Total</u>
Ia. MINIMAL UNDERGRADUATE	<u>Either</u> disciplinary courses on Japan, or language instruction	53	34.0
b. MINIMAL UNDERGRADUATE --INACTIVE IN 1974-75	Schools indicating presence of disciplinary courses on Japan, but no undergraduate course offerings in 1974-75**	11	7.0
II. LIMITED UNDERGRADUATE	<u>Either</u> courses exclusively on Japan in several disciplines, but only one year of language instruction, <u>or</u> several years of Japanese, but only one disciplinary course exclusively on Japan***	37	23.7
III. UNDERGRADUATE AREA PROGRAM	Courses exclusively on Japan in two disciplines, <u>and</u> language instruction through second year, <u>and</u> minimum of two faculty specialists	24	15.4
IV. FULL UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAM	Courses exclusively on Japan in three or more disciplines, <u>and</u> language instruction through third year or higher, <u>and</u> B.A. regularly offered for work on Japan (with two exceptions)	31	19.9
Totals		156	100.0

Source: Mailed Questionnaire, "Survey of the Study of Japan"

*For a list of the schools in each category, see Appendix K.

**Of the eleven schools in this category in 1974-75, five are essentially graduate programs; at one, the sole specialist was on sabbatical; at others Japan units were given within East Asian or Asian courses.

***The difference between Groups I and II is that in the former, only one kind of activity is available--either language teaching or disciplinary courses--while in the latter, one of the two activities is available only in introductory form.

Table 8

UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAMS IN JAPANESE STUDIES,
1969-70 AND 1974-75

1969-70 Categories (1974-75 groups)	1969-70		1974-75	
	<u># schools</u>	<u>%total</u>	<u># schools</u>	<u># total</u>
Minimal Undergraduate (Minimal Undergraduate, including inactive programs)	74	54.8	64	41.0
Undergraduate Area Programs (Limited Undergraduate, Undergraduate Area, and Full Undergraduate)	61	45.2	92	59.0
Totals	135	100.0	156	100.0

Sources: Mailed Questionnaire, "Survey of the Study of Japan"; and
J.C.J.S., Japanese Studies in the United States, p. 35.

F. Graduate Education in Japanese Studies

While the field of Japanese studies in American colleges and universities is a broad one, dedicated as it is to general education for undergraduate students and training for professionals preparing for careers concerning East Asia, graduate education has been and will continue to be a major focus of attention. It is through graduate education that the field continues, both in the production of new teachers and scholars and in the encouragement of advanced research. Research will be considered in a later section; this section

analyzes the current status of graduate program and trends in doctoral education.

The J.C.J.S. Report identified 36 institutions as active in graduate education in 1969-70 and divided these schools into two categories: "limited graduate programs" (25) and "complete graduate programs" (11). In general terms, the differentiating criterion was whether the program's emphasis was limited to the M.A. degree or extended through the Ph.D.*

In 1974-75, 45 schools were active in graduate education, a net gain of 10 institutions from five years earlier. During the 1974-75 academic year, they awarded 281 advanced degrees for work in Japanese studies. Table 9 summarizes degrees awarded:

*More specifically, the "limited graduate programs" were defined as those institutions with approximately three to seven specialists in the field; offering Japanese at the advanced level; and maintaining a minimum library holding of works in Japanese (2,000-25,000 volumes). "Although they may produce an occasional Ph.D. in the field of Japanese studies, the M.A. is the prime focus of these programs." Finally, these programs required the support of a minimum of three departments with a strong Japanese commitment and affiliated specialists. The "complete graduate programs" were defined at those institutions with eight or more full-time Japan specialists, four or more departments involving library holdings of at least 25,000 volumes in Japanese and Japanese language training at all levels. J.C.J.S., Japanese Studies in the United States, pp. 37-39.

Table 9
GRADUATE DEGREE PROGRAMS IN JAPANESE STUDIES
(1974-75)

	<u>Certificate</u>	<u>M.A.</u>		<u>Ph.D.</u>		<u>Total</u>
		<u>Inter-</u> <u>disc.</u>	<u>Disci-</u> <u>plinary</u>	<u>Inter-</u> <u>disc.</u>	<u>Disci-</u> <u>plinary</u>	
Students enrolled	153	268	236	15	299	971
Degrees awarded	37	105	78	6	55	281

Source: Mailed Questionnaire, "Survey of the Study of Japan"

The forty-five institutions are listed in Appendix L according to the types of degrees awarded. However, their characteristics may perhaps be better understood if these programs are classified into three different categories, as follows:

The M.A. Program: regularly offers M.A. for work on Japan; offers at least two years of Japanese language; employs specialists in at least four disciplines; and offers courses exclusively on Japan in at least two disciplines.

The Limited Ph.D. Program: offers the Ph.D. regularly in several disciplines or offers an interdisciplinary Ph.D.; and has one of the following characteristics which distinguish it from the Complete Graduate Programs

- library resources of less than 25,000 volumes in Japanese
- language training only through 2nd or 3rd year
- course offerings exclusively on Japan in three or fewer departments.

The Complete Graduate Program: Japanese language library holdings of 25,000+ volumes; courses exclusively on Japan in 4 or more disciplines; minimum of 8 faculty specialists on Japan; language offerings at all levels; and a strong commitment to Japanese studies from at least 4 disciplines in addition to those offering courses exclusively on Japan.

The distribution of graduate programs and a comparison with the status of the field in 1969-70 is shown in Table 10.

Table 10

GRADUATE PROGRAMS IN JAPANESE STUDIES,
1969-70 AND 1974-75

<u>Program Classification</u>	<u>1969-70</u>		<u>1974-75</u>
Complete Graduate	11		15
Limited Graduate			
M.A.		16	
Limited Ph.D.		<u>14</u>	
Subtotal	<u>25</u>		<u>30</u>
Totals	<u>36</u>		<u>45</u>

Sources: Mailed Questionnaire, "Survey of the Study of Japan," and J.C.J.S., Japanese Studies in the United States, pp.37-39.

For a list of the institutions with programs in each of the three categories in 1974-75, see Appendix M.

It is noteworthy that the activities of institutions sponsoring complete graduate programs are far broader than the minimal requirements for this category. At virtually all of the schools, there are one or more courses dealing with Japan in the professional schools; most are undertaking some form of service activity to a wider community, whether it be regional seminars, lectures to business groups, or consulting with primary and secondary school teachers. Many have library holdings in Japanese in excess of 50,000 volumes and have 13 or more specialists in six or more departments.

All offered, or were in the process of introducing, the full range of degrees (B.A. through Ph.D.) for work on Japan in 1974-75. And these programs account for two-thirds of all doctorates in Japanese studies awarded during the postwar period.*

While the number of schools offering more limited graduate education also shows growth from 1969-70, a close look at trends over the five-year period offers reason for concern about the viability of at least some of these programs. Of the 25 schools with limited graduate programs in 1969-70,

4 increased to complete graduate programs in 1974-75;

14 remained as limited graduate programs (M.A. and limited Ph.D. programs); and

7 were no longer active in graduate education by 1974-75.**

In 1974-75 there were sixteen new graduate programs operating in the United States. Given the difficulties and expense of creating and maintaining graduate programs, it is probable that some of these will be inactive by 1980.

The number of Ph.D. degrees awarded for dissertations concerning Japan provides another measurement of the status of graduate work in the field and trends in disciplinary interests. Comprehensive data on dissertations is available

*See Appendix N.

**The individual institutions are listed in Appendix O.

in the two Shulman bibliographies which cover nearly a century of dissertations in the field.* From the bibliographies, two types of dissertations have been selected for enumeration here: those concerned primarily with Japan and those which treat Japan as one case in a comparative, cross-cultural or multi national fashion.** Any assessment of disciplinary trends in dissertation research would be misleading without inclusion of the latter category, due to the increasing frequency of this approach. Table 11, summarizing data presented in Appendix P, reflects the trends over the past thirty years.

*Frank J. Shulman, comp. and ed., Japan and Korea: An Annotated Bibliography of Doctoral Dissertations in Western Languages, 1877-1969 (Chicago: American Library Association and London: Frank Cass, 1970); and Frank Joseph Shulman, comp. and ed., Doctoral Dissertations on Japan and Korea, 1969-1974: A Classified Bibliographical Listing of International Research (Ann Arbor, Mich.: University Microfilms International, 1976).

**For example, a dissertation on Japanese foreign policy formation is classified as "primary," while one on Sino-Japanese relations which appears to contribute equally to the understanding of both countries and to draw upon both Chinese and Japanese sources is classified as "cross-cultural." This enumeration does not include those dissertations which appear to be secondarily or tangentially concerned with Japan. Every attempt has been made to classify each dissertation by the discipline in which the advanced degree was awarded, rather than to preserve the topical classification employed in the bibliographies.

Table 11

PRIMARY AND CROSS-CULTURAL DISSERTATIONS
ON JAPAN, 1945-74

	<u>Primary Diss.</u>	<u>Cross-cultural Dissertations</u>	<u>Total Diss.</u>	<u>Cross-cultural as % of Total</u>
1945-54	112	11	123	8.9%
1955-64	218	42	260	16.2
1965-74	<u>495</u>	<u>170</u>	<u>665</u>	<u>25.6</u>
Totals	825	223	1048	21.3

Source: Appendix X. P.

The total number of Ph.D. degrees awarded for dissertations concerning Japan has shown exponential growth during the postwar period, as shown in Table 12 below.

Table 12

DOCTORATES AWARDED FOR WORK
ON JAPAN, BY DECADES

	<u>Total Number</u>	<u>% Increase</u>
1945-54	123	---
1955-64	260	111.4
1965-74	665	155.8

Source: Appendix X. P.

On the other hand, data from the National Center for Educational Statistics indicates a 53% increase in doctorates for all fields from 1949-50 to 1959-60 and a further increase of 204% for doctorates in all fields from 1959-60 to 1969-70.*

*In the year 1949-50, a total of 6,420 doctoral degrees

Thus, it appears that while doctorates in Japanese studies were ahead of the national growth rate in the 1950s, they lagged in the 1960s.

The distribution of doctoral degrees by awarding institution shows that the universities with the largest centers and programs on Japan produce the majority of Ph.D. recipients. Nineteen schools have conferred 77.3% (638) of all postwar doctoral degrees for dissertations primarily on Japan. Fourteen institutions have awarded 5-9 degrees each; and an additional 58 have conferred 1-4 degrees. For a complete list of the awarding institutions, see Appendix N.

