

Post-War Developments in Japanese Academic Libraries

戦後におけるわが国の大学図書館の発達

Takahisa Sawamoto

澤 本 孝 久

要 旨

戦後の日本の図書館界の推移を考察するとき、その初期におけるアメリカの影響を否定することはできない。例えば、米国教育使節団によって出された一連の勧告に基づく図書館振興策がある。その効果は図書館界一般にいちやく現われたが、その中で大学図書館はやや立ち遅れをみせた。しかし、他の図書館界の発展は種々の意味で大学図書館に刺激を与え、その発展に寄与するところ大であった。大学基準協会、文部省、私大図書館協会などの努力による各種の図書館基準の設定も引き続いて行なわれたが、各大学またはその図書館内部の発展は生彩を欠くうらみがあつた。

この間にあって、慶応義塾大学に図書館学科が新設され、はじめて大学程度における専門教育が実施されるとともに、現職者に対する教育なども含め、専門職の理念の確立に寄与する面が見られた。また、戦後に大学図書館の新築ないし増改築が盛んに行なわれ、国立大学のみでも、分館・学部図書館を含めて、25館以上の新築が見られた。しかし、その大部分はかならずしも満足すべき建築ではなかった。大学図書館の専門職の確立、あるいは大学図書館員の地位の向上のために、多くの運動が行なわれて来たが、まだ成果は上っていない。しかし、これら一連の運動が学術会議にとり上げられ、1961年大学図書館の整備拡充に関する勧告、および人文社会科学の振興に関する勧告が政府に宛てて出されたことは、画期的なことであった。この勧告に端を発し、文部省では大学図書館の改善振興のために一連の措置を施すようになり、現在、種々の計画が実施されつつある。なかでも大学図書館施設小委員会の設置、人文社会科学分野におけ

る総合資料センター開発に対する援助、大学図書館長欧米視察派遣など顕著な活動は、その成果が期待されている。

終戦以来の大学図書館発達の段階をかえりみると、1946年の米国教育使節団の勧告以後、1961年に学術会議の勧告が出るまでの15年間を第1期と考えることが出来る。この第1期には米国調査団の勧告——大学基準協会、文部省、私大図書館協会などの各種基準設定——各大学の図書館改善拡充の動き——図書館内部の改善運動という動きが見られ、現在第2期に入ってから、学術会議の勧告以来、文部省の大学図書館施設基準設定の動きに見られるように、新しい改善策拡充方針が検討されている段階にあると見られる。

大学図書館の発達に影響を及ぼした要因には各種のものが考えられる。しかし、これらは一種の連鎖反応を起しうるので、これらの要因を適切に組み合わせることにより、さらに一層大きな発展をもたらすことが期待される。

(図書館学科)

- I. Introductory Remarks
- II. Pre-War Background
- III. Post-War Developments
- IV. Factors Bearing on Developments
 - A. Extra-Institutional Factors
 - B. Intra-Institutional Factors
- V. Conclusion

I. Introductory Remarks

The purpose of this paper is to survey briefly the developments in Japanese academic research libraries since the war and to examine some of the factors which have contributed to these developments. This is a subject on which no comprehensive study has ever been made, and there are only a few articles which relate to it directly in their entirety. Most of the materials on it are limited to fragmentary articles and such incidental references as are found in resolutions of conferences of academic librarians or announcements of the Committee on Standards for University Libraries. This paper makes no pretence of attempting a comprehensive historical study of this extensive and somewhat involved subject. It is confined to pointing out major developments and the factors which have had some bearing on them.

The term "academic libraries" as used here includes all libraries which are integral parts of universities and all other types of higher educational institutions and which have research functions of any nature. Among them are not only main libraries but also departmental libraries and libraries of affiliated research institutions. Excluded are all other libraries, public or private, even though they may have functions which are of major importance to academic research.

Just enough is given about academic libraries before and during the war to help understand what has happened to them since the war. The main body of the paper has two parts. The first describes major developments, and the second attempts to show what influenced them. The conclusion summarizes the findings and suggests the future of Japanese academic libraries.

