MANAGING CHANGE IN JAPANESE HIGHER EDUCATION

‘Management change’ has become a major pre-occupation of leaders in higher education. Both Human and Financial Resource require key transformations. Leaders and professionals concerned with managing change have to learn to adapt themselves to changing situations. ‘Management change’ clearly visualizes how the future will be different from the present.¹

Today, in ‘management change’, key challenges facing the academic leaders are: resource management- human and financial, technological governance and curriculum management. In Japanese higher education, it has become important to maintain quality with diminished resources, or ‘doing more with less’. The issues include better financial management survival in a leaner environment, strategies for establishing new student markets, balancing teaching and research funds, income generation, gaining more research support and achieving high quality research with reduced funding.

Managing change in terms of human resource development includes leadership and decision-making, helping development of staff by motivating them to adapt to changes, boost their morale and minimize conflict.

There are four strategies² that can be used to approach change more constructively within universities. The first strategy is that there must be collective participation leading to proactive and holistic approach to


change. The second important strategy is to enable those individuals who are directly affected by the changes to shape their own operational response to the changes within an overall framework. The solutions generated are likely to be more relevant and appropriate than solutions generated by those outside the operational group. Thirdly, the reward system of the institution, managerial communication and overall goal of the institutions are to be appropriate with the conceptual, operational, or normative changes that are aimed at. And these changes need to be both understandable and broadly acceptable to educational and professional concerns to avoid alienation of these significant groups. The fourth strategy is to manage the transition from the present to the future state through negotiation, alignment, communication and operational planning. Time is needed to discuss, gain agreement, and identify direction and the means of reaching it. Once planning moves to execution further amounts of staff and management time are needed to allow communication and feedback on problems and on approaches to their resolution. So, there must be the presence of commitment to 'managing the transition' with those who must implement it.

Universities have to be managed in a new ways. The shift to strategic management (from managerial culture i.e. faculties, departments, units and even individuals are given the power) may produce an environment that is both more efficient in terms of strategic direction and the effective deployment of resources and more acceptable to academic community, because it is more flexible. For strategic management to succeed, openness of style and free flowing of views at all levels in the organization is absolutely necessary. There must be
also shared vision that fosters risk taking and experimentation. It changes people's relationship with the organization and the tasks they undertake, so they become fully integrated. Again, 'teams' not individual are the fundamental learning unit in modern organizations. Team learning starts with dialogue and the team can enter into a genuine ‘thinking together”. But, the dilemma facing higher education is academic reluctance to adapt to changed circumstances. The unprecedented degree of challenge facing all public sector university management and academic staff is the search for common cause and the dialogue necessary to review its possible sources in the beginning of 21st century circumstances.³

V. 1. HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

In the management of higher education in Japan, human resource development is an important priority because the Japanese society considers people as the greatest resource in the developmental process. Japanese style of human resource management humanizes an organizational atmosphere that recognizes and encourages the contribution of everyone. This creates a desire of participation and team work, spreading of power and responsibility more widely, and a sense of belongingness. In the context of higher education, human resource management includes leadership and decision making, academic staff development through training and effective human relations, use of effective negotiation style and minimization of conflict in the organization. Taking restructuring the system of administration as a top priority the PCER stated: “We must move forward based on a thorough going and gradual relaxation of controls; establishment of

³ Ibid.
the principles of freedom, self-reliant, and individual responsibility, and expanded opportunity for choice".  

V. 1a Leadership and Decision Making

Leadership in higher education provides the means, assistance and resources that enable academic and support staff to perform well. Leadership is about producing excellence. It must focus on change and innovation to meet new and sometimes strange requirements. Leadership is about change. Speed of change or adapting to change for higher education institution is now a greater challenge. The institutions can no longer operate on the basis of eventual consensus. Again, we are familiar with powerful institutional heads who have become synonymous with their institutions. The head must be a tough personality with all these personality characteristics mentioned in table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Amanda Sinclair\(^3\), Archetypes of Leadership (1990)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Archetype</th>
<th>Characteristic</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Scientific Manager</td>
<td>Control, Accountability</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. System Manager</td>
<td>Coordination, Integration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Caring Leader</td>
<td>Nurturance, devolution</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Politician/Statesman</td>
<td>Coalitions, ambassadorial role, negotiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Meaning Manager</td>
<td>Myths and Symbols, Legitimation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Entrepreneur</td>
<td>Risk and opportunities initiative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Transformative/visionary</td>
<td>Empowerment, ‘cooperative individualism’ vision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Moral Guardian</td>
<td>Standards community interest concern and caution</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


\(^5\) Bocock and Watson ed., n. 2, p. 79.
The analysis of university change provide some useful apparatus for understanding the implication for leadership of the transition to new forms of higher education. Figure 5.1 provides a university change model based on both degree of tightness and looseness on two dimensions - policy definition and control over implementation\(^6\).

**Figure 5.1: Four University models McNay, 1995**

Policy definition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Loose</th>
<th>Tight</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A: Collegium</td>
<td>B: Bureaucracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D: Enterprise</td>
<td>C: Corporation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Ramsden, Paul, 1998, pp.31-32

Type A is collegiate university with loose policy definition and loose control over implementation with a focus on freedom to pursue university and personal goals unaffected by external control. The main organizational units are discipline-based departments. Standards are set by the international scholarly community. Decision-making is consensual and students are seen as apprentice academics.

Type B is the bureaucratic university with managerialism in higher education. Its focus is on regulation, consistency and rules and its management style is formal-rational. The administrators wield considerable power. Standards are related to regulatory bodies and external references. Decision making is rule based and students are statistics.

Type C is the corporate university with tight control over both policy and implementation. The focus is on loyalty to the organisation and senior management. The management style is commanding and charismatic. Decision making is political and tactical to any crisis and competitive situation. Standards are related to organisational plan and goals. Here, students are units of resource and customers.

Type D is the enterprise university to focus on competence. It is oriented to the outside world and it emphasizes continuous learning in a crisis environment. The decision making is flexible with high professional expertise. Standards are related to market strength and students are seen as clients and partners in the search for understanding.

Effective leaders produce constructive or adaptive change to help people and organisations survive and grow. They must establish direction, align people, and motivate them. Leadership is about doing the right thing. Leadership foresees and enables people to adapt to change rather than to resist it. There are four strategies on management and leadership tasks as is shown in table 5.2.
Table 5.2: Four Strategies on Management and Leadership Tasks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Managers</th>
<th>Leaders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Create an agenda</td>
<td>Plan and budget</td>
<td>Set direction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop a human</td>
<td>Organize and staff</td>
<td>Align people and groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>network</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Execute the agenda</td>
<td>Control and solve problems</td>
<td>Motivate and inspire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact</td>
<td>Create order</td>
<td>Produce change</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Kotter (1990), p.139\(^7\)
See also Ramsden, Paul, 1998, p110

Five practices for being successful leaders are: challenge the process (experiment and take risks, learn from making mistakes); inspire a shared vision (vision is the force that invents the future); enable others to act (effective leaders turn followers into leaders); model the way (lead by example, live your values); and encourage the heart (celebrate achievement)\(^8\).

Leadership is transformation or change and leaders are individuals with vision who develop teams to convert the vision into reality\(^9\). Through this process, values are changed so that the

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\(^7\) Ibid, p.110.
\(^8\) Ibid, p.111.
college/university moves toward a commonly accepted vision of the future.