It is striking that many institutions which have awarded doctorates have no graduate programs on Japan and some lack faculty specialists. Two factors seem at least partially to explain this phenomenon. In the case of institutions with only one or two specialists, the few dissertations bearing on Japan tend to involve comparative work with quantitative data in political science, economics, or linguistics. In schools with no specialists, most dissertations on Japan appear to be written by students from other countries.

What has been the change over time in the disciplinary distribution of dissertations primarily on Japan? Tables 24-27

were given; in 1959-60, 9,820 or half again as many; in 1969-70, 29,866 or triple the amount ten years before. Cf. National Center for Educational Statistics, Digest of Educational Statistics: 1974, Washington, D.C., 1975, p. 84.

in Appendix P present the evidence. Table 13 summarizes trends in the three fields of the humanities, social sciences, and professions. In the postwar period, approximately two-

Table 13

DISSERTATIONS PRIMARILY ON JAPAN

	As percentage of total			
	<u>1945-54</u>	<u>1955-64</u>	<u>1965-74</u>	<u>1945-74</u>
Humanities	19.5	16.1	27.0	23.3
Social Sciences	69.1	71.1	64.9	66.9
Professions	$\frac{11.4}{100.0}$	$\frac{12.7}{99.9}$	$\frac{8.3}{100.2}$	$\frac{9.6}{99.8}$

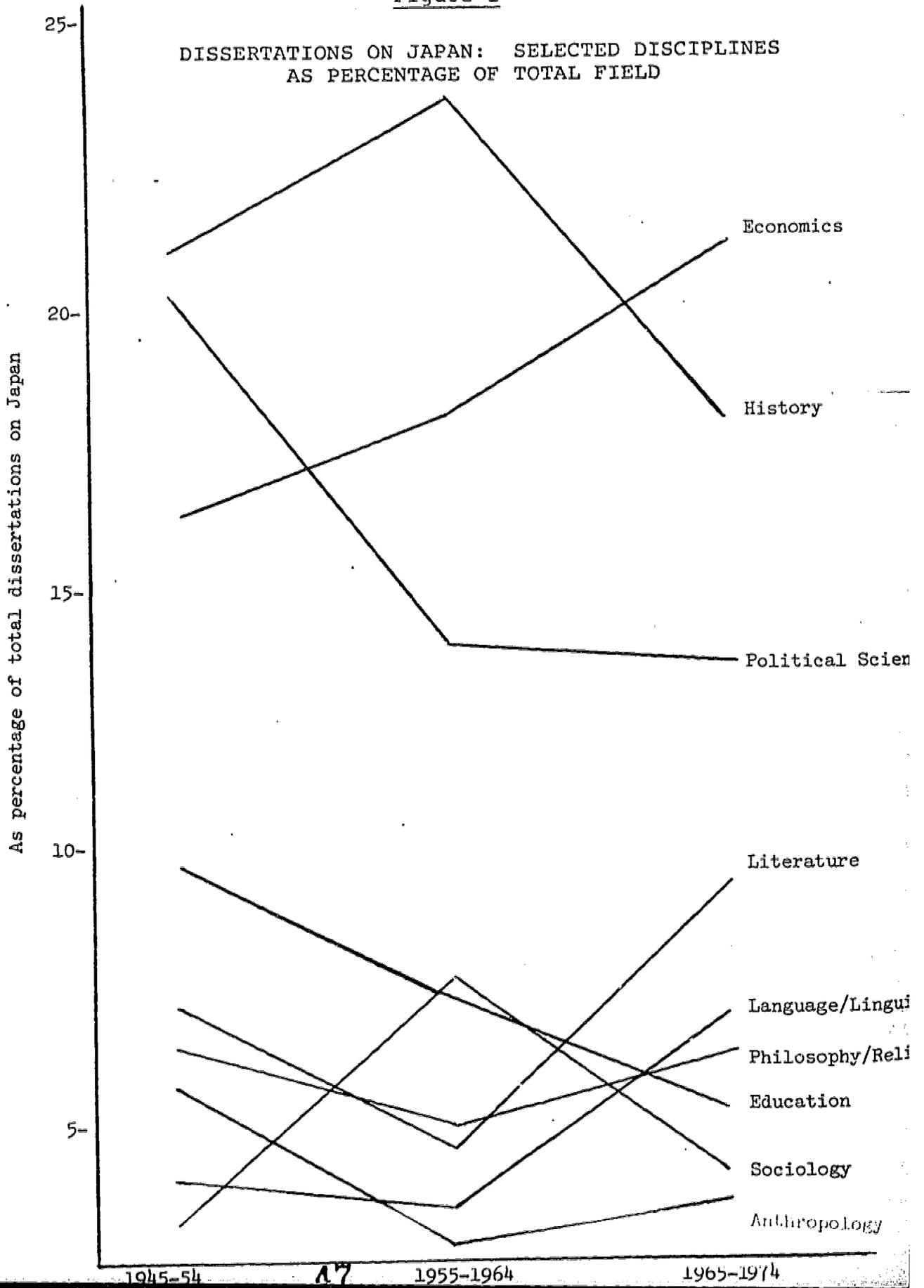
Source: Appendix P.

thirds of all dissertations have been in the social sciences. But in the decade since the mid-1960s, there has been a surge in the humanities, with a corresponding decline in the proportion of the social sciences.

Figure 1 on the following page illustrates relative changes in the percentage of the total field represented by each discipline awarding at least 35 degrees over the thirty-year period. It is important to note that these percentages are combined figures for both primary and cross-cultural dissertations. Of the three largest disciplines--economics, history and political science--only economics has steadily increased its share of the total dissertations over the three decades. Since the number of American economists who are

Figure 1

DISSERTATIONS ON JAPAN: SELECTED DISCIPLINES
AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL FIELD



specialists on Japan is relatively small, this trend probably reflects the increasing attention being given to Japan by non-regional economists as well as the large numbers of Japanese and other Asian students who pursue their graduate training in economics in the United States. While the number of degrees awarded has consistently increased in every discipline, the proportion of degrees given in political science declined sharply between 1955 and 1964 relative to other disciplines, appears to have levelled during the past decade. History peaked in the mid-1960s; its share has subsequently declined. Among the smaller disciplines, only education has suffered a steadily declining share; sociology experienced a surge from 1955 to 1964, followed by decline during the next ten years. The shares of language, anthropology, and philosophy/religion all grew during the last decade after declines from 1955 to 1964. And literature has grown rapidly after an initial drop.

G. Japanese Studies in the Professional Schools

The 1974-75 questionnaire was the first survey of Japanese studies in the United States to inquire systematically about relevant training in the professional schools and applied sciences. These fields are only now coming within the purview of Japanese studies, and the evidence must be regarded as provisional and possibly incomplete. As a result, a number of

professional fields, such as agricultural economics, architecture, environmental and urban studies, public health, communications, and transportation, seem under-represented in this sample.*

Despite these caveats, it is clear that expansion of the study of Japan to the professional schools is already underway. Twenty-seven schools are active in 14 different professional fields; 13 joint degree programs have come into existence between professional schools and centers for Japanese studies; and 66 professional school courses are concerned in part or exclusively with Japan.** The predominant fields are business, education, and law, with business accounting for the greatest number of both courses and enrollments.

With data for earlier years unavailable, it is impossible to determine any specific statistical trends in professional education on Japan. However, given the deepening of economic, political and cultural relations between the United States and Japan with every passing year, the need for professionals with Japanese expertise is clearly growing. An educational problem of increasing urgency is how this need is to be met.

*This report omits the biological and physical sciences; however, there is extensive work done on Japan in the pure and medical sciences in this country as well as considerable collaborative research. Readers who wish to pursue this topic could begin by referring to the annual reports of the U.S.-Japan Cooperative Science Program, available from the National Science Foundation.

**For detailed information on the professional school programs included in this enumeration, see Tables 28-29 in Appendix Q.

II. RESEARCH AND PUBLICATION

A. Postdoctoral Research

Advanced research on Japan in the humanities and social sciences takes a wide variety of forms--it may be individual or group and it may also involve collaboration between American and Japanese scholars. It may take the form of an individual's summer or sabbatical trip to Japan; or of a group project spanning several years, several institutions and several disciplines. The lines between the various types of research are increasingly indistinct; only a combined survey of individuals, institutions and funding agencies could hope to reveal the full extent of research on Japan. This summary sketches only the outlines of advanced research, particularly in the base year of 1974-75, relying upon several items in the mailed questionnaire and information from the major funding sources.

1. Individual Research

Respondents to the questionnaire listed 88 faculty specialists (from 56 institutions) who had been in Japan for research purposes in 1974-75 for periods varying from a few weeks to the entire year or longer. This figure represents 10.2% of all Japan faculty specialists during 1974-75; the actual figure is probably somewhat higher, since some respondents lacked complete information.

These trips were funded by 23 different organizations, in addition to university grants and personal funds. The vast majority of specialists, however, were supported by one or more of the traditional government, private and university grants, including those from the Social Science Research Council, Fulbright program of the Department of State, the National Endowment for the Humanities, and The Japan Foundation. The 88 specialists came from schools of widely varying sizes and geographical locations.

Information obtained from the questionnaires was supplemented by data from the major funding agencies mentioned above. During the five-year period from 1970 through 1974, at least 204 grants were awarded to Japan specialists for individual research.* (There were few instances of one person receiving support for more than one individual research project during the five years, although there were instances in which awards from two agencies were combined to support one trip.)

*Over the past five years, grants from the S.S.R.C. have gone to 70 Japan specialists for postdoctoral research, while in two years alone The Japan Foundation has supported long-term stays in Japan for 43 professional specialists and innumerable short-term trips (53 in 1973-74). From 1970 through 1974, Fulbright-Hays advanced research grants went to 19 Japan specialists, while the State Department's Fulbright program enabled 123 Americans, of whom approximately 39 were Japan specialists, to spend anywhere from three weeks to a year or more in Japan to teach, lecture, do research or consult. The National Endowment for the Humanities has also been active in supporting research in Japan, awarding 33 grants from 1972 through 1974. Specific figures for the National Endowment for the Arts were not available, but responses from 15 museums and galleries show that this agency has sponsored many short trips to Japan for Japan specialists who are curators at both university-affiliated and independent museums.

