

THE IMPACT OF EDUCATION IN TRANSFORMING JAPAN FROM FEUDALISM TO MODERNITY

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Abstract

Education constituted one of the fundamental tools that played a pivotal role in consolidating Japanese values and identity following the Meiji Restoration in 1868. This transformation was marked by the issuance of the Educational System Ordinance in 1872, which aimed primarily at building a modern state capable of defending itself. As political and military developments progressed, education increasingly sought to instill the notion that the individual is an integral part of the state and must be willing to sacrifice for its sake.

The Kaishō era witnessed the reinforcement of these principles, with growing emphasis on military training—an element that became central to educational policy following the invasion of Manchuria in 1931. During this period, the concept of "Yoshidō" emerged as a supreme value, and education contributed significantly to shaping a generation imbued with military ideals and prepared for combat and sacrifice. This educational orientation paved the way for Japan's expansionist military campaigns up to 1945.

This chapter highlights the most significant transformations that education helped establish, particularly in embedding these national and militaristic values.

⁽¹⁾ Since the beginning of this era, it has focused on four main axes, namely the enrichment of the country, the strengthening of the military, the development of industry, and the enlightenment of society. There is no doubt that these policies can only be achieved through the educational policy, which was one of the most important things

⁽¹⁾Emperor Meiji: The Meiji era is named after Emperor Mutsuhito, who was named Emperor Meiji and means enlightened reformer. He was born on October 3, 1852, he took over at the age of fifteen, but he officially assumed power on January 3, 1868, and his reign witnessed many reforms through the abolition of the old system and the introduction of new laws in various aspects of political, economic and social life, and he pursued a policy of openness to the West, and the country developed in various aspects. He died of illness on July 30, 1912 and was buried in Momoyama Shrine in Fushimi, which is considered by the Japanese to be a shrine visited by all over Japan, for more details, see: William Isaiah Odishu, *The Political System and Contemporary Japanese Foreign Policy*, Amman, Academic Book Center, pp. 31-35; Ahmad Amir Ismail, *The Reform Movement in Japan 1868-1912*; Master's Thesis (Unpublished), Faculty of Education (Ibn Rushd), University of Baghdad, 2006, p.? Hisham Abdel Raouf Hassan, *History of Japan in the Meiji Era (First Renaissance) 1868-1912 AD*, Dar Al-Ma'arif, Cairo, vol. 1, 2012, pp. 77-85.

that were affected by these changes. The Meiji government in 1868 began the process of change and modernization, and this was manifested in the imperial charter issued on April 6, 1868, which included relying on modern scientific methods and avoiding the old methods, and the government relied on the Western model in the modernization process and how it adapted to the Japanese situation, as for the primary school system, it was influenced by the American system, while the administrative structure and middle schools were influenced by the French system, while higher education was influenced by the Prussian model, so these models played a great role in the process of modernization and the use of the latest means in the The education process was all thanks to government support for education⁽²⁾.

First: The beginnings of the formation of the educational system in the Meiji era:

An important factor in the modernization process was the sending of a large number of young students to Western countries to study and transfer experiences to Japan after their return from scholarships, and a number of foreign experts were employed as teachers and consultants in Japanese schools and universities, and the number of experts appointed during the Meiji government ranged from about 6000 experts, which is a very large number at that time. Their jobs were distributed among teachers, curriculum preparation and administrators, and these were from various Western countries, especially from the United States of America, Britain, France and Prussia, as they were the first countries in the field of education⁽³⁾.

Educational historians point out that the beginning of modern education in Japan dates back to the Gakusei Plan⁽⁴⁾, the first national plan for education, issued on 8 August 1872. Implemented from April 1873, the Gakusei Plan is the most important historical document developed by the eminent Japanese thinker Yukichi Fukuzawa , who is the only one who laid the foundation for the first national plan for education, and defined its general purposes more than anyone else, and therefore deserves recognition as a pioneer in modern Japanese education. Although he had no position in the office of the Ministry of Education, his influence on modern Japanese education was very great⁽⁵⁾.

(2) Nicolas De Alba-Fernandez and others, handbook of Research on Education for Participative Citizenship and Global Prosperity, New York, IGI global Press, 2019. P.175.

(3)Edward R. Beauchamp, The Development of Japanese Educational Policy 1945-1985, History of Education Quarterly, Vol.27, No.3 (Autumn, 1987), P.300.

(4) Yukichifukuzawa was a Japanese thinker born in 1835 from a poor family of samurai from the city of Nagasaki, where he completed his first studies, mastered the Dutch language, established a private school for the teaching of the Dutch language, which later became Keio University in 1858, and played a major role in Japanese education and modernization, adopted Western thought, linked the independence and development of his country to the adoption of Western civilization, and translated many Western books on philosophers and politicians into Japanese, died on February 3, 1901. Maysoon Abbas, Education in Japan during the Meiji Era 1868-1912: A Historical Study, Journal of the Faculty of Basic Education, Vol. (21), No. 88, 2015, p. 561.