II. Pre-War Background

The modern age of Japanese higher education began with the establishment in Tokyo in 1869 of the first national governmental school entitled

legally to be called a "university". It had a library. In the following year, it was reorganized along the lines of European universities. This was the beginning of what now is Tokyo University, oldest national university and proud possessor of the largest academic library in Japan. The oldest private university, Keio, founded in 1858, did not begin the formation of its library until about 1890. The years in which other leading universities established libraries follow:

- 1882 Waseda University
- 1885 Chuo University
- 1887 Doshisha University
- 1897 Kyoto University
- 1897 Meiji University
- 1899 Hosei University

In the early days, many senior research scholars and university faculty members were sent to Europe, especially to Germany, to study or engage in research. They brought back European, mainly German, traditions in the organization and use of research collections. Until about 1920, however, very few Japanese academic libraries had materials which quantitatively or qualitatively were of research calibre. Following World War I, which had left Japan relatively affluent, not only were libraries able to spend more on both foreign and domestic research materials but also many scholars who visited Europe took advantage of the coming onto the market of private collections because of the economic upheavals in Germany and other countries to purchase remarkable quantities of invaluable materials. Sooner or later, most of these private acquisitions were donated to or acquired by the libraries of the institutions with which their owners were affiliated. In consequence, the growth of academic libraries for a time was accelerated greatly.

Until the so-called "6-3-3-4" system was adopted in 1947, the student aiming at entrance to a university was required to complete six years of study in a primary school, five years in a secondary

school and finally three years in a "higher school". The curriculum of the "higher school" was comparable to that of an arts and science college. The university offered a three-year course in special subjects. Beyond this were graduate programs leading to the Ph. D. degree which required from two to five years of residence and research. On about the same level as the "higher school" were "normal schools" and commercial or technical "special schools", most of which after the war became colleges or were combined with other institutions to form colleges or universities.

In this educational system, libraries were of very little significance below the university level. The university libraries, moreover, were not intended especially for undergraduate use. Undergraduates in most cases were not given stack privileges and were allowed to have materials only in the general reading rooms, where they were allotted a limited number of seats. The libraries were primarily for use by faculty members, research scholars and doctorate candidates, and on the presumption that they were capable of making good use of materials without library staff help little consideration was given to developing services for users. Endeavors were concentrated on acquiring, processing and preserving materials.

Foremost among all universities, national and private, in the acquisition of valuable materials was Tokyo University, which by 1923 had 760,000 volumes. In that year, however, the fires that followed the Great Earthquake reduced this collection to ashes. Also lost at that time, entirely or in part, were the libraries of Meiji, Senshu and Nihon universities and the Tokyo College of Commerce.¹⁾

The 1923 losses were surpassed during the war in the damages to academic libraries from bombing and fires. Unlike those in 1923, which were confined to the Tokyo-Yokohama area, these were spread throughout the country. No exact calculation has been made of the extent to which their libraries suffered, but it is known that 242 universities and

other institutions of higher education were wholly or partly damaged during the war and that 20,000,000 square feet of their buildings were lost.²⁾

III. Post-War Developments

The defeat of the nation in 1945 threw educational and research activities into almost total confusion, as it did national life in general. Industries were paralyzed, and there were shortages of all vital commodities. No less than others, research workers had to give most of their time to seeking food and other necessities in order to survive. Not unnaturally, libraries and materials for them seemed of little importance in relation to the rest of national life and were accorded only minor consideration. Research dwindled, and lack of funds and paper interfered with publication of the results of such research as continued.

The administration of occupied Japan was under the Allied Powers, but it was the United States, as contributor of the largest military forces, that naturally exerted the greatest influence on the ways in which the policies for the rehabilitation of Japan were implemented. The fundamental objectives of the Allied Powers were the demilitarization and democratization of Japan. The military were demobilized immediately after the occupation. With regard to democratization, many directives and recommendations were issued by the Headquarters of the Supreme Commander of the Allied Powers. Some of these were concerned with democratization of education, including reforms which involved considerable changes in the concepts and operations of educational institutions. These changes greatly influenced libraries in schools on the lower levels but had little direct bearing on university libraries with research functions. For more than two years from the start of the occupation, damages and losses from the war, the shortage of funds and stuff and the inavailability of research materials combined to cause a decline in every activity of academic libraries.

