

Figures of nationalism in Japanese English textbooks from the 1970s to the present:
focusing on changes in course objectives and in content

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Tokyo, 4/2/2023

A handwritten signature in black ink, reading "Eri Nishida", written in a cursive style. The signature is positioned above a horizontal line.

Signature

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to examine the influence of nationalism in the qualitative changes in post-war Japanese secondary school curricula. In this investigation, high school English textbooks from the 1970s to the present are analysed in terms of changes in Japan's English language education system and foreign policy, the ways in which the country and its culture have appeared and changed in Japanese English textbooks, and what the characters and subject matter embody and how this has changed over time. The study also examines how the values promoted by these textbooks have changed. English textbooks were chosen for this study because in Japan, they are characterised by their use of a foreign language as a way of expressing the country and its people. This study covers the period from the 1970s to the present, when all high schools in Japan were fully enrolled and the effects of education are considered to have spread to a wider range of classes. Textbook research, particularly English textbook research, is one of the most active research fields in Japan, with a wide range of previous studies; however, as far as the author could find, there are no studies focusing on the ways in which the home country - Japan - appears in English textbooks. The present study therefore seeks to identify the ways in which nationalities appear in textbooks, along with changes in the objectives of the Courses of Study, and to examine in detail the impact of the Courses of Study and the social conditions behind their creation on Japanese high school English textbooks (specifically, textbooks with a high adoption rate, i.e. those likely to have actually been used by a large number of students).

This study's analysis reveals the following with regard to form and content. Firstly: concerning form, there was an increase in Japan-related content in the textbooks as the period surveyed here progressed, not only in terms of Japanese characters featured but in terms of content, with a notable increase in Japanese subjects. Secondly: as the period progressed, Western English-speaking countries appeared less and less, and there was an increase in material from Asia, Africa, the Middle East, Latin America, and other regions that were less commonly featured in textbooks in the first year examined by this study.

The results of the content analysis reveal, firstly, a change in the way subjects from the newly introduced non-English-speaking regions were treated. This study's examination shows that the view of Asia and Africa in these textbooks changed from 'countries needing rescue' to 'equal countries'. Secondly, and most importantly, the characteristics of the textbooks' representations of Japan have been identified. An examination of the descriptions of the five categories of 1) culture (daily life, manners and customs, stories, essays, geography and history, traditional culture, youth culture), 2) science and technology, 3) war and peace, 4) public welfare, and 5) environment and coexistence, finds that only positive or 'victimhood' content related to Japan was presented across all areas. Particularly conspicuous is the focus in the War and Peace section on texts about events in other countries or the damage Japan has suffered in war; this appears to emphasise a view of Japan as a victim, ignoring its responsibility for wartime atrocities. Moreover, while critical material on racism and environmental issues in other countries appears in the textbooks, there is no material on these issues as they occur in Japan itself.

In response to the question "Why has there been an increase in content about Japan in English textbooks?", the study's conclusions are as follows: 'In the process of the post-war recovery of the political and economic self-confidence of the Japanese people, the Courses of Study have increasingly changed to reinforce nationalism. This may be related to the fact that the Courses of Study have always been revised under conservative regimes. Under the certification system, English textbooks have changed their content in a way loosely anticipating political intentions.'

Unlike in Japanese history textbooks, which are the subject of intense debate, the ongoing reinforcement of nationalism in Japanese English textbooks is not clearly visible. Unless more people in Japan become aware of the hidden curriculum this trend represents, there is a danger that active debate on English textbooks will not take place and more nationalism-inciting textbooks will be created. True international understanding requires an understanding of the negative as well as the positive aspects of things. However, it is undeniable that Japanese English textbooks to date may make it difficult for students to learn about the negative aspects of Japan, and about countries and regimes with which Japan does not have particularly strong relations. While it is acceptable to have pride in one's country, this pride should not fuel excessive nationalism. The author argues that Japanese English textbooks should be changed with these points in mind.

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Introduction.

While attending classes at Central European University where students from many different countries and regions gather, the author of this thesis found that many were interested in the education system, with heated discussions taking place during the section on the topic. In particular, not a few students were more interested in Japanese textbooks than the author, who was educated in Japan, and this was particularly true of students from Asian regions. In Japan, textbooks are the basis of school education. Given that Japan has a textbook authorisation system, it can be said that the existence of textbooks in Japan is fundamental to the education of citizens in the country's main schools. As the author studied English education as an undergraduate, she decided to use this background to research English textbooks in Japan during her master's course. After making this decision, further discussions with her classmates in the HIPS programme revealed that the way in which Japan appeared in Japanese English textbooks was distinctive, at least compared to her classmates' countries in their English textbooks. It was therefore decided that the aim of this study would be to explore how the country of Japan appears in Japanese English textbooks by following the changes in their content over time.

Textbook research, particularly English textbook research, is one of the most active research fields in Japan, with a wide range of previous studies; however, as far as could be found, there were no studies focusing on the ways Japan appears in English textbooks.

The reason for choosing senior high school textbooks for this study is that few textbook studies in Japan have dealt with them, with most focusing on junior high school textbooks. In addition, compared to junior high school textbooks, senior high school textbooks tend to deal with longer texts and fewer conversational texts. For the purpose of tracing changes in the ways in which the country and culture of Japan appear (as the author proposes to do in this thesis), longer texts are more suited than conversational texts to seeking a deeper understanding.

The author chose to study the period from the 1970s to the present. There were four reasons for this choice: (i) educational ideology in Japanese history changed significantly before and after World War II; (ii) textbook research before World War II was centred on education for war and almost no other ideology existed (Erikawa, 2015); (iii) post-war textbooks are likely to have been influenced by the transition of Japan's relations with foreign countries, from the occupation by GHQ through the period of high economic growth and the bubble economy to the present; and (iv) the high school enrolment rate in Japan exceeded 90% in 1974 and textbooks from the 1970s onwards were more likely to have been widely used by high school students in Japan.

The first aim of this study is to analyse high school English textbooks from the 1970s to the present, and to understand how Japan's own country and culture have appeared and changed in Japanese English textbooks, within the context of changes in Japan's English education system and foreign policy. The second aim is to examine what the characters and subjects embody and how their values have changed over time.

In Chapter 1, the changes in the Courses of Study are chronologically reviewed, with a particular focus on English language education, in the context of Japan's post-war history. This is followed by an introduction to previous research relevant to this thesis.

The next chapter, Chapter 2, records the details of the textbook research survey conducted at a textbook library in Koto-ku, Tokyo, and the changes in the countries and regions that appeared therein.

Finally, Chapter 3 discusses the survey and confirms the changes that can be seen in the textbooks, particularly in light of the changes in the wording of the Courses of Study. Through a

detailed analysis of the textbook texts, it also aims to capture changes over time in the values the texts embody. The paper concludes with an overall discussion of the study, a summary, a view to future research, and an answer to the question "Why have Japanese English textbooks increasingly included content about Japan?"

Chapter 1.

1. Post-war history of Japan and changes in the Courses of Study

Courses of study in Japan are curriculum standards issued by the Minister of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology on the basis of the School Education Law Enforcement Regulations. The first Courses of Study were drawn up in a rush in the chaos of the post-war period, without sufficient time for preparation, and have been revised approximately every ten years in order to keep pace with the changing circumstances of education in the country.

The Courses of Study were drawn up in March 1946 as part of the establishment of a new school system, after repeated discussions between Japanese education officials and the American Educational Institutions Mission, which had come to Japan to eradicate militarist education and establish democratic education. In contrast to the pre-war imperialism, post-war educational administration was characterised by legalism: on 31 March 1947, the Fundamental Law of Education, the fundamental law for all post-war education, was enacted, and at the same time the School Education Law was passed. In May of the same year, the Enforcement Regulations for the School Education Law (an ordinance of the Ministry of Education) were enacted, setting out the basic matters of the curriculum. The term "Courses of Study" was introduced for the first time in these Enforcement Regulations, and since then these Courses of Study have had a major impact on the field of school education as the curriculum standards for primary and secondary education in Japan.

The timeframe of the research in this paper is the 1970s onwards, but the history of changes in the Courses of Study before then is also relevant to the period covered in this paper, and therefore it shall be examined in order from the creation of Courses of Study in 1947, using the following sources: MEXT (2020¹, 2011², 2009³, 2017⁴), Nozaki (2006), Abe (2017), Hayama (2006, updated 2017)⁵, Erikawa (2018), Terasawa (2014), Saito (2007).

1.1. Birth in 1947.

Nozaki (2006) looks at how school education in post-war Japan has influenced the nation by focusing on both the evolution of the Courses of Study and the state of academic consciousness. According to him, the Courses of Study from 1947 were characterised by two things: their content strongly reflected child-centredness, and they were only barely binding. He states that they were

¹ MEXT. (2020). 学習指導要領の変遷. <https://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/shotou/new-cs/idea/1304360_002.pdf>, (Last accessed: 19/12/2022).

² MEXT. (2011). 学習指導要領等の改訂の経過. <https://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/shotou/new-cs/idea/_icsFiles/afieldfile/2011/03/30/1304372_001.pdf>, (Last accessed: 19/12/2022).

³ MEXT. (2009). 幼稚園教育要領、小・中学校学習指導要領等の改訂のポイント. <https://www.mext.go.jp/component/a_menu/education/micro_detail/_icsFiles/afieldfile/2011/03/30/1304417_001.pdf>, (Last accessed: 19/12/2022).

⁴ MEXT. (2017). 新しい学習指導要領の考え方-中央教育審議会における議論から改訂そして実施へ. <https://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/shotou/new-cs/_icsFiles/afieldfile/2017/09/28/1396716_1.pdf>, (Last accessed: 19/12/2022).

⁵ Hayama, Ken-ichi. (11/2006, Last edited: 8/2017). 学習指導要領の変遷大阪教育法研究会. <<http://kohoken.chobi.net/cgi-bin/folio.cgi?index=n&query=/lib/khk228a2.htm>>, (Last accessed: 19/12/2022).

formulated as a 'springboard', so to speak, for teachers to carry out their own educational practices, and that this was a reflection of the pre-war uniformity of subject education.

According to Abe (2017), this Courses of Study had a number of distinctive features, including the abolition of the traditional instruction in Shushin (civics), Japanese history, and geography, and their replacement with social studies; the introduction of home economics for both men and women, the establishment of free research, and the number of class hours for each subject, expressed as the total number of class hours per year. However, it was prepared in an extremely short period of time due to the urgency of post-war educational reforms and there were problems with it, such as the fact that there was not sufficient linkage between subjects.

Erikawa (2018) carefully summarises the changes in the Courses of Study in relation to foreign language education policy. He states that the English version of the Courses of Study for junior and senior high schools, which was prepared and implemented in 1947, was a tentative draft and existed as a guide for teachers, and that English was an elective subject. This guide stated that its aim was to develop the habit in students of thinking in English, to allow them to learn about the customs and daily life of English-speaking people, and to educate them about peace and democracy; moreover, it stated that the teaching materials used should be based on social needs and students' interests, and that a class should ideally have no more than 30 students for six hours a week. In reality, however, some classes had more than 50 students, and the number of hours for English language learning was distributed across 1-4 hours per week. In addition, the high school textbook *The World through English* included material on "Democracy".

Terasawa (2014) points out that the reason English was not considered a 'compulsory subject' was the varying levels of need for it in Japan. He states that its designation as an elective subject was deemed appropriate on the basis that there are people who did not 'need' or 'did not wish to learn' English. He says that there was a perception that electives should be appropriate for educational content that varied according to the demands of society and the interests of students, and that foreign languages came under this category. However, according to Saito (2007), high school English teachers at the time argued that English education should start earlier and that English should be added to the list of entrance examination subjects in order to enhance English teaching in junior high schools. This was opposed mainly by primary and junior high school teachers, who argued that adding English to the entrance examination subjects would put pressure on other subjects and also make its designation as an elective subject meaningless. However, the argument that English should not be included was not accepted by the education administration, and English gradually became one of the entrance examination subjects.

According to Saito (2007), there was an English boom immediately after the end of the war, and he cites episodes that illustrate this, such as the record-breaking sales of the 32-page 'Japan-US Conversation Handbook' published in 1945, and the theme song for a radio course on learning English that began broadcasting in 1946; Saito describes a scene in which a character in the national anime 'Sazae-san' sings the song. Erikawa (2018) also describes the popularity of this radio course, with 500,000 copies of the text sold, 1.25 million fan letters sent, and the creation of a club for fans, which grew to 1,000 branches. The promotion of English was also a national policy, and on 14 December 1945 the 'Petition for the Promotion of English' was adopted and approved. This enthusiasm for English in Japan may have encouraged the subsequent introduction of English as a compulsory subject.

1.2. 1951 Revision.

The Courses of Study (Tentative Draft) were revised on 1 July 1951. The 1947 Courses of Study were made in a short period of time, so there were issues such as insufficient links between subjects and too wide a range in the way the number of lesson hours was defined; accordingly, revisions were made to improve on the inadequacies in the first edition (Abe 2017).

The English version of the Foreign Language Department, published in March 1952, was a three-volume, 759-page work, with the original text in English and a Japanese summary. According to Erikawa (2018), taking into account the fact that approximately 90% of English teachers did not hold a teaching licence when the new junior high school system was established in 1947, this edition of the Courses of Study was like an 'encyclopaedia of English education', full of all the information necessary for English teachers. It contained 168 examples of teaching plans that could be used in the classroom for each subject area and grade level, and served to teach and guide inexperienced teachers. It stated that "the contents of the textbooks are consistent with the objectives of the Fundamental Law of Education, which are to develop a sense of responsibility, respect for justice, and an interest in work befitting citizens of a peaceful country" and that "the teaching materials are progressive and responsive to the times and are useful for the development of democracy and the promotion of international understanding."

The view in the 1947 tentative draft of the Courses of Study that English was an elective subject was essentially carried over in this revision. According to Terasawa (2014), there was no explicit statement in this edition regarding the appropriateness of positioning English as an elective subject; rather, the fact that English was an elective subject was an unquestioned basic premise. For example, in Chapter 2, which discussed how to organise the curriculum, the universality of the learning content was categorically denied: 'Learning a foreign language is to meet the particular needs of the students, not the common needs'. Chapter 8 also stated that 'the Courses of Study must be adapted to the needs of the local community and the individual needs of the students', and that if there were clear regional and individual differences in the need for English and the demands of its education, as long as it was intended to be a 'democratic education', it should not be imposed on all students as a compulsory subject. Terasawa speculates that if there were clear regional and individual differences in the need for English and its educational requirements, it would not have been possible to impose it on all students as a compulsory subject. He further speculates that the Courses of Study at the time, although still only a 'tentative draft', was probably one of the most influential documents in Japanese education on a symbolic level, and emphasises that in a document of such a strong public character, English was clearly rejected as being unnecessary to national education.

1.3. 1955 Revision.

In 1954, the percentage of students entering high school exceeded 50%, and according to Erikawa (2018), the number of prefectures that required English for high school entrance examinations increased from only 3 in 1952 to 45 in 1958(excluding Kanagawa Prefecture), and to all prefectures in 1961. According to Terasawa (2014), foreign language (English) was an elective subject in the new junior high schools, but in the 1950s it became a subject that the majority of students took at least once in one of their grades, and in the 1960s it became a de facto compulsory subject studied throughout three years. Erikawa believes that this was an expression

of the will of the Japanese people, against the background of the rapid industrialisation and urbanisation of post-war Japan.

Major changes also occurred in the Courses of Study. In November 1955, the Ministry of Education issued the statement that it was illegal to organise and implement curricula that were not in accordance with the Courses of Study, and asserted the legally binding nature of the Courses of Study. Then, in December, the Courses of Study for high schools were revised, removing the words 'tentative draft' from their title and reinforcing their standardizing nature. They did not contain any language on 'peace' or 'democracy', which had been included in the previous Courses of Study. Similarly, the 'social studies chapter' for primary schools was revised in 1955, and that for junior high schools in 1956.

Behind this was a shift in US occupation policy towards Japan after the Communist Party's dominance became apparent in the Chinese Civil War in 1948. The US decided that the original occupation objective of demilitarising and democratising Japan had been achieved, and it changed its policy of keeping Japan's industrial production capacity low and began to press hard for economic recovery. Japanese reparations to other countries were reduced and the ban on war criminals from holding public office was lifted. Against this backdrop, the Korean War of 1950 led to the US-initiated rearmament of Japan. Following the outbreak of the Korean War, the US expelled Communist Party officials from public office. The rearmament process proceeded without domestic debate or strict congressional control, which made it a special development compared to other countries (Sato et al. 2008). The Ministry of Education, which had promoted education for peace and democracy, became centralised and nationalistic with the ruling government after independence following the issuance of the San Francisco Peace Treaty in 1951.

According to Abe (2017), the 1951 revised Courses of Study were rooted in life-unit learning, which was prone to intellectual bias, which led to an increase in the number of compulsory subjects and the general number of subjects in high schools. He believes that this led to a shift in the content of the Courses of Study themselves towards a curriculum that allowed students to study each range of subjects broadly. Hayama (2006) also states that as an independent state, Japan's aim was to resolve the discomfort of the occupation period; he further states that with regard to the revision of the 'social studies chapter' in primary and junior high schools, the role of moral education and the status of the Emperor were clearly stated, and the systematic nature of geography and history education became more important.

Erikawa (2018) states that the two main points of the revision of the foreign language studies chapter were (i) a range in the number of credits according to the individuality and career path of students and the degree of need for foreign language education, and (ii) that a second foreign language could now be taught in schools with many students who needed education in two foreign languages. In addition, foreign language studies would remain an elective subject, with the aim of "deepening understanding and developing desirable attitudes towards the life and culture of the people who use that foreign language as their regular language". However, the foreign language was defined as 'English, German, French or any other modern foreign language' and was therefore not limited to English. With regard to teaching, the revision emphasised practice in listening, speaking and writing on operational and high-level language material, rather than merely translating and interpreting'.

Saito (2007) states that from around 1955, the fatal problem of English education in Japan began to emerge; namely, that no matter how much English was learnt at school, it was useless. He says that with the dawn of the era of rapid economic growth, there was a growing call for 'useful English' to be taught in schools. According to him, complaints that the English taught in schools was useless

and that the situation should be improved have erupted many times since the mid-Meiji period, but what characterises the same argument during this period is that it began to spring up from the business and economic world.

1.4. 1958-1960 Revision.

The Korean War in 1950 played a major role in Japan's economic recovery, and by 1955, Japan entered a period of rapid economic growth. Abe (2017) argues that the results of academic achievement tests that began around that time aroused concern about a decline in students' academic performance, leading some to argue that a shift from the previous student-centred, life-unit learning-based curriculum to a subject-centred, systematic learning-based curriculum was necessary. The decline in children's academic performance due to child-centred educational practices was an extremely serious problem for the business world at a time when it was recovering economically and about to make a great leap forward. This trend led to a major revision of the Courses of Study in 1958. Abe (2017) also points out that the emphasis on basic academic skills and the improvement of science and technology education were included in the Courses of Study as issues for the country as a whole during this period (which could be described as the start of high economic growth), and that because these Courses of Study were a subject-oriented curriculum, he considers that this curriculum was more easily accepted than a student-centred one.

MEXT (2020) states that this edition of Courses of Study is characterised by its "clarification of its character as a curriculum standard". It also states that its emphasis was on systematic learning, citing the establishment of a new moral education period, enhancement of basic academic skills, and improvement of science and technology education as keywords. MEXT (2011) also cites as other features of the revision the more consistent content of education in primary and junior high schools, the more careful selection of the objectives and content of each subject, and the placing of emphasis on learning basic matters.

According to Nozaki (2006), the 1958 Courses of Study were in many respects a turning point in Japan's post-war education policy. He cites three reasons for this: first, the 1958 Courses of Study officially dropped the word 'tentative draft' and began to become legally binding. In August 1958, the Enforcement Regulations of the School Education Law were partially amended by adding the provision that 'The curriculum of primary schools shall be governed by the Courses of Study for Primary Schools, which shall be published separately by the Minister of Education as curriculum standards, in addition to what is prescribed in this section' (Article 25), thereby adding a legal basis to the binding nature of the Courses of Study. The Curriculum Table was also revised from the flexible format of the 1951 edition to mandate a minimum number of lesson hours for each subject, making it harder for schools to preserve their own distinctive characteristics. Second, a school teaching period dedicated to 'morality' was newly established; the report of the Curriculum Council, issued in March 1958 prior to the revision of the Courses of Study, included an emphasis on morality alongside basic academic skills and science and technology education. Reflecting this report, a 'moral education' period was created in primary and junior high schools, with all grades spending one hour a week on this subject. Third, under the slogan of improving basic academic skills and science and technology education, a systematic learning system was put in place to guarantee academic skills, including increased teaching time for Japanese and arithmetic in primary schools, and for mathematics and science in junior high schools. The Courses of Study thereby established a trend that would later be criticised as 'cramming education'.

Erikawa (2018) also cites the 'legally binding' nature of the 1958 Courses of Study as an historical educational feature. On 28 August of the same year, the Ministry of Education amended the Enforcement Regulations of the School Education Law, setting the Courses of Study as the curriculum standards; later on 1 October, the Courses of Study for primary and junior high schools - these newly designated 'national standards' rather than 'tentative drafts' - were published in the Official Gazette. Erikawa noted that the 1947 Courses of Study (Tentative Draft) clearly stated that the curriculum was "a guide for teachers to study by themselves" and that the 1951 edition was also "contrary to its purpose if it is considered as a descent from heaven in any sense"; Erikawa then emphasised that the 1958 edition was a legal document making the purpose and content of the curriculum as devised by the state binding, which was used as the basis for textbook certification and evaluation of the teaching syllabus. The background to this development was the criticism of problem-solving learning as 'easy and child-centred' in the wake of the successful launch of the Soviet Union's first man-made satellite Sputnik in October 1957 (Sputnik Shock), and the subsequent reconsidering of teacher-led, knowledge-infusionist 'systematic learning'. The Courses of Study for Foreign Languages, published in 1958, systematically arranged sentence patterns, grammatical items, vocabulary and other language materials by grade level, and made them 'legally binding' so that they could be implemented uniformly throughout the country. The new Courses of Instruction for English had only 18 pages, a change from the 759 pages of the three volumes of the 1951 edition, which had been more an instruction manual for teachers, and only provided a compendium of the curriculum and subject instruction.

Erikawa lists the following six points as content features of the Courses of Study for Junior High Schools and Foreign Languages published in 1958. (i) Sentence patterns, grammatical items and vocabulary (number of new words) were stipulated in detail for each grade, and 520 compulsory words were specified. For example, if the past tense was included for junior high school year 1, it failed to pass the textbook examination. Textbooks and lessons were structured around sentence patterns and grammar, forcing junior high schools to use uniform textbooks and teaching styles for about 30 years. (ii) In response to the Curriculum Council report, which stated that "adequate guidance should be given in accordance with career paths and characteristics", courses were multiple-lined, and third-year textbooks were divided into A (3-4 hours per week for employment courses), B (5 hours or more per week and combined with A) and C (5 hours or more per week and one book for higher education courses). The 1960 revision of the Courses of Study in high schools also divided the curriculum into English A (with a new word count of 1500, for employment courses) and English B (with a new word count of 3600, for higher education courses). (iii) An emphasis on instructional objectives and minimum standards for instructional content was specified for each grade level. (iv) In Grade 1, emphasis was placed on the phonetic aspects of listening and speaking, while in Grade 2, the three areas were treated almost equally with the addition of reading and writing, and in Grade 3, emphasis was placed on reading. (v) Vocabulary (new word count) was set at around 300 words in the first grade, a reduction of 60% at a stroke. Vocabulary would continue to be reduced until the 2008 teaching guidelines. (vi) Instructional outlines were also set out for German and French. Of these, (ii) - the organisation of textbooks by course - was criticised for causing discrimination and a sense of selectivity, and was abolished in the following Courses of Study.

Erikawa also highlights the Courses of Study for High Schools issued in 1960, which included, albeit partially, compulsory foreign languages for the first time in the post-war period. He lists the following five features. (i) Foreign languages became compulsory in the first grade, and all students were required to take at least nine credits per subject, including English, German and

French. (ii) English was divided for the first time into English A (9 credits) and English B (15 credits), and structured according to "students' abilities, aptitudes and career paths". (iii) New targets increased the weight of speech, listening, and speaking. (iv) The content of each foreign language subject was now composed of three items for each area of (1) listening, (2) speaking, (3) reading and (4) writing: (a) language materials and subjects, (b) matters to be mastered (language matters) and (c) learning activities. (v) Looking at the subject matter of the textbooks, English A - for which there were many applications for employment - required the development of "expected human beings" who would be responsible for the rapid economic growth, and required, for example, "items related to sub academic technology and industry". On the other hand, "English B", for which there were many applications in higher education, acquired a more culture-focused aspect, with the addition of "thoughts and feelings" and "institutions" of mainly English-speaking people, and "biographies, novels, plays, poems, essays and theses". Although these features were thus set out, according to Erikawa high schools that followed the old secondary school system continued to focus on the development of reading comprehension skills with little restraint from the Courses of Study until around the 1960s.

According to Terasawa (2014), foreign languages remained an 'elective subject' in the 1958 edition of the Courses of Study, as in the two early post-war drafts; however, there were no descriptions of the basis for this decision and the English teaching process and instruction were no longer linked to the needs of the region and learners, as in the early drafts. Terasawa emphasises the significance of this disappearance of descriptions of the classification of foreign language studies as an elective subject in a document with such a strong official character this; he speculates that if the position of elective subjects was considered in line with the then Ministry of Education's policy of 'education according to career paths and aptitudes', the consequence would have been inevitable: 'vocational subjects for those who do not go on to higher education and English for those who do'.

1.5. 1968-1970 Revision.

The emphasis on basic academic skills set out in the 1958 Courses of Study was coupled with trends in the economic world in the 1960s, resulting in a large-scale competition for academic qualifications. Inui (1990) analyses the trends in education in the 1960s from two aspects: the failure of the Ministry of Education's high school diversification policy and the demands from the business community regarding human skills development. During this period, the Ministry of Education attempted to create an environment in which cross-industry vocational skills could be developed by enhancing vocational education. However, due to the nature of the labour market constructed by industry, the situation moved in the opposite direction. According to Inui, in the 1960s, in connection with industry's demand for general competence as an in-company educability, a centralised and hierarchical competence system based on deviation values was generated within school education, which in turn created an inter-school hierarchy. In fact, in addition to the rapid increase in the rate of students entering high school, the competition for academic credentials became fierce as the first baby boomers reached high school entrance age in 1961. Remedial classes were offered on a daily basis in public schools, and a number of cram schools were established to help students improve their school performance. Furthermore, when the Tokyo Metropolitan Government introduced the school grouping system in 1966, and the results of prestigious metropolitan schools declined, some national and private high schools and their affiliated junior high schools replaced them in popularity, further intensifying the competition for

entrance examinations. In this way, a competitive mechanism involving not only schools but also companies was established, and in 1968, when the competition for entrance examinations was heating up, the Courses of Study were revised. As a result of economic development and improvements in science and technology, the subject content became more advanced, and the 1958 Courses of Study, which had begun to take on a meritocratic tone, were further strengthened.

According to Abe (2017), Japan was in the midst of high economic growth at the time, and the enhancement of science and technology education was still recognised as a top priority. As a result, the content of education was modernised and made more sophisticated, and the curriculum became the most intensive of all Courses of Study so far. From this point, criticism of 'cramming', of the 'indigestion of educational content', and of the rise of the cram school industry began to emerge.

MEXT (2020) states that these Courses of Study are characterised by "further improvement of educational content ('modernisation of educational content')" and aim to introduce educational content that corresponds to the development of the times. MEXT(2011) also states that since the 1960 revision, the role of education in Japan has increased along with the improvement of national life, cultural development, progress in social conditions and Japan's international status, and that therefore the guidelines should seek to further improve educational content to meet the needs of the times; furthermore, in considering implementation, they should be adapted to the developmental stage, personality, and ability of children and the actual situation of schools.

The distortions that had begun to emerge in schools in Japan came to a head during the oil crisis of 1973. The global oil crisis, triggered by the Fourth Middle East War, brought an end to Japan's rapid economic growth, which had continued for nearly 20 years, and brought on the Great Recession. According to Nozaki (2006), Japan's rapid economic growth was based on the myth that as the country grew richer, everyone would be happy. The intense examination wars were also strongly supported by the illusion that admission to top universities would lead to entry into top companies, which in turn would lead to individual happiness. However, when it became clear that going from a top university to a top company did not directly lead to personal happiness, the attitudes that had underpinned the school system were severely shaken. In 1976, the university enrolment rate, which had continued to grow until then, reached a ceiling. The rate of students going on to high school also exceeded 90% and almost all students were enrolled, thus destroying one of the myths that had supported school education in the post-war period: the expansion of educational opportunities. From then, according to Nozaki, school education entered two phases: first, the further intensification of competition for entrance examinations; uncertainty about the future stirred up anxiety among parents, which drove their children into further competition for academic qualifications. The second phase was the breakdown of trust in schools. The increase and sophistication of learning content became a social problem, with classes progressing too quickly and only some children able to keep up with them. Nozaki concludes that the situation in the 1970s was one in which various contradictions were not only being expressed, but also deepening and creating further contradictions.

Erikawa (2018) names the 1970s and 1980s as the era of internationalisation, stating that English textbooks also began to look more widely at the world from this time, and that 'internationalisation', based on the de-Anglo-Americanisation and multiculturalisation of English textbooks, gradually progressed from the 1970s and became more serious from the 1980s. He further states that this period was characterised by dramatic changes in the industrial structure and labour market due to rapid economic growth, which led to a significant diversification of students' abilities, aptitudes and career paths. He cites the following four features of the Courses of Study for junior high schools published in 1969. (i) The number of hours for each subject had previously been set at a

minimum, but from these guidelines a "standard number of class hours" was set. In addition, in order to "provide education that responds to the actual conditions of the region and school and to the abilities and career paths of students", the number of class hours could be treated flexibly, with 140 credit hours (four hours per week) each for the first and second grades and 175 credit hours (five hours per week) for the third grade as the number of hours allocated for elective and incremental subjects (50 hours per credit hour, with one credit hour lasting 50 minutes). Therefore, the standard number of hours for foreign languages was set at three hours per week, but most schools secured four hours. (ii) The content was carefully selected and concentrated on basic matters, and the grade year distribution was smoothed out. (iii) For the first time, the provision to "deepen awareness of language" was included in the objectives. In addition, the phrase "cultivate a basis for international understanding" was inserted. The previous guidelines of 1958 had stated that students should gain an understanding of 'the people who use the foreign language on a daily basis', but this was expanded to 'international understanding'. Erikawa cites the 1964 Tokyo Olympics, the liberalisation of overseas travel and the rapid economic growth of the 1960s, which led to Japanese companies expanding widely into the global market, as the background to this clarification of the coverage of 'people from the wider world' beyond the English-speaking world. (iv) The traditional term 'learning activities' was changed to 'language activities', and the direction towards a greater emphasis on communication was made clearer.

With regard to the Courses of Study for Senior High Schools published in 1970, Erikawa notes the following features. (i) The position of foreign language studies was changed back from that of a compulsory subject to that of an elective. (ii) For the first time, the provision to "deepen awareness of language" was included in the objectives. In addition, the phrase 'cultivate the foundations of international understanding' was inserted. (iii) In addition to the existing English A (9 credits) and English B (15 credits), the new English subjects were 'Primary English' (6 credits) and 'English Conversation' (3 credits). Primary English was intended to "provide primary content mainly to students who did not choose English in junior high school". The new English Conversation course clearly placed emphasis on communication. The goal of English Conversation was to "cultivate an attitude of trying to understand the lives and perspectives of people in other countries through English, and to interact with them willingly", and for the first time, the goals included aspects relating to motivation and attitude. (iv) Previously, each subject area consisted of (a) language materials and subject matter, (b) matters to be mastered (language matters) and (c) learning activities for each of the domains of (1) listening and speaking, (2) reading and (3) writing, but with this revision, the content of each subject area consisted of three items: (a) language activities, (2) language materials and (3) subject matter, with particular emphasis on language activities.

1.6. 1977-1978 Revision.

The 1977 revision of the Courses of Study was a major change in direction from the emphasis on basic academic skills and science and technology education that had defined the 1958 and 1968 editions. According to Nozaki (2006), the key term in the 1977 Courses of Study was 'relaxed education', and he identifies a diversification of values in Japan at this time due to the arrival of a period of low growth, and an increase in 'drop-outs' due to excessive 'cramming', as the background to this development. Curriculum-wise, teaching time had been reduced, particularly in the main subjects such as the Japanese language, arithmetic, and mathematics. In addition, the content of what students were learning, which had become increasingly sophisticated with the improvement

of science and technology, was drastically reviewed, and difficult material was removed. In addition, room was given to schools to provide one hour of instruction per week at their discretion. Nozaki points out that, from a legal perspective, these Courses of Study clearly stated education on the 'Hinomaru' and 'Kimigayo', which caused controversy. Hayama (2006) also cites as a feature of these Courses of Study the fact that Kimigayo is clearly stated to be the 'national anthem', and the stipulation that 'it is desirable to have the national flag hoisted and the national anthem sung'

MEXT (2020) states that the Courses of Study were characterised by "the realisation of a relaxed and fulfilling school life, in other words, the optimisation of the learning burden", and cites as a key point the fact that the objectives and contents of each subject were focused on core issues. MEXT (2011) also points out that school education tends to be biased towards the transmission of knowledge, and considers the issue facing the new edition to have been how to enrich intellectual education in the true sense of the word and promote the harmonious development of children's knowledge, virtue and body. Therefore, in the 1977 revision, the number of class hours, which had been increasing since the end of the war, was reduced for the first time, and it was also clearly stated that, in order to realise a comfortable school life, education should be implemented in accordance with the actual conditions of the region and school, and the individuality and abilities of the pupils.

Abe (2017) also points out that 'relaxed education' was the key concept in the 1977 edition. The content of education was carefully selected, with the number of class hours reduced by 10% throughout primary, junior and senior high school, and the content of education in certain subjects - mainly science and mathematics - was reduced by nearly 30% in total for primary, junior and senior high school. He considers these Courses of Study as the first step in what would later become the problem of 'relaxed education'.

Erikawa (2018) prefaces his discussion by stating that when he speaks of 'relaxed education', he generally means education in line with the Courses of Study that came into effect in 2002, but points out that this policy of 'relaxed education' was actually included in the Courses of Study published in 1977. He then states that the biggest problem with the 'relaxed education' agenda was the reduction of time allotted to foreign languages to three hours per week: the 1969 Courses of Study for junior high schools set a "standard three hours per week" for foreign languages, but many schools actually ensured four hours per week. However, from 1981, when the 1977 Courses of Study came into effect, junior high schools moved to a full three hours per week system, and teachers reportedly campaigned against this. Under this system, there was a shift from 'deductive' grammar teaching, in which students read the text after understanding the grammar and sentence patterns, to 'inductive' grammar teaching, in which students become aware of the grammar and sentence patterns in the process of reading the text, but the study time required for this method was too little for three hours a week. On the other hand, an increasing number of private junior high schools were devoting five to eight hours a week to English in order to improve their academic performance. He considers this situation to have accelerated the 'shift away from public schools' and increased the number of students attending tutoring schools.