(5) Benjamin C. Duke, The History of Modern Japanese Education: Constructing the National School System 1872-1890, Rutgers University Press, P. 61.

Rinshō Mitsukuri ⁽⁶⁾ was influenced by Fukuzawa's proposals during this period, and was responsible for the preparation of the first national plan for education and was an important educational figure in Japan, reaching an impressive level of proficiency, and was fluent in a number of languages, including French, which qualified him to represent the Tokugawa government at the Great Paris World's Fair in 1867. Upon his return to Japan after the fall of the feudal system in 1868, he was appointed to the Ministry of Education in the new Meiji government, and was tasked with developing Japan's first plan for a national education system, the first of its kind in the history of modern Japanese education, in cooperation with Fukuzawa⁽⁷⁾.

A committee was formed during the Meiji period, Gakkō Torishirabe Goyōgakari, in 1871 to study the development of a mechanism for the development of education in schools, to which Mitsukuri was appointed, and the establishment of an office of educational affairs was proposed. This committee served as the nucleus for the establishment of the Ministry of Education, and many of its members, including Mitsukuri, became officials in the ministry when it was inaugurated on 18 July 1871.⁽⁸⁾

⁽⁶⁾ Rinshūmitsukuri is a Japanese thinker born in 1846 from a family known for science and knowledge, he traveled to Paris in 1867 to represent Japan at the Paris Exposition and upon his return to the country worked as a translator for the French language and was close to the French advisors, he became deputy minister of justice in 1888 for a year and then became president of Wafutsu University, which later became Hosei University, and he played a major role in modernizing Japanese education and blending it with Western education. See: Wilhelm Röhl, *History of Law in Japan Since 1868*, Brill Press, 2005, P.71.

⁽⁷⁾ Benjamin C. Duke, *Op.Cit.*, P.68.

⁽⁸⁾ Born on 18 March 1834 in Saka Prefecture, a prominent Japanese statesman during the Meiji Reforms, he held several government positions, most notably as Deputy Minister of Education for a short time in 1871, where he actively contributed to laying the foundations of the central educational administration in the modern Japanese state, albeit in a temporary position of about ten days, he died tragically on April 13, 1874, after the failure of his revolutions in the era of the Saga Invasion, after he was executed for his leadership Revolution against the government. See :

Stephen Vlastos, "opposition Movement in Early Meiji, 1868-1885" In *The Cambridge History of Japan, Vol. 5 : The Nineteenth Century* (University Press, 1989), P.. 367 ; Benjamin Duke, *Op. Cit.*, P 112.

EtōShimpei was chosen as interim minister and ten days later Takatookai was chosen⁽⁹⁾ ŌkiTakatō Minister of Education⁽¹⁰⁾.

The first push in the field of ⁽¹¹⁾education development in Japan began with the establishment of the Japanese Ministry of Education through the appointment of more than 50 personalities with Western educational backgrounds in important positions in the ministry, and the trend to modernize the educational system according to the Western curriculum, but most of the officials selected for the task were of Japanese feudal origins, so they preserved Japanese values and traditions while modernizing in a way that does not contradict Confucianism, which is considered one of the important values⁽¹²⁾. This means that the Japanese have tried to marry modern styles with their traditions, which preserves the cultural identity and does not compromise it.

The timing of the establishment of the Ministry of Education in July 1871 seems to have had an important historical perspective, since the government abolished the Han feudal system and replaced it with a state or prefecture system of government as of 28 August 1871, with the country divided into seventy-two prefectures or prefectures and three large cities⁽¹³⁾. This made Japan administratively unified and centralized in its administration, which made it easier for the government to implement its various policies, especially in the educational aspect. ⁽¹⁴⁾

⁽⁹⁾ Takato Okai was a Japanese politician (1832-1899) who was one of the prominent jurists of the samurai class in Saga Prefecture, who was appointed as the first Minister of Education on September 12, 1872, and drew up a framework for the organization of education at its various levels, primary, intermediate and university within a network of national schools that seeks to enhance the national power and wealth.

Brian Platt, *Schooling and State Formation in Japan 1750-1890* (Cambridge MA : Harvard University Asia Center, 2004), P.144-185;

Abd al-Rahman al-Naqib, *The Modern History of Japan and Institutes*, Cairo, Anglo-Egyptian Library, 2005, p. 145; Maysoon Abbas Hussein, "Education in Japan during the Meiji Era (1868-1912), A Historical Study", *Journal of the Faculty of Basic Education, Al-Mustansiriya University*, vol. 21, p. 88, 2023, pp. 557-577.

⁽¹⁰⁾ Benjamin C. Duke, *Op. Cit.*, P. 68.