Some scholars argue that visionary leaders must understand how to allocate scarce resources, and the best managers think beyond short-term results\textsuperscript{10}.

Presidents who head the institution in particular must have a vision for their institutions. They must have also the capability and responsibility for interpreting, shaping, communicating and realizing that vision. The chief executive officer of a university, whether called president, chancellor or chief administrator must focus on twelve areas in order to be effective: understanding the institution, appreciating the culture, mediating disputes, understanding the necessity of good management, selecting personnel, utilizing information, acting consciously as educational leaders functioning in the professional field establishing political leadership, providing avenues for renewal, serving as an institutional symbol and using power\textsuperscript{11}. Top priority is accorded to some of the personal attributes like integrity, judgement, courage, concern for others and flexibility. Moreover, some of the important skills and abilities are the ability to produce results, select capable people resolve conflicts, communicate effectively and motivate others.


Quality of leadership and leadership strategies can be explained in figures 5.2 and table 5.3 which characterize four domains in organizational environments.

**Figure 5.2: Strategies for Changing Environments**

![Figure 5.2: Strategies for Changing Environments](image)


**Table 5.3: Leadership Strategies by Domain**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Reactive Strategy</th>
<th>Proactive Strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adversarial</td>
<td>Conflict Resolution</td>
<td>Revitalization in crisis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>conflict management</td>
<td>&quot;TQM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty-dominated</td>
<td>Negotiation</td>
<td>Strategic Realignment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>consensus building</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administratively dominated</td>
<td>Administrative fiat</td>
<td>Strategic planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shared-culture</td>
<td>Collegiality</td>
<td>Collaboration: TQM</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


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12 Richardson jr. and Wolverton, n. 9, pp. 40-57.
In table 5.3 each leadership strategy strives for organizational transformation. From the above figure it is clear that in the adversarial domain, conflict erupts on a regular basis and neither faculty nor administrators can muster sufficient level of influence to move the institution beyond the conflict. In faculty dominated domain administrative views are unlikely to prevail unless faculty leaders first endorse them. In administratively dominated domain, non-responsiveness to faculty concern typifies a top down, structured hierarchy. In shared-culture domain administrative and faculty influence are balanced and both groups are encouraged to participate in efforts to define priorities and plan for their achievements.

Five leadership strategies identified in figures 5.2 and table 5.3 are—revitalization, strategic realignment, strategic planning, synergistic collaboration, and total Quality management\(^\text{13}\). In adversarial domain conflict resolution consumes most of its members energy. Revitalization provides a strategy for managing conflict that can move an institution toward a shared culture by defining conflict as an opportunity for change. It is a slow and careful process of incremental change where initial success is crucial. It begins with the identification of a possible problem area and after defining the problem a leader works with faculty and administrators to find alternatives, search out the strengths and weaknesses of each one. Communication line is kept open to ensure that the organizational members know why an action is being taken and what is expected of them.

\(^\text{13}\) Ibid.
In the faculty dominated domain, a leader using strategic realignment seeks through joint participation with the faculty to facilitate renegotiations and repositioning to increase the defined leadership role. The aim of strategic realignment is to establish the emotional involvement of faculty by building coalitions where people can work within a group to derive a jointly supported set of objectives.

In the administratively dominated colleges/universities, being, deliberate and impersonal, strategic planning offers a systematic approach to integrating goals, policies, actions into a sequenced cohesive whole. Here, failure may occur because sometimes administrators hold no clear vision, or copy the strategy of others.

In synergistic collaboration, the gap between a shared vision and reality represents creative tension that leads to opportunity. The leaders realize that the current reality is only one of several possible realities. They seek quality and breakdown barriers that affect progress toward reaching excellence. They energize their organizations through influence (not power); open communication; building understanding, identify, and commitment, building trust through honesty, integrity and confidence; self leadership through professional development; continuous incremental improvement and innovation by promoting divergent thinking grounded in the interdependence of shared responsibility and authority.

During synergistic collaboration, TQM (Total Quality Management) create a structure conducive to never ending improvement to building cooperative labour-management relations. In the adversarial domain, this TQM can provide a systematic process that creates a vision and
promotes incremental change to push the institution beyond crisis and conflict toward a gradual increase in shared values.

Leadership's unique function is to bring out the best in people and to orient them towards the future. Leadership is not fundamentally about the attributes the leaders has, but about what the leader does. Good leadership represents a commitment both today and tomorrow. The effective academic leader provides clear goals and seizes new opportunities, manages both people and resources in an orderly and efficient way, motivates and inspires staff to perform. All these things are done with integrity, energy, drive and spirit being realistic about what goes on and what should go on. Moreover, political aptitude, communication skills, a sense of direction, a long term thinking, a view of the big picture, imagination, correct attitude, good judgement, concern for staff development, ability to live with the consequence of decisions- are fundamental responsibilities of academic leadership. Academic leadership adopts practical strategies as performance management, recognition of achievement, strategic thinking, resource management, project planning and close support for teaching and research.

Transformational leadership motivates people to do more than they ever thought they could; works to create a shared vision of the future direction of the work unit; enables other to think about old problems in new ways; gets people moving collaboratively towards a common purpose; talks about change in a positive way. Paul Ramsden says:

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14 Ramsden, n. 6, p. 228.

15 Ibid.
Transformational leadership provides encouragement for followers to try and improve their way of working. Since its authority rests on the exercise of consensual rather than top down power, it would seem to be of critical importance in helping academic staff to welcome and take control of new challenges. Vision and energy sustain hope in times of transition. Transformational leadership, moreover, is about sharing leadership.\textsuperscript{16}

There are also both good university leadership and poor university leadership and orientation towards change is the top priority of good university leadership\textsuperscript{17}.

\textbf{Japanese leadership:}

Japanese organizational leadership is extremely hierarchical. Within the organization, each department constitutes an independent power centre. Decision-making in Japanese organization is a group process. The decision is made by top leadership based on the comments from all the people involved in the process and thereby, it eliminates dissent, giving a chance to others to influence a decision before it is actually made. This consensus decision-making process brings greater participation of individuals, through 'bottom up' approach. Moreover, the participation of so many different individuals in the decision-making process tends to reduce the danger of a decision being manipulated by certain individuals, and because the decision is generally accepted, the implementation becomes easier and more

\textsuperscript{16} Ibid, p.115.

