Japan

ROBERT L. GITLER

In the October 1959 issue of Library Trends, Alice Lohrer made clear much about the current scene in Japanese library education; she tapped and drew, with appropriate citation, on most of what had been published on the topic in English up to the time of her writing. Dr. Takahisa Sawamoto, this writer's colleague during his directorship of the Japan Library School, 1951-1956, and now assistant professor and administrative assistant to the present director, Professor Takashi Hashimoto, writing in his "Education for Librarianship in Japan," provides an incisive treatment of the subject viewed retrospectively and currently. Moreover, he provides a succinct review as well as an evaluation of the current library education scene in his recently published article, "Recent Japanese Library Developments."

Historical Backgrounds and Overview

Pioneers, Early and Modern—In a recent study prepared for the East-West Center at the University of Hawaii, this writer points out that "For almost a decade the Asia, Carnegie, Ford and Rockefeller Foundations, as well as the International Cooperation Administration, actively have been concerned with the education of librarians and the improvement of libraries and librarianship in many Asian countries, and in assisting in the development of training programs of various kinds, both formal and informal. In many instances the American Library Association, through its advisory and Headquarters services, has been a medium for carrying forward certain of these professional education programs and has recruited personnel to implement them."  

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Let no one conclude because of this that there was no interest or activity in Library education by the Japanese before American foundation largess made possible the launching of certain library education projects and experiments. Long before the post-World War II period, before the beginning of the Showa Era (1926-) for that matter, or the establishing of the Japan Library School at Keio University, there were currents and movements having to do with the education of librarians—or at least with the preparation of individuals to handle certain aspects of the library function.

As in other societies, ancient and modern, the Japanese have had to cope with the keeping of books, historical and religious records, and representations for well over 1,200 years. During the Kanpei years (889-897 A.D.), the Emperor Fujiwara (Sukeyo) ordered the *Nihonkoku Genzai Sho Mokuroku* (Catalog of Books Existing in Japan). This presumably is the oldest catalog of Chinese books in Japan and may be considered comparable to the Western world's *Registrum Librorum Angliae*.

Someone must have devised the system for its organization. It is reasonable to assume, in terms of the development of Japanese culture, that this landmark work was based on Chinese principles and practices, for a system of cataloging had long been developed in ancient China. The retired librarian of Kyoto Liberal Arts College, Miyogo Osa, writing in his careful and detailed *Development of Library Science*, quotes the Chinese scholar, Wo Mei Sei: "The art of cataloging is the most important thing of all learnings. Never fail to inquire the way with this. You will squarely find the gateway" (i.e., to the subject you want to study—RLG). Thus the preservation and custodian concepts found their way to Japan and quite possibly along with the Japanese' long focus on cataloging and classification constituted the sum total of librarianship.

It was not until the second half of the nineteenth century (the year of Man'en, 1860) that the Japanese had their first exposure to libraries of the West. As a member of the mission sent abroad, Fukuzawa Yukichi visited many Western countries; and in the third year of Keio (1867), he revisited America. To enlighten the Japanese people of customs and societies about which they were only then gaining the slightest inkling of awareness he wrote his *Seiyo Jijo* (Things Western), which included a chapter on libraries he had observed, libraries which were in no way related or connected to temples or ruling dynasties, but were secular libraries.
Other emissaries were sent abroad. In the fourth year of Meiji (1871), Fujimaro Tanaka of the Mombusho (Ministry of Education) accompanied Ambassador Iwakura as educational commissioner. They returned to Japan in Meiji 6 (1873) after library visits; these are recorded in Tokumei Zenken Taishi Bei-ou Kanran jikki (Record of Envoy Extraordinary and Ambassador Plenipotentiary Visits to America and Europe). Three years later in Meiji 9 (1876), Tanaka returned to America on the occasion of the Philadelphia Centennial Exhibition (the year of the founding of the American Library Association). Reporting on his visits to libraries he said, “Until after people well know the benefit of free education, they cannot understand the advantage public libraries offer them.”

Also going in the 1873 Tanaka mission was Seiichi Tejima, then the recently appointed chief librarian of the Tokyo (public) Library. Fifteen years later in 21 Meiji (1888), Tejima, still chief librarian, sent another Tanaka, Inagi Tanaka, abroad for two years expressly for the purpose of studying librarianship in Europe and America. On his return to Japan, Inagi Tanaka, having responded to the stimulus and support given him by Tejima, succeeded him as chief librarian. Osa refers to Tejima as the foster father of Japanese library science.

