

## Chapter 1

## Review of the Literature

The literature search for this thesis examined five areas related to curriculum development in Japanese studies. Materials presently available for teaching about Japan were identified and the extent of Japanese studies in North America was determined. The issue of ethnocentrism in curricular materials was investigated with particular attention to its impact on Japanese studies resources. This led to an examination of the dependency of teachers on curricular materials. The role of textbooks and curriculum guides has been crucial in determining where teachers are most likely to get their data for learning and teaching about Japan. The importance of textbooks necessitated a search for a valid and reliable system for analysing and evaluating texts. Finally, the question of the degree to which the perceptions of interested public individuals should influence curriculum development in Japanese studies was examined.

The increasing political, economic and social interest in Pacific Asia has been reflected in a growth of curricular materials devoted to Japan. Bullard (1986) points out that "the period of the 70s and on into the 80s has seen the development and use of many good social studies instructional materials suitable for teaching about Asia at several grade levels" (p. 374). Bullard further notes that although Stanford University of California has been recognized for some time as a leader in the preparation of materials on Japan, at least a dozen universities in the United States have established centres for Japanese studies. Moreover many have expressed interest in the strengthening of Asian curriculum within schools.

Even more significant perhaps has been the development of curricular materials dealing with Japan through such agencies as the Asia Society of New York. This process began during the mid-70s when the Society evaluated textbooks devoted to Asia. In the decade since, a noticeable change has been reported in the number and quality of texts on Asia (Bullard, 1986). In 1987 the growth was summarized by the Council of Chief State School Officers which published a 429-page resource guide for teaching and learning about Japan.

The development of materials in Canada has not proceeded as rapidly as in the United States but, recent publications are indicative of a growth in Japanese materials. For example, in the fall of 1976 the Joint Centre on Modern East Asia at the University of Toronto established an Education Liaison Programme which served as a link between Metropolitan Toronto area schools, the university, and community experts on East Asia. In May 1977 it produced a classroom unit on China, followed by a unit dealing with Japan in 1978. By the late 1970s the Association for Japanese Culture in Scarborough, Ontario had made available copies of local but extensive curriculum units on Japan, prepared for elementary and junior high school students under the supervision of The Board of Education for the City of Hamilton and The Board of Education for the Borough of Etobicoke. Finally, in 1985 T.V. Ontario produced a curriculum guide to be used with the Japan segment of "It's Your World," a television series in social and environmental studies for Grades 4 to 6.

In British Columbia developments have been slower. Tomkins (1986) pointed out that in the area of language training Spanish and German remained the most popular non-official languages well into the 1970s

despite British Columbia's growing trade links with the Pacific world. However, by 1986 the B.C. Ministry of Education had recognized the importance of Asian language training by publishing a Japanese language curriculum guide for Grade 9 and 10 and Beginning 11 Japanese. This guide emphasized cultural as well as linguistic education in as much as it declared that "culture is considered an integral part of the language experience and is either to be introduced incidentally in a linguistic setting or set apart as a unit for study" (p. 5).

In social studies the increased emphasis on Asia, detailed in the British Columbia Social Studies Curriculum Guide - Grades 5-11, 1985, has resulted in the production of specific Japanese units and publications. Japan - A Unit of Study (Crawford, 1985) has been widely distributed through the Consulate-General of Japan in Vancouver. Most recently, Pacific Education Press of the University of British Columbia has published a text, Japan Nearby (1987) which presents the most recent data on Japan including a section on Canadians in Japan and Japanese in Canada.

In October 1987, the Ministry of Education for the province of British Columbia announced a 12-million-dollar initiative to encourage and develop education on the Pacific Rim. As part of the plan the core social studies curriculum (Grades 4-11) will be upgraded to place a greater stress on the Pacific Rim. As explained by the Ministry of Education Discussion Paper (1987), teacher and student materials will be produced and teacher inservice will be provided.