\textsuperscript{17} Ibid, p.87-88.
efficient. On the other hand, in this type of decision-making there are certain disadvantages for it involves too much of time with long meetings. It is also viewed as a 'confirmation authorization process' where the top leadership already makes the decision and it is nothing to do with the decision of the lower level leadership. Looking at the Japanese management change, Min Chen writes:

...Personnel management is under the highest pressure to change...the seniority promotion system will be supplemented by the merit and ability system... Specialized skills may receive more attention than the traditional emphasis on general ability. Even the long-cherished consensus decision-making process has been questioned by many...There are also growing complaints about the successful aspects of Japanese human resource management, which is often blamed for Karoshi (sudden death caused by overwork).¹⁸

In Japan, the highest decision-making body at national universities is the 'senate' and is composed of academics, and that of private universities is the 'Board of Trustees' consisting mostly of external representatives and owners of the institution. Presidents and Deans of faculties in Japan are both in formal function and in power less influential than at US institutions of higher education. The government has a strong say in the functioning of the national universities since the head of administration is one among its ministerial staff. Informal deliberations are also held prior to the formal decisions by the universities. Though Private universities in

Japan enjoy a high degree of autonomy in decision making, they do not assert their freedom.¹⁹

Faculty council is the decision-making authority over administration of academic personnel, student affairs, curricula and operations. Moreover, even at the overall university level neither the president nor the university senate will, as a rule, make a decision without first obtaining the consensus of their faculty council. Faculty council enjoys highest autonomy playing a central role in the university's internal administration.²⁰

In bringing about reforms in higher education in Japan, repeated efforts have been made to introduce managerial models of higher education i.e. to strengthen the executive power of the president and to introduce boards. As per the establishment of the university of Tsukuba as a model of reform governance, departments were supposed to have stronger say vis-à-vis the individual professor, and the presidents and vice-presidents were entrusted with increased powers. US managerial approaches have also influenced the governance model in terms of assessment and self-evaluation of institutions of higher education.

In its September 1995 documents, "Facilitation of University Management", the university council recommended the specific areas in which universities should work independently to achieve improvements that will enable them to adapt to changes. According

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to the report, it is necessary to create a system enabling university presidents to exercise leadership. This requires the improvement of appointment methods and tenure systems for university presidents, and, if necessary, the enhancement of support systems. It is also necessary to enable university presidents to play a more active role in personal decisions and budget allocations. Universities need to develop centralized decision-making organizations, such as senates, to handle decisions with university-wide implications. Universities should also create an environment in which deans and other administrators can fulfill their roles adequately and exercise leadership. This should be achieved by improving support system and by enabling these administrators to play a more active role in budget allocations. Moreover, agenda items for faculty meetings should be selected with care, and the deliberation process should be accelerated. Representatives groups and special committees should be actively used. In addition efforts should be made to improve communication with the student community and to ensure that students’ views are incorporated in the decision making. 21

V. 1b Academic and Administrative Staff Development

Within the human resource management of a higher educational institution, both academic and administrative staff development is a top priority. The administrator's responsibility is to make all the teaching staff a sense of belonging to an institution where as the administrative staff must also develop a sense of fellow feeling. Moreover, approaches to staff training and development have been

undergoing a sea change. Three trends can be identified – (I) Briefing and training programmes are linked to policy development and strategic initiatives. Again, briefing the staff fully about changes underway and assisting them in deploying the knowledge and skills needed. (ii) Network approach to be followed to provide relevant expertise and skills, and the traditional boundaries between those who formulate policy and those who implement it be abolished. This approach draws everyone into a net of informing, motivating, training and coaching others. (iii) Systematic training of organizing and managing teaching for organizers of course units and modules, heads of departments, dean of faculties and those in top most managerial position\textsuperscript{22}. The following points for the leaders have been suggested for staff development\textsuperscript{23}.

For developing people through feedback:

- Listen actively,
- Find out how the other person sees the situation.
- Establish a genuine dialogue
- Pay attention to ‘signals’, especially non-verbal signs of unease.
- Be comfortable with emotional aspects (allow/accept anger, understand feelings of vulnerability).
- Avoid producing a defensive climate that deters people from finding creative solutions.
- Show respect and concern about the other person’s needs and hopes.
- Offer options not solutions.

\textsuperscript{22} Bocock and Watson ed., n. 2, p.99.

\textsuperscript{23} Ramsden, n. 6, p. 211.
• Encourage and support rather than criticize and confront
• Be open and positive
• Acknowledge and recognize the person's contribution and successes.
• Give clear direction without being over-dominant.
• Give bad news honestly and quickly.
• Look at causes of problems as well as symptoms.
• Provide constructive advice.
• Suggest avenues for professional development.

The university council in its June 1994 for "Improvement of the Recruitment of Teaching Personnel" made some important recommendations. According to the report, the decision to appoint some one must take into account varied experience and background. Again, organized efforts should be made to improve quality of teaching staff. Moreover, foreign teachers should be actively recruited.²⁴

V. 1c Conflict Resolution and Negotiation Process

Higher education is a fertile environment for conflict. Its intellectual character makes it a ground for opposing ideas, demographic and cultural diversity, and multiplicity of objectives. Faculty members often have loyalties which are divided between their disciplines, their independent research, their professional service, and their students. High levels of individual autonomy within a unified organization, inherently breed conflict even though the institution may encourage

specially tailored self-governance systems and decentralized authority for decision making\textsuperscript{25}.

Managing conflict is a major function of leaders in the academic field. Conflict is bound to be where there is competition for resources or influence, incompatible goals, antagonistic actions, divergent ideas or interests inconsistent demands unfair distribution of work, unfulfilled expectations, in-equitable application of policies or regulations and personality clash.\textsuperscript{26}

Conflict cannot always be resolved, it must be managed\textsuperscript{27}. Conflict is not, in and by itself destructive. It can be used creatively to broaden the understanding, increase the options and generate the high energy levels that increase our participation and commitment to a group decision. The foundation of conflict resolution skills lies in open dialogue, information sharing and the exercise of fairness and good judgements\textsuperscript{28}. There are five basic ways of dealing with conflict: avoidance, accommodation, use of power, negotiation, and collaboration\textsuperscript{29}.

There is always conflict between professional culture of the faculty and the bureaucratic culture of the administration in the higher education system. To some extent this is due to disintegration of authority structure. There is need to generate coordination mechanism. Faculty attempt to exercise some control over


\textsuperscript{26} Ibid, p.314.


\textsuperscript{28} Creamer, n. 25, p. 325.

\textsuperscript{29} Lucas, n. 17, p. 203.
bureaucratic coordination by placing faculty members in academic management positions and sometimes in the administration itself.

Professionalization of the administration and academic management is on the rise. There is also a number of bureaucratic regulations and procedures imposed on all faculty members and units in the planning, management and assessment of their work. The need for overall bureaucratic coordination has also been increased by the aggravating scarcity of resources to which universities are prone to. The scarcer the resources the larger is the potential for conflict in the organization and therefore, the more there is a need for overall arbitration and coordination. The harder it is to introduce additional responsibilities to institutions and faculty which place further strain on limited resources. The reasons for growing control of the external environment over universities relates to the political and economic context which has caused declining revenues for the universities. Universities have to rely more on external sources of funding and this in turn subjects them to control. Academic organizations are characterized by tensions between the 'system goals' which are carried out by top management and by the technostructure (the administration), and 'mission goals' which are carried out by the professionals (the academics). Conflicts can be outlined as: (I) Conflict among the multiple and ambiguous goals and mission the university is supposed to carry out in a society that increases its demands, expectations and pressure upon it (ii) conflict between the social necessity of these mission and the need to achieve the system

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30 Bocock and Watson ed., n. 2, p.36-41.
31 Ibid.
32 Ibid, pp. 36-41.
goals of survival competitiveness and growth in a context of continuously declining resources and increasing costs (iii) conflict among the academics who look more like a fragmented collection with their own goals and interests, (iv) conflict between the professionals doing their job in the classrooms and laboratories on the one hand and the academics who involve with power and presence in administration and top management. However, mediation of conflict and negotiation between academics to achieve harmony are important aspects of most academic leaders' roles.