⁽¹¹⁾ Confucianism: According to the Chinese philosopher Confucius (551-479 BC), the influence of this philosophy began first on China and then moved to Japan in the ninth century AD, and Confucianism emphasizes rationality in which man is psychologically disciplined, emphasizes morality, which it considers to be the basis of everything, and politically emphasizes that the state should be governed by men of high morals, and emphasizes education, a good life and mutual respect among all segments of society. See: Fouad Muhammad Shibl, *China Has Been Ruled Since the Earliest Times*, vol. 1, Cairo, Dar al-Ma'arif (1967), pp. 63-70; Tariq Jassim Hussain, *The Roots of Modernization in Japan in the Late Tokokawa Dynasty 1853-1868*, Unpublished Master's Thesis, Faculty of Arts, University of Baghdad, 2009, p. 40.

⁽¹²⁾ Brian J. McVeigh, *Interpreting Japan: Approaches and Applications for the Classroom*, New York, Taylor & Francis Group, 2014, p. 71.

⁽¹³⁾ Benjamin C. Duke, *Op. Cit.*, P. 69.

⁽¹⁴⁾ Han: It is a Japanese term that refers to a feudal system that existed during the Edo period (1603-1868), as a system of administrative divisions, and more than 300 feudal lordships were under the shogunate and during the Meiji era that were

This unification and administrative organization after the promulgation of the Prefectural Law paved the way for the desire of those in charge of the education file to implement a unified educational policy that would achieve the objectives put forward by the Meiji government, which realized that the existence of the feudal system was an obstacle in the way of the implementation of its various policies.⁽¹⁵⁾

The first education plan in Japan was influenced by French educational policy through the translation of many French curricula, and it seems that most of the workers in the plan were graduates of France, including Fukuzawa and Rinsho Mitsukuri, who studied in France and were influenced by the French school in education. Japanese⁽¹⁶⁾.

Japanese leaders considered France to be a country of high cultural standards and superior to other Western countries, especially in the French legal system, which was already considered superior to the legal system of other Western countries.⁽¹⁷⁾

The study of the French educational system shows that it is very relevant to the Japanese Jacques system, as both arose from a social and political revolution. Under the Napoleonic regime, the famous French University was established in accordance with the law of 1808, in which the state monopolized education, as the entire system was centralized and organized under the control of the government through this one comprehensive institution. The fundamental principle of state control over education for the benefit of the state reflects Napoleon's⁽¹⁸⁾ position Bonaparte towards education, as stipulated in his decree which provided for the formation of a body under the title of the Imperial University exclusively responsible for education and public affairs. Education is throughout the Empire and no school or educational institution of any kind may be established outside the Imperial University⁽¹⁹⁾.

It is necessary to know why the American, British, or German administrative model of Japan was not chosen in 1872 by Mitsukuri and his team, although many articles and documents on education were translated for each of these leading Western countries, but the United States of America did not support a national school system under central control in Washington under the supervision of the Ministry of Education, nor were the British settled on some form of education in the Ministry of Education, although the British Most schools were either directly subordinate or heavily influenced by the Church of England or other Christian bodies. Prior to the unification of Germany

abolished in the 1870s, for more details, see: Mohamed Moussa Othman and Hamdi Abdel Azim, *The Economic System in Japan and Egypt: A Comparative Study*, Sadat Academy of Administrative Sciences, 1997, p. 90.

⁽¹⁵⁾ Ibid, P. 70.

⁽¹⁶⁾ Frank Nieves, *The Modern Samurai: Martial Studies & the Modernization of the Japanese School System*, Miami, Institute of Budo Studies, 2016, p. 22.

⁽¹⁷⁾ Scott W. Morton, Kenneth J. Olenik, *Japan: its history and culture*, McGraw-Hill Education Press, P. 152.

⁽¹⁸⁾ Napoleon Carlo Bonaparte (1769-1821) was a French military and political commander of Corsican origin, born in the city of Ajaccio, on the island of Corsica on August 15, 1779, who rose to prominence during the French Revolution, rose rapidly through the ranks of the army, and was crowned Emperor of France in 1804, known for his administrative and legal reforms that undermined Napoleon's Code and his military campaigns that reshaped the political map of Aruba. Elias Abu Shabaka, *History of Napoleon Bonaparte (1769-1821)*, Beirut, Dar Al-Sader, 1995, p. 8.

⁽¹⁹⁾ Benjamin C. Duke, *Op.Cit.*, P. 70.

under Bismarck in 1870, the Germanic states did not have⁽²⁰⁾ a national school system either. Therefore, only France could be the only Western power at the time of the Meiji Reformation to have the most developed national school system, which had arisen under Napoleon. It was a natural decision of the Mitsukuri office to adopt the French model of educational administration in Japan's first attempt to establish a national school system, and to place control of education in the hands of the Ministry⁽²¹⁾.

After the committee had completed the draft plan by March 1872, it submitted it to the Imperial Council of State for discussion, comments, and conformity with Japanese law, especially since this Council was the supreme authority in legislation, and after the Council approved the plan, an Imperial Decree was issued approving this law, which was published on 2 August 1872⁽²²⁾.

Four months of intensive negotiations to obtain formal approval for the legislation of the Jacques Act resulted in the establishment of a national school system that would include the education of all children without exception and with a very large budget comparable to that of the Ministry of Defense, Justice and Works.