In the fifty years that followed, approximately twenty-five persons prominent in the library field of Japan were sent abroad to study librarianship—most of them going to the United States. In Taisho 4 (1915), Fujio Mamiya came to the United States to study the operation of American libraries, the publishing industry, and binding company and library supply house operations. Although not a practicing librarian, Mr. Mamiya was alert to the contribution the Western concept of library service could hold for Japan in its remarkable transition from a feudal society to that of the present day. He was especially impressed with the emerging systems of bibliographic tools that stemmed first from Poole and were later extended and developed by H. W. Wilson.

On his return to Japan, Mamiya invited the cooperation and support of Japanese librarians for the purpose of producing comparable works for bibliographic organization and control. But the state of librarianship had not yet sufficiently progressed to make possible such development. Moreover, the strong individualism of the few librarians who were sufficiently aware of and attuned to the merit of Mamiya’s proposal further prevented his realizing his plan. Nevertheless, Ma-
miya continued his interest in and promotion of libraries and librarianship and was instrumental in the publication of early professional library journals. Although he failed in his endeavor to build a great complex of indexes, he did publish certain library tools. Moreover, he established the Japanese counterpart of the Library Bureau. Only within the last few years has this elder statesman retired from active direction of his firm, the Japan Library Bureau.

Sawamoto has recorded Dr. Mankichi Wada's contribution to library education. Wada left Japan about the end of the Meiji Era (1909, 1910); he returned from abroad to a professorship and headship of the library at Tokyo Imperial University and instituted the first course in librarianship in a Japanese university. This he continued from 1918-1922. This was not a systematic course, but a series of lectures on librarianship which varied in their focus from year to year. With Dr. Wada's retirement these ceased; there was no library education offered again at Tokyo until 1951, when the late Dr. Kawai, University Librarian and Professor of Law, resumed the lectures for two years. In 1953, Takeo Urata, presently of the University's Medical Library, offered a course in the University's Faculty of Education. Mr. Urata is a graduate of the University of Illinois Library School, and has traveled to the United States on at least two other occasions accompanying Japanese library specialists. This course notwithstanding, there is no curriculum as such in library science at Tokyo University.

Returning to early years of the present Showa Era, the name of Naomi Fukuda, presently the librarian of the International House of Japan, appears among the twenty-five or more librarians who traveled abroad. Miss Fukuda pursued her studies in library science at the University of Michigan and while in America also had experience working at the Library of Congress. Her contributions to library development in Japan have been manifold. At the time of the establishing of the Kokuritsu Kokkai Toshokan (National Diet Library) under the leadership of the late Dr. Tokujiro Kanamori, its first director, Miss Fukuda rendered inestimable assistance as liaison between Japanese librarian and foreign consultants such as Robert Downs, Verner Clapp and the late Charles H. Brown. Again, at the time of the establishing of the first full curriculum in library science at the college level in Japan—the Japan Library School at Keio University—its director found Miss Fukuda's discreet counsel hardly less valuable. To this day her energy and leadership are largely responsible for many seminars and study groups which are held.
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Her astute chairmanship of the U. S. Field Seminar on Library Reference Services for Japanese Librarians is evident in that group’s 1960 report, *American Libraries*. For more than a year before the nine Japanese librarians comprising that Seminar left Japan in 1959 for their carefully planned itinerary in the United States, they prepared themselves, under Miss Fukuda’s guidance, through study and discussion of appropriate resource materials and the preparation of working papers. Finally, due both to her acumen as an entrepreneur and her excellence as a materials resource person, the recently published *Guide to Japanese Reference Materials* represents the cooperative work of more than one hundred contributors to Japanese bibliography, librarianship, and library education.

Although we cannot give space to naming all who have traveled abroad to study librarianship and who returned to Japan with impact on the field, the name of Masao Senda, a member of the Tenri religious sect, who studied abroad during Showa 13-16 (1938-1941), should not be omitted. Tenri is an enclave, a religious community, near the Nara region in Japan, almost entirely set apart from the rest of the region, with its own shrines, communal civic projects, and university. At Tenri, after his return, Senda proceeded to build an enormously rich rare book collection of both Oriental and Western materials, a collection in depth of Western bibliographic sources, and as much library science materials as he could procure. Under Senda’s leadership, courses in library science were developed which were well attended. Of special value for library education was the application of Western concepts of library administration and building plans. There is evidence of this the moment one steps into the foyer of the Tenri University Library building.