Given estimated total faculty strength of 846, this means that slightly upwards of 25 percent of the faculty specialists on Japan had a research trip during the five years, with support from the five primary funding agencies for postdoctoral research. Clearly, additional individuals visited Japan during the same period with support from their universities, personal funds, or grants from agencies not surveyed.

Since the present survey is institutional rather than individual, it was impossible to follow up the findings of the 1970 J.C.J.S. Report where 60% of the respondents considered funding opportunities for postdoctoral research on Japan inadequate.* But university funds, which traditionally have supported a large number of individual research projects, have seriously contracted in the 1970s and inflation has increased the costs of travel to and work in Japan. In order that the rapidly increasing numbers of Japan specialists can have equitable access to vitally important fellowships for advanced research, greater commitments from surviving financial sources and/or the identification of new resources will be required.

2. Collaborative and Group Research

Although no two societies of such different historical cultures as the United States and Japan have ever opened so many doors to each other, the opportunities for mutual benefit

*J.C.J.S., Japanese Studies in the United States, p. 125

from translation programs, exchange arrangements, and joint research activities have only begun to be tapped. In response to a question asking if any of the specialists on Japan at the institution had engaged in collaborative research with Japanese colleagues during 1974-75, twenty-five colleges and universities replied affirmatively.* In most cases, information on the numbers of Americans and Japanese participating is unavailable, but aside from the larger universities, the impression is of one-to-one collaboration. Nevertheless, if the number of projects for 1974-75 is representative of other recent years, there is evidence here of the beginnings of an encouraging and long-awaited development in the field of Japanese studies.

Group research projects, both those involving Japanese collaboration and those pursued exclusively by American scholars tend to be concentrated at the larger universities, most particularly those with centers of Japanese studies where there are adequate research staff, library resources, computer facilities, office space and clerical staff to get the work done. Foundation support for group research on Japan has also gone to private groups, such as Brookings and the Trilateral Commission. Meanwhile, government supported or contracted research including Japan, amounting to one or two dozen projects annually and often comparative and applied in nature, goes to firms and some universities which specialize in consulting projects requiring bulk data analysis and rapid turn-around time.

*The topics ranged from aesthetics to whaling. See Appendix R. Note that the collaborative research conferences sponsored by the S.S.R.C. are not included in this institutional list.

**The agencies contracting out such research include, but

In addition to the projects already mentioned, some of the colleges and universities with Japan specialists have larger research programs concerning Japan either directly or indirectly. Excluding the numerous programs in the natural and applied sciences, 20 research programs in the humanities, social sciences and professions at 12 institutions were identified and are listed in Appendix S.

Finally, no discussion of group research would be complete without reference to the research conferences of the A.C.L.S.-S.S.R.C. Joint Committee on Japanese Studies. Between 1971 and 1974, the J.C.J.S. sponsored nine conferences on diverse topics.*

B. Publication

In order for individual and group research findings to be useful to a field of specialists, the results must be published and available to a wide audience. Thus, the traditional aim and culmination of research is the publication

are not limited to: AID, NASA, NSF, USIA, Labor, Commerce, and Defense. See the annual State Department publication, Inventory of Government-Supported Research Projects on Foreign Affairs, East Asia.

*1971--"The Effect of Home Environment and Early Social Development on Cognitive Growth and the Transition to Formal Education". 1972--"Mutual Images"; 1973--"Japanese Organization and Decision-Making," "Japan and World Order," "Japanese Industrialization and Its Social Consequences," and "Japan in the Muromachi Period"; 1974--"Leadership and Decision-Making in Japan's International Relations," "U.S.-Japan Sociolinguistics," and "Comparative Uses of the Japanese Experience."

of a book or article. In this report, the focus is upon books and monographs published about Japan from 1970 through 1974. As with dissertations, books are enumerated in two categories: those dealing primarily with Japan and those treating Japan in a cross-cultural way. All serious books and monographs for which references could be found are included as long as they were published in the United States or were written or translated by Americans regardless of where published.*

The results of this survey are shown in Appendix T. It is striking that in spite of the general expansion of the field, the number of serious works and translations published in 1974 (115) was 9% less than in 1970 (126). A major reason for this serious problem would seem to be the skyrocketing costs of publication in the United States, particularly since 1973. The commercial market now finds it difficult to publish books which cannot be expected to command a mass, non-specialist market. The size of the clientele for research books on Japan is naturally limited, with the result that higher costs are burying many manuscripts.

The considerable amount of reprinting of books on Japan during the past five years also deserves comment. As a

*This last was admittedly a somewhat risky venture; fortunately, the field is still small and many names were familiar, especially from the enumeration of doctoral dissertations.



result of this activity, it has been possible for libraries only now building collections on Japan to acquire pre-war and 1940s and 1950s works in English.*

A related problem is the publication and transmittal of information on Japan to a wider audience. Recently, the production of films and audio-visual tapes has become a feasible means of preparing teaching materials, and it may be that the next survey of Japanese studies in years hence will wish to look at such materials as one form of "publication." The next section of this report presents a closer look at current services to the non-specialist communities.

*For example, Asakawa's Documents of Iriki (Greenwood, 1971) and E.H. Norman's Japan's Emergence as a Modern State (Greenwood, 1973) are both available, along with SCAP's Political Reorientation of Japan (Greenwood, 1970) and A.K. Reischauer's Studies in Japanese Buddhism (A.M.S., 1970).

III. SERVICES

Libraries, museums, and an increasing number of colleges and universities are offering services to each other and to the general public which strengthen the study of Japan. There are also a number of museums around the country which are not only repositories of major collections of Japanese art, but whose staff engage in research, publish, and give lectures and talks about the arts of Japan.

The 1974-75 institutional and museum surveys were the first attempts to gather information on these rapidly increasing activities. Because the programs are in such an early stage and are expanding so rapidly, the information presented in this section may be less complete and up-to-date than any other section in this report.

Information on college and university activities has been separated into two broad categories of programs: services to the non-scholarly community and services to Japan specialists in academia or closely related fields. In both categories the respondents have been grouped according to geographical location: East, Central, Mountain and Southwest, and West.* Information on specific programs is included in Appendix U.

*East: New England, Middle Atlantic and Southeastern states generally bounded by Appalachians; Central: Michigan, Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, West Virginia, Tennessee, Wisconsin, Illinois, Missouri, Mississippi, Minnesota, Iowa, Nebraska, Kansas; Mountain and Southwest: Utah, Colorado, Oklahoma, Texas, New Mexico, Arizona; West: Washington, Oregon, California, Hawaii, Alaska. States without known Japan specialists are Idaho, Montana, North and South Dakota, Wyoming, Nevada, Arkansas, Alabama, and Louisiana.

During 1974-75, colleges and universities in the Central states appeared to have been the most active in trying to reach the elementary and secondary schools and their teachers, and also in extending expertise to business. The West Coast NDEA centers are also moving in similar directions. In contrast, colleges and universities on the East Coast, while supporting workshops and conferences for elementary and secondary school teachers and sending faculty out to lecture and consult, do not report having established the kinds of summer institutes and resource centers spoken of by colleges and universities in the Central and Western states. This may well be due to the existence in the major Eastern cities of institutions and organizations already offering similar services.

The situation is quite different with regard to services to other Japan specialists. East Coast institutions are extensively engaged in local and regional seminars, while two of the leading journals are edited in this region. The other region also extending services to academics is the West, with three of the ten local and regional seminars and two leading journals. The Central states have one local and one regional seminar, with publication centering on papers.

Cultural events may also be viewed as services, particularly when they take the form of films, concerts, art exhibitions, and lectures open to the public. Sixty-one colleges and universities replied in the questionnaire that there had been one or more such cultural events on campus during 1974-75. Most

popular were film series (43), followed by art exhibitions and the performing arts. There were also several symposia and conferences open to the public.

Of the various services offered, then, the three that represent new or expanded activities over five years ago are the local and regional seminars; closer work with local elementary and public schools; and the establishment of resource centers with audio-visual materials, books, and specialists on call for lectures and consulting. While all of these have been materially assisted or encouraged by external funding, especially the setting up of resource centers, it is to be hoped that they find a permanent place in Japan programs. For academic specialists on Japan, the seminars are a clear and direct benefit, giving a greater sense of a "field" of Japanese studies and substantially decreasing the sense of isolation of the faculty in lone-scholar institutions.

The questionnaire to museums and galleries was turned by 15 of the 25 institutions to which it was sent. The results must therefore be viewed as provisional. Of the 15 respondents, 10 are independent museums and galleries and 5 are museums affiliated with universities and thus heavily engaged in teaching and research. Excluding faculty members mentioned earlier in this report, the institutions employed 15 full-time and 13 part-time specialists on Japanese art. Eleven of the 15 museums and galleries had special exhibitions of Japanese art during 1974, while an additional four had exhibitions which

included Japanese art. Over the five-year period, 52 exhibitions solely of Japanese art were held, with ceramics and prints especially popular. All but one of the museums offers gallery talks and single or series lectures, and most sponsor at least one lecture per exhibition.

IV. LIBRARIES

Since budgetary and staffing data for libraries in 1974-75 comparable to similar information reported in 1969-70 was unavailable, this section concentrates on those college and university libraries with Japanese language holdings of 1,000 or more volumes in 1974-75. In addition, information has been collected on federal and municipal libraries, and on museum libraries and special collections pertaining to Japan.

In 1969-70, the J.C.J.S. Report established minimum criteria for Japanese language holdings in institutional libraries to distinguish between teaching and research facilities. According to the Report, a library with 20,000 volumes was considered primarily a teaching facility; a size of 40,000 volumes was considered minimal for more comprehensive research purposes.*

In 1974-75, twelve university libraries had collections of 40,000 volumes or more; eight had 20,000-40,000 volumes; and 31 reported collections of 1,000-20,000 volumes. A comparison with collections in 1969-70 is shown in Table 14 on the following page. For a list of the colleges and universities included in the table, see Appendix V. At the lower end of the spectrum, 10 institutions had holdings of between 500 and 900 volumes in 1974-75, and an additional 24 reported holdings of less than 500 volumes.