University administration has been a decisional area involving policy making through camp conflict. Numerous non-governmental groups are involved in pressing or opposing demands, political parties and their internal organs are highly active, many governmental institutions are involved, including bureaucratic and legislative committees. Most fundamentally there has been a high degree of ideologically based camp conflict throughout the policy making interactions.

In Japanese higher education policy making there is always conflict due to the presence of various interest groups. However, this conflict gradually dies down with the influence of consensual decision-making. Also any radical shift in higher education policy is found absent over the years due to high conservatism.

33 Ibid.
There are four types\textsuperscript{36} of decision-making structure in terms of Faculty-Administrative relation. Type A university is oligarchic in nature with Administrative-Faculty Coordination and this type of university is quick to take decision and most efficient in solving financial problems but least effective in dealing with student problems. Type B is Oligarchic but with Administrative Subordination and this type of university is Kyoto university but it handles poorly both the financial and student problems.

Type C which is democratic with Administrative-Faculty Coordination are more flexible and effective in resolving multiple problem confronting the university. Most private universities belong to this category. Type D is democratic but with administratively subordination and this type of university can not solve the financial problem even if quick to solve student problem.

There is a difference in decision-making and governance style between private universities and national universities\textsuperscript{37}. In case of national universities, presidents expected to strengthen their own power and authority for university management. But, new private universities’ presidents expect rather to establish a variety of committees. Moreover, Japanese academics are in doubt which is better: top down style of university management or bottom up style. They can not solve these difficult problems\textsuperscript{38}.


\textsuperscript{38} Ibid, p.32.
V.2 FINANCIAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Financial resource management refers to use of some specific techniques to deal with the financial situation. Financial crisis must be adjusted to and managed despite the rigidities and constraints that characterize universities as bureaucratic organizations and inability to adapt to environmental change\(^{39}\). New socio-economic conditions reduce the probability of program survival and financial health for public universities. Therefore the methods for managing financial crisis are the subject of most immediate concern to university administrators. The responses include a broad range of options: interinstitutional cooperation, co-optation of other universities, programs and student constituencies; program or mission reorganization and merger. On the business management side of university operations, productivity may be increased by joint purchase and service agreements with other universities or local and state governments, contracting, privatization and others.\(^{40}\)

PCER proposed that Japan place primary emphasis on investment in the promotion of education and research and make the strongest efforts to assure that the requisite funds were disbursed in a positive and effective way. It called on the government to be aware of its relationship to the reform of educational funding and to give the highest priority to funding. It also stressed the mobilization of private initiatives in the rationalization of funding. So in terms of financial management, it proposed a basic philosophy of mobilizing with public and private resources to undertake dramatic development in the fields.

\(^{40}\) Ibid, p. 90.
of education and research and to adopt appropriate policies to attract funding from a variety of sources.\textsuperscript{41}

\textbf{V. 2a Political Economy of Finance}\textsuperscript{42}

The principal source of funding for national and local public institutions is allocations from the national budget or the budgets of local governments and supported by tuition and other student fees. For the private institutions, the main source of funding is tuition and other student fees and subsidies from the central government and local governments. The total operational expenditure for universities, junior colleges and colleges of technology in Japan was 6,248,900 million yen in fiscal 1992 i.e. 2,245,600 million yen for national institutions, 429,400 million yen for local public institutions, and 3,573,900 million yen for private institutions.

For the operation of national educational institutions, including universities, the Special Account for National Educational Institutions was established in 1964. This account is managed separately from the general account to look on enhancement of the activities of the national educational institutions.

In fiscal 1995 the special account budget was 2,513,200 million yen and the largest source of funding for the special account was transfers from the general account, which amounted to 1,557,600 million yen constituting 62\% of total funding. In this fiscal year, revenue from university hospitals contributed 451,000 million yen i.e. 17.8\% and tuition and other student fees 290,500 million yen i.e. 11.5\%. Transfer

\textsuperscript{41} Tokutake, n. 4, pp. 69-71.
from the general account made up 82.1% of the special account budget in the beginning of its establishment and it peaked at 83.5% in fiscal 1971. But, the percentage declined gradually in subsequent years due to the severe budgetary constraints facing the government. However, today, there has been a gradual increase in the contribution from self-earned revenue including not only tuition and other student fees but also external revenue including scholarship loan donations, and income generated by joint research and commissioned research with private sector organizations.

The government of Japan provides subsidies to local public and private institutions of higher education under the provisions of the Law Concerning Support for Private School Promotion and these subsidies are used primarily to maintain and improve the educational and research environment and to lessen students’ financial burden. The subsidies for current expenditure and long term, low-interest loans through the Japan Private School Promotion Foundation are provided for the improvement of facilities and equipment. In fiscal 1970, subsidies for the current expenditures for private institutions of higher education were introduced. Subsidies were increased until fiscal 1982, and subsidies as a percentage of total current expenditures also went up reaching 29.5% in fiscal 1980. But from fiscal 1982 onward there was a tendency to reduce the total amount of subsidies because of the tight fiscal situation. There was also considerable rise in student and faculty members leading to higher current expenditures. However, the share of subsidies in current expenditures fell to 12.4% in fiscal 1993. Government support for the

improvement of facilities and equipment in private institutions of higher education include subsidies for large scale educational and research equipment amounting to 9,250 million yen in fiscal 1995 and for research facilities 2,753.36 million yen. The main source for funding for local public institutions of higher education is budget expenditures by the local government establishing such institutions. The subsidies for medical, dental and nursing colleges amounted to 5,000 million yen in fiscal 1995 as a part of current expenditures and improvement of educational facilities. Moreover, the government of Japan provides grant-in-aid for scientific research to promote research in institution of higher education and it was 92400 million yen in fiscal 1995. The government also provides support through the student aid program administered by the Japan Scholarship Foundation, which received a government loan of 81,300 million yen and 42,500 million yen in treasury investments and loan in fiscal 1995. The government support is also received through scholarships for outstanding young researchers and research fellowships provided by the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science. In addition to national and local governments support of higher education, some costs are also borne by students. Government university and junior college students pay between 1 million yen and 2 million yen a year and at private universities and junior colleges the annual costs are approximately 500,000 yen higher than at national and local public institutions. The main source of income to cover the expenses of university and junior college students are funds from families, scholarships loans and income from part time jobs.
In Japan, the contribution of the national and local governments to the costs of higher education is equivalent to 0.6% of national income. The percentage of government contributions for higher education is lower in Japan than other countries and students bear a high percentage of the costs through tuition and other fees. The ratio of total government outlays to national income tends to be relatively high in Europe and the United States, and so that, public expenditure, constitutes a large share of the costs of higher education. In the UK, universities are independent corporations but they depend on national government subsidies for most of their financial resources. Students pay tuition and other fees but these are included in scholarships paid to full-time students by local educational authorities where all the cost is met by the national governments. So, there is no financial burden on students as such. In the US, the costs of the public universities are met by the states establishing them and the source of income include student fees, donations, and revenue from commercial activities. The biggest source of income for private universities is student fees, however, these universities also receive public funding through levies on federal research grants to individual researchers or groups. In regard to student aid, federal government guarantees the repayment of loans from private sector financial institutions. In Germany and France there are no tuition fees. In France, as most institutions of higher education are national, most costs are met by the national government, whereas in Germany, they are established by state governments and the costs are borne by federal and state governments. In France, the cost to student is limited to recognition fees whereas in Germany, students receive
scholarships by half grant and half loan depending upon the parent’s income and other factors.

