

SOCIAL WORK RESPONSE TO SOCIAL REALITIES

THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT AND REALITIES

OF SCHOOLS OF SOCIAL WORK IN JAPAN

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Social work education in Japan is an active and growing field of interest which includes a variety of schools of thought valuable to social and human sciences in that both professional manpower preparation and social work research have been pursued. With over a half century's experiences and forty-one educational components not-with-standing the field of social work has rarely been viewed as a subject for educational research partly because of the complexity of thought patterns and social behavior peculiar to Japan. This article will, therefore, try to examine the following three major aspects of social work inclusively. First is the identification of the social situation that produces the need for social work education. Second is an examination of the process by which present-day social work has evolved. The third aspect to be explored is an investigation of present features and developmental tasks of social work education in Japan.

I. Social Realities Requiring Social Work Response

Modern social welfare work is based on the philosophy of

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social justice and social solidarity that developed from 1945, after World War II. This replaced the prewar social work practices traditionally dependent on the charity of the imperial household or on the military manpower policy.

A. Emergence of Post-War Social Problems and Provisions
of Social Welfare Legislation

Following the Second World War problems of poverty resulted from inadequate labor policies providing jobs for the unemployed, underdeveloped social security systems to protect low income groups, and ineffective economic policies of national wealth redistribution. Vast needs for public assistance emerged not only among the non-laboring population such as children, the aged, and the disabled, but also among families with members of full laboring capacities.

1) Development of Social Insurance

In order to apply preventive solutions to basic socio-economic problems social insurance systems have gradually been developed since the end of the war. This development may be seen as occurring parallel to the growth of the working middle class. Chronologically, this trend is illustrated in the following legislative actions:

Health Insurance Law (1922)

Pension Law (for civil servants) (1923)

Seamen's Insurance Law (1939)

Employees Pension Laws, including Workmen's Pension Law (1941) and Employee Pension Law (1944 revised 1954)

Workmen's Accident Compensation Insurance Law (1947)
Unemployment Insurance Law (1947)
Law for the Mutual Aid Association for Teachers and
Employees in Private Schools (1953)
Daily Workers' Health Insurance Law (1953)
National Health Insurance Law (1953)
Law for the Mutual Aid Association for Public Cooperation
Personnel (1956)
Law for the Mutual Aid Association for National Government
Employees (1958)
Law for the Mutual Aid Association for Forestry and
Fishery Organization (1958)
National Insurance Law (1959)
Law for the Mutual Aid Association for Local Government
Employees (1962)
Welfare Pension Fund for Employees (1956)
Agricultural Workers' Insurance Fund (1970)
Children's Allowance Law (1971)
Employment Insurance Law (1974) [previously called Un-
-employment Insurance Law (1947)]

Thus it can be assured that the working population in Japan is surrounded by a network of social security laws designed to protect the people from risks in this highly industrialized society.

2) Public Assistance

For those people who are ineligible for the above mentioned

insurance benefits the major source of protection may be found in the non-contributing pension system and services based on the Daily Life Security Law of 1947 (revised in 1950).

Along with recent inflation and growth in the general standard of living, the amount of payment by public assistance increases yearly. As of April, 1975, an average household of four family members (parents and two children under 18 years of age) located in the first class area, where the cost of living is relatively high in the four-area classification system, received ¥76,072 as the amount of payment (= U.S.\$253.50). The growth rate of 1975 was a 1.8% increase over 1964.

Along with the gradual development of social insurance and labor security programs, characteristics of the public assistance recipients have also changed. As the needs of families with working members are transferred from public assistance to the insurance services, the needs of those non-working members of the populace is increasing. Table I illustrates this trend.

Table I. Trends of Portion of Household with Working Capacity

Year	Total	Household has:		
		Working Household Chief	Laboring Family Members	No Laboring Family Members
	%	%	%	%
1965	100.0	33.1	13.9	53.0
1966	100.0	31.1	13.4	55.5
1967	100.0	29.0	12.8	58.2
1968	100.0	26.8	12.0	61.2
1969	100.0	24.9	11.3	63.8
1970	100.0	22.9	10.5	66.6
1971	100.0	20.3	9.4	70.3
1972	100.0	18.9	8.9	72.2
1973	100.0	17.8	8.4	73.8
1974	100.0	16.5	7.7	75.8

Source: Ministry of Health & Welfare

3) Growing need for catagories in social work

In addition to financial need as the object of insurance and public assistance, medical, psychological, spiritual, educational and technological needs of disadvantaged minority groups have also emerged in the consideration of social welfare.

Rapid social changes shaped by urbanization and increasing mobility, side-effects of developing geriatrics and pediatrics, medicine use abuse, etc., are causes of human problems today. For example, deprived children and alienated aged people result from the increased tendency to nuclear families. A highly competitive social system produces emotional disturbances and delinquency in youth. A listing of such problematic phenomena would be extensive and long.

