CURRENT STUDIES IN THE SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY OF EDUCATION IN JAPAN

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Abstract We review the current "Social Psychological Studies of Education" which have been published in Japan during the past ten years. It covers the areas of (1) studies of teachers, (2) studies concerning students or pupils, and (3) studies of schools, community, and society. These studies suggest that a certain level of advancement has been made in these fields and in the cooperation between researchers and teachers/administrators for greater understanding of the different educational phenomena.

Key words: Social-educational psychology in Japan; teacher's influence; teacher's perception of students; human relations of students; refusal to attend school; bullying at school.

1. Introduction

The present paper reviews the current "social psychological studies of education" which have been published or reported in Japan during the past ten years and in addition gives an overview on the current trends in this research field. It attempts to cover the areas of: (1) studies of teachers (teachers' leadership, influences, traits and training, etc.), (2) studies concerning students (human relations among students, students' perception of teachers, etc.), (3) studies of schools, community, and society (bullying in the schools, refusal to attend school, cross cultural studies, interaction with different cultures, etc.). To prepare the present article, we referred to relevant review articles published in The Annual Report of Educational Psychology in Japan (1986-1995), edited and published by The Japanese Association of Educational Psychology. Among these articles, we have referred particularly to papers published by Aikawa (1989), Araragi (1990), Kojou (1992), Osada (1986), Sakurai (1993), Shirakashi (1988), Suzuki (1994), Takeshita (1987), Yamamoto (1994), and Yoshida (1994). These papers mainly cover the recent significant social psychological studies on education in Japan. Also we referred to some articles published on Advances in Child Development (Kaneko-Shobou, Tokyo).

Before starting the main subjects, we describe very briefly the present state of Japanese school education. The percentages of all children attending school are 63.5% (kindergarten), 99.9% (primary and junior high school; compulsory education), 96.5% (senior high school), and 43.3% (university or college, including junior colleges). Many Japanese children go to a "Jyuku" (a private tutoring school) after school or on holidays. Also many Japanese school children attend private institutes to study piano, ballet, calligraphy, etc. The percentages of students attending such institutes are 78.6% of primary school students and 29.3% junior high school (The Japanese Minister of Education, 1993).

Also, Japanese children are highly motivated and under a great deal of pressure from their parents who wish to send their children to a prestigious school. In order to pass the entrance examination to a "good" university, many senior high school graduates spend one year or more in extra study simply preparing for the exams. Among all the freshmen who pass the exam and enter college or junior college, the average

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percentage of students who have graduated from senior high school in the same academic year is 64.3%, that of persons who graduated one year previously is 26.1%, two years previously is 5.8%, three years prior to entrance is 2.2% (The Japanese Minister of Education 1991). For the students who failed the entrance examination, there are many “Yobikou” or cram schools all over Japan. The number of the students presently attending a Yobikou totals about 190,000 (Sekiguchi, 1993).

2. Studies Concerning Teachers

(1) Teachers' Influence

Misumi, Yoshizaki, and Shinohara (1977) and Misumi and Yamori (1989) tried to measure the leadership behavior of Japanese teachers at primary schools and junior high schools based on Misumi's (1985) leadership \( P(e) \) (performance)-\( M(aintenance) \) theory (Misumi & Peterson, 1985). According to the \( P-M \) theory hypothesis, the leadership pattern that had the greatest effect on group productivity and members' satisfaction in a wide range of different group-task situations, is supposed to be the so-called “PM” (strong in \( P \)-function and \( M \)-function) pattern, and the least effective pattern is supposed to be the “pm” (weak both in \( P \)-function and \( M \)-function) one. Matsubara (1990) analyzed the relationship between leadership behavior of teachers who manage club activities at Japanese junior high schools and the performance of the respective clubs during one academic year. The leadership behaviors of teachers were described by teachers themselves using \( P-M \) leadership measures. This study proves that the most effective leadership pattern in terms of club performance is not the \( P \)M pattern, but the “\( P \)” (strong in \( P \)-function and weak in \( M \)-function) pattern. Misumi and his colleagues used descriptions by students or subordinates, however Matsubara uses the self description of teachers. These differences in research method may have had an influence on the difference in the results among these studies.