Despite the increase in the production and publication of curricular materials on Japan, research on Japanese studies in schools and textbooks dealing with Japan has been limited. The most extensive

and often-quoted study has been the Japan/United States Textbook Study Project (1981). This investigation provided a comprehensive overview of the treatment of each country in the textbooks of the other. Results indicated that there are distinct differences in the textbooks but, that the treatment of each other's country is generally accurate, and that the texts vary in vocabulary, substance, and accuracy. It was recommended that both countries pay more attention to scholarship in the preparation of texts. In addition, specific interest groups like the Asia Society of New York have conducted systematic evaluations of materials. In 1976 they examined 300 textbooks for Asian content and quality. As mentioned earlier, Bullard (1986) reports that the results indicated three main approaches to the study of Asia in textbooks: Western-centered, progress-centered, and Asia-centered (p. 368).

Beyond these wide-reaching studies, narrower investigations have occurred such as Peterson's 1985 survey of the current practice of teaching about East Asia in North Dakota secondary schools. He found that Japan and China were the most common nations studied and that textbooks were the dominant medium utilized. In Canada research has been even more limited. Only one study has emerged, that of Thomas (1985) who conducted a study to identify the extent of Japanese studies in the Canadian social studies curriculum. He concluded that the treatment of Japan in the Canadian social studies curriculum varies substantially by province.

Beyond these examples, the indexes reveal a paucity of research in Japanese studies. However, the questions for research exist. Bullard (1986) expressed concern about the accuracy of impression of Asian studies units or frameworks. She asked, "What are the frameworks that

recur in our textbooks? In what respects do they contribute to clarity and understanding and in what respects do they perpetuate myths and distort reality? What modifications do we need in such frameworks?" (p. 367). In British Columbia, similar concerns are echoed from a wider perspective. The British Columbia Social Studies Assessment - Student Achievement and Views in Social Studies (1977), found that Grade 12 students showed the lowest level of performance ability of all school children on questions related to world culture. Accepting that the findings indicated a possible weakness in the area, the report suggested that curricular revisions in the world culture domain be accompanied by investigation of other aspects of intercultural education (p. 82).

The documented evidence above indicates that the preparation and presentation of materials on Japan and all of Asia is increasing, and as a result, questions are being raised about the quality and value of these materials. However, because the field is relatively new, serious research has not been extensively undertaken. More serious studies will undoubtedly follow. This paper can contribute new data to the emerging field.

To do this it was first necessary to identify specific areas of concern in Asian and Japanese materials presently available. One of the criticisms levelled by Bullard (1986) regarding Asian content in curriculum is that it is often fragmented and lacking historical continuity. This was evident in the British Columbia Social Studies Curriculum Guide (1985) where historical Japan is specifically mentioned in Grade 8 but not in Grade 9. The Japan/U.S. Textbook Study Project echoed this concern in its final report stating that, "most

U.S. history textbooks put too much emphasis on some specific period of Japanese history, neglecting the continuity of Japanese history such as the modernization process of Japan and Japanese ancient culture" (p. 547). This fragmented and sparse nature of Japanese studies as Bullard (1986) pointed out, leads to an inadequate understanding of Japanese culture by students in the United States.

Thomas' study (1985) reflected a similar problem in Canadian schools. Despite the gradual increase and availability of materials, Thomas found that the treatment of Japan varied substantially from province to province and in one province the study of Japan is not required at all. He noted that the economic factors underlying Japan's growth are important for students to study but notes that, "they need to be considered more deeply at the appropriate places in the social studies curriculum of the various Canadian provinces" (p. 5). His conclusion from all the social studies guidelines analysed from the provincial ministries of education in Canada was that, "the study of Japan tends to be generally understated in our provincial social studies curriculums" (p. 5-6).

This fragmentation and sparseness of Japanese studies in secondary curriculum has been due in part to the ethnocentrism of social studies curricula in North America. Cortes and Fleming (1986) noted that the 1979 Revision of the NCSS (National Council for the Social Studies) Social Studies Curriculum alluded to this problem in declaring that "the real social world varies greatly among people and places, yet classroom experiences often create a misleading impression of cultural uniformity. Many students come to view the world with knowledge drawn almost entirely from western and middle-class traditions" (p. 340).