*J.C.J.S., Japanese Studies in the United States, pp. 69-74

Table 14

JAPANESE LANGUAGE COLLECTIONS IN AMERICAN
COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES,
1969-70 AND 1974-75

<u>Japanese Language Holdings</u>	<u>Number of Institutions</u>	
	<u>1969-70</u>	<u>1974-75</u>
1,000 - 19,999	23	31
20,000 - 39,999	4	8
40,000 +	<u>10</u>	<u>12</u>
Totals	37	51

Source: Table 33 in Appendix V.

While the five years between 1969 and 1974 witnessed an increase of 14 in the total number of libraries with more than 1,000 Japanese language holdings, the field is far short of the goals suggested in the J.C.J.S. Report: 20 research libraries with more than 40,000 volumes each, and three research facilities with holdings of 250,000-500,000 each.* At the present time, only the Library of Congress has the resources to meet the latter criterion. Existing major libraries are, however, rather equitably distributed in geographical location; the major collections are shown in the map on the following page.

Reports on subscriptions to Japanese language periodicals indicate that the research-level libraries (i.e., those with 40,000 volumes or more in Japanese) tend to have 250 or more subscriptions, while three-quarters of the university libraries

*J.C.J.S., Japanese Studies in the United States, p. 73.

REGIONAL DISTRIBUTION
OF
LIBRARY RESOURCES:

Institutions Reporting Japanese Language Holdings
of 20,000 Volumes or More as of 1975



- over 500,000
- 100,000 to 499,999
- 40,000 to 99,999
- 20,000 to 39,999

with 20,000 volumes or more have subscriptions in excess of 100. Reports on Western language holdings are fragmentary and only estimates, but figures are included in Table 33 for those institutions reporting figures.

Table 33 also includes information on Japanese language holdings in federal and municipal libraries and museum libraries for which information was available. Among the federal and municipal libraries, only the Library of Congress, with nearly 600,000 Japanese language volumes in 1974-75, is a major research facility. Among the museums responding to the questionnaire, 6 report Japanese language holdings of between 50 and 500 volumes, 7 report holdings of 1,500 to 4,000; Hinomoto, a privately established collection, has 46,000 volumes. The two largest collections of Western language books on Japan in museums are found at the Nelson-Atkins Gallery and the Japan House; for university-affiliated museums, the largest holdings are at Berkeley and the Fogg Museum at Harvard. A second form of institutional resource in the Japan field may be found in the collections of art, photographs and slides in the museums. Judging from the questionnaires returned, considerable acquisitions of Japanese art have been made since 1970, but complete statistical information is unavailable at this time.

V. FINANCIAL SUPPORT

Any attempt to estimate total expenditures for a field as large and diverse as Japanese studies is inherently hazardous. As the responses to the questionnaire illustrate, such estimates proved difficult at even the institutional level. Although this section attempts to draw together a summary financial description of the field with material from the questionnaires and supplementary data from major sources of funding, it must be emphasized that such an activity involves a great degree of approximation.

The data suggest that expenditures for Japanese studies in American colleges and universities in 1974-75 totalled approximately \$27 million (see Table 15). This represents a \$12 million gain over the expenditures in 1969-70 as estimated in the J.C.J.S. Report.* This figure, of course, masks the effects of inflation. If it is deflated by the roughly 40% rise in consumer prices over the same period, the real gain appears to be only \$4.8 million--an increase of only 32% over 1969-70.

The size of the field, on the other hand, seems roughly to have doubled. How could so much have been done with such a relatively modest increase? Part of the explanation is probably that the increase in the faculty cohort took place

*J.C.J.S., Japanese Studies in the United States, p. 155.

at the instructor and assistant professor level. Moreover, faculty salaries generally have not kept pace with inflation.

Table 15

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURES FOR JAPANESE STUDIES
IN U.S. COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES IN FY 1974-75
BY SOURCES OF FUNDING*

I. Institutional Support (198 U.S. colleges and universities)	\$20,904,562	78.1%
II. External Funding		
A. U.S. Government		
1. Office of Education	1,295,266	
2. NEH grants to individuals	559,297	
3. State Department grants to Americans (MECEA)	320,092	
4. NSF grants to individuals	58,400	
	<u>2,233,055</u>	8.3%
B. American Foundations and Private Organizations		
1. Social Science Research Council	339,534	
2. Other American foundations**	1,505,696	
	<u>1,845,230</u>	6.9%
C. Japan Source Funds		
1. Direct Institutional Grants	(2,350,000)***	
2. Japan Foundation contribution to Japanese Studies, JFY 1974	1,110,358	
3. Estimated Income from Japan Foundation Endowment Grants (10)	528,619	
4. Remaining Japan Source Funds	138,535	
	<u>1,777,512</u>	6.6%
Total External Funding	5,855,797	21.8%
Grand Totals, 1974-75	\$26,760,359	99.9%

*For sources of data and detailed comments on the figures included in this table, see Appendix W.

**This figure excludes the transfer of Ford Foundation monies to the S.S.R.C.

***Sources in Japan made three major grants to two institutions in 1974-75 for a total amount of \$2,350,000. However, these were endowment grants and therefore do not represent funds expendable during the 1974-75 fiscal year. For this reason they are excluded from the totals in the Table above and the text below.

In addition, there may have been a reduction in the share of support going to student fellowships, library needs, and the like. In any event, the record in this report shows and exceptional efficiency in the use of these new funds.

Where did they come from? A comparison with the gross estimates of sources of funding in 1969-70 shows significant changes (see Table 16). Institutional support from the

Table 16

CHANGES IN SOURCES OF FINANCIAL SUPPORT
FOR JAPANESE STUDIES, FROM 1969-70 TO 1974-75

<u>Sources</u>	Percentage of Total		Dollar amounts in millions	
	<u>1969-70</u>	<u>1974-75</u>	<u>1969-70</u>	<u>1974-75</u>
U.S. colleges and universities (institutional funds)	87%	78.1%	\$13 mil.	\$20.9 mil.
Other American sources	13	15.2	2	4.0
U.S. Government		(8.3)		(2.2)
American foundations		(6.9)		(1.8)
Japanese sources	—	<u>6.6</u>	—	<u>1.8</u>
TOTALS	100%	100.0%	\$15 mil.	\$26.7 mil.

Sources: Table 15; J.C.J.S., Japanese Studies in the United States, p. 155.

general income of U. S. colleges and universities seems to have kept pace roughly with inflation while external American funding increased substantially. Most significant to growth in

the field as a whole have been the extraordinary contributions made by the Japan Foundation and other Japanese sources, amounting in 1974-75 to \$1.8 million or 6.6% of the total.

To the extent that these summary impressions are accurate, they help identify a serious funding problem for the late 1970s. Even if the number of faculty and students in Japanese studies were to remain frozen at its 1974-75 size, costs are bound to rise. Inflation can be expected to drive up all costs. In addition, expenditures for personnel will need to take account of the growing seniority of the junior faculty previously hired.

But the challenge to the field is not static maintenance. It is further growth, aimed at raising American understanding to a level more commensurate with the ever-increasing importance of Japan in American life. This will pose serious ~~new problems for university and college budgets already badly~~ strained.

CONCLUSION

Dispersion and expansion have characterized the field of Japanese studies since 1970. The field has come a long way toward meeting the goal of "doubling in a decade" proposed in the J.C.J.S. Report. What of the future? Will the next five years see many new entrants to the list of colleges and universities employing Japan specialists? Will specialists on Japan and faculty in the professional schools devise viable means for incorporating the study of Japan into the curricula of business, law and journalism? Will Japan specialists continue to be assisted in their research, writing and creation of new courses and teaching materials through grants and fellowships? Will there be more opportunities for students to travel, live and study in Japan?

These are a few of the questions facing us today. Not all answerable; we can reply to some. Dispersion of Japan specialists to new colleges and universities has continued even as the data for this report were being collected and analyzed. Moreover, between 1975 and 1980, continued expansion will be taking place at institutions already employing Japan specialists. The respondents to the questionnaires reported over 75 anticipated faculty openings in the five years ahead as well as a continuing need for librarians and language staff.

Among the goals and objectives respondents cited as their institution's aims for the study of Japan, the revision

and creation of new curricula and courses was most important. This aim extends from the desire to become more active in the design of materials on Japan for use in elementary and secondary school instruction to freshman core courses, upper-level interdisciplinary courses, new graduate degrees and the integration of graduate and professional degree programs for those wishing to pursue Japan-related careers outside academia.

Language instruction continues to be a matter of prime concern. Some schools hope either to begin offering Japanese or to extend their language offerings beyond the second or third levels. Many of the schools for which language instruction is a major consideration are located so far from other institutions where Japanese is taught that cross-registration would be out of the question.

Almost universally, respondents voiced apprehension over the funding of the study of Japan. While for some state universities the increasing presence of Japanese business within their states is encouraging, and while Japan programs at a number of other colleges and universities have full institutional backing in fund-raising efforts, there is no doubt that anxiety with regard to finance permeates the field. Predictability in funding is the often-heard plea, applying equally to monies for research in Japan for individuals, financial aid for students, and assistance with language teaching and libraries.

These concerns are eminently realistic. While the last five years have seen growth beyond that anticipated, the vast majority of this growth has been accomplished by the colleges and universities themselves, and was achieved only with difficulty given competing demands on strapped budgets. The signs of strain have begun to show, for example, in the decreased rate of library acquisitions.

The next five years will be critical. Growth will be slower; more important than its rate will be how and where it occurs, and how it is supported. These years will be a time for consolidation of the programs which expanded so rapidly during the past five years. They will be a time for exploration of new areas of inquiry in doctoral and post-doctoral research. They will be a time, too, for the field to consider its role in the education and training not only of academic specialists to carry on teaching and research, but also of citizens knowledgeable about Japan in all walks of life. This is a worthwhile challenge.

APPENDICES



APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRES

1. INSTITUTIONAL QUESTIONNAIRE

January 5, 1976

U.S.-Japan Conference on
Cultural and Educational Interchange

SURVEY OF THE STUDY OF JAPAN BY AMERICANS

Please return your completed
questionnaire to:

Prof. Joseph A. Massey
Department of Government
Dartmouth College
Hanover, New Hampshire, 03755

Institution: _____

Name and Title
of Person Completing
This Questionnaire: _____

* * *

Many of the questions can be answered by circling the NUMBER of the appropriate response, or checking the appropriate box. Please answer all those questions relevant to the study of Japan at your institution, whether yours is a "lone scholar" college or a "center."