Okahisa (1987), and Okahisa and Shirakashi (1988) found that the correlation between verbal IQ and academic achievement in English of Japanese senior high school students were moderated by the degree of students' stress with teachers' speed in the class situation. The correlation between IQ and achievement was higher when the student felt a moderate level of stress with their teachers than when they experienced high or low stress. They discuss their results in comparison with the research results of Barnes, Potter, and Fiedler (1983) who found that the correlation between SATQ (intellectual ability) and academic performance (GPA) for the American Coast Guard Academy, in low interpersonal stress condition, was higher than in the high stress condition.

San'nomiya and her colleagues continue the series of studies on the effect of teachers' scolding in the classroom. Takeuchi, San'nomiya, and Endou (1991) found that when teachers gave students consistent mild scoldings, students of Japanese primary school (4th-6th grade students), reflected upon themselves and their behavior, however when teachers gave students severe scoldings consistently, students developed negative feelings towards the teachers and failed to reflect upon themselves.

Shirakashi and Hong (1991) analyzed teachers' locus of control and its effect on their leadership behavior, stress, and the group atmosphere in Japan and Korea. Respondents were teachers and students of the 5th and 6th grades in primary school and 7th grade in junior high school in Japan and Korea. In this study, Sadowski, Taylor, Woodward, Peacher, and Martin's (1982) Teacher Locus of Control scale was used. The respondents were required to respond to the same questionnaire two times with a five month interval. In summary, Shirakashi and Hon found that internally oriented teachers after the five month interval showed more Maintenance behavior, less teacher stress, and made the group atmosphere more autonomous and warmer in primary schools in Japan and Korea. However in junior high schools in Korea, internally oriented teachers showed almost the opposite effect, namely less Maintenance behavior, more stress, and the group atmosphere became less autonomous and colder in the five month period. Shirakashi and Hong are in the process of looking for any probable psychological interpretation for these results.

Hamana and Matsumoto (1993) reported the results of an interesting action research in 4th, 5th, and 6th grade classes of Japanese primary school. In the preliminary survey, four or five target children in the
class who gave low ratings of their teachers, were selected. In the experiment period (three weeks), the teachers were required to intentionally express positive behaviors more often during class hours. Three weeks later, the target children showed a favorable attitude change in terms of human relations with teachers and classmates, and study motivation. However, these influences were not found to extend to other children of the same class.

Morishita (1985) analyzed the effect of teachers behavior (recorded on Video Tape) on modeling behavior of students at a Japanese kindergarten. The boys modeled the more aggressive behaviors of the teacher when they had a negative impressions of the teacher than when they had a positive impression. The girls, however, showed more altruistic modeling behavior when they had a positive impression of the teachers than when they had negative impressions.

(2) Teachers' Traits, Professional Functions, and Training

Inoue (1988) asked Japanese college students majoring in education about the personality traits required for teachers of primary school and junior/senior high school. They indicated the significance of “a passion for education (strong desire to teach, a sense of fairness and responsibility, etc.)” and “activeness (cheerful, loves sports, etc.)”. Fuchigami (1988) analyzed Japanese students’ (3rd year senior high school) perception of teachers and found that when students rated their teachers highly on how much consideration the teacher as an education professional gave to the students education, the students gave a more positive evaluation of their teachers.

Nishi (1988) found that the better the teachers (Japanese primary schools) evaluated their own self-concept (open-minded, try hard, self-confident, high need for achievement, etc.), the higher they were rated on a vocational function by a third party. Also, Nishi interviewed teachers and found a number of teachers whose self-concept was not so high, however, had continued to try to work hard and teach, and received relatively high ratings from third parties.

Sakurai (1992) tried to construct a Japanese scale of teacher efficacy (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). “Teacher efficacy” means a teacher’s belief in how much one can have a favorable influence on children’s learning. Sakurai found that the scores of college students who wanted to become school teachers, were higher than other students.

