International Cooperation in Education by Japan

1. Characteristics of Japanese ODA

After World War II had ended in 1945, Japan returned to the international community when it was accepted as a UNESCO member state in June and signed the Peace Treaty in San Francisco in September 1951. Japan started an international aid program within the Colombo Plan while receiving international financial assistance at the same time\(^1\).

African states became independent in the 1960s, but Japan had no strong relationships with them, so it started to assist Asian states for geographical and historical reasons. The amount of Japanese international aid grew along with the Japanese economy in the 1970s and 80s. During the economic boom, Japanese companies were recognized to have bought out resources in developing countries, and thus, the government had to deal with the resulting negative reputation\(^2\). While the recipient countries were required in the 1980s to reorganize their budgetary situation in the Structural Adjustment, the amount of Japanese ODA rose to the top among donors in 1989, after remaining in second place for some time.

The concept of Japanese ODA has been based on requests from recipients; and it has recently become a more active part of political dialogue. The “ODA Outline,” which showed the principle of international aid in 1992, focused on East Asia and Southeast Asia, especially ASEAN countries, and explained the Japanese priority on global issues, Basic Human Needs, human development, and infrastructure. The new “ODA Outline” in 2003 took a more proactive approach in policy dialogues in addition to incorporating requests from recipients and added human security, poverty reduction, and peace building. The common theme between the two outlines was the focus on human development.

Compared to other donor countries, the Japanese ODA emphasizes economic and humane assistance. For example, the United States clearly states that its ODA is for national interests, used as a political tool, even with strong intervention. The Nordic countries take more humane approaches based on human rights, and Canada also takes a similar stance on assistance. France promotes its culture and the economy of the former colony areas. Meanwhile, the Japanese ODA encourages the self-help of recipient countries but is utilized as a diplomatic tool in order for Japan to become a permanent member of the United Nation Security Council. It was claimed that the Japanese companies received benefits by succeeding the bit in the ODA

\(^1\) Shinkansen super express service was built by the World Bank’s loan in 1964.
\(^2\) Public demonstration against the Japanese Prime Minister Tanaka when he visited Indonesia in 1974. The increase of ODA toward Asian countries could be interpreted as reparations for the past war.
projects called “tied” aid. There are still tied aids but their number has recently decreased. The Japanese non-governmental organizations supported by the Japanese ODA are growing, but their management and finance situation do not measure up to those of other donor countries. The people’s support towards ODA in Japan has shrunk since the national economy has been depressed for decades, but support seemed to have increased slightly since the earthquake in March 2011.

2. International Cooperation in Education: Harmony to International Community and Japanese Strength

2.1. Before EFA
The first Japanese direct assistance was a monetary loan to India in 1958. Soon after, in 1960, Japan became a member of the OECD-DAG (Development Assistance Group). Japan participated in the meeting on international aid in basic education in Karachi in 1960, and dispatched investigation teams to Southeast Asia and Middle Eastern countries in 1961 in preparation of giving assistance. In 1962, Tokyo welcomed 18 education ministers for a whole discussion about education with social and economic development. The Japanese economic growth also accelerated Japanese ODA in the 1970s.

The National Institute for Education Research (NIER) of Japan received a request from UNESCO to promote education research and build an education network across the Asian countries. It started to hold regular seminars and workshops among UNESCO member states in the 1960s. This scheme was not designed to transfer knowledge and experience from the developed to developing countries but to share the information and to collaborate on joint studies.

Other than the above education assistance, ODA covered receiving international students, starting in 1952 (See International Student Policy of Japan), and sending the Japanese Overseas Cooperation Volunteers since 1965. In addition to these bilateral aids, the Japanese Ministry of Education set the National Commission for UNESCO within the ministry in 1952 and started multilateral cooperation. Although the commission has become smaller today, its financial support to UNESCO regional offices continues as Japanese Funds-in-Trust.