✓ 1. About how many specialists on Japan are there on the faculty at your institution, including graduate and professional schools, if any? Please write the total number in the box.

✓ If there are no specialists on Japan at your institution, please check here, and return the questionnaire.

* * *



2. What is the academic organization of the study of Japan and the Japanese language at your institution?

- (1) a regular department of Japanese Studies
 - (2) a regular department of Japanese Language and Literature
 - (3) an interdisciplinary degree granting program but not a department
 - (4) a non-degree granting interdisciplinary program with a formal curriculum of courses for a minor on Japan
 - (5) an interdisciplinary committee without a fixed curriculum but coordinating courses and students
 - (6) a listing of courses taught within disciplinary departments with no formal links among them
 - (7) not a teaching program, only organized for research
 - (8) other, specify: _____
-

3. If the study of Japan is organized under an interdisciplinary program or committee, what is the area in which it is included?

- (1) Japan only
 - (2) East Asian Studies, Far Eastern Studies
 - (3) Asian Studies, Oriental Studies
 - (4) Asian and African Studies
 - (5) International Studies
 - (6) other, specify: _____
-

4. Does the department or program under which the study of Japan is organized have any continuing substantial links with professional, engineering, or other applied schools or departments within your institution?

- (1) No
 - (2) Yes, informal ties
 - (3) Yes, formal exchange of information, students, etc.
 - (4) Yes, integral part of program, with the following departments: _____
-

5. Are there other research, teaching or applied projects, institutes or programs which include a substantial amount of continuing work on Japan?

- (1) No
 - (2) Yes, specify: _____
-

CULCON Survey
page 3

6. Does the department or program have any regular, formal relations with area studies programs on other countries within your institution?

- (1) No
 (2) Yes, we are jointly represented on overarching committees
 (3) Yes, some of our faculty serves in other area studies programs
 (4) other, specify: _____

✓ 7. Does the department publish a journal?

- (1) No (2) Yes, titled: _____

✓ 8. Does the department or program publish papers and monographs?

- (1) No (2) Yes, titled: _____

✓ 9. Does the department or program regularly provide services for the general public other than occasional lecturing and consulting by individual faculty members?

- (1) No (2) Yes, briefly the following: _____

10. Is your institution part of a consortium arrangement with other U.S. universities/colleges for activities relating to Japan carried out within the U.S.?

- (1) No (2) Yes

If yes, what is the name of the consortium and what other institutions participate?

11. Does your institution have any agreement with programs at U.S. universities/colleges which divides responsibility for language taught, countries emphasized, library coverage, etc.?

- (1) No (2) Yes

If yes, what other institutions participate? _____

CULCON Survey
page 4

12. Is your institution now part of a consortium arrangement with U.S. universities/colleges for activities carried out in Japan?

- (1) No (2) Yes

If yes, what is the name of the consortium and what other institutions participate? _____

✓ 13. Does your institution have any formal relationship with institutions in Japan?

- (1) No (2) Yes, with: _____

✓ 14. Does the department or program regularly serve the needs of other colleges other than occasional lecturing and consulting by individual faculty members?

- (1) No (2) Yes, briefly the following: _____

✓ 15. During the academic year 1974 - 75, how many specialists on Japan were employed at your institution? Please include law, business, medicine and other faculties as well as undergraduate and graduate.

<u>Department/School</u>	<u>Faculty (FTE's)</u>	<u>Researchers Translators</u>	<u>Library Language Staff (non-FTE's)</u>
✓ Art			
Anthropology			
Economics			
✓ History			
✓ Language/Literature			
✓ Music, Drama			
✓ Political Science			
✓ Religion, Philosophy			
Sociology			
Business:			
Law:			
Medicine:			
Other:			

- ✓ 16. During the academic year 1974 - 75, were any of these specialists, including researchers, library staff, etc., on leave doing research in Japan?

(1) No (2) Yes

If yes, can you tell us how many by department, of what status (faculty, library, etc.), and who sponsored them?

<u>Department/School</u>	<u>Number on Leave</u>	<u>Status</u>	<u>Sponsored by</u>

- ✓ 17. During the academic year 1974 - 75, did any of the specialists on Japan engage in a joint or cooperative research project with Japanese scholars or researchers?

(1) No (2) Yes

If yes, can you tell us how many by department, what the project title was, and how the project was funded?

<u>Department/School</u>	<u>Project Title</u>	<u>Funded by</u>

- ✓ 18. During the academic year 1974 - 75, did your institution have any of the following kinds of visitors from Japan:

a. Visiting scholars to carry on research for 3 months or more?

(1) No (2) Yes, in the following department(s) and funded

b. Visiting professors to teach a semester course or more?

(1) No (2) Yes, teaching the following courses and funded

c. Visitors who came for a short time and gave a talk, conferred with students and faculty, etc.?

- (1) No (2) Yes, doing the following sorts of things and funded by:
-

✓ 19. Does your library have a Japanese language collection?

- (1) No (2) Yes

If yes, could you try to estimate answers to the following questions:

- a. How many books on Japan in the Japanese language? _____
- b. How many subscriptions to serials in Japanese? _____
- c. How many staff members servicing the collection? _____
- d. In what discipline(s) are you strongest? _____

20. Does your library have a collection in Western languages on Japan?

- (1) No, we do not acquire books on Japan.
(2) We acquire books on Japan, but not for a collection on Japan.
(3) Yes, we have a collection in Western languages on Japan.

If yes, could you try to estimate answers to the following questions:

- ~~a. How many books on Japan in Western languages? _____~~
- b. How many subscriptions to serials on Japan? _____
- c. How many staff members servicing the collection? _____
- d. In what discipline(s) are you strongest? _____

✓ 21. During 1974 - 75, can you estimate the number of acquisitions your library made to its

- a. Japanese language holdings? _____
- b. Western language holdings on Japan? _____

22. Is the Japanese language taught at your institution?

- (1) No (2) Yes

23. If the Japanese language is not taught, did any of your students choose to study the language during 1974 - 75 by one of the following means?

- (1) no student chose to study Japanese
- (2) enrolling in the Self-Instructional Program in the Non-Western Languages
- (3) taking a year off to study Japanese elsewhere in the U.S.; specifically, at: _____
- (4) taking a year off to study Japanese in Japan; specifically, at: _____
- (5) setting up a special for-credit course at your institution under the supervision of a specialist on Japan whose field is not Japanese language or literature.
- (6) we have a cooperative arrangement with _____ where our students go for Japanese language study.

24. If the Japanese language is taught, what courses were offered during 1974 - 75, and how many students enrolled? Please include advanced courses, e.g., kanbun.

<u>Course Title</u>	<u>Hours per Week</u>	<u>How Many Weeks</u>	<u>74-75 U-grad. Enroll.</u>	<u>74-75 Grad. Enroll.</u>	<u>Given Every Year?</u>
---------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	------------------------------	----------------------------	--------------------------

25. Where is the basic instruction in Japanese given?

- (1) Japanese not taught
- (2) linguistics department
- (3) language and literature department emphasizing modern Japanese
- (4) language and literature department emphasizing classical Japanese
- (5) in a separate language teaching school, department, etc.
- (6) provided by the program itself outside of other department
- (7) in the anthropology department
- (8) other, specify: _____

26. Would you describe the program on Japan as

- (1) essentially an undergraduate program
- (2) strong both in undergraduate and graduate
- (3) essentially a graduate program

27. Do you give an introductory survey or civilization of Japan course at the undergraduate level?

- (1) No
- (2) Yes

28. Is there an interdisciplinary undergraduate major on Japan?

- (1) No
- (2) Yes

If yes, a. how many students were enrolled in 1974 - 75? _____

b. how many B.A.'s specializing on Japan were awarded in 1974 - 75? _____

29. Is there a disciplinary undergraduate major on Japan?

- (1) No
- (2) Yes

If yes, a. how many students were enrolled in 1974 - 75? _____

b. how many B.A.'s were awarded in 1974 - 75? _____

30. Is there an appreciable number of undergraduates taking disciplinary B.A.'s other than language and literature who are specializing on Japan?

- (1) No
- (2) Yes

If yes, do you know about how many received B.A.'s specializing on Japan during 1974 - 75? _____

31. What primarily undergraduate courses were offered on Japan during 1974 -75, and how many students enrolled? Please omit any language courses listed under question 24, above.

Course Title, Number and Length (e.g., term, year)	Dept.	74-75	74-75	Given Every Year?
		U-grad. Enroll.	Grad. Enroll.	

32. Are there any courses on the undergraduate level which teach about Japan in a comparative or multinational way? For example, in comparative literature or a course on 20th century military history

Course Title, Number and Length (e.g., term, year)	Dept.	74-75 U-grad. Enroll.	74-75 Grad. Enroll.	Given Every Year?
--	-------	-----------------------	---------------------	-------------------

33. Do you give any interdisciplinary graduate degrees or certificates for work on Japan?

	Number of Enrollees 74-75	Number of Degrees & Certificates Awarded 74-75
(1) No	(2) _____	(2) _____
(2) Certificate only	(3) _____	(3) _____
(3) M.A.	(4) _____	(4) _____
(4) Ph.D.		

34. Do you give any disciplinary graduate degrees or certificates with a specialty on Japan?

	Number of Enrollees 74-75	Number of Degrees & Certificates Awarded 74-75
(1) No	(2) _____	(2) _____
(2) Certificate only	(3) _____	(3) _____
(3) M.A.	(4) _____	(4) _____
(4) Ph.D.		

35. During the 1974 - 75 academic year, what graduate courses on Japan were offered, and how many students enrolled? Please omit Japanese language courses listed under question 24 above.

Course Title, Number and Length (e.g., term, year)	Dept.	74-75 U-grad. Enroll.	74-75 Grad. Enroll.	Given Every Year?
--	-------	-----------------------	---------------------	-------------------

36. If your institution has professional schools, do any of them teach courses on Japan, or courses which include Japan? For example, management and labor relations; epidemiology; or agricultural economy.

<u>Course Title and Length</u> (e.g., term, year)	<u>School</u>	<u>Dept.</u>	<u>74-75</u> <u>Enroll.</u>	<u>Given</u> <u>Every</u> <u>Year?</u>

✓ 37. Does your institution sponsor a study-in-Japan program?