Table (1)
Illustrates the evolution of public education expenditures in Japan (billions of yen)⁽²³⁾

Municipality	counties	Country	Years
8643	1222	1036	1885
7487	1188	931	1890
10772	1874	1598	1895
26347	8845	5834	1900
28143	9012	5666	1905
60472	15835	9010	1910
62437	17158	10566	1915
200558	55783	44066	1920
249458	92582	100388	1925
204010	105612	143320	1930

⁽²⁰⁾ Bismarck: Otto von Bismarck (1815-1868), a prominent German politician and diplomat nicknamed "The Iron Chancellor", best known for his diligence in employing alliances and realpolitik to achieve the unity of the German states under the leadership of Prussia, played a decisive role in the declaration of the establishment of the German Empire in 1871 and served as its first chancellor until 1890, laying the foundations of its domestic and foreign policy for more details see: Khansa Zaki Shams al-Din, *The Role of the German Chancellor in the Achievement of German Unity (1847-1890)*, Ph.D. Thesis, University of St. Clavien, Faculty Political Science, 2011, p. 79; Emil Ludwig, *Bismarck, The Life of a Struggler*, translated by Adel Zwaiter, Cairo, Hindawi Foundation, 2021, p. 15.

⁽²¹⁾ Benjamin C. Duke, *Op. Cit*, P. 70.

⁽²²⁾ Nihon Yunesuko Kokunaiinkai, *History of Industrial Education in Japan 1868-1900*, Japanese National Commission for Unesco, 2009, P. 115.

⁽²³⁾ Yamaguchi Naoko, *Annexe Statistiques sur l'education, Dans L'experience de du Japon en matière de coopération internationale*, agence Japonaise de coopération internationale, Novembre 2005, 259-269.

242878	103102	151100	1935
201540	199697	270673	1940

This is a testament to the serious keenness of the Government to build a new generation that tends to be modern and acquires skills to compete with the developed countries of the West⁽²⁴⁾.

This ambitious plan faced the objection of the Ministry of Finance, which looked at the difficult economic situation that Japan went through, especially since the Japanese Ministry of Education did not clearly put forward the resources through which this plan could be financially supported and demanded that the ministry make fundamental adjustments that are compatible with the economic situation and government policies, and it was returned to the Ministry of Education, which tried to address the government objections, and after difficult negotiations, a financial settlement was reached, as the ministry's budget was reduced by half in order to The Jakosi Plan was financed by the local governments in the provinces with a fee for students to further develop the plan and build new educational institutions⁽²⁵⁾.

The Jakusi Act of 1872 is arguably the first public school system in the country. This system is distinguished by its brevity and simplicity. In its original version, the proposal covered 44 handwritten pages, with only 12 lines. It was divided into a four-page preamble. Seven pages were devoted to provisions for Japanese students studying abroad, which were indirectly related to the local school system itself, six pages listed only the names of places or subjects, and five were devoted to Pages for a thorough explanation of the proposed scholarship system for students. The remaining pages describe in detail an entire school system in the utmost brevity and simplicity, and historians have written about it as the best educational plan in Japan's modern history.

The JAOXI plan consisted of 109 subjects spread over eight chapters, which were more like a comprehensive guide regulating education in Japan, which are:

- 1- Chapter One: General Principles.
- 2- Chapter Two: Dividing the country into regions and setting the structure of schools.
- 3- Chapter Three: Curriculum.
- 4- Chapter Four: Training of Teachers and Their Salaries.
- 5- Chapter Five: School Management and Funding.
- 6- Chapter Six: Rules of Discipline and School System.
- 7- Chapter Seven: Examinations and Certificates.
- 8- Chapter VIII: Final Provisions⁽²⁶⁾.

The Meiji government set out the main objectives of the new system in the preamble to the Jakuse, as well as the general provisions contained in the First National

⁽²⁴⁾ Jaafar Abdullah Jaafar Al-Tamimi, Education in Japan 1945-2008 (A Historical Study), published doctoral thesis, Faculty of Education for Humanities, University of Basra, 2018, pp. 37-45.

⁽²⁵⁾ Hirata Munefumi, Kindai Nihon KyōikuSeido Shi, History of the Modern Japanese Education System, Tokyo, KitaōjiShobō Press, 1991, P. 37.

⁽²⁶⁾ Ministry of Education, Gakusei Hachijunenshi : Eighty Year History of the School ststem, Tokoy, Bureay of the ministry of finance Press, 1954, PP.111-169; Kadhim Helan Mohsen and Jaafar Abdullah, Public Education Schools in Japan during the American Occupation (1945-1952), Basra Research Journal for Humanities 43, No. 1, 2018, p. 125.

Plan for Education in Japan , and considered this to be the official position of the Meiji government on education at the beginning of the modernization process, which can be summarized as follows:

- 1- The purpose of the new education is to develop the ability to advance in life within each student.
- 2- Emphasizing the need to avoid the new curriculum of the feudal teachings of the past, which have proven to be meaningless, and to replace them with new courses that enable the individual to advance in life with technological knowledge in accordance with the changes that have taken place in the world and development, especially after the Industrial Revolution.
- 3- In contrast to the old schools, which each served a particular social class, all students must attend school regardless of their social background so that no uneducated member of any household should be in the household.
- 4- Since the community will primarily benefit from the school, it is necessary to finance it from the community, by charging fees for the development of the sector⁽²⁷⁾.

