in the future, a much more important part in the promotion of international relations than they have in the past.

Bibliographies and Indices

Large bibliographies, encyclopedias, and indices, formerly often prepared on a national basis, obviously can be prepared much better on an international basis. Many publications issued in Germany or Great Britain before World Wars I and II can now be resumed or continued and developed only by a world-wide network of collaborators. The problem of organizing things well and issuing instructions which will be really understood and followed by those taking part in the project, in order to obtain a certain degree of uniformity and the necessary scientific accuracy, looms much larger than ever before.

The National Diet Library of Japan

Verner W. Clapp, *Chief Assistant Librarian, The Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.*

ON FEBRUARY 4, 1948, THE TWO HOUSES of the National Diet of Japan enacted legislation, by unanimous votes, establishing a National Diet Library and making provisions for a building to house its activities. Dr. Tokujiro Kanamori, who, as minister without portfolio in the Yoshida Cabinet of 1946–47, was conspicuously successful in negotiating the adoption of the new Japanese Constitution, has been appointed the first chief librarian of the new institution, which will attempt to provide a number of services not heretofore supplied by the Japanese library system.

That the development of libraries in Japan is a comparatively recent phenomenon is illustrated in Table 1, in which only libraries of 3,000 or more volumes are represented. The data for this table are taken, to the extent that they are available therein, from the special report on "Libraries in Japan (Each Containing 3,000 Volumes or Over)," issued by the Civil Information and Education Section of General MacArthur's Headquarters on March 29, 1947 (AR-279-CR-A-11).

TABLE 1

Date of establishment	No. of libraries
Before 1860	2
1860 to 1869	4
1870 to 1879	11
1880 to 1889	16
1890 to 1899	16
1900 to 1909	109
1910 to 1919	186
1920 to 1929	330
1930 to 1939	123
1940 to 1946	61
	858

Of the 49 libraries which were established prior to 1900, 30 are attached to institutions of learning; only 8 are public libraries, 7 are privately-owned establishments, and 4 are collections belonging to the national government, including the Imperial (now the National) Library in Tokyo. The enormous increase in the rate of establishment of libraries after the beginning of the century is to be attributed specifically to the enactment of a library law in 1899. At the Louisiana Purchase Exposition in 1904 the Japanese Government presented an exhibit calling attention to its rapidly growing library system (*Public Libraries*, 1904, **9**, 467). Library development from 1900 to 1946 was, in fact, very general. Of the 809 institutions represented in the table, public libraries claim 391, but 246 are designated as "private" and include the research collections of industrial and other corporations as well as special collections devoted to public use by foundations and private owners. One hundred fifty-four of the total are attached to schools, colleges, and universities, and 18 are the libraries of national governmental agencies. Including collections of all sizes, the Japanese Ministry of Education has reckoned that there were in Japan no less than 3,398 library installations as of May 1, 1946.

One-sixth of all the libraries of 3,000 and more volumes were concentrated within the Tokyo area. (The past tense must be used, because a number of these libraries were destroyed during the war.) In addition to the National Library at Ueno Park, there were in this group 25 libraries belonging to the national government. The Tokyo metropolitan system included 28 libraries, of which the oldest and largest was the Hibya Library, founded in 1906, while the rest consisted for the most part of very moderate-sized collections. There were 67 school, college, and university libraries and 24 privately-owned collections. There were a number of scientific and technological libraries in each class, but few good collections. While it is true that roughly one-half of the 145 libraries in the group were of less than 20,000 vol-

umes, the fact remains that there were 18 collections of 100,000 volumes and over, and 2 collections of more than 1,000,000 books. Only 3 of the 18 collections, as may be seen in Table 2, suffered damage as a result of the war, though since the war the books of the South Manchurian Railway have in large part been taken over by the occupation forces.