Japan had kept its international aid away from the basic education field until Education for All

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3 Ms. Ogata, JICA’s head, mentioned spotlighted cooperation, relating with the earthquake on March 11 (http://www.japantimes.co.jp/text/nn20120331a7.html).
4 It later became known as DAC (Development Assistance Committee).
5 This series of NIER projects later continued with APEID (http://www.unescobkk.org/education/ap eid/) and has paused in 2010.
(EFA) started in 1990 for the sovereignty and nationalism of the recipient countries. However, Japan concentrated on infrastructure such as building schools and introducing new equipment, on higher education by dispatching Japanese teaching staff and accepting trainees, and on technical education with Japanese hardware. Some practical reasons why Japan limited its ODA on basic education were the language barrier and little experience in basic education while it focused on economic assistance as the major field. Moreover, Japanese experts on education also shared a belief that a country should build its own basic education because it anchors the future foundation of the country. International goals, however, pushed Japan to join the world’s trends in the name of UPE (Universal Primary Education) around the time EFA started.

2.2. After EFA started
WCEFA, the World Conference on Education for All held in Jomtien in 1990, was the turning point for Japan to shift its ODA schemes. Both the Ministry of Education and JICA, which belongs to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA), participated together in the conference. JICA set an “ad-hoc adversary committee on education aids” as soon as it could after turning back from the conference. The meeting confirmed Japan’s technical transfer on science and mathematics education and on school building at primary and secondary levels. This was the beginning of Japan’s approach to basic education.

Once Japan decided to commit to this international movement, it quickly took action. JICA set up “Development and Education: a Sector Study Group” in 1992 and published its report in 1994. The report summarized the expansion of education aid, importance of basic education, and appropriate implementation to the development level of education in recipient countries. The Ministry of Education established FASID (Foundation for Advanced Studies on International Development) for professional development with MOFA in 1990. The Ministry went on setting up graduate schools for international cooperation in Nagoya University and Saitama University in 1991, Kobe University in 1992, and Hiroshima University and Yokohama National University in 1997. Hiroshima University also established an independent center for international cooperation in education in 1997 and a similar center at Tsukuba University in 2002.

Donor countries confirmed both the problems that remained and EFA achievements in Amman 1996 and in Dakar 2000. Japan kept its schemes on dispatches in the field of science education, technical education and higher education. The year 2000 brought the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), which showed the entire direction of development and included the universalization of primary education, reduction of gender disparity and provision of adult education. MDGs and EFA both set their goals toward the year 2015, and JICA evolved its projects in accordance with the two sets of international goals. But JICA had to tone down the expansion and choose “selection and concentration” and “quantity to quality” approaches as
the ODA budget decreased in 2006, when MDGs and EFA goals were estimated hard to achieve.

2.3. Selection and Concentration in Education
As with other donors, the Japanese economic growth is so impenetrable today that it is hard to say that the future of Japan’s contribution in education cooperation is bright. The present government led by the Democratic Party\(^6\) has presented “Downsizing on Expenditure,” which was broadcast on TV, and cut the ODA budget and JICA’s organizations.

JICA (2010) shows three objectives of education cooperation in such limited conditions: education as a basic human right, contribution to social and economic development, and mutual understanding for a symbiotic multicultural society. The priorities are twofold: basic education - including teacher training, school management, school building, and professional development of the officials - and higher education. For post-2015, or after EFA and MDGs, JICA focuses on quality education, access of education, and the post-primary level (Kayashima 2011).

We should note, however, that there is also a risk in the selection and concentration of resources. For example, the visible outcomes of JICA projects could be recognized easily by sending the Japanese experts and counting graduates in the field of higher education in Egypt\(^7\). In the meantime, they will disappear if the recipient governments are turned over by a revolutionary movement and the university has to close down due to a terrible security situation.

The government needs to appeal to the public more because taxpayers tend to think ODA is a waste of money, especially in economically hard times. The publicity has been quite low among the Japanese people, although the government has made a great deal of effort for international cooperation, such as its emphasis on the cooperation for basic education in a Summit in 2002\(^8\), “Japan’s Education Cooperation Policy 2011-2015\(^9\)”, based on education as a human right, sustainable development and peace building, and TICAD (Tokyo International Conference on African Development)\(^10\).

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\(^6\) The Liberal Democratic Party was the ruling party for more than a half century after World War II but the Democratic Party took over the government as a result of a national election in 2009. As of July 2012, it is still the ruling party.


\(^8\) The Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs introduced the Basic Education for Growth Initiative (BEGIN) at Kananaskis Summit in 2002.