Miyogo Osa, already mentioned, is the person to whom this author is indebted for much of his data relating to early Japanese library leaders. He matriculated at Columbia University’s School of Library Service during the period Taisho 15 to Showa 2 (1926-1927), and was a classmate of Robert Downs who later came to Japan to consult on the establishing of the National Diet Library and who subsequently made the initial survey for the American Library Association regarding the prospects for developing a college level professional library education program in Japan.

In the early years of library education in the United States, library school faculty were acutely conscious of the relative paucity of professional literature available to library schools and their students. It
is not surprising to find a parallel in Japan's library education history, although today there is a burgeoning of professional writing. The first periodical in library science, as far as this writer knows, began in the Kansai region (Kyoto, Kobe, Osaka) and not in Tokyo. Although Tokyo is the modern capital city of Japan, the seat of government and of Tokyo University, it has not always been the point from which new and progressive developments have started. The Kansai region traditionally has been progressive and quick to take forward steps in business, banking, and civic improvement. Although the headquarters of the Japan Library Association was established in Tokyo in Meiji 26 (1893), the first periodical in library science was Toheki, published in Meiji 33 (1900) in Kyoto by the Kansai Library Association. Although it lasted only through four issues, it was a forerunner of the Kansai area's long established and esteemed Toshokan Kai (Library World).

The Japan Library Association and Its Role.—Upon his return from America and the Philadelphia Centennial, Inagi Tanaka sought to organize his Japanese colleagues who were working for the development of librarianship. Thus it was that the predecessor of what today is known as the Japan Library Association (Nippon Toshokan Kyokai) was born as the Nihon Bunko Kyokai in Meiji 26 (1893).

The Association started out vigorously enough and has continued without interruption to this day. Yet, by 1910 and until World War II it was considered by its own membership as an unimpressive and rather lethargic organization, bringing little by way of forceful leadership to librarianship or library education. It bore little resemblance to the JLA of today with its vigorous Secretariat in the person of Takashi Ariyama. It is this writer's estimate that in its early days JLA made a contribution to the substance of librarianship as best it could considering the lack of recognition librarianship had, the Association's weak financial support, and the social and political milieu in which it existed for a quarter of a century preceding World War II. Although it may have made little progress in "professionalizing" librarianship in Japan during fifty of its first seventy years' existence, it moved in that direction through publications for which it was responsible or to which it gave its support, and the short courses, institutes or "koshukais" it sponsored.

Publication.—It was not until seven years after Toheki's short-lived appearance that Japan's leading professional library journal, Toshokan Zasshi, was issued—in Meiji 40 (1907). It continues today as the official
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voice of the Japan Library Association and the library profession in Japan. In the year of its founding, JLA sponsored the publication of *Wa-Kanjō Mokuroku Hensan Kisoku* (Cataloging Rules for Japanese and Chinese Materials). This was the basic guide and foundation for cataloging in Japan for many years. In Showa 15 (1940), JLA stimulated professional publication through its President's Prize Award. This was established as an award for outstanding books and papers contributing to the development of library science. In the next year the following significant contributions to Japanese library literature appeared: Keitarō Amano's *Nihon ni Okeru Mokuroku Ho no Kenkyū* (Study of Cataloging in Japan); Seiichi Hayashi's *Tosho no Seiri To Riyo Ho* (Processing and the Use of the Book); Jikai Imazawa's *Toshokan Keiei no Riron Oyobi Jussai* (Theory and Practice of Library Administration).

A landmark publication which appeared in Showa 16 (1941) was Kiyoshi Mori's *Nippon Jusshin Bunruiho* (Nippon Decimal Classification). Based on Dewey, but with considerable revisions or departures for application to the classification of non-Western materials and learning, this is one of the basic tools in use today throughout Japan. Like Dewey it has gone through several editions. Mr. Mori has taught classification in institutes and workshops throughout the land. Others among the "modern" pioneer contributors to the monographic literature of library science in Japan and who are still writing today include Seiichi Kitera, Yuzo Minami, Noriaki Ono, Sakae Yamashita, to mention but a few.