The revised Courses of Study for high schools were published in 1978. Against the background of the high school enrolment rate exceeding 90% in 1974 and the increasing role of high schools as national educational institutions for training the majority of Japan's youth, these Courses of Study aimed to diversify high school education, make it more flexible, and expand the range of learning discretion. Erikawa points out that, in response to this trend, the four basic policies of this revision of the Courses of Study for high schools were as follows. (i) Respect the independence of schools and enable them to create distinctive schools. To this end, the Courses of Study for Senior

High Schools deferred as far as possible to the independent decision-making of schools in organising and implementing curricula, keeping the Courses of Study to a substantial standard. (ii) Ensure that education would be tailored to the individuality and abilities of students. To this end, the number of compulsory subjects and their credits had been significantly reduced so that the curricula could be organised around elective subjects to accommodate the education of a diversified student body. (iii) Ensure that students could lead a relaxed and fulfilling school life. To this end, the number of credits required for graduation had been reduced, the treatment of the number of class hours etc. had been made more flexible, and the content of each subject and subject had been carefully selected to cover basic and fundamental matters. (iv) To emphasise moral education and physical education, as well as to instil the joy of work. To this end, emphasis was placed on experiential learning related to work in order to nurture a positive view of work and occupation, and more emphasis was placed on moral education and physical education to nurture students with a rich sense of humanity that was harmonised in terms of knowledge, virtue and body.

As for the main reforms concerning foreign language education, Erikawa lists the following six points. (i) Subjects were reorganised into English I, II, IIA, IIB and IIC, with 'English I' being taken by all students. Previously, 'English B' was issued in three different textbooks - 'Reading', 'Writing' and 'Grammar' - and was sometimes taught by different teachers. In order to change this, 'English I' and 'English II' were newly established as subjects in which each area could be studied comprehensively. (ii) In order to enable students to take elective courses according to their interests, abilities, aptitudes and career paths, the following subjects were established: English II A (listening and speaking), English II B (reading) and English II C (writing). (iii) The objectives of the Foreign Language Department were set as "to cultivate the basic ability to understand and express oneself in a foreign language, to deepen interest in languages and to gain a basic understanding of the lives and perspectives of people in other countries." (iv) In the objectives for all subjects, such as English I, the aim "to develop a (positive) attitude" towards understanding and expressing oneself in English was added. In the previous Courses of Study in 1970, this provision was only found in 'English Conversation'. (v) The subject content of textbooks was changed to "explanatory texts, dialogues, narrative forms, dramatic forms, etc." and items such as biographies, novels, poems and essays were deleted. The textual colour was reduced and there was a shift towards practical English. (vi) A new specialised course subject 'English' was created, and 'Comprehensive English, English Comprehension, English Expression, Foreign Affairs, General English and LL Practice' were included as subjects. In line with this, specialised courses such as English language courses were established in high schools in various regions. Erikawa also notes that with the announcement of these Courses of Study, the authorised textbooks for English grammar, which had been in use for decades, were abolished. According to his research, despite the abolition of English grammar textbooks, which varied from school to school, English teachers tended to continue teaching using commercial grammar materials and emphasising English grammar.

1.7. 1989 Revision.

Nozaki (2006) states that the 'relaxed' approach put in place by the 1977 revision never quite worked. The state did not give any direction as to how the one hour per week of discretionary teaching time in schools should be used, resulting in many schools using it as make-up time for classes that were falling behind. The 1977 revision of the Courses of Study also had little impact on the social issues of intensifying competition for examinations and the 'drop-out' problem. In

1977, the year of the revision of the Courses of Study, a common first stage examination was introduced for university entrance examinations. This examination, which was the culmination of the centralised ability-based order, allowed the 'deviation score', which had been steadily increasing its presence in high school entrance examinations, to permeate university entrance examinations as well (Inui 1997). From the early 1980s, when the second baby boomer generation reached the age for junior high school and high school entrance examinations, the competition for entrance examinations became even more heated. At the same time, school problems, mainly in the lower-ranked schools, became increasingly apparent in various forms, such as frequent school violence, increased bullying and even non-attendance at school.

In 1989, the Courses of Study were revised in response to this trend. In addition to further advancing the previous line of "relaxed education", a "new view of academic ability" was formulated, in which the "old academic ability" measured by written examinations was replaced by a "new view of academic ability" expressed in terms of willingness to learn on one's own initiative. In addition, the government tried to diversify school evaluation by introducing 'point-of-view evaluation', which looked at classroom attitudes and interest in issues, and 'absolute evaluation', which assessed the level of achievement of each individual. From then until the early 1990s, a number of measures were taken to further promote a more relaxed approach and to reduce excessive exam competition. 1992 saw the introduction of a five-day school week, which was implemented once a month.

MEXT (2020) states that the main feature of these Courses of Study was a focus on the "development of spiritually rich people who can respond to social changes on their own". In addition, MEXT (2011) states the following four points as key to the revised policy. (i) To develop, through educational activities as a whole, human beings who have rich minds and live vigorously, in accordance with the stage of development of children and the characteristics of each subject area, etc. (ii) Emphasise the basic and fundamental content required of Japanese citizens, enrich education that makes the most of individuality, and ensure consistency in the content of each subject by closely linking it with kindergarten and junior high school education. With regard to the content of each subject, further refinement should be made to the basic and fundamental content that children should receive at primary school level, and emphasis should be placed on developing the ability to think, judge and express, as well as on developing a desire to learn independently and the ability to do this. (iii) Emphasis should be placed on developing the ability to respond proactively to changes in society and cultivate the foundations of creativity, as well as increasing students' desire to learn on their own. Emphasis was specifically placed on developing the students' ability to think, judge and express, so that they could respond independently to future changes in society. In addition, from the perspective of cultivating a foundation for lifelong learning, emphasis was placed on experiential and problem-solving learning in order to enable students to experience the joy of learning and derive a sense of fulfilment from it, and to develop a desire to learn on their own. (iv) To emphasise the development of an attitude of respect for Japanese culture and traditions, deepen understanding of world culture and history, and cultivate the qualities needed in a Japanese person living in an international society. Improvements were made from the perspective of deepening understanding and interest in Japanese culture and traditions, fostering an attitude of valuing them, and cultivating an awareness of and a foundation in the Japanese way of looking at and thinking about things. As part of these efforts, guidance on the national flag and anthem was to be enhanced from the perspective of raising awareness of Japanese identity and cultivating a sense of belonging to the national society, as well as fostering Japanese people who could be trusted in international society.

Hayama (2006) considers the change from 'desirable' to 'shall be guided' with regard to Kimigayo and Hinomaru in this revision as a strengthening of the obligations concerning them. Abe (2017) also states that although the goals of the revision were to emphasise individuality, to move to a lifelong learning system, and an education that responds to information technology, he feels from his own experience as a teacher that the content of learning increased somewhat in mathematics education, and that a trend against 'relaxed education' could be seen.

Erikawa (2018) notes as a change in the provisions for foreign language education the fact that the subjects of textbooks have become the people of the world and the daily lives of Japanese people, etc. According to his research, the 1993 edition of the junior high school English textbooks show that featured characters have become more multinational, with 53% of the characters being American and 74% Japanese, and the number of characters from Asia, Africa and other regions increasing rapidly to 32%; change can also be seen in the increase in subjects in which Japanese people make 'international contributions' and in the featuring traditional culture such as haiku, shogi and rakugo. He attributes this to the rapid internationalisation of the Japanese economy in the late 1980s and the subsequent rise in the number of Japanese companies expanding overseas due to the strong yen. He considers English language education to have shifted to a 'communication-oriented' approach since the 1990s in order to develop human resources who can cope with these developments. He highlights the following three features of the 1989 Course of Study for Foreign Languages in Junior High Schools. (i) Due in part to the nationwide movement against three hours of English study per week, junior high schools were now allowed to take up to four hours of foreign languages per week. (ii) Textbooks were to focus on the people of the world and the daily lives of Japanese people, and include the objective of 'raising awareness of the Japanese people as living in an international society'. This is a reinforcement of nationalism. (iii) The use of native speakers was advocated, and team-teaching was promoted. He also lists the following three features of the foreign language version of the Courses of Study for Senior High Schools, also in the 1989 edition. (i) "Instruction should be enhanced in accordance with students' abilities and aptitudes, and the teaching of listening and speaking language activities should be further improved". (ii) As in junior high school, there were now four areas: listening, speaking, reading and writing. (iii) English I and English II were to be established as subjects with content that would integrate language activities, and Oral Communication A/B/C would focus on listening and speaking. Erikawa speculates that the rapid international expansion of Japanese companies since the late 1980s was one factor in the shift to a 'communication focus' in school English language education. However, he argues that this corporate logic in school education did not immediately enable students to communicate in English but, on the contrary, led to a serious decline in English language proficiency.

1.8. 1998-1999 Revision.

The collapse of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in December 1991 triggered the chain reaction collapse of socialist systems in Eastern Europe and elsewhere, and the collapse of the East-West Cold War structure that had been the global framework after World War II. With this, the capitalist world market led by the United States of America expanded into the former socialist bloc and, combined with the development of a global information and communication network through the internet, ushered in the so-called 'globalisation' era.

In Japan, the economic bubble burst and the country entered a period of great recession in the 1990s. Major social changes of a previously unthinkable nature took place. Bankruptcies of large

companies and mass layoffs due to restructuring led to the complete collapse of the so-called Japanese management system, including the lifetime employment system and the seniority-based wage system. In addition, the fact that many highly educated people were involved in the 1995 Aum Shinrikyo sarin gas attack on the underground is said to have discredited school education and science education. In schools, a new problem of 'classroom disintegration' emerged, and crimes committed by ordinary children, in which children with no history of delinquency suddenly 'lose their temper', also became a major social problem. Nozaki (2006) describes the 1990s as a period in which the shifting of unifying values, which also occurred immediately after the oil crisis, took place in a larger form and involved a fundamental shift in Japanese society.

Nozaki considers the 1998 Courses of Study to have emphasised education of the mind in response to the 'increasing number of violent juvenile crimes' and the increasing number of children who were unable to envision their future. It also further promoted the 'relaxed' approach and introduced a full five-day school system from 2002, when the new Courses of Study came into effect in primary and junior high schools. In response to criticism that the content of education was too uniform, a 'comprehensive learning time' was introduced to provide learning that responded to the special characteristics of each region. However, there were growing concerns that the drastic reduction in learning content proposed by the revised Courses would lead to a decline in academic performance.

MEXT (2020) states that the aim of the 1998 Courses of Study was to "ensure that students acquire the fundamentals and basics, and to develop [the zest for life], including the ability to learn and think independently", and lists the careful selection of educational content and the establishment of "comprehensive study time" as its characteristics. MEXT (2011) highlights the following four revision policies of the 1998 Courses. (i) The cultivation of a rich sense of humanity and sociality, and an awareness of being a Japanese citizen living in an international society. (ii) The cultivation of an ability to learn and think independently. (iii) The firm establishment of the fundamentals and basics, and an enriched education that would make the most of individuality, while developing educational activities under the relaxed approach. Improvements were made by reducing the total number of class hours per year and by more rigorously selecting the educational content of each subject area, focusing on basic and fundamental content, and ensuring that students would learn carefully and firmly. (iv) The goal that each school should make use of its own originality and ingenuity to promote distinctive education, and that distinctive schools should be created.

Hayama (2006) describes these revisions as a shift in tone from education that teaches, to education that fosters the ability to learn and think for oneself; a reduction in educational content by 30% in order to fully implement the five-day school system, a thorough effort to ensure that students would acquire the basics, and an expansion of moral education from the perspective of education of the mind. Abe (2017) also points out that instead of a reduction in learning content, emphasis was placed on teaching students to ensure that they acquired the basics; however, the content was partially revised in 2003 due to various voices of public opinion represented in the 'academic decline controversy'.

Erikawa (2018) states that 'internationalisation' in the 1980s transformed into an era of 'globalisation' around the 1990s, and with it, 'global human resource development' replaced 'international understanding education' as the keynote in foreign language education policy. He summarises the policy for revising foreign language curricula in light of this trend in the following ten points. (i) Foreign languages were to be made compulsory in junior and senior high schools. Erikawa recognised that this was because "in response to the advance of internationalisation, it had

become necessary for all students to acquire basic communication skills to enable them to engage in daily conversation and exchange simple information using a foreign language." Terasawa (2014) states that foreign languages (English) in junior high schools became a de facto compulsory subject in the 1960s, and Erikawa argues that the 1998 introduction of compulsory foreign languages is an acknowledgement of this established fact. (ii) In junior high school foreign languages, "in principle, students were required to take English". The reason for this was stated to be "based on the fact that English is widely used as a means of communication internationally". According to Erikawa, it is rare for a country to have such an English-specific curriculum as Japan. (iii) Foreign language hours in junior high schools were to be reduced from four hours per week to three hours per week. This was due to a decrease in the overall number of class hours as a result of the five-day school week, but, as was the case with the massive opposition movement in the 1980s, due to criticism of 'relaxed education' as a whole it would be returned to four hours per week in the next Courses of Study. (iv) The target of foreign language studies would be set as "developing practical communicative competence" and emphasis would be placed on spoken communication activities such as listening and speaking. (v) In order to enable more flexible teaching, the content of the four areas of language activities, which used to be presented by grade level, would be presented all together throughout the three years. (vi) Teaching materials would take into consideration the situations in which language is used and how language works, with an emphasis on developing language proficiency through repeated experience of actual use. (vii) Language materials such as speech sounds, sentences and sentence patterns, grammatical items, speech, and collocations were organised into basic items and reviewed with a view to eliminating some of the content (such as grammatical items and word counts). As a result, the vocabulary to be acquired (junior and senior high school) was reduced from 2,900 words in the old curriculum to 2,200 words, the lowest in the post-war period. (viii) Individualised instruction, small-group activities and the use of audio-visual materials should be devised in consideration of students' abilities and aptitudes, and native speakers, the internet, and educational equipment should be utilised. (ix) In addition to teaching foreign languages (English) as a subject, in subjects related for example to high school industry, there was a demand for the cultivation of "the ability to speak and understand technical documents in foreign languages in response to the international development of the manufacturing industry", and in commerce, "practical language skills" to "further respond to the global economy". (x) In high school and university entrance examinations, "it is necessary to respect the direction of improvement in foreign language education, which emphasises the development of practical communication skills, and to make improvements such as the further inclusion of listening". Listening would be introduced into the National Centre Test for University Entrance Examinations from the January 2006 examinations on.

Erikawa also summarises the following five features concerning the foreign language section of the high school curriculum guidelines. (i) German and French had disappeared from the subject titles, leaving only English. (ii) Either Oral Communication I or English I was now compulsory. (iii) In the past, Oral Communication A, B and C were arranged after English I and II, but this time the oral system came first, strongly reflecting the policy of emphasising phonetics and conversation. (iv) 'Communication activities' that organically link the four areas were presented, and 'examples of situations in which language is used' and 'examples of how language works' were also given in concrete examples. (v) As 'matters for consideration in teaching', pronunciation, sentence system, grammatical matters, and non-verbal means of being taught were shown, and the overall state and structure of teaching to develop practical communicative competence was presented.

1.9. 2008-2009 Revision.

Erikawa (2018) defines the keywords of education policy since the 1990s as 'globalisation' and 'neoliberalism'. He further states that neoliberalism today is an educational policy integral to globalisation, as neoliberalism seeks to develop 'global human resources' and to strengthen the principle of competition in education. He speculates that the Fundamental Law of Education, which takes respect for the individual as its basis, was an obstacle in trying to put schools directly in charge of developing human resources to support national and corporate strategies, and notes that the first Shinzo Abe cabinet therefore reorganised this law in December 2006.

According to MEXT (2020), the key points of the 2008 Courses of Study were "the development of a zest for life, the acquisition of basic and fundamental knowledge and skills, and the balance between the development of thinking, judgment and expression", and the main features of the revision were an increase in the number of class hours, the enhancement of teaching content, and the introduction of foreign language activities in primary schools. In addition, MEXT (2009) states that the importance of fostering a 'zest for life' based on the philosophy of education clarified in the revision of the Fundamental Law of Education will increase in the age of a knowledge-based society. The three pillars that make up the 'zest for life' as stated here are solid academic ability, rich humanity, and health and physical fitness.

Hayama (2006) identifies the following six features of the 2008 Courses of Study. (1) An increased number of class hours and the use of Saturdays for schooling. (ii) The reduction of "comprehensive study time". (iii) An increase in the number of compulsory subjects, a reduction in the number of elective subjects in junior high schools, and an increase in the number of class hours for foreign languages (English). (iv) The establishment of 'Foreign language activities' as compulsory in grades 5 and 6 of primary schools. (v) The goal of moral education as 'the development of Japanese people who love their country and their homeland'. In the provisions for primary school music, 'teach Kimigayo' was changed to 'teach students to sing Kimigayo'. (vi) The making of martial arts in junior high school health and physical education compulsory.

Abe (2017) notes from his experience as an actual teacher that, under these study guidelines, the demands placed on teachers and the field gradually increased, and there was now a tendency for everything that had previously been done at home and in the community to be left to the school.

Erikawa (2018) states that the most significant feature of the foreign language section of the 2008 Courses of Study for Secondary Schools was the returning of the number of lessons in foreign languages from three hours per week to four hours per week. Other features included the following ten points. (i) In the objectives, the previous "foundation of practical communication skills such as listening and speaking" was changed to "foundation of communication skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing", emphasising the development of all four skills. (ii) The new wording "capturing written content and ideas" was introduced to strengthen reading comprehension. (iii) The content was to be based on foreign language activities in primary schools, since foreign language education began there. (iv) Emphasis was placed on 'repeatedly teaching and consolidating what has been learned'. (v) The vocabulary was increased for the first time from 'up to about 900 words' to 'about 1200 words', and certain designated words were abolished. (vi) There was a reference to grammar instruction which stated that "grammar should be taught in effective association with language activities, based on the fact that it supports communication". (vii) As emphasis was placed on 'listening' and 'speaking' in primary schools foreign language activities, 'teaching with particular emphasis on listening and speaking language activities' was to be eliminated in junior high schools. (viii) "Familiarise yourself with the rudimentary use of

dictionaries and use them as necessary" was changed to "Familiarise yourself with the use of dictionaries and be able to use them" to strengthen dictionary instruction. (ix) Regarding subjects, "traditional culture, natural science, etc." were included to strengthen nationalism, along with countermeasures against a shift away from science. (x) Moral education, including patriotism, was to be promoted in all subjects and activities, including foreign languages.

In the foreign language section of the Courses of Study for Senior High Schools, published the following year in 2009, a 40% increase in vocabulary was also put forward. It also included the policy that classes should be conducted in English, in order to make the classroom a scene of actual communication. The subjects were changed to 'Basic communicative English', 'Communicative English I, II and III', 'English expression I and II' and 'English conversation', with 'communication' as the key word in the guidelines.

1.10. 2017-2018 Revision.

The Democratic Party of Japan (DPJ) won a landslide victory over the Liberal Democratic Party (LDP) in the August 2009 Lower House election, depriving the LDP of its number one party position for the first time since its formation in 1955. However, the government did not stabilise, and the DPJ suffered a crushing defeat in the December 2012 Lower House election, giving rise to the second Shinzo Abe cabinet, which comprised the Liberal Democratic Party (LDP) and the New Kōmeitō party. Under the leadership of the Prime Minister's Office, there was immediately a push for the development of moral education as a school subject (which was initially opposed by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT)), as well as the early introduction and subjectisation of English language education in primary schools. In this vein, the Courses of Study were revised to coincide with the Tokyo Olympics. After transitional measures beginning in 2018, the new Courses of Study were to be fully implemented from 2020 for primary schools in time for the Tokyo Olympics and Paralympics, from 2021 for junior high schools, and from 2022 for high schools.

MEXT (2020) states that the main point of the 2017 Courses of Study is "to realise curricula that are open to society, organising the qualities and abilities into three pillars ('knowledge and skills', 'ability to think, judge and express' and 'ability to learn and human nature') with the aim of developing 'the zest for life'". The improvement of classes from the perspective of 'independent, interactive and deep learning' (active learning), the promotion of curriculum management, and the establishment of a new foreign language department in elementary schools are also listed as features.

MEXT (2017) argues that the philosophy of future curricula is "curricula open to society" and lists the following three points it should follow. (i) To have a broad perspective on the situation in society and the world, to have the goal of creating a better society through better school education, and to share this goal with society through the curricula. (ii) To clarify in the curriculum the qualities and abilities required by children who will create the future society, in order for them to face and relate to society and the world and to carve out their own lives. (iii) In implementing the curriculum, to utilise local human and material resources, and to link with social education after school and on Saturdays, etc., so that school education is not confined to the school but is realised in cooperation and collaboration with society.

Hayama (2006) summarises the features of this Courses of Study in the following four points. (i) To put an end to the traditional debate on crammed or relaxed education, the quantity of learning would not be changed, but the quality of learning, such as "how to learn" and "what to be capable

of doing", would be emphasised. (ii) In primary schools, 'foreign language activities' would be introduced in the middle grades and 'foreign language' as a subject in the upper grades. (iii) In junior high schools, English classes would, in principle, be conducted in English, as in high schools. (iv) In high schools, a 'History Comprehensive' course combining Japanese and world history, focusing on modern and contemporary history, would be established as a compulsory subject, and a 'Public Affairs' course would be newly established to develop the skills necessary for participation in society.

Erikawa (2018) summarises the following seven main policies on foreign language education as set out in the new Courses of Study. (i) Foreign language activity (one session per week) in primary schools would be lowered to grades 3 and 4. Foreign languages would be made a subject in grades 5 and 6, but the number of sessions would be reduced from the originally planned three per week to two. (ii) Japanese language education and foreign language (activity) were to be effectively linked, and students made aware of differences in sound and sentence structure. (iii) Vocabulary would be increased from 600-700 words in primary schools to 1600-1800 words in junior high school in addition to the primary schools vocabulary, for a total of 2200-2500 words (compared to 1200 words in the 2008 guidelines, approximately double the vocabulary to which students were previously exposed). Another 1800-2500 words were to be added in high school, so that by the time students graduate from high school they would have been exposed to 4000-5000 words (compared to 4000-5000 words in the 2009 guidelines). In high school, another 1,800-2,500 words would be added, and at the stage of high school graduation, the number of words would be significantly increased to around 4,000-5,000 (a 30%-70% increase on the 2009 guidelines' 3,000 words). (iv) From the perspective of what can be achieved using English, the targets and target examples for each stage would be set in concrete terms, and the level of achievement visualised using external certification tests such as the English Proficiency Test, national achievement surveys and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). (a) Students in the middle grades of primary school were "to develop a basis of communicative competence, focusing on listening and speaking with an awareness of the other person"; (b) In the upper grades of primary school, students were "to develop a basis of communicative competence, including the development of attitudes towards reading and writing in addition to listening and speaking with an awareness of the other person. Develop the foundations of communication skills, including the development of attitudes towards reading and writing, in addition to listening and speaking with an awareness of others". An example target was for students 'to be able to ask and answer questions to friends about things they like, their family, their day-to-day life, etc., using familiar standardised expressions'. (c) Middle school students should 'develop communication skills to understand, express and exchange simple information on specific and familiar topics with respect for others'. An example target for them was 'to be able to read short newspaper articles and watch TV news and give an overview of them'. (d) In high school, students should "develop the ability to accurately understand and appropriately communicate information and ideas on a wide range of topics in a foreign language, and the communication skills to present, discuss, debate and negotiate with others in a respectful manner". A distinctive feature here was that the level of qualities and abilities to be developed was clearly stated in three levels: "(I) With a lot of support / (II) With a certain level of support / (III) With little or no support...". (v) Following high school, junior high school English classes would also be "based on classes being conducted in English". (vi) In accordance with the CEFR, 'speaking' would be divided into two parts, 'speaking [interaction]' and 'speaking [presentation]', and the existing four skills would be changed to five areas. (vii) The high school subjects were to be reorganised into 'English Communication I, II and III (I is compulsory)' and

'Logic and Expression I, II and III'. Erikawa notes the fact that the percentage of second-year junior high school students who said they "liked" English was the lowest among all nine subjects surveyed, and expresses concern that under the current circumstances, if the vocabulary that junior high school students are exposed to is effectively doubled and "classes are basically conducted in English", this may accelerate students' dislike of English.

2. Previous studies relevant to this paper.

First, this paper makes reference to Erikawa (1992). Here, he analyses the historical changes in cross-cultural understanding in English language textbooks in Japan after World War II, divided into four periods based on the time of revision of the Courses of Study: 1949, 1972-1974, 1981-1982 and 1990-1992. From his research, he notes that descriptions of Japan, which were almost non-existent in 1949, have increased over time. He also notes that this trend contrasts with the decline in the popularity of the USA. He also reports that, with the appearance of non-Western countries and peoples from Asia, the Middle East, Africa and Latin America in these textbooks at different times, there is a greater understanding of these countries and peoples. Particularly remarkable is the number of references to Asia in the 1990 textbooks. The study also finds that material on Soviet and Eastern European socialist countries peaked in 1972 and almost disappeared in 1990. Moreover, of these, only one textbook in his study, one published in 1972, featured Soviet figures after the socialist regime, while the others only used pre-revolutionary and other fairy tales from the former Russia. He refers to the history of post-war public opinion and speculates that anti-Soviet sentiment among the Japanese has influenced this phenomenon. He states that while there were constant references in these books to non-English-speaking Western Europe, such as France and Italy, and a positive tendency to make subjects about the Third World, such as Asia and Africa, the opposite phenomenon was observed with regard to different cultures with different social systems where the government had what was considered by Japan to be a hostile policy.

He identifies not only changes by cultural sphere, but also advances in textbook compilation and changes in literary and biographical material. His research shows that the content of textbooks has become more complex and internationalised, but that, nevertheless, the overwhelming majority of literary and biographical material is from Western cultures.

Enomoto (2006) investigates the representation of 'culture' in English textbooks in Japan and identifies the attitudes and values being fostered by them. This study attempts to outline the ways in which contemporary Japanese junior high school English textbooks and their social context - particularly the prevailing direction of educational reform in Japan - shape this representation of 'culture'. He analyses 15 junior high school English textbooks from the top five companies in terms of adoption rate among those that passed the textbook inspection in 2000, and focuses on speech in specific contexts (dialogues and monologues) by characters of the same age as the textbook users. He then categorises the topics of the dialogues/monologues delivered by these 147 characters from different parts of the world into 'culture' and 'social issues', analyses how they talk about each topic, and, on this basis, attempts to identify the characters' internalised human nature, attitudes and values.

First, in the narratives about culture, Enomoto notes that when the characters encounter different cultures, they make statements assigning positive values to them. He writes that it is worth noting that, in exchanges between characters where culture is the topic of discussion, these characters

share the same nationality as the cultural topic being discussed. Within the textbook, therefore, it is clear to whom the 'cultures' being talked about belong.

Next, Enomoto divides the narratives on social issues into four broad categories: 'science/technology', 'war/peace', 'public/welfare' and 'environment/coexistence'. With regard to 'science/technology', he writes that for the characters, technology, as represented by computers and the internet, should be used proactively, while taking responsibility for the risks associated with its use. He also points out that cutting-edge science, represented by space exploration and the development of new types of food, is presented by the characters as something they participate in and explore, or as the object of their dreams for the future. Concerning 'war/peace', Enomoto writes that the textbooks depict figures who react to the damage of war on an emotional level and are able to take positive steps to achieve peace. Moreover, he writes that in the dialogues on 'public/welfare' and 'environment/coexistence', one can see that the characters have a similar attitude towards taking positive action on social and environmental issues; they also deliver dialogues encouraging others to have the same.

According to his analysis, the characters in the textbooks view culture as a 'good thing'; they also privilege their own cultural productions and knowledge and disseminate them to others. Furthermore, they are the kind of people who make use of technology (i.e. computers) and occasionally dream of contributing to the development of science. They also have an awareness of the concept of active 'participation' in public affairs, and are willing to find their own solutions to social problems. He stresses that such a person presents a very close match to the image of an ideal human being that the Japanese educational reforms of the time aspired to shape; from this, he concludes that the characters in these English textbooks, despite coming from different parts of the world, were all designed to have almost identical attitudes and values. He points out that this attribution of the attitudes and values that a Japanese person 'should' have to characters from different parts of the world reflects a worldview that these attitudes and values are widespread and standard worldwide, i.e. they are 'natural things'. A world is thus created in which the dominant ideology driving educational reform in Japan is not directly stated, but the values and attitudes it requires are presupposed.

Enomoto also writes that the 'culture' described by the characters in these English textbooks is only permitted to take a form that does not threaten the idealised person that Japanese education aims to create. While the characters are granted privileged ownership over their 'own culture', they are only given the 'external' position of 'viewer' with regard to other cultures. In other words, by clarifying the 'ownership' of culture, the potential 'boundaries' between the characters become apparent; this in turn outlines the 'belonging' of individual characters in a clearly delineated way. He concludes that behind the superficial 'internationalisation' and 'multiculturalisation' of junior high school English textbooks, a process of 'universalisation' of attitudes and values based on Japanese political agendas and 'enclosure' by 'cultures' is underway.

Inda (2010) analyses the content of three major English textbooks used in Japanese junior high schools from the perspective of 'Intercultural Communicative Competence'. She points out that since the 1980s, when 'communicative competence' and 'international understanding' began to be promoted, there has been a great deal of research attempting to analyse textbooks from this 'intercultural' perspective. She summarises what the textbook studies have revealed so far, which she identifies as a shift in "intercultural understanding" from "Anglo-American cultural understanding to international understanding including Japanese-English and Japanese culture", and a shift in "communication" from a receiving type to a transmitting and interactive type.

She analyses the junior high school English textbooks in use since April 2004 from the following five perspectives: (i) To what extent do they contain elements that convey the internationality and diversity of English? (ii) To what extent is the cultural diversity of English speakers depicted? (iii) Do they suggest that cultural differences are expressed in communication? (iv) To what extent are comparisons between one's own culture and different cultures encouraged? (v) Do they encourage the development of coordination skills that allow students to come to terms with heterogeneity?

With regard to point (i), Inda writes that from her analysis of textbooks, there is a basic assumption that students will be using English when they visit English-speaking countries or when communicating with people from English-speaking countries. She points out that although students are informed that there is some use of English by non-native English speakers, there is more emphasis on its use by native speakers, which may give students the impression that English is still the 'property' of English-speaking countries.

With regard to point (ii), she writes that the focus in these textbooks is on English-speaking countries (where English is the official and first language of the country) and Japan. She also argues that when non-English speaking countries (e.g. Nepal and Cambodia) are introduced, they are not necessarily introduced as 'diverse English-speaking cultures', but as part of 'international understanding education' that encourages students to consider issues of poverty and ethics around the world. She posits that these English textbooks tend to consider the development of people who will contribute to international society and world peace as one of the roles that English education should play. Inda also writes that one thing to be cautious of when dealing with a wide range of diverse cultures is the potential for images of each country to be stereotyped based on fragmentary information alone. She argues that the textbooks surveyed are diverse in terms of subject matter in that they introduce cultures from all over the world (not just English-speaking countries), but that the greatest attention is given to the cultures of English-speaking countries and Japan; this, she says, is likely to lead students to associate English with the cultures of English-speaking countries. Moreover, she argues that there is no subject matter that shows the diversity of cultures within a country or suggests the danger of stereotyping, and that cultural diversity in the true sense of the word is not portrayed.

Concerning (iii), while Inda acknowledges that culture as something hidden in verbal and non-verbal expressions that can be confusing to speakers is depicted in some of the textbooks she analyses (and is a valuable cultural learning opportunity), she finds it problematic that the overall proportion in which it is done is very low. Another problem she identifies is that these subjects are all from Anglo-American cultures, which may give students the impression that it is essential to draw on the culture and communication styles of English-speaking countries when speaking English.

With regard to (iv), she also notes that it occurs in very limited amounts, and that all of these subjects are comparisons between Japan and English-speaking countries with nothing to encourage comparison with other countries or cultures within Japan.

Regarding (v), Inda points out that the method of clearing up misunderstandings and doubts about a culture by directly asking questions of the people to whom it belongs is shown in the textbooks, which also emphasise the importance of an attitude of understanding each other through dialogue and letters. She expresses concern that the subjects showing cultural differences between Japan and English-speaking countries are naturally of a comparative nature, so that - because there are few such subjects and no opportunities given to students to become aware of these differences through their own reflection - students may only receive a fixed image of culture through comparison.

In conclusion, she argues that although the junior high school English textbooks she has examined have become more international in historical terms, they still focus mainly on the English language and culture of English-speaking countries and do not really consider English as an international language.

Okawa (2011) defines the concept of 'intercultural understanding' and, based on this definition, quantitatively analyses the cultural subjects in the approved English textbooks of junior high schools and the subjects related to Japanese culture. He refers to the Course of Study for Foreign Languages in Junior High Schools (1998 edition) and, in a summary, argues that the following three points should be taken into consideration in the subject matter of the textbooks: (i) Textbooks should include material that enables students to learn about the diverse views and ideas of people around the world, not only those from English-speaking countries. (ii) The term "language and culture" in the Courses of Study covers a wide range of fields, including various languages and the culture of people's daily lives as well as their literature; therefore a wide range of cultures should be presented in the textbooks. (iii) As many current Japanese junior high school students do not know enough about Japanese culture, teaching material that promotes an understanding of this - necessary for Japanese people living in an international society - is required. In addition, in order to cultivate a spirit of international cooperation, it is also essential to provide subjects that make students aware of the value and diversity of the world's cultures and give them an accurate perception of the interdependence of the world. Of these three points, Okawa pays particular attention to point (iii), arguing for particular focus on cultural subjects related to Japanese culture that examines these subjects from the perspective of cross-cultural understanding while taking into account learners' considerations and other topical aspects.

Okawa refers to the definition of the perspective of teaching materials found in the Course of Study and defines 'intercultural understanding' as follows.

It refers to an attitude of knowledgeable understanding of the various cultures of the world through English, awareness of cultural diversity and respect for different cultures as well as one's own culture. Culture here refers to the daily life, customs and habits, stories, geography and history, traditional culture, youth culture, etc. of the world's peoples and Japanese people, especially those who use English.

Okawa summarises the characteristics of the cultural subjects in the junior high school English language textbooks in use at the time of the survey, and the implications that can be drawn from them, in the following four points.

- (i) About 60% of the lessons analysed deal with cultural subjects, which he assumes reflects one of the objectives of the Courses of Study: to deepen students' understanding of language and culture.
- (ii) He points out that English is overwhelmingly used as the first language in most of the regions covered in the textbooks, and they include few countries where English is used as the second language. He argues that it is worthwhile to increase the content of textbooks that deals with other countries and to make junior high school students aware of the fact that English is an international language, rather than focusing solely on countries where English is used as a first language; his reason for this is that English is far more often used in countries in which it is not the first language. He also states that countries with which Japan has close contacts should be more often adopted as subjects

for cross-cultural understanding education, citing the fact that Japanese junior high school students are likely to have many opportunities to interact with people from these countries in various situations in the future.

- (iii) He writes that the intention behind the inclusion of these cultural subjects is overwhelmingly to promote multicultural understanding, followed by the understanding of one's own culture, which he said reflected the Courses of Study's goal of "deepening understanding of language and culture through a foreign language".
- (iv) In a qualitative study of the textbooks, Okawa considers the subject matter they feature on Japanese culture. He argues that the subject matter on Okinawa and Ainu cultures in particular is noteworthy, in that it reflects the fact that different cultures are not necessarily foreign, but coexist within Japan itself. He speculates that, as the Japanese are generally considered to be a mono-ethnic group, it is likely that fewer junior high school students are aware of the coexistence of different cultures in Japan than those aware of different cultures in the West; in his view, these subjects are appropriate to the aim of making students more aware of the existence of different cultural peoples in Japan. He argues that this content should in fact be further developed in order to deepen Japanese students' understanding of their own culture, and that it is also necessary to incorporate more subjects through which Japanese culture and practices can be communicated to foreigners.