To meet the social welfare needs of these various disadvantaged groups of people categorical services have developed. Primarily pioneered by voluntary efforts at first, they have become mandatory services over a period of a few decades. Major legislative sources for categorical social work services for minority disadvantaged people are as follows:

For child welfare in general:

Child Welfare Law (1947)

For casualty by disaster:

Disaster Relief Law (1947)

For the disabled:

Law for the Welfare of Physically Handicapped Persons
(1949)

Law for the Welfare of Mentally Retarded Persons (1960)

For the aged:

Law for the Welfare of the Aged (1963)

For mothers in need:

Child Rearing Allowance Law (1961)

Special Child Rearing Allowance Law (A law for mothers
who have profoundly disabled children) (1964)

Law for Maternal and Child Welfare (1964)

For war victims:

Law for Aid to War Wounded and Sick Retired Soldiers
and War Bereaved (1952)

Law for the Aid to Non-Repatriate Family Dependents
(1953)

Law Concerning Medical Care and Other Services for
the Atomic Bombed (1957)

For housing problems:

Housing Loan Corporation Law (1950)

Public Housing Law (1951)

For occupational security:

Employment Security Law (1947)

Law to Promote Employment of the Disabled (1960)

B. Social Welfare Settings and Demand on Personnel

Based on legislation, social welfare services are offered by various types of public and voluntary agencies and institutions by social workers and allied professionals.

1) Size and type of social work personnel

As Table II illustrates, there are about 31,000 social work institutions in Japan today with social workers numbering approximately 334,000. Of this total 270,000 persons are full time workers while 64,000 persons are employed as part-time workers. (1)

Social welfare manpower in both public and voluntary organizations consists of administrators, social guidance workers (supervisors of care workers), vocational guidance workers, therapists (physical, occupational, speech, etc.), psychologists and vocational evaluators, medical doctors, nurses, house parents, child welfare workers, child care workers and others. Among these listed here the trained social workers constitute about 10% of the total social welfare

manpower. Trained social workers employed in institutions have various occupational titles. These are administrators, social guidance workers, child welfare workers, case workers, house parents and others.

Table II. Number and Types of Social Work Institutions and Social Welfare Manpower

Categories of Institutions	Number of Institutions			Size of Manpower	
	Total	Public	Private	Full Time	Part Time
Total	31,114	20,384	10,730	270,384	64,376
For Homeless Individuals (4 types)	352	150	202	3,583	342
For the Aged (6 types)	1,905	1,026	879	28,946	2,919
Rehabilitation & Care for the Physically Handicapped (12 Types)	359	146	213	5,672	1,176
For Street Women	60	31	29	285	191
Child Welfare (17 Types)	25,361	16,963	8,398	216,625	54,582
For Mentally Retarded (4 Types)	375	70	305	9,348	1,631
For Mothers with Dependent Child. (2 Types)	61	18	43	290	133
Others (9Types)	2,641	1,980	661	5,635	3,402
				(Total - 334,760)	
Source: Ministry of Health and Welfare					

2) Personnel Placement

Major placement of social workers, in addition to institutions, are governmental and non-governmental social welfare

agencies and centers. These include district social welfare offices, guidance and counseling centers for children and families, research institutes, various types of schools and classes for exceptional children, the aged, and psychiatric care, etc.

As of May, 1975, there were 152 Child Guidance Centers in Japan where more than 3,900 child welfare social workers were required.

Table III. Manpower Classification of 1,130 District Social Welfare Office.

Job Title	Total Number
Total	47,171
Administrators	1,129
Social Caseworkers	15,111
Supervisors	2,221
Generic Caseworkers	
Handling 6 laws*	9,350
Handling 5 laws	2,326
Intake workers	234
Specific Caseworkers	
for Physically Handicapped	471
for Mentally Retarded	177
for Aged	332
Clerical Workers	6,708
Part time Doctors	1,650
Other Supportive Personnel	22,573

Source: National Council of Social Welfare, July 1, 1974

Note: *Six Laws include:- (1) public assistance
(2) child welfare (3) physically handicapped
(4) mentally retarded (5) aged (6) children/mothers

One district social welfare office per 100,000 population has been established and maintained by Japan-wide Municipal

Governments. As of June, 1974, 1,131 District Social Welfare Offices employed 47,171 workers. Of these 15,111 were personnel employed as social caseworkers with various professional functions. (See Table III.)