(1) No (2) Yes

✓ 38. If your institution does sponsor a study-in-Japan program,

a. Whom is it for, primarily?

- (1) undergraduates
- (2) both undergraduates and graduates
- (3) graduates

b. How long is it?

- (1) summer only
- (2) one term or semester
- (3) academic year
- (4) other, specify: _____

c. About how many students participated in 1974 - 75? _____

d. Is it affiliated with a Japanese university/college?

(1) No (2) Yes, with _____

e. While the students are in Japan, what is their major activity?

- (1) language study
- (2) courses on Japan offered by the program itself
- (3) courses on Japan at a Japanese university/college
- (4) independent work/study
- (5) other, specify: _____

f. In 1974 - 75, did students from other American universities/ colleges participate in the study-in-Japan program?

- (1) No, it is only for our own students.
- (2) No, no other students participated.
- (3) Yes, students from other places participated.

g. Is it a joint study-in-Japan program in which other U.S. institutions participate?

- (1) No
- (2) Yes, the other institutions are: _____

39. During 1974 - 75, did your institution sponsor any extracurricular activities on Japan, such as a film festival or art exhibition?

- (1) No
- (2) Yes, specifically: _____

✓ 40. Do you have a rough idea of how many of your students who graduate in spring, 1975, went on to further study of Japan?

- (1) None did, to our knowledge.
- (2) _____ out of a total of _____ graduating B.A.'s.
- (3) _____ out of a total of _____ graduating M.A.'s.
- (4) _____ out of a total of _____ certificate receivers.
- (5) _____ out of a total of _____ graduating Ph.D.'s.

✓ 41. Do you have a rough idea of how many of your students who graduate in spring, 1975, found employment relating to Japan?

- (1) None did, to our knowledge.
- (2) _____ out of a total of _____ graduating B.A.'s.
- (3) _____ out of a total of _____ graduating M.A.'s.
- (4) _____ out of a total of _____ certificate receivers.
- (5) _____ out of a total of _____ graduating Ph.D.'s.

42. Do you have a rough idea of how undergraduate enrollments in courses on Japan during 1974 - 75 compared with enrollments in 1969 - 70?

- (1) We did not offer courses on Japan in 1969 - 70.
- (2) Enrollments are somewhat smaller now than they were.
- (3) Enrollments are about the same now as they were.
- (4) Enrollments are somewhat larger now than they were.
- (5) Enrollments are much larger now than they were.
- (6) The numbers enrolling then and now are small and volatile.

✓ 43. What do you anticipate will be the trend in undergraduate enrollments between 1974 - 75 and 1979-80?

a. in Japanese language courses, enrollments will probably

- (1) decrease
- (2) stay the same
- (3) increase slightly
- (4) increase by 50% or more

b. in disciplinary courses, enrollments will probably

- (1) decrease
- (2) stay the same
- (3) increase slightly
- (4) increase by 50% or more

44. Do you have a rough idea of how graduate enrollments in courses on Japan during 1974 - 75 compare with enrollments in 1969 - 70?

- (1) We did not offer graduate courses on Japan in 1969 - 70.
- (2) We do not now offer graduate courses on Japan.
- (3) Enrollments are somewhat smaller now than they were.
- (4) Enrollments are about the same now as they were.
- (5) Enrollments are somewhat larger now than they were.
- (6) Enrollments are much larger now than they were.
- (7) The numbers enrolling then and now are small and volatile.

45. What do you anticipate will be the trend in graduate enrollments between 1974 - 75 and 1979 - 80?

a. in Japanese language courses, graduate enrollments will probably

- (1) decrease
- (2) stay the same
- (3) increase slightly
- (4) increase by 50% or more

b. in disciplinary courses, enrollments will probably

- (1) decrease
- (2) stay the same
- (3) increase slightly
- (4) increase by 50% or more

46. For students interested in careers relating to Japan, where do you think the greatest employment opportunities will lie between 1974 - 75 and 1979 - 80?

47. How many specialists on Japan is it reasonable to think that your own institution may hire between 1974 - 75 and 1979 - 80? (New positions plus replacements for natural attrition.)

- (1) _____ faculty (FTE's)
- (2) _____ researchers, translators
- (3) _____ language staff
- (4) _____ library staff

48. We are interested in rough figures on the total cost of the study of Japan by Americans in 1974 - 75; in particular, how much of the cost at universities and colleges is being currently carried on funds outside those which are part of a university's general funds.

50.

Amount for
FY 1974 - 75

- a. What would you estimate to be the total cost of the program on Japan, including university contributions to salary? a. _____
- b. How much NDEA Center support, if any, are you receiving? b. _____
- c. How much private support from American foundations is available to you? c. _____
- d. How much support from Japanese sources is available to you? d. _____
- e. How much university support is available? e. _____

51.

49. Can you give either a total amount or a rough percent of all expenditures for the study of Japan under the following headings, divided between internal and external funds:

	<u>Internal</u>	<u>External</u>
a. faculty salaries for teaching on Japan	a. _____	_____
b. faculty salaries for teaching Japanese language	b. _____	_____
c. administration	c. _____	_____
d. library staff and acquisitions	d. _____	_____
d-1. acquisitions in Japanese	d-1 _____	_____
d-2 acquisitions in Western lang.	d-2 _____	_____
e. faculty research including released time	e. _____	_____
f. student fellowships and scholarships	f. _____	_____
g. other, _____	g. _____	_____
h. other, _____	h. _____	_____

52

50. What seem to you to be the three most serious problems or opportunities the study of Japan by Americans will face from 1974-75 to 1979-80?

(1) _____

(2) _____

(3) _____

51. Over the next five years, 1974-75 to 1979-80, what commitment has your institution made to the study of Japan?

52. For these next five years, can you identify the specific goals and priorities your institution has for the study of Japan, and can you tell us how these goals and priorities will be funded?

Thank you for your assistance in answering these questions.

2. MUSEUM QUESTIONNAIRE

January 25, 1976

U.S.-Japan Conference on
Cultural and Educational Interchange

SURVEY OF THE STUDY OF JAPAN BY AMERICANS
MUSEUM QUESTIONNAIRE

Please return your completed
questionnaire to:

Prof. Joseph A. Massey
Department of Government
Dartmouth College
Hanover, New Hampshire 03755

Museum: _____

Name and Title
of Person Completing
This Questionnaire: _____

* * *

1. About how many specialists on Japan are there on the staff of your museum?
Please write the total number in each box.

Devoting full-time to Japanese art:

Devoting part-time to Japanese art:

2. During the 5-year period 1970 - 1974, what exhibitions of Japanese art or
artifacts were held at your museum?

<u>Year</u>	<u>Exhibition Title</u>	<u>Sponsored by</u>

3. During the same 5-year period 1970 - 1974, what exhibitions were held at your
museum which included, but were not solely of, Japanese art or artifacts?

<u>Year</u>	<u>Exhibition Title</u>	<u>Sponsored by</u>

CULCORN Survey
January 25, 1976
page 2

4. During the years 1970 - 1974, did your museum host an exchange exhibition of Japanese Art?

No Yes

If yes, can you tell us the year, title of the exhibition, and who sponsored or arranged the exchange?

Year Exhibition Title Sponsored by

5. Does your library have a collection of Japanese language materials on the arts of Japan?

No Yes

If yes, can you give us a rough estimate of the number of volumes? _____

6. Does your library have a collection of Western language materials on the arts of Japan?

No Yes

If yes, can you give us a rough estimate of the number of volumes? _____

7. During 1974 - 75, can you estimate the number of acquisitions your library made to its

a. Japanese language holdings _____

b. Western language holdings on Japan _____

And can you estimate roughly the amount spent in 1974 - 75 on these library acquisitions? _____

CULCON Survey
January 25, 1976
page 3

8. During the 1970 - 1974 period, did your museum conduct any lectures, seminars or symposia on the art of Japan?

No

Yes

If yes, can you tell us the title(s), whether a series or single lecture, and whether primarily for the general public or for specialists?

Title and Year

Series or Single?

Whom for?

9. During 1970 - 1974, did your museum make any major acquisitions or receive any major donations to your collection of Japanese art?

No

Yes

If yes, can you tell us the following things about the acquisitions:

Year
Acquired

Nature of the
Acquisition

Funded or
Donated by

10. During 1970 - 1974, did any of the specialists on Japan at your museum go to Japan to do research on Japanese art or artifacts?

No

Yes

If yes, can you tell us in what year, what the research topic was, and who funded the research trip?

Year

Research Topic

Funded by

MELCON Survey
 January 25, 1976
 page 4

11. During 1970 - 1974, did your museum publish any monographs, catalogues or other works on Japanese art or artifacts?

No Yes

If yes, can you tell us the year, title and author?

<u>Year</u>	<u>Title</u>	<u>Author</u>

12. We are very much interested in rough figures on the total cost of the study of Japan by Americans in 1974 - 1975; in particular, how much of the cost is being currently carried on funds outside those which are part of an institution's general funds.

Amount for
FY 1974 - 1975

- | | |
|--|----------|
| a. What would you estimate to be the total cost of maintaining your collection on Japan? | a. _____ |
| b. How much U.S. government support, if any, are you receiving? | b. _____ |
| c. How much state government support, if any, are you receiving? | c. _____ |
| d. How much municipal government support are you receiving? | d. _____ |
| e. How much private support from American foundations is available to you? | e. _____ |
| f. How much support from Japanese sources is available? | f. _____ |
| g. How much museum support is available? | g. _____ |

Thank you for your assistance in answering these questions.

APPENDIX B
SOURCES OF DATA

Selection of questionnaire approach

The two quantitative surveys of Japanese studies in the United States previous to this report relied upon questionnaires. The first, conducted in 1928 by Edward C. Carter under the auspices of the American Council of the Institute for Pacific Relations,* used a questionnaire sent to all accredited institutions of higher learning in the United States, which then numbered 546. To replicate such a mailing today, when the Education Directory 1974-1975** lists 1,364 four-year and 1,140 two-year institutions, would have been a greater undertaking than time or budget allowed. The second quantitative study, conducted by the Joint Committee on Japanese Studies in 1969,*** relied primarily upon questionnaires sent to individuals who, as members of the Association for Asian Studies, listed Japan as their country of interest and were known or believed to have received doctoral or other graduate degrees for work on Japan and also to be engaged in teaching or research concerning Japan in 1969. On the basis of the responses to questions on course offerings, enrollments and other items pertaining to the institution at which the respondent was working, and supplemented by catalogues and a number of institutional questionnaires, profiles were created of Japanese studies at the colleges and universities with Japan specialists.