Takeshita (1988) compared the opinions of the administrators (school principal and vice–principal) to that of younger teachers (with less than two years of teaching experience) on the importance of the different aspects of teacher training. “Class building” and “visiting the classroom of an experienced teacher” were rated highly by both groups, however, the administrators rated “the actual condition of the community” highly, and the younger teachers rated “public model teaching” highly (“model teaching” means a particular teacher teaches a model class while staff of the board of education, administrators, and fellow teachers observe).

Matsunaga and Naitou (1991) investigated the effectiveness of teacher training in counseling. The subjects were twenty four Japanese teachers of junior high school. Compared to the teachers in the control group, the teachers who received a training course in counseling showed a positive change in human relations with their students based on both students’ and self descriptions.

(3) Teachers' Perception and Students

Ono and Amane (1986) recorded Japanese teachers’ eye contact behavior in the class situation on video tape (one minute) and showed the tapes to Japanese school children (3rd grade primary school) and Japanese teachers of junior high school. Both students and teachers responded that the reason why the teacher made eye contact with the particular pupil is because the teacher regards him or her with affection. Also, children perceived the teacher’s eye contact slightly differently based on the pupil’s academic achievement. However, among the teachers’, there was such no difference in perception as the children showed.

Sakaki (1987) and Sakaki and Shirakashi (1988) analyzed the academic achievement in mathematics of Japanese children (6th grade primary school) and the causal attribution of children, teachers and parents. For the high scoring group, the children attributed their scores to the teachers’ teaching. Teachers
attributed the scores mostly to task difficulty or the children's frame of mind or feelings. Parents made both types of attributions.

Sato (1991) analyzed the relationship between Japanese teachers' attitude toward their children (4th and 5th grade of primary school) and human relations among the children. It was clearly shown that the children with whom teachers had positive feelings have a tendency to hold high sociometric status among their classmates.

(4) Teacher's Expectations

Teachers' expectations toward their students has been a significant research topic since Rosenthal and Jacobson's (1982) discussion of the Pygmalion effect. Kojo (1986) measured the Japanese teachers' expectations of their pupils (primary school) and teachers' verbal behaviors toward their pupils in the classroom situation. Also, he measured the teachers' authoritarian personality tendencies. This study clarified that the teachers who tended to be highly authoritarian interacted verbally more often with the children of whom the teacher had a favorable expectancy. However, the teachers who were not authoritarian gave more attention to and interacted verbally more often with the children whom the teacher held an unfavorable expectancy. This study suggests the necessity of investigating the different phenomena concerning the interaction of peoples' personality factors and group-task situational factors (Fiedler and Garcia, 1987).

Choi (1987) found that only when both teachers' expectancies and the pupils' self expectancy were high (particularly concerning study activities), academic achievements improved. He interpreted this to mean the teachers' expectancy mediated the pupils' self expectancy, resulting in a positive effect on the pupils' academic achievement.

(5) Teachers' Stress

Ohara and Araki (1989) developed a scale measuring teachers' stress. The respondents were 180 Japanese teachers of primary, junior-high, senior-high schools, and teachers in children's special education schools. They found five factors of teachers' stress:  

1. The difference in opinions between school administration and teachers on educational ideology,
2. The confusion/diffusion of vocational identity,
3. pressure of business and time,
4. pressure of the role expectancy as a teacher, and
5. conflict and friction in the workplace.

Yamasaki and Fuji (1992) developed a scale for senior high school teachers and identified five factors:  

1. stress with students,
2. environment of the workplace
3. stress with other teachers, and
4. family life.

It was found that teachers in schools where trouble was often observed showed higher stress of the factor 1 type (stress with students) and factor 2 type (workplace environment) than teachers in schools where trouble was not so often observed.

3. Studies of Students

(1) Human Relations of Pupils/Children

Kano (1992) developed the research technique "condensation method" to describe a macroscopic structure from the ordinal sociogram using the concepts of component and condensation from graph theory. Basically it tries to gather pairs of mutual-choice into a single subgroup, and as a next step to gather pairs of mutual choices as above described into a single subgroup at the next level, ... and tries to find a macroscopic structure in the group as a whole. In other words, it attempts to describe a macroscopic structure of the group based on the extended mutual choices.