3) Educational Background

Social workers have a variety of training. Governmental recruitment policy for social workers up until the past decade did not stress social work education and some persons were employed as social workers after having passed the general test for civil servants. In-service training courses is the major source of education for the non-professionally oriented civil servant temporarily employed in social welfare service activities and administration. This is due, partially, to the limited number of schools of social work resulting in the inability to supply the trained manpower needed as well as the relatively young history of all but a few of the schools. Moreover, in various levels of government, the tendency to favor multipurpose elite officers from well-known, prestigious universities overshadows the employment of social work students with fixed occupation goals and specialized training. Some social work schools have independently influenced their students in a way that is not always agreeable with expectations of official and/or private agencies and this has created a gap between schools and agencies in the past. In recent years, however, this expectation gap in professional preparation has been gradually bridged by the revaluation of social work results by

both the schools and agencies.

In-service training still plays a major role in the practical field where a vast number of untrained social welfare workers are employed. In the transitional period of social work education from on-the-job training to regular education schools of social work are supplying professors by contract for in-service training courses in addition to providing academic education on a university level.

Thus, the educational level of social work practitioners is gradually improving. In fact, a survey conducted in 1972 ⁽²⁾ illustrates that 86.9% of supervisors in district welfare offices had received diplomas in social work while 74% of supervisee social workers held diplomas. The need for professional training is constant to improve and maintain education levels in a labor situation where the available manpower has high mobility in both level and scope.

II Historical Development of Social Work Education in Japan

Social work education was launched during the Taisho Period in Japanese history (1912-1925). ⁽³⁾ It was during this period when the problems of the laboring poor emerged. The speed of rapid industrialization and technological changes that characterizes this era far exceeded the development of social and labor policies to cope with resulting problems.

A. The Pioneering Stage (1910's - 1920's)

At a time when there were merely un-structured welfare policies, inhuman treatment abounded for children of destitute

families, slum dwellers, peasant women in poor health brought from villages to work in the textile industries, young girls recruited for exploitation in the entertainment world, etc. In the 1910's a conscientious response was evident to this denial of human rights and humanitarian movements were organized by groups of progressive thinking people who had some relationship to religious philanthropy. People, newly awakened to social justice, studied the nature of the problem scientifically and motivated young students to cope with the problems logically. Groups formed for the study of social problems and action were present in various religious organizations and among social scientists. These groups developed into the early research and community-organized institutions of social work.

At the same time college social science educators pioneered in research and education for a social reform movement. In 1918, Buddhist College (present-day Taisho University) opened a course on social work in the Department of Reformative Relief. In 1921, Japan Women's University, founded by a prominent Christian, established a regular course of social work in the Department of Child Protection, and the Department of Advocating Working Women. In 1924, Rissho University, founded by a Buddhist order by that name, began a social work course followed in 1928 by Meiji Gakuin University, a Christian school, both in the Department of Sociology.

The 1920's in Japan is characterized as the "plantation

period" of Western democracy. Leading scholars, artists, and writers eagerly sought after social justice and supported study and education for social reform as a humanistic counterculture.

Although social work education was taught in only one course among many courses of study within a department of human sciences it became the "yiest", or "seed", of professional education development in later years.

B. The Stage of Democratic Oppression (1930-1945)

With the beginning of the Showa Era in 1925, the Japanese economy was firmly fixed in the hands of the leadership of the central government. In order to protect national prestige and economic growth the militaristic element regained its power which was incompatible with democratic growth. Since social work education was rooted in democratic ideals such as respect for individual value and rights, the totalitarian government felt threatened and those colleges which taught social work reform education were placed under close surveillance. The word "social" was seen as synonymous with "anti-governmental" so the term "social work" (shakaijigyo) was replaced with "welfare work" (koseijigyo), and the word "social" was eliminated from course names in the universities. The existence of social work education as a philosophy as well as a name was discouraged in the 1930's and early 1940's. Table IV eloquently describes this historical fact in the development of social work education. This barren era of social reform move-

movement lasted until the end of the Second World War, August 15, 1945.

Table IV. Growth of Social Work Education Systems

Period	Number of Programs Started				Total	Remarks
	Graduate University	Undergrad. Univ.	Junior College	Technical College		
1910-'14	-	-	-	-	0	
1915-'19	-	1	-	-	1	A.
1920-'24	-	2	-	-	3	Pioneer
1925-'29	-	1	-	-	4	Stage
1930-'34	-	-	-	-	4	B. Stage of
1935-'39	-	-	-	-	4	Democratic
1940-'44	-	-	1	-	5	Oppression
1941-'45: SECOND WORLD WAR						
1945 : Occupation Forces issued Post War Guidelines for economic and social development						
1945-'49	-	8	-	-	13	C. Stage of
1950-'54	2	2	4	-	19	Awakening
1955 : Japanese Ass. of Schools of Social Work Organized						
1955-'59	1	2	1	-	22	D. Stage of
						Early Growth
1960-'64	3	6	-	-	28	E. Stage of
1965-'69	3	7	2	-	37	Formulation
						& Conflict
1971 : Draft of Social Welfare Workers' Law prepared and rejected by Workers' Unions						
1970-'74	5	3	-	1	41	F. Stage of
1975-	1	-	-	-	41	Reexamination
Total	15*	32*	8	1	41	a

Note* The number of graduate programs are included in that of under graduates.