**The Short Courses, "Koshukais."**—In its sponsorship, either by itself or in concert with Mombusho (Ministry of Education), of various types of short courses, workshops, and institutes, JLA made an effort to upgrade the function and status of librarianship in Japan. It is this writer's understanding that in the beginning the terms "library science" or "library education" never appeared in this connection; the sessions simply were known as "library business koshukai" or "library koshukai." According to Osa, approximately thirty such koshukais were held between Meiji 36 and Showa 15 (1903-1940) on a national scale. Of this number two-thirds were directly sponsored by Mombusho, one-half of the remaining third being held by JLA and half through local or prefectural government sponsorship.

The first such koshukai was held in Meiji 36 (1903) under JLA sponsorship and had the participation of most of the library leaders of that period. Its content was concerned primarily with technical
matters. The first Mombusho sponsored sessions of this type, the "Library Study Koshukai," was held in Meiji 41 (1908) at the instigation of the first All-Japan National Library Convention.

A koshukai was held at Keio University in Taisho 5 (1916) under JLA's sponsorship; and one of the first koshukais to be resumed after World War II, entirely Japanese inspired, notwithstanding the Occupation's presence, was held in 1948 at Kyoto University, during that institution's brief effort to establish a library school, 1948-1949. The pre-war koshukais were not confined to the main islands of the former Japanese Empire but also had been held on occasion in Formosa (Taiwan) and Chosen (Korea).

Significant Post-World War II Developments

With the relatively long experience of the koshukais held during the first forty years of the Twentieth Century, the Japanese librarians were accustomed to the intensive, short course approach to library training. It had become a traditional pattern—for want of something more permanent and comprehensive. It is understandable, then, that the IFEL (Institutes for Educational Leadership) program instituted by the Civil Information and Education Section of SCAP (Supreme Command for the Allied Powers) found enthusiastic response among Japanese educators, school folk, and librarians.

The IFEL programs were concerned with making available throughout Japan institutes covering a considerable range of the learning spectrum. Between 1948-1951, IFEL provided refresher courses in twenty-five subject areas, as well as introducing curriculum aspects to the educational scene that were new to Japan. Four institutes were held on various aspects of library science. The first two were scheduled in 1949, under the direction of Jane Fairweather of the C.I. and E. staff. In 1950 and 1951, two more were held under the guidance of Dr. Susan Akers, Dean of the University of North Carolina Library School (now retired). Both JLA and Mombusho assisted in the recruitment of in-service library workers and library leaders who became participants in the institutes which were of several months' duration.

Legislation.—A second major post-World War II development was that of new legislation. Granted that the Japan Library Law of 30 April 1950 and the School Library Law of 8 August 1953 were a stimulus to certain aspects of education for librarianship, these laws were preceded by certain other legislative enactments. For example, there is the Mom-
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busho Ordinance Number Eleven of 23 May 1947, known as the "School Education Enforcement Regulation," which prescribed that each primary, middle, and high school have a library to implement the school curriculum. It was this Ordinance which was responsible for the 1948 koshukai previously mentioned. The koshukai was focused on school librarianship and offered instruction on basic, elementary library techniques for teachers who might find themselves designated as teacher-librarians.

From the very beginning of this school library development in Japan, teachers have been drawn into the orbit on a nation-wide scale. This is one factor which accounts for the strength and vitality of the Japan School Library Association, founded in February 1950. Another is the dynamic leadership it has had from its vigorous executive director, Yataro Matsuo. An annual conference of the Association, for example, seldom finds less than 4,000 in attendance. Not only are school librarians present, but also teacher-librarians, teachers, principals, school superintendents, etc. Although Kyoto University's early koshukai quite probably offered little more than the most basic rudiments in library education, it was a start. What is more important is that it brought so large a number of non-librarians into the orbit of the emerging school library situation.

Important, too, was the Mombusho Ordinance Number Thirty-Eight of 1 November 1949. It established what was known as the "Teacher Approbation Koshukai." It stipulated that such koshukais were to be provided annually for teachers in each prefecture. They were to consist of thirty hours of lecture, plus fifteen hours of self-study, for which the teacher would receive credit for one unit of library science. This Ordinance was the first recognition by law of library science as a discipline in teacher education. Furthermore, as school libraries came into being, staffed by librarians with at least a minimal amount of formal library education, it helped make for a climate of understanding and cooperation between the librarian and the teacher within a school.