In Japan, the expansion of the budgetary bases and improvement of funding is an extremely important priority to enable institutions of higher education to fulfill the roles expected to them and to implement necessary reforms. However, gradual progress is being made despite the difficult fiscal situation facing the government. But the contribution of public funding to the costs of higher education remains lower in Japan than in Europe and the United States. So, another major priority is the continued efforts to improve mechanism for the increased flows of private sector funds into institutions of higher education. This will encourage self-help efforts by these institutions to improve their educational and research activities and management and will also help them expand their independent financial base. Moreover, the effective utilization of limited financial resources is just as important as efforts to secure funding.

Some of the problems related to National institutions are: (a) severe budgetary difficulties facing the government since the early 1980s leading to reduction of funds allocated for facility improvement, (b) buildings constructed during the rapid expansion of higher education in the early 1960s are now becoming old, (c) the state of facilities and equipment including apparatus used in experiments and research are unable to accommodate the increasing diversification and sophistication that have characterized higher education and research. These problems related to funding have been discussed in the National Diet and have been frequently covered by the media. Since fiscal 1992, MESSC has been trying hard to secure substantial growth
in funds for facility improvement in the supplementary budgets and has started a special facility improvement projects. Special funds were also introduced in the Special Account for National Educational Institutions. These projects are being funded by proceeds from the sale of sites vacated after the relocation of National institutions of higher education. The objective is to spend 20,000 million yen on systematic efforts to improve the aging and the first five-year plan is in progress to achieve this objective. Along with the improvement of aging facilities disaster prevention measures is also sought for. But, it has been pointed out that, facilities of national institutions of higher education are still far from adequate and so that, a continued efforts has been necessary to secure funding for their improvement.

V. 2b University – Industry Linkages and Corporate Funding

Cooperation between universities and industry plays an extremely important role in improving the educational and research environment and to revitalize university activities. The growing trend toward the acceptance of endowments from corporations and other private sector sources is due to financial reason. An increasing number of universities are establishing endowed chairs and research departments and using such endowments to pay the salary of faculty members and to cover the research expense of faculty and students. As of fiscal 1994, there were 57 endowed chairs and research departments to be established in 23 national universities and in one interuniversity research institute.43

Since 1983 national universities have been able to jointly undertake research with private companies. Between 1983 and 1987, National University – industry joint projects increased from 56 to 396 and university – industry coauthorship increased over the period 1984 to 1989 from 16% to 21%\textsuperscript{44}. During this time, Japanese corporations shifted the focus of research expenditure for university cooperation from the US to Japan as a result of the abolition of a law in 1989 which discouraged Japanese public universities from being involved in profit making private ventures. Since then, it has been possible for public universities to legally accept donations from private industry. Those in engineering-related fields are more willing to accept such funds than their colleagues in science, who still cling to the ideals of academic freedom in which they are free to select their own research topics. Multi-funding system, such as grant in aid funding system, has been introduced in Japanese universities recently\textsuperscript{45}. Consequently, these systems have become an important and successful organizational vehicle within the Japanese S&T policy framework and generated great impacts on university – industry (UI) relation.

In Japan, \textit{Mombusho} started many efforts to stimulate UI collaboration 1980s onward. Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) also plays a role in promoting UI collaborations.

Fig. 5.3 shows the number of joint research projects and joint research involved universities and according to this figure, the increasing trend reflects the constant growing initiatives and supports, from universities and private firms.

Fig. 5.4 depicts the constant increases in all major fields and higher percentages were witnessed in some particular fields, such as new materials (23.4%) and apparatus development (20.4%). However, the lower percentage of 10.7% in the field of software was observed. The higher percentage suggests more demands and the lower percentage means less demands for collaboration with universities from industry in such fields.
Figure 5.4: Distribution of joint research project number, by research field


Figure 5.5: Distribution of universities, by number of counterparts (firms) and average of number of joint-research projects.


a-Hirosaki University  b-Akaseki College  c-Hi-Energy Research Laboratory  d-Tokyo Inst. of Tech.  
e-Tokyo Agricultural University  f-Toyohashi Technical University  g-Tohoku University  h-Nagoya University  
i-Kyoto University  j-Osaka University  k-Tokyo University
Figures 5.5 and 5.6 show the distribution of universities with their firm counterparts and the distribution of firms with their university counterparts between 1983 to 1993. Top general national universities such as Tokyo University are involved in collaborative R&D network in a big way. Almost 142 firms have so far collaborated with Tokyo University. Osaka University has the second largest collaborative projects. The prestige of the universities and the quality of faculty play a significant role in the formation of collaborative R&D network in Japan. In addition institutes like the Toyohashi Technical University and Tokyo Agricultural University have large number of collaborative projects with large number of firms. These universities and institutes have entered into such arrangement since long. On the other hand, local universities, such as Hirosaki University and Akashi college of Technology had regular collaborative R&D network with limited specified local firms (in terms of average numbers of performed joint...
research projects). Major Japanese multinational firms such as Hitachi Co. Ltd. and Toshiba Co. Ltd. had projects with university also.

In the 1990s compared to the 1980s academics and industry are favorably inclined toward collaboration. The collaborative R&D is shifting from the traditional in-house oriented, private firm consortium led mode to UI collaborative, cross sector, trans prefecture mode.\footnote{ibid, p. 1318.}

When institutions of higher education are trying to attract corporate funding, they are adapting to the new environment for their survival. But some observers claim that universities serve the interests of industry at the expense of intellectual freedom.\footnote{Nancy Godschaemidst and James Finkelstein, "Academics on Boards: University Presidents and Corporate Boards", \textit{ACADEME,} Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors, September – October, 2001, pp. 33-37.} On the other hand, corporate support is an important ingredient to sustain private sector values such as quality, diversity and independence.\footnote{Sheila Slaughter, \textit{The Higher Learning & High Technology: Dynamics of Higher Education Policy Formation} (New York: State University of New York Press, 1990), pp. 171-187.}

Japanese government’s move toward its proposal to “corporatize” the national universities has raised many questions. “Corporatization” issue has some degree of privatization and this affect the private universities negatively.\footnote{The recent “Corporatization” issue of national universities has not solved the problem that whether this is a basic reform of the legal position or just a formal shift in establishment condition of the national universities. Again the Ministry of Education argue that it would bring more independence and autonomy for national universities. For detail, see Kazuyuki Kitamura, \textit{Private Higher Education in Japan 2001} (Tokyo: RIHE Series, 2001), p. 6-7. During my discussion with Kitamura at Waseda University one point becomes more explict that, big national universities will be stronger and small institutions will be weaker in financial situation due to “corporatization” process. In this context, Yuzi Shirakawa, a student of Waseda University says that the concept of corporate university, a policy of Koizumi government, will help the big industrial leaders through privatization and deregulation. Another student, Seiichi Karaki of the same university gives a different view point that they need more}
V. 2c. Strategy Formulation and Implementation

A strategic plan establishes the major priorities and directions for a long period with specific goals, performance measures and deadlines.\(^{50}\) It is difficult to plan ahead. Consequently both short and long term goals must be planned.