Using this method, Tasaki and Kano (1985) analyzed the relationship between the characteristics of the class (4th, 5th, and 6th grade of Japanese primary school) described in the condensation method and the school morale of the children. What they discovered about the groups of boys was that in groups high in integration (the number of sub-groups being fewer), the boys' morale was higher than the boys' groups low in integration, also that in groups high in concentration (the numbers of elements <students> that selected one component <group> being higher), the boys' morale was higher than those in groups low in concentration. Also, Kusumi (1988) using the condensation method, analyzed the relationships between the types of group structure and the human relations within the groups. She found that the Japanese school children in a component which was often selected by other components, generally had a more favorable impression of friends and actually interacted more often with classmates.
Chino (1984) and Chino and Nakagawa (1984) applied sociometric data to MDS (Multidimensional scaling) and tried to obtain a dynamic understanding of group structures based on topology.

Takayama, Sato, and Sato (1986) analyzed the relationship between sociometric status of children (3rd-6th grade of primary school) and personality descriptions completed on themselves and their classmates. They found that the children who were rejected by their classmates tended to express high levels of loneliness and depression in their self descriptions. Additionally were evaluated as being highly aggressive and withdrawn, and low in likability in classmates' descriptions.

Kusumi (1986) evaluated the human relationships of Japanese school children (5th and 6th grade of primary school) through sociometric measurement (Who do you want to play with? i.e.: demand level) and in terms of actual behavior (Who did you play with yesterday?) four times in a year. She found that the children whose status was relatively stable both in terms of sociometric and actual levels, often established mutual patterns of choice in their class. Kusumi (1989) analyzed the changes in relationships between the patterns of mutual choice of students (1st grade of Japanese junior high school) and found that pairs that showed mutual choice understood each other well, and gave positive evaluations of each other. She also found, however, that in the pairs whose mutual choice was broken after a given period, the degree of mutual understanding decreased.

Using Tesser's (1984) self-evaluation maintenance processes, Isozaki and Takahashi (1988), discussed the relationship between mutual choice in pairs of children (2nd grade of Japanese junior high school) and their academic achievement. This study verified that for the subjects with which students were highly involved, they had perceived their academic performance to be higher than that of other friends (based on mutual choices), and that for the subjects with which they were less involved, they perceived their scores to be lower than their friends. Also the actual academic performance of the subjects were found to be similar to the perceived tendencies described above. This also suggests that self-evaluation maintenance possibly has a function in the selection of friends.

Koizumi (1987) analyzed the adjustment process of children (3rd-6th grade of Japanese primary school) who moved to new schools. This study showed that for 5th and 6th grade children, the fact of whether or not all members of the class accepted the newcomer had a strong influence on the adjustment of the newcomer. Tasaki (1989) analyzed the type of social power that children (5th and 6th grade of Japanese primary school) had over other children during the lunch time break. He found that the children whose sociometric status was high, used information, referent, and expert powers, and that children whose status was low, used reward, and coercive powers. Tasaki (1992) also found that information power was the most easily accepted by friends, and legitimate power was the least.

(2) Children's Perception of Teachers

Miura (1989) reported that the more the students' (5th grade of Japanese primary school) relied on the teachers' leadership, the more order there was in the class while the class worked. The fewer the number of irrelevant behaviors in the classroom, the higher the academic achievement level. Takino (1989) surveyed students' (2nd grade in Japanese junior high school) predictions about teachers' behaviors at schools. He found that 40% of the students predicted aggressive behavior from the teachers, and only 20% of students predicted approval or helping behaviors from teachers in such situations as; a student lagging behind, checking homework assignments, etc. Takino (1991) measured students' (2nd grade in Japanese junior high school) predictions of their teachers' behavior in some situations of trouble presented in the Picture-Frustration test. He found that children who originally had negative feelings towards their teacher predicted that the teachers would exhibit rejecting behaviors.