C. Stage of Awakening of Modern Professionalism with Western Influence (1945-1952)

As a result of war-time repression of Social work education the end of the War found Japanese social work facing serious, almost overwhelming, needs both quantitatively and qualitatively

and no supply of trained social work personnel to meet those needs. It was an ironical situation in that emergency employed lay personnel were required to deal with all kinds of problems such as war orphans, wounded soldiers, A-bomb victims and wandering repatriates from overseas.

Social work manpower became a desperate need for the rehabilitation of the nation. To meet this acute need the General Headquarters of the Allied Occupation Forces issued guidelines for postwar economic and social development in 1945, and assisted the social welfare administration of the Japanese Government. They also provided help in establishing a new institute to train government social workers. Thus the Japanese Social Work Training Institute (The Japan College of Social Work at present) was established in 1947. The Japanese Naval Museum and Club House was given to the Institute in 1948 to be used as the school building.

Many in-service training courses were prepared under the guidance of American Social Work Consultants and curriculum models of American schools of social work in the 1940's were studied. This was a period of introduction of American influence in the Japanese social work educational system.

The 1940's and 1950's was also the decade of social welfare legislation development. By law, mandatory agencies which required social workers were established throughout Japan:

Child Guidance Centers (from 1947)

Family and Juvenile Courts (from 1949)

District Social Welfare Offices (from 1951)

National Psychiatric Research Institute (from 1952)

To meet the increasing demand for the revival of the study of social science, colleges and schools were greatly encouraged in establishing social work education systems. This took on a variety of forms; there were only independent colleges, departments only, parts of departments or courses. During the first half of this decade, 1945-1950, the numbers of social work education systems increased threefold over the pre-war era. The major hindrance to growth was the lack of trained indigenous social work educators to pursue the tasks of an academic and practical nature, particularly field work instruction and supervision. (4)

D. Early Stages of Professional Growth (1953-1961)

By signing the U.S.-Japan Peace Treaty in San Francisco in 1951, Japan gained independence in economics, educational and social affairs. In the field of social welfare work, indigenous social workers became more active. In 1953, the Japanese Association of Medical Social Workers was organized with 150 members. The Social Work Educators Labor Union was established in the same year. In May, 1954, the Japanese Academic Society of Social Welfare was organized to promote study and research in the field. Perhaps the greatest step forward was taken with the founding of the Japanese Association

of Schools of Social Work in May, 1955, with an initial nine member schools participating.

To help gain professional identity as social workers some studies were conducted by several local governments on improvement of working conditions of child care workers in residential institutions.

Much discussion was held in various levels of government on the recruitment policy for social workers. Traditionally, social welfare officials employed as social workers were recruited by an administratively oriented general test for government officers and treated much the same as any administrative staff. By this method of selection for employment graduates of law schools or business schools had a great advantage and met with a much higher rate of success. Social work students, on the contrary, were not always sophisticated in their understanding of laws and social scientific theories and therefore tended to display a higher rate of failure on these tests and were unable to secure positions in government settings. Some students gave up the profession of social worker and left the field in disappointment.

Successful in the government testing program and assigned jobs in the social work sections, many government workers were reluctant to practice professional service in social work being more interested in promotion in government bureaus. Such persons tended to avoid gaining professional qualifications

that would bind them in the future to an undesired field, social work.

This situation was totally unhealthy and there was much loss of abilities and motivation of social work candidates. Because of the unfair treatment of workers in custodial care, the wastefulness of the selection process of social workers in public service, and a general misunderstanding of the function of social workers, the Japanese Association of Schools of Social Work made appeals to the Ministry of Health and Welfare for improvement in social recognition for this profession, and government status for social workers.

This newly emerging profession met with resistance from the government bureaucracy and those who valued the pure academic science, preferring to ignore this practical human service profession. During the 1950's social workers and social work educators responded by demonstrating their unique contribution, building up hope in human society, overcoming the sad and depressed image of post-war social work and its clientele, the disadvantaged ones.

These dedicated efforts showed fruition in 1958 when Japan social work and social work education was internationally recognized and evaluated at the Ninth International Conference of Social Work, and the Ninth International Seminar of Schools of Social Work in Tokyo, November, 1958. Foreign social workers were able to see how Japanese social workers

had devoted themselves to efforts for the rehabilitation of the nation from the post-war chaos and moral disturbance in just one decade. At the same time Japanese social workers and educators found a common professional identity with, and were encouraged by, social workers and educators from many countries around the world.