A comprehensive strategic plan is prepared to direct an institution to realize its aspirations more deeply and to provide an opportunity to evaluate what it is doing, why it does so, who does it and how will and how efficiently it is being done. Simplification, consolidation, realignment and reorganization have become very important in response to the need to balance efficiency and effectiveness. The elements of a strategic plan can be outlined as – clarity of purpose, goal setting, prioritizing long term and short term goals, review of required and available resources, action steps based on both internal and external assumptions and the subsequent determination of the best alternatives, establishment of a time table for implementation of the plan, periodic evaluation of both programs and personnel.\(^ {51}\)

Deans and directors are to be provided maximum freedom to make decisions while ensuring that they are accountable for their actions regarding fiscal expenditures. Determining the unavoidable costs of operation, simplifying administrative procedures and processes are also important. In times of fiscal stringency, services and all programs

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have to be sealed to basic institutional needs, consumer desires, and available resources. However, most programs are important, but some are more crucial than other".52

Higher education has to develop a strategy that will be good in the good times and sustain us in the bad times53. Financial management is very much 'associated with budget process and the budgeting should be viewed as a dynamic, creative, consensus building process that involve key, decision makers in an effort to set priorities.

For an effective financial Management it is important to emphasize on fund raising priorities54. He says that fund raising is one of the most important activities, and corporations and foundations should be informed as to how their contributions are being used. Also building connections with business is important in this endeavour. Effective external relationships and constructive relationship between government agencies and political leaders is essential55.

Difficult decisions must be made and creative approaches can be used to deal with the stringent financial situation paying attention to detail and getting the support of the staff. Strategic planning includes both short-and long term priorities, solutions and options. However, the most creative and visionary strategic planning is useless if it is not translated into action.56

Japan university reform was necessitated by the serious financial crisis since 1990. In order to promote administrative reform and to overcome their crisis, the government has introduced the Independent Administrative Bodies (IABs). More flexible system of planning will be facilitated across the whole coverage of university operation including financial management on the basis of autonomy, independence and self-responsibility.  

**V. 4. Information Management and Technological Response**

The world of today operates more efficiently through technology. The educational uses of technology can significantly help in meeting certain extended functions of universities and can affect modes of instructions both positively, and negatively. However, the revolution in information technology will continue and new methods of processing information, communicating with students and delivering services will be made available to institutions. Students themselves will be increasingly well informed in such matters and expect their colleges and universities to meet their needs. Again, management of

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Information is a difficult issue when organisations become synonymous with their information systems.\textsuperscript{60}

\textbf{V. 3a. Information and Communication As Resources}

Information and communication is an important resource for an organisation and is essential for realising its objectives. The process of communication can be internal, external and interpersonal, and upward, downward and across. The newly developed management information system (MIS) means the application of information technology to the communication process in the university system. It involves generating, processing, and transmitting information which assists the managers in problem-solving, decision-making and strategic planning.

In Japan, MESSC regularly convenes the Refresher Education Promotion Council to foster understanding between universities and industry and to provide a forum for exchanging views and information. It provides information about new techniques in education through the distribution of pamphlets and information videos and the publication of guides concerning the admission of workers to universities and other institutions. MESSC also conducts surveys on such issues as the aims and efficacy of companies enrolling workers in universities and other institutions and distributes the findings to universities and other organizations.

V. 3b. Open and Distance Learning and Teaching

The use of telecommunication and computerization has significantly contributed to open and distance learning and serves the varied requirements of the society. Using, telecommunication as a delivery mechanism, universities can substantially increase their ability to provide instruction at off-campus locations and augment their potential to deliver certain informational and professional services.

Using computers as an instructional tool holds great promise. The flexibility and individualization of instruction helps the universities to meet the needs of an increasingly heterogeneous student body. The development of campus wide computer networks together with modes of telecommunication can significantly increase external access to the non-instructional resource campus.

Both Audio Cassette and Video Cassettes have added substantially to the educational potential of technology. The televised material is most suited for relatively advanced subjects aimed at qualified and motivated audiences.

Open university relies primarily on printed material and assesses student progress by mailed exchanges of assignments and self-administered tests. Open university are also emphasizing on the use of highly sophisticated programmed interactive laser-read video discs. Again, the utilization of telecommunication has significantly increased competition in the educational marketplace. Many universities and colleges have begun using telecommunication in order to provide educational programs beyond the borders of the state or region in which they have authority and accreditation. This has raised a
number of difficult policy issues. The new technologies have also made it considerably easier for non academic providers of instruction to enter the market.

The computer could significantly enhance the ability of a university to meet the varied needs of a highly diversified student body. The key question is the extent to which the computer can indeed become the primary teaching source. Can this happen in all subjects and at all levels, or only for certain categories of instruction? Computer can not contribute much to the learning of open ended subjects like moral philosophy, religion, historical interpretation, literary criticism or social theory – field of knowledge that can not be reduced to formal rules and procedures.

In recent years online computer networks have increasingly been extended to industrial laboratories. This connection of university with outside world through telecommunication has been called “wired campus”. Advocates of the wired campus anticipate a linking by computers of every faculty, student desk, and all the computers in the library, research laboratory and computer centre – so as to provide everyone with – (a) all data and information and (b) communication between all sections of the institution.

The balance of benefits and risks seems to favour the new technology. But the application of technology will remain limited to fields for which it is appropriate. In particular the proper use of the
new technology will greatly enhance the ability of universities to carry out their increasing responsibilities.\textsuperscript{61}

The university of the Air was established in 1985 to meet the diverse learning needs of various sections of the society, by offering a new system of higher education. In cooperation with the National Institute of Multimedia Education (NIME) which is an inter-university research institute, and with the assistance of numerous national, local public, and private universities, it provides university education via television, radio and other media. The university of the Air has established the Faculty of Liberal Arts to provide a well-rounded liberal arts education and courses on everyday life. Not being confined to traditional framework of university disciplines, courses like science in everyday life, industrial and social studies, and humanities and natural sciences are being imparted. At present the university has 60,000 student population including workers, elderly people and homemakers. As a member of the Asian Association of Open Universities (AAOU), the university of the Air is associated with universities of the air and other institutions in other Asian countries\textsuperscript{62}.

Since fiscal year 1992, NIME played a leading role in practical research on the use of new media for refresher education, such as the use of satellite communications to link national universities with companies and other organizations. In 1994 satellite communications were used to transmit lectures, while surface lines were used to

\textsuperscript{61} Prof. Kazuyuki Kitamura argues that the excessive dependence on the new technologies calls for some caution in their application, because computer changes the relationship between teacher and student.

\textsuperscript{62} See “Higher Education in Japan” online search www.monbu.go.jp/hakusyo/1995eng/contents.html/
transmit questions and answers. Teachers at the Tokyo Institute of Technology participate in this effort\footnote{\textit{Ibid.}}.

\textbf{V, 3c. Universities/Colleges of Technology}

The university council recommended a number of measures in its June 1991 report to enable colleges of technology to keep pace with social changes, including the increasing sophistication of science and technology and the emergence of a lifelong learning society. Expansion of the fields covered by colleges of technology to enable them to establish courses in areas other than engineering and maritime technology. Establishment of an advanced course system, conferment of the title ‘associate’ on graduates, and development of streamlined and more flexible standards for the Establishment of Colleges of Technology were some of the important recommendations\footnote{\textit{Ibid.}}.