Tomita (1989) surveyed the attitudes of class advisory teachers and their students (2nd grade of Japanese primary school) and analyzed the relationship between teachers' favorable attitudes toward particular students, and students' perceptions of their teachers' attitudes. She found that the teachers' favorable attitudes were perceived not only by the
children towards whom teachers had positive feelings, but by other children in the class as well. Also teachers were found to interact more often with the children whom they had positive feelings, and less often with the children whom teachers had negative feelings.

Yamaguchi, Harano, and Ueda (1991, Japanese senior high school) analyzed the relationship between personality and psychological distance between students and teachers (class advisory teachers, teachers of courses of study, and nurse-teachers). This study showed that extroverted students had closer relationships with class advisory teachers and course teachers, however, neurotic students had closer relationships with nurse-teachers.

Shibuya and Katsukura (1992) measured the change in students' (1st-3rd grade of Japanese junior high school) perception as to how much they felt the teachers accepted them. This study indicated that the students' perception of how much teachers approved of students decreased as the students advanced into higher grades. They also found a statistically significant correlation between students' perception of their teachers level of approval of students and students' tendency towards self-disclosure ($r = .41, p < .01$). The more the students perceived that the teachers' approved of them, the more the students tended to self-disclose.

In a laboratory experiment, Kohno (1988) manipulated the degree of affiliative behavior of college students who took on the role of teacher, and found that the affiliative behavior of teachers had a positive effect on children's attitude towards learning and academic achievement.

An'zai (1986) measured students' (Japanese junior high school) level of self-disclosure and the similarity of the opinions between students and teachers. This study showed that the more the students disclosed about themselves, the more the students perceived a similarity in opinion between the teacher and themselves.

(3) Children's Self-concept and Self-cognition.

Miyazawa (1988) measured female students' (1st-3rd grades in Japanese junior high school) change in degree of self-acceptance. The results revealed that students in higher grades understood themselves better, however, at the same time they paid more attention to the negative side of their own personality, face and figure, and did not readily recognize their own positive traits. Fujio (1992) found that the factors which influence children's willingness to raise their hand in mathematics class were; children's self-efficacy (Bandura, 1972), anticipation and evaluation of their ability to give a correct answer. Fukada (1988) measured the change of the self-efficacy score from 1st grade through 2nd grade of Japanese primary school (over 6 months) and did not find any statistically significant change. However, this study indicated that children high in self-efficacy, showed greater ability in mathematics calculations than children low in self-efficacy. Sakurai (1992b) tried to use the self-evaluation maintenance model (Tesser, Campbell, & Smith, 1984) to analyze the relationship between students' (Japanese senior high school) evaluation of the scores of other students and the psychological distance between them and their classmates.

(4) Children's Stress and Anxiety

Nagane (1989) measured children's (4th-6th grade of Japanese primary school) stress and tried to identify any factors which have influence on their stress. This research revealed that there were four factors to children's stress (1) human relations with classmates, (2) human relations with teachers, (3) being called upon in class, and (4) academic achievement) and children attached much importance to human relations with classmates and teachers. Also, Nagane (1991) developed a stress measure for school children (4th-6th Japanese primary school). It is composed of four sub-scales (1) human relations with classmates (e.g. being treated as an outsider) (2) being called upon in class (i.e. suddenly being asked to answer something by the teacher in class), (3) academic achievement (e.g. just before a test), and (4) failure (e.g. when one was scolded by a teacher). He found no significant differences in stress scores between the grades of children, however, female students showed higher stress than male students.

Okayasu, Shimada, and Niwa (1992) analyzed the relationship between stressors and stress behaviors in Japanese junior high school students. This study
confirmed that human relations with teachers, human relations with classmates, and academic achievement acted as stressors, and in addition, depressive feelings, anxiety, asthenic feelings and ways of thinking to be stress responses. The most influential factor on depressive feelings and anxiety was found to be human relations with friends. Also, the factor which had the strongest influence on asthenic feelings and ways of thinking was revealed to be academic achievement related stress.