It can be concluded from the vision of modern Japan adopted by the leaders of the Meiji government in the education plan that it adopted three basic concepts, the first individualism, i.e. education that develops the individual for life, and that the new schools are the means to achieve enlightenment for all Japanese and are no longer reserved for a select group as was the case in the pre-Meiji era, thus eliminating illiteracy. The second concept that was emphasized in the preamble is pragmatism or realism because success in life requires that each individual acquire the skills and abilities necessary to survive in a society that has developed significantly after the Industrial Revolution in Europe and the new schools are obliged to equip every child with the knowledge and skills necessary to meet this requirement. The report described feudal education under the Tokugawa system as a waste of time for those seeking to advance in the world, so Chinese classics, which were an old-school staple, were omitted. In the new schools, mathematics, science, and foreign languages moved to be the core of the new education. The aim was to provide the new Japanese with the knowledge and technical skills needed to secure jobs, earn money, and advance in the capitalist society envisioned by the early Meiji decision-makers. The third concept on which the plan focused was the equality of social classes, which was differentiated in the feudal government of Tokugawa, all children in the New Testament, regardless of social class and the sexes, equal in rights and attend a common public primary school together. It was decided that the school would be a tool for social reconstruction aimed at eliminating the economic and political class disparities that characterized the rigid social class structure in Tokugawa.

The new educational plan achieved two comprehensive principles of education, each with social dimensions: universal primary education established the concepts of mass education and large-scale literacy, a goal that no country in the world had achieved by the 1870s. Thus, education in Japan from the first school year focused on providing primary education for all, regardless of class or gender. The second principle of great importance, the centrality of education, placed the responsibility of determining educational policy The nation is in the hands of the relevant government apparatus of

⁽²⁷⁾ Tessa Morris-Suzuki, *The Technological Transformation of Japan: From the Seventeenth to the Twenty-First Century*, Cambridge University Press, 1994, PP. 80-84.

the Ministry of Education, and education has continued to be in the hands of the central Government ever since⁽²⁸⁾.

The administrative structure played a major role in the success of the educational plan as it represented centralization in education, and all Japanese prefectures were subject to centralized control, which is the French model and according to the administrative system of the Jakusi Plan the country was divided into eight central educational districts called daiga koku (university districts) responsible for administering the educational policy emanating from the Minister of Education. Thus this provision established a centralized national school system from the beginning of the modernization process. Each of the eight university prefectures was responsible for Thirty-two school districts, each of which has a population of about 130,000⁽²⁹⁾.

The 4-year school was divided into a lower division for elementary children aged six to nine or ten, and a higher 4-year division for students between the ages of ten and fourteen. The secondary school was also divided into a lower division for fourteen to sixteen-year-old students and a higher division for children between the ages of seventeen and nineteen. Elementary school teachers were required not to They must be under twenty years of age and have a certificate from ⁽³⁰⁾ the Shihan Gakko Teacher Training School or have completed junior high school. Middle school teachers must be at least twenty-five years old and have a university degree. The primary school curriculum begins with the three core subjects including reading (Dokuhon), writing (Shoji), pronunciation (Tango) and Conversation (Kaiwa)Kaiwa, mathematics, and history.

⁽²⁸⁾ Asoko Nguyen, Educational policy in the Meiji Japan: a synthesis review and its implications for Vietnamese education reforms, University of Social Sciences and Humanities VNU-HCM, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam, 2021, PP.3-4.

⁽²⁹⁾ Benjamin C. Duke, Op. Cit., P. 75.

⁽³⁰⁾ Shihan Jaku is a teacher training school established in Japan in the 1920s, designed to graduate primary school teachers, but its programs are divided into two types: a four-year program for holders of a higher primary school certificate and a two-year program for graduates of optional high schools.) where it was free of charge and constituted the first official way to graduate qualified teachers as educational entrepreneurs for more details see:

Partl. Overview of the History of Japan's Education, JICA Report, PP.10-11; The Training of Teachers in Japan : A Historical Survey (ERIC Publication), P.153; The Origin of Teaching as a Profession in Japan : A Transnational Analysis of the Relationship between professionalism and Nationalism in the 19th century "Espacio, Tiempo y Educación 5, Ni.2 (July – Dec 2018) : P.35-54.

Ethics (Shoshin) was added⁽³¹⁾ in the next rank out of a total of fifteen subjects, ending with Taiso and Shoka singing⁽³²⁾.

The new National Plan for Education has stirred up popular and political circles, especially since it adopted the construction of more than 53,000 new public primary schools, and raised questions about whether the government could fund such a large number of new schools. The Ministry of Finance refused to fund this project, but the Mitsu Courier Yenshu office had developed a solution to this obstacle and implemented the proposed system. They should pay for it. With this understanding, government approval has been granted⁽³³⁾.