All of these studies are commendable in that they analyse the promotion of intercultural understanding in textbooks from different perspectives, but, as far as the author of this thesis can find, there is no study exploring the way nationality has appeared in these textbooks in relation to changes in the Courses of Study over time.

Although at first glance, therefore, the present study appears similar to Okawa's (2011), it differs in the following three respects. (i) The present study investigates senior high school English textbooks, not junior high school English textbooks. Unlike junior high school English textbooks, which focus on conversational texts, high school English textbooks include longer texts; for the purpose of tracing changes in the ways in which the author's own country and culture appear, longer texts, which provide a deeper understanding of culture, are the more suitable. (ii) Okawa focuses only on English textbooks under the 1998 edition of the Courses of Study; however this study surveys English materials under the 1970 through to the 2017 editions of the Courses of Study. (iii) While Okawa's study focuses specifically on 'Japanese culture', the focus of this study is on the changes in the objectives of the Courses of Study and the accompanying changes in the content of the textbooks. (iv) Okawa's research takes a positive stance towards the Courses of Study and the English textbooks created under them, with few sections in which he discusses problems. In his conclusion, he states that it is necessary to nurture students who have Japanese identity and can disseminate Japanese culture in an international society; as such, it seems that he does not adopt a neutral position towards the government's education policy.

This study therefore considers the appearance of nationality in these textbooks along with changes in the objectives of the Courses of Study, and examines the impact of the Courses of Study and the social conditions that shaped them on Japanese high school English textbooks.

Chapter 2.

This chapter records the research conducted at a textbook library in Koto-ku, Tokyo. As we have already seen, the number of textbooks that could have potentially been surveyed is huge, as there have been many changes in the names of subjects and, moreover, there are many publishers of high school textbooks in Japan, which are very diverse. The author therefore decided to first select the textbooks to be surveyed based on the data described in 1. and then conduct a detailed survey of the selected textbooks.

1. Survey method.

The first step in selecting the textbooks was to investigate as far as possible the adoption rate of each textbook.

For the survey of adoption rates, the author referred to the method of the Library of Education⁶. Although this website states that data from 1971 onwards can also be obtained by subject, no such data were actually available when she referred to the textbook reports, and she could only obtain information on the adoption rate by publisher.

The survey was originally intended to start in 1974 when the percentage of students entering high school exceeded 90%, but as the Courses of Study adapted in 1974 were inherited from 1960 and there was a significant break between textbooks, it was decided to start with those approved in 1972 and published in 1973⁷.

With regard to the subjects, those with the largest number of books adopted in each year (the English I lineage: a comprehensive English language subject for first-year high school students) were targeted. As an exception, data could not be found on the number of books adopted by subject prior to 1982, so English B was chosen based on the number of books adopted in 1975, the only year for which a description was available (English B has more credits than English A. The author consulted her parents, who were high school students at that time, and found that English A and B were then not divided in this way, but included Reader and Grammar as the subject titles; both of which were found to apply to English B textbooks). With regard to the number of adopted books, English B (writing) should have been chosen; however, as the aim of this study was to find out the influence of textbooks on students (i.e. on their inputs rather than their outputs) and as there is no significant difference in the number of adopted books (only less than 5% of the total difference), the author decided that the textbooks used before 1982 for the subject of English B (reading) would be selected.

The selection process was as follows.

- Sanseido VISTA has always been within the top 10 textbook series in terms of adoption rate (and was within the top 3 between 1983-2006 and between, 2013-2021 for all data

⁶ レファレンス共同データベース, 教科書の採択状況 (採択冊数・占有率) の調べ方,

<https://crd.ndl.go.jp/reference/modules/d3ndlcrdentry/index.php?page=man_view&id=2000023431>, (Last accessed 29/9/2022).

⁷ Data on adoption rates and selected textbooks.

<<https://docs.google.com/spreadsheets/d/1KLruDqv4DOvFTYJbF04fBrXOYI5YFA9hhVqiXsO41uw/edit?usp=sharing>>. With regard to the adoption rate, a selection of the top five adopted in each year is recorded. Some years have more than five records, but this is because the top five changed in the middle of the year in which the textbook was used. The adoption rate of textbooks has only been available for each textbook since 1983, and prior to that, only data for each publisher was available, so these are recorded.

available since 1983; even before 1983, when no data was available, Sanseido's adoption rate was always put it within the top 3 for all publishers. The entire series was selected for this study, as it can be assumed that the series was widely used by students of all ages.

- However, the adoption rate of the VISTA series varied from year to year; limiting the survey to one company may reflect the intentions of that company and may not provide a good view of the historical situation; and other textbooks significantly outperformed the VISTA series in some years. For these reasons, it was decided that the textbooks ranked first (or second or third) in terms of adoption rate in each year would also be selected for the survey. Specifically, from 1973 onwards these textbooks were the NEW HORIZON series by Tokyo Shoseki, the UNICORN series by Bun-eido from 1982 onwards, and the All Aboard! series by Tokyo Shoseki from 2003 onwards. With regard to 1973-1979, Jikkyo Shuppan had the highest adoption rate as a company; however, as it has never ranked in the top five since 1983 (when data for each textbook is available), Tokyo Shoseki in second place was selected. Likewise between 2003-2012 the highest adoption rate belonged to Sanseido's CROWN series, but since only one Sanseido company was to be surveyed for that year, the author chose the second place Tokyo Shoseki.

A total of 28 textbooks were thus selected for the survey. The textbooks surveyed were as follows. Each revision of the Courses of Study was divided into paragraphs, and the name of the textbook, publisher, year of publication, date of authorisation and adoption rate were recorded. An asterisk (*) indicates the year in which the Courses of Study were actually implemented in high schools.

1970~	English B (Reading)	Publisher	Year of publication	Date of Textbook Approval	Textbook Adoption Rate
*1973	THE VISTA ENGLISH READERS I	Sanseido	1973/3/15	1972/4/10	2 nd (in estimation)
	NEW HORIZON English Readers I	Tokyo Shoseki	1973/2/10	1972/4/10	1 st (in estimation)
	THE VISTA ENGLISH READERS REVISED EDITION I	Sanseido	1976/3/30	1975/4/10	2 nd (in estimation)
	NEW HORIZON English Readers I REVISED EDITION	Tokyo Shoseki	1977/2/10	1975/4/10	1 st (in estimation)
	THE VISTA ENGLISH READERS THIRD EDITION I	Sanseido	1979/3/30	1978/3/31	2 nd (in estimation)
	NEW HORIZON English Readers I	Tokyo Shoseki	1979/2/10	1978/3/31	1 st (in estimation)
1978~	English I	Publisher	Year of publication	Date of Textbook Approval	Textbook Adoption Rate
*1982	THE VISTA ENGLISH SERIES I	Sanseido	1982/3/30	1981/3/31	1 st (15.6%)
	UNICORN ENGLISH COURSE I	Bun-eido	1982/2/25	1981/3/31	2 nd (13.65%)
	THE VISTA ENGLISH SERIES I Revised Edition	Sanseido	1985/3/30	1984/3/31	2 nd (8.47%)

	Revised UNICORN ENGLISH COURSE I	Bun-eido	1985/2/25	1984/3/31	1 st (11.23%)
	VISTA ENGLISH SERIES I	Sanseido	1988/3/30	1987/3/31	2 nd (8.23%)
	NEW EDITION UNICORN ENGLISH COURSE I	Bun-eido	1988/2/25	1987/3/31	1 st (11.57%)
	VISTA ENGLISH SERIES I Revised Edition	Sanseido	1991/3/30	1990/3/31	3 rd (6.47%)
	FOURTH EDITION UNICORN ENGLISH COURSE I	Bun-eido	1991/2/25	1990/3/31	1 st (10.7%)
1989~	English I	Publisher	Year of publication	Date of Textbook Approval	Textbook Adoption Rate
*1994	VISTA ENGLISH SERIES I	Sanseido	1994/3/30	1993/3/31	2 nd (7%)
	UNICORN ENGLISH COURSE I	Bun-eido	1994/2/25	1993/3/31	1 st (7.08%)
	VISTA ENGLISH SERIES I New Edition	Sanseido	1998/3/30	1997/2/28	2 nd (7.48%)
	NEW EDITION UNICORN ENGLISH COURSE I	Bun-eido	1998/2/25	1997/2/28	1 st (8.54%)
1999~	English I	Publisher	Year of publication	Date of Textbook Approval	Textbook Adoption Rate
*2003	VISTA English Series I	Sanseido	2003/3/30	2002/2/28	3 rd (6.93%)
	ALL Aboard! English I	Tokyo Shoseki	2003/2/10	2002/2/28	2 nd (7.02%)
	VISTA English Series I New Edition	Sanseido	2007/3/30	2006/3/9	5 th (5.42%)
	ALL Aboard! English I	Tokyo Shoseki	2007/2/10	2006/3/9	2 nd (7.67%)
2009~	Communication English I	Publisher	Year of publication	Date of Textbook Approval	Textbook Adoption Rate
*2013	VISTA English Communication I	Sanseido	2013/3/30	2012/1/25	1 st (11.73%)
	All Aboard! Communication English I	Tokyo Shoseki	2013/2/10	2012/1/25	2 nd (8.65%)
	VISTA English Communication I New Edition	Sanseido	2017/3/30	2016/3/17	3 rd (6.96%)
	All Aboard! English Communication I	Tokyo Shoseki	2017/2/10	2016/3/17	1 st (13.38%)
2017~	English Communication I	Publisher	Year of publication	Date of Textbook Approval	Textbook Adoption Rate

*2022	VISTA English Communication I	Sanseido	2022/3/30	2021/1/29	10 th (5%)
	All Aboard! English Communication I	Tokyo Shoseki	2022/2/10	2021/1/29	1 st (16%)

Specific research methods used included:

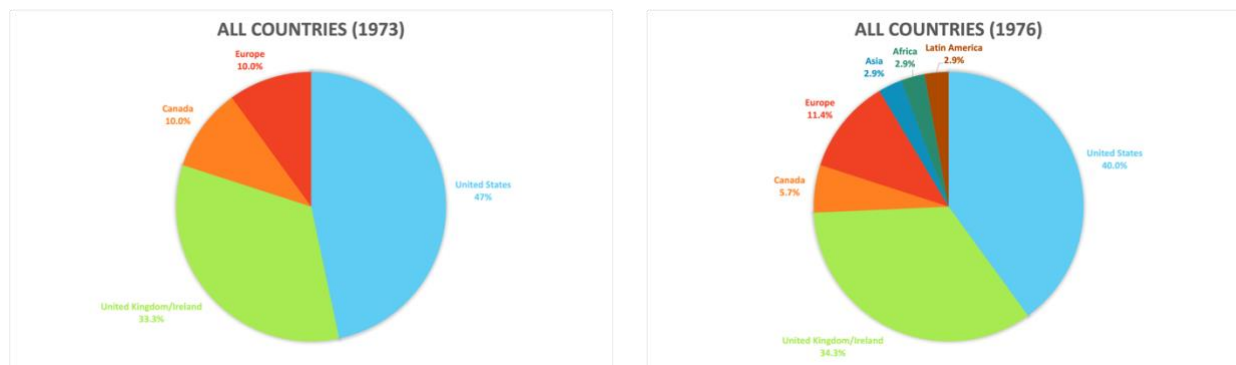
- Recording the title of the text/sub-readings (if any) and the name of the country or region in which it appears.
- Discounting the names of countries and places in the front endpapers, back endpapers, grammar exercises, and the front and back appendices.
- Recording the general purpose of the content.

For convenience of presentation, the classification of countries and regions is based on Erikawa (1992) and is divided into 11 categories: Japan/United States/United Kingdom, Ireland/Australia, New Zealand/Canada/non-English speaking European countries/former Soviet socialist countries, and Russia/Asian countries except Japan/Middle East/Africa/Latin America (with Antarctica and outer Space classified as 'Other'). Of the country names recorded, those for which all were recorded were counted as 'All Countries'. The names of countries and places in this section that either (1) are the main locations where the story takes place or (2) are the main characters' countries of origin were further tabulated as 'Main Countries', as students may have been exposed to them more deeply in the course of their studies. Countries are listed in the Appendix at the end of this report.

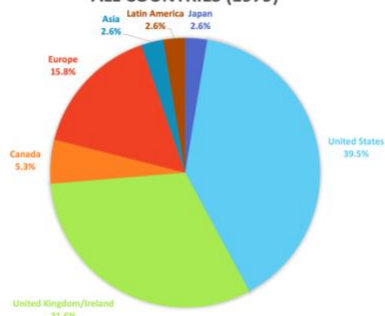
2. Survey results.

The top two textbooks in terms of adoption rate each year were surveyed and the total number of countries/regions represented in the two textbooks is summarised in a pie chart below, so that changes in the characteristics of how countries/regions appear in each period can be read. Note that the graphs do not always sum to 100% due to the decimal point, but the actual figures are given in the material at the end.

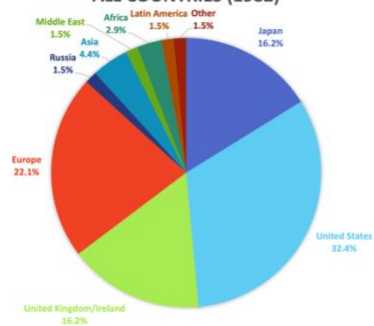
[Historical transition of all country/region appearances in textbooks: 1973~2022]



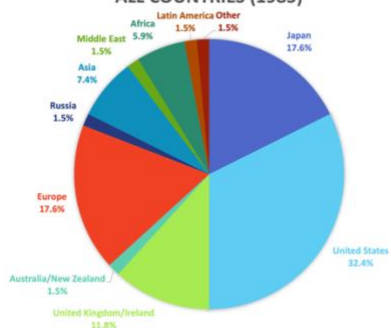
ALL COUNTRIES (1979)



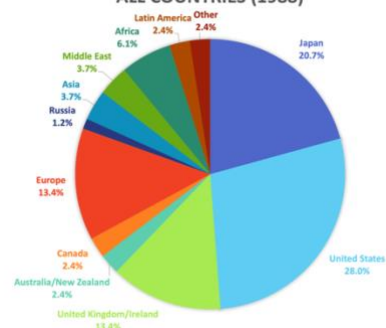
ALL COUNTRIES (1982)



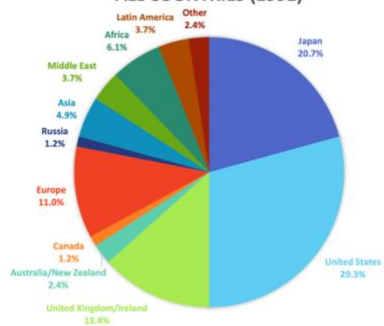
ALL COUNTRIES (1985)



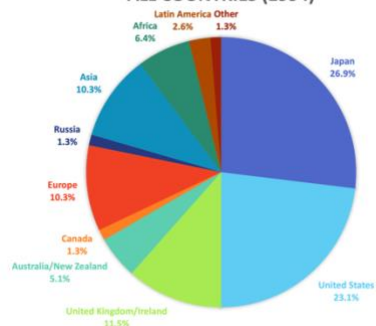
ALL COUNTRIES (1988)



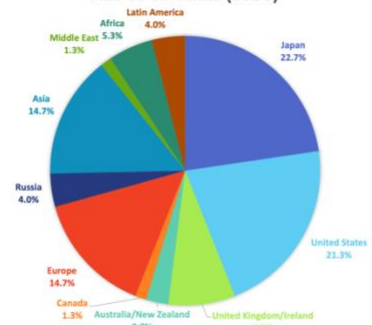
ALL COUNTRIES (1991)



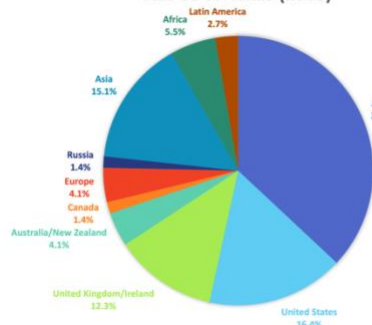
ALL COUNTRIES (1994)

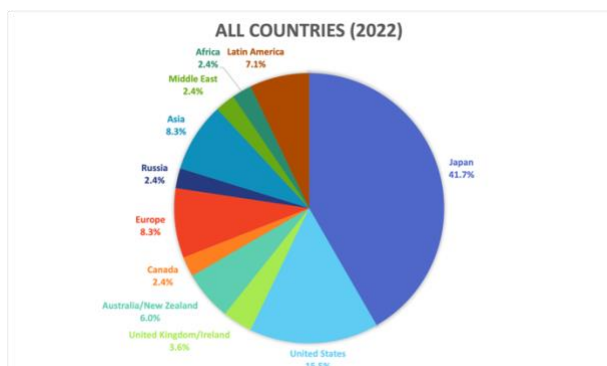
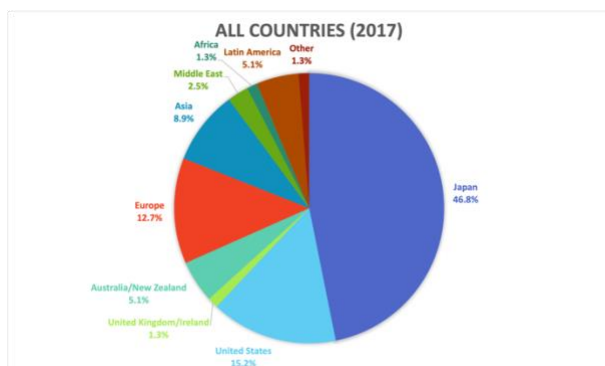
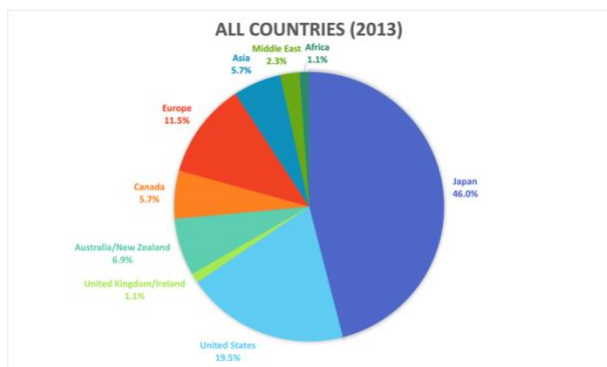
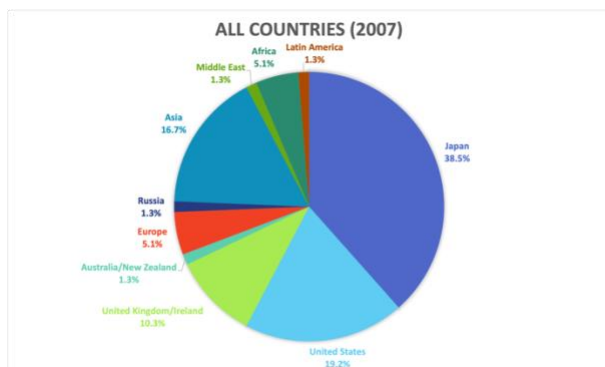


ALL COUNTRIES (1998)



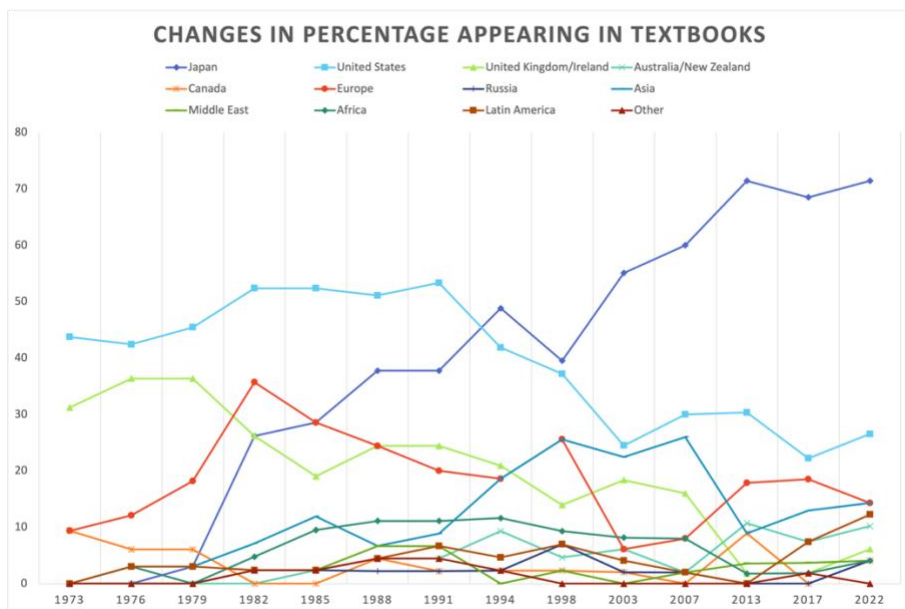
ALL COUNTRIES (2003)





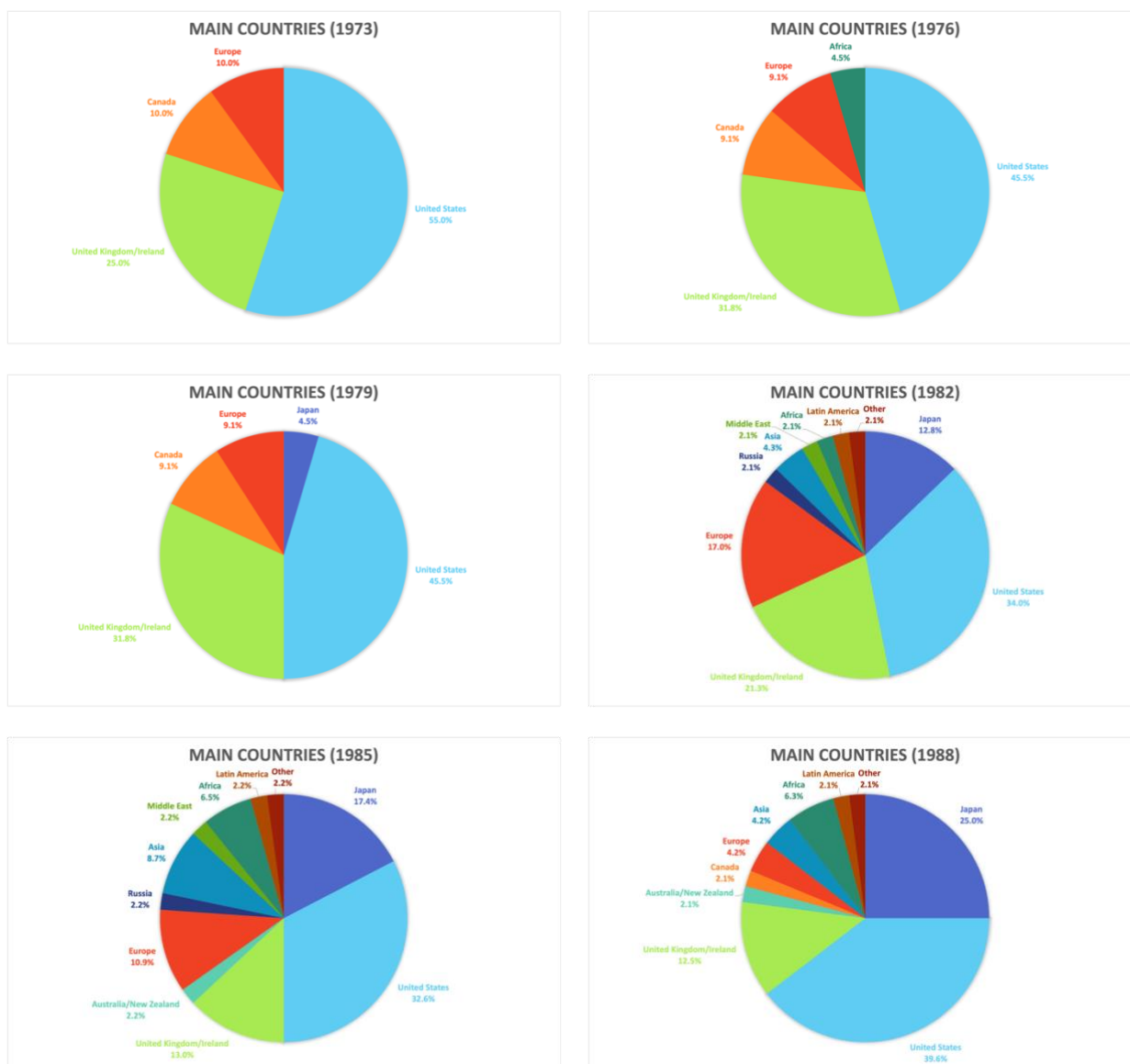
The first major characteristic that can be read from the All Countries graph is that the presence of Japan in textbooks has increased over time. In parallel, the proportion of the United States of America, the United Kingdom of Great Britain, and Ireland, which had a large presence in early textbooks, has decreased, with the United Kingdom not appearing even once in the textbooks of the year 2022.

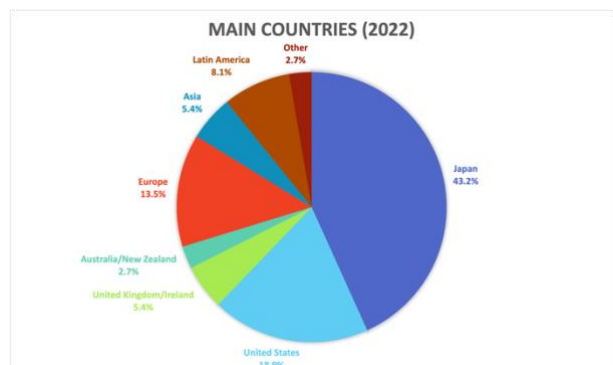
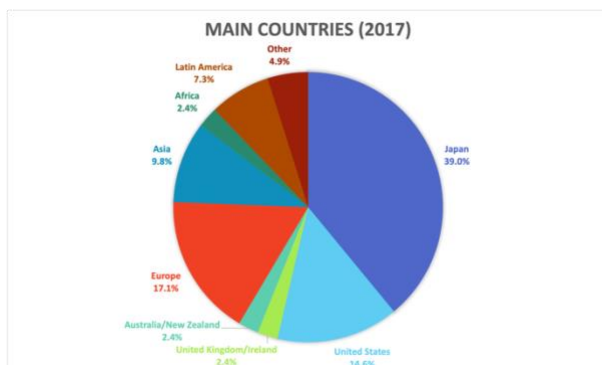
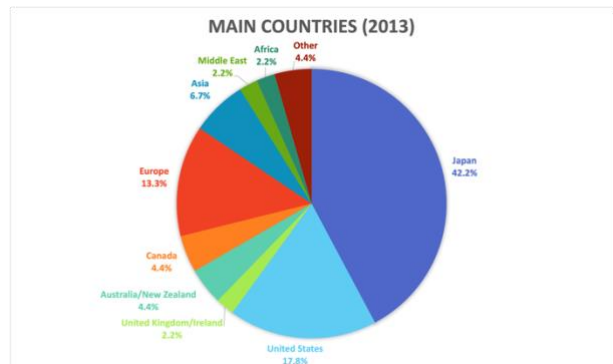
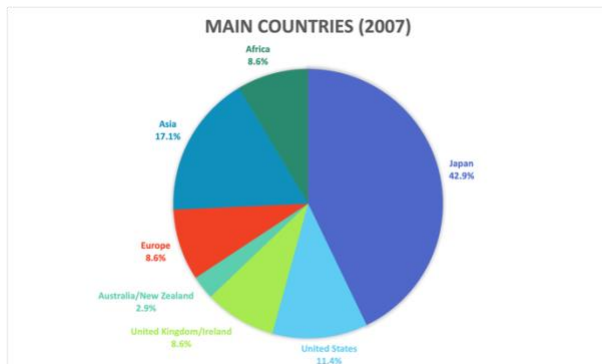
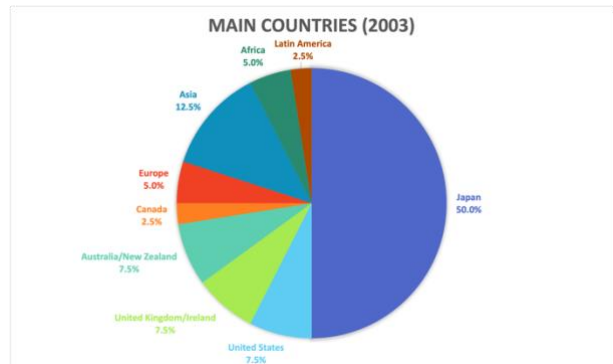
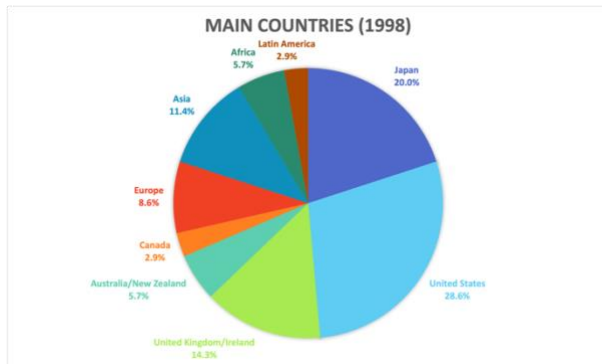
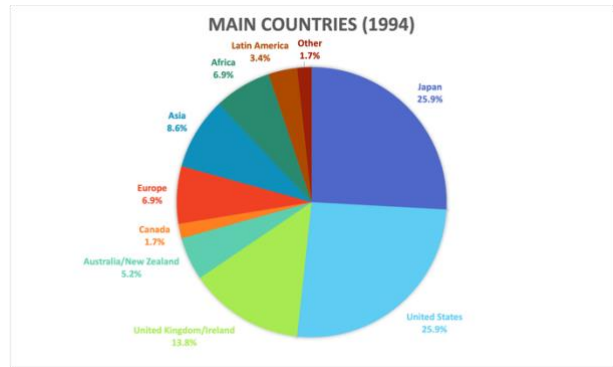
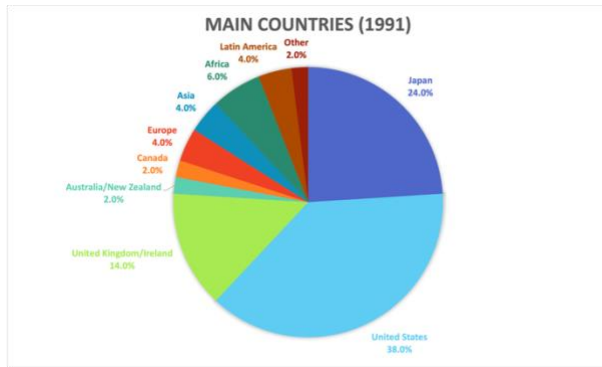
The graph below shows the evolution of the percentage of appearances of each country/region.



As can be seen from the graph, the proportion of Japan-related content appearing in textbooks has increased over the years. In addition, the proportion of content on Asia, the Middle East and Latin America, which did not appear very often in the early years, has increased in recent years, showing that a wider variety of countries and regions are appearing in current textbooks than in earlier textbooks. Conversely, the number of English-speaking countries such as the United States of America, the United Kingdom, and Canada has been declining over the years. However, the percentage of Australia and New Zealand, also English-speaking countries, has been increasing over time. The non-English-speaking countries of Western Europe, Africa and the former Soviet socialist countries and Russia show no significant change over time.

[Historical transition of main countries/regions appearing in textbooks: 1973~2022]

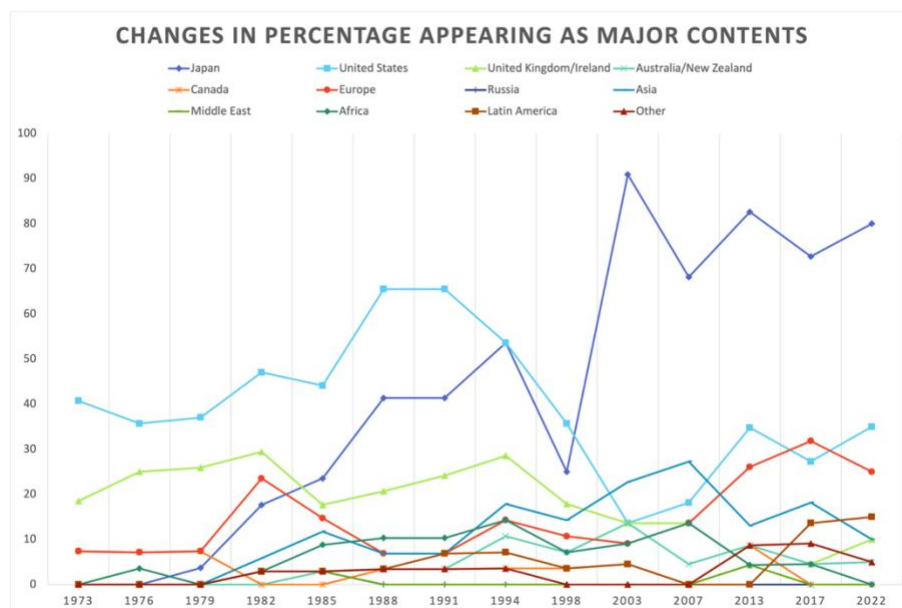




The Main Countries graph also shows that Japan's presence in textbooks has increased over time. In particular, in textbooks from 2003 onwards, Japan appears as a main country in almost half of the lessons, indicating that students are learning more and more about Japan in their textbooks. In

parallel, the proportion of both the United States of America and the United Kingdom, which had a large presence in earlier textbooks, has decreased; the same trend as in the All Countries graph. The proportion of featured content relating to non-English speaking countries and regions has also increased over time, suggesting that the perception of English in Japan has changed from 'a language for communicating with English speaking people' to 'a tool for connecting with the rest of the world'.

The graph below shows the transition in the percentage of each country/region appearing as the main country in the sections in which it appears.



As can be seen from the graph, the proportion of sections in which Japan appears as the main content has increased over the years. Over the course of the survey, it was noted that Japanese characters began to appear in textbooks without fail from around 1982, when the proportion of representations of Japan began to rise. In addition, the UNICORN series selected for the survey from 1982 to 1998 assumed that Japanese students would go to English-speaking countries to study abroad and use English there; however, the VISTA series from 1982 onwards and the All Aboard series from 2003 onwards assume that foreign students would come to Japan and use English in class and in everyday life there. The VISTA series from 1994 onwards also includes students from non-Western English-speaking countries, such as Singapore, Malaysia, Kenya and South Korea, which did not appear in previous textbooks.

Chapter 3

This chapter traces the changes in the high school Courses of Study since 1970, which were in use in 1973, the year chosen as the starting point for this study; it then examines the characteristics of the textbooks published under those guidelines. The themes of each lesson in this material are broadly classified into five categories based on Enomoto (2006) and Okawa (2011): Culture (daily life, manners and customs, stories, essays, geography and history, traditional culture, youth culture), social issues: science/technology, war/peace, public/welfare, and environment/coexistence. This chapter investigates how these topics express the concept of nationality. Only ‘main’ lessons have been examined here as the lessons in which students are likely to be exposed to this content for a longer period of time.

1. 1970.

The objectives of this edition of the Foreign Language Section of the Courses of Study for Senior High Schools were to develop in students the ability to understand and express themselves in foreign languages, to deepen their linguistic awareness, and to provide them with a basis for international understanding.

In order to achieve this, the following specific objectives were set out:

- 1 To familiarise students with the speech, written and basic vocabulary of a foreign language and to develop their listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills.
- 2 To gain an understanding through foreign languages of the lives and perspectives of people in other countries.

In particular, the objectives for the subject surveyed by this paper, English B, were listed as follows:

- (1) To familiarise students with English speech and basic grammar, and to develop their basic listening and speaking skills.
- (2) To familiarise students with written English and basic grammar, and to develop their basic reading and writing skills.
- (3) To gain an understanding through English of the lives and perspectives of people in other countries.