E. Stage of Status Formulation Movement and Conflict
(1960-1970)

As an international trend, the 1960's was an era of conflict and dispute. In the field of social work in Japan conflict between two opposing viewpoints came into focus. On one side there was positive action to assimilate acceptable foreign influences into this culture with regard to professionalism in social work. Diametrically opposed to this the other side argued for resistance to assimilation and naturalization of foreign influence brought primarily by social work specialists in the occupation forces. This dispute was triggered by the renewal of the U.S.-Japan Peace Security in the 1960's. (5)

1) Efforts for Status Establishment

During the early 1960's there was a great deal of positive action to establish professional status and organizations. For example, the Japan Social Worker Association and the Japanese Academic Society of Christian Social Work were both organized in November, 1960. The code of ethics of the med-

ical social worker was formulated in December 1961. In seeking guidelines for professionalization Greenwood's paper was translated and made available,⁽⁸⁾ and, at about the same time, the idea of profession by Millerson was introduced.

Supported by a growing interest in social work professionalism, the Tokyo Council of Social Welfare, Inc. in July, 1972, voluntarily established an ad hoc committee to study qualification standards of social workers and to attempt a survey of working conditions of social workers in voluntary agencies. As an outcome of this survey the committee suggested that the qualified social worker be distinguished from the semi-professional case worker.

In November, 1964, the Japanese Psychiatric Social Worker Association was established with 200 members in a clear identification of their professional service. Supportedly, the Japanese Medical Social Worker Association, the Japanese Social Worker Association, and the Japanese Association for Schools of Social Work jointly submitted a petition to the government asking for legal recognition of the technical staff who provide mental health services. The establishment of professional status, qualification standards, and enforcement of social work education for the profession were proposed. In spite of such actions on the part of social workers and educators the legal status has not changed, and today, twelve years later, this issue is still pending.

Even while ignoring social workers' claims a status description law was smoothly established in June, 1965, on behalf of the younger professions such as physical and occupational therapists due to intense political pressure from the medical profession personnel. Additional evidence of lack of recognition is that social workers were not treated as professional personnel until November, 1965. During the National Census that year social workers were first classified as professional and technical service personnel due to the influence of social work professionals in both government and private service fields.

While the governments of Osaka and Tokyo published reports on their professional personnel policy, the Japanese Association of Schools of Social Work began a curriculum evaluation in 1967 to compare the validity of the curriculum to the Japanese need at that time for social work education. Based on the belief that social work education is unique and different from other academic courses included in general education, the JASSW, in 1969, requested the Ministry of Education to provide affiliated universities where it would be possible for JASSW to issue professional degrees. The newly proposed professional degrees were "Bachelor of Social Welfare," "Master of Social Welfare," and "Doctor of Social Welfare." This request was granted later in the year and many schools award these degrees at present.

2) Disputes on Professionalism

Social work personnel consists of a variety of types of occupations such as caseworkers, administrators, child case workers, guidance counselors, house parents, etc. While one group of specialized caseworkers seeks professionalization by establishment of law which will define status and qualifications, other groups are not so interested in laws to identify professional skills but emphasize improvement in working conditions such as an 8-hour working day, upgrading salary scales, paid holidays and vacations, and other benefits to enable them to work without stress. With such a variety of sub-group interests and differences in working values it was difficult to reach a consensus on ways to improve professional status and gain social recognition for the profession. Particulary influenced by the movement of professional groups of social workers, the more that governments showed interest in securing well qualified social workers, by establishing status rules, the greater was the rejection toward the authorities and law enactment in the collective thought of organized social welfare labor forces. (7)

With this background of two parallel schools of thought the Ministry of Health and Welfare requested an opinion from the Central Commission on Social Welfare concerning professional social work manpower policy. The special working committee on social work personnel problems was organized in

November, 1969. For the benefit of the public concerned about the policy the committee, in November, 1971, submitted a draft for a Social Welfare Workers' Law to the Ministry of Health and Welfare along with opinions and suggestions concerning the issue.

During this period various professional groups of social workers, associations, and unites of labor unions started discussions on the proposal. Prevailing positions were critical and negative to the idea in that the professionally trained social worker and the supportive workers were identified as having different functions. The organized social work employees felt that the enactment of such a law would enforce government control over personnel and would split in half the unified system of the social welfare labor force. Enactment of this law was seen as useless and harmful to social work personnel as a whole because it would encourage people identified as professional to become eager to sharpen professional skills individually and thereby to gradually lose thier group identity.