The present study is based upon responses to an institutional questionnaire. This offered an efficient means of obtaining information on a variety of questions, most of which could be readily and appropriately answered on the institutional level. The objective was to send a questionnaire to every college and university in the country at

*China and Japan in Our University Curricula, edited by Edward C. Carter and published by the Institute for Pacific Relations, contains the findings. (New York, 1929).

**National Center for Educational Statistics, Washington, D.C., 1975.

***The SSRC-ACLS Joint Committee on Japanese Studies, Japanese Studies in the United States: A Report on the State of the Field, Current Resources and Future Needs (New York, February 1970).

which students had the opportunity of learning the Japanese language and/or of studying about Japan with one or more persons professionally qualified as Japan specialists. September 1974 - June 1975 was selected as the base year.

To define the universe of institutions in the United States at which students could learn about Japan from professionally qualified specialists was a critical problem. First, the range of institutions at which one can learn about Japan is great. On the one hand is the university with a center devoted solely to Japanese studies, employing 20 or more faculty and a half-dozen librarians. On the other hand, there is the college at which a semester course on Japan is given by the historian of China. Conversely, specialists on Japan teach a wide range of courses, with one extreme represented by the professor who offers, for example, only courses on Japanese Buddhist texts, and the other extreme represented by the professor restricted by department or university policy to offering a course on the economies of East Asia.

A second critical problem was to define who is a specialist. One useful and concise definition consists of two parts: a person (1) whose doctoral dissertation was concerned primarily with Japan and required sufficient competence in the Japanese language to enable use of the relevant Japanese language sources, be they people to be interviewed or documents to be read; and (2) whose current research, if not teaching, continues to be concerned with Japan either solely or comparatively. This definition was felt to be too restrictive for the purposes of the survey. In addition, to compile a list of specialists so defined and then identify the institutions at which they were working in 1974-75 would have required a great deal of time.

The solution was a compromise. The questionnaire would be mailed to all institutions which were believed to employ specialists on Japan as defined above. But the questionnaire itself would refer only to the fact that responses were requested from colleges and universities with "specialists on Japan"; in short, it would rely upon self-identification on the part of the respondents. This, it was believed, would bring responses from all those who would meet the narrow definition; while it would go beyond that boundary to permit response from individuals whose doctoral degree was not on Japan but who have subsequently come to concentrate on that country, as well as from individuals whose most advanced degree is other than the Ph.D. and whose work concentrates on Japan.

Mailing list for questionnaire

In order to create a preliminary list of the colleges and universities falling within this universe which would be as complete as possible, the following criteria were established. An institution meeting any one of the criteria would be included. The criteria are not mutually exclusive; each catches certain schools which the others do not.

1. All colleges and universities represented in the "Roster of Scholars" in the 1970 J.C.J.S. Report.
2. All 4-year colleges and universities reporting enrollments in Japanese to the 1974 biennial survey conducted by the Modern Language Association.
3. All 2-year colleges reporting enrollments in Japanese to the 1972 and 1974 biennial surveys of the Modern Language Association. (A check of the figures for the 1965, 1968, 1970, 1972 and 1974 surveys revealed that there is great fluidity in Japanese language teaching in the 2-year colleges.)
4. All colleges and universities whose names appeared in the publications of the A.A.S. (Newsletters, Professional Reviews, and the Journal of Asian Studies, 1970 through 1975 inclusive) in connection with one or more of the following:
 - a. councils, centers or programs comprehending the study of Japan;
 - b. study-in-Japan opportunities;
 - c. employing specialists on Japan.
5. All colleges and universities subscribing to the Japan Interpreter.

The preliminary list was later supplemented by the following sources:

1. All colleges and universities represented by one or more members in one of the following local or regional seminars on Japan, where a check of the individual's name with the two Shulman bibliographies* indicated that he or she met the basic

*Frank J. Shulman, comp. and ed., Japan and Korea: An Annotated Bibliography of Doctoral Dissertations in Western Languages, 1877-1969 (Chicago: American Library Association

criterion of a specialist of having written a doctoral dissertation on Japan. The regional seminars include: New England; Upstate New York and Southern Ontario; Columbia's University Seminar on Modern Japan; Washington, D.C. and Southeastern U.S.; Midwest; Southern California; and Berkeley's Collegium and Regional Seminars.

2. All colleges and universities employing recipients of grants awarded for work on Japan between 1970 and 1975 by the major funding agencies (the SSRC-ACLS, NEH, NSF, Fulbright and others), where the employer in 1974-75 could be determined.
3. Information at the Office of Education and Japan Society.
4. The Southern California Conference on International Studies, Directory of Faculty and Inventory of Programs in Asian Studies in Southern California Universities and Colleges, 1975 (Los Angeles, 1975).

Finally, the most recent membership list for the Association for Asian Studies (1973) was checked briefly for possible additions.

The final step was to check the 1975-76 (or 1974-75) catalogue for every institution on the preliminary list, to ascertain the proper titles of committees and departments and ensure correct addresses. In every instance except lone-scholar institutions or those which appeared to have no committee or department comprehending the study of Japan, the questionnaire was addressed to the person who seemed most likely to have administrative competence to answer questions pertaining to goals, commitments and finance as well as enrollment trends and other essentially institutional information. The final mailing list consisted of 267 colleges and universities, of which 258 were 4-year, 8 were 2-year, and 1, the East-West Center, is a research institute affiliated with the University of Hawaii.

and London: Frank Cass, 1970); and Frank Joseph Shulman, comp. and ed., Doctoral Dissertations on Japan and Korea, 1969-1974: A Classified Bibliographical Listing of International Research (Ann Arbor, Mich.: University Microfilms International, 1976).

Assessment of responses

The initial mailing of the questionnaire was sent in mid-January, 1976, with a second mailing one month later. Direct follow-up included telephone calls to selected non-respondents as well as personal requests at the A.A.S. meetings in mid-March. By late April, responses had been received from 198 institutions with 4 questionnaires returned for individual scholars who appear to have left. The response to the mailing may be classified as follows:

	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of Total</u>
Reporting 1 or more specialists	157	58.8
No response	65	24.3
No faculty specialists; Japanese language taught by instructor or student	11	4.1
No specialists; but one or more faculty are interested in Japan and may teach a course or two	7	2.6
No specialists	23	8.6
Returned; no longer there	<u>4</u>	<u>1.5</u>
Totals	267	99.9

During the summer, questionnaires were received from two more institutions, bringing the total reporting one or more specialists to 159. Furthermore, in a number of areas it is possible to provide statistical information from other sources for institutions which did not return the questionnaires.

Both the response rate (approximately 75%) and the overall quality of the data seem strikingly good. All of the largest programs replied; almost all of the medium and small programs likewise responded. The highest rate of non-response is among the schools believed to have a single specialist.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

The role of visuals as a learning aid is undeniable; studies over the past few years have conclusively established that. What is still interesting researchers is the way visual material is absorbed, the ways in which visuals should be used, and how they should be designed, developed and presented, and research already shows that their usefulness notwithstanding, they should be used intelligently with a realistic appraisal of their uses. Clearly they are not endlessly applicable, nor is one type of visual useful in all circumstances.

The variables are many. The subject matter influences the kinds of visuals used: geography, for example, is likely to use a large number of maps and graphs. Similarly the behavioural objective will have an effect: whether it is factual or visual information which needs to be understood, explained or rehearsed, and what needs to be recalled from the experience - concepts or facts.

The students themselves influence not only what is likely to be recalled but what form the visuals should take. Children, for example, learn differently from adults

who, because of their greater experience and knowledge, learn concepts with the pictures. Mental ability has been examined in its bearings on learning from visuals, and it appears that high IQs learn readily from either the visual or verbal approach. Lower IQs achieve better from visual aids than they do from verbally emphasized work as long as those aids are keyed to the level of the students. Indeed, visuals, in these circumstances, can act as excellent motivational devices.

Motivation is another variable in the effectiveness of visual education, as it is in most educational circles. Students learn any content matter much better when they are interested in what is before them. For this, visuals can be both a cause and an effect. Visual materials play an important role in raising motivation and interest, and the information they contain is better transmitted when motivation and interest are high. This situation is achieved, too, when the visuals are part of a programme which is seen by the students to be valid and attuned to their needs, a factor especially true of adults, and when the visuals are well incorporated with the material being taught.

Cultural factors may affect what students interpret as important and what they see as worthwhile learning techniques. In addition, such factors will influence what they absorb from a visual. Objects and concepts which are not in their own culture or which that culture underemphasizes may be

misinterpreted, or, indeed, not noticed at all in visual materials. Visuals can be very effective in this context in realigning cultural acceptance patterns.

The way in which the illustrations are presented is yet another variable. Are they to be in a programme paced by the teacher or one where the students work at a more leisurely or self-controlled pace? Whichever is chosen, the matter of exposure time becomes increasingly important, as numerous studies have shown. A system such as charts allows the students to refer to the visual at any time they need. So, too, do textbook and workbook illustrations. Slides and transparencies may have much the same advantage if the students are given enough viewing time. Films, television and the like are excellent for the presentation of concepts involving movement, but frame time is externally dictated, and the speed at which visualized information passes before students may become a cause of interference.

Interference must be kept in mind when considering what form the visuals will take, and here one should give attention to the ideas of design and realism. All visuals should be clear to all students which means that their size, clarity, spacing and color are all important. It sounds unnecessary to say that a picture in education should not be too small and should not be too large. If it is too small, many details will be indecipherable and hence confusing; if it is too big, a sense of unity will be sacrificed as students,

in trying to scan the whole picture, will tend to have their attention taken by a small section. Spacing is part of this concern as well. When parts of the visual are spaced well, the scanning eye moves smoothly and logically from one to another.

The matter of complexity or simplicity is a feature which is in the context of interference. As was noted in Chapter II the realism continuum does not reflect the "learning continuum" and increasing detail tends, instead, to decrease the teaching potential of the visual. However, this remains an inconstant feature. Dwyer found in his study that realistic, colored photographs were useful in certain proscribed areas of a lesson on the part of the heart. All the same, on the whole, studies suggest that less complex illustrations are more readily understood and better for the transfer of information.