Two of the objectives of this edition of the Courses of Study are particularly noteworthy: that of aiming 'to develop a basis for international understanding' in students, and that of allowing them 'to gain an understanding of the lives and perspectives of people from other countries'. As discussed in Chapter 1, against the background of the 1964 Tokyo Olympics, the liberalisation of overseas travel, and the rapid economic growth of the 1960s, Japanese students in this time period began to understand that people from other countries were not limited to those in English-speaking countries; this edition clearly expanded its scope to include ‘people from the wider world’.

The following table shows the changes in the number of times each country or region appeared in textbooks produced under these editions of the Courses of Study (1973, 1976, 1979) as a percentage of the total number of lessons.

[Percentage change in All Countries (%)]

Year	Japan	US	UK/ Ireland	Australia/ New Zealand	Canada	Europe	Russia	Asia	Middle East	Africa	Latin America	Other
1973	0	43.75	31.25	0	9.375	9.375	0	0	0	0	0	0
1976	0	42.43	36.36	0	6.06	12.12	0	3.03	0	3.03	3.03	0
1979	3.03	45.45	36.36	0	6.06	18.18	0	3.03	0	0	3.03	0

[Percentage change in Main Countries (%)]

Year	Japan	United States	UK/ Ireland	Australia/ New Zealand	Canada	Europe	Russia	Asia	Middle East	Africa	Latin America	Other
1973	0	40.74	18.52	0	7.4	7.4	0	0	0	0	0	0
1976	0	35.71	25	0	7.14	7.14	0	0	0	3.57	0	0
1979	3.7	37.04	25.93	0	7.41	7.41	0	0	0	0	0	0

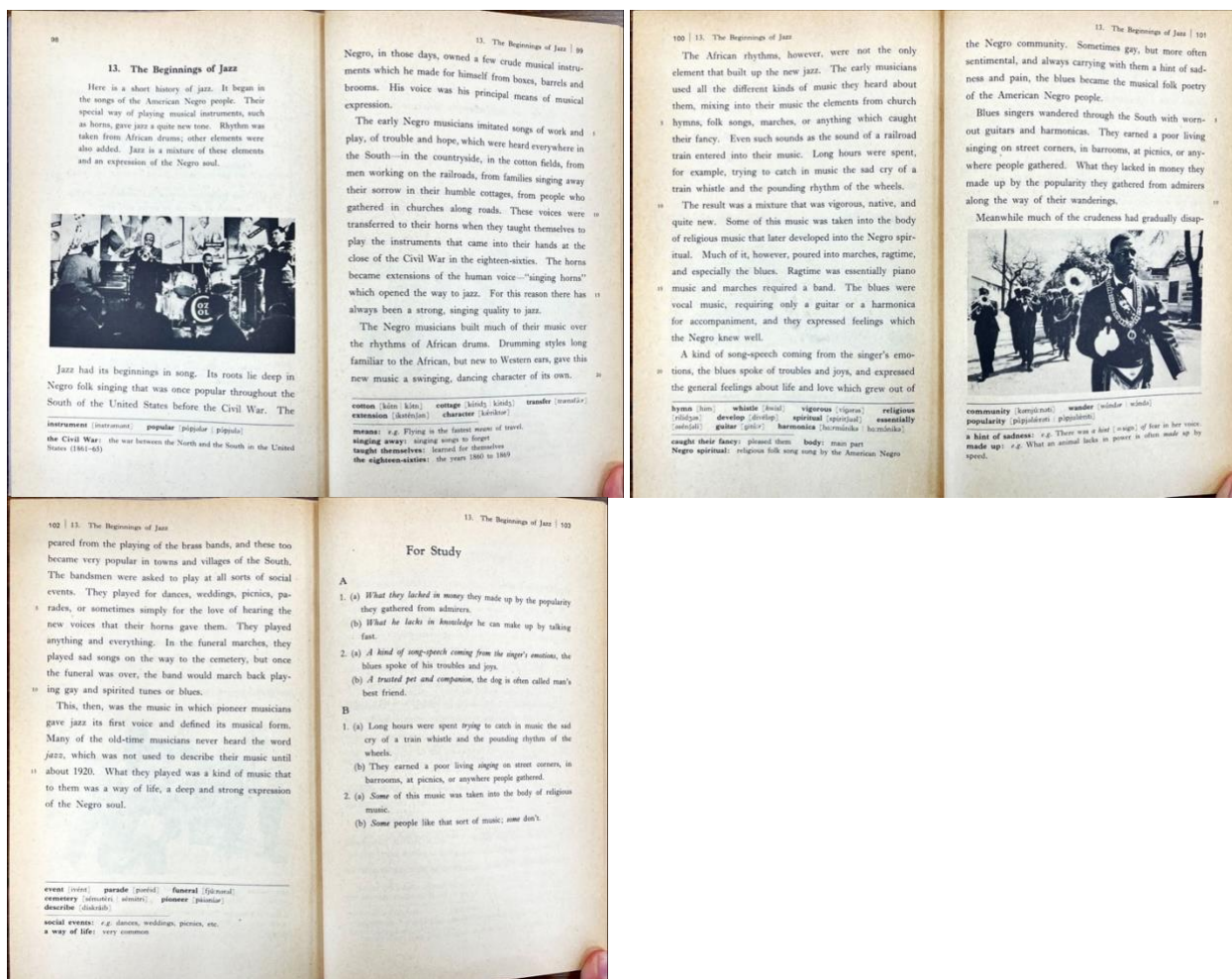
Data on actual textbooks show that non-English-speaking countries did appear in them, albeit in slightly smaller numbers. Although data on earlier textbooks are not included here for comparison as they are beyond the scope of this study, the textbooks produced under this edition of the Courses of Study depicted a gradually increasing number of countries and regions.

Regarding subject matter, the Courses of Study for English B, stated that Subjects should be chosen from among those relating to the daily lives, manners and customs, views, geography, history, institutions, science and technology, industry, etc. of the people who use English in their daily lives and of the people of the world at large. Subjects may be in the form of explanatory texts, dialogues, stories, biographies, novels, plays, poems, essays, articles, diaries, letters, current affairs, etc.

As a result, subjects were classified into the following categories: culture, science/technology, war/peace, public/welfare, and environment/coexistence.

Year	Culture	Science/ Technology	War/Peace	Public/Welfare	Environment/ Coexistence
1973	22	3	0	1	1
1976	23	3	0	1	1
1979	23	3	0	0	1

In each year, cultural subjects represented the overwhelming majority and other subjects were less common. A few essays and the remaining material were mostly fiction and non-fiction stories that fit the 'cultural' subject matter. The following is The Beginnings of Jazz from the NEW HORIZON series, a text about the history of jazz in the USA.



(‘The Beginnings of Jazz’, NEW HORIZON 1977)

The history of black people in the USA is briefly mentioned, and the history of jazz is described using the word 'Negro', now considered derogatory. It should moreover be mentioned that the content restricts itself to black people in the USA, although the fact that jazz has its roots in African music was introduced; therefore, this material also falls under the 'Africa' category in the classification used in this study.

It is worth noting that none of the subjects explored by the textbooks in this time period were classified under 'war/peace'. It can be assumed that, compared to later years, at this time there was still no movement in English language education to link peace studies and international understanding education. It is also interesting to note that the only subject that fitted the 'public/welfare' category was a text from the VISTA series about the British justice system, 'THE LAW IN ENGLAND' which was deleted in the 1979 edition. The only subject that fitted the 'environment/coexistence' category was the lesson 'A Letter to Tina' from the NEW HORIZON series, in which Daisy writes to Tina about what her science teacher taught her about the life of salmon in the Columbia River. Texts within the Science and Technology category included the VISTA series 'THE MAN WHO MADE SNOW' (about an American scientist who succeeds in making artificial rain), the NEW HORIZON series 'The Hidden Power' (about the life of Madame Curie, deleted in the 1979 edition), 'Measurement of Time' (about historical changes in the

discovery and measurement of time), and ‘How Does Advertising Work?’ (presenting American research on advertising, only featured in the 1979 edition).

2. 1978.

The objectives of this edition of the Foreign Language Section of the Courses of Study for Senior High Schools were to develop in students the ability to understand and express themselves in a foreign language, to deepen their interest in languages, and for them to gain an understanding of the lives and perspectives of people in other countries.

The specific objectives of the surveyed subject, English I, were as follows:
To develop in students the basic ability to listen, speak, read, and write in English while grasping the outline and main points of a matter, and to cultivate in them an aptitude for understanding English and trying to express themselves through it.

The goal of this edition of the Courses of Study may have been "to have students gain an understanding of the lives and perspectives of people in other countries", but the actual English textbooks contain far more material dealing with Japan than those published under the previous edition of the Courses of Study. Another point of note is that the goal of English I focused on understanding and expressing oneself in English, so that students would not merely become capable of doing certain things through English, but would acquire English as a general competence. As discussed in Chapter 1, this edition of the Courses of Study signalled a major change in direction from the previous line emphasising basic academic skills and science and technology education to one promoting a ‘relaxed education’ ethos. The objectives and content of each subject were narrowed down to core subjects, and the educational content was reduced by nearly 30% in elementary, junior high, and high schools combined, with a focus on science and mathematics education.

The following table shows the changes in the number of times each country or region appeared in textbooks produced under these editions of the Courses of Study (1982, 1985, 1988, 1991) as a percentage of the total number of lessons.

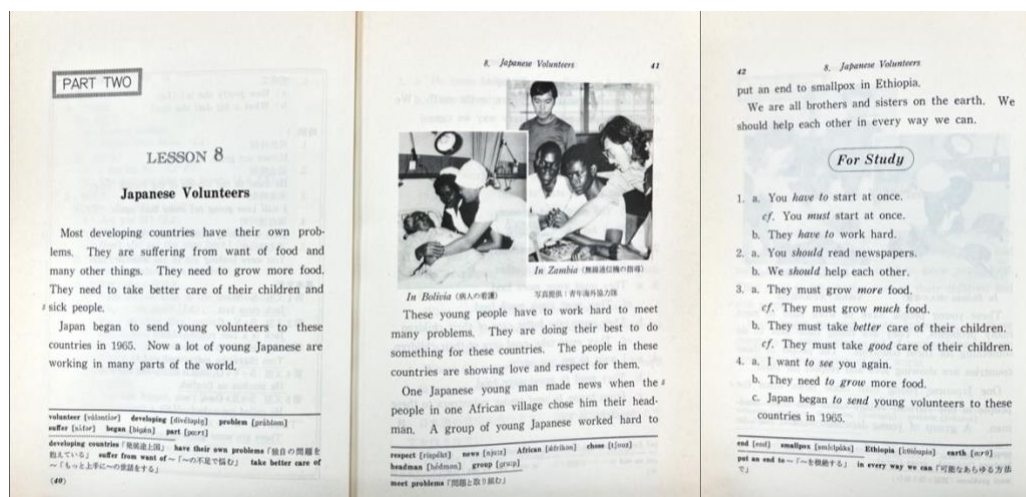
[Percentage change in All Countries (%)]

Year	Japan	US	UK/ Ireland	Australia/ New Zealand	Canada	Europe	Russia	Asia	Middle East	Africa	Latin America	Other
1982	26.19	52.38	26.19	0	0	35.71	2.38	7.14	2.38	4.76	2.38	2.38
1985	28.57	52.38	19.05	2.38	0	28.58	2.38	11.9	2.38	9.52	2.38	2.38
1988	37.78	51.11	24.44	4.44	4.44	24.44	2.22	6.67	6.67	11.11	4.44	4.44
1991	37.78	53.33	24.44	4.44	2.22	20	2.22	8.89	6.67	11.11	6.67	4.44

[Percentage change in Main Countries (%)]

Year	Japan	United States	UK/ Ireland	Australia/ New Zealand	Canada	Europe	Russia	Asia	Middle East	Africa	Latin America	Other
1982	17.65	47.06	29.41	0	0	23.53	2.94	5.88	2.94	2.94	2.94	2.94
1985	23.53	44.12	17.65	2.94	0	14.71	2.94	11.76	2.94	8.82	2.94	2.94
1988	41.38	65.52	20.69	3.45	3.45	6.9	0	6.9	0	10.34	3.45	3.45
1991	41.38	65.52	24.14	3.45	3.45	6.9	0	6.9	0	10.34	6.9	3.45

The data from the actual textbooks show a significant increase in the proportion of representation of Japan compared to English textbooks under the previous edition of the Courses of Study; it is assumed that this is because the UNICORN series textbooks used in the data from 1982 to 1998 used Japanese and American characters as the main characters. This is a reasonable assumption given the overwhelming adoption rate of the UNICORN series at that time. Japan also appears in the VISTA series, which was surveyed across all years, and, although not appearing as a main lesson, in the 1982/1985 editions of the Conversation section there are five series in which a Japanese high school student introduces Japan to an American couple, through Kamakura and Hakone, Nikko, Kyoto, Nagasaki and Sapporo. Texts about the Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers (JOCV) appear in the 1985 edition, and texts about Japanese celebrities appear in the 1988 edition. Texts on the Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers also appeared in the UNICORN series in the 1988 edition; it can be assumed that this was one of the subjects commonly covered by English language textbooks of this period.



(‘Japanese Volunteers’, VISTA 1985)



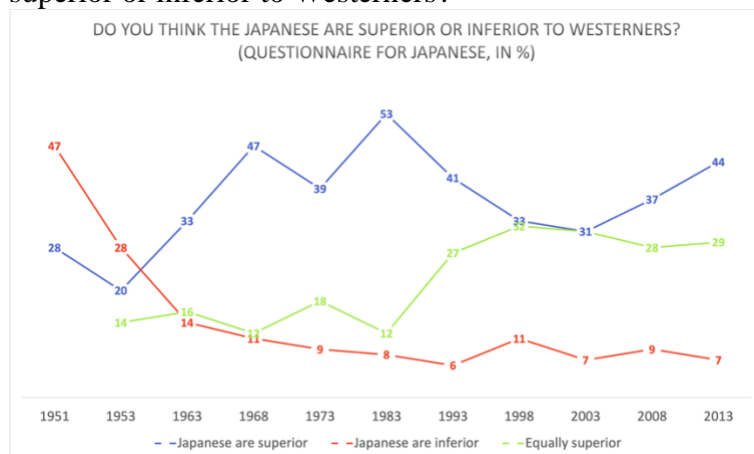
(‘IN THE HEART OF AFRICA’, UNICORN 1988)

Erikawa (2008) posits that the high economic growth of this time and the success of the 1964 Tokyo Olympics gave Japanese people greater confidence. Accordingly, he argues, Japanese material became more prominent in the subject matter of 1960s junior high school English textbooks. For example, when, in one of the textbooks, an American attempts to persuade a Japanese female student on a homestay in the USA to live with her before returning home, the Japanese student refuses, saying "I like your country, but I also like Japan.". In another example, a Japanese family on an overseas assignment befriends American families whose hobbies include karate and collecting Japanese dolls, suggesting an active effort to incorporate Japan into the textbooks' subject matter. There is also data to support this. The author drew the following graphs based on NHK's (1982)⁸ Illustrated History of Public Opinion in Japan after World War II, and on

⁸ The NHK Broadcasting Public Opinion Research Institute was established in 1965 as an organisation to conduct public opinion surveys to ascertain viewers' intentions, and was merged with the NHK Broadcasting Culture Research Institute in 1984. The NHK Broadcasting Culture Research Institute was established in 1946 and is a unique research institute directly operated by a broadcasting station, which conducts research on all aspects of broadcasting. Its results are not only useful for improving NHK's programming and production, but are also widely publicised as changing the basic framework of public broadcasting. (NHK Broadcasting Culture Research Institute,

continuous Surveys of Japanese National Character⁹. All surveys were conducted among Japanese aged 20 and over, and data units were expressed in %.

The following results were obtained in response to the question, "Do you think the Japanese are superior or inferior to Westerners?"



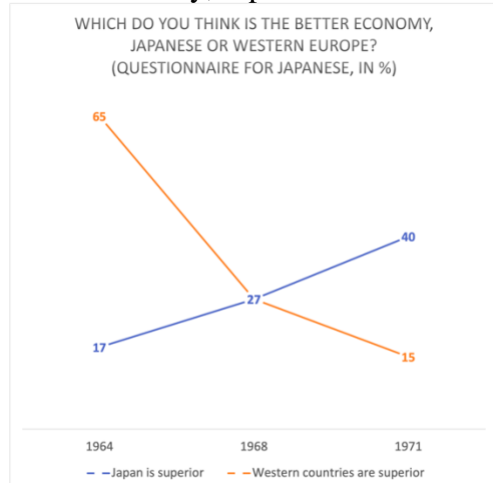
Who we are, <<https://www.nhk.or.jp/bunken/english/about/outline.html>> and *NHK の世論調査について*, <<https://www.nhk.or.jp/bunken/yoron/nhk/history.html>> (Last accessed: 2/1/2023).)

⁹ The Japanese National Character Survey is one of the statistical surveys conducted by the Institute of Statistical Mathematics (ISM), which attempts to capture the views and attitudes of the Japanese people and their changes through social surveys. The survey began in 1953, soon after the end of the war, and is repeated every five years using basically the same survey methods and the same questions. There are two main aims of the National Character Survey as an ongoing survey. The first is to clarify aspects of changes in the Japanese people's "way of thinking" by means of long-term, continuous questionnaire items, and the second is to explore and prepare for new trends in the future, while maintaining continuity with previous surveys. For this reason, each survey includes new survey items as well as items that have been asked in the past, although not necessarily on an ongoing basis. The Institute of Statistical Mathematics was established as an institute directly under the Ministry of Education, based on a proposal made at the conference of the Society in December 1943. It was intended to provide guidance in research on the mathematics of probability and its applications, and to promote, unify and disseminate the publication of research results. (The Institute of Statistical Mathematics, 日本人の国民性調査,

<<https://www.ism.ac.jp/kokuminsei/table/index.htm>>, 歴史・経緯, <<https://www.ism.ac.jp/kokuminsei/page6/index.html>> and History of ISM, <https://www.ism.ac.jp/history/histories_e_til1999.html> (Last accessed: 2/1/2023).)

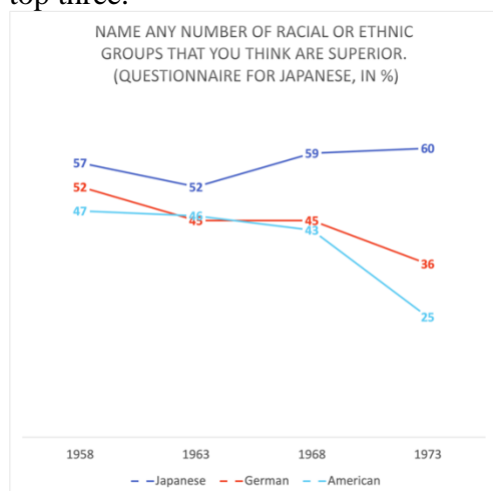
¹⁰ The Institute of Statistical Mathematics has an English-language website and issues several publications in English, but the author could find no information on this Japanese national character survey in English.

The following results were obtained in response to the question, “Which do you think is the better economy, Japan or Western Europe?”

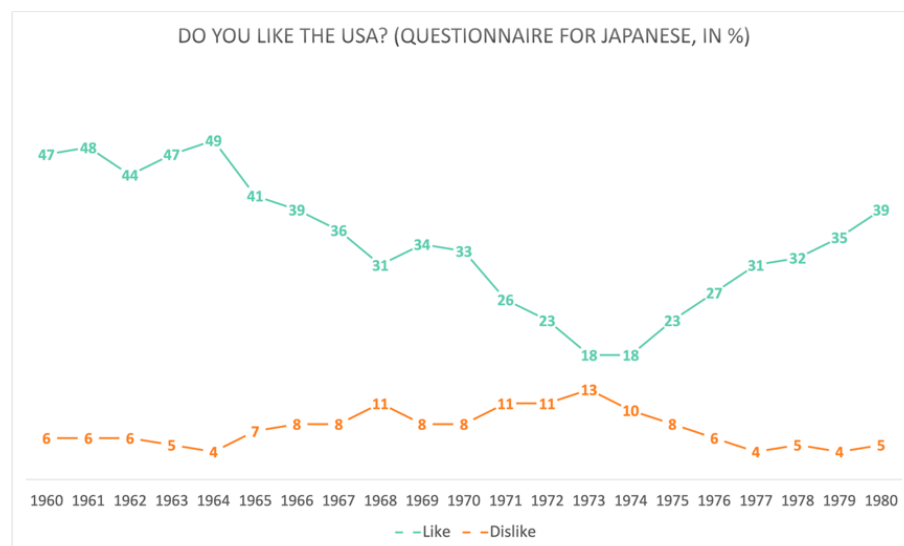


These results may support Erikawa's argument that the Japanese began to regain confidence in the 1960s. It also explains why the 1978 edition of the Courses of Study, which was produced against this historical background, included more content on Japan in English language textbooks. However, as pointed out by Erikawa (2008), Japan-centred material should not overly glorify Japan or incite nationalism; yet in 1988, material under the category of ‘War’, which was included as a subject in the First English Series I and II high school English textbooks and had already passed the textbook authorisation, was replaced by ‘My Fair Lady’ (Nakamura & Minemura 2004). The material in question referred to Japanese military atrocities in South East Asia during the Pacific War, but due to pressure from some political forces, it was never actually used in the classroom.

The following results were obtained in response to the question, ‘Name any number of racial or ethnic groups that you think are superior’, which has also been asked in other years. Multiple answers were allowed, and respondents could choose from Japanese, Chinese, Indian, Jewish, Russian, German, French, British, American and Other; the graph shows results pertaining to the top three.



Furthermore, "Do you like the USA?" has been conducted annually for 20 years since 1960, with interesting results.



According to NHK (1982) (previously cited), after Japan's defeat in World War II, the image of a 'rich and free America' was widespread in the post-war era; however, from the point in 1960 at which the movement against the revision of the US-Japan Security Treaty gained momentum, the number of Japanese people who said they liked the USA began to decline. The seriousness of the racial discrimination problem in the US as exposed by the civil rights movement, the assassination of President Kennedy in 1963, and the US's intervention in the Vietnam War from 1965, all also contributed to a significant decline in Japanese 'America-liking' from this time. However, from the late 1970s - after the Vietnam War had been concluded - Japanese 'America-liking' increased year by year, corresponding almost perfectly, according to an NHK survey, with the trend of 'Soviet Union-hating'.

Erikawa (1992) also states that from 1980 onwards, junior high school English language textbooks began to break away from their US-centric characterisation. He sums up this phenomenon as follows: 'Japanese people have come to have eyes that see America, the symbol of democratic affluence that shone in the immediate post-war period, realistically on a life-size scale'. However, in the English textbooks for upper secondary schools covered in the present study, there is no indication of a particular decline in the proportion of representations of America. Changes in the content of the subject matter will be discussed later in this paper.

With regard to subject matter, the Foreign Language Section of these Courses of Study for Senior High Schools stated the following:

Subjects should be chosen from a varied selection of items relating to the daily life, customs, stories, geography, history, etc. of the people who use the foreign language in their daily lives and of people around the world at large.

The form of the subject matter should be chosen from explanatory texts, dialogues, stories, plays, etc.

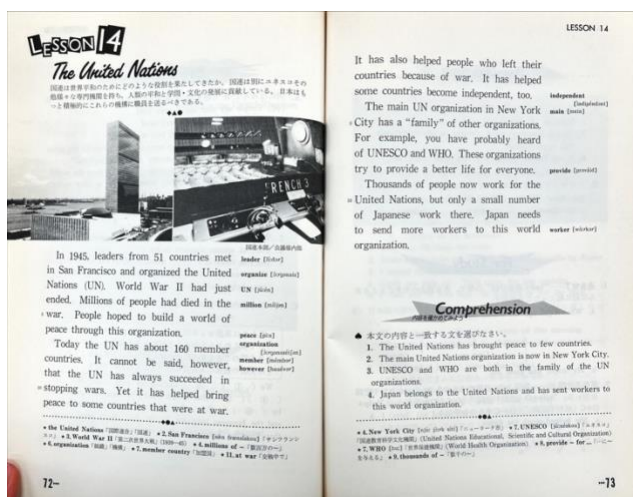
Described in Erikawa (2018) as containing 'less textual colour and a shift towards practical English', the English textbooks under these guidelines have been altered to be significantly easier to read and considerably simpler than those under the previous version of the study guidelines.

Results for all the subjects were classified into the following categories: culture, science/technology, war/peace, public/welfare, and environment/coexistence.

Year	Culture	Science/ Technology	War/Peace	Public/Welfare	Environment/ Coexistence
1982	30	2	0	1	2
1985	28	2	0	3	2
1988	16	0	1	5	7
1991	16	0	1	5	7

The number of lessons in the VISTA series has also increased in this table, as the lessons in the VISTA series have been subdivided into smaller lessons since then, with the average number of main lessons increasing to 18 (see the Appendix at the end for more information). Perhaps as a result of the increased number of lessons, the variety of material has also increased: from the 1988 edition, material on war, which was not covered in the previous edition of the Courses of Study, has appeared (VISTA series, "What Will a Nuclear War Be Like?").

Texts on the United Nations have also appeared and are classified under Public/Welfare.

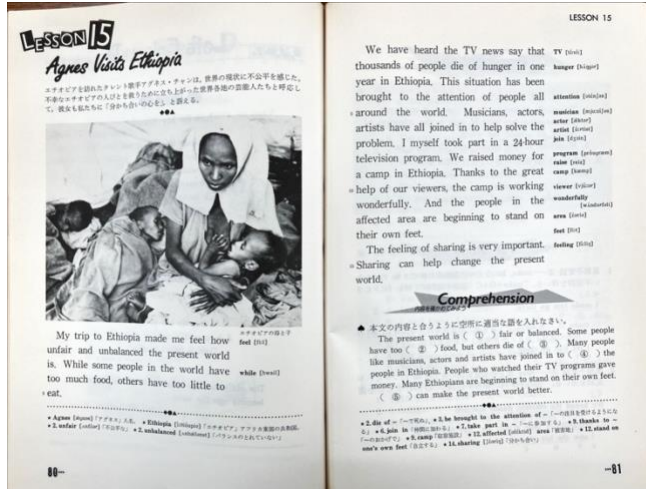


(‘The United Nations’, VISTA 1988

Beneath the title: “What role has the United Nations played in world peace? The UN has separately UNESCO and various other specialised agencies, which contribute to human peace and the development of learning and culture. Japan should be more proactive in sending staff to these structures.”)

In the short text, the role of the UN is briefly described and the content of the text addresses the issue of the low number of Japanese staff at the UN. However, the content does not encourage students to learn more about the UN, learn how Japan came to participate in the UN, or consider the reasons for the low number of Japanese staff at the UN.

The famine in Africa in the 1980s and some related subjects also appear, and are categorised under Public/Welfare.

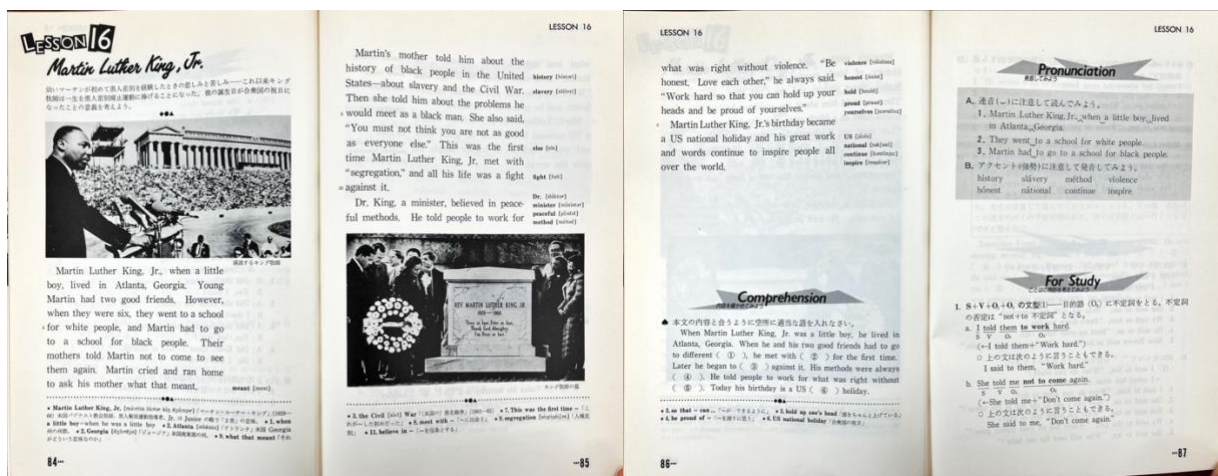


(‘Agnes Visits Ethiopia’, VISTA 1988

Beneath the title: “After visiting Ethiopia, TV personality Agnes Chan felt the injustice of the world's current situation. In response to other entertainers from around the world who have stood up to help the unfortunate Ethiopian people, she too appeals to us all to ‘share.’”)

This lesson, in which a Japanese TV personality recounts her experiences during a visit to Ethiopia for a Japanese charity programme, is a type of material not seen in textbooks till this point. The TV personality was born in Hong Kong, graduated from a Canadian university, received her PhD from Stanford University in 1994 after the textbook was published, and was appointed an ambassador for the Japan Committee for UNICEF in 1998¹¹.

Writings on Martin Luther King Jr. also appear and are categorised under Public/Welfare.



(‘Martin Luther King, Jr.’, VISTA 1988

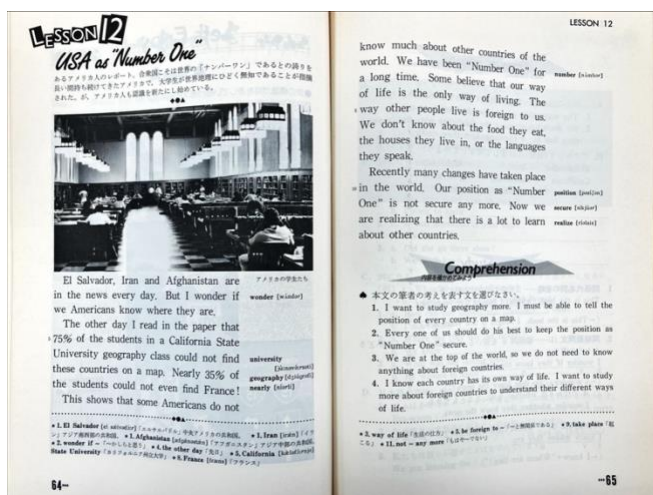
Beneath the title: “The sadness and pain of young Martin's first experience of discrimination against black people - from this point on, Dr King dedicated his entire life to the movement to

¹¹ AGNES CHAN OFFICIAL SITE, HISTORY, <<http://www.agneschan.gr.jp/profile/history.html>>, (Last Accessed: 2022/12/30).

abolish discrimination against black people. Consider the significance of his birthday being a United States national holiday.”)

Writings on Martin Luther King Jr. and the American campaign to abolish racial discrimination are popular subjects in English language textbooks; after this, until 2013, there would be at least one subject dealing with them every year. Perhaps reflecting the 'America-hating' trend mentioned earlier, material dealing with negative aspects of the USA also appeared.

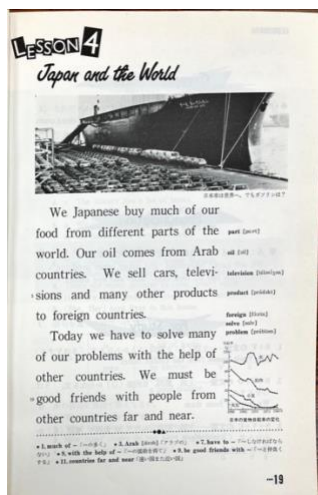
The 1988/1991 VISTA series adopted the text 'USA as "Number One"', which is critical of the USA. The content describes how Americans should understand that, from an American perspective, the USA has been number one for a long time, but in reality is no longer in that position.



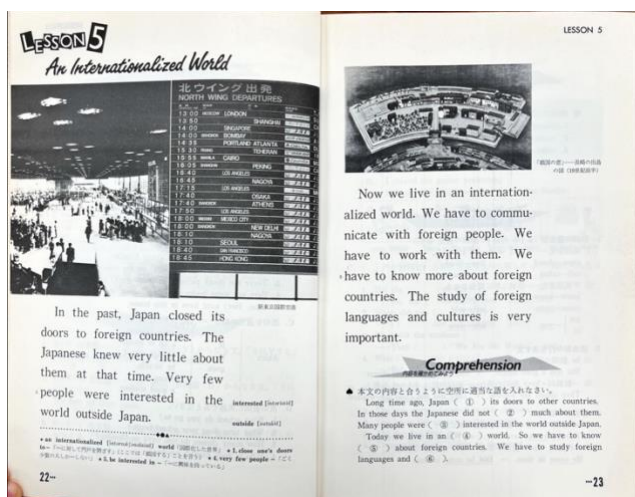
(‘USA as “Number One”’, VISTA 1988

Beneath the title: “One American reports. It was noted that university students in the USA, which has long held the pride that the United States is the 'number one' country in the world, are woefully ignorant of the world map. But Americans are beginning to realise that they are not the only ones.”)

The first five lessons in the 1988/1991 VISTA series are all classified under Environment/Coexistence: respectively, ‘Spaceship Earth’ (exploring the concept that all human beings are a family on Spaceship Earth), ‘Man and Animals’ (contrasting humans and animals with the human use of language to communicate their thoughts), ‘Races and Countries’ (discussing how there are many different races in the world, with different skin, hair and eye colours, and often with their own languages), ‘Japan and the World’ (about Japan and the wider World), and ‘An Internationalised World’ (promoting the importance of learning about and working with foreign countries, as well as learning foreign languages).



('Japan and the World', VISTA 1988
Beneath the photo: "Japanese cars go global, but what about petrol?")



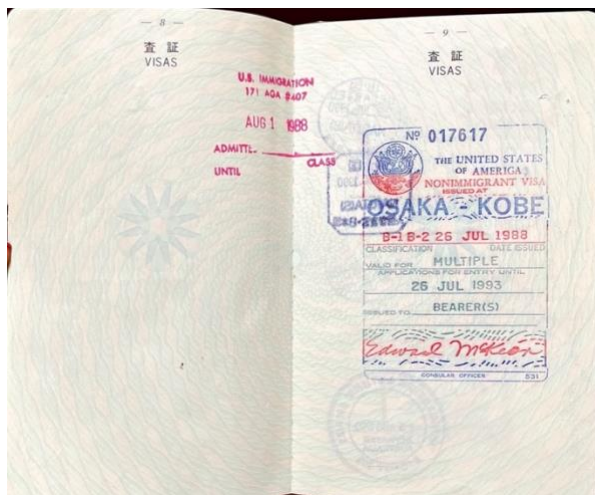
('An Internationalized World', VISTA 1988)

All these lessons were designed to encourage students to develop good relationships with people who speak different languages in a globalised society, and it is interesting to note that the central subject matter they contained always included Japan. These subjects suggest that Japanese English textbooks of this time were highly concerned with racism. Erikawa (2008) also mentions that pioneering material incorporating the ideas of cultural pluralism and intercultural conviviality appeared in English textbooks from the 1980s, but does not describe the background to this trend.