In a statement published by the All Japan Prefectural and Municipal Worker's Union in 1972 we read that the "professional is needed," but "professionals in social work must be a counteracting force against materialization of human nature nourished by Capitalism." Professionalism will never be secured by enactment of such a law but must arise from the social movement of the professionals themsevles as a part of

the total labor population. (8)

Similar criticism was voiced by the Japanese Psychiatric Social Worker Association which had formerly responded favorably to legislative and administrative acceptance of their professional work. Some leading members of the Japanese Academic Society of Social Welfare felt that professional maturation would not be realized by enactment of such a law itself since the social work profession is a safeguard of human rights requiring ethics, science and skills to be effective. The immediate need of the social worker must be an opportunity for self innovative training rather than legislative authority. (9)

There were various other reasons for opposition to the enactment of this proposal into law, (5) and concerned people felt a need for further evaluation of the social work profession in light of the Japanese social situation today. Taking these criticisms and suggestions into consideration, the draft of this proposed law is still pending and awaiting a national consensus for professional development to emerge from the initiative of social workers themselves.

3) Conflicts Experiences In Social Work Education

A confrontation of incompatible ideas and different positions took place also in the schools of social work in the 1960's and early 1970's. The causes of the problems were so diverse and complex that no single explanation will sufficient

but it can be safely assumed that one of the major factors in the disturbance was the call for university renewal movement in the social work field. Some examples of such problems in the universities and schools were:

(a) rejection of the Western therapeutic model of social work education at the core of which was the caseworker method planted initially by specialists of the Allied Occupation Forces in the 1940's;

(b) reaction to an overwhelming situation by students not well oriented and mature enough to accept a highly professional and technical social work education compacted into a limited junior college or undergraduate time schedule. (Professional education is normally the task of graduate schools in foreign countries);

(c) conflicts on educational values between faculty and students, i.e., realistic social reform versus idealistic social movement, professional neutralism versus political involvement, etc.

(d) confusion and fragmentation in educational goals caused by differences in educational background and academic disciplines of the faculty and also degrees of exposure to social work practices experienced by faculty;

(e) both faculty and students suffered from the pressures of mass education; etc.

As a result of the university renewal movement in the 1960's, most schools reevaluated curriculum, strengthened staff

members, and revised educational plans designed to meet the often overlooked needs of the students. The establishment of graduate programs, illustrated in Table V, helped to defuse the potentially explosive problem in undergraduate professional education. (Refer to Table V - separate page.)

F. The Stage of Reexamining Professional Education for The Purpose of Establishing Professionalism (1971 - Present)

Although the university renewal movement helped to solve problems deeply rooted in the traditional university systems in Japan some negative side effects remained to be resolved motivating schools to make changes in their systems. Major points of change, as reported informally to this writer, were as follows:

- (a) renewed emphasis was placed on the study of social science with limited portions of study given to human science and methods;
- (b) studies of catagorical services have been developed but methods used throughout fields have suffered setbacks;
- (c) basic courses in history, economic theory, and sociological theory were enriched and contrary compulsory education of practicum was reduced in the undergraduate level;
- (d) to overcome the problems created by mass education, core courses are usually taught in seminars where small group teaching is available;
- (e) field work training was minimized, even becoming optional on the undergraduate level, and classroom study became the major setting for education on the undergraduate level.

As these and other changes evolved some educators realized a further need for self renewal and innovation. In mutual assistance with the social work education system the Japanese Association of Schools of Social Work has initiated a yearly seminar on social work education, beginning in 1971. Topics presented were:

1. 1971 - Present Status and Problems of Social Work Education
2. 1972 - Professional Training in Liberal Arts Education
3. 1973 - Social Work as Profession and its Preparation
4. 1974 - Position of Child Care Worker Training in Generic Social Welfare Education
5. 1975 - New Perspectives of Social Work Education -- Are Curriculums Valid?

In the 1975 seminar definitions, needs and integral models of teaching social work methods was discussed. Also studied was the system approach for social planning as a new macro social work methodology. (10)

III. Present Features and Tasks

The Japanese social work education system is composed of 32 universitites (15 of which have graduate departments), 8 junior colleges, and 1 technical school. These schools are members of the Japanese Association of Schools of Social Work and hold membership in the International Organization. This educational system has the longest history in Asia, the oldest

member having been established 58 years ago while the youngest has a history of 2 years. (Refer to Table V.)

From an administrative point of view, none of these aforementioned schools are nationally sponsored. Among them, 36 (88%) are private and 5 (12%) are public (local government sponsorship). Social work education has a variety of affiliations with the university as the parent body. Some 40% hold the title of "Department of Social Welfare" while the remainder are listed under various names including Departments of Social Work, Sociology, Applied Sociology, Child Welfare, Industrial Welfare, etc.