It can be said that the national plan was the basis for Japan to rise up and be a strong country that competed with Western countries, especially if it adopted the approach of modernization and benefited from the experiences of developed countries to transform Japan from feudalism to modernity while preserving Japanese values.

On the other hand, the educational process in Japan was also influenced by American education, after ⁽³⁴⁾Tanaka Fujimaro traveled on the Iwakur mission in 1871 to learn about Western education systems. After traveling throughout North America and Europe on a year-and-a-half educational tour of twelve Western countries, Tanaka returned to Japan in August 1873, several weeks before the Jakusi Act came into force. Upon his return home, he immediately took over as Deputy Secretary of Education, responsible for the country's educational policies from 1873 to 1879, with Dr. David Murray⁽³⁵⁾ David Murray, a professor of mathematics at Rutgers College in the United

⁽³¹⁾ Shoshin is the name of a book and curriculum of ethics that was taught in Japanese schools from the late Meiji era (1868-1912) until the end of World War II. Published in 1890, which established a moral and national framework for education in Japan and ideal personalities with the aim of promoting these values in the hearts of students, the teaching of Shushen ceased after Japan's defeat in World War II in 1945 when the American occupation authorities abolished the curriculum that was considered a means of national mobilization For more details see:

Yo Shimitsu Kha, Japanese Moral Education Past and Present (Madison, N. J : Fairleigh Dickinson University Press, 197, P.28 ; Murata Noboru. Kindai Nihon Nokyokasho No Ayumi : Shushin [The Development of modern Japanese Textbooks : Shushin] Tokyo : Sunrise Publishin 2, 2006, P.15-21.

⁽³²⁾ Benjamin C. Duke, PP. 75-76.

⁽³³⁾ Norio Akashi, The Murray Mission to Japan 1873-1879: A Study in Cultural Relations, University of Wisconsin—Madison, 1964, P. 78.

⁽³⁴⁾ Tanakawajimaru: Born on 16 October 1845 in Awari Prefecture (Aichi Prefecture), he completed his primary and secondary education in Japan and became a teacher in the same city where he grew up and in the Meiji government, he played a major role, especially in education.

Donald Keene, Emperor of Japan: Meiji and His World, 1852-1912, Columbia University Press, 2005, P.326.

⁽³⁵⁾ David Murray (October 15, 1830 – March 6, 1905) was a prominent American academic and educational reformer who was born in Morrison County, New York, graduated from Union University, then joined Rutgers University as a professor of mathematics and astronomy, in 1873 and at the request of the Japanese government during the Meiji Reforms he was appointed General Superintendent of Education in the Imperial Ministry of Education during his

States of America, served as a senior advisor to the Japanese Ministry of Education and an assistant to Tanaka, working together over the next five years in an effort to achieve the great transformation from feudal Japan to modern Japan through education⁽³⁶⁾.

Tanaka and Dr. Murai formed a great duo during that period, as they became a relationship of friendship and a relationship between the two families, which was reflected on the practical side, as they worked tirelessly in the service of the Japanese renaissance in the field of education, and were able to update the curricula and supervise schools, especially Murray, who has great experience in the United States of America, as he directly supervised the curricula of Japanese schools and colleges and was able to add a special touch to secondary and university education, as well as teacher training institutes. Schools were suffering from a severe shortage of teachers, especially after the construction of a large number of schools throughout the country, a manual called the "Instructional Manual for Primary School Teachers" **was standardized**, which clarifies the approach that teachers should take in the teaching process⁽³⁷⁾. In doing so, Morio Tanaka had efforts to unify the teaching curriculum and the teaching mechanism, and he personally supervised this task. Tanaka's American influence was evident in Tanaka's approach and his attempts as a senior official in the Department of Education to consolidate the American experience in education on the Japanese curriculum, and his frequent publications on American education illustrate this, including his publication of a report entitled "American School Laws", a collection of translations he obtained during his trip to the United States of America and his movement between universities and schools American⁽³⁸⁾.

Tanaka's interest in American education, a senior official in the Japanese Ministry of Education, shows that he was greatly influenced by American education, but the Jakusi Plan had an impact on French education, especially the administrative structure and primary schools. This is because Tanaka was not present at the time of writing the Jakusi Plan but was part of the mission and did not return to the country until March 1873, a few weeks before the plan was launched, so he was not able to participate in writing it, but he did contribute significantly in its implementation, with attempts to benefit from the American approach to the modernization process in Japan.

service (1873-1879). Murray contributed to the drafting and development of the Japanese Educational Law of 1872 and after his return to the United States in 1879 he remained Murray was active in the field of education and authorship and published his reference book *The Story of Japan* (1894), in which he dealt with the history and culture of Japan from a reformist and educational perspective.

Review of Dr. David Murray : Superintendent of Education in The Empire of Japan 1873-1879, *Journal of Asian Studies* 79, No.2 (May 2020), P.513; David Murray, *The Development, of Modern Education in Japan 1782-1903* (New York : G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1904), P.58.