The entrenched nature of ethnocentrism in curricula and curriculum material in the United States has been confirmed by many studies. In the mid-70s the Asia Society of New York study referred to earlier evaluated three hundred textbooks for Asian content. Findings showed that most employed a western-centered approach (75% in the study of Asia (p. 303). Karen R. Mock (1983) in a similar study in Canada, pointed out that "the content of the curriculum in many cases is virtually dominated by the majority culture, usually represented by the teacher and several children in the class" (p. 89).

Ethnocentrism in textbook publishing has always been identified as a problem in social studies education. In a 1984 article Kline stated that,

the contents of textbooks are grounded in a White Anglo-Saxon Protestant tradition because of the major role England assumed in the European settlement of America. Much of the controversy today is a struggle between those who wish to preserve that influence and those who wish to pursue a broader course (p. 231).

Ethnocentrism is particularly evident in the frameworks wherein Asian studies are pursued. Bullard (1986) reported that, "the Asian portions of current social studies textbooks tend to be Western-centered in their approach to politics and economics". (p. 370). To be fair, Japanese curricula also are characterized by ethnocentrism in terms of teaching national history (Becker, 1983), although as in the U.S., to a lesser degree in materials relating to world history and geography.

On the Canadian scene, Tomkins' book, A Common Countenance: Stability and Change in the Canadian Curriculum (1986), thoroughly examined Canadian curriculum change and development over the last century. Ethnocentrism has been evident from the beginning. Tomkins

noted that concern about Canadian identity in the curriculum has been recurrent from Confederation at the expense of other cultures. It was not until the 1970s that multiculturalism became a significant curriculum initiative. By the 1980s the problem had at least been recognized. As Tomkins points out, a 1979-80 survey by the Council of Ministers sought to widen the perspective of social studies to include other cultural perspectives and set the tone for what should be in social studies curricula in Canada. It described the major goal as being "to provide students with the knowledge, skills, values and thought processes which will enable them to participate effectively and responsibly in the ever-changing environment of their community, their country and their world" (p. 399). As a result, Tomkins reported that every province attempted to eliminate bias from textbooks and to provide materials appropriate to immigrant and other minority groups.

The problem of ethnocentrism in curricular materials underscores the importance of textbooks in curricular decision making. In 1978, Eash and Rasher wrote that, "instructional materials represent a major time commitment for students since 80 percent of a student's classroom hours are spent engaging materials" (p. 4). In the same year an American survey of 13,000 K-12 teachers found that they used instructional materials, print and nonprint, during 90-95% of their instructional time (Educational Products Information Exchange, 1978). It should also be noted that as students progress through school, the percentage of time that students interact with materials probably increases. Ball (1981) pointed out that as students reach high school, homework assignments--which typically involve study of curriculum materials--generally become longer (p. 11).



Not only are students heavily engaged with texts, teachers often structure their instruction according to the textual framework (Massialas and Cox, 1966; Warming and Baber, 1980). Moreover, teachers tend to rely on prestructured and organized materials from texts as sources of information and the main source is the prescribed textbook (Kelly, 1971; Palmer, 1966; Tomkins, 1965). Tomkins (1986) surveyed teachers' use of texts and other curricular materials as socializing agents and noted that teachers have tended to adhere "slavishly" to them (p. 330). Hodgetts (1968) reported that 90% of the classes he observed in a study unquestionably followed the textbook and that recitation of the textbook was the preferred teaching mode. An article by Luke, DeCastell, and Luke (1983) substantiated these findings. Finally, David Olson (1983) stated that "texts are not only taken as true but also as having authority" (p. 130).

