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5.	6 May 46	Japanese Jounalist's Training
6.	6 May 46	Affiliations of Principal Japanese Newspapers
7.	10 May 46	The Asahi Shimbun Publishing Company
8.	8 June 46	Basic Statistics: Newspapers as of 15 May 1946
9.	24 July 46	Journalism in Universities
10.	12 Dec. 46	The Jiji Shimpo Publishing Company

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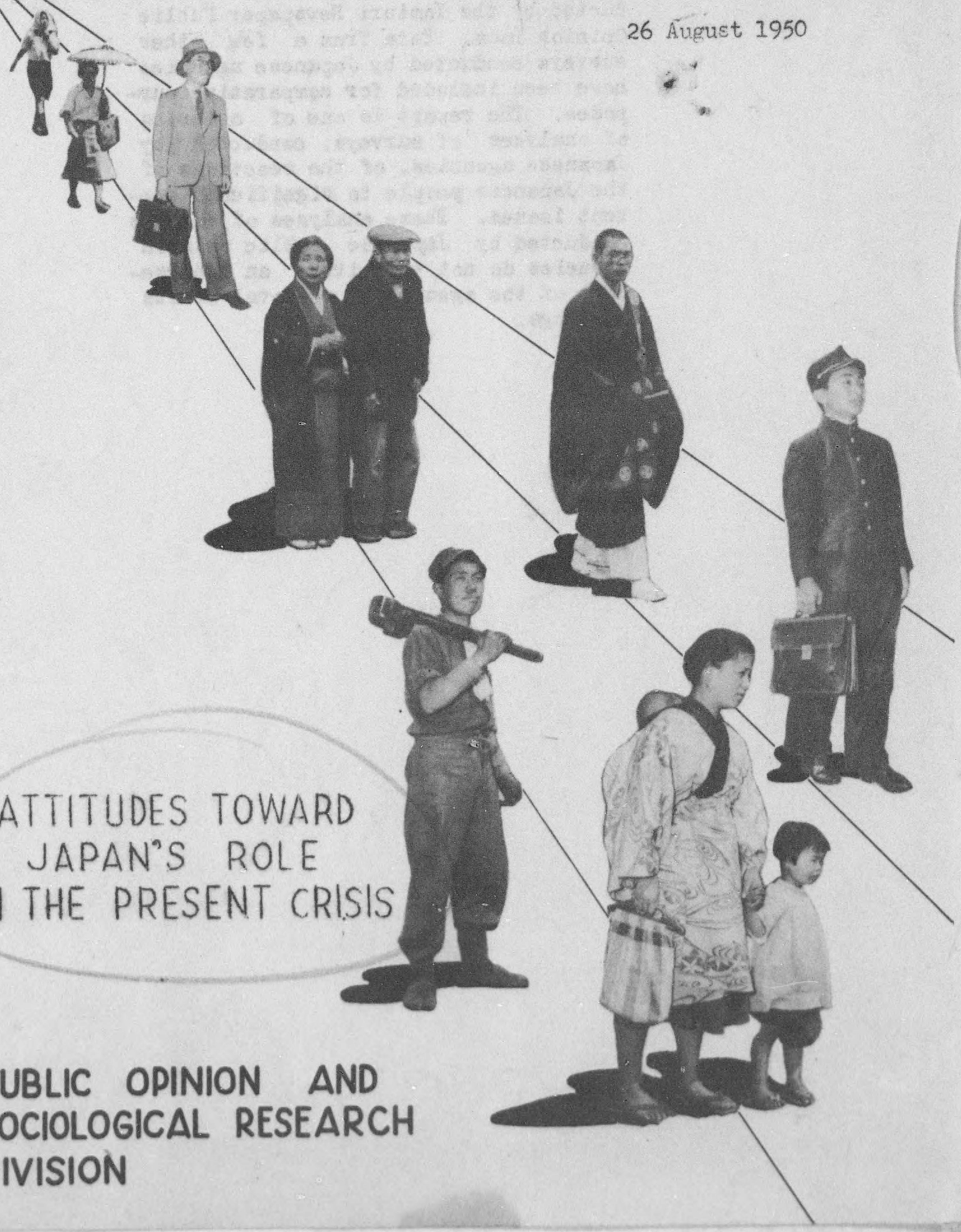
CIVIL INFORMATION OFFICER

GENERAL HEADQUARTERS
SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS
Civil Information and Education Section

SURVEY SERIES

26 August 1950



ATTITUDES TOWARD JAPAN'S ROLE IN THE PRESENT CRISIS

PUBLIC OPINION AND SOCIOLOGICAL RESEARCH DIVISION

FOREWORD

This report is based upon a survey conducted by the Yomiuri Newspaper Public Opinion Room. Data from a few other surveys conducted by Japanese agencies have been included for comparative purposes. The report is one of a series of analyses of surveys, conducted by Japanese agencies, of the reactions of the Japanese people to significant current issues. These analyses of surveys conducted by Japanese public opinion agencies do not constitute an indorsement of the agency or approval of its findings.