Lohrer,10 Sawamoto,11 and Chikao Ogura12 have called attention to the library education requirements set forth in the Japan Library Law of 1950 and the School Library Law of 1953. It will suffice to note here, therefore, that the former calls for completion of 15 units (semester hours) of library science in the basic core areas; the latter sets forth an 8 unit requirement for teacher-librarians.

For the first five years after the enactment of the Japan Library
Law, workshops for library leaders were held throughout the country. In 1951, the first summer following the legislation, three workshops started the series, and the Keio library school faculty participated in them. Within five years, 4,800 library personnel had achieved the "shisho" status and certificate. After the enactment of the School Library Law, yearly institutes and workshops began in 1954. More than 15,000 have received this training. Lohrer notes that the quality of the instruction in the workshops left much to be desired because of the dearth of qualified teaching personnel for the workshops. This is true, but at the same time, the figures are impressive and continue to grow. Japanese librarians are aware of the need for upgrading the caliber of instruction, and there is evidence of some improvement. Experience and the gradual growth of a teaching corps through professional education are slowly increasing the number of persons qualified to conduct courses of instruction.

It is appropriate at this point to direct attention to the standards established by the Japan University Accrediting Association. Hattori refers to the body as the University Standards Association of Japan (USAJ). The Association's sub-committee on library education was charged with the responsibility to develop standards and criteria. Most of the Mombusho's curricula specifications are entirely quantitative and detailed to the point of exactly naming the courses of instruction, but the library education standards set forth qualitatively a framework within which colleges and universities are given leeway to build programs best suited to their objectives, provided they met certain minimum requirements. Thirty-eight units of professional courses were to be required in a university degree program distributed as follows:

Basic, fundamental courses—A minimum of 6 units from such areas as introduction to librarianship, communications and the library, history of books and libraries, etc.

Materials courses—A minimum of 8 units from such areas as book selection, bibliographic research materials, reading and reading materials, audio-visual materials, etc.

Technical processes courses—A minimum of 8 units of courses in cataloging, classification, acquisitions, etc.

Administration courses—A minimum of 6 units from areas such as library organization, library buildings, library extension systems, etc.

Electives and specialization—10 Units.

Library Education and Library School Programs—Before the end
of the second decade of the twentieth century, library leaders in Japan were aware that although the koshukais were a source of help to library workers, there was a need for more comprehensive education and formal instruction than the brief courses could provide. In response to this movement for an educational program, the Mombusho established the Training Institute for Librarians in 1921. As the school was located in what was then the Ueno Imperial Library, the school became known as the Ueno Library School. Until 1941 it required only eleventh grade completion for admission, and its course of study was confined largely to practical methods and their application. The one year course was reduced to nine months because of the war, and in 1941 the operation was suspended entirely.

Following the war the school was reopened with higher entrance requirements—two years or more of college, with the course of study at Ueno being lengthened to two years. There was some thought of the Institute, the library school, coming within the aegis of Tokyo University, but this did not materialize. When the Ueno Imperial Library became a branch of the National Diet Library as a result of the National Diet Library Law of 1948, the library school came directly within the cognizance of the Social Education Section of Mombusho. Entrance requirements were lowered to high school graduation, with a two year course of study being retained in the library school. Admission requirements again were raised to junior college standing in 1954, and Sawamoto reports that in 1958 the course of study was reduced to one year.14

University located courses in library science, with the exception of the early, short-lived Tokyo University course begun in 1918 by Dr. Wada, is a post-war development in Japan. As a result of the Library Science Study Group of Doshisha University at Kyoto, that University started a training program in 1945 for in-service librarians. Today, Doshisha offers a more formally organized curriculum of twenty semester hours, quite a step forward from its earlier one hour a week course, which was given over a six months' period and which was concerned primarily with cataloging practice.

Kyoto University's effort toward a library school program in 1948 already has been noted; it lasted but a year.

Masao Senda, mentioned earlier, was largely responsible for beginning an introductory program of library studies at Tenri University. In 1951 a one year program was started which featured class sessions on Wednesday and Saturday from 1-4 p.m. In 1952 the course became
part of a 62 credit hour junior college program, including General Education. At present 17 hours of library science studies are offered at Tenri.