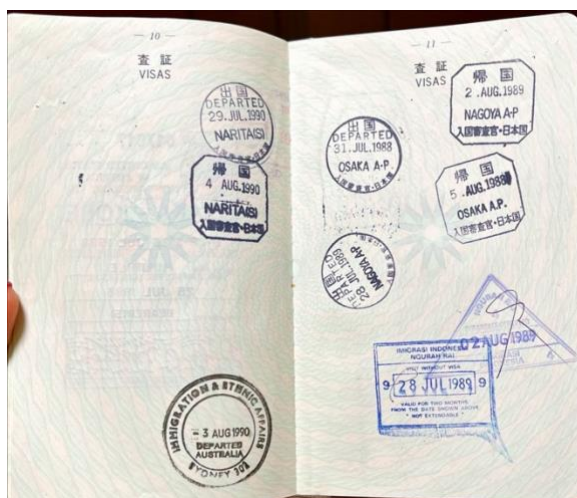
As one hypothesis relating to this point, the present author would like to point out the trend of 'Japan bashing' in the USA around this time. 'Japan bashing' refers to a political phenomenon associated with the rise of anti-Japanese sentiment in the United States since the 1970s, which surfaced as Japan's prestige as a global economic power surpassing that of the United States increased, and as trade friction between the two countries intensified (Sasayama et al. 2014). At the time, discrimination against Japanese people occurred in the USA. In other words, racism was recognised in Japanese society of the time as a 'matter in which they could be victimised', offering a potential explanation for the US's portrayal in English language textbooks as "a problematic country where racism (which could also harm them) still exists". It is interesting to note that, while

there has indeed been a growing interest in racism in English language textbooks, the racism discussed is always 'outside of Japan' and not the problem of racism within the country.

To avoid a recession following the Plaza Accord in 1985, the Japanese Government implemented a long-term policy of low interest rates and expanded public works projects, which resulted in a surplus of money for businesses and individuals and created a bubble economy until the early 1990s. In addition, an increasing number of companies moved their production bases overseas to avoid losses caused by the sharp appreciation of the yen due to the Accord. When the author of this thesis asked her parents¹², who lived through this period in their late 20s and early 30s, they told her that overseas travel became widespread from the late 1980s. They said that until then, it was still possible to travel and study abroad, but only for the rich. However, they both stated that upon entering the late 1980s they began to feel that they could travel abroad if they saved up enough money. In fact, they also experienced their first overseas trips, in 1988 and 1990 respectively.



Passport of the author's father. He visited Guam, USA, in 1988 on his first trip abroad.



¹² The author's father was born in 1961 and her mother in 1962.

Another page of the above passport; it shows that the author's father also visited Bali, Indonesia, in 1989.



Another page, showing that her father visited Sydney, Australia, in 1990.



Passport of the author's mother, who visited Busan, South Korea, in 1990.

It is also interesting to note that in 1991, the author's mother visited Hong Kong on a business trip for three days and Shanghai, China for about two weeks.



Another page of the passport, recording a visit to Hong Kong in 1991.

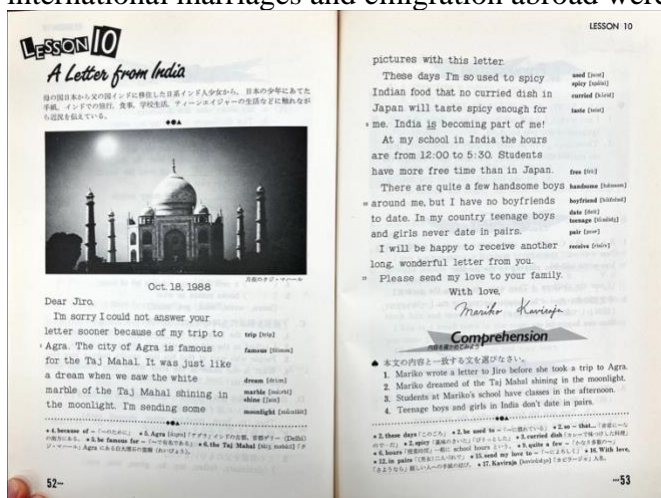


Page of the passport that records the visit to Shanghai, China, in 1991.

The author's mother was a sales representative for a major department store in Osaka, and at the time there was a factory in Hong Kong affiliated with the department store and a branch of the store in Shanghai. The author's mother was sent there to inspect the factory, work as a salesperson, and supervise the local staff. She does not speak Chinese, and when asked why she was sent there, said that most of the customers were Japanese and that the local staff were fluent in Japanese. She also recounted how, when she took a flight to Nagasaki on her return to Japan, in business class she met a customer she had handled at the Shanghai branch. Additionally, she said that she saw Japanese high school students on a school excursion at the airports in Hong Kong and Shanghai.

It can be assumed from this anecdote that, at least as of 1991, overseas business trips and school trips abroad were quite widespread among the Japanese. It also shows that it was not rare for wealthy Japanese to shop abroad.

The 1988 VISTA series 'A Letter from India' is about a girl who moves to India with her parents as a result of an international marriage and tells Japanese boys about life in India. It shows that international marriages and emigration abroad were not rare at that time.



('A Letter from India', VISTA 1988

Beneath the title: “Letters to a Japanese boy from a Japanese-Indian girl who emigrated from her mother's country Japan to her father's country India. She gives updates on her travels, food, school life and teenage life in India, touching on her life in India.”)

3. 1989.

The objectives of this edition of the Foreign Language Section of the Courses of Study for Senior High Schools were:

To develop in students the ability to understand and express themselves in a foreign language, to foster an attitude of active communication in a foreign language, to increase their interest in languages and cultures, and to deepen their international understanding.

In addition, the objectives of the surveyed subject, English I, were as follows:

To develop the basic ability to understand the intentions of speakers and writers and to express one's own thoughts and ideas in English, as well as to foster an attitude of active communication.

As noted in Chapter 1, this edition of the Courses of Study reflects the rapid internationalisation that began in the late 1980s against the backdrop of the Japanese bubble economy. The Courses of Study were revised to reinforce nationalism, as exemplified by the guidance that the national flag and anthem should be enhanced. As stated by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (2011), cited in Chapter 1, one of the policies of these revision was to emphasise the development of an attitude of respect for Japanese culture and traditions, while deepening understanding of world culture and history and cultivating the qualities of Japanese people who live in an international society.

This policy is also expressed in the subject matter policy of the Foreign Language Section of this edition of the Courses of Study for Senior High Schools.

It stated that teaching materials should be varied and include subjects related to the daily lives, manners and customs, stories, geography and history of the people of the world (mainly those who use the foreign language in their daily live) and of the Japanese people, as appropriate to the students' stages of physical and mental development and their interests and concerns. In doing so, it added that the following goals should be taken into account while aiming to develop the students' ability to understand and express themselves in foreign languages:

- a. The deepening of international understanding from a broad perspective, the raising of awareness of what it means to be Japanese people living in an international society, and the cultivation of a spirit of international cooperation.
- b. The increasing of interest in languages and cultures, the development of an attitude of respect for them, and the cultivation of a rich emotional outlook.
- c. The deepening of understanding of life and culture in the world and in Japan, the broadening of international perspectives, and development of the ability to make fair judgements. The form of the subject matter was to be appropriately selected from among expository texts, dialogues, stories, plays, poems, letters, etc.

For the first time in any edition of the curriculum guidelines, there was an official stipulation that Japanese people should be included in the subject matter. The first perspective to be taken into account here is the inclusion of the goal "to increase awareness as Japanese people living in an international society"; Erikawa (2018) also points out that this is a reinforcement of nationalism.

The tendency, also pointed out by Inda (2010), to consider the development of character necessary to contribute to international society and world peace as one of the roles English language education could play can also be read from this version of the Courses of Study.

The following table shows the changes in the number of times each country or region appeared in textbooks produced under these editions of the Courses of Study (1994, 1998) as a percentage of the total number of lessons.

[Percentage change in All Countries (%)]

Year	Japan	US	UK/ Ireland	Australia/ New Zealand	Canada	Europe	Russia	Asia	Middle East	Africa	Latin America	Other
1994	48.84	41.86	20.93	9.3	2.33	18.6	2.33	18.6	0	11.63	4.65	2.33
1998	39.53	37.2	13.95	4.65	2.33	25.58	6.977	25.58	2.33	9.3	6.98	0

[Percentage change in Main Countries (%)]

Year	Japan	United States	UK/ Ireland	Australia/ New Zealand	Canada	Europe	Russia	Asia	Middle East	Africa	Latin America	Other
1994	53.57	53.57	28.57	10.71	3.57	14.29	0	17.86	0	14.29	7.14	3.57
1998	25	35.71	17.86	7.14	3.57	10.71	0	14.29	0	7.14	3.57	0

It is worth noting that in the 1994 Main Countries table, the proportions of representations of Japan and the USA were equal. The share of the USA in English language textbooks reached its peak in 1991 and has continued to decline since then. It is also noteworthy that, until the 1994 edition, textbooks were characterised by the fact that even if Japan was included in the Main Countries, the content was often about Japanese people rather than about Japan; moreover, the subject matter itself was more often about foreign countries (mainly Western English-speaking ones). However, in the 1998 edition of the UNICORN series, there was an increase in the number of stories dealing with Japan not only in terms of characters but also in terms of content, although this is not shown in the data. For example, 'TERAKOYAS THROUGHOUT THE WORLD', which introduces the Japanese Terakoya initiative to build schools and improve people's literacy in Cambodia; 'THE SOYBEAN ROAD', which introduces the history of Japanese people and soya beans, and 'THE GREAT JOURNEY', which deals with the story of Japanese explorer Yoshiharu Sekino.

[illegible]

LESSON 3 THE SOYBEAN ROAD

BEFORE YOU READ

WARM UP 聞いてから考えてお話ししよう。

a: What food do you like best?
b: Let me see... I like **soybean** best.
a: Do you like **Japanese** food?
b: Yes, I like **soybean** very much.

KEYS 本文を読んで確認しましょう。

soybean 大豆。そのまゝの形で食べられる豆だが、加工して食べられるものが多い。
Soybeans are made into *tofu*, *natto*, *min*, and *soy sauce*.

protein タンパク質。動物性のもので動物性のものである。
Soybeans are rich in *protein*.

health food 健康食品。特に先進国で注目されている。
Soybeans are an ideal *health food*.

Buddhism は釈迦から中国に伝わり、日本に伝わった。戦後の食生活を豊かにした。
Buddhism came to Japan around the sixth century.

● 大豆製品の名前と、その作りかたを覚えておきましょう。

製品	作りかた
豆腐 (tofu)	豆を水で煮、圧搾する
納豆 (natto)	大豆を蒸し、菌で発酵させる
味噌 (miso)	大豆を煮、麹と塩で発酵させる
醤油 (soy sauce)	大豆を煮、麹と塩で発酵させる

soybean [sɔɪˈbiːn] **health food** [hɜːlθ fuːd] **soy sauce** [sɔɪ ˈsɔːs]
Buddhism [bʊˈdɪzəm] **protein** [ˈprəʊtɪn]

34 — LESSON 3

The Japanese eat soybeans every day in many different ways. *Tofu*, *natto*, *min*, and *soy sauce* are all made from soybeans. It is difficult to enjoy a Japanese breakfast without *min* soup. Many Japanese like to have *natto* for breakfast. *Tofu*, another Japanese favorite, is very good to eat in all seasons. And *soy sauce* is a must for Japanese cooking.

Many people think the Japanese were the first to make various foods from soybeans. But the history of making soybean foods really started in China a long time ago. From China, they spread to Korea, Japan, and other Asian countries.

At one time, soybeans were growing wild in China. The Chinese found them good to eat and began growing them. One record says they were growing soybeans as early as 2800 B.C.

The Chinese created new ways of using soybeans. They invented *min* and *soy sauce* about 2,500 years ago.

and later, *tofu*.

Buddhist monks in China played an important part in the development of soybean foods. They needed to eat foods made from soybeans because they did not eat fish and meat.

Buddhism came to Japan around the sixth century. After that, many Japanese monks went over to China to study Buddhism. These monks brought back *tofu*, *min* and *soy sauce* to Japan, together with other things like tea.

In those days, *min* and *tofu* were too expensive for most people. Other than monks, only people belonging to the upper class could get them. Eating soybean foods became popular among ordinary people in the

Muroamachi era.

The Japanese also developed their own ways of making soybean foods. The *tofu* made in Japan became softer than the *tofu* made in China. New kinds of *tofu*, such as *deep-fried* and *freeze-dried* *tofu*, were born. And in the Kamakura era, the Japanese type of *soy sauce* appeared.

Today, soybeans are often called the "meat of the field" because they are rich in protein. For this reason, soybeans are valued highly in many developing countries. Soybeans are also popular in developed countries because they are low in fat and are thought of as an ideal health food. For example, you can find *tofu* and *soy sauce* in almost every supermarket in America.

fried [fraɪd] **freeze** [friːz] **mostly** [ˈmɒstli] **reason** [riːzn]
value [ˈvæljuː] **far** [fɑː] **supermarket** [ˌsʊpərˈmɑːrkɪt]

1. *such as* I visited several countries in Europe, such as France and Italy.
2. *introduce* ~ *into* He introduced a new idea into his business.
3. *think of* ~ *as* Everybody thought of her as an ideal nurse.
4. *they are low in fat* they do not have much fat.

● Who could eat *min* and *tofu* before the Muroamachi era?
● When did the Japanese type of *soy sauce* appear?
● When were soybean foods introduced into European countries from Japan?
● Why are soybeans called "the meat of the field"?

35 — LESSON 3

Even *tofu* salad, *tofu* ice cream, and *tofu* burgers are popular there. The soybean has come a long way to become the world's favorite.

AFTER YOU READ

COMPREHENSION CHECK

A. 1~4の英文を読んで、単語の空欄に当てはめてください。通っている単語は、そのまゝでいいです。

1. () 2. () 3. () 4. ()

B. かっこの中に適切な単語を入れなさい。

The history of soybean foods started in () about 2,500 years ago. They were *min*, *soy sauce*, and *tofu*. () monks needed to eat them because they did () eat fish or meat. Soybean foods were introduced into Japan by () coming back from their studies in China. At first () Japanese could not have them, because they were too (). But they became popular foods in the () era. *Tofu* became () than the Chinese kind. Today, soybean foods are very popular all over the world, because they have a lot of () but not much ().

THE BOOK OF TOFU

soybean [sɔɪˈbiːn] **ice cream** [aɪ kriːm] **burger** [ˈbɜːɡər]

● What kinds of soybean foods are popular in America?

36 — LESSON 3

FOR STUDY

A. 不定詞: 'to + 動詞の原形。

1. Many Japanese like to *have* *natto* for breakfast.
2. It is nice to *have* *min* soup for breakfast.
3. The Japanese were not the first to *make* foods from soybeans.
4. Many Japanese monks went over to China to *study* Buddhism.
5. We are happy to *hear* that the war is over.
6. *Tofu* is very good to *eat* in all seasons.
7. The soybean has come a long way to *become* the world's favorite.

B. 動名詞: 動名詞は名詞と同じように用いられる。

1. *Eating* soybean foods became popular in the Muroamachi era.
2. The Chinese began *growing* soybeans long ago.
3. The history of *making* soybean foods started in China.

C. 分詞の形容詞的用法

1. Only people *belonging* to the upper class could get *min* and *tofu*.
2. Buddhist monks needed to eat foods *made* from soybeans.
3. Later, *deep-fried* and *freeze-dried* *tofu* were born.

● 1. I received a letter from my aunt (live) in New York.
2. I met a girl (call) Pat.

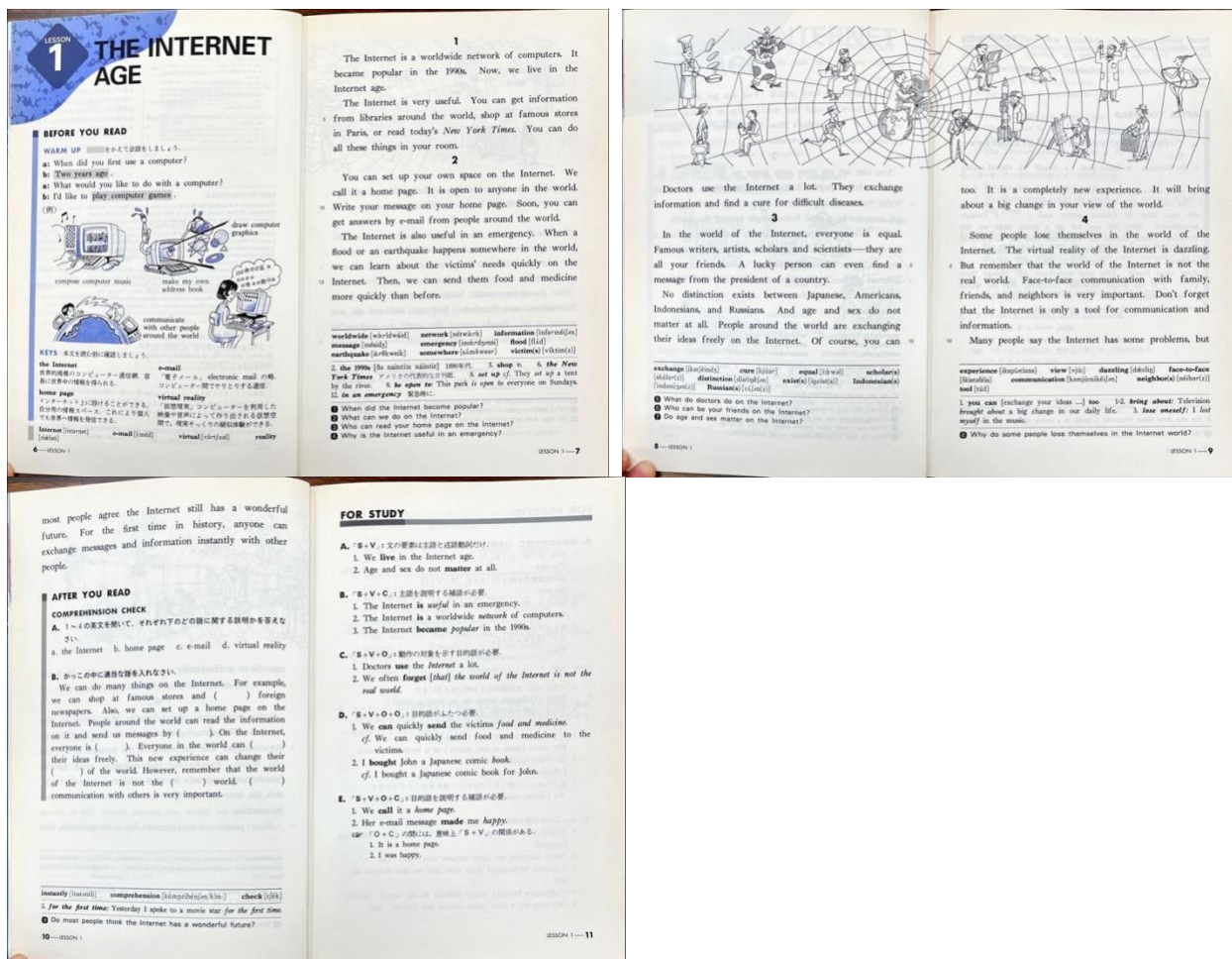
37 — LESSON 3

(‘THE SOYBEAN ROAD’, UNICORN 1998)



Year	Culture	Science/ Technology	War/Peace	Public/Welfare	Environment/ Coexistence
1994	18	0	0	5	5
1998	17	1	1	4	5

- 62 -



(‘THE INTERNET AGE’, UNICORN 1998)

It is also noteworthy that the text 'JEANNETTE RANKIN BRIGHT STAR ON A DARK NIGHT', written by the first woman in the US Congress and the only one to vote against war in both World War I and World War II, is included in the War/Peace section of the text. One can't help but feel that there is a bias here, in that the content of the subjects chosen for the 1988 edition of the textbook which referred to Japanese atrocities in South East Asia during the Pacific War was not accepted, but content relating to a person who voted against the war with Japan was used in the textbook that had the highest adoption rate.

LESSON 9 JEANNETTE RANKIN BRIGHT STAR ON A DARK NIGHT

BEFORE YOU READ

WARM UP 1. What person do you admire most?
a. I admire Marie Curie most.
b. Who is she?
c. She was a great scientist who discovered radium.

KEYS 本文を先に読んでください。
Jeannette Rankin (1882-1973) アメリカの最初の女性国会议员 Rankin kept fighting against war.
Pearl Harbor (ハワイの攻撃) 1941年12月7日、日本の戦艦がアメリカの戦艦を攻撃した。
World War I (1914-18) 第一次世界大戦。At first most Americans did not want to take part in the war. Later, public opinion changed.

1 It was early on the morning of December 7, 1941. Japanese warplanes attacked the American base at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii. More than 3,500 people were killed or wounded in the attack. The time had come for the U.S. Congress members to vote for or against going to war. Everyone was waiting for Jeannette Rankin, a congresswoman from Montana.

The Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor

President Roosevelt declaring war against Japan

2 The attack on Pearl Harbor was a great shock to the American people. Before voting, Rankin had listened to many wild, emotional speeches by other congressmen. The only thing they had in mind was when to start the war against Japan. War fever was everywhere. But this did not influence Rankin.

This sixty-year-old woman believed that war was wrong. For more than twenty years she had worked hard for world peace. How could she vote for war now? The moment she voted "no," several congressmen in the hall booed and shouted insults at her. She was called a "weak woman" and a "disgrace to America." When she stepped out of the room, she found the hallway full of angry people. They crowded around her.

3 Jeannette Rankin (left) visited Japan in 1917. Marie Curie (right) was a great scientist who discovered radium. Rankin kept fighting against war.

4 World War I started in Europe in July, 1914. At first, most Americans wanted no part in the war. But public opinion changed when German submarines attacked American ships. Just six days after Rankin first attended Congress in 1917, President Wilson called for a vote to go to war against Germany. When she was called upon to vote, Rankin looked seriously around the room for a moment. Then she said softly, "I want to stand by my country, but I cannot vote for war. I vote no."

Forty-nine other congress members also voted no, but she was the person who was criticized most. Newspapers said she was crying while she was voting. But it was not true. They also attacked her, saying her decision came from weakness, and that she was anti-American. She lost the next election in 1918, but she continued to speak for peace at various meetings around the world.

5 Jeannette Rankin was elected to the U.S. Congress twice, and twice she voted against war. Both times, she received thousands of letters. Most people criticized her, but some praised her for her courage. When she voted "no" in 1941, one person wrote to her, "Your one little vote stands out like a bright star on a dark night." A newspaper also supported her, saying, "A hundred years from now, people will understand the true courage of Jeannette Rankin. She wouldn't go a step outside her belief that war is wrong." Late in her life, she was asked if she regretted voting "no." "Never," she answered. "If you're against war, you're against war regardless of what happens."

Shortly before she died in 1973, Jeannette said to a friend, "I can leave this world now only because I know I have done all I could for world peace." Today, in the U.S. Congress Building, there is a statue of Jeannette Rankin. On the base of the statue are her words: "I cannot vote for war."

FOR STUDY

A. 1. V-I-O-O (-reading to do)

1. She realized how to help her country.
= She realized how she should help her country.
2. I asked him how to use the computer.
3. I don't know what to write to you.
4. He told me what to read first.
5. He told me to read this book first.

B. 1. V-I-O-O (-reading to do)

1. The only thing they had in mind was when to start the war against Japan.
2. The problem was where to stay that night.
3. He told me to read this book first.

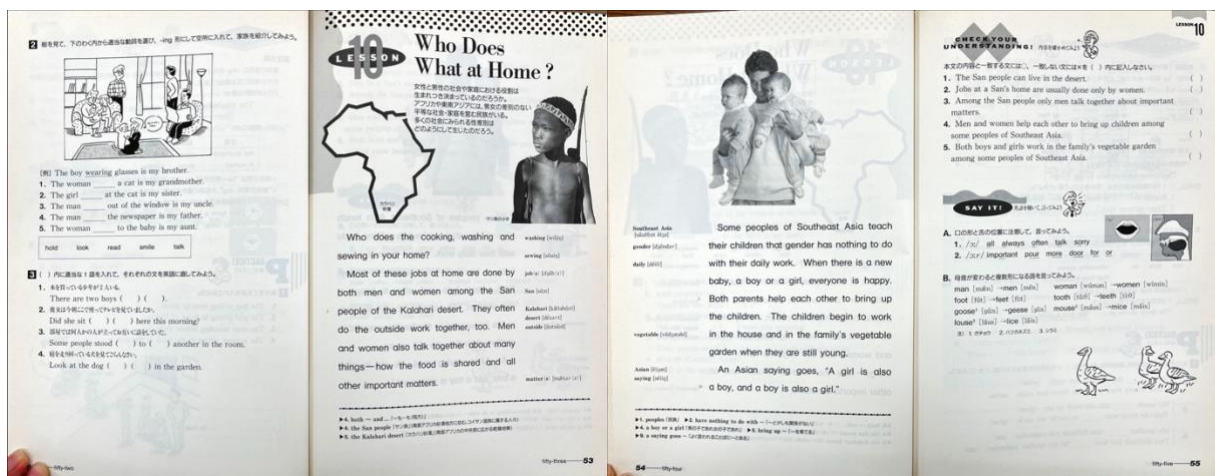
C. 1. Watching the animals carefully, she loved to draw and paint them.
2. Suddenly a black cloud appeared in the west, covering the whole sky.
= Suddenly a black cloud appeared in the west, and it covered the whole sky.
3. They crowded around her, crying out, "Change your vote!"

100 - LESSON 9

(‘JEANNETTE RANKIN BRIGHT STAR ON A DARK NIGHT’, UNICORN 1998)

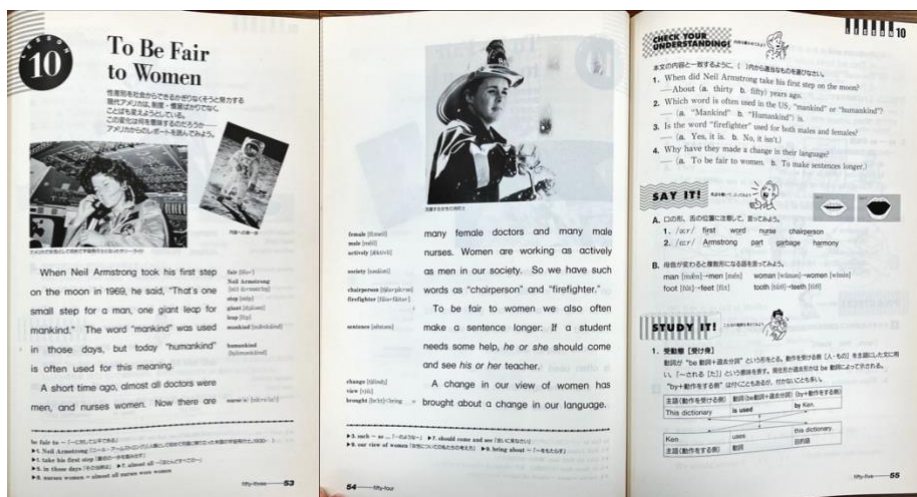
In addition to 'TERAKOYAS THROUGHOUT THE WORLD', under the Public/Welfare category there were also texts on the Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers (also covered under the previous edition of the Courses of Study), texts on famine in Africa and on Martin Luther King, Jr, and texts focusing on themes of gender differences; the latter included 'Who Does What at

Home?' in the 1994 VISTA series, which described peoples in Africa and South-East Asia whose societies and families do not discriminate on the basis of gender, and 'To Be Fair to Women' in the 1998 VISTA series, which dealt with the genderlessness of language.



(‘Who Does What at Home?’, VISTA 1994

Beneath the title: “Are the roles of women and men in society and the family fixed by birth? There are ethnic groups in Africa and South-East Asia that have equal societies and families without any discrimination between men and women. How did the sexism found in many societies arise?”)

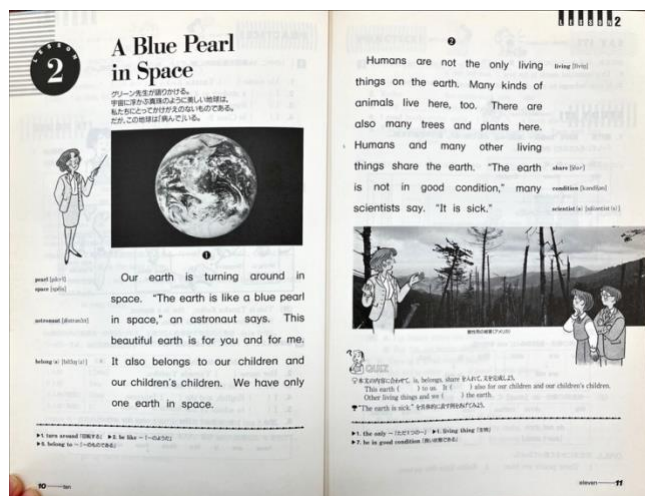


(‘To Be Fair to Women’, VISTA 1998

Beneath the title: “In its efforts to eliminate sexism from society as far as possible, contemporary America is changing not only its institutions and practices, but also its language. What does this change mean - read the report from the USA.”)

As more and more subjects deal with environmental issues, many texts fell within the Environment/Coexistence category: examples include the text 'A Blue Pearl in Space', about the Earth's deteriorating environment (in the 1994/1998 VISTA series.); 'The Ozone Hole', about Australia's ozone layer; 'A Sick Sea', about pollution in the Mediterranean; and, in the 1998 UNICORN series, 'THE LESSONS OF EASTER ISLAND', a text on learning from the history of Easter Island and the need to conserve the earth's finite resources. Notably, however, all of these

texts deal with issues outside Japan, and no texts on domestic environmental issues appear in later editions of the textbooks.



(‘A Blue Pearl in Space, VISTA 1998

Beneath the title: “Green sensei¹³ speaks to the students. The Earth, a beautiful pearl in space, is irreplaceable for us. But the planet is 'sick'.”

The photographs accompanying texts on environmental subjects are always from outside Japan, as seen here in this piece on acid rain in the USA.)

Another feature of English textbooks published under this edition of the Courses of Study was the change in the way foreign connections were portrayed: even though it has become more common for Japanese people to travel abroad since the late 1980s, foreign connections depicted in these English textbooks were represented not by Japanese people going abroad, but by foreigners coming to Japan. The UNICORN series used the scenario of a Japanese protagonist studying in the US until the 1991 edition, but the 1994 edition featured not only Japanese characters studying in the US, but American characters also coming to Japan to study. These characters then ceased to appear in the 1998 edition; the VISTA series never used scenarios that depicted Japanese characters studying abroad. Foreigners visiting Japan have appeared in textbooks since the 1982 edition and foreigners studying in Japan since 1988, but in conversation sections, not main lessons. From 1994, foreign students and tourists visiting Japan have appeared as characters in the textbooks.

Given their setting, it is natural that the subject matter of these books has dealt more and more with Japan; it may also be an inevitable consequence of the requirement under the Courses of Study that textbooks actively feature Japan in their content. At the same time, however, it is a fact that multiculturalisation was becoming an international phenomenon at this time; it can therefore be assumed that the many depictions in these textbooks of foreigners visiting Japan were influenced by this contemporary background.

¹³ 'Sensei' is a gender-neutral term used in Japan to address teachers. For consistency of translation, the author will use 'sensei' hereafter.

4. 1999.

The objectives of this edition of the Foreign Language Section of the Courses of Study for Senior High Schools were to - through foreign languages - deepen students' understanding of language and culture, develop their attitudes towards active communication, cultivate their practical communication skills so to understand information and the intentions of others, and enable them to express their own thoughts and ideas.

Specifically, the objectives for subject surveyed by this thesis, English I, were as follows:
To develop in students the basic ability to understand what they hear and read about everyday topics, to communicate information and ideas by speaking and writing in English, and to develop an attitude of active communication.

As discussed in Chapter 1, the background to this edition of the Courses of Study was the end of the Cold War in 1991, the breakdown of the domestic economy into a major recession following the collapse of the bubble economy, and the major social change defining the era. Moreover, with the development of a global information and communication network through the internet, Japan was entering an era of so-called 'globalisation'. As described by Nozaki (2006), social problems never before seen began to occur, such as the increasing number of violent juvenile crimes, a struggle experienced by some Japanese children to envision their future, breakdowns in classrooms, crimes committed by 'ordinary children', and heinous crimes perpetrated by highly educated people, such as the Aum Shinrikyo underground sarin gas attack. In response to these developments, the 1998-1999 revisions of the Courses of Study were more 'relaxed' and focused on education of the mind. A five-day school system was introduced and educational content was greatly reduced.

With regard to foreign language education, Terasawa (2014) writes that those foreign languages which had been de facto a compulsory subject since the 1960s were made compulsory as a follow-up measure. In addition, the phrase "to develop practical communication skills" was added to the goal of foreign language studies, and the content of lessons became more focused on the actual use of English.

This policy was also expressed in the Foreign Language Section of the Courses of Study for Senior High Schools.

It stated that, in order to develop students' practical communicative competence in a foreign language, teaching materials should take into account the actual situations in which the language is used and its functions, in accordance with the aims of each particular subject. In so doing, appropriate topics were to be explored in a varied manner in line with the students' stage of physical and mental development, as well as their interests; these topics were to be related to the daily lives, manners and customs, stories, geography, and history of the people of the world (those who use the foreign language being taught in their daily lives), as well as of the Japanese themselves. The Foreign Language Section outlined the following goals:

- a. To help students understand diverse perspectives and ways of thinking, to develop their ability to make fair judgments, and to help them develop a rich emotional outlook.
- b. To deepen students' understanding of life and culture in the world and in Japan, and to help raise interest in language and culture and develop in students an attitude of respect for them.
- c. To deepen international understanding from a broad perspective, to raise awareness of a sense of being Japanese people living in an international society, and to help foster a spirit of

international cooperation. The form of the subject matter studied was to be appropriately chosen from among expository texts, dialogues, stories, plays, poems, letters, etc.

It can be argued that the English textbooks used during this time were becoming more and more interesting to students. For example, Japanese manga and characters such as Doraemon and Astro Boy began to appear. As another example, the Japanese title of one of the texts in these textbooks, a piece on table tennis player Ai Fukuhara, was "Ganbare, Ai-chan!"; this informal invocation is in a style that does not convey formality and makes it easy for students to feel close to her.



(‘Nono-chan’, VISTA 2003)



(‘Barefoot Gen’, All Aboard! 2007)

The sentence above the manga: “The cartoon below is a page from the well-known work Barefoot Gen. It depicts the devastation caused by the atomic bombings and the characters who live undaunted by it. Translate each line into Japanese.”

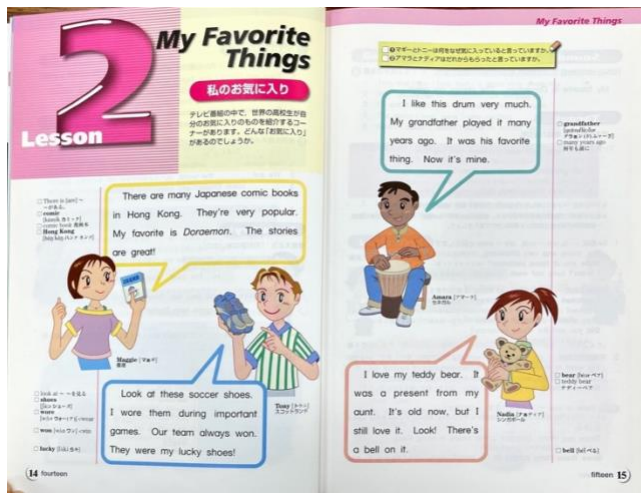
Barefoot Gen not only describes the damage caused by the atomic bomb, but also criticises the Showa Emperor, the US military and the United States of America, and the establishment of the National Police Reserve (later the Ground Self-Defence Force); it even mentions Japanese military atrocities on the Chinese mainland. However, the only one of those things depicted here is "the devastation caused by the atomic bombings", which, together with the photographs of the

immediate aftermath of the bombings on the next page, serve to convey the damage Japan suffered in the Second World War.)