ATTITUDES TOWARD JAPAN'S ROLE IN THE PRESENT CRISIS

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ATTITUDES TOWARD JAPAN'S ROLE IN THE PRESENT CRISIS

Introduction

During the period 3-6 August 1950, the Yomiuri Newspaper Public Opinion Room interviewed a national sample of the Japanese people on their reactions to the current international situation, with emphasis upon attitudes toward America, the Soviet Union, and the Korean war. The results of the survey were published in the Yomiuri Newspaper on 15 August 1950. This report represents a re-analysis of the original data plus more extensive detailing of the attitude differences between groups within the sample. A few questions have been eliminated, as, in the judgment of this Division, the question wording was technically poor, and the findings therefore of dubious value. Comparative data from past surveys have been added, and certain trends in opinion are noted.

A sample of 3,586 persons was interviewed. This sample, selected by random methods from voters' lists, was designed to constitute a representative cross-section of the population of Japan.

A majority of the questions asked were of the "open-ended" type: that is, respondents were asked to reply in their own words rather than to select one of a limited number of alternative answers. For two questions, the "split ballot" technique was used; that is, the same question was asked in a slightly different way of each of two halves of the entire sample. This technique permits the determination of the possible effect upon responses of two different key terms, e.g. "American troops" and "United Nations troops".

In order to point out striking differences between percentages, arrows (⇆) have been used in several tables.

In the APPENDIX entitled "Composition of Groups Within the Sample" a breakdown of the entire sample is given. Readers interested in knowing the actual number of people and the percentage of the entire sample represented by such terms as "professional workers" or "the 20-29 age group" are advised to consult this table.

SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS

The US and the USSR

- A majority of the Japanese people like America and dislike Russia
- A majority of respondents with opinions think America is ahead of Russia in the present conflict...
- ...and confidence in the long-term victory of America is even greater

The Korean War

- Opinion is uncrystallized concerning the effect of the Korean war upon a "separate" peace treaty for Japan
- A majority feels that Japan should not cooperate in the Korean war
- The percentage of respondents who feel that the dispatch of troops to Korea will have unfavorable effects upon Japan is twice that of those who feel it will have favorable effects...
- ...and personal anxieties were expressed more often than were possible effects upon the nation as a whole

Military Bases and a Defense Army for Japan

- Opinion is divided on the question of American military bases in Japan after the signing of the peace treaty
- Opinion is also divided concerning a defense army for Japan
- The attitude of many respondents toward the problem of military bases is influenced by the estimate of the eventual outcome of the US-USSR conflict

The Mass Media

- Confidence in radio and newspaper reports is increasing

F I N D I N G S

The US and the USSR

A majority of the Japanese people like America and dislike Russia

Two-thirds of all respondents stated that of all foreign countries they liked America the most, and slightly more than two-thirds stated that they disliked Russia the most. Switzerland ranked second among countries liked and China second among countries disliked.

These findings suggest a slight increase in pro-American and a substantial increase (15 percentage points) in anti-Soviet feeling since May 1949. Also, in the past 15 months, opinions about foreign countries have crystallized somewhat: a somewhat smaller proportion of respondents failed to indicate definite likes or dislikes.[1]

The choice of Switzerland by four percent of the respondents in the present survey may indicate a pro-neutrality attitude. In recent months, there has been a great deal of press comment on the analogy of Switzerland and Japan as neutral countries.

Question: What foreign country do you like the most?

	May 1949*	August 1950
America	62%	66%
Russia	1	2
Switzerland	2	4
Great Britain	4	2
France	1	1
China	1	0.5
Germany	0**	0.5
Others	3	1
None	26	23
	100%	100%

* Results are from a survey conducted by the Jiji News Agency Public Opinion Room, published in GHQ, SCAP, CIE, PO&SR Division, Survey Series, "Basic Attitudes Toward Foreign Countries", 23 June 1949.

** Less than 0.5 percent

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1. See APPENDIX, "Special Note on Bias in the Like-Dislike Question".

Question: What foreign country do you dislike the most?

	May 1949*	August 1950
America	1%	2%
Russia	53	68
China	7	4
Korea	3	0**
Great Britain	1	0**
Others	1	2
None	34	24
	100%	100%

* Results are from a survey conducted by the Jiji News Agency Public Opinion Room, published in GHQ, SCAP, CIE, PO&SR Division, Survey Series, "Basic Attitudes Toward Foreign Countries", 23 June 1949.

** Less than 0.5 percent

A majority of respondents with opinions think America is ahead of Russia in the present conflict...