The dependency on texts and other prepared curricular materials is clearly evident in studies related to teaching about Japan and Asia. For example, a 1985 survey detailing the current practice of teaching about East Asia in North Dakota schools found that the textbook was the dominant medium utilized (Peterson, 1985). Bullard (1986) noted that with the emerging interest in teaching about Asia, teachers or curriculum developers often undertake curricular responsibilities for which they are officially licensed but insufficiently prepared. Consequently, "for teaching and learning about Asia, the textbook and related materials assume decisive importance, indeed, they function as the primary source and key determining factor of what is actually taught" (p. 367). As mentioned before, the Japan/U.S. textbook study

project emphasized the importance of textbooks in classrooms in both Japan and the United States. In referring directly to the impact of texts on learning about Japan, Becker (1983) concluded that:

Recent events in Japan and the U.S. certainly support the contention that social studies textbooks play an important role in both country's educational systems. Textbooks are important because they largely determine what children in school will be taught about their own and other countries as well as about the world. Although television may well be the preferred curriculum of children in Japan and the United States, the textbook remains the single most important source of information in most classrooms. Furthermore, children are expected to learn much of what the textbook presents, thus, it must be considered the primary source of information for most students. A recent survey in the U.S. indicates that 90 percent of high school teachers use the textbook as the principle source of information for their course. (p. 563)

The above survey revealed a strong European ethnocentric slant to curricular materials and the use of the textbook as the primary teaching instrument in social studies education. The studies quoted make it clear that teachers depend on textbooks and other curricular materials to such a degree that an evaluation of these materials is crucial to an understanding of Japanese studies. This evaluation requires an understanding of the techniques used to evaluate texts and other curricular materials. A valid and reliable method of textbook evaluation for Japanese content is an important step in the process that has as its goal the promotion of effective teaching about Japan.

In this process of evaluation, both Pratt (1980) and Gall (1981) have suggested that a crucial step in assessing need is the formulation of desired characteristics to serve as criteria in evaluating materials. Pratt especially recommends approaching a wide range of outside individuals who have special knowledge on the topic as one step

in the development and evaluation process of curricular materials (p. 78). The Educational Products Information Exchange (EPIE) Institute Report No. 54, 1973 further supported the initial step of establishing criteria. It recommended as a first step, in selection and evaluation of materials, "a systematic statement of criteria, co-operatively developed" (p. 10). The EPIE is a consortium formed for the purpose of researching and preparing instruments for selecting materials for curricula. A similar project developed in Canada, The Canadian Exchange for Instructional Materials Analysis (1987) provided a format for describing the relationship between curriculum design and materials. This format is used by the Ministry of Education in British Columbia. The Canadian Exchange for Instructional Materials Analysis provides for descriptive information about the curriculum design of learning resources.

Although descriptive formats and evaluative criteria were useful, the need for a systematic framework of textbook analysis remained. However, as Tillotson (1982) pointed out there continued to exist a paucity of published work on formal classification schemes. Consequently, his work has been valuable in summarizing and assessing the most prevalent methods of evaluation of curricular material. Tillotson analysed 23 approaches to assessing learning materials and then classified these approaches into five categories: checklists, weighted rating scales, annotative questionnaires, combination instruments, and aesthetic responses (p. 16). Because he used his analysis to develop an approach to the selection of resources for elementary social studies in British Columbia, his work deserves careful attention for this study.

Tillotson's checklist method required a simple checkmark response or "yes/no" answer to a set of questions about the textbook. It has proved simple to use but may be insufficiently incisive, particularly for content analysis. Another method that Tillotson described was the weighted rating scale type of instrument, basically a modified checklist method in which a letter, number or symbol was used to denote the level or quality of a particular topic according to a specified criteria. Aoki, Williams, and Wilson (1977) provided this example of the weighted rating scale type of instrument for the use of social studies teachers in British Columbia to use in examining prescribed textbooks.

Challenges students to think \_\_\_\_\_

Is interesting to students \_\_\_\_\_

Fits with course outline \_\_\_\_\_

Has appropriate reading level \_\_\_\_\_

Code: (1) Poor (2) Unsatisfactory (3) Satisfactory

(4) Good (5) Excellent

(Assessment, 1977, Vol. 3, part 2, Table 2-44, p. 55)

Tillotson pointed out, however, that one of the major disadvantages of the weighted type of instrument was the lack of provision for comments about the material (p. 21). Annotative analysis supposedly overcame this difficulty. In this approach the evaluator used his own words to explain in detail how the materials under examination met the

criteria established in the initial stage of the process. The annotative type had the advantage of allowing the evaluator in-depth analysis and careful explanation of rationale. By providing an initial set of common criteria some degree of objectivity was maintained.