TABLE 2

LIBRARIES OF 100,000 OR MORE VOLUMES IN THE TOKYO AREA

	Collections, 1946 (volumes)	War losses (volumes)
National government:		
National Library	1,037,190	.....
Imperial Cabinet Library	470,852	46,695
Imperial Palace Library	300,000	.....
Ministry of Justice	160,000	.....
South Manchurian Railway	100,000	.....
Metropolitan:		
Hibya Library	500,000	205,780
University:		
Tokyo University	1,250,000	.....
Waseda University	600,000	40,000
Keio Gijuku University	350,715	.....
Tokyo University of Literature	260,501	.....
Tokyo Industrial University	257,039	.....
Chuo University	125,641	.....
Meiji University	100,000	.....
Private:		
Oriental Library (Toyo Bunko)	502,000	.....
Ohashi Library	190,200	.....
Selkado Bunko	180,000	.....
Tamagawa Gakuen	176,671	.....
Oriental Culture Research Institute	101,130	.....

Great variation is found in the principal libraries of Tokyo with respect to the ratio of Oriental to Occidental books in the collections. Generally speaking, the special and research collections tend to include a higher proportion of Western books, unless, like the Seikado Bunko, they specialize in Chinese classics. Some examples of comparative holdings, drawn from "Libraries in Japan," are given in Table 3.

TABLE 3

Library	Ratio of Western books to total collections (%)
Seikado Bunko	0
Imperial Cabinet Library	9
Imperial Palace Library	13
National Library	16
Waseda University	33
Oriental Library	40
South Manchurian Railway	40
Mitsubishi Economic Research Institute	44
University of Tokyo	50
Tokyo Industrial University	58
Science and Technology Research Institute of the University of Tokyo	77

While the foregoing facts testify to remarkable activity in the development of libraries within a very brief period, much remained, and much still remains, to be done. According to the report of the Ministry of Education, cited in the General Headquarters Report, while 10,828 urban areas (including 210 cities) were provided with library facilities, another total of 8,056 (including 53 cities) lacked such facilities. Quite apart from the extent to which library facilities have been made available to the Japanese population, however, a number of circumstances have affected the adequacy of Japanese libraries. Principal among these is lack of trained staff. In the early days a number of Japanese librarians received their training abroad, as did I. Tanaka, who was sent to the United States in 1889 to study under Justin Winsor before becoming in 1890 librarian of the Imperial University, where he prepared in 1900 a manual of library work for use by his countrymen. With the growth of Japan's self-sufficiency and suspicion of foreign training, such instances have become less rather than more frequent in recent years. A library school was established at the Imperial Library in 1921, but until 1946 its students were accepted directly from the secondary schools, and because the training was not associated with that of any degree-giving institution, its graduates had no professional standing, could not command adequate salaries, and comparatively few of them remained in library work. As a result, directors of libraries are all too frequently, if not indeed generally, recruited from other professions and lack specific library training.

Connected with this general situation are certain other defects in the Japanese library system. The Japanese Library Association, though established in 1892 and subsidized by the Ministry of Education, seems to have been an ineffectual body so far as wrestling with the specific problems of librarianship is concerned. While a Nippon Decimal System has been elaborated for the classification of books, there are no genuinely accepted standards of cataloging and classification, and, in any case, there has been no establishment for performing central cataloging services which might have erected standards and eased the burden of duplication of effort by individual libraries. Consequently, also, there is no union catalog, and correspondingly small opportunity for an efficient interlibrary lending system. There is no central depository or distribution agency for governmental publications. Moreover, libraries generally charge a fee for their services, even though a small one. The principle of the open-access collection seems never to have gained general acceptance, and libraries are consequently accused of locking up their books and of being more interested in preserving them than in promoting their use. In the universities the prevalence of the departmental and professorial libraries has tended

greatly to weaken the central library collections.

Perhaps even more acutely than in other fields of endeavor, the written form of the Japanese language proves an obstacle to Japanese library progress. Lacking the beautifully simple device of an alphabetic order which is employed so usefully and universally in Western library practices, Japanese librarians and users of libraries have been compelled to maintain or to consult separate systems for Oriental and Occidental books and to have resort to much less convenient methods of access to the former. The University of Tokyo Library, it is true, maintains a catalog of Oriental books alphabetized on the basis of Roman transliteration; but this procedure required a wholly additional and distinct operation.