Respondents were asked whether they thought America or Russia was stronger at the present time; a majority of those with opinions said America, and a rather large percentage didn't know. It is significant that the percentage of women replying "don't know" was twice that of the men.

Evidence from an earlier survey indicates that the Korean war (or other developments in the past two years) may have decreased the amount of confidence in America and increased confidence in Russia. However, the 1948 survey was confined to Tokyo. In order to make the two samples comparable, the responses of Tokyo people in the present survey have been isolated in the following table from those of respondents as a whole. As noted below, the question asked in 1948 was also somewhat different.

Question: In the world conflict, which do you think is stronger at the present time, America or Russia?

(1948 Question: In the present conflict between Russia and America, which do you think is gaining ground, and which is losing ground?)

	All Japan August 1950	Tokyo August 1950	Tokyo Nov 1948*
America	40%	42%	57%
Russia	27	25	13
Don't know	33	33	30
	100%	100%	100%

...ard confidence in the long-term victory of America is even greater

As noted above, 40 percent of all respondents think America is stronger at the present time, and 27 percent think that Russia is. But when asked what they thought the situation would be like 20 years from now, only 11 percent stated that Russia would be stronger. However, slightly more than half of all respondents were unable to reply to this question, indicating both that the question was difficult and that many Japanese have adopted a wait-and-see attitude; and, of those who expressed an opinion, more than three out of every four indicated a belief that the United States would be stronger than Russia 20 years hence.

If only those who expressed an opinion are considered, some variations from group to group may be noted. Generally speaking, most groups within the sample expressed faith in the United States over Russia in the ratio of three to one. However, in the case of urban residents, male respondents, the 40-49 age group, professional workers, and the higher education groups, this ratio dropped to about two to one. Apparently, in groups with more education and a wider social outlook there is less certainty about the future position and role of the United States than there is in other groups.

As was the case in the previous question, there is some evidence from an earlier (1948) survey which indicates that faith in the long-term victory of America has declined somewhat, at least in Tokyo. (The previous survey was confined to Tokyo). In order to show this more clearly, the responses of Tokyo people in the present survey have been isolated from those of respondents as a whole.

Question: Twenty years from now, which of these two countries do you think will be stronger, the United States or Russia?

	All Japan August 1950	Tokyo August 1950	Tokyo November 1948*
America	37%	33%	47%
Russia	11	16	7
Don't know	52	51	46
	100%	100%	100%

* Results are from a survey conducted by the Public Opinion Survey Research Institute, a private Japanese organization, and published in GHQ, SCAP, CIE, PO&SR Division, Current Japanese Public Opinion Surveys, "Some Japanese Reactions to Questions Asked in an International Survey", No. 16, 11 January 1949.

The Korean War

Opinion is uncrystallized concerning the effect of the Korean war upon a "separate" peace treaty for Japan

Prior to the Korean war, there was much discussion in Japan, both in the press and among the people in general, concerning the relative merits of an "overall" vs. a "separate" peace treaty, i.e., with or without Soviet participation and concurrence. Since the outbreak of the war, the possibility of an "overall" peace treaty has been considered to be less, and peace treaty discussions have centered more upon the potential effects of the war upon the signing of a "separate" treaty rather than upon the respective merits of the two types of treaties. Some writers have said that the Korean situation will delay such a treaty indefinitely, others that it will clarify the international atmosphere and actually hasten a treaty. The present survey reveals that people as a whole are divided in their opinions about this effect, and a rather large percentage of them don't know what effect it will have.[1]

Question: What effect do you think the Korean war will have on a separate peace treaty for Japan?

It will hasten it	31%
It will delay it	24
Don't know	45
	100%

Opinion is more crystallized among professional workers, middle and higher school graduates, and men...

Among all groups in the sample, there is divided opinion concerning the effect of the Korean war upon a separate peace treaty for Japan, but among certain groups, smaller percentages of respondents stated that they did not know. This variability of the "don't know" group is summarized below:

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1. It is possible that in spite of the question wording, many respondents answered in terms of any peace treaty--"separate" or "overall". Thus, the percentage stating "it will delay it" may be smaller than would have been the case if the question had been answered properly.

Percentage of Respondents
Stating "Don't Know"

All men	30%
All women	58%
Professional workers	30%
Farmers	57%
Artisans	59%
Higher school graduates	16%
Middle school graduates	27%
Primary school graduates	54%
ALL RESPONDENTS	45%

...and among industrial workers, the percentage stating that "it will delay it" is greater than that stating that "it will hasten it"

As noted above, the percentage of all respondents who stated that the Korean war will hasten a separate peace treaty is only slightly greater than that of those who feel it will delay it. But among industrial workers, the reverse is true.