However, there are disadvantages to annotative evaluation. The lengthy report, common with the annotative style, required considerable commitment of time. Moreover, evaluators inevitably responded to suggested criteria from their own perspective. Therefore "objectivity" was compromised. This is a problem in virtually all types of evaluation schemes. However, in the annotative system the criteria questions or statements are typically open-ended and not as specific as in other types and thus the objectivity problem is greater.

Finally, Tillotson described the combination type of evaluation which combines elements of the checklist, rating scale, and annotative schemes. For example, an evaluator could assess the stated criteria on a five-point scale but, then in addition, write annotative comments. As Tillotson concluded,

The major strength of the combination instruments results from the use of up to three types of analyses on one textbook, thus allowing for the speed and objectivity of checklist and rating scales, but also retaining some of the in-depth comments of annotative responses (p. 27).

The disadvantage is that rating scales and annotations are different types of measurement and could cause confusion for the analyst particularly when applied to diverse subject areas.

The assessment techniques discussed above provide data on general evaluative frameworks. However, it is necessary to identify specific analysis criteria for the framework. One technique for identifying such criteria is through the use of outside individuals knowledgeable on the

topic under evaluation. The degree to which interested "publics" should have an impact on curriculum is a critical question. Tomkins' book mentioned earlier, A Common Countenance (1986) provided background on this question by serving as an excellent resource on the history of Canadian curriculum development. In the late 1950s and early 1960s Tomkins noted a shift in curriculum development from careful analysis and rational methods to an era of significant student, teacher and parent involvement in policy-making through well-organized interest groups. The extent to which education became everybody's business was evident through the proliferation of royal commissions on Canadian education. There were five commissions in 1959-60 alone. These commissions provided a direct link for public groups and individuals to influence curriculum development. Tomkins concluded that at the very least they represented a raising of public consciousness about education and what should and should not be taught. Friesen and Holdaway (1973) analysed their perception of the curriculum debate in Canadian education in the 1970s. They argued that curriculum development was an activity that should involve teachers, provincial departmental staff, and outside experts.

The impact of public awareness and involvement is perhaps best epitomized by the proliferation of texts and other curriculum materials produced and distributed by outside groups. Public and corporate agencies have produced their own materials which have been jettisoned into the classroom as total curriculum packages. The Canadian Cancer Foundation, the Canadian Forestry Association and British Columbia Hydro have all produced large quantities of materials. Government departments and agencies such as External Affairs, the National Museums

of Canada and the CBC have all been involved in producing and distributing curriculum materials. Tomkins reports that in 1980 the Deputy Minister of Education in British Columbia speculated that other ministries and outside agencies were collectively spending more money on curriculum development than was his own (p. 412).

In 1979 Werner's Curriculum Canada, (1979) which included a status report on curriculum research and development in Canada at that time. Bonneau, writing about Manitoba, noted a greater involvement of the community in its schools and in the decisions on what is to be taught and to whom, resulting in the development of school programs sensitive to the need of the specific educational environment. In Saskatchewan, Johnson reported that the Minister of Education had a lay advisory committee focusing on broad curriculum issues and lay representatives sitting on some program development committees. Further, Department Steering Committees included representation from the business and labour sectors and cultural and patriotic groups. For Alberta, Krawchenko, Paradis, Sommerfeld, and van Manen recognized a strong political factor in curriculum development and stated that, "popular demand initiates new curriculum" (p. 117). The more recent Assessment of Social Studies in Manitoba, 1983-84, detailed the establishment of a Joint Committee on Evaluation which lists as a term of reference: "providing for the consideration of public, institutional and organizational concerns and providing for the reflection of these recommended patterns and procedures" (p. 16).