Koizumi (1992) measured the anxiety of children (6th grade of Japanese primary school) just before they entered junior high school. Girls were found to be more anxious about human relations and learning than boys. Also the children who had an elder sibling attending the school had lower anxiety in regards to human relations than children who had no sibling, however the former had higher anxiety in regards to learning than the latter.

(5) Prosocial Behavior of Children and Students

Masuda and Nakao (1986) investigated modeling of the behavior of characters in an animated picturebook show on the prosocial behavior of Japanese kindergarten children. The results of this experiment indicated that the show that had the greatest effect was the condition in which only the picture was shown. The original style (picture and story combined) was the next most effective and the least effective was when only the story was told.

Takemura and Takagi (1987) showed that subjects with an internal locus of control (Rotter, 1966) had a stronger motivation for prosocial behavior than externals. Nishikawa (1986) and Nishikawa and Takagi (1986) tried to throw light upon the process in which one feels a bit sorry for a person who provides one with assistance, making one therefore feel obliged to try to return the favor. This research may provide possible ways in which some of the unique human relationship processes in Japan could be understood.

(6) Children's Daily Life and Problem Behaviors

Ohara (1988) reported survey results on the reading habits of Japanese children. The results showed that children who read more than eleven books a month on average, tended to have fewer computer-games than the children who read one or less book a month. The families of whom children read relatively more books, were found to go on picnics and holidays more often. The families whose children had no custom of reading books were found to spend more time watching television programs. Shimizu and Shimizu (1988) asked Japanese primary school children why they were interested in watching television programs or playing video games. This survey revealed that children preferred video games mainly because they could play the games with friends.

Matsuda, Hashimoto, Koumoto, Katayama, and Satou (1991) compared the significance of problem behaviors of children (5th and 6th grade of Japanese primary school) as rated by children, school teachers, and psychiatrists. It was shown that children regarded anti-social behavior more serious than un-social behavior. Teachers expressed the greatest concern over anti-social behavior, anti-school behavior next, followed by un-social behavior. However, psychiatrists regarded anti-social behavior as most serious, un-social behavior second, and anti-school behavior last. There was a big difference in the evaluation of children's problem behaviors by these three groups. Furuya, Satou, and Ishii (1991) surveyed the family environments and parental attitudes of juvenile delinquents. Poor human relations between parents, and negative attitudes towards child rearing were found to be strongly related to the delinquency of children.

4. Community, Society and Others

(1) Cross-Cultural Studies and Contact with Other Cultures

Shinohara (1989) surveyed and compared the life styles of children in Japan, Thailand, and Korea. She showed that in rating the item “liking to study at school”, Thai children were the highest, Korean children second, and Japanese children lowest. As for the question “Have you ever felt as though you didn't want to go to school?”, the Japanese children's number of “Yes” responses was lower than the children in the other two countries. As for the Thai children, a difference in time spent helping with family affairs was not found between boys and girls, however, Japanese girls spent much more time helping with family affairs than boys. In Thailand, time spent...
in learning and helping with family affairs were not found to differ across students, however in Japan children who had a strong desire to enter famous schools, spent more time on study, and less time helping with family affairs.

Onodera (1993) surveyed the attitudes towards independence and the parent-child relationships of Japanese and American youth. He reported that Japanese males have the least emotional ties with parents, yet at the same time have a strong feeling of being controlled by others, more so than other respondents. Mizuno (1992) compared the causal attribution styles in mathematical academic achievement by Japanese and Japanese-American senior high school students. He found that the latter attributed failure to more internal-stable factors than the former.

Yamasaki (1993) analyzed the attitudes of foreign students who attend school in Japanese language. He found that the students with high Japanese language ability had fewer experiences of being treated in a discriminatory manner, and had more favorable attitudes toward Japan. Sorimachi (1991) tried to investigate the process experienced by Japanese senior high school students returning to Japanese schools and society from other countries and communities. Generally speaking these students didn't show any direct improvement in adjustment within days after coming back to Japan, rather they gradually moved up to a more adjusted level as if climbing a spiral, sometimes staying at a certain stage of adjustment for a period of time. There were found among the students who had been back in Japan for six or more years, some students who were still in the difficult stages of adjustment into Japanese society.