In 1976 universities of technology were established in Nagasaki and Toyohashi, primarily, to accommodate graduates of colleges of technology. Since then there has been a rapid increase in the number of engineering colleges, colleges of technology, especially national colleges. As of May 1995, there were 62 colleges of technology, with a total of 56,000 students. Moreover, new colleges of technology were established in the fields of maritime technology and radio engineering, in response to various social and economic needs. New courses were introduced and outdated ones were restructured in response to technological progress and changes in industrial
structure. The existence of these universities has significantly increased opportunities for more advanced education for graduates of colleges of technology.

Colleges of technology also emphasize on joint research with and commissioned research for industry and the provision of technical guidance. This is important both in terms of transmitting the advanced knowledge and technology of colleges of technology to society and from the viewpoint of keeping pace with technological innovation and enhancing education and research at colleges of technology.

V.4. MANAGING CURRICULUM

Exploring the forces shaping the curriculum directly and indirectly leads to a conflict situation reflecting the differing interests of managers, staff and students. Curriculum has become more complex and problematic because increasingly external bodies impose their interests challenging the existing values. Academic integrity is to be positively reasserted and several influential parties be more modest in their advocacy of change.

V. 4a. Flexibility and Inter-disciplinarity

Under contemporary conditions, curriculum must be relevant for the future and it must focus on the development of student’s talent and choice and flexibility in the mode of study. Presently, the task

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65 Ibid.
66 Colleges of technology are institutions of higher education that provide five-year programs of integrated practical education through the provision of extensive curricula focusing on experiments and practical training and based on small classes.
confronting the university is how to transfer a very heavily course dominated institution to a more flexible modular structure with much greater potential for educational development. The aim is the development of students’ intellectual and imaginative power, their understanding and judgment, their ability to communicate and see their education in a broader perspective. There must be interdisciplinary approach in teaching a course which enables a student to understand a problem in its totality. Computer resources serve as a useful instrument for interdisciplinary work.\(^68\)

Today, it is essential that the course contents include nature and structure of human culture, place of a human being in the society and their role in the world teach them interrelations with other people. This involves a model of humanistic development with a willingness to accept the standpoint of others, the ability to analyze psychologically the psychological reality, the skill to control emotional states, and the ability to build a perspective on the future. However, in more recent times, a preoccupation with national economic competitiveness has led to a greater emphasis on science and technology in the curriculum. So, the core of the curriculum remains a mixture of factual knowledge, cognitive operations and technological competencies and the consideration of values, beliefs, emotions and sentiments is almost always subordinate.\(^69\)

Introducing new courses on a variety of topics is important aspect of curriculum management. By 1994, there were 260 universities to introduce interdisciplinary courses which was about two and half


\(^{69}\) Peter Lang et.al., Affective Education: A Comparative View (New York: Gassell, 1998).
times more than in 1992. Interestingly some universities are offering interdisciplinary courses on a wide range of modern themes, such as “culture and exchange”, “the environment and people”, “Awareness of nature” and “human education”. These innovations in curriculum are significant attempts to respond to a number of changes and to expand interdisciplinary research to deal appropriately with the increasingly issues of complex modern society. Universities are also establishing highly original and diversified courses. A small group of students participate in discussion on specific themes and outside experts provide information about the latest research. A number of universities are also offering courses that involve volunteer activities which give practical training in welfare and nursing fields to students. By 1993, there were 63 universities to establish courses involving volunteer activities.\textsuperscript{70}

\textbf{V. 4b. Democratization and Internationalisation}

In Japan, people have moved from an authoritarian state to a democratic one. The transition to democracy and its subsequent consolidation and development have taken place in an atmosphere of war. Today, Japan is a democratic state fully integrated in the international community and is aspiring to play an important role in world affairs. Education is one of the key elements in fulfilling this goal. This has meant a big change from the approaches prevailing fifty years back.\textsuperscript{71}

\textsuperscript{70} Ibid.
The recent issues concerning the democratization of education and the state can not determine or organize the educational system in accordance with any political, ideological, philosophical or religious orientation. Curriculum in universities must aim at freedom of thought, respect for autonomy and instill commitment to social progress and transformation with a sense of national identity that respects for others. It must train students to indulge in dialogue in a democratic spirit that values universal humanism, justice, solidarity and international cooperation.\footnote{Peter Lang et.al., n. 69.}

The development of integrated curricula is one of the major reform initiative. The distinctions among subject categories were abolished and a new provision was added requiring universities to give due consideration in structuring educational programs to enrich human development by providing deep, broad based education in the liberal arts and by instilling comprehensive judgment skills in addition to teaching specialized knowledge in major subjects. There are various approaches to the implementation of an integrated and systematic four year (or six year) curriculum. One method is to cater to students' intellectual curiosity by bringing them into contact with major subjects in the first two years. Another approach focuses on the achievement of an organic linkages between general and specialized education.\footnote{See 'What people study at universities' online search (www.monbu.go.jp/hakusyo/1995eng/contents.html).}
V.4c. Managing English Language

Japan desires to play an influential role in world affairs but lack of proficiency in English language is one of the biggest issues that confront contemporary Japan. It must be met urgently if Japan is to surmount its language barriers and play the international role in the world. 74

The biggest cause for declining English abilities in Japan was man-made, in the form of policy adopted. Some scholars feel that Japan deserves to be labeled as failed state because it has failed in English—the lingua franca of today's world. Competence in English is indispensable for the growth of Japan's capitalism. A renowned Japanologist Edwin O. Reischauer is of the opinion that Japanese would have to master a language of international communication. A great deal of progress has been made since then, particularly in the areas of most urgent need, but the real problem lies in the lack of interest on the part of the Japanese leadership and the public. Nevertheless, recent debates suggest that English should be made an official language of Japan. However, there has already been a greater emphasis on the mastery of the English language as a tool for international communication.

The most well known attempt by the Japanese government to improve foreign language teaching in Japan was the introduction of the

77 Reischauer, n. 74, p. 392.
Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) programme in 1987. Japan is now the biggest employer of British University graduates each year to teach English. Around 700 were employed in 2000. Most of them are employed as Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) with others employed as co-ordinators of International Relations (CIRs), and Sports Exchange Advisors (SEAs).\(^7^9\)

Universities are increasingly providing high priority to foreign language education, realising the importance of understanding foreign culture and mutual respect in a globalized world. By 1994, there were 305 universities, more than half the universities in Japan, to implement reforms in foreign language education using language laboratories and video technology and dividing the courses into small classes of conversation, composition and speed reading.\(^8^0\)

**V.5. MODERNIZING GOVERNANCE**

Today, management of universities is defined by laws and regulations, but within this framework, management is left to the discretion of individual universities. In order to modernize governance, universities need to revitalize the organization through new plan and policies, and through facilitating their decision making and management. Moreover, university mechanism vary according to the characteristics of individual universities in terms of founder, size and history. There is also difference among faculties of the same

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\(^7^9\) Ibid, p. 59-60.

\(^8^0\) See 'What people study at universities' online search (www.monby.go.jp/hakusyo/1995eng.contents.html).