\(^10\) started in 1993 for development cooperation for African countries, for example, and the second conference was held in 1998, the third in 2003, the fourth in 2008 and the fifth to be in 2013
2.4. Other education cooperation

Assistance to developing countries is the largest part of the Japanese ODA, but the rest should also be looked at here. Three other schemes will be illustrated in this section. The first is an education movement for global issues. Japan spoke about the initiative on education for sustainable development at the 2002 Johannesburg Summit; and the United Nations General Assembly adopted “the United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development 2005-2014” in the same year. (See ESD in Japan). Germany and Japan are promoting the ESD campaign: Bonn held the mid-term conference of the UNDESD in 2009 and Aichi and Okayama will hold the final conference in 2014.

The second is cooperation in education research among developed and developing countries. IEA still has its own research projects such as TIMSS, but OECD’s policy research projects have been more influential recently. PISA welcomed 32 countries for the first cycle in 2000, 41 in the second in 2003, 56 in 2006, 65 in 2009, and 70 countries will participate in the fifth cycle in 2012. Japan provided a chair role in the OECD projects and has participated in the extensions from PISA to adult education and lifelong learning as PIAAC, higher education in AHELO (although this is at feasibility level), and teacher training and professional development as TALIS.

The third point we should be aware of is civil participation. Japanese NGOs are generally smaller than those of other major donor countries, but JANIC (Japan NGO Center for International Cooperation) builds the NGO network. They have Japanese origins, such as SVA (Shanti Volunteer Association)\(^{11}\), as well as branches or partners of non-Japanese organizations such as World Vision and Save the Children Japan. Their common challenges are fundraising and the regular participation of citizens. The Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers within JICA’s official dispatch also provide ordinary people with opportunities to gain experience in development activities; and ex-volunteers have increased involvement in local community development in Japan.

3. Issues and Future

Let us pick up two out of today’s issues and challenges for Japan in this last section. One is diversity of international cooperation with the emergence of new donors, and it brings a reflection on what democratic assistance is. The other is about civil participation for sustainable cooperation.

\(^{11}\) http://sva.or.jp/global/
3.1. Function of Assistance
The presence of emerging countries expands in international cooperation. One of the largest is China, which actively entices many international conferences, looks for more natural resources and invests in developing countries. Japan has been putting its ODA in African countries, for example, for economic and industrial assistance for decades. The quick and large Chinese investments in Africa are welcomed, while Japan still has time-consuming procedures and limited arrangements across ministries within the government.

Major donors pushed infamous structural adjustment in the 1980s and tried to exchange the ODA with development of human right and democracy in the recipient countries. However, the rise of China as a major donor raises a question to this approach because the recipients could choose the Chinese assistance without requests for political reform. It could be a dilemma for old donors that the conditioned assistance, for example, education for democracy provided by the Nordic countries and the United States, become unpopular and they have to handle their diplomatic tools more carefully. Japan has chosen to harmonize the trend among donors and face the same arrangement, but more than ever, it might have to find the original direction of its ODA for its own political and diplomatic purposes.

3.2. Civic Participation
There is still little national debate on ODA in Japan because of the lack of a platform for the debate across the nation. People recently are becoming more sensitive about expenditure, and civic participation in this field is limited because the media often picks up on inappropriate uses of ODA (e.g., adhesion with local politicians of the recipient government and scandals of Japanese volunteers) and leads public opinion against international assistance in a time of economic depression. Because of this, it is understandable for JICA to have recently incorporated a symbiotic multicultural society in ODA goals; this approach could involve goals in domestic school education, where students with diversity have increased recently.

However, Japan will be able to continue the international cooperation in the future with public support. The consciousness toward international and global influence can be developed widely among the Japanese people for two reasons. One is that society has become more global. It faces changing situations, for example, an increase of international marriages, official acceptance of foreign labor by the EPA, and greater discussion about educational needs for

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14 http://www.japantimes.co.jp/text/nb20110217a1.html;
http://www.japantimes.co.jp/text/nn20120420a7.html;
http://www.yomiuri.co.jp/dy/national/T120104004687.htm;
global human resources\textsuperscript{15}. Like it or not, these situational factors raise something international in society, and ODA could gain more attention from the public.