Before the war, Japan had a total of 361 higher

educational institutions, including 101 "normal schools". Of these, forty-five were worthy of being called universities. The remainder had the status of "higher schools" or "special schools". With democratization, the system of higher education was changed to a new pattern which was considerably like the American. In 1947, the Japan University Accrediting Association was established to carry out accrediting procedures for universities under the new system, and the University Accrediting Committee in the Ministry of Education started work in 1949. Twelve new universities, of which one was municipal and the rest private, were organized in 1948, and in the following year 168 universities, 70 of them national, 17 municipal and 81 private, were recognized under the new system. By May of 1964, a total of 291 institutions of higher education had been approved as universities, 72 of them national, 34 municipal and 185 private.

The changes in the educational system created stimuli for university librarians, but they also brought problems, for substantial changes in fundamentals did not come about as rapidly as nominal and structural changes. The attitude of university administrations toward education and research programs and the concepts among faculty members with regard to teaching methods remained much as they always had been.

Nevertheless, there was striking physical expansion of academic libraries. From 429 libraries in 220 national, municipal and private universities in 1952-53, the number increased to 552 libraries in 260 universities in 1962-63, and from 21,993,762 volumes in 1952-53, their holdings totalled 37,341,118 volumes in 1962-63. There was parallel growth from 2,548 full-time professional and non-professional staff members in 1952-53 to 4,085 in 1962-63.^{3,4)} These figures, of course, do not necessarily imply any development of functional services, but they do show what was taking place quantitatively.

Early in the occupation, an education mission from the United States visited Japan. Its report,

published in 1946,⁵⁾ not only emphasized the important role of the library in education but also called for the training of professional librarians. Four years later, a second United States education mission, among other things, reiterated the importance of libraries, this time especially in institutions of higher learning.⁶⁾ Between the visits of these first and second education missions, a United States cultural science mission had surveyed Japanese universities. Its report called attention to fundamental deficiencies in their libraries and urged the training of better professional librarians.⁷⁾

Meanwhile, the Civil Information & Education Section of SCAP Headquarters was operating libraries of American and British materials in Tokyo and other major cities. These were administered by professional librarians who not only served the general public but also gave help and advice to research scholars and academic librarians, thereby demonstrating concretely what qualified librarians could contribute to research. From time to time, the Headquarters sponsored institutes for practicing librarians, and among those who participated in them were many university librarians.

Not to be ignored is the effect on academic librarians, stimulating them to seek professional status by enhancing their qualifications, of the significant developments during the late 1940's and early 1950's in Japanese librarianship outside the universities. One of these developments was the establishment in 1948 of the National Diet Library, which offered reference services directly to scholars, initiated domestic and international inter-library loan services for academic libraries and made a start toward the compilation and publication of badly needed bibliographic tools. Incidentally, American advisers associated with the National Diet Library during its formative period, such as Verner Clapp, Charles H. Brown and Robert B. Downs, took great interest in the problems of academic libraries and influenced their librarians directly and indirectly through formal talks and informal conversations.

The Public Library Law, promulgated in 1950, which established professional standards for librarians in public libraries, encouraged academic librarians to hope for professional status for themselves, setting them apart from clerical employees, and to consider how best to bring about a legal basis for this.

They were affected also by the nationwide development of school libraries following enforcement of the School Library Law in 1953, for this meant that students who in high school had become accustomed to good library services would expect and demand comparable services when they entered universities.

By solving some of their problems and enabling them to serve scholars more effectively, the establishment in 1957 of the Japan Information Center of Science and Technology had much significance for academic librarians, for it translated and abstracted articles, published abstracts and indexes and provided literature-searching and photoduplicating services.

In the standards adopted by the University Accrediting Association, university libraries were referred to in general and not very precise terms. To make these more concrete, the Association in 1948 invited qualified persons in the academic world to draft recommendations. Two committees were organized, one in Tokyo and the other in Kyoto. It soon became apparent that these two committees differed greatly in their views, and not until 1952 was the Association able to obtain from them and publish a draft set of standards. So conservative were these that librarians were disappointed and inclined to dismiss them as useless. Among them, however, were a few good recommendations, especially those requiring that the directorship of a university library be a full-time position and that librarians have a high academic background and professional training.⁸⁾ To appreciate the first of these, it must be realized that, almost without exception, directors of academic libraries are faculty members who have been elected to the post and

devote to it only part of their time. Most of the desires of librarians were not achieved in the 1952 draft, but their failure spurred them later to make fresh efforts to improve their status.