The one university level library school program leading to degree and which is accredited by the Japan University Accrediting Association is that of the Japan Library School in the Faculty of Letters at Keio University, Tokyo. It is a temptation to discuss at length the history of the school, the factors which led in January 1951 to Keio University being chosen as the University invited to undertake the program, the selection of the faculty, and the basis for the curricular structure.

For an over-all view, quantitatively, of the current library education scene, attention is directed to the data in Tables 1-5, accompanying this article. The main source of this information is the Japan Library Association, supplied through the offices of the executive secretary of the Japan Library School at Keio University, Mr. Ikuo Anzai; some slight changes have been made by the present writer.

When the Japan Library School was first established at Keio University in 1951 under the auspices of the American Library Association's contract with the American Government, it was intended that the foreign faculty would be present in Japan for a year, or at most fifteen months, turning over to Keio administration after that time the complete responsibility for staffing and financing the school. The goals to be achieved were set forth at the time of the School's establishment:

1. To recruit promising young men and women to the Keio program of library studies.
2. To provide a comprehensive program of professional courses in library science as a part of the over-all four year program leading to a degree.
3. To provide, through workshops and institutes at Keio and elsewhere in Japan, training opportunities for in-service librarians.
4. To serve as a consultant center for library workers in the field.
5. To develop a corps of teaching personnel as potential library school faculty.
6. Through accomplishing the foregoing, to enrich the substance of librarianship and its functions in the land, and generally upgrade the profession and its status.

From the very beginning the director questioned the feasibility of accomplishing so comprehensive an inventory of objectives—particu-
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larly the developing of a faculty corps—in the time allocated. By the end of June in the first semester, it was clear that were the foreign faculty to withdraw completely at the end of the first year of the school's operation, there would be no qualified replacements, although workshops for such personnel had been developed. Important, too, would be the need the graduates would have for faculty support and counsel if, after placement, they experienced difficult problems in "traditional" situations. As a result it was recommended to the American Library Association that a resident, foreign faculty be continued for four years, annually replacing one of its members with a resident Japanese teaching colleague who, it was anticipated, would have had the advantage of further special preparation to assume the responsibility. In July 1952, the Rockefeller Foundation granted approximately $142,800 for the support needed by Keio University for developing on a permanent basis the Japan Library School, as prescribed in the director's proposals.

The plan provided for an annual gradually decreasing flow of Foundation dollar funds, and an annual gradual increase in Keio yen funds, with Keio scheduled to assume full responsibility for finance and personnel as of July 1956—which it did. Moreover, Keio not only met its commitment but provided over and beyond the plan's specifications additional equipment and facilities as well. Full responsibility for the library school in every aspect has been Keio University's since July 1956. However, in its endeavor to keep its program dynamic and forward moving, Keio has sought and received stimulus from both the Rockefeller and Asia Foundations in support of special projects, workshops, seminars, and institutes, and in providing for one visiting foreign faculty member each year since 1956.

Under a second proposal encompassing another five year plan (1956-1961), funds were made available to Keio to (1) provide for a visiting foreign library specialist of Keio's choice to teach a semester at Keio in an area of its selection, and also to carry a summer workshop; (2) provide for a year's study abroad for one of its own faculty or another Japanese librarian nominated by Keio; (3) provide for the purchase of non-Japanese books and materials in library science; (4) provide a scholarship fund for Keio and transfer students; and (5) underwrite tuition-free summer workshops at Keio or as sponsored by Keio elsewhere for in-service library personnel, to be drawn from libraries throughout Japan.

Current Trends and Developments.—Since Lohrer's earlier reporting
in this journal, there have been certain revisions in the Japan Library School’s curriculum, as well as extensions in the scope of its program. Whereas course offerings totaled 46 semester hours in 1958, currently the program provides 65 semester hours, with most of the increase accounted for by five courses, totaling 11 semester hours, especially designed for science librarians.

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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>43 (47)</td>
<td>17 (15)</td>
<td>15 (12)</td>
<td>75 (74)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Number in parentheses is the comparable figure for July 1958.

This branching out has stemmed from a proposal for preparing librarians in the life sciences (agriculture, biology, medicine, etc.). The Rockefeller Foundation provided a grant for the three year program now in progress and made possible Keio’s first Life Sciences Workshops held in the Spring and Summer of 1962, with Dr. Estelle Brodman, medical librarian and professor at Washington University, St. Louis, as the first specialist. Columbia’s Thomas Fleming was the second specialist on the Mita campus of Keio in 1963. The visiting professor feature of the grant will terminate in 1964, with the University of California’s Richard Blanchard, librarian of its Davis campus, as specialist.