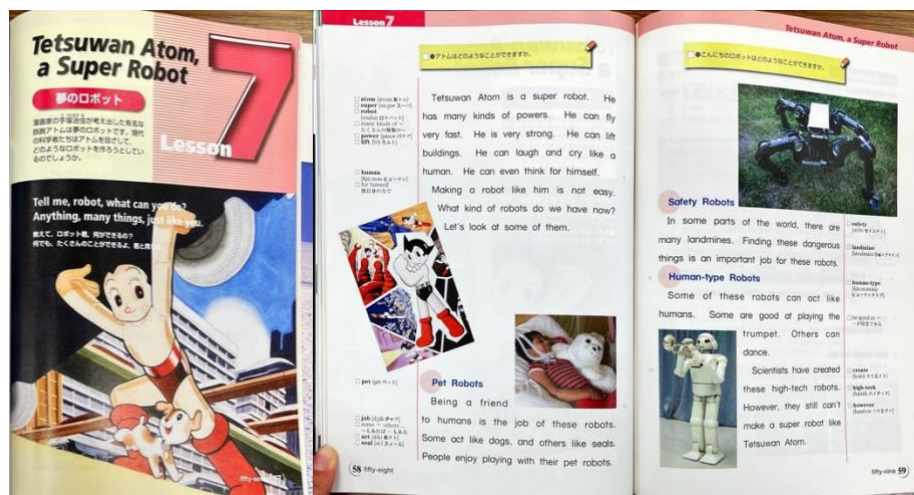
(‘Human Beings of the Earth Defenders’, All Aboard! 2007

Text above the manga: “The four-frame cartoon below is from ‘Human Beings of the Earth Defenders’ by Shiriagari Kotobuki. Here, parents are trying to explain to their children the challenges for the coming generation. Translate each line into English.”)



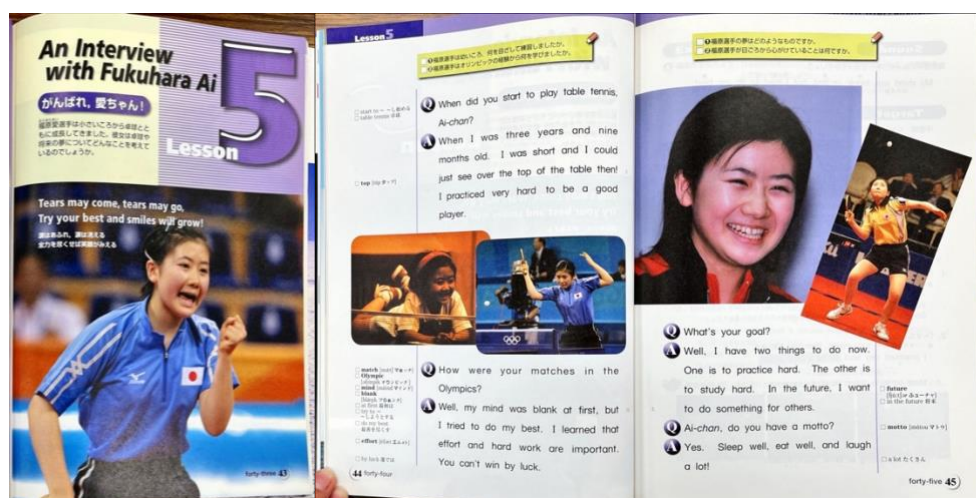
(‘My Favorite Things’, All Aboard! 2007

Beneath the title: “There is a section in the TV programme where high school students from around the world introduce their favourite things. What 'favourites' do they have?”)



(‘Tetsuwan Atom, a Super Robot’, All Aboard! 2007

Beneath the title: The famous Astro Boy, conceived by cartoonist Osamu Tezuka, is a dream robot. What kind of robot are modern scientists trying to build like Atom?)



(‘An Interview with Fukuhara Ai’, All Aboard! 2007

Beneath the title: “Ai Fukuhara has grown up with table tennis since she was a child. What does she think about table tennis and her dreams for the future?”)

The following table shows the changes in the number of times each country or region appeared in textbooks produced under these editions of the Courses of Study (2003, 2007) as a percentage of the total number of lessons.

[Percentage change in All Countries (%)]

Year	Japan	US	UK/ Ireland	Australia/ New Zealand	Canada	Europe	Russia	Asia	Middle East	Africa	Latin America	Other
2003	55.1	24.49	18.37	6.12	2.04	6.12	2.04	22.45	0	8.16	4.08	0
2007	60	30	16	2	0	8	2	26	2	8	2	0

[Percentage change in Main Countries (%)]

Year	Japan	United States	UK/Ireland	Australia/New Zealand	Canada	Europe	Russia	Asia	Middle East	Africa	Latin America	Other
2003	90.9	13.64	13.64	13.64	4.55	9.09	0	22.73	0	9.09	4.55	0
2007	68.18	18.18	13.64	4.55	0	13.64	0	27.27	0	13.64	0	0

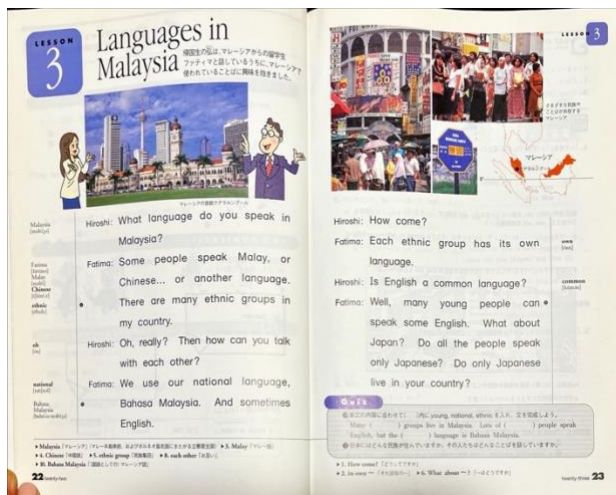
These data may be characterised in four ways: those showing (i) a significant increase in the proportion of content on Japan, (ii) an increase in content on the Asian and African regions, (iii) a decrease in content on Western English-speaking countries, which have often featured as subjects, and (iv) a decrease in the total amount of countries and regions featured

Firstly, with regard to (i): as can be read from the data, there was an instance, in the 2003 edition of the textbooks, where Japan appeared as the main content in most lessons. In the 2003 edition of the VISTA series, Japanese characters appeared in all lessons, even in ones where the subject matter was not related to Japan. Interestingly, in the UNICORN series in 1982, Americans also appeared in all lessons, including those not related to the US. In the 2003 edition, although the publishers were now different, it can be said that there was a reversal in the respective representations of Japanese and Americans.

With regard to (ii), it is important to note that content on Asian and African regions increased considerably. In the past, Asian and African regions mainly appeared in school textbooks as areas needing relief from drought and war damage, or as countries with alien cultures. (The 1988 VISTA series' text 'A Letter from India', in which a girl who has emigrated to India with her parents who are in an international marriage tells Japanese boys about life in India, was an exception to this, in that it fell into neither of the aforementioned categories.) The 1994 VISTA series was the first to feature a Singaporean character. However, it still portrayed Asian and African regions as targets of relief work; this was illustrated in 'A Gift from Bob Geldof' (VISTA 1994/1998), dealing with the Ethiopian famine; in 'IN THE HEART OF AFRICA' (UNICORN 1994), about a Japanese person working in Zambia as a member of JOCV; and in 'TERAKOYAS THROUGHOUT THE WORLD' (UNICORN 1998), describing efforts to build schools and improve literacy in Cambodia.

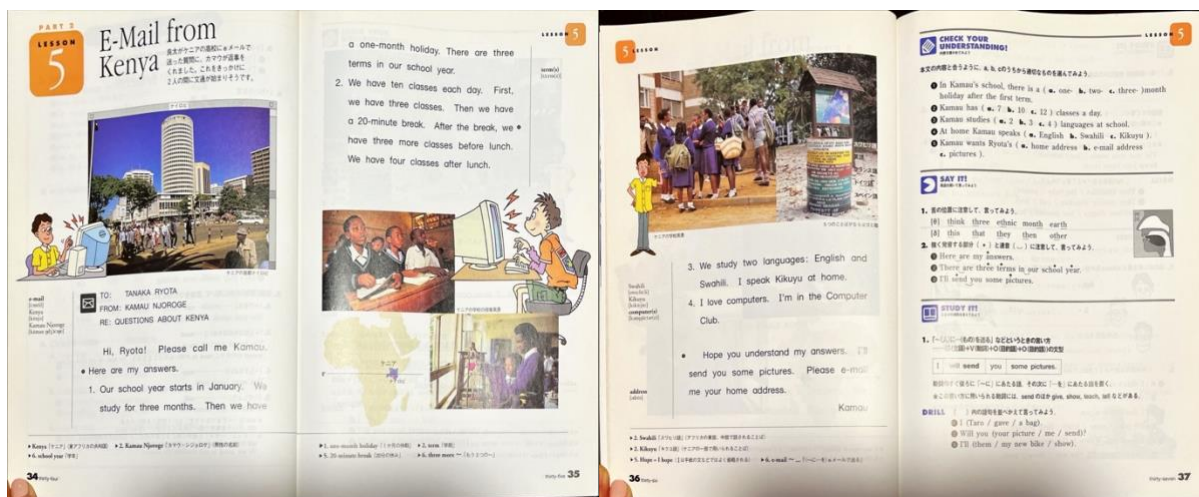
With the new guidelines, there came a change in this aspect of English language textbooks: Malaysian and Kenyan characters appeared in the 2003 edition of VISTA, Singaporean, Korean and Kenyan characters appeared in the 2003 edition of All Aboard!, Malaysian and Vietnamese characters appeared in the 2007 edition of VISTA, and characters from Hong Kong and Senegal also appeared in the 2007 edition of All Aboard!, suggesting that the view of Asia and Africa in these textbooks shifted from 'targets for relief' to 'equal countries'.

Erikawa (1992) also notes a change in the way Africa is treated within these books. However, his research indicates that the change occurred in a period slightly earlier than that surveyed by the present study. According to his research, Africa began appearing in Japanese textbooks from the 1960s, but exclusively from the perspective of white Europeans as a 'wild kingdom' or 'target for relief'. He argues, however, that in the 1970s, material objectively presenting the unique cultures of Africa began to appear, although still in small quantities. In 1978, the first text to specifically name a country, KENYA, appeared; it featured the character of a Kenyan girl with whom he corresponded. Although such changes were not seen in English textbooks for upper secondary school students until later, they represent a significant indication of the changing views of Asian and African regions within Japanese English-language textbooks.



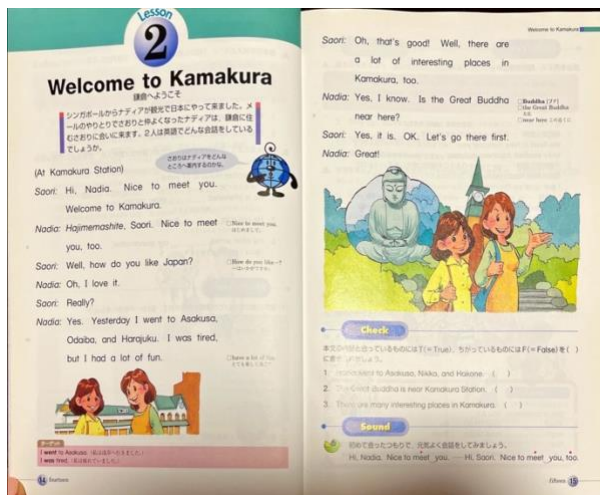
‘Languages in Malaysia’, VISTA 2003

Beneath the title: “While talking to Fatima, a student from Malaysia, Hiroshi, an overseas returnee, became interested in the language used in Malaysia.”)



‘E-mail from Kenya’, VISTA 2003

Beneath the title: “Kamau responded to a question that Ryota had e-mailed to a high school in Kenya. This is likely to be the start of a correspondence between the two.”)



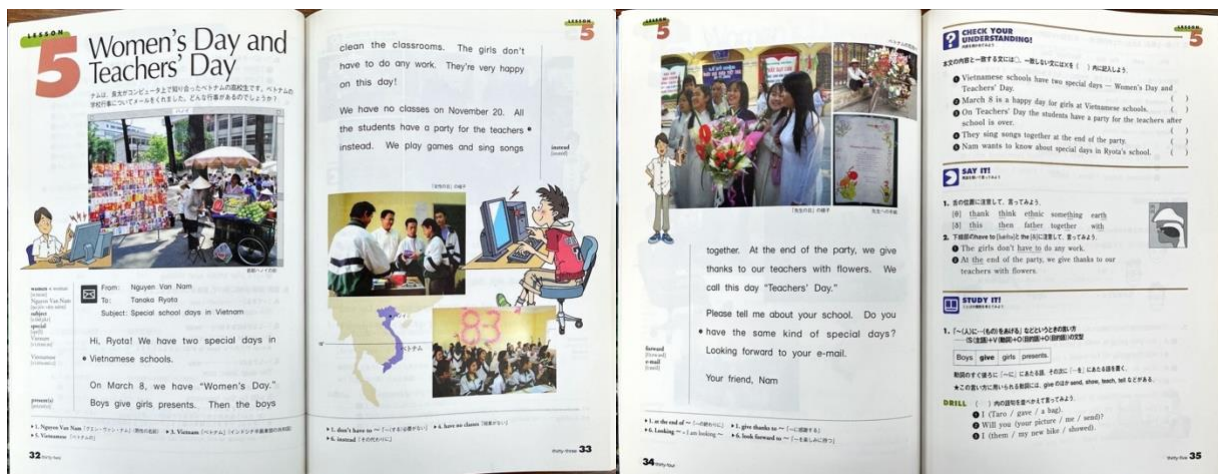
(‘Welcome to Kamakura’, All Aboard! 2003

Beneath the title: “Nadia comes to Japan from Singapore as a tourist. Nadia and Saori have become friends through email exchanges, and she comes to see Saori who lives in Kamakura. What kind of conversation do they have in English?”)



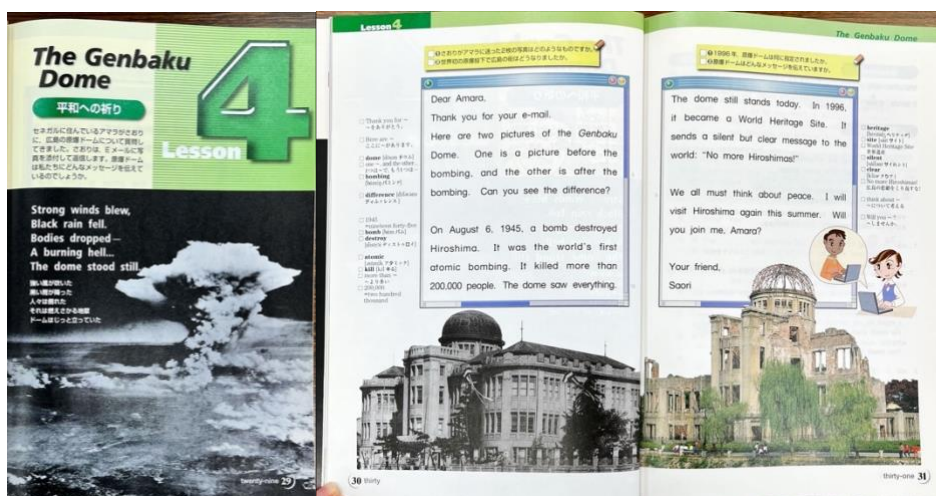
(‘My Favorite Things’, All Aboard! 2003

Beneath the title: “In the World Report section of the TV programme, high school students from around the world show their favourite things. What are their 'favourites'? What would you introduce?”



(‘Women’s Day and Teacher’s Day’, VISTA 2007

Beneath the title: “Nam is a Vietnamese high school student whom Ryota met on the computer. He emailed him about school events in Vietnam. What kind of events do they have?”)



(‘The Genbaku Dome’, All Aboard! 2007

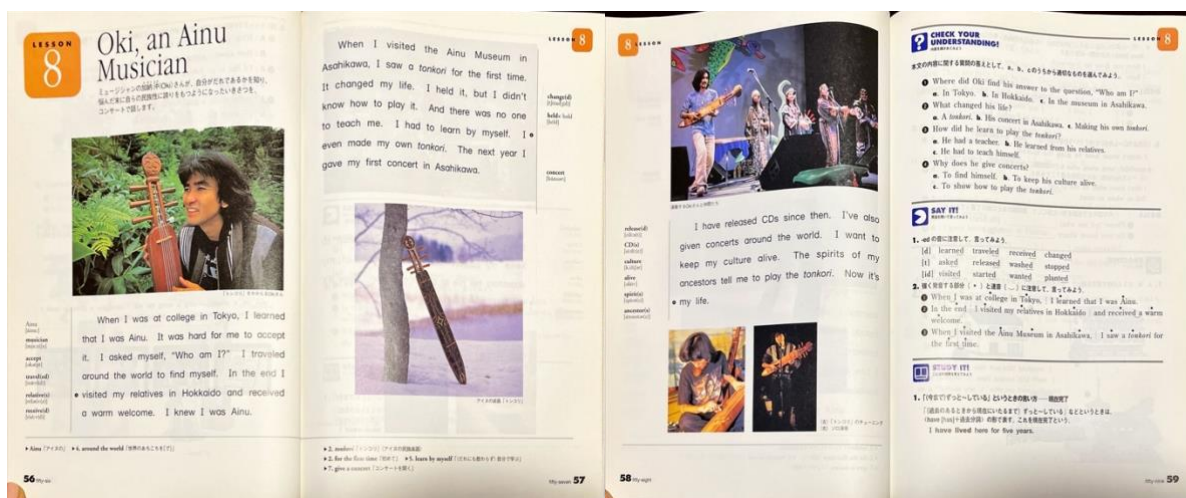
Beneath the title: “Amara, who lives in Senegal, asked Saori about the Atomic Bomb Dome in Hiroshima. Saori replies with a photo attachment to her email. What message does the Atomic Bomb Dome convey to us?”)

It can be assumed that the decrease in content related to Western English-speaking countries (category (iii)) and the decrease in the number of countries and regions covered (category (iv)) was related to the reduction in educational content under the Courses of Study of this time. This was reflected in the reduction in the number of main lessons: the VISTA series was reduced from containing a total of 16 to a total of 12 lessons. All Aboard! was the first series to be created under this edition of the Courses of Study, therefore comparisons to previous editions cannot be made. However, it had only 10 lessons, and the number of pages it featured was around 110, compared to around 170 in the UNICORN series; as the latter was the most adopted series up to that point, this can be interpreted as showing a decrease in the amount of learning. As the Courses of Study stipulated that content related to Japan should more actively be featured in textbooks, it can be assumed that other countries and regions featured only as a supplement.

The results for each subject were classified into the following categories: culture, science/technology, war/peace, public/welfare, and environment/coexistence.

Year	Culture	Science/ Technology	War/Peace	Public/Welfare	Environment/ Coexistence
2003	12	2	2	1	5
2007	12	2	2	1	5

With regard to items classified under Culture, attention should be drawn here to the teaching materials used for dealing with different cultures in Japan itself. There had previously been no material on different cultures in Japan, but the 2003 edition of VISTA featured the texts 'Oki, an Ainu Musician', introducing an Ainu musician who plays an Ainu folk instrument, and 'Finding My Way', describing how a deaf woman became a film actress.



(‘Oki, an Ainu Musician’, VISTA 2003

Beneath the title: “Musician Oki Kano shares in concert how he came to know who he was and how he became proud of his ethnicity after struggling with his identity.”)



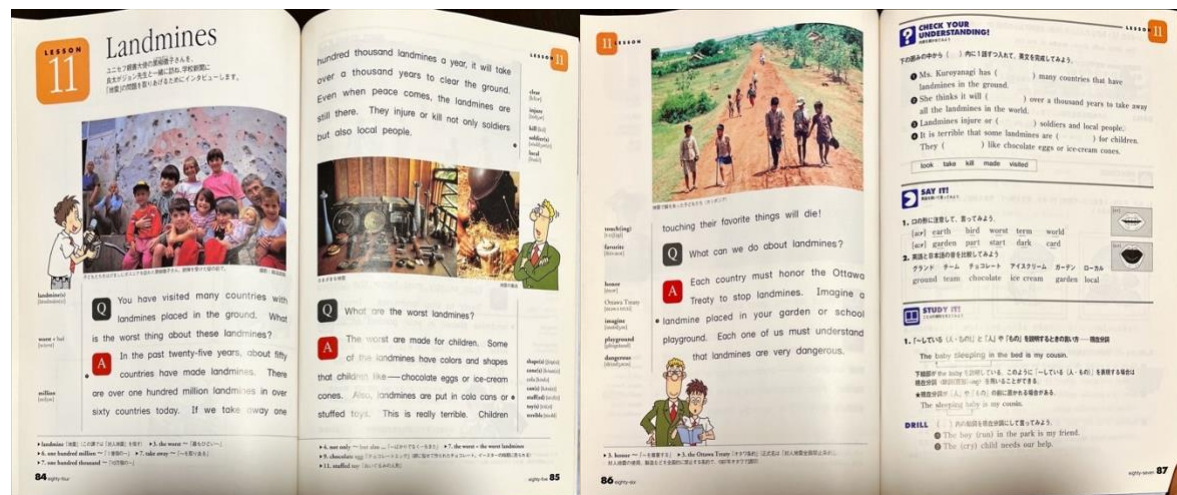
(‘Finding My Way’, VISTA 2003

Beneath the title: “Akiko Oshidari gave a sign language lecture at a gathering of international students on how she became an actress. Hiroshi, who understands sign language, will interpret.”)

The Japanese student in this story, Hiroshi, is portrayed as a returnee from abroad who can instantly translate Japanese sign language into English, which is rather unrealistic.

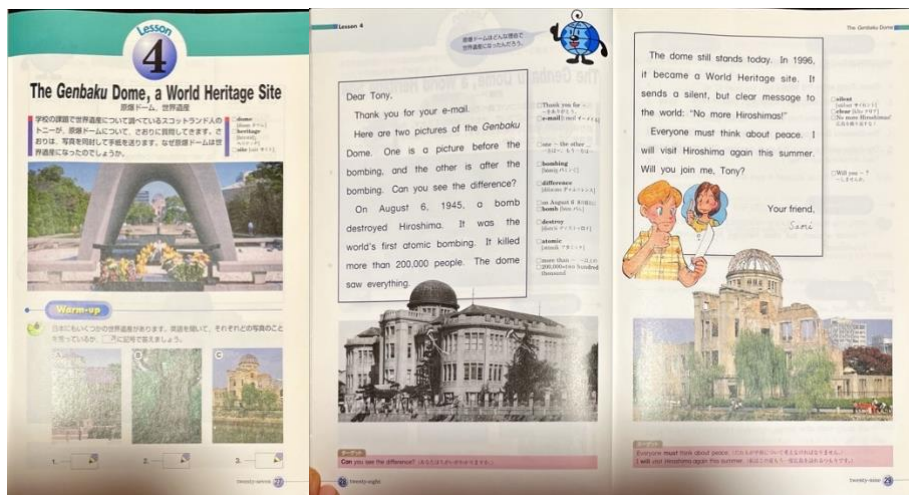
Concerning material categorised under Science/Technology, those that were simply email exchanges were not included in this paper’s survey; the reason being that these lessons were developed with more emphasis on the information gained from the use of technology rather than on the use of technology in each content. Those classified under Science/Technology included the previously-cited text 'Tetsuwan Atom, a Super Robot' (All Aboard! 2003/2007), which introduced the latest in robot technology, and the text 'Life on Mars' (All Aboard! 2003/2007), which discussed the possibility of life on Mars.

With regard to War/Peace, texts included the previously-cited piece on the Atomic Bomb Dome, 'The Genbaku Dome' (from the 2003/2007 All Aboard!) and 'Landmines' (from the 2003/2007 VISTA series), which interviewed Japanese celebrities acting as UNICEF Goodwill Ambassadors campaigning against landmines. The text 'The Genbaku Dome' featured an email from Scottish (in 2003) and Senegalese (in 2007) high school students to a Japanese student asking about the Genbaku Dome, and the reply (this text appeared in both the 2003 and 2007 editions). The War/Peace section markedly featured content focusing on issues outside of Japan, or on texts relating to the damage Japan suffered during World War II. The impression potentially given by this is of Japan as solely a victim in the last war.



(‘Landmines’, VISTA 2003

Beneath the title: “Ryota visits UNICEF Goodwill Ambassador Tetsuko Kuroyanagi with John sensei to interview her about the issue of 'landmines' for the school newspaper.”)

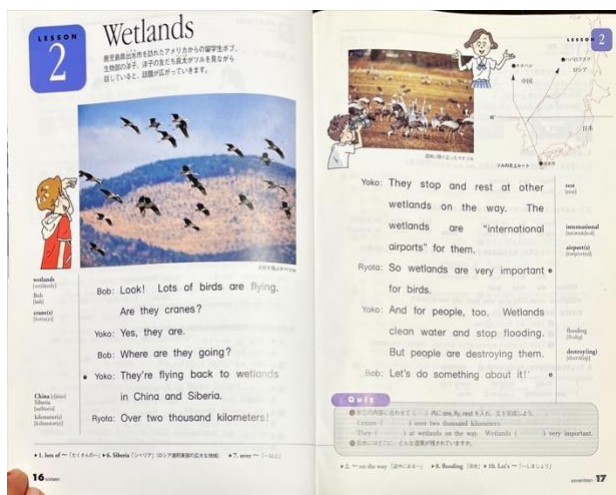


(‘The Gembaku Dome, a World Heritage Site’, All Aboard! 2003

Beneath the title: “Tony, a Scotsman who is researching World Heritage Sites for a school project, asks Saori about the Atomic Bomb Dome. Saori sends him a letter enclosing a photograph. Why was the Atomic Bomb Dome a World Heritage Site?”)

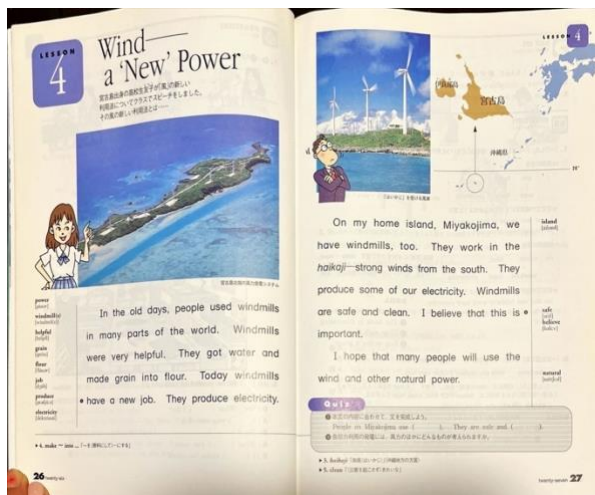
Featured texts falling within the Public/Welfare category included ‘The Bus Boycott’ in the 2003/2007 edition of the VISTA series, which dealt with the civil rights movement in the USA.

Texts categorised under Environment/Coexistence included many with references to Japan; whereas many environmental issues were covered under the previous edition of the Courses of Study, under this edition, the 2003/2007 VISTA series included a text on wetlands in Kagoshima Prefecture ('Wetlands'), a text on wind power generation on Miyakojima Island ('Wind - a 'New' Power'), and 'Trees, Rivers and the Sea', a text about fish-bearing security forests in Tokushima. The only environmental issue to be included in the 2003/2007 All Aboard! series was the text 'One Way, No Return' on alien species affecting ecosystems (specifically, describing the situation regarding black bass in Japan).



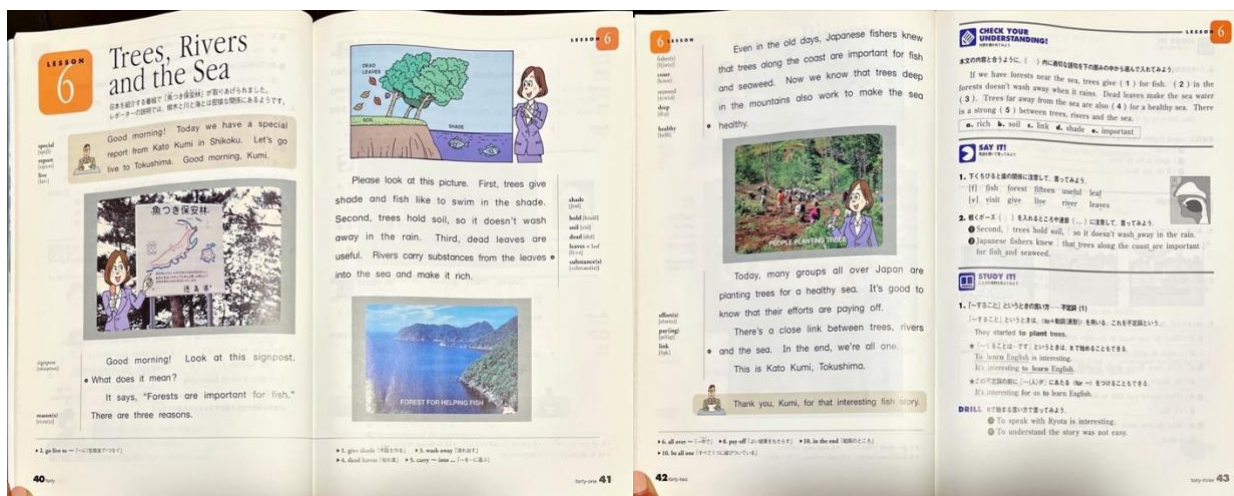
(‘Wetlands’, VISTA 2003

Beneath the title: “The topic of conversation spreads when Bob, an exchange student from the USA, Yoko from the biology department and Yoko's friend Ryota, who is visiting the city of Demizu in Kagoshima Prefecture, talk while looking at cranes.”)



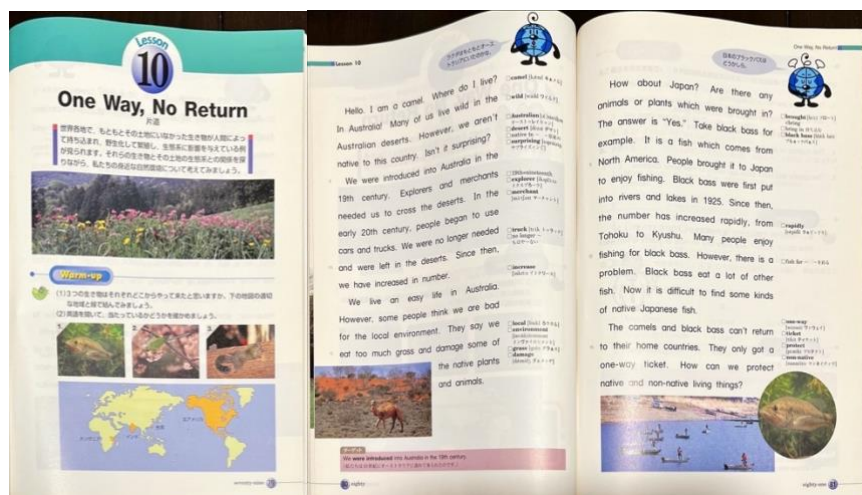
(‘Wind —— a ‘New’ Power’, VISTA 2003

Beneath the title: “Tomoko, a high school student from Miyako Island, gave a speech to her class about new ways of using the ‘wind’. What is this new use of wind?”)



(‘Trees, Rivers and the Sea’, VISTA 2003

Beneath the title: “A programme introducing Japan featured a ‘fish-bearing security forest’. The reporter explained that trees, rivers and oceans seem to have a close relationship.”)



(‘One Way, No Return’, All Aboard! 2003

Beneath the title: “Throughout the world, there are examples of creatures that were not originally indigenous to a particular area being introduced by humans, becoming wild, reproducing and affecting ecosystems. Let's think about our immediate natural environment by exploring the relationship between these creatures and the local ecosystem.”)



At the end of this section, the following text appears with the title 'Invasive species that have come to Japan':

“Animals and plants introduced by humans from foreign countries and introduced into the wild: the impact of these organisms on the natural environment is a cause for concern. Some, such as the American crayfish, have driven native species to the brink of extinction; others, such as the Giant African land snail, cause major damage to crops, while others, such as ragweed, cause allergic reactions to pollen. Once the ecological balance that has been created over many years is destroyed, it is not easy to restore it. These are just a few examples of invasive species that have been introduced to Japan. How many did you know?”

As the movement of people is a two-way street, the movement of things should also be a two-way street; however, it is important to note that only the 'damage' brought into Japan is depicted here. The text gives a strong sense of Japan's victimhood in the fight against alien species that harm the ecosystem, but does not mention how students should act to prevent this. Although Japanese students learn about invasive alien species in subjects other than English, the author of

this thesis does not remember being taught any specific measures against this, but, rather, an awareness of the current difficult situation that we should all try to improve.

5. 2009.

The objectives of this edition of the Foreign Language Section of the Courses of Study for Senior High Schools were, through foreign languages, to deepen students' understanding of language and culture, to develop their attitude towards active communication, and to cultivate their communication skills so as to accurately understand and appropriately convey information and ideas.

The specific objectives of the subject surveyed here, Communication English I, were as follows: To cultivate in students an attitude of active communication through English, as well as the basic ability to accurately understand and appropriately convey information and ideas.

The historical background to the preparation of this edition of the Courses of Study was the revision of the Fundamental Law of Education (2006) by the first Shinzo Abe cabinet, which aimed to put schools directly in charge of developing human resources to support national and corporate strategies amid the long-running recession; at this time, emphasis was placed on the idea of a "zest for life" in a knowledge-based society. In addition, the number of class hours was increased, in response to declining academic performance due to 'relaxed education'. The revision also strengthened nationalism, as exemplified by the statement in the General Provisions that 'the development of Japanese people who love their country and their homeland' was to be pursued.

The following table shows the changes in the number of times each country or region appeared in textbooks produced under these editions of the Courses of Study (2013, 2017) as a percentage of the total number of lessons.