For better administration of national university libraries, a committee of faculty members of national universities met from 1951 to 1953 under the sponsorship of the University Section of the Ministry of Education. The results of its deliberations were published in 1953 under the title of "Guide to Improve National University Libraries".⁹⁾ This moved the Private University Library Association to undertake a similar study, out of which came "Guide to Improve Private University Libraries",¹⁰⁾ published in 1956. Both of these guides have weaknesses, but librarians have found them useful in trying to convince administrative officers of the need for reforms.

No less beneficial to academic libraries than to other libraries was the establishment in 1951 of the Japan Library School at Keio University, followed by its graduation of librarians with superior academic background and professional training. The American professors in library science on its faculty not only instructed and guided the students enrolled in their classes but also were freely available as consultants in various fields of librarianship. Among those well remembered by university librarians because of their special contributions to resolving the problems of academic libraries were Robert L. Gitler, Frances N. Cheney, Bertha Frick, Everett T. Moore, George S. Bonn, Guy R. Lyle, John M. Cory and Helen M. Focke. The first formal course in Japan on the administration of college and university libraries was instituted by the school in 1957, and since 1963 it has become a regular required course. Several workshops for academic librarians have been sponsored by the school. In 1962 began a special three-year program for the training of life science librarians, for which Estelle Brodman, Thomas P. Fleming and J. Richard Blanchard were invited to Japan as lecturers and consultants. Numerous

Post-War Developments in Japanese Academic Libraries

graduates of the school have been appointed to positions in academic libraries, and known to all academic librarians is its readiness to assist them in every way possible.

Concrete illustrations of what is taking place in academic libraries are provided by the changes in two prominent universities, one national and the other private. Tokyo University, acutely aware of the inadequacies of its library system, in 1960 invited Dr. Keyes Metcalf as a consultant. On the basis of his advice, it adopted a program to enhance its library services by revising the organization and functions of its libraries and remodeling some of their facilities. The building of the main library received many improvements. Completed in 1961 was an entirely new medical center with its own library, and now in progress is a new research library for the agricultural sciences. So convincing were the arguments in favor of these physical improvements and additions that the Rockefeller Foundation was willing to contribute part of their cost. As of April, 1964, the main library, with 584,000 volumes, the eleven departmental libraries and the thirteen libraries of research institutions had a total of 2,800,000 volumes, showing a remarkable recovery from the loss of almost everything by fire in 1923.

These developments in the nation's largest university naturally have stimulated all of the other national university libraries to seek similar improvement of facilities and services and to exert pressure for the necessary Government support. Revered in them no less than in Tokyo University itself is the memory of the late Dr. Hideo Kishimoto, who as director of the main library of Tokyo University campaigned so successfully in furtherance of library services commensurate with university needs.

Keio, oldest and most influential of the private universities, also has been meeting the challenge of library problems. Its administration in 1957 recognized that better library facilities and services were essential to the proper functioning of the

university. In 1960 a special committee was organized to help in the formulation of a concrete program. With a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation and the cooperation of the American Library Association, a group of administrative officers and librarians toured American university libraries in the fall of 1963 for observation and consultations. The library program now is being cast in final form for early implementation. Other private universities have followed with great interest the steps being taken by Keio and can be expected to adopt similar programs.

In the past twenty years, about twenty-five national universities have constructed new library buildings, noteworthy among which are those of the Tokyo University Medical Library, Ochanomizu Women's University Main Library, Aichi Gakugei University's Okazaki Library, Osaka University's Nakanoshima Library, Ehime University Main Library, Nagasaki University Medical Library and Kagawa University Main Library. No less outstanding have been the new libraries of such private universities as International Christian, Kokugakuin, Meiji and Rikkyo. In addition to the main library of Tokyo University, the buildings of the Keio University Medical School and Hokkaido Sapporo Medical School have undergone major remodeling. Under construction are more than ten academic libraries, including those of Hokkaido, Yamagata, Nagoya and Kagoshima universities and a new undergraduate library at Tokyo University. One aim in all of this construction has been to make library materials more easily accessible than in the past, but unfortunately many of the buildings have revealed functional shortcomings. As a consequence of increased recognition that there must be better planning of library buildings, a workshop on this problem, the first of its kind, was held in Tokyo in 1961. Librarians and architects now have much more understanding of what is needed and what must be avoided.