It may well be conjectured, too, that the development of libraries in Japan has been hampered by earthquakes, though it might be difficult to determine the extent to which this is true. Furthermore, an argument might be made that, by leading to the replacement of inadequate buildings and outworn collections, the cause of libraries has been advanced. But the earthquake of 1923, which destroyed 550,000 volumes out of 800,000 in the Tokyo Imperial University, resulted in the loss of twice as many books (estimated at a million and several thousand in the *Library Journal,* 1923, **28,** 856, 926; 1924, **29,** 81) as were destroyed in the bombings of 1944–45. At the very least, in the competition for new construction which followed the earthquake, the National Library has failed to secure more than one-third of the plant which was planned for it as long ago as 1902, is still compelled to make use of a frame building for a substantial portion of its activity, and has principal reading space for only 371 readers while long lines of would-be readers form outside its doors.

Of the effects of the war upon libraries, specific war damage is probably not the most serious, and the end of the war found the Japanese libraries in a bleak situation. Many collections had been evacuated, and some have still not been returned. Neglect of buildings, inability to purchase foreign books, and depletion of staffs have taken their toll. Inflation has reduced library budgets in many cases to practically nothing, and the same cause is operating cruelly on the individual members of this low-paid profession. Like other public buildings, libraries in Tokyo are unheated in winter and severely limited in the amount and duration of use of electric light.

Specific war damage to buildings or collections was suffered by 138 of the libraries of 3,000 or more volumes throughout the country, though a library is listed as damaged equally whether its loss consisted of 14 or of many hundreds of thousands of volumes. Public libraries constituted 65% of those which received injury. The heaviest casualties were in the Tokyo metropolitan area, where 46 of the libraries in the class having 3,000 volumes or more were damaged. The public library system suffered most heavily, with total losses of more than 414,088 volumes by 26 libraries, of which 8 were completely destroyed. Of the 24 private libraries only 4 were damaged, with losses of 19,400 volumes, and none of the large collections suffered loss. Five institutions in the school, college, and university group suffered losses, but with the exception of Waseda University's 40,000 volumes, these were trifling, amounting to approximately 5,000 volumes. Of the governmental collections, the Imperial Cabinet Library lost 46,695 volumes; the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, its entire collection, which numbered 5,200 volumes in 1937; the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, its central collection of 40,000 volumes; the Finance Ministry, its catalog and indices; the Transportation Ministry, 69,000 volumes, although 10,000 were in evacuation; and the Bureau of Patents and Standards, 15,528. It thus appears that, in spite of the enormous area (over 85 square miles) which was devastated in the air raids over Tokyo, the total destruction of books, which amounted to approximately 655,000 volumes, only slightly exceeded the losses wreaked time and time again on individual libraries in Germany, e.g. the University of Hamburg, 600,000; the Landesbibliothek, Stuttgart, 580,000; the Staatsbibliothek, Munich, 500,000 (*Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen,* 1947, **61,** 24).

The Allied Occupation has continuously recognized that the reconstitution and strengthening of the libraries of Japan is a matter of no small importance in the whole program of rehabilitation and democratization. Reform of the educational system, the instruction of the electorate, scientific and technological advancement, the strengthening of local institutions—all these objectives as well as others depend in large part upon the availability of information which is in great measure the responsibility of libraries to provide. Consequently, a library officer has been assigned to the Civil Information and Education Section of General MacArthur's Headquarters, and the Section has been particular, also, in compiling data upon conditions in Japanese libraries. A number of projects are in active status and others are in contemplation. The library school at the National Library has been revived and reformed on a graduate level of instruction; the Japanese Library Association has been encouraged to hold frequent meetings and to engage in basic studies such as a revision of the Nippon Decimal Classification, the preparation of a glossary (sorely needed) of Japanese bibliographical terms, and programs of microfilming. A revision of the library laws is in preparation, looking to the

decentralization of the local institutions which have hitherto been dominated by the central government. Most important of all for immediate purposes is the system of information libraries which is operated by the Section in 4 cities throughout Japan, replacing in large measure the bombed-out public libraries and bringing to Japanese readers a new-found wealth of current books, including a large proportion of U. S. publications. While these collections are general in content, they are well stocked in scientific and technological literature. In the library in Tokyo, readers average 700 per day, and the use of scientific and technical material greatly exceeds that of any other class, constituting 38% of the total in the case of books and 49.6% in the case of periodicals (*Library Journal,* 1948, **73**, 162).