In the context of realism should be considered the matter of color. Again it is hard to be definite in any conclusions for sometimes it is true that black and white illustrations can be extremely effective - the contrast is strong. On the other hand, color can be important for clarification, for attention-getting, for visibility considerations, for the interpretation of relationships and for the subtle transmission of attitudes. Children tend to react to color, especially strong color, more definitely than adults who are accustomed to the symbolism of black

and white and the ideas it transmits, but all people can absorb a great deal from color. Wise use of color can add to the learning experience; undisciplined use adds nothing and can become an overload, resulting in a decrease of understanding.

Using the visuals requires cueing methodology. Adults in particular need to feel in touch with the work being presented and prefer to be told of the learning objectives in front of them. This has the advantage of focusing their attention and receptive concentration. Questions have a similar effect, written or oral, and are also vital for follow-up recall. Printed material, such as arrows, may continue this role. This rehearsal is important to the retention of learned material. All of these gambits, including patches of color in an otherwise black and white illustration, are further variables.

What this points to is that there is no single approach to visuals, and that there are no hard and fast rules for their use. The variables are vitally concerned in what is right for one situation and what is right for another; in order to adapt a visual for another use it may be necessary to change only one or two of these aspects. Educational effectiveness is dependent upon small things and cannot be made constant.

The variables do not change the fact that visuals are useful but they do mean that commercially made products can

seldom fit this fluctuating mould. They cannot take into account the varying needs of students in different learning environments. The whole idea of visuals is that they should respond to just those environments and the needs assessed on an individual basis, that they should deal with learning problems and learning situations which may be unique to an age group, a subject, a cultural attitude or a teaching form. Here lies the great strength of the teacher-made visual aid. No matter what the artistic skills of the teacher, it is he or she alone who recognizes and understands the variables. Only the teacher can produce visual materials which are that immediate response to the situation, and only those are effective teaching aids.

The teacher, then, should not be daunted by the artistic requirements. Experience teaches a lot of ways to deal with these needs, and furthermore brings more ideas. There is no need to turn to another person to translate ideas, for this introduces the potential interference of a third party and his/her interpretations. Necessity is the mother of invention, and it is that which makes teacher-made visual aids a continually vital part of the ESL classroom.

APPENDIX I

Sample Passage for Listening
Comprehension with Visual

I SIMPLE

(a) This woman is tired. She has been shopping most of the day. She is wearing a brown coat and on her head she has an orange hat. She is carrying two bags.

(b) This girl has been at school but now she is going home with her mother. She is wearing blue jeans, a blue hat and a red sweater.

II SLIGHTLY HARDER

(a) Mark Booth's waiting for the bus and he's been waiting quite a while. He's cold so he's put his hands in his pockets to keep them warm. He's wearing dark jeans and a yellow jacket, as well as a blue hat.

(b) Jane Stevens is talking to a friend of hers. She's going home from school. She's got on a blue coat and red boots and she's a blonde.

III CONVERSATION

/A/ Goodness, aren't these buses slow. If it doesn't come soon, I think I'll drop. I'm so tired.

/B/ I thought you looked rather weary. What've you been doing? Shopping?

/A/ Yes, I thought I'd get a few things I needed. But a few things always turns into a lot more. What have you been doing?

/B/ Oh, I had to take my daughter to the dentist so I picked her up from school. When I left the house this morning it was really quite cold so I put on this quilted coat and my fur hat. Now I'm so hot! I'll be glad to get home and shed everything.

/A/ Ah, I'm just looking forward to getting rid of parcels, hat, coat and shoes and putting my feet up.

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CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

The role of visuals as a learning aid is undeniable; studies over the past few years have conclusively established that. What is still interesting researchers is the way visual material is absorbed, the ways in which visuals should be used, and how they should be designed, developed and presented, and research already shows that their usefulness notwithstanding, they should be used intelligently with a realistic appraisal of their uses. Clearly they are not endlessly applicable, nor is one type of visual useful in all circumstances.

The variables are many. The subject matter influences the kinds of visuals used: geography, for example, is likely to use a large number of maps and graphs. Similarly the behavioural objective will have an effect: whether it is factual or visual information which needs to be understood, explained or rehearsed, and what needs to be recalled from the experience - concepts or facts.

The students themselves influence not only what is likely to be recalled but what form the visuals should take. Children, for example, learn differently from adults

who, because of their greater experience and knowledge, learn concepts with the pictures. Mental ability has been examined in its bearings on learning from visuals, and it appears that high IQs learn readily from either the visual or verbal approach. Lower IQs achieve better from visual aids than they do from verbally emphasized work as long as those aids are keyed to the level of the students. Indeed, visuals, in these circumstances, can act as excellent motivational devices.

Motivation is another variable in the effectiveness of visual education, as it is in most educational circles. Students learn any content matter much better when they are interested in what is before them. For this, visuals can be both a cause and an effect. Visual materials play an important role in raising motivation and interest, and the information they contain is better transmitted when motivation and interest are high. This situation is achieved, too, when the visuals are part of a programme which is seen by the students to be valid and attuned to their needs, a factor especially true of adults, and when the visuals are well incorporated with the material being taught.

Cultural factors may affect what students interpret as important and what they see as worthwhile learning techniques. In addition, such factors will influence what they absorb from a visual. Objects and concepts which are not in their own culture or which that culture underemphasizes may be

misinterpreted, or, indeed, not noticed at all in visual materials. Visuals can be very effective in this context in realigning cultural acceptance patterns.

The way in which the illustrations are presented is yet another variable. Are they to be in a programme paced by the teacher or one where the students work at a more leisurely or self-controlled pace? Whichever is chosen, the matter of exposure time becomes increasingly important, as numerous studies have shown. A system such as charts allows the students to refer to the visual at any time they need. So, too, do textbook and workbook illustrations. Slides and transparencies may have much the same advantage if the students are given enough viewing time. Films, television and the like are excellent for the presentation of concepts involving movement, but frame time is externally dictated, and the speed at which visualized information passes before students may become a cause of interference.

Interference must be kept in mind when considering what form the visuals will take, and here one should give attention to the ideas of design and realism. All visuals should be clear to all students which means that their size, clarity, spacing and color are all important. It sounds unnecessary to say that a picture in education should not be too small and should not be too large. If it is too small, many details will be indecipherable and hence confusing; if it is too big, a sense of unity will be sacrificed as students,

in trying to scan the whole picture, will tend to have their attention taken by a small section. Spacing is part of this concern as well. When parts of the visual are spaced well, the scanning eye moves smoothly and logically from one to another.

The matter of complexity or simplicity is a feature which is in the context of interference. As was noted in Chapter II the realism continuum does not reflect the "learning continuum" and increasing detail tends, instead, to decrease the teaching potential of the visual. However, this remains an inconstant feature. Dwyer found in his study that realistic, colored photographs were useful in certain proscribed areas of a lesson on the part of the heart. All the same, on the whole, studies suggest that less complex illustrations are more readily understood and better for the transfer of information.

In the context of realism should be considered the matter of color. Again it is hard to be definite in any conclusions for sometimes it is true that black and white illustrations can be extremely effective - the contrast is strong. On the other hand, color can be important for clarification, for attention-getting, for visibility considerations, for the interpretation of relationships and for the subtle transmission of attitudes. Children tend to react to color, especially strong color, more definitely than adults who are accustomed to the symbolism of black

and white and the ideas it transmits, but all people can absorb a great deal from color. Wise use of color can add to the learning experience; undisciplined use adds nothing and can become an overload, resulting in a decrease of understanding.

Using the visuals requires cueing methodology. Adults in particular need to feel in touch with the work being presented and prefer to be told of the learning objectives in front of them. This has the advantage of focusing their attention and receptive concentration. Questions have a similar effect, written or oral, and are also vital for follow-up recall. Printed material, such as arrows, may continue this role. This rehearsal is important to the retention of learned material. All of these gambits, including patches of color in an otherwise black and white illustration, are further variables.

What this points to is that there is no single approach to visuals, and that there are no hard and fast rules for their use. The variables are vitally concerned in what is right for one situation and what is right for another; in order to adapt a visual for another use it may be necessary to change only one or two of these aspects. Educational effectiveness is dependent upon small things and cannot be made constant.

The variables do not change the fact that visuals are useful but they do mean that commercially made products can

seldom fit this fluctuating mould. They cannot take into account the varying needs of students in different learning environments. The whole idea of visuals is that they should respond to just those environments and the needs assessed on an individual basis, that they should deal with learning problems and learning situations which may be unique to an age group, a subject, a cultural attitude or a teaching form. Here lies the great strength of the teacher-made visual aid. No matter what the artistic skills of the teacher, it is he or she alone who recognizes and understands the variables. Only the teacher can produce visual materials which are that immediate response to the situation, and only those are effective teaching aids.

The teacher, then, should not be daunted by the artistic requirements. Experience teaches a lot of ways to deal with these needs, and furthermore brings more ideas. There is no need to turn to another person to translate ideas, for this introduces the potential interference of a third party and his/her interpretations. Necessity is the mother of invention, and it is that which makes teacher-made visual aids a continually vital part of the ESL classroom.

APPENDIX I

Sample Passage for Listening
Comprehension with Visual

I SIMPLE

(a) This woman is tired. She has been shopping most of the day. She is wearing a brown coat and on her head she has an orange hat. She is carrying two bags.

(b) This girl has been at school but now she is going home with her mother. She is wearing blue jeans, a blue hat and a red sweater.

II SLIGHTLY HARDER

(a) Mark Booth's waiting for the bus and he's been waiting quite a while. He's cold so he's put his hands in his pockets to keep them warm. He's wearing dark jeans and a yellow jacket, as well as a blue hat.

(b) Jane Stevens is talking to a friend of hers. She's going home from school. She's got on a blue coat and red boots and she's a blonde.

III CONVERSATION

/A/ Goodness, aren't these buses slow. If it doesn't come soon, I think I'll drop. I'm so tired.

/B/ I thought you looked rather weary. What've you been doing? Shopping?

/A/ Yes, I thought I'd get a few things I needed. But a few things always turns into a lot more. What have you been doing?

/B/ Oh, I had to take my daughter to the dentist so I picked her up from school. When I left the house this morning it was really quite cold so I put on this quilted coat and my fur hat. Now I'm so hot! I'll be glad to get home and shed everything.

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