Recognition of professional status for national university librarians has been an issue since before

1949, when the National Personnel Authority was concerned with what to do about the status of librarians under the Civil Service Classification. Many articles on it have appeared in professional journals, and it has been a topic of discussion at conventions and conferences of librarians. In 1953, a committee for elevation of the status of university librarians was organized in the University Library Department of the Japan Library Association, and attempts were made to have the education laws amended to provide a legal basis for the professional status of university librarians.¹¹⁾ In 1956, a revision of civil service regulations enabled librarians in public libraries to be classified under a special pay plan. This was applied as well to national university librarians, but in 1958 it was suspended. For placement in national university libraries, the only requirement today is the passing of a Government examination.

Though the efforts to establish professional status for academic librarians have achieved nothing substantial over the past ten years, they have not been entirely in vain. Perhaps the most notable response to them has been that of the Science Council of Japan. Out of its concern for improvement of education and research in higher education, it adopted at its 1961 general meeting a series of recommendations which was submitted to the Prime Minister. With regard to academic libraries, it urged that the Government take steps to ensure the adequacy of their collections for education and research, to improve their quarters and other facilities so that they might function properly and to staff them with qualified librarians of professional status distinguished from clerical employees.¹²⁾ The Council also recommended the establishment of documentation centers to further the cultural sciences.¹³⁾

On the basis of these recommendations, the Scientific Information Office of the Ministry of Education has taken a few steps. Plans have been made to establish a number of documentation centers, one on foreign laws in the Law Depart-

ment of Tokyo University, one on Japanese economic statistics in the Institute of Economic Research of Hitotsubashi University, one on management analysis in the Research Institute of Economics and Administration of Kobe University and others in the Research Institute of Oriental Culture of Tokyo University, the Research Institute of the Humanities and the Toyo Bunko (Oriental Library). The first three of these have been inaugurated and give promise of providing full documentation services.

The Scientific Information Office also was successful in obtaining funds in the 1964 budget to send two directors of national university libraries to America and Europe to inspect university libraries. It is hoped that the Ministry of Education will be able to repeat this program annually so that university librarians in increasing numbers will be familiar with modern library services in the rest of the world.

This year for the first time the Ministry is sponsoring institutes in Tokyo, Osaka and Sendai to enable university librarians to learn new concepts and techniques. Though brief, lasting only four days, these institutes are expected to have considerable impact on academic libraries throughout the country and to encourage belief that the Ministry now is awake to the importance of improved library services in universities.

With regard to facilities, the Educational Facilities Division of the Ministry, with the cosponsorship of the University Section and the Scientific Information Office, in late 1963 invited faculty members and library directors to organize a committee to consider not only physical standards for university libraries but also broader matters of concern to these libraries. The committee hopes to accomplish its objectives in 1965, and there is general confidence that its recommendations will help to elevate library standards.

At the same time, within the University Chartering Council, on the basis of a recent recommendation of the Central Council for Education, a com-

Post-War Developments in Japanese Academic Libraries

mittee has been created to revise the minimum essentials for university libraries.

There has been no single Government agency charged with responsibility for academic libraries. It is possible, however, that the Scientific Information Office of the Ministry of Education will evolve into a section on "information and libraries". If this materializes, much more positive Government guidance of academic libraries is probable. The trend seems to be toward greater recognition that improvement of academic libraries is an urgent matter.

IV. Factors Bearing on Developments

Though the development of academic libraries has not been so marked as that of other libraries in Japan, it has not been entirely passive and perhaps is nearing a stage in which it will be greatly accelerated. It therefore may be worthwhile to examine what has influenced and is likely to influence the course of their development.

A. Extra-Institutional Factors

1. Non-Library

Interest in improvement of library services is not confined to the library profession. Apart from it are organizations or groups of various kinds, in some of which professional librarians may participate but in which non-librarians predominate, which have influenced or continue to influence Japanese academic libraries directly and indirectly. These include American educational groups and foundations, Japanese academic groups and the Ministry of Education.