Until 1946 the libraries of the two Houses of the National Diet were content to remain quiet reading rooms where the Members could consult the daily papers and perhaps refer to the bound volumes of the records of debate. Both libraries are coeval with the Diet itself, which convened for the first time in 1890. Several fires have punctuated their existence; the second of these was in 1925, when the wooden Diet Building in Hibya Ward burned with the loss of large portions of the collections. Since 1936 these have been situated in opposite wings of the new fireproof Diet Building in Kojimachi Ward, and by 1947 their collections had grown to 36,000 volumes in the library of the House of Councillors and 60,000 in that of the House of Representatives, not counting large collections of periodical issues, pamphlets, etc. Of the books, 90% were in Chinese or Japanese. This means that not even the series of parliamentary proceedings (Hansards) of the principal Western countries were available to the Japanese legislators.

The reason for this apathy was not far to seek. The Japanese Diet was a politically impotent body: at its best, it was but a debating society; at its worst, it was but a rubber stamp wherewith the government put a facsimile of parliamentary and popular approval upon its acts. Being devoid of responsibility, it had no need of precise information; it had no real need of a library. (Cf. *The Japanese Diet: old and new,* by Justin Williams, chief, Legislative Division, Government Section, GHQ, SCAP; *ms.*)

By the new Constitution of Japan promulgated on November 3, 1946, and effective 6 months thereafter, this situation was entirely changed. Indeed, it had changed before the promulgation of the Constitution, for the principal job of the Diet of 1946 was to debate, amend, and ratify the draft of this supreme law of the land under which the country is to live. This was the most difficult and responsible task ever assigned to a popularly elected Japanese body, and the repercussions were felt—even in the libraries. When the supreme law was finally written, the Diet found that its new responsibility was to be a continuing one, and that henceforth it was to be "the highest organ of power in the State." No longer could it escape responsibility or remain uninformed.

A movement began to take shape looking toward the reconstitution of the Diet libraries into organs of real effectiveness as agencies of information. The forces behind this movement were from several directions. One, of course, was from within the Diet itself, demanding informational assistance in legislative problems which should be of an excellence at least equal, if not superior, to the informational assistance available to the executive branches of the government. Encouragement to this demand was given by the Government Section of the military government, which was anxious to see the Diet develop as rapidly as possible into an intelligent, informed, and responsible body. Additional support of the movement was contributed by various research agencies in the hope that a strong library erected under the aegis of the national legislature might, as in the United States, contribute greatly to the strengthening of the general library and bibliographic resources of Japan.

The first result of the movement was the adoption of the proposal that there should be a single Diet library instead of two House libraries. This was effected in the Diet Law which was enacted on March 19, 1947, to regulate the legislature's own procedures. The constitution of the Diet Library itself was spelled out in greater detail in a law enacted on March 28, 1947. The Committees on Library Management of the two Houses immediately set to work to put the plan into effect. Inquiries and plans were carried on through 1947 in conjunction with other interested groups and bodies. In the course of these studies it became more and more apparent that, to be fully effective, the Diet Library would need access to those national bibliographic services which are characteristic of modern library systems, and the idea gradually took form that it should attempt to provide at least some of these services itself. The problem became, in consequence, one of establishing not merely a Diet Library, but a National Diet Library. In these circumstances the presiding officers of the two Houses, together with the chairmen of the Library Committees, requested the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers to invite some American experts to assist in the planning of the Library. The consultants selected consisted of Charles H. Brown, for many years the librarian of one of the principal scientific libraries in the United States (that of the State College at Ames, Iowa) and past president of the American Library Association, and myself. Dr.