On the undergraduate level the degree titles are Bachelor of Arts (57%), Bachelor of Sociology (39%), and Bachelor of Household Science (4%), etc. Recently, on the Master and Doctoral level, there have been ad hoc degrees such as M.S.W. and W.S.W.

The majority of undergraduates are high school graduates with little exposure to social work reality except some field work experience. This is closely related to the problem of students' readiness and the recruitment policy of the Japanese university.

In a limited response to a survey conducted by the Japanese Association of Schools of Social Work it was apparent that only about half of the social work educators had experienced social work education themselves, and these tended to be the

Table V Year and Name of School of Social
Work Education Programs Established

Year (Japanese Calendar Year) 西歷(那歷)	Graduate School 大 学 院	Undergraduate School 学 部	Junior College 短 大	Technical College 各種学校
* 1918 (T. 7)		Taisho University 大正大学社会福祉学科		
1921 (T. 10)		Japan Women's University 日本女子大学社会福祉学科		
1924 (T. 13)		Rissho University 立正大学文学部社会学科 社会福祉専攻		
1928 (T. 17)		Meiji Gakuin University 明治学院大学社会学部 社会福祉学科		
* 1942 (S. 17)			Fukuoka Shakai Hoiku Junior College 福岡社会保育短期大学	
1948 (S. 23)		Kobe Women's College 神戸女学院大学文学部 社会学科社会福祉学専攻 Doshisha University 同志社大学社会福祉学科		

Year (Japanese Calendar Year) 西歷(那歷)	Graduate School 大 学 院	Undergraduate School 学 部	Junior College 短 大	Technical College 各 種 学 校
1949 (S. 24)		Kyoto Prefectural University 京都府立大学文学部 社会福祉学科 Komazawa University 駒沢大学文学部社会学科 社会福祉 St. Paul's Univer- sity 立教大学文学部社会科 Osaka Women's University 大阪女子大学学芸学部 社会福祉科 Osaka City Unive- rsity 大阪市立大学家政学部 社会福祉学科 Koyasan University 高野山大学文学部 社会学科		
1950 (S. 25)	Doshisha Univers- ity 同志社大学大学院 社会福祉学専攻		Osaka Junior Colle- ge of Social Work 大阪社会事業短期大学 Kumamoto Junior College 熊本短期大学	
1951 (S. 26)	Rissho University 立正大学大学院 社会福祉専攻			
1952 (S. 27)		Kwansei Gakuin University 関西学院大学社会学部 社会福祉専攻		
1953 (S. 28)		Japan Social Welfare College 日本福祉大学	Shukutoku Junior College 淑徳短期大学 社会福祉	

Year (Japanese Calendar Year) 西歴(那歴)	Craduate School 大 学 院	Undergraduate School 学 部	Junior College 短 大	Technical College 各 種 学 校
1954 (S 29)			Shiraume Gakuen Junior College 白梅学園短期大学 保育科	
1957 (S 32)		The Japan School of Social Work 日本社会事業大学 社会福祉部 社会事業学科 児童福祉学科		
1958 (S 33)			Kacho Junior College 華頂短期大学社会福祉	
1959 (S 34)	Osaka City Univer- sity 大阪市立大学大学院 生活科学研究科 生活福祉学専攻	Toyo University 東洋大学社会学部応用 社会学科社会福祉学専攻		
1960 (S 35)	St. Paul's University 立教大学大学院社会 学研究科応用社会学専攻 Meiji Gakvin University 明治学院大学院 文学研究科社会福祉学専攻			
1961 (S 36)	Kwansei Gakuin University 関西学院大学大学院 社会学研究科社会福祉 学専攻	Doho University 同朋大学文学部社会福祉 科 Hokusei Gakuen University 北星学園大学社会福祉科		

Year (Japanese Calendar Year) 西歷(那歷)	Graduate School 大 学 院	Undergraduate School 学 部	Junior College 短 大	Technical College 各 種 学 校
1962 (S 37)		<p>Tohoku Social Welfare College 東北福祉大学社会福祉学部 社会福祉学科</p> <p>Bukkyo University 仏教大学社会学部 社会福祉学科</p> <p>Shikoku Christian College 四国学院大学文学部 基督教学科</p> <p>Tokyo Kasei University 東京家政大学家政学部 児童学科</p>		
1965 (S 40)	<p>Kobe Women's College 神戸女学院大学大学院 文学研究科社会学専攻</p>	<p>Shukutoku University 淑徳大学社会福祉学部 社会福祉科</p> <p>Hiroshima Women's University 広島女子大学文学部 社会福祉科</p> <p>Meisei University 明星大学人文学部社会 学科</p>	<p>Izumi Junior College 和泉短期大学児童福祉科</p>	
1966 (S 41)	<p>Toyo University 東洋大学大学院社会学 研究科社会福祉学専攻</p>	<p>Sophia University 上智大学文学部社会学科</p> <p>Aichi Prefectural University 愛知県立大学文学部 社会福祉科</p>	<p>Obihiro Otani Junior College 帯広大谷短期大学 社会福祉科</p>	
1968 (S 42)		<p>Kanto Gakuin University 関東学院大学文学部社会 学科社会福祉専攻</p> <p>Ryukoku University 竜谷大学文学部社会学科</p>		