The other is that the Great Earthquake and huge tsunami in March 2011 ironically woke people up to the idea of international cooperation because of the large support and donations that came from around the world\textsuperscript{16}. Before then, few people knew that Japan supported such a wide range of countries and fields. Partly because of the people’s realization, the ODA budget allocation increased slightly in fiscal year 2012. The media also introduced activities for recovery by Japanese NGOs, which usually contribute to developing countries\textsuperscript{17}. It will be a great opportunity for Japanese international cooperation if civil participation and discussion would increase\textsuperscript{18}.

Reference

JR-Central (Central Japan Railway Company) (http://english.jr-central.co.jp/about/outline.html)
\textsuperscript{16} Disasters kick-started dormant volunteer spirit (http://www.japantimes.co.jp/text/nn20120105f1.html)
\textsuperscript{17} e.g., March 11 disasters a turning point for Japanese civil society (http://www.japantimes.co.jp/text/eo20110915a1.html); Peace Boat-Rolls Royce talks lay bare ethical minefield (http://www.japantimes.co.jp/text/fl20110823zg.html); CARE official helps Tohoku after a career of hot spots (http://www.japantimes.co.jp/text/fl20110528a1.html).
\textsuperscript{18} However, the future issues have been pointed out: For example, notwithstanding the administrative management’s collapse, the donors’ harmonization and sector-wide approach are not suitable to the Japanese case because the governance tend to be strong. From the discussion at 13th Spring Conference of the Japan Society for International Development, Disaster Session (venue: Yokohama National University) 2012/6/2.


MOFA. *Japan’s ODA*. (http://www.mofa.go.jp/policy/oda/)

National Commission for UNESCO of Japan (http://www.mext.go.jp/english/ unesco/)


SIDA (Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency) (http://www.sida.se/ English/About-us/How-we-operate/)


USAID (the United States Agency for International Development) (http://www.usaid.gov/ who-we-are)


Hideki MARUYAMA

As of 2012-08-11
我が国の国際教育協力

1. 我が国の政府開発援助（ODA）の特徴
   - 第二次大戦後の国際社会への復帰：ユネスコ加盟とサンフランシスコ平和条約締結
   - 援助を受けながら、他国への援活の開始：世銀からの借元により国内インフラ整備を行い、コロンビアへの参加等アジア諸国への援助を始めた。
   - ODAの拡大：1970年代から80年代には日本の経済発展を背景にODA金額は拡大し、一時は世界トップとなった。
   - ODA大綱で示される人材養成：1992年の大綱ではアジア中心で要請主義だったが、2003年の大綱は対象地域の拡張と政策対話が見られた。どちらの方針においても人間開発を重視している。

2. 教育協力：国際強調と強みの発揮
   2.1. EFAが始まるまで
   - EFAまでは基礎教育分野をタブー視し、研究協力およびインフラ整備の他、日本人教員の派遣、途上国からの招聘、そして職業技術教育が主だった。
   - 他に、留学生受け入れ、青年海外協力隊の派遣、ユネスコを通じた多国間協力を展開した。

2.2. EFA以降の教育協力
   - 転機はEFAだった。基礎教育に対する支援が始まり、その対応がJICAの中で急速に行われ、国立大学に国際協力関係の人材養成コースが設置された。
   - 他に、留学生受け入れ、青年海外協力隊の派遣、ユネスコを通じた多国間協力を展開した。

2.3. 選択と集中
   - EFA目標の達成が困難であると認識され、日本のODA予算も削減の中、効果的・効率的な国際協力が求められるようになった。
   - BEGINやTICADなどあったが、認知度は低いままであった。

2.4. 途上国支援以外の国際教育協力
   - 持続可能な開発のための教育
   - OECD事業
   - 市民参加型の国際協力

3. 今後の課題
   - ドナーの多様化による課題：新興国のODAは従来の人権や民主主義を前提とした援助とは異なる。日本のビジョンをより明確化する必要が生じている。
   - ODAに対する国民主義は少ない中、2011年に発生した震災は、国際協力について意識を高める機会になった。今後の日本社会の再構築のためにも重要な動きとなる。