Brown and I arrived in Tokyo on December 14, 1947, and (with three weeks of time-out spent in China) departed on February 12, 1948, following the enactment of the two laws which incorporated our suggestions for the organization and work of the National Diet Library. That the matter could have been brought to such a stage in so short a time, despite the great number of vexing questions which had to be settled—questions regarding function, organization, appointments, qualifications, tenure; relations between the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of the government and between the national and local governments; problems of acquisition, building constructions, etc.—was due to the energy and enthusiasm of the responsible Diet members who gave up not only their vacations but almost all their time to the study, and to the splendid cooperation between officers of the Japanese and of the military governments.

The National Diet Library Law of February 4, 1948, presumes that the first service of the Library will be in assisting the members and committees of the Diet in the discharge of their duties. It provides, however, that the Library shall also be a principal library for all branches of the government, with responsibilities for assuring that adequate library services are provided for all agencies; and that it shall be equipped with authority and with advisory assistance to effect coordination necessary to assure economy and efficient use of resources. It also stipulates that the Library shall provide certain national library services which are now wanting.

It is proposed that the collections of the library shall be collections for immediate use, not a collection of bibliographical treasures. These may follow, as gifts; but the book funds of the Library are to be used, within the foreseeable future at least, for acquisitions of greatest utility. Japan is poor; yet that country needs great quantities of foreign books. No one library can afford to secure them all. The National Diet Library must take the lead in seeing that the needs of Japanese research are met through the cooperative effort of many libraries.

In the service of the Diet the Library will maintain a Legislative Reference Service. This is planned on the model of American institutions and, specifically, on that of the Library of Congress. The job of this Service is to collect and assemble facts which bear on legislative problems. It is obvious that a very extensive library is required for its use. As one of its specific duties, the Library is required to prepare, in publishable form, an index to the laws of Japan.

To the other government agencies, of both the executive and judicial branches, the Library is required to provide a service subordinate only to that which it offers the Diet. Each agency is required to have its own working library, but books are to be interchangeable between all collections through uniform systems of cataloging and classification and through the maintenance of a union catalog. The objective is to make any book owned by the government available to any officer of the government and to avoid unnecessary duplication and overlapping. An advisory council, consisting of the chairmen of the Library Committees, a justice of the Supreme Court, and a cabinet minister, makes recommendations to the Diet regarding governmental library service generally.

It is expected that the influence of the National Diet Library will extend far beyond Tokyo. The Library is authorized to provide central cataloging services to other libraries, to organize a national union catalog, to engage in and promote interlibrary lending, to provide microfilming and other photoduplication services, to assure the compilation of a national bibliography of Japanese publications and of the bibliography of governmental publications, and to promote, by advice and otherwise, the establishment of essential library services throughout Japan. It is anticipated that, by using a Romanization of Japanese in its own operations, the Library may assist in securing the advantages to be obtained from the general acceptance and use of Romaji.

A companion statute authorizes a building commission to start immediately to plan the structure which will house these activities.

All this constitutes a formidable program, but the need and the enthusiasm combine to assure its execution. Two further facts of significance in this connection may be mentioned. The first of these relates to the position of the Librarian. He is to be of ministerial rank. This provision, which exceeded the original tentative recommendation of the American advisers, was insisted upon by the Japanese; the Diet wants nothing less than the strongest hand to develop these national library services. The second relates to the position of the National Library at Ueno Park. This collection, though supported by the Ministry of Education, is now largely serving as the principal municipal library of Tokyo and will continue to be needed in this capacity. Such a development, requiring reorientation regarding the municipal services of the Tokyo area, is provided for in the law.

In accepting the report of the American advisers on the National Diet Library, General MacArthur took the initiative in suggesting that follow-up advice be secured in order to assure the success of the program. A successor to the original advisers is consequently now being designated. Certainly, few individual projects hold greater promise for aiding good government and for assisting research and the free flow of information.