⁽³⁶⁾ Benjamin C. Duke, *Dr. David Murray: Superintendent of Education in the Empire of Japan, 1873-1879*, Rutgers University Press, 2019, P. 153.

⁽³⁷⁾ Maysoon Abbas Hussein Al-Jubouri, *Education in Japan during the Meiji Era 1868-1912: A Historical Study*, *Journal of the Faculty of Basic Education*, Vol. 88, No. 88, 2015, pp. 557-577; Waleed Abboud Muhammad Al-Dulaimi, *The Development of Education in Japan (1853-1868)*, *Journal of Studies in History and Archaeology*, Faculty of Arts, University of Baghdad, No. 54, 2016, pp. 300-329.

⁽³⁸⁾ Norio Akashi, *Op.Cit.*, P. 66.

Second: Obstacles Faced by the Implementation of the National Plan for the Development of Education:

The Papal Government had put into effect its Jacosi Educational Plan in the academic year 1873-1874 under the supervision of Tanaka and his American advisor Murray, and at first glance it seemed that the implementation of this plan had faced many obstacles, including the large number of students and the lack of adequate preparation for the new curriculum, which was put into the test with insufficient numbers of teachers and the lack of infrastructure equipped to implement the plan⁽³⁹⁾.

Another problem that faced Ministry of Education officials in the same context was the administrative structure for the implementation of this plan with a unified curriculum. The Jacques Plan defined a centralized administrative structure in the French style in which the country was strictly divided into eight educational districts, each with a general administrative authority over education within its jurisdiction directly under an educational district, Mitsoukuri defined a quota of thirty-two intermediate school districts, each administratively responsible for 225 primary school districts located within the This division was very good in terms of administrative planning, but it was difficult to implement, as it was very difficult to manage a large number of schools at different levels. In short, the administrative structure of Japan's first national school system as originally designed was unmanageable. The Ministry of Education tried to solve this problem, and began looking for solutions in September 1873. It worked to move the administrative unit listed in the Gakuse, the Administration Office (Tokugaku) Kyoko (located in each of the eight regions of the university), to the Ministry of Education on behalf of the Central Bureau of Education "Educational Administration". This action resulted in the merger of the eight regional administrative directorates into a single department within the Ministry, placing control of the educational administration at the Government Centre effectively under the Ministry's supervision. This strategic move was necessary because of the obvious: there were no university-like institutions except one in Tokyo⁽⁴⁰⁾.

This was at the time when the old feudal system was replaced by the provincial structure in late 1871 and early 1872, and seventy-two new local administrative units were organized as provinces or provinces, as well as three main administrative units, with large cities being treated primarily as provinces. This was a step to streamline government administration from the central government to the new provinces, each of which was tasked with running the government within its own jurisdiction. The governor of Chihu Chokan was then appointed by the central government as the administrative head of the province, and it was this civil administrative reform that provided the first opportunity to launch a national school system, albeit incomplete. In order to implement the Jakosi Plan, ⁽⁴¹⁾the ministry had little resources other than to recognize the role of the new provincial centres that already existed instead of the non-existent middle school districts.

This enabled the newly appointed governor to organize and appoint officials in the district offices of the educational administration within his jurisdiction, each of

⁽³⁹⁾ Christian Galan, Harald Salomon, *Histories of Children and Childhood in Meiji Japan*, London, Taylor & Francis Group, 2024, p. 100;

Masoud Zaher, *The Contemporary Japanese Renaissance: Lessons Learned in the Arabs*, Beirut, Center for Arab Unity Studies, 2002, pp. 249-256.

⁽⁴⁰⁾ Benjamin C. Duke, Dr. David Murray, *Op. Cit.*, PP. 154-155.

⁽⁴¹⁾ Benjamin C. Duke, *The History of Modern Japanese Education*, *Op. Cit.*, P. 74.

whom was responsible for all public elementary and middle schools serving 130,000 residents. With the authority to appoint officials of the local educational administration, the governor of the province became the main person, i.e., the chief educational officer of the local public schools. This measure was necessary because middle school districts did not actually exist at the time. Accordingly, the ministry provided subsidies to recruit staff for the establishment of educational centers in the provinces in January 1873, which were designed to implement the Jacquesy Plan from April of the same year. The new provinces were initially divided on a regional basis into seven administrative districts Tokyo served as the central office of education, as follows: District I Tokyo, District I Tokyo, District II Aichi, Osaka III, Hiroshima IV, Nagasaki VI, Niigata VI and Miyagi⁽⁴²⁾ VII.

The Jacosi Plan proved effective in exporting the education system, despite the criticism that was directed at it, especially with the amendments that were made to the plan, but it maintained the French framework structurally, and with regard to the financial burdens inflicted on the villagers who were charged fees for the education of their children, the Japanese government was forced because it was difficult to finance more than 20,000 schools in one year, so it tended to impose fees and taxes to complete the educational plan⁽⁴³⁾. The educational budget that Japan adopted in 1873 can be seen in the following table:

Table 2 shows the sources of income for the financing of the educational budget for the year 1873⁽⁴⁴⁾.