During the occupation, as already has been mentioned, two groups of American educators made official visits to Japan and published reports in 1946 and 1950 with recommendations which led officials of the Ministry of Education and administrators of leading universities to make momentous changes in educational goals, organization and methods. These reports left no doubts that the

mission members believed that library reforms were imperative. Even stronger was the advice of the American mission on cultural science which in 1948 visited major universities. It pointed out serious deficiencies in Japanese library and research practices and suggested some of the ways in which academic libraries could and should be improved. These American recommendations were not adopted immediately or in their entirety, it is true, but they made a tremendous impression on research scholars, awakening them to realization of the importance of library functions and the roles of professional librarians.

The Rockefeller, Ford and Asia Foundations, the China Medical Board and other foreign organizations have given grants to some universities to improve their library collections and services and even to help in the building of new facilities. Not the least valuable aspect of such grants has been the thinking required of university administrators in formulating and justifying their requests for them. Among other contributions by American foundations to academic librarianship has been the granting of funds for the training of librarians and educators of librarians in the United States or Japan. The results of this have not always been immediately visible, but they are certain to be felt increasingly in the years to come.

Perhaps most noteworthy of the Japanese academic organizations which have affected academic libraries is the Japan University Accrediting Association, which a year after its establishment in 1947 set a committee to working on the formulation of standards for university libraries. The standards, published in 1952, have a poor reputation because looked upon as minimum essentials rather than enlightened and lofty standards. It cannot be denied, however, that their formulation stimulated the thinking of the university administrators, faculty members and librarians who participated in it and prepared the way for future adoption of higher standards.

The Japan Council of Science, as already has

been mentioned, has exerted its influence in behalf of better academic libraries in persuasive recommendations to the Prime Minister. There is every reason to believe that its pressure for improvements will continue, and both librarians and research scholars are confident that the Government will have to respond with concrete actions.

The Ministry of Education, partly as a result of outside influences, has initiated a series of activities affecting academic library services. In addition to its publication in 1953 of the "Guide to Improve National University Libraries", compiled by a special committee, and its efforts to establish documentation centers, referred to earlier, it published in 1958, through its Scientific Information Office, the "Bibliographical List of Japanese Learned Journals: Natural Sciences, Humanities and Social Sciences", with supplements in 1962 and 1964, and the "Union List of Learned Journals" in 1957-59, of which a revised edition is planned for this year. These publications have proved to be very useful tools for academic inter-library cooperation.

In December, 1963, the Educational Facilities Division of the Ministry, with other offices cooperating, organized a committee of university professors, library directors and experienced librarians to attempt the formulation of a new set of standards for university libraries. The committee was given two years in which to complete its task. Whatever the results, their impact on academic libraries will be great.

2. Within the Library Profession

In varying ways and degrees, other kinds of libraries, education for librarianship, visiting librarians from abroad and library organizations all have influence on academic libraries.

The National Diet Library, established in 1948, inevitably influences many aspects of all other libraries in Japan because of the size and character of its collections, because of the services it provides and because of the procedures it follows. Its strong points are likely to be emulated by other libraries,

but at the same time its weak points are likely to be utilized by other libraries as excuses for their own shortcomings. Apart from the kind of example it sets, its services are such that not even the biggest academic libraries can function adequately without utilizing them. Especially helpful are its domestic and international inter-library loan and international exchange services and its compilation and issuance of such essential tools as the "National Bibliography", the "Japanese Periodical Indexes", started in 1948, and the "Union List of Currently Acquired Western Books".

Perhaps less obvious is the influence of public libraries on academic libraries, but it was the success of the movement initiated by librarians of public libraries in achieving national legal support for their libraries for the first time in 1950 that inspired Government-supported academic libraries to seek similar legislation for their own support.

Another public institution, the Japan Information Center of Science and Technology, founded in 1957, is influencing academic libraries and research through such publications as the "Current Bibliography on Science and Technology", "Foreign Patent News", "General Index to Japanese Chemical Abstracts, 1941-1955" and "Cumulative Index to Japanese Patents, 1948-1961" and through its photoduplication service.