The program has been devised so as to make possible the recruitment of persons qualified for either short-term or long-term courses of study. The former provides for a three month program, with the student enrolled in the university in a special auditor status; the latter enrolls the student in a non-degree (non-matriculated status) for a one year program of 30 semester hours. Even though the grant terminates in 1964, the new curriculum and program will have been established. It will be carried on by resident Japanese faculty who presently are working with the visiting foreign library specialists.
### TABLE 3

*Year of Establishment of Library Science Courses, by Type of Institutions*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Institutions</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>1921</th>
<th>1949</th>
<th>1950</th>
<th>'51</th>
<th>'52</th>
<th>'53</th>
<th>'54</th>
<th>'55</th>
<th>'56</th>
<th>'57</th>
<th>'58</th>
<th>'59</th>
<th>1960</th>
<th>'61</th>
<th>'62</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National university</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefectural university</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefectural junior college</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private university</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private junior college</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Institute</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>59</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note:* No date of establishment was reported by 16 institutions.
**TABLE 4**

*Number of Instructors of Library Science Courses*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Institutions</th>
<th>Prof.</th>
<th>Asst. Prof.</th>
<th>Instr.</th>
<th>Asst.</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Prof.</th>
<th>Asst. Prof.</th>
<th>Lectr.</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Grand Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National university</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>43</td>
<td></td>
<td>33</td>
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<td>66</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefectural university</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Prefectural junior college</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private university</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>44</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
<td>52</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private junior college</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Institute</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>95</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>88</td>
<td></td>
<td>90</td>
<td>185</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The concept and definition of "Full-time" and "Part-time" are known to differ among the reporting institutions.
TABLE 5
List of Institutions Offering More Than 15 Units

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Institutions</th>
<th>Number of Units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In Library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In Related</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>National</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kyoto University</td>
<td>18 (12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tokyo Gakugei University</td>
<td>23 (13)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tokyo University</td>
<td>12 (16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Institute</td>
<td>*32 (49)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Prefectural</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Osaka Joshi (women) University</td>
<td>24 (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Private</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aichi University</td>
<td>28 (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doshisha University</td>
<td>20 (26)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keio University</td>
<td>**65 (46)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kokugakuin University</td>
<td>24 (10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mukegawa Joshi (women) University</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nihon University</td>
<td>16 (16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sagami Joshi (women) University</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenri University</td>
<td>17 (16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toyo University</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waseda University</td>
<td>22 (18)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Indicates number of units offered only by full-time faculty; additional units are taught by part-time instructors but were not reported.

** 61 units given as of 1962-63; 65 units listed in 1963-64 Catalogue.
Number in parenthesis is the comparable figure for July 1958.

Although the library school at Keio is making a contribution to the new and advancing technology of documentation and information retrieval in developing its curriculum and in the placing of 22 percent of its graduates in special library positions, it is neither the only or foremost agency concerned with this area. There are other agencies carrying on short courses and training programs in this special area. A number of vigorous and well financed societies and organizations have developed in the last decade, mostly within the past few years, and are carrying on important work and service in documentation, retrieval, machine translation, coordinate indexing, etc., for which personnel are very much needed. An excellent treatment of this appears in the 1962 revision of the Kerr Report.17

The Ministry's Science Information Section provides financial and technical assistance in the publication of Japan Science Review and
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presently is compiling a documentation manual. In addition to its publication program, the Japan Information Center of Science and Technology (JIXT) translates foreign papers into Japanese upon request, maintains photo-reproduction services, provides an abstracting and index service and, since 1961, has operated an electric computer known as JEIPAC. It also has its own publications. In 1959 the Council for Science and Technology set up an advisory board; among its recommendations in connection with a proposed ten year plan was that relating to the need for systematic training of documentalists.18

In Tokyo, during August and September 1962, the Japan Library Association held an "Institute for Documentation Studies." In two separate periods of five day sessions an average of 45 participants heard presentations by 15 different specialists from special libraries, Keio University, and the National Diet Library on such topics as mechanization of information retrieval, subject analysis, searches of information sources, structure of an information center, photo-reproduction of materials, etc. A similar program was presented for 42 additional participants in Nagoya.