#	source	Percentage
1	Local Taxes	43.2
2	Student Fees	6.3
3	National Support	12.6
4	Supporting the Governorate	0
5	Movable Assets	0
6	Internal Funding	19.1
7	Local Donations	13.4
8	Miscellaneous	5.4
Total		100 %

By analyzing the above table, it was found that the budget allocated for the financing of the Jakosi system was primarily based on local resources, especially local taxes, which constituted more than 50% of the funding sources with donations, noting that the percentage of fees amounting to 6.3% paid by Ataleb was small compared to other sources, which means that the financial burden on the student was relatively

⁽⁴²⁾ Benjamin C. Duke, *The History of Modern Japanese Education*, Op. Cit., P.74.

⁽⁴³⁾ Wissam Hadi Akkar Azeem, *Education in Japan during the Meiji Era (1868-1914): A Historical Study*, Iraqi University Journal 36, No. 3, (Ministry of Education, General Directorate of Education of Karkh II, Baghdad), p. 427.

⁽⁴⁴⁾ Ichikawa Shōgo, *Kyōiku Zaisei, Educational Finance*, Tokyo, Tokyo University Press, 1972, P. 90.

limited, especially with the beginning of the implementation of the plan and the lack of resources.

The most difficult problem faced by the government in implementing the new system of education was the huge lack of school buildings to accommodate the expected number of students, despite the fact that less than 30% of qualified students were enrolled in primary school during the first year, but there were not enough buildings to accommodate the huge numbers, and the government had to resort only to other buildings such as Buddhist temples, cultural centers, public buildings and large private houses, to make up the majority of the total during the first year. The government was able to use Shinto shrines as schools, because the shrine design was not suitable for use as classrooms as Buddhist temples did, as large open worship spaces were easily adapted for classroom use. Although the Jakosi schools were specifically designed to replace the old terrakuya⁽⁴⁵⁾ schools, many were reopened as quickly as possible such as public primary schools with only name changes. Besides the widespread use of temples, other facilities such as The use of private houses as public schools seems more contradictory than the use of temples or shrines. But at this early stage, the number of students in small villages enrolled in the new local public primary school was too small to accommodate the total enrollment in a private home. It was simply recognized as a new public primary school in many cases where the old Terakoya school was located in a teacher's private home. The division of building use can be understood in the table below⁽⁴⁶⁾.

Table 3 shows the buildings used as public primary buildings in 1876⁽⁴⁷⁾.

#	Type of Building	Percentage	Number
1	Buddhist temples	35.95	8333
2	Private Homes	31.85	7383
3	New Schools	25.73	5965
4	Warehouses and Cultural Centers	4.59	1064
5	Other	1.88	245
	Total	100	22,990

We can see through the above table that the percentage of use of Buddhist temple buildings is the highest among the buildings, due to the large number of these buildings,

⁽⁴⁵⁾ Trakuya: These are Japanese Flemish schools that existed during the Edo era (1603-1868), these schools focused on children and adults and focused on reading, writing and arithmetic in order to prepare people who were able to manage the affairs of life in general, and these schools were not developed and were not linked to a formal learning system and there was no regular curriculum for these schools, and when the Meiji government came and prepared the Jakusi Plan, it was to be abolished, but the need for many schools forced the government to reopen some of them, with amendments to be included in the government curriculum in the education administration, see:

Benjamin C. Duke, *The History of Modern Japanese Education*, Op. Cit., PP. 57-58.

⁽⁴⁶⁾ Ja'far Abdullah Jaafar, *Ibid.*, pp. 45-55; Abdullah Muhammad Jalab, *Education in Japan (A Historical Study)*, Journal of Asian Studies, University of Baghdad, Faculty of Languages, Vol. 12, No. 4, 2016, p. 120.

⁽⁴⁷⁾ Kaigo Tokiomi, *Nihon kindai Koyiku*, Encyclopedia of modern Japanese education, Hebonsha, 1971, P.171.

as well as the facilities they provided to make the educational plan a success, while private houses came the second highest percentage, and despite the government's inability to prevent the use of private houses, or what is known as "terrakuya" because it represents the period of Tokugawa rule, the severe shortage of buildings made it resort to the old methods. The percentage of new schools was also. Until 1876, there were nearly 6,000 schools, which is impressive, and confirms that the government has a well-thought-out plan for the development of education, but it is not able to fully implement it, so it began to implement it gradually until it reached 25 percent in 1876.

Conclusion

Through the review and analysis of the concepts of peace and democracy, it becomes clear that they share the highest human values and civilizational goals that transcend the boundaries of time and place, as both seek to protect human beings, preserve their dignity, and create an environment that allows them to live in security, justice and freedom. At the same time, true democracy is not a result of ballot boxes or electoral procedures, but rather a culture rooted in the consciousness of individuals and a value system based on equality, respect for rights and effective popular participation.

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