At least indirectly, the development of good library services in primary and secondary schools is having effects on academic libraries. Few entrants to colleges and universities now are not aware of the role of libraries in their quest of knowledge, and their expectation of good library materials and services means pressure on administrations and faculties to provide them.

Because of its central and unrivaled function in the training of professional librarians and thus as a source of high professional ideals and standards, the Japan Library School in Keio University has been influencing and will continue to influence academic libraries in ways which already have been cited. The flow into these libraries of its graduates

carries not only professional skills but also keen awareness of what needs to be accomplished and of the problems which must be solved. The School has brought academic librarians into touch with experienced librarians from abroad, and available to them is the wealth of professional literature in its own library.

Though perhaps difficult to assess, there also have been and will continue to be influences from not only study, observation trips and consultations abroad by academic librarians, administrators, and faculty members, but also the presence in Japan of foreign professional librarians, such as those in the SCAP Civil Information & Education Section libraries in the past and those who come on visits of various kinds, and even of foreign scholars, many of whom use the libraries of academic institutions.

Among professional organizations, the Conference of National University Librarians, the Private University Library Association, the University Library Department of the Japan Library Association and the Japan Medical Library Association have all been active in seeking improvements in academic libraries. The first of these has been trying to raise the professional status of librarians, and the second has been developing library standards. The University Library Department of the Japan Library Association has taken leadership in the movement for general improvement of the status of university librarians. The Medical Library Association has not only developed higher standards for medical librarianship but also contributed much to the training of library staffs.

B. Intra-Institutional Factors

1. Outside the Library but Within the Institution

Of great importance to the academic library is the administration of the university or other institution of which it is a part, for it is the administration that makes many of the major decisions affecting it. No enlightened administra-

tion can be indifferent toward the library, and many Japanese university administrators, themselves men with research backgrounds, have shown marked enthusiasm for library improvements. In some cases, administrators are more progressive than the staff members of their libraries, who are bound by the tradition of custodian-type librarianship and do not understand fully the purposes, methods and needs of research.

The faculty is likely to have closer connection with and more interest in the library than the administration. With rare exceptions, the library director is chosen from and remains a faculty member. Faculty members are dominant in the committee which is responsible for the library, and some of them may have represented their institution on national committees concerned with library matters. Faculty recommendations to the administration may have a decisive influence on library policies. Library services almost always reflect the views of the faculty on education methods and research practices. The negative influence of the professor who assembled his own small collection on his special subject and had no interest in what might be available to other faculty members and their students is gone. The younger generation of faculty members, including many who are likely to have studied abroad and had the experience of using good library services, tends to demand better functioning of the library in the hands of professional librarians.

The students, ignored in the past, also are exerting influence. Those who have known open stacks in high school are dissatisfied to find that they cannot go directly to books in academic libraries. They complain about poor cataloging and lack of professional assistance. Graduate students, even though given stack privileges, are not tolerant of shortcomings in service. Those who remain on as faculty members or research workers are certain to join with the forces working for library improvements.

2. Within the Library

With rare exceptions, the director of the main library and the directors of departmental and other research libraries in a university is a faculty member, and the librarians are classified as clerical workers. The director, elected or recommended by the faculty for a term of two or three years, must carry concurrently a heavy teaching load. Unless he happens to be exceptionally enthusiastic, does not permit his teaching to interfere with his library duties and can hold the position for several terms, it is almost impossible to expect him to provide strong direction. This has been deplored, and yet as an influential faculty member he often may be able to win administration support for the library more easily than might a director not on the faculty.

The influence on policy of the academic library staff varies, of course, but one may generalize that librarians without status are at least handicapped in exercising influence. Yet to be fully recognized is the need for professionally trained librarians with good academic backgrounds. When it began, the movement to achieve this had relatively few participants, but in recent years it has gained adherents among the growing numbers of academic librarians who have taken advantage of courses and in-service training to improve their librarianship and academic backgrounds. By their demonstration of the effects on library services of such training, they have gained more influence in academic circles. To them is given the credit for persuading the Science Council of Japan to recommend improvements in academic libraries and their staffs.

V. Conclusion

The post-war development of Japanese academic libraries began on the initiative of visiting American educators who recommended sweeping reforms in the education system. Along the lines established by them, the University Accrediting Association and the Ministry of Education set up minimum

standards for university libraries. The contributions of non-library extra-institutional forces predominated at this stage.