[Percentage change in All Countries (%)]

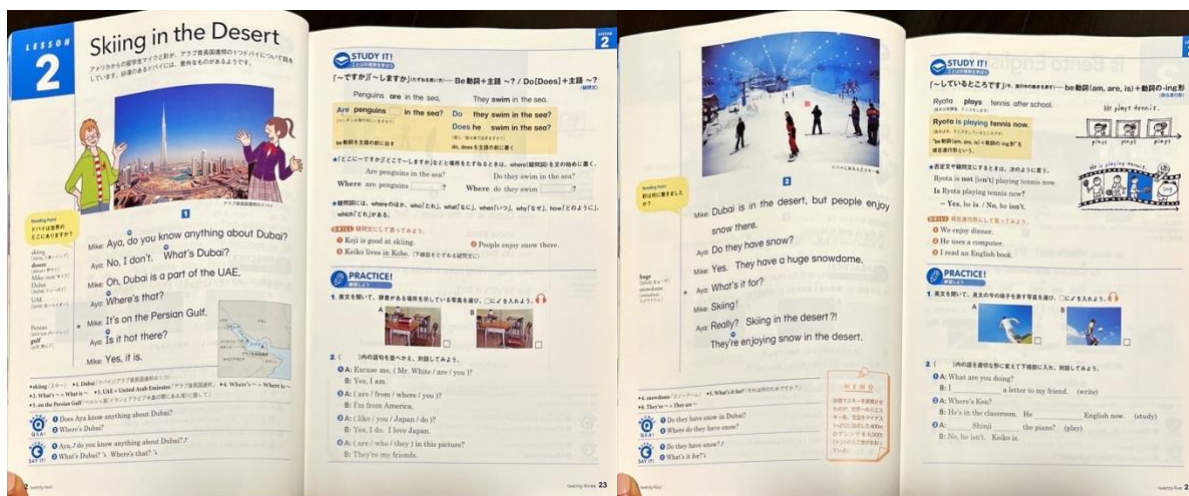
Year	Japan	US	UK/ Ireland	Australia/ New Zealand	Canada	Europe	Russia	Asia	Middle East	Africa	Latin America	Other
2013	71.43	30.36	1.79	10.71	8.93	17.86	0	8.93	3.57	1.79	0	0
2017	68.52	22.22	1.85	7.4	0	18.52	0	12.96	3.7	1.85	7.4	1.85

[Percentage change in Main Countries (%)]

Year	Japan	United States	UK/ Ireland	Australia/ New Zealand	Canada	Europe	Russia	Asia	Middle East	Africa	Latin America	Other
2013	82.61	34.78	4.35	8.7	8.7	26.09	0	13.04	4.35	4.35	0	8.7
2017	72.73	27.27	4.55	4.55	0	31.82	0	18.18	0	4.55	13.64	9.09

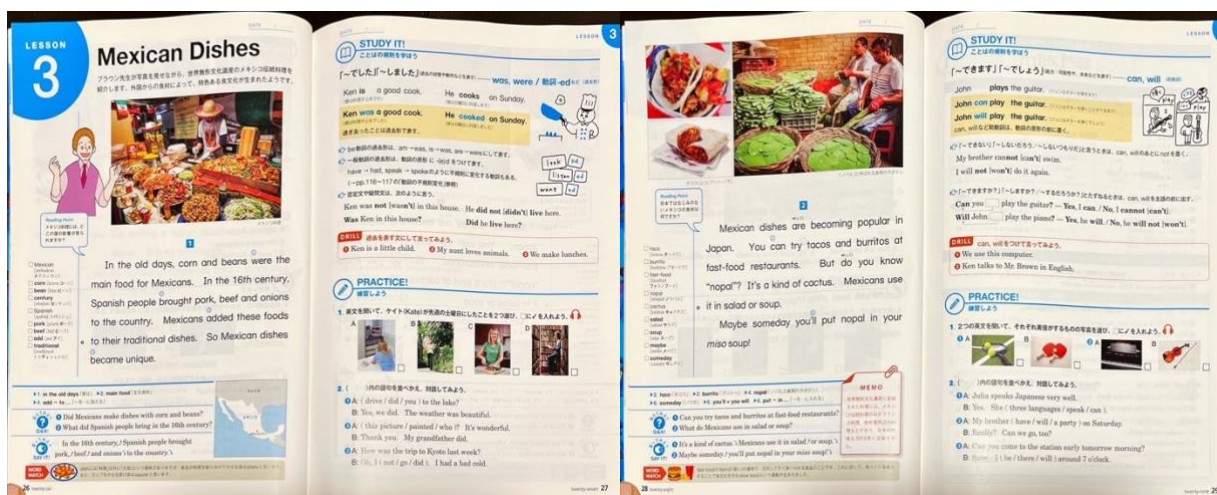
As in textbooks under the previous edition of the Courses of Study, content on Japan continued to dominate the majority of textbooks, with the proportion of Western English-speaking countries decreasing and the total number of countries and regions covered remaining small. In addition, there was now material dealing with the Middle East and Latin America, which did not commonly feature previously. Material dealing with the Middle East included 'Skiing in the Desert', a text about an artificial ski resort in the United Arab Emirates (included in the 2013 edition of VISTA); those dealing with Latin America included the text 'Mexican Dishes', a text on 'Machu

Picchu'(included in the 2017 edition of VISTA), and 'A Miracle Mirror', about Salar de Uyuni (adopted in the 2017 edition of All Aboard!).



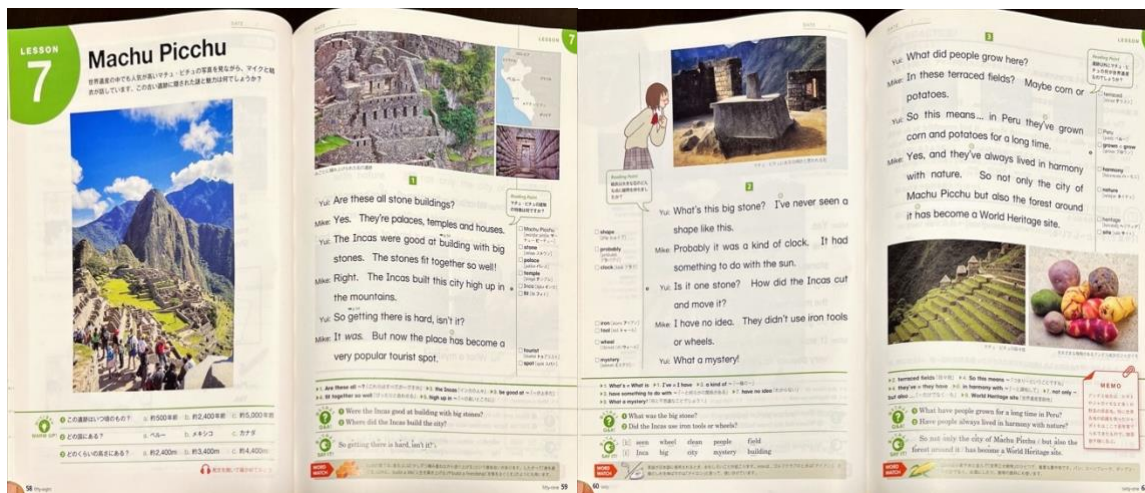
(‘Skiing in the Desert’, VISTA 2013

Beneath the title: “Mike, a student from the USA, and Aya talk about Dubai, one of the United Arab Emirates. Dubai, with its desert, seems to have some surprising things to offer.”)



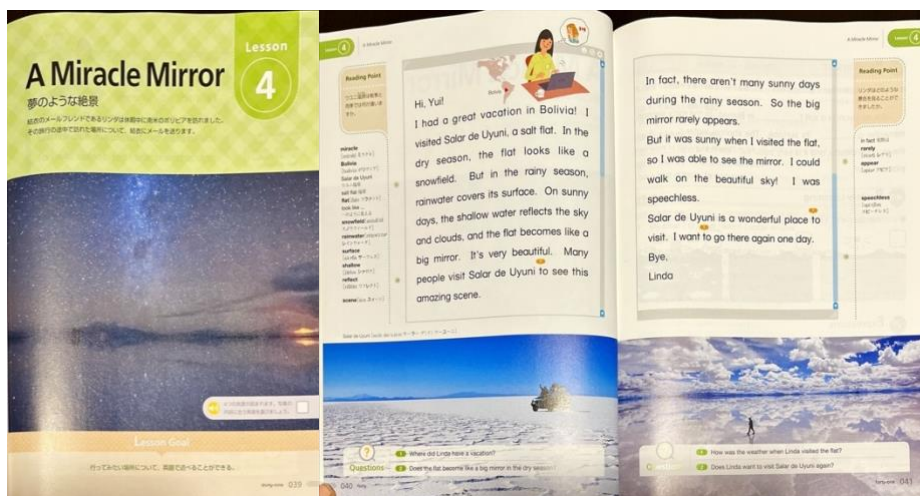
(‘Mexican Dishes’, VISTA 2013

Beneath the title: “Brown sensei shows pictures and introduces traditional Mexican cuisine, which is a World Intangible Cultural Heritage Site. It seems that a distinctive food culture has been created by ingredients from other countries.”)



(‘Machu Picchu’, VISTA 2017)

Beneath the title: “Mike and Yui talk over photos of Machu Picchu, one of the most popular World Heritage Sites. What are the mysteries and attractions behind this ancient ruin?”)



(‘A Miracle Mirror’, VISTA 2017)

Beneath the title: “Linda, Yui’s email friend, visited Bolivia in South America during her holiday. She emails Yui about the places she visited during that trip.”)

In the texts featuring Latin America, much of the content dealt with World Heritage Sites. Salar de Uyuni and Dubai are also popular destinations among the Japanese. It can be assumed that the aim of these inclusions was to make students imagine more practical communication situations in a variety of places in which they were more likely to be interested or foreign countries to which they might actually go.

In addition, the subject matter of the foreign language chapter of the Courses of Study at this time became more nationalistic than ever before. The following describes the policy of this edition of the foreign language section of the Courses of Study for senior high school students:

In order to comprehensively develop communicative competence through foreign languages, teaching materials are to be designed to give sufficient consideration to actual language use

situations and language functions, in accordance with the objectives of each subject. In so doing, appropriate topics were to be explored in a varied manner, in line with the developmental stages and interests of the students; these topics would be related to the daily lives, manners and customs, stories, geography, history, traditional culture, and natural science of the people of the world, mainly those using the foreign language being taught in their daily lives, and of the Japanese people themselves. It also listed the following goals:

- a. To help students to understand diverse ways of seeing and thinking, to develop their ability to make fair judgments, and to cultivate in them a rich emotional outlook.
- b. To deepen understanding of life and culture in foreign countries and in Japan, and to help raise students' interest in language and culture and develop their attitude of respect for them.
- c. To deepen international understanding from a broad perspective, to raise awareness of the sense of being Japanese people living in an international society, and to help foster a spirit of international cooperation.
- d. To help deepen ideas about people, society and nature.

The results for the subjects were classified into the following categories: culture, science/technology, war/peace, public/welfare, and environment/coexistence.

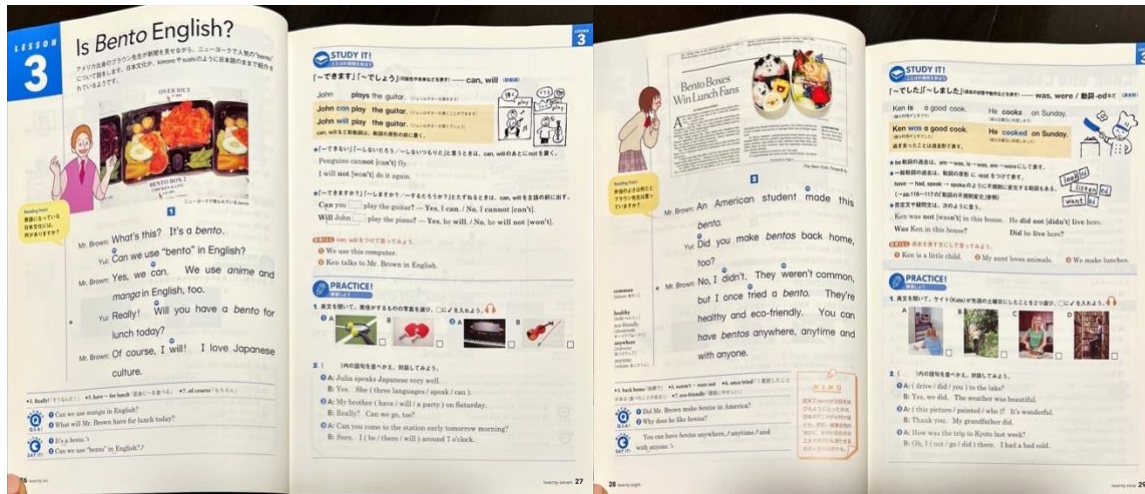
Year	Culture	Science/ Technology	War/Peace	Public/Welfare	Environment/ Coexistence
2013	13	2	2	2	3
2017	14	2	3	0	2

The majority of subjects in all areas dealt with Japan as the main content. The subjects in which Japan was not only presented by the main character but also in the main content were the following (the categories of the subject matter of each text are identified in the brackets):

- 2013 VISTA series: 'Is Bento English?' [Culture], a text about the popularity of bento in the USA, and 'My Rules' [Public/Welfare], a text about a Japanese baseball player who donates vaccines for every pitch he throws.
- 2013 All Aboard! series: 'A Letter to Australia' [Culture], a letter from an Australian studying in Japan about life in Japan; 'Kawaii Culture' [Culture], a text about Japanese kawaii culture; 'A Symphony of Soup and Noodles' [Culture], a text about Japanese ramen noodle culture; 'Lifelong Friends' [Culture], a text by a Japanese comedian about learning foreign languages; 'A Garden in Hokkaido' [Culture], a text about a Japanese woman who learnt about English gardens, and 'A Window on the Universe' [Science/Technology], a text about the Japanese Subaru Telescope in Hawaii.
- 2017 VISTA series: 'Kerama Blue' [Environment/Coexistence], a text about the sea in the Kerama Islands, Okinawa, and 'Cool Japan' [Culture], a text about Japan by an American student.
- 2017 All Aboard! series: 'My Favorite Hero' [Culture], a text about a Japanese tennis player; 'Cool Culture from Japan' [Culture], a text in which students talk about Japanese culture; 'Finding My Future' [Environment/Coexistence], a text about students at an agricultural high school in Japan; 'Building Trust in Space' [Culture], a text about Japanese astronauts.

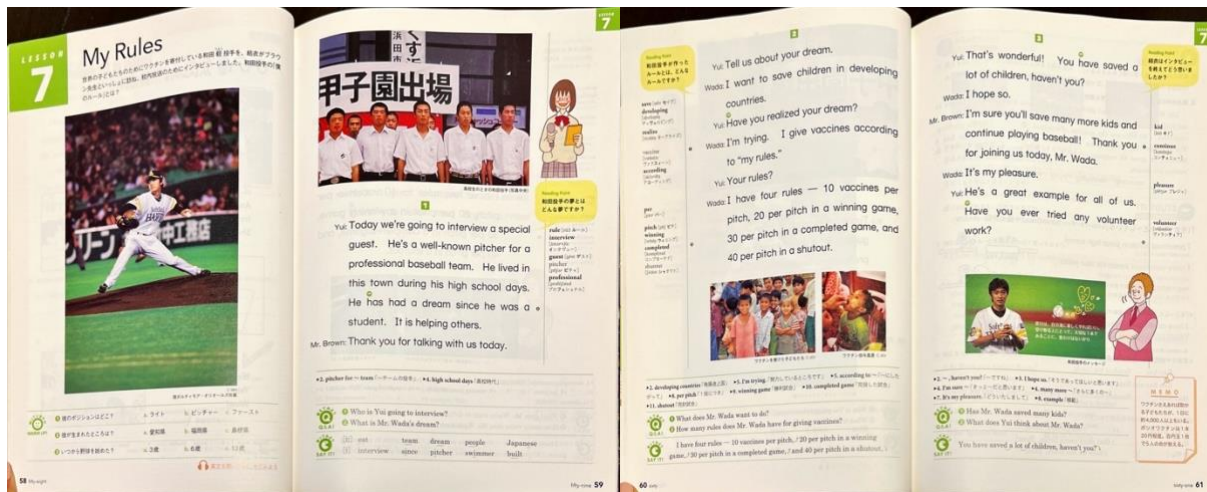
- 2013/2017 edition of the VISTA series: 'Toothbrushing in Edo' [Culture], a text about the culture of toothpicks in the Edo period, and 'Tsuji, the Great Pianist' [Culture], a text about a blind Japanese pianist.
- 2013/2017 All Aboard! series: 'A Funny Picture from the Edo Period' [Culture], a text about ukiyo-e woodblock prints, and 'Pigs from Across the Sea' [War/Peace], a text about pigs sent to Okinawa after the Pacific War.

In 22 of the 45 main lessons - exactly half of the total subjects - Japan is represented not only by the main character, but also in the main content; it can be argued that this clearly reflects the policies of these Courses of Study.



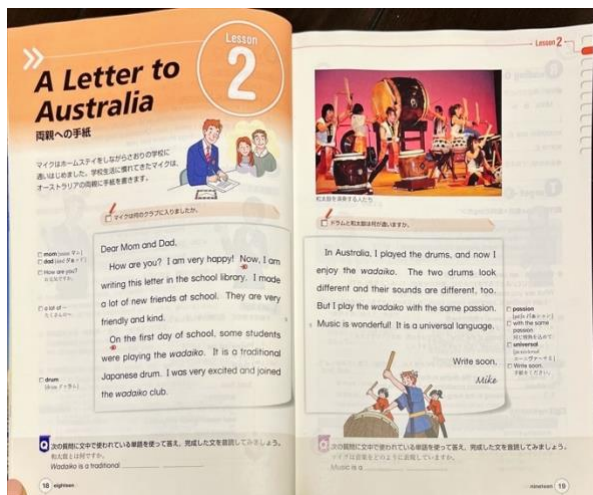
(‘Is Bento English?’, VISTA 2013)

Beneath the title: “Brown sensei, a teacher from the USA, shows newspapers and talks about the popular 'bento' in New York. Japanese culture seems to be introduced in its Japanese language form, like *kimono* and *sushi*.”)



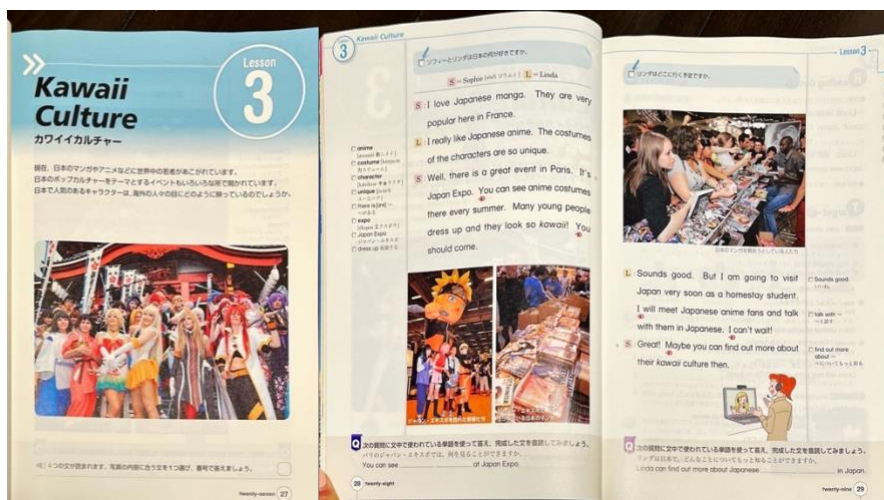
(‘My Rules’, VISTA 2013)

Beneath the title: “Yui visited Tsuyoshi Wada, who donates vaccines to children around the world, with Brown sensei, to interview him for a school broadcast. What are Wada's 'my rules'?”)



(‘A Letter to Australia’, All Aboard! 2013

Beneath the title: “Mike started attending school in Saori while staying with a homestay family. After getting used to school life, Mike writes a letter to his parents in Australia.”)



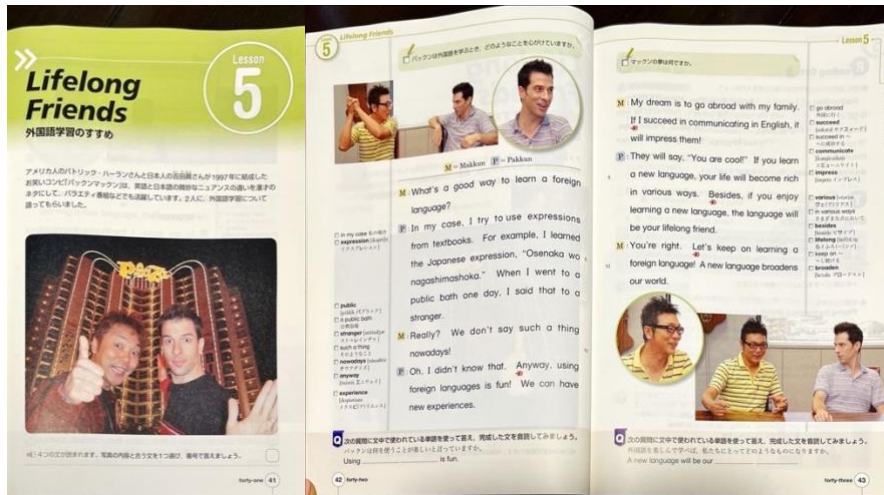
(‘Kawaii Culture’, All Aboard! 2013

Beneath the title: “Today, young people around the world are fascinated by Japanese manga and anime. Events themed on Japanese pop culture are held in many places. How do popular Japanese characters appear in the eyes of people overseas?”)



(‘A Symphony of Soup and Noodles’, All Aboard! 2013

Beneath the title: “Ramen is now a national dish in Japan and is loved by people of all ages. Famous restaurants have queues forming every day. Consider why ramen is so popular.”)



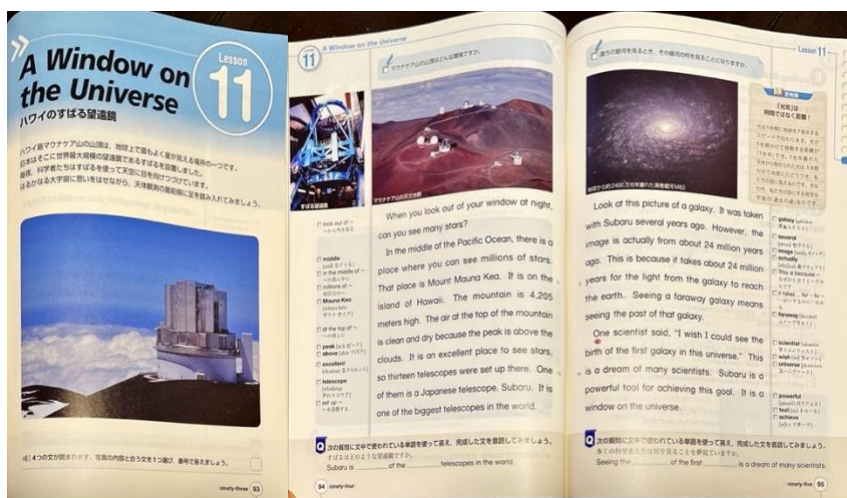
(‘Lifelong Friends’, All Aboard! 2013

Beneath the title: The American Patrick Harlan and Japanese Makoto Yoshida formed the comedy duo Pakkun Makkun in 1997 and have been active in variety shows, using the subtle nuances between English and Japanese in their comic material. These two people are asked to talk about learning foreign languages.”)



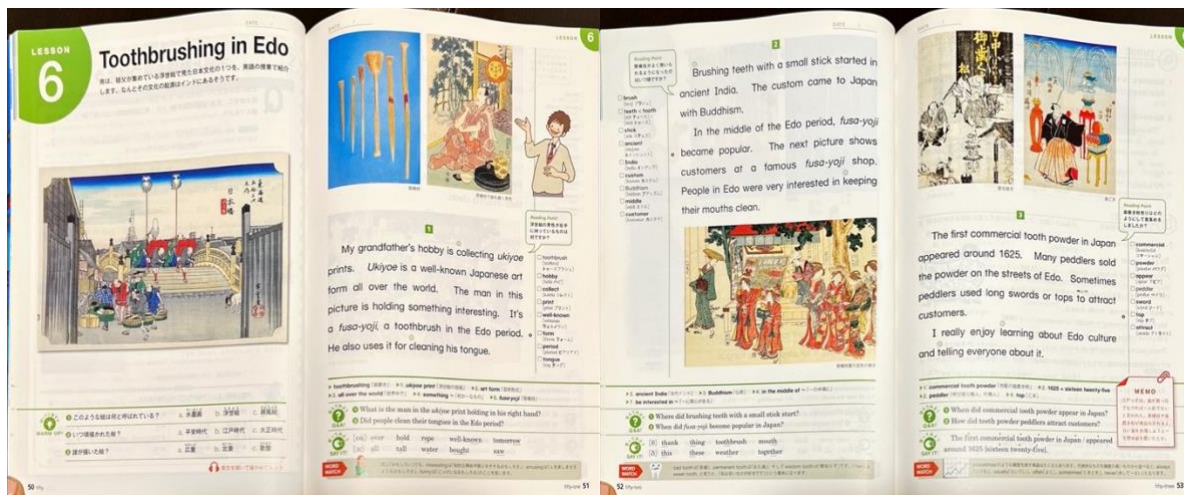
(‘A Garden in Hokkaido’, All Aboard! 2013

Beneath the title: “Gardener Sayuki Ueno (pictured below) is based in Asahikawa, Hokkaido, Japan. She studied English gardens in the UK, the home of gardening. Let's think about nature through an interview with her.”)



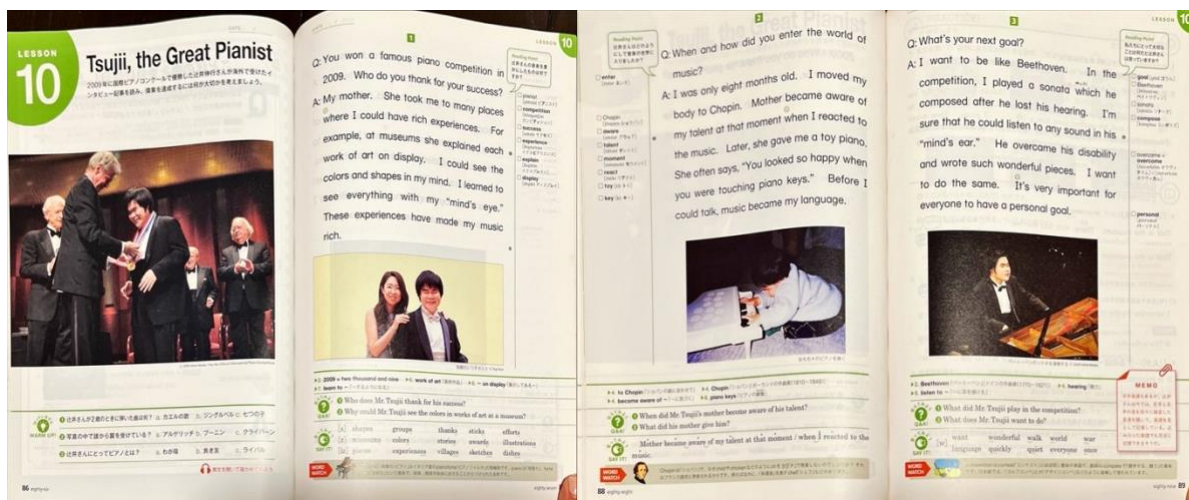
(‘A Window on the Universe’, All Aboard! 2013

Beneath the title: “The summit of Mauna Kea on the island of Hawaii is one of the best places on Earth to see the stars. Japan has installed the world's largest telescope, Subaru, there. Every night, scientists use Subaru to keep their eyes on the sky. Step into the forefront of astronomical observation while contemplating the distant universe.”)



(‘Toothbrushing in Edo’, VISTA 2017

Beneath the title: “Ryo introduces his English class to one of the Japanese cultures he has seen in his grandfather's collection of ukiyo-e prints. Surprisingly, the culture has its origins in India.”)



(‘Tsuji, the Great Pianist’, VISTA 2017

Beneath the title: “Read an interview that Nobuyuki Tsujii, winner of the International Piano Competition in 2009, gave abroad, and consider what it takes to achieve greatness.”)



(‘My Favorite Hero’, All Aboard! 2017
Beneath the title: “In English class, Ken gives a speech about his favourite person.”)



(‘Cool Culture from Japan’, All Aboard! 2017
Beneath the title: “There are Japanese manga in Jack's room. However, the manga looks different from what we usually see. Let's take a look at Japanese manga and how its culture is spreading around the world.”)



(‘Finding My Future’, All Aboard! 2017

Beneath the title: “At Obihiro Agricultural High School in Hokkaido, many high school students are studying towards their dreams and goals. Read about what they are learning and think about your future.”)



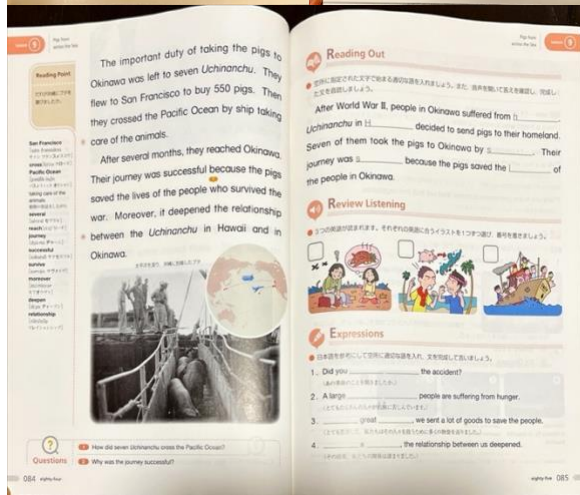
(‘A Funny Picture from the Edo Period’, All Aboard! 2017

Beneath the title: “In the Edo period, there were painters who created fascinating ukiyo-e pictures that lead to the fun of modern manga. Yui gives a speech about one of these leading painters, Utagawa Kuniyoshi.”)



(‘Building Trust in Space’, All Aboard! 2017

Beneath the title: “Koichi Wakata became interested in space at the age of five after watching the Apollo 11 moon landing. As the first Asian captain of the International Space Station, Wakata cherished one thing.”)

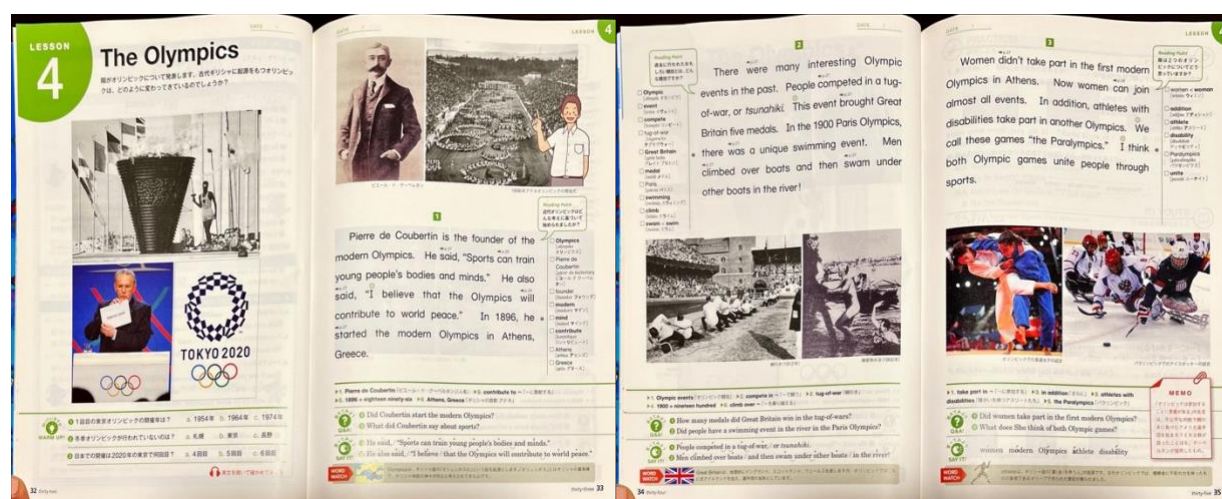


(‘Pigs from across the Sea’, All Aboard! 2017

Beneath the title: “At the end of World War II, Okinawa was the scene of fierce ground fighting and people were forced to live in harsh conditions. After the war, Japanese-Americans in Hawaii who were born in Okinawa learnt of the devastation and stood up for their hometown Okinawa.”)

All the material on Japan shown above is positive; none of it is problematic or forces pupils to come up with solutions. In All Aboard! more than half of the content in both the 2013 and 2017 editions dealt mainly with Japan, with the other countries making only supplementary appearances.

The 2017 edition of VISTA also featured 'The Olympics', content relating to the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games. Although it was assumed that only a few students would actually be able to use a foreign language at the Tokyo Olympics and Paralympics, there was growing momentum for this major national event, and the textbooks show this.



(‘The Olympics’, VISTA 2017

Beneath the title: “Sho will present on the Olympic Games. How are the Olympic Games, which have their origins in ancient Greece, changing?”)

6. 2018 (current).

The objectives of this edition of the Foreign Language Section of the Courses of Study for Senior High Schools are to develop in students the qualities and abilities to communicate in order to understand information and ideas accurately, and to express them appropriately and communicate them to each other through listening, reading, speaking, and writing activities in foreign languages and integrated language activities. The qualities and abilities to be aimed for are as follows:

- (i) A deepened understanding of foreign language sounds, vocabulary, expressions, grammar and language functions, and the acquisition of the skills to use this knowledge appropriately in actual communication through listening, reading, speaking and writing, and tailored to purpose, situation and circumstances.
- (ii) The cultivation of the ability to accurately understand the outline, main points, and details of information and ideas as well as the intentions of the speaker and writer in a foreign language, on every day and social topics; moreover, the ability to express and communicate these in an appropriate manner in accordance with the purpose, situation, etc. of the communication.

(iii) The cultivation of an understanding of the culture behind foreign languages and the development of an attitude of communication using foreign languages in a proactive and autonomous manner, taking into consideration listeners, readers, speakers and writers.

The specific objectives of the subject surveyed here t, English Communication I, are as follows: Based on the characteristics of English language learning, the five areas of listening, reading, speaking [interaction], speaking [presentation] and writing (hereinafter in this section referred to as the "five areas") listed below are to be developed. Through guidance aimed at realising the goals set separately, the qualities and abilities listed in (i) and (ii) of clause 1¹⁴ shall be developed in an integrated manner, and through the process, the qualities and abilities listed in (iii) of clause 1 shall be developed:

(1) Listening

- a. To be able to hear the necessary information and understand the speaker's intentions on everyday topics, in terms of the speed at which they are spoken, the words and sentences used, and the amount of information, if they make use of a lot of support.
- b. To be able to listen to the necessary information and grasp the outline and main points in a purposeful way on social topics, in terms of the speed at which they are spoken, the words and sentences used, and the amount of information, if they make use of a lot of support.

(2) Reading.

- a. To be able to read the necessary information and understand the writer's intentions on everyday topics, in terms of the words and sentences used and the amount of information, if they make use of a lot of support.
- b. To be able to read the necessary information and grasp the outline and main points in a purposeful way on social topics, in terms of the words and sentences used and the amount of information, if they make use of a lot of support.

(3) Speaking [interaction].

- a. To be able to continue exchanges on everyday topics, using basic words, phrases and sentences to talk and communicate information, thoughts, and feelings, with a lot of support in terms of the words and sentences used and the development of dialogue.
- b. To be able to communicate information, thoughts, feelings, etc. with attention to logic, based on what they have heard and read on social topics, using basic words, phrases and sentences, with a lot of support in terms of the words and sentences used and the development of dialogue.

(4) Speaking [presentation].

- a. To be able to speak and convey information, thoughts, and feelings on everyday topics with attention to logic, using basic words, phrases and sentences, with a lot of support in terms of the words and sentences used and preparation in advance.
- b. To be able to speak and convey information, thoughts, and feelings on social topics with attention to logic, based on what they have heard and read, using basic words, phrases and sentences, with a lot of support in terms of the words and sentences used and preparation in advance.

(5) Writing.

- a. To be able to write and communicate information, thoughts, and feelings on everyday topics with attention to logic, using basic words, phrases and sentences, with a lot of support in terms of the words and sentences used and preparation in advance.

¹⁴ Clause 1 shown here refers to the objectives of the Foreign Language Section of the Courses of Study for Senior High Schools (2018), as indicated above.

b. To be able to write and communicate information, thoughts, and feelings on social topics with attention to logic, based on what they have heard and read, using basic words, phrases and sentences, with a lot of support in terms of the words and sentences used and preparation in advance.

The background to this edition of the Courses of Study was the Prime Minister's Office-led educational reform by the LDP/Komeito coalition government, which won a landslide victory in the 2012 House of Representatives election and promoted the inclusion of moral education as a subject and the immediate early introduction of English language education in primary schools. The revision was also made with the 2020 Tokyo Olympics and Paralympics in mind, and in foreign language studies, the introduction of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) was another feature of this revision. In accordance with the CEFR, these Courses of Study have split 'speaking' into two parts, 'speaking [interaction]' and 'speaking [presentation]', and the conventional four skills have been divided into five areas, with targets set for each.

The following table shows the changes in the number of times each country or region appeared in textbooks produced under these editions of the Courses of Study (2022) as a percentage of the total number of lessons.