The most thorough effort to include public input into curriculum development occurred in British Columbia in 1977. At that time the Ministry of Education for British Columbia sponsored an assessment of

B.C. social studies to discern the viewpoints of public groups concerning the nature of social studies. The introduction clearly acknowledges that the report presupposes, that there is a place for public expression of opinion in school programs. The public in this report represented four distinct groups of which the general public constituted one. The report pointed out that: "viewpoints become evaluative information that can assist those involved in making decisions concerning the direction and nature of social studies programs" (p. 1).

The conclusions of this thorough assessment supported a role for public involvement but recognized the relatively new impact of public suggestions. It concluded that, "there was general agreement that teachers, students, and parents should be jointly involved in decisions concerning social studies curriculum" (p. 101).

The question of the value and objectivity of this public involvement swings from strong support to condemnation. Tomkins pointed out that in a period of budget restraint such as has been the case in British Columbia in the 1980s, attractive, well organized and often free packages have become more popular. But Tomkins concluded that a clear need exists to document the extent and impact of such materials (p. 413). The 1977 British Columbia social studies assessment cautioned that:

The apparent interest by all publics in acknowledging the notion of point of view in social studies programs emphasizes the need for further conceptual and empirical research regarding the publics' various views, and how such views are best incorporated into such programs (p. 100).

Wilson reassessed the 1977 British Columbia Social Studies assessment in an article in 1984. He corroborated the original



conclusions by reaffirming that "there is always a need for professional and public participation in the assessment process" (p. 32).

Continued public involvement in future curriculum decisions was suggested by a national forum of post secondary education held in Saskatoon in October, 1987. Business leaders and labor spokesmen and community activists joined academic representatives in discussing the future of education into the 21st Century in Canadian post secondary institutions.

Evidence of public involvement in an area as specific as Asian or Japanese studies is more difficult to identify. This is because growth in this field is so recent. However, the limited literature available gives a clear message. The Japan/U.S. Textbook Study Project recommended the use of experts on Japan as opposed to or in conjunction with curriculum developers in preparing materials (p. 546). They note that the emphasis on the aesthetics of textbook production, lavish illustrations for example, results in a failure to consult proper content experts.

Bullard (1986) commended Beers' book, World History, Patterns of Civilization, for drawing upon area specialists for each global region. Bullard recognized this approach as making a substantial contribution to school-level study of Asia.

The new junior secondary text referred to earlier focusing on Japan, Japan Nearby, (1987), published by the Faculty of Education of the University of British Columbia, was the first book in a series developed through international curriculum development. It was a result of cooperation between three countries in the Pacific Rim, Canada,

Japan, and Australia, and a project of the Pacific Circle Consortium for Education. Anastasiou, who wrote the foreword to the book, confirmed that numerous outside resource individuals were consulted in the preparation of the text (personal communication, September 24, 1987). Beyond educational experts, the opinions of business and government leaders were solicited for the content of the book.

The accumulated information from the review of literature provided direction for this study on Japanese studies curriculum development. Textbooks and other curricular materials on Japan are increasing. However, it is noted that this growth has not been accompanied by research. The basis of establishing Japanese content and assessing quality has not been exhaustively examined. These questions become even more critical when it is recognized that a large percentage of curricular materials are ethnocentric. Further, the almost total dependency of students and teachers on textbooks and other prestructured curricular resources suggests that more research into the quality and content of Japanese studies materials is mandatory.

The research focus for this study attempts to address the above concerns. British Columbia high-school social studies textbooks were analysed to determine Japanese content. Recognizing the paucity but importance of research examining the perceptions of interested publics, this study included the solicitation of opinions from interested and knowledgeable public individuals. The opinions of these people, all of whom were familiar with Japan, served as the criteria for textbook assessment. The system of analysis was based on an adaptation of the Canadian Exchange for Instructional Materials Analysis (1987) annotative evaluation system utilized by the British Columbia Ministry of Education for social studies textbooks.