Then came stimulation from such extra-institutional forces in the library field as other kinds of libraries, professors of library schools, library organizations and visiting Americans of outstanding librarianship. The influence of educators of librarians was especially strong, and it has continued. Also continuing is the influence of the library groups which drafted guides for academic libraries.

Though skeptical at first, many administrators of institutions of higher learning gradually have changed their attitudes toward libraries, and the same is true of faculty members. Institutions with progressive administrative and faculty leaders have shown marked improvement in functional library services.

Because so few in number and without status, professionally trained librarians in academic libraries were not a very forceful factor in the beginning. Stimulated by outsiders, however, a few of them campaigned for recognition of their status. Failing in that for the moment, they added to their numbers by encouraging their juniors to improve their librarianship. They have shown that they can exercise influence, and this they will do increasingly.

The development of academic libraries, beginning with the American recommendations early in the post-war occupation, may be regarded as having completed a cycle with the issuance by the Science Council of Japan of recommendations for the improvement of these libraries. A second cycle has started with revision of the basic standards for academic libraries.

The factors in what has taken place have been outside and inside the libraries, professional and non-professional. Their influences have had chain reactions. It is certain that as they continue there will be further great changes in the academic libraries.

(Japan Library School)

Post-War Developments in Japanese Academic Libraries

- 1) 小野則秋. 日本図書館史. 京都, 蘭書房 (Ono, Noriaki. *History of Japanese libraries*. Kyoto, Ran Shobo) 1952. p. 283-6.
- 2) 文部省. 学制八十年史. 東京 (Ministry of Education. *Eighty-year history of the Japanese education system*. Tokyo) 1956. p. 562.
- 3) 文部省. 学校基本調査報告書, 昭和27年度. 東京 (Ministry of Education. *Report on the survey on basic school statistics, 1952-53*. Tokyo) 1954. p. 274-5.
- 4) *Ibid.*, 昭和37年度 (1962-63) 1963., p. 329-32.
- 5) U. S. Education Mission to Japan. *Report of the United States Education Mission to Japan*. Tokyo [GHQ. SCAP] 1950. 20 p.
- 6) U. S. Second Education Mission to Japan. *Report of the Second United States Education Mission to Japan*. Tokyo [GHQ. SCAP] 1950. 17 p.
- 7) U. S. Cultural Science Mission to Japan. *Report of the United States Cultural Science Mission to Japan*. Tokyo [GHQ. SCAP] 1949. p. 31-4, 65-6.
- 8) 後藤純郎. “戦後の大学図書館運動,” 図書館学会年報 (Goto, Sumio. “Post-war movements of university libraries,” *Annals of the Society of Library Science*) vol. 8, no. 1, 1961, p. 24-6.
- 9) 文部省. 国立大学図書館改善要項及びその解説. 東京 (Ministry of Education. *Guide to improve national university libraries*. Tokyo) 1953. 26 p.
- 10) 日本私立大学図書館協会. 私立大学図書館改善要項. 東京 (Japan Private University Library Association. *Guide to improve private university libraries*. Tokyo) 1956. 31 p.
- 11) 酒井忠志. “大学図書館職員をめぐる運動,” 図書館界 (Sakai, Tadashi. “Movements around the university library staff,” *Library world*) vol. 13, no. 6, Mar. 1962, p. 168-75.
- 12) 日本学術会議. “大学図書館の整備拡充に関する勧告について,” 日本学術会議月報 (Science Council of Japan. “On the recommendations for improvement of university libraries,” *Science Council of Japan monthly bulletin*) vol. 2, no. 5, May 1961, p. 14-20.
- 13) 日本学術会議. 人文社会科学の振興について (勧告), 日本学術会議月報 (Science Council of Japan. “On the promotion of research in humanities and social sciences, recommendations,” *Science Council of Japan monthly bulletin*) vol. 2, no. 5, May 1961, p. 20-21.
- 14) 文部省. 学術情報主任官室. 大学図書館の改善について. 東京 (Ministry of Education. Scientific Information Office. *On the improvement of university libraries*. Tokyo) 1964. 8 p.