Year (Japanese Calendar Year) 西歷 (那歷)	Graduate School 大 学 院	Undergraduate School 学 部	Junior College 短 大	Technical College 各 種 学 校
1969 (S. 44)	Japan Social Welfare College 日本福祉大学大学院 社会福祉学研究科			Tokyo Y. W. C. A. 東京YWCA 社会福祉科
1971 (S. 46)	Meisei University 明星大学大学院人文学部 社会学研究科社会学専攻 Ryukoku University 竜谷大学大学院文学研究 科社会福祉学専攻 Shikoku Christian College 四国学院大学大学院 文学研究科社会福祉専攻 Bukkyo University 仏教大学大学院社会学 研究科社会福祉専攻			
1972 (S. 47)	Sophia University 上智大学大学院文学研究 科社会学専攻			
1973 (S. 48)		Momoyama Gakuin University 桃山学院大学社会学部 社会学科社会福祉専攻 Nishikyushu University 西九州大学家政学部社会 福祉学科		
1974 (S. 49)		Nagano University 長野大学産業学部社会 福祉学科		
1975 (S. 50)	Japan Women's University 日本女子大学大学院文学 研究科社会福祉学専攻			
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MEMO : *T= The Period of Emperor Taisho's Reign.

*S= The Period of Emperor Hirohito's Reign, Showa.

younger educators. This is because the study of social work is a young educational system in Japan compared with long established social and human science courses. In these courses the educational background of the faculties is broader, i.e., economics, education, sociology, philosophy, history, law, literature and household science, etc. Most of these educators are multi-functioning in Japan as they engage in classroom teaching, research and field instruction simultaneously. The ratio of fulltime teaching staff differs from school to school but generally runs from 1:30 to 1:80. In order to overcome the ill effects of mass education the faculties spend a lot of time encouraging students' participation in seminar activities.

A statistical study of the Japanese system of social work education is not yet fully developed but a summary of problem areas now under discussion is as follows:

1. Administration

- (a) Mass education
- (b) Lack of flexibility in reorientation of students having low motivation
- (c) Secretarial weakness of Japanese college education

2. Curriculum

- (a) Broad spectrum courses lacking in depth
- (b) Inbalance in structure between human science and social science

3. Field Work

- (a) Lack of trained field work instructors
- (b) Misunderstanding of educational role between administration and field work supervisors
- (c) Lack of communication between schools and agencies because of geographical limitations, i.e., large city of Tokyo

4. Faculty

- (a) Advantages and disadvantages of social work background of teachers working in undergraduate level of social work education
- (b) Shortage of social work educators

5. Course Instruction

- (a) Philosophical base of scientific and technical instruction necessary
- (b) Need for personal attention in instruction under present administration

6. Students (undergraduates in particular)

- (a) Lack of preparation for social work education
- (b) Lack of motivation for self study

In order to try to overcome such problems individual schools of social work in Japan encourages educators to work closely with their students by dividing large classes into smaller seminar units. Course seminars and joint seminars for students and graduates as a pattern of continuing education take place in university campuses.

The major agent to promote the educational level in this country is the JASSW.

JASSW presently have pro and con issues such as:

1. Mechanical nomination policy for the presidency rather than personal qualifications.
2. No permanent base office. (This office revolves every two years to the campus of the newly elected president of the Association.)
3. No paid office staff -- relying entirely on volunteer help.

Solutions to these problems would increase the influence of the Association both in Japan and internationally.

In conclusion, philosophically speaking, Japanese social work education hangs in the balance of two existing forces. On the one hand there is the realism of the development of the social work profession by a sharpening of skills and the creation of social and judicial sanctions within the nation's existing power structure. On the other hand there is the idealism which seeks to expand the autonomous power of the social worker, relying on social action to reduce governmental control which is viewed as a result of the national capitalistic milieu, or environment.

Both positions have their followers but neither side can be absolutely correct. Certainly it is difficult to orchestrate an uncomfortable situation with the harmony and rhythm we

find in the creation of the universe, but social work education is firmly balanced between the two opposing theories. This is why the system is basically strong, healthy and productive. In the future, even though the probability of "growing pains" exists and will be experienced by educators, social work practitioners, and students as well, the potential for growth is a real and abundant possibility.

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* English. All other publications referred to are written in Japanese.