Paku (1993) surveyed attitudes of Japanese and Korean college students. In this study, he obtained data describing not only the students' own country, but he also asked the subjects to estimate the other country's people's attitudes. The estimated attitudes of the other country's people were distorted in a negative direction compared to the actual attitudes of the country's people. This tendency was far stronger for Japanese students than Korean students.

The Japanese Minister of Education (1967) defined "school non-attendance" as; "among the children absent from school for over 50 days in a year, the reason for absence involving ① no particular physical diseases, ② no particular economic problems in the family, and ③ no particular relation with delinquency". The numbers of cases are estimated to be 11,000 (in Japanese primary schools), 49,000 (in Japanese junior high schools). The current number of cases has multiplied 4.1 (primary school)-6.9 (junior high school) times compared to data from 1966. Wakabayashi (1989) reviewed the different studies of school non-attendance and noted the recent tendencies (1) an increase in girls' cases (equaling that of boys), (2) an increase in the number of drop outs from senior high school and increased apathy among college students, (3) an increase not only in big cities but also in local areas, (4) neurotic responses and violent behavior within families, and (5) an increase in the number of cases related to the difficulty of graduating to a school of a higher level, etc. A new school has been established for teaching and treating these students (Ikuno-gakuen, 1992). There remains great difficulties in treating these students, however, counselors are applying different techniques such as building acceptance and rapport, desensitization, play therapy, counseling, family therapy, etc. in an attempt to provide solutions.

"Bullying" is also a serious problem in Japanese schools. The Japanese Ministry of Education (1991) defines "bullying at school" as ① a one-sided attack on weaker classmates, ② continuous physical and psychological attacks, ③ the students who are the object of attack experience strong physical or psychological pain. Japanese newspapers and television programs have reported a number of cases of suicide by students who have been bullied by class mates, sometimes leaving a suicide note which describes the actual manner of the bullying.

The Japanese Ministry of Education (1984) identified different patterns of bullying at schools: (1) verbal threats, badgering, teasing, hiding one's personal effects, being intentionally ignored by peers, acts of violence, browbeating, meddling, false kindnesses, etc. as "the means or method of bullying". (2) individuals, small groups of two or three students, and
larger groups as “the perpetrators”. (3) anger, hate, expressing resentment, prejudice towards specific personality characteristics, to curry favor with classmates, forcing others to join “one’s side” as the “motive”. Suzuki (1995) reviewed recent significant reports on bullying in Japanese schools, the contents of which go beyond the scope of this summary.

5. Concluding Remarks

We have reviewed social psychological studies concerning education in Japan over the past ten years. Many Japanese researchers have tried to elucidate the different phenomena relevant to Japanese education. We have gained a great deal of information and knowledge through them. Though Japanese students/children, teachers, and parents are worried about the problems of non-attendance described above, there have recently been some private senior high schools established to tackle these issues (focusing particularly on the students who refuse to attend regular school) which have special educational programs including counseling and therapy (see: Ikuno Gakuen, 1992).

There are some schools in which specialists in group dynamics worked with the school administration and teachers for many years to solve difficult problems at their schools, such as disorder in the class, violence towards teachers, delinquency, etc. Seki (1993) is one example of action research performed in an actual Japanese educational situation.

In the mid 1980’s, the Japanese government established three national colleges of education, where the main aim is to train teachers for kindergarten, primary, junior high, and senior-high school in a two year master’s course. These teachers are sponsored by their local board of education or school for the two year period. In these graduate schools, it becomes easier for scientific scholars (college professors) and graduate students (who have experience in the actual educational settings) to cooperate in studying different educational problems. This author hopes that Japanese researchers in this field will approach the different phases of education paying close attention to cross-cultural view points and try to discover characteristic phases in Japanese people’s education. We are convinced that we will make progress in desirable directions even though we still face many difficult barriers.

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