\(^8^1\) Governance relates to techniques, rules, arrangement in an organization in which transparency accountability, responsiveness, and democracy are maintained. For further detail, see Phillip A. Goltznbach, “Conditions of Collaboration: A Dean’s List of DOS and Don’ts”, *ACADEME*, Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors, May – June, 2001, pp. 16-21.
university. Improvements cannot be achieved merely by applying uniform measures. However, given the growing organizational scale of universities and the increasing sophistication and complexity of issues confronting them, it is necessary to modernize organization in such areas as planning, surveys and public relations. In addition, modernization effort must enable each university to choose the most appropriate system within a range of options as universities are diverse, and it is not appropriate to administer them uniformly. University governance must follow a perspective of increasing universities’ self responsibility and autonomy.\textsuperscript{82}

It is important to view higher education as a single system in which individual universities and other institutions interact while carrying out diverse and individualized educational and research activities, so that these institutions as a whole can meet society’s expectations and raise the standard of education and research. As it is necessary to expand interaction among institutions, these institutions must also consider the provision of increased flexibility. The university council in its September 1993 preliminary report, entitled: “Deliberations concerning the improvement of University Entrance Examinations” discussed special selection procedures for adult students. In fiscal 1994 Special Selection Procedures for adult students had been followed by 207 universities and 4199 students were admitted under such procedures.\textsuperscript{83}

\textsuperscript{82} See ‘Toward Further University Reform’ online search (www.monbu.go.jp/hakusyo/1995eng/contents.html).
\textsuperscript{83} See ‘How Universities are changing’ online search (www.monbu.go.jp/hakusyo/1995eng/contents.html).
V. 5a. Evaluation, Ranking, and Accountability

In Japan, although a number of universities maintained self-monitoring and self-evaluation programs in the past, the practice was not universal. However, as a result of the June 1991 amendment of the Standards for the Establishment of Universities, universities are required to subject their educational and research activities to self-monitoring and self-evaluation. There has been a rapid increase in the efforts of universities to implement self-evaluation programs and as of fiscal 1994, there were 434 universities i.e. approximately 80% of all universities, to establish internal regulations concerning self-monitoring and self-evaluation. Self-monitoring and self-evaluation include such areas as —educational philosophy and aims, educational activities, research activities, faculty organization, facilities and equipment, international exchange, cooperation with the industry and the community, administration and financial management, and self-evaluation systems.

To enable universities to ascertain their current situation and problem, self-monitoring and self-evaluation helps the authority to identify the problem and make improvements on their own initiative. Also, universities can inform their communities of their circumstances and seek community input, by publishing the findings of their self-monitoring and self-evaluation programs. Self-monitoring and self-evaluation may cover all aspects of educational and research activities of the university, or the university may produce reports describing faculty members' research activities and achievements and providing information about future directions in faculty research, or it may publish reports concerning the monitoring and evaluation of specific
issues. These specific issues include evaluation of student life styles including health management, library use, the condition for foreign students etc. Universities that carry out comprehensive self-monitoring and self-evaluation covers all aspects of their education and research activities at the university and faculty levels and publish the findings under such titles as "X university's self-monitoring and self-evaluation report" or "The current status of and issues facing Y university". These reports contain detailed information about the university's history, current status and issues, trends in educational and research activities, student conditions, international exchange activities, administrative organization and management, and operational systems. However, carrying out self-monitoring and self-evaluation and publish the findings are not the end of the process, rather it is an important step on the path to new university reforms. The next step is the implementation of concrete university reforms based on the results of self-monitoring and self-evaluation. Very recently, there has been an increase in the trend towards self-monitoring and self-evaluation among Japanese universities. In fiscal 1994, 190 universities i.e. about one third of all universities and over 40% of the universities that had established internal regulations concerning self-monitoring and self-evaluation had published reports.84

In Japan, universities are accountable to community life through close communication with their local communities. This is done by

distribution of reports and other information about their institutions throughout the community. They provide not only details of entrance examinations but also information about university characteristics and such areas as educational content and progress toward university reform, libraries and other facilities through the HEART system established by the NCUEE. Some universities even go to the extent of commissioning evaluations by outside experts in order to attain maximum objectivity. As of 1994, nine faculties and research institutes in five universities had commissioned and published evaluations by outside experts. In addition, some universities also seek the view and assessments of companies that employ large number of their graduates each year, to obtain information which may be utilized in future reform efforts. They take into consideration the business opinion about them. They also make an active contributions in response to regional needs, making full use to their human and material resources.85

V. 5b. Planning, Development and Coordination

The basic operational philosophy of modernizing governance is to be viable and effective and must be founded on holistic developmental approach. It has to be also flexible, dynamic and responsive. The planning should be a continuous process that defines specific goals with specific time period.

There must be an institutional commitment to modernizing governance substantiated by the budget, staffing and other resources. Governance must be a high priority – concern on campus

85 Ibid.
with high coordination and accountability. For this, the administrators must carefully build credibility - and cooperation among many elements of the institution. Regular meetings with carefully planned agendas must ensure the circulation of information and coordination of policies and procedures.

'Collaboration' is an important element for modernizing governance and for this both faculty members and administrators collaborate in creating well-run colleges and universities. Institutions often face difficult and even intractable problems and for this the power of rationality must prevail by maintaining good working relationship.

A survey revealed that in openness of teaching organization reforms, the public sector is at the top whereas in the 'openness' of research organization national universities score maximum points. In terms of flexibility it is the private university and in terms of diversification, it is the national university which score highest point. Moreover, the improvements for cooperation among private universities have been found less than other sectors. Among sectors, public university has formed the strongest relationship between university and community because they were supported by local governments.

V. 5c. Change and Innovation

For modernizing governance, change and innovation in structure, process, and attitude is important. Structural change can be seen in widespread debate about faculty contracts, merit pay programs, and new governance models. Process oriented change involves changes in

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86 Glotzbach, n. 81, pp. 16-21.
87 Yamanoi, n. 38, pp. 11-32.
the way that people operate within and relate to others within the existing structures of the organization. Process changes also include shifts in communication patterns, modes of decision making, collaborative management, and conflict resolution. Changes in attitudes involve modifications in organizational culture, images of leadership, and personal growth and development among members of the organization. However, concern for changes in these three areas does not necessarily translate into useful action if all these three domains are not involved together. 88

There are four strategies for the diffusion and use of innovative ideas - rational planning, social interaction, human problem solving and political approach. 89 Universities with rational planning are systematic, information based, research based and logical. But, advocates of the negotiating culture see weaknesses in rational approach, which involves with critical thinking workshop group. The human problem resolution model assumes that collaboration and openness are better than competition and rigidity, and that consensus should always be obtained as opposed to the use of majority rule or authoritative decree. Advocates of this strategy tend to discount the rational planning approach as it ignores the role of human emotions in decision-making process. The political approach specifically emphasizes that change is possible and needs can be met with sufficient commitment on the part of those in power. These variety of strategies must be taken into account when addressing the


89 Ibid, pp. 198-207.
complicated organizational cultures and problems now facing colleges and universities.\textsuperscript{90}

In Japan, in a survey taken in Hiroshima University on 'style of Governance' it has been found that 33\% of Japanese academics supported Top-down style whereas of 32.2\% supported Bottom-up style. However, what might be the new governance model is a big question.\textsuperscript{91}

\textsuperscript{90} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{91} Yamanoi, n. 37, p.32.