In November and December of 1962, the Mombusho held "Institutes for Documentation" in Tokyo and Nagoya, in which the editorial, indexing, and reproduction aspects of documentation were featured. Visits to installations in the Toshiba Social Sciences Hall and the Toyota Automobile Company were features of these institutes.

An extended program, "Institute for Information Service" began in April 1963 and carried out a schedule through September of the same year. Under the joint auspices of the Information Service Association, the Society for Promotion of Industrial Technique, and the Daily Industry Press, a series of six courses of approximately five to six consecutive evenings each month was planned for the period between April and September. Participants were enrolled for any one of the months or for the entire series over the six months, with fees being charged accordingly. Each month's topic was concerned with a different aspect of documentation.

In addition to its extensive abstracting, translation, and other documentation services, the Japan Information Center of Science and Technology annually holds two short-term (2 day) institutes on documentation in each of three cities—Tokyo, Osaka, and Nagoya, or Fukuoka. The average number of participants in the Tokyo sessions is approximately 180 persons.

It is clear that Japan is taking steps to develop and to promote a
ROBERT L. GITLER

corps of information specialists. In 1958, the Japanese Government devised a new certification for "Gijutsushi," which may be translated as "Engineer" or "Technician." It is reported that "this title is given to those who meet the qualifications and pass government examinations in the fields such as electronics, machine engineering, applied physics, etc. And in 1961, the Government added 'Science-technology information service' as a field. In order to be qualified as Gijutsushi in the field of 'Science-technology information service' one must have experience over 7 years and pass the examination given by the Science and Technology Authority. Approximately 20 people have been qualified so far." 19

Problems, Judgments.—Notwithstanding the considerable evidence that professional education for librarianship and the development of subject information specialists in Japan is far from static—in fact it is quite dynamic—the Japanese librarians, teachers in the field, and documentalists constantly reiterate their concern over the availability, numbers, and preparation of personnel to implement their programs. Historically there is little that Japanese librarianship can build on by way of attractive recruitment. Prior to the current period Japan had no concept of a librarian as a highly specialized professional person. And prior to 1951 there was no library school at the university level, despite the existence of more than several hundred public libraries, five hundred college and university libraries, and a thousand special research collections. The "chief librarian" of the larger libraries, public and academic, was usually a distinguished scholar or a senior professor appointed on a short-term basis. The rank and file library workers as such have enjoyed little more than a clerical status of a very low category.

Now, in view of the pressing new and increasing need for well educated and specially trained personnel by agencies with status—business and industry—who are making research-library-information jobs attractive by virtue of prerequisites and salary, there are prospects for overcoming what heretofore has handicapped recruitment of quality young people to the field.

Although the Keio library school curriculum has undergone considerable revision and expansion in scope since the doors were first opened in 1951, there are those who believe the time is approaching for recasting the program into the graduate level. Keio would be faced in such a departure in complying with the Mombusho requirement that all graduate degree curricula must be based on an under-
graduate degree in the same discipline. Unless some special dispensa-
tion could be worked out, possibly with the advice and counsel of the
Japan University Accrediting Association, whereby only a minimal
number of undergraduate professional subjects would be required at
the undergraduate level, Keio might find itself required to load its
students with an over-abundance of professional subjects in lieu of
their receiving a broad general education and subject specialization in
cognate areas of study. Already Keio and its cross-town counterpart, the
Library Training Institute at Ueno, have made curricular changes and
developments in their programs in relatively less time in their history
than have certain long established American schools.

It is clear that one of the critical needs of library education in Japan
is for an increasing corps of well qualified library educators. But this
is a factor which requires the element of time, among other things;
and there are indications that Japanese library education is beginning
to harvest a seasoned, maturing crop. This is evidenced, for example,
by the contributions which a number of its representatives are making
to professional study and conferences in the United States and Europe.

Significant, too, is the enrichment of Japanese library literature which
increasingly is becoming more sophisticated in its treatment of pro-
fessional subjects. Masanobu Fujikawa's philosophical paper presented
before a recent Library Education Seminar meeting in Hakone, in
which he inquires into the objectives, level, curricula, teaching methods
and research in library education is a case in point.20

The thoughtful, vigorous and sustained approaches which a number
of Japanese librarians and library educators are making in their efforts
to realize progress and find solutions to their problems, would seem to
augur well for the future of library education and librarianship in
Japan.

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