[Percentage change in All Countries (%)]

Year	Japan	US	UK/ Ireland	Australia/ New Zealand	Canada	Europe	Russia	Asia	Middle East	Africa	Latin America	Other
2022	71.43	26.53	6.12	10.2	4.08	14.29	4.082	14.29	4.08	4.08	12.24	0

[Percentage change in Main Countries (%)]

Year	Japan	United States	UK/ Ireland	Australia/ New Zealand	Canada	Europe	Russia	Asia	Middle East	Africa	Latin America	Other
2022	80	35	10	5	0	25	0	10	0	0	15	5

The results for the subjects were classified into the following categories: culture, science/technology, war/peace, public/welfare, and environment/coexistence.

Year	Culture	Science/ Technology	War/Peace	Public/Welfare	Environment/ Coexistence
2022	10	2	2	2	4

The total amount of countries and regions appearing in the text itself has increased, but it can be seen that the subject matter remains Japan-centred. However, compared to textbooks under the previous edition of the Courses of Study, the number of Japan-centred subjects has decreased, and there are more topics with less distinction between countries. The following are examples of topics that are mainly Japanese in content as well as featuring Japanese characters (as previously, the categories of the subject matter of each text are indicated in brackets):

- 2022 VISTA series: 'We Are Part of Nature' [Environment/Coexistence], a text about Japanese wildlife photographers, and 'Kids' Guernica' [Public/Welfare], a text about the Japanese Kids' Guernica project.

- 2022 All Aboard! series: 'A Train Driver in Sanriku' [Culture], a text about a female driver on the Sanriku Railway in Iwate Prefecture, 'Learning from the Sea' [Environment/Coexistence], a text on aquarium clubs in high schools in Ehime Prefecture, Japan, 'A Funny Picture from the Edo Period' [Culture], a text about Japanese ukiyo-e prints, 'A Door to a New Life' [Science/Technology], a text about an alter-ego robot café where physically disabled people work, and 'Pigs from Across the Sea' [War/Peace], a text about pigs sent to Okinawa after the Pacific War.

7 of the 20 main lessons in total are texts about Japan. However, upon examination of the textbooks, five out of ten lessons in All Aboard! are on the subject of Japan, and - considering that this textbook had an overwhelming 16% adoption rate in high schools in 2022 - the influence of Japan-related content in textbooks under this latest edition of the Courses of Study can be seen to be alive and well.



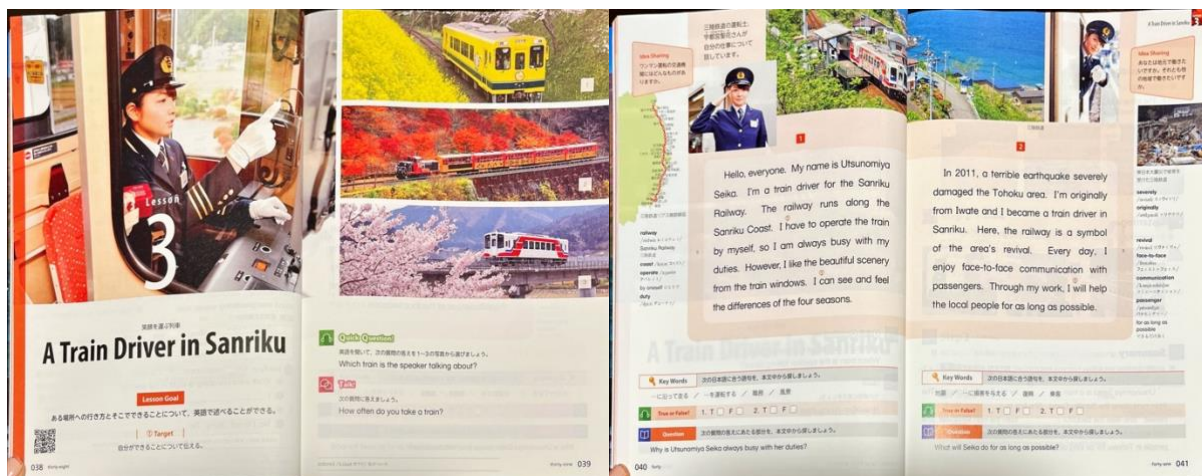
(‘We Are Part of Nature’, VISTA 2022

Beneath the title: “Animal photographer Mitsuaki Iwago continues to take photographs in all regions of Japan and around the world. What are Iwago's thoughts on animals and nature?”)



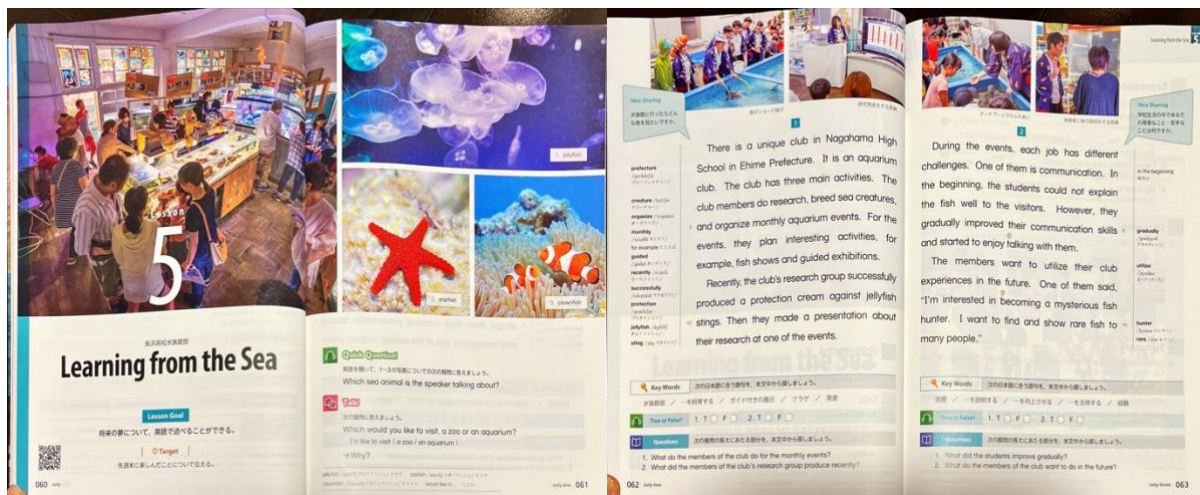
(‘Kids’ Guernica’, VISTA 2022

Beneath the title: “A tragedy in 1937 gave birth to the painting 'Guernica'. 58 years later, the Kids Guernica Project was launched. What is the common thread that runs through it?”)

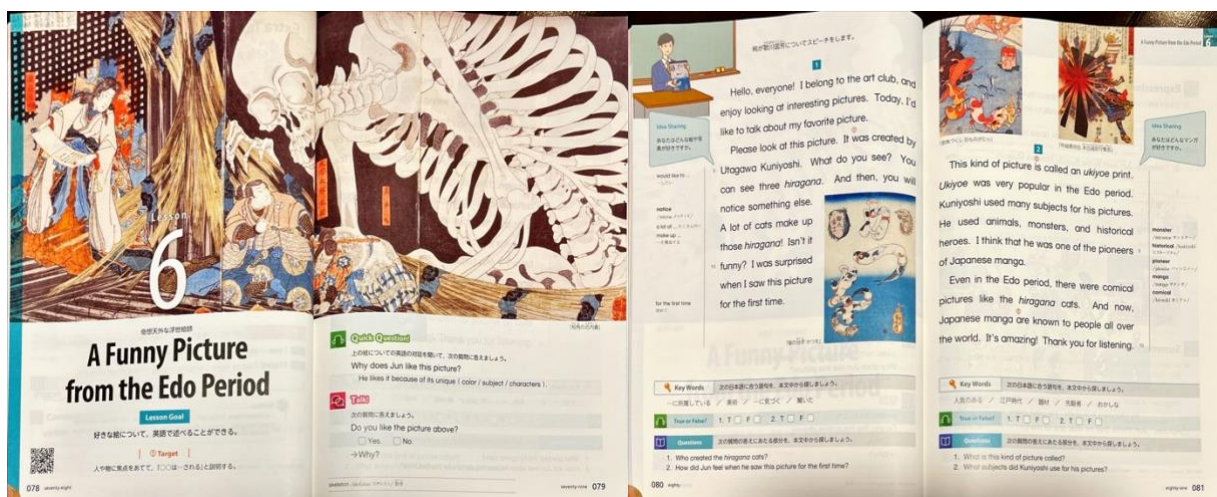


(‘A Train Driver in Sanriku’, All Aboard! 2022

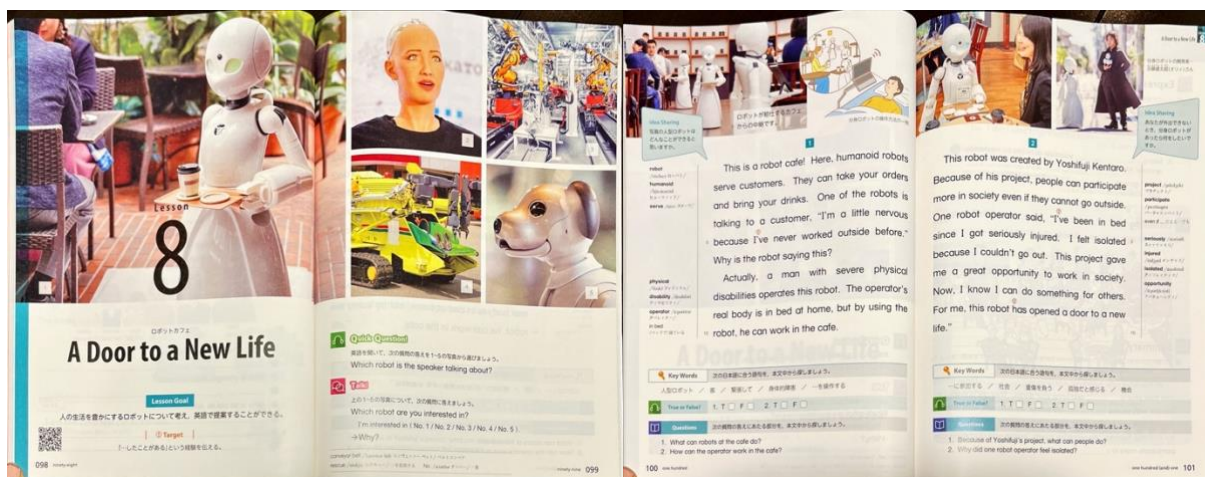
Top left text on p.40: “Seika Utsunomiya, a driver on the Sanriku Railway, talks about her job.”)



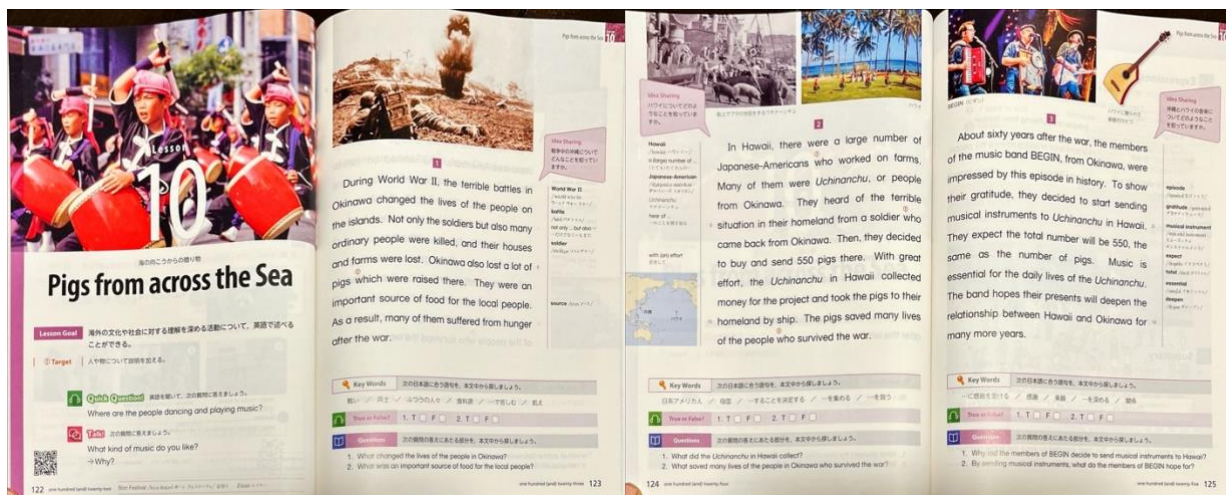
(‘Learning from the Sea’, All Aboard! 2022)



(‘A Funny Picture from the Edo Period’, All Aboard! 2022
Top text on p.80: “Sho gives a speech about Kuniyoshi Utawaga.”)

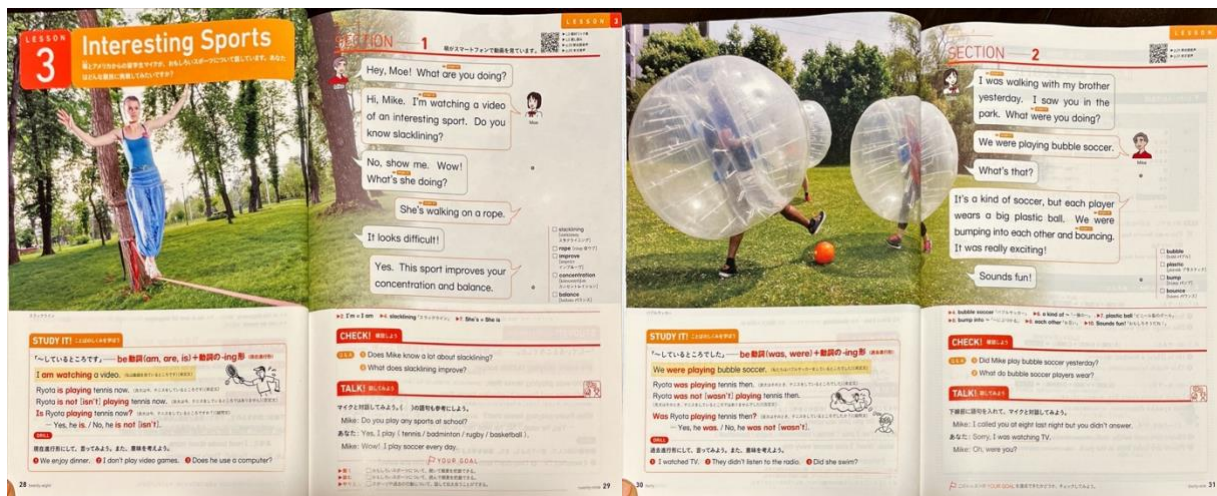


(‘A Door to a New Life’, All Aboard! 2022
Text in photo on p.100 left: “This is a live feed from a café where robots serve the food.”)



‘Pigs from across the Sea’, All Aboard! 2022)

Texts that do not mention specific countries include the unique text on sports, ‘Interesting Sports’ [Culture] the text on pictograms, ‘Pictograms’ [Public/Welfare], and ‘Artificial Intelligence’ [Science/Technology], a text about AI introducing an image of Doraemon at the beginning but otherwise not referring to a specific country. All of these texts have been adopted in the 2022 VISTA series.



‘Interesting Sports’, VISTA 2022

Beneath the title: “Moe and Mike, a student from the USA, talk about interesting sports. What sport would you like to try?”)





(‘Artificial Intelligence’, VISTA 2022

Beneath the title: “AI (Artificial Intelligence) is already an active part of our everyday lives. But can AI replace all human activities?”)

The year 2022 began shortly after the Tokyo Olympics and Paralympics had ended, so references to this major international event can be seen in the textbook.

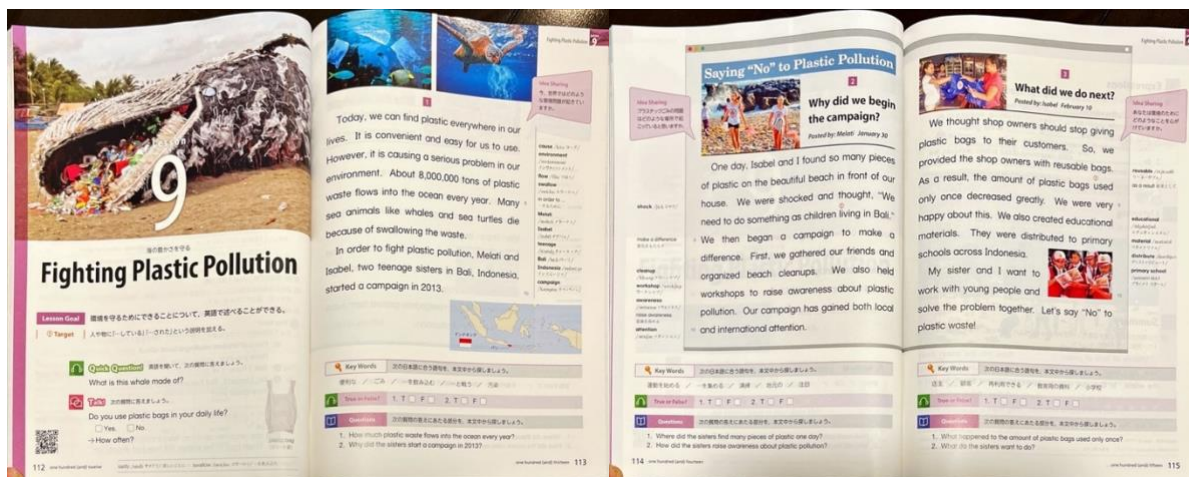
With regard to texts on environment/coexistence, in addition to the Japanese wildlife photographer's text and the Ehime Prefecture high school text cited above, there is also 'Ethical Fashion' from the VISTA series (on ethical fashion), and 'Fighting Plastic Pollution' from the All Aboard! series (about sisters in Bali, Indonesia, trying to reduce plastic waste). Both texts deal with issues outside Japan.



(‘Ethical Fashion’, VISTA 2022,

Beneath the title: “Fashion is an essential part of life. The clothes we casually wear may have an impact on all life on Earth, including humans”.

The photograph inserted on p.106 is of a factory in Bangladesh, and has a different atmosphere to the Japanese photographs inserted on p.104 and 108.)



(‘Fighting Plastic Pollution’, All Aboard! 2022)

7. Summary.

This section offers an overall discussion of this study and looks to future issues.

Firstly, although all the texts in the textbooks covered in this survey were supposed to be texts for first-year high school students, it was discovered over the course of this study that the volume and content of texts have changed significantly alongside changes in the Courses of Study. As a potential advanced research idea, the author would like to investigate what can be learnt from the study content of English textbooks, if the opportunity arises.

Reflecting on this research, it must be noted that this study was unable to refer to teacher's manuals or supplementary materials; as a result, it was unable to confirm the ideas and intentions of the textbook creators, which can be difficult to discern from textbooks with limited paper space. Moreover, as the number of teaching hours and learning content were reduced with the approach of the modern era, it is possible that the intentions of the textbook creators could not have been successfully grasped simply by reading the textbooks. Upon conclusion of this study, therefore, the author would like to suggest that future research should also focus on the background of textbook production.

Below is a summary of this paper's answer to the question, "Why has there been an increase in content about Japan in English textbooks?"

The answer, as it has emerged from this research, is that it is a consequence of a post-war regaining of confidence among Japanese people in Japan as a nation, and of the increased shaping of the Courses of Study to enforce nationalism. This last point may be related to the fact that the Courses of Study have always been revised under conservative regimes. The reinforcement of nationalism in the Courses of Study has not been limited to foreign languages, but, because foreign languages have the role of 'communicating Japan to the rest of the world', they tend inevitably to feature ideologies that Japan wishes to communicate to the rest of the world. All the topics relating to Japan present only positive (or victimised) content. In the war/peace section in particular, there is a noticeable focus on texts concerning what is happening in other countries, or the damage Japan has suffered in war. It appears to emphasise Japan's position as the victim, ignoring Japan's dual role as perpetrator. In addition, while critical material on other countries regarding racism and environmental issues has appeared in these textbooks, there is no material on those issues in Japan itself.

However, as it was not possible to survey textbooks from other countries in this study, it is not possible to say here that this trend is unique to Japan; the argument, according to Gotouda (1995), Suzuki (2000), Lin & Sakurai (2019) and Ye & Ishii (2019), that English textbooks from neighbouring countries such as China and Korea may more strongly promote nationalism than those from Japan, cannot be ruled out. It is regrettable that that research could not be carried out; however, it suggests an avenue for future study.

Japanese English textbooks are more difficult to investigate than textbooks in which nationalism comes more overly to the fore, as the progression of the strengthening of nationalism in them is less visible. For example, although the strengthening of nationalism in English textbooks progressed during the same time the Japanese history textbook issue was developing, the history textbook issue evolved into a controversy involving East Asian countries, whereas there was little said about English textbooks. In fact, the author of this thesis, who was educated in Japanese schools and studied English in Japan, was unaware that many Japanese English textbooks contained references to her own country until a friend from abroad pointed this out to her. If more awareness is not raised of the reinforcement of nationalism in Japanese English textbooks as a

hidden curriculum, there is a danger that active debate on English textbooks will not take place, and that textbooks that incite more nationalism will be created.

Again, and in conclusion, true international understanding requires an understanding of the negative as well as the positive aspects of things. However, it cannot be denied that Japanese English textbooks to date may make it difficult for students to learn about the negative aspects of Japan, as well as about countries and regimes with which it does not have strong relations. While it is good to be proud of one's own country, this pride should not fuel excessive nationalism. The author argues that English textbooks in Japan should be changed with these points in mind.

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Textbook materials

1970~	English B (Reading)	Publisher	Year of publication	Date of Textbook Approval	Textbook Adoption Rate
*1973	THE VISTA ENGLISH READERS I	Sanseido	1973/3/15	1972/4/10	2 nd (in estimation)
	NEW HORIZON English Readers I	Tokyo Shoseki	1973/2/10	1972/4/10	1 st (in estimation)
	THE VISTA ENGLISH READERS REVISED EDITION I	Sanseido	1976/3/30	1975/4/10	2 nd (in estimation)
	NEW HORIZON English Readers I REVISED EDITION	Tokyo Shoseki	1977/2/10	1975/4/10	1 st (in estimation)
	THE VISTA ENGLISH READERS THIRD EDITION I	Sanseido	1979/3/30	1978/3/31	2 nd (in estimation)
	NEW HORIZON English Readers I	Tokyo Shoseki	1979/2/10	1978/3/31	1 st (in estimation)
1978~	English I	Publisher	Year of publication	Date of Textbook Approval	Textbook Adoption Rate
*1982	THE VISTA ENGLISH SERIES I	Sanseido	1982/3/30	1981/3/31	1 st (15.6%)
	UNICORN ENGLISH COURSE I	Bun-eido	1982/2/25	1981/3/31	2 nd (13.65%)
	THE VISTA ENGLISH SERIES I Revised Edition	Sanseido	1985/3/30	1984/3/31	2 nd (8.47%)
	Revised UNICORN ENGLISH COURSE I	Bun-eido	1985/2/25	1984/3/31	1 st (11.23%)
	VISTA ENGLISH SERIES I	Sanseido	1988/3/30	1987/3/31	2 nd (8.23%)
	NEW EDITION UNICORN ENGLISH COURSE I	Bun-eido	1988/2/25	1987/3/31	1 st (11.57%)
	VISTA ENGLISH SERIES I Revised Edition	Sanseido	1991/3/30	1990/3/31	3 rd (6.47%)
	FOURTH EDITION UNICORN ENGLISH COURSE I	Bun-eido	1991/2/25	1990/3/31	1 st (10.7%)
1989~	English I	Publisher	Year of publication	Date of Textbook Approval	Textbook Adoption Rate
*1994	VISTA ENGLISH SERIES I	Sanseido	1994/3/30	1993/3/31	2 nd (7%)

	UNICORN ENGLISH COURSE I	Bun-eido	1994/2/25	1993/3/31	1 st (7.08%)
	VISTA ENGLISH SERIES I New Edition	Sanseido	1998/3/30	1997/2/28	2 nd (7.48%)
	NEW EDITION UNICORN ENGLISH COURSE I	Bun-eido	1998/2/25	1997/2/28	1 st (8.54%)
1999~	English I	Publisher	Year of publication	Date of Textbook Approval	Textbook Adoption Rate
*2003	VISTA English Series I	Sanseido	2003/3/30	2002/2/28	3 rd (6.93%)
	ALL Aboard! English I	Tokyo Shoseki	2003/2/10	2002/2/28	2 nd (7.02%)
	VISTA English Series I New Edition	Sanseido	2007/3/30	2006/3/9	5 th (5.42%)
	ALL Aboard! English I	Tokyo Shoseki	2007/2/10	2006/3/9	2 nd (7.67%)
2009~	Communication English I	Publisher	Year of publication	Date of Textbook Approval	Textbook Adoption Rate
*2013	VISTA English Communication I	Sanseido	2013/3/30	2012/1/25	1 st (11.73%)
	All Aboard! Communication English I	Tokyo Shoseki	2013/2/10	2012/1/25	2 nd (8.65%)
	VISTA English Communication I New Edition	Sanseido	2017/3/30	2016/3/17	3 rd (6.96%)
	All Aboard! English Communication I	Tokyo Shoseki	2017/2/10	2016/3/17	1 st (13.38%)
2017~	English Communication I	Publisher	Year of publication	Date of Textbook Approval	Textbook Adoption Rate
*2022	VISTA English Communication I	Sanseido	2022/3/30	2021/1/29	10 th (5%)
	All Aboard! English Communication I	Tokyo Shoseki	2022/2/10	2021/1/29	1 st (16%)

Historical transition of all country/region appearances in textbooks: 1973~2022

Name of Textbook	Year	Japan	US	UK/ Ireland	Australia/ New Zealand	Canada	Europe	Russia	Asia	Middle East	Africa	Latin America	Other	Total of Countries	None/ Unclear	Total of Lessons
VISTA	1973		6	4		3	1							14	6	15
	1976		6	5		2	2		1			1		17	6	15
	1979	1	5	4		2	3		1			1		17	6	15
	1982	6	6	3			7		2	1	1			26	8	25
	1985	7	6		1		5		3	1	2			25	8	25
	1988	9	8	3	2	1	5	1	2	3	2	1	1	38	7	26
	1991	9	8	3	2	1	5	1	3	3	2	1	1	39	7	26
	1994	9	4	4	2	1	4	1	7		3			35	8	28
	1998	10	5	4	2	1	4	1	6	2	2			35	7	28
	2003	17	4	3			1	1	6		3			35	7	25
	2007	16	4	3			1	1	8		1			34	6	24
	2013	18	7		1	1	7		4	2	1			41	5	28
	2017	19	6	1	1		8		4	1	1	3		44	5	28
	2022	18	7		2	2	6	2	5	2	2	4		50	3	22
Name of Textbook	Year	Japan	US	UK/ Ireland	Australia/ New Zealand	Canada	Europe	Russia	Asia	Middle East	Africa	Latin America	Other	Total of Countries	None/ Unclear	Total of Lessons
Horizon	1973		8	6			2							16	5	17
	1976		8	7			2				1			18	5	18
	1979		10	8			3							21	4	18
UNICORN	1982	5	16	8			8	1	1		1	1	1	42	0	17
	1985	5	16	8			7	1	2		2	1	1	43	0	17
	1988	8	15	8		1	6		1		3	1	1	44	1	19
	1991	8	16	8			4		1		3	2	1	43	1	19
	1994	12	14	5	2		4		1		2	2	1	43	0	15
	1998	7	11	2			7	2	5	1	2	3		40	0	15
All Aboard!	2003	10	8	6	3	1	2		5		1	2		38	6	24
	2007	14	11	5	1		3		5	1	3	1		44	4	26
	2013	22	10	1	5	4	3		1					46	1	28
	2017	18	6		3		2		3	1		1	1	35	4	26
	2022	17	6	3	3		1		2			2		34	3	27

Combined	Year	Japan	US	UK/ Ireland	Australia/ New Zealand	Canada	Europe	Russia	Asia	Middle East	Africa	Latin America	Other	Total of Countries	None/ Unclear	Total of Lessons
	1973	0	14	10	0	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	30	11	32
	1976	0	14	12	0	2	4	0	1	0	1	1	0	35	11	33
	1979	1	15	12	0	2	6	0	1	0	0	1	0	38	10	33
	1982	11	22	11	0	0	15	1	3	1	2	1	1	68	8	42
	1985	12	22	8	1	0	12	1	5	1	4	1	1	68	8	42
	1988	17	23	11	2	2	11	1	3	3	5	2	2	82	8	45
	1991	17	24	11	2	1	9	1	4	3	5	3	2	82	8	45
	1994	21	18	9	4	1	8	1	8	0	5	2	1	78	8	43
	1998	17	16	6	2	1	11	3	11	1	4	3	0	75	7	43
	2003	27	12	9	3	1	3	1	11	0	4	2	0	73	13	49
	2007	30	15	8	1	0	4	1	13	1	4	1	0	78	10	50
	2013	40	17	1	6	5	10	0	5	2	1	0	0	87	6	56
	2017	37	12	1	4	0	10	0	7	2	1	4	1	79	9	54
	2022	35	13	3	5	2	7	2	7	2	2	6	0	84	6	49
Percentage	Year	Japan	US	UK/ Ireland	Australia/ New Zealand	Canada	Europe	Russia	Asia	Middle East	Africa	Latin America	Other			
	1973	0	43.75	31.25	0	9.375	9.375	0	0	0	0	0	0			
	1976	0	42.43	36.36	0	6.06	12.12	0	3.03	0	3.03	3.03	0			
	1979	3.03	45.45	36.36	0	6.06	18.18	0	3.03	0	0	3.03	0			
	1982	26.19	52.38	26.19	0	0	35.71	2.38	7.14	2.38	4.76	2.38	2.38			
	1985	28.57	52.38	19.05	2.38	0	28.58	2.38	11.9	2.38	9.52	2.38	2.38			
	1988	37.78	51.11	24.44	4.44	4.44	24.44	2.22	6.67	6.67	11.11	4.44	4.44			
	1991	37.78	53.33	24.44	4.44	2.22	20	2.22	8.89	6.67	11.11	6.67	4.44			
	1994	48.84	41.86	20.93	9.3	2.33	18.6	2.33	18.6	0	11.63	4.65	2.33			
	1998	39.53	37.2	13.95	4.65	2.33	25.58	6.977	25.58	2.33	9.3	6.98	0			
	2003	55.1	24.49	18.37	6.12	2.04	6.12	2.04	22.45	0	8.16	4.08	0			
	2007	60	30	16	2	0	8	2	26	2	8	2	0			
	2013	71.43	30.36	1.79	10.71	8.93	17.86	0	8.93	3.57	1.79	0	0			
	2017	68.52	22.22	1.85	7.4	0	18.52	0	12.96	3.7	1.85	7.4	1.85			
	2022	71.43	26.53	6.12	10.2	4.08	14.29	4.082	14.29	4.08	4.08	12.24	0			

Historical transition of main countries/regions appearing in textbooks: 1973~2022

Name of Textbook	Year	Japan	United States	UK/Ireland	Australia/New Zealand	Canada	Europe	Russia	Asia	Middle East	Africa	Latin America	Other	Total	Total of Main Lessons
VISTA	1973		6	2		2	1							11	15
	1976		5	3		2	1							11	15
	1979	1	4	2		2	2							11	15
	1982	1	2	3			5		1	1				13	20
	1985	3	1		1		3		2	1	1			12	20
	1988	6	6	1	1		1		1		1			17	16
	1991	6	6	1	1		1		1		1			17	16
	1994	3	3	3	2	1	3		4		3			22	16
	1998	3	4	3	2	1	3		3		2			21	16
	2003	12	2	1			1		2		1			19	12
	2007	11	2	1			1		3					18	12
	2013	9	4				4		2	1	1		1	22	12
	2017	9	4	1			5		2		1	2		24	12
	2022	10	4				5					2	1	22	10
Name of Textbook	Year	Japan	United States	UK/Ireland	Australia/New Zealand	Canada	Europe	Russia	Asia	Middle East	Africa	Latin America	Other	Total	Total of Main Lessons
Horizon	1973		5	3			1							9	12
	1976		5	4			1				1			11	13
	1979		6	5										11	12
UNICORN	1982	5	14	7			3	1	1		1	1	1	34	14
	1985	5	14	6			2	1	2		2	1	1	34	14
	1988	6	13	5		1	1		1		2	1	1	31	13
	1991	6	13	6		1	1		1		2	2	1	33	13
	1994	12	12	5	1		1		1		1	2	1	36	12
	1998	4	6	2					1			1		14	12
All Aboard!	2003	8	1	2	3	1	1		3		1	1		21	10
	2007	4	2	2	1		2		3		3			17	10
	2013	10	4	1	2	2	2		1				1	23	11
	2017	7	2		1		2		2			1	2	17	10
	2022	6	3	2	1		0		2			1		15	10

Item	Year	Japan	United States	UK/ Ireland	Australia/ New Zealand	Canada	Europe	Russia	Asia	Middle East	Africa	Latin America	Other	Total	Total of Main Lessons
Combined	1973	0	11	5	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	27
	1976	0	10	7	0	2	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	22	28
	1979	1	10	7	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	22	27
	1982	6	16	10	0	0	8	1	2	1	1	1	1	47	34
	1985	8	15	6	1	0	5	1	4	1	3	1	1	46	34
	1988	12	19	6	1	1	2	0	2	0	3	1	1	48	29
	1991	12	19	7	1	1	2	0	2	0	3	2	1	50	29
	1994	15	15	8	3	1	4	0	5	0	4	2	1	58	28
	1998	7	10	5	2	1	3	0	4	0	2	1	0	35	28
	2003	20	3	3	3	1	2	0	5	0	2	1	0	40	22
	2007	15	4	3	1	0	3	0	6	0	3	0	0	35	22
	2013	19	8	1	2	2	6	0	3	1	1	0	2	45	23
	2017	16	6	1	1	0	7	0	4	0	1	3	2	41	22
	2022	16	7	2	1	0	5	0	2	0	0	3	1	37	20
Percentage	Year	Japan	United States	UK/ Ireland	Australia/ New Zealand	Canada	Europe	Russia	Asia	Middle East	Africa	Latin America	Other		
	1973	0	40.74	18.52	0	7.4	7.4	0	0	0	0	0	0		
	1976	0	35.71	25	0	7.14	7.14	0	0	0	3.57	0	0		
	1979	3.7	37.04	25.93	0	7.41	7.41	0	0	0	0	0	0		
	1982	17.65	47.06	29.41	0	0	23.53	2.94	5.88	2.94	2.94	2.94	2.94		
	1985	23.53	44.12	17.65	2.94	0	14.71	2.94	11.76	2.94	8.82	2.94	2.94		
	1988	41.38	65.52	20.69	3.45	3.45	6.9	0	6.9	0	10.34	3.45	3.45		
	1991	41.38	65.52	24.14	3.45	3.45	6.9	0	6.9	0	10.34	6.9	3.45		
	1994	53.57	53.57	28.57	10.71	3.57	14.29	0	17.86	0	14.29	7.14	3.57		
	1998	25	35.71	17.86	7.14	3.57	10.71	0	14.29	0	7.14	3.57	0		
	2003	90.9	13.64	13.64	13.64	4.55	9.09	0	22.73	0	9.09	4.55	0		
	2007	68.18	18.18	13.64	4.55	0	13.64	0	27.27	0	13.64	0	0		
	2013	82.61	34.78	4.35	8.7	8.7	26.09	0	13.04	4.35	4.35	0	8.7		
	2017	72.73	27.27	4.55	4.55	0	31.82	0	18.18	0	4.55	13.64	9.09		
	2022	80	35	10	5	0	25	0	10	0	0	15	5		