	Industrial workers	All respondents
It will hasten it	25%	31%
It will delay it	34	24
Don't know	41	45
	100%	100%

A majority feels that Japan should not cooperate in the Korean war

The survey results indicate clearly that a majority of the Japanese people do not wish to become involved in the Korean war, even to the extent of "cooperating in one way or another". This is true of all groups, but most true of industrial workers, manual laborers, and salaried workers, and least true of commercial and industrial enterprisers, professional workers, and farmers.

The manufacture of munitions was most frequently suggested by those who favor cooperation. The chief reason given for opposing cooperation is a dislike of war. The fact that four out of every 10 respondents volunteered this "dislike of war" response to this question indicates that the memories of war's hardships are still vivid among a large segment of the population.[1]

Question: Do you think that the Japanese people should cooperate in one way or another in the Korean war?

	All respondents
Yes	31%
(By producing munitions)	(18)
(By sending a volunteer army)	(5)
(By sending a defense army)	(5)
(Other ways)	(3)
No	57
(Because I dislike war)	(40)
(Because my relatives may suffer)	(6)
(Because Japan will have air raids)	(5)
(Other reasons)	(6)
Don't know	12
	100%

The percentage of respondents who feel that the dispatch of troops to Korea will have unfavorable effects upon Japan is twice that of those who feel it will have favorable effects...

Respondents were asked what effect upon Japan the dispatch of troops would have. A "split ballot" was used: half the sample was asked about the effect of "American troops" and half about "United Nations troops". While the purpose of the split-ballot question was to determine whether the Japanese people would show a more favorable attitude towards United Nations

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1. No nation-wide survey is available for comparative purposes, but a survey of the reactions of a small sample of Kobe residents to the Korean war, conducted in the early days of the war, is of interest on this point. Asked if the war had caused them to worry in any way, 37 percent of the respondents stated that their chief worry was that "Japan would become a battleground--there will be air-raids", and 34 percent feared that the Korean war would set off a war between the United States and the Soviet Union. Results of this survey are contained in GHQ, SCAP, CIE, PO&SR Division, Public Opinion Memorandum, "The Initial Reactions of Kobe Residents to the Korean War", 22 July 1950 (unpublished; limited distribution only).

action or towards American action, the survey findings do not seem to show any substantial difference.

Nearly one third of all respondents felt that the dispatch of troops would result in unfavorable effects, chiefly to create anxieties about war and living conditions; only 15 percent saw the action as having possible favorable results.[1] This does not mean, however, that a majority is opposed to the action, but rather that the fact of the war itself (with or without American or United Nations participation) is a disturbing matter.

About half replied "don't know", which in this case certainly does not mean that they believe the war will have favorable effects.

Question: What kind of effect do you think the dispatch of American (United Nations) troops to Korea will have upon Japan?

	American troops	United Nations troops
Unfavorable Effects	32%	27%
(Makes one fear war)	(15)	(12)
(Makes one worry about living conditions)	(14)	(12)
(Makes the political and social scene unsettled)	(2)	(2)
(Will strengthen the Japan Communist Party)	(1)	(1)
Favorable Effects	15	14
(Gives a feeling of security)	(7)	(7)
(Will promote economic stabilization)	(4)	(3)
(Will strengthen anti-communist feelings)	(2)	(2)
(Will keep us out of war)	(2)	(2)
Other reactions	6	5
Don't know	47	54
	100%	100%

1. Inasmuch as the two "split halves" of the sample replied similarly to their respective questions, separate analyses of the results have not been made. However, in order to demonstrate this similarity, both sets of responses are given. The "15 percent" referred to is from the half of the sample asked about "American troops".

...and personal anxieties were expressed more often than were possible effects upon the nation as a whole

The responses to the same question were analyzed from the point of view of whether or not the respondent had a "personal" or a "national" reaction. In spite of the fact that the question was about the "effect upon Japan", 36 percent answered in "personal" terms, and only 11 percent in "national" terms.[1] Included among those who replied in "personal" terms are seven percent who stated that the dispatch of troops "gives a feeling of security". Nevertheless, more than any other reaction, the Japanese people regard the Korean war as a threat to the security which they have come to feel under the Occupation.

Question: What kind of effect do you think the dispatch of American (United Nations) troops to Korea will have upon Japan?

	American troops	United Nations troops
"Personal" effects	36%	31%
(Makes one fear war)	(15)	(12)
(Makes one worry about living conditions)	(14)	(12)
Gives a feeling of security)	(7)	(7)
"National" effects	11	10
(Will promote economic stabilization)	(4)	(3)
(Makes the political and social scene unsettled)	(2)	(2)
(Will strengthen anti-communist feelings)	(2)	(2)
(Will keep us out of war)	(2)	(2)
(Will strengthen the Japan Communist Party)	(1)	(1)
Other reactions	6	5
Don't know	47	54
	100%	100%

1. See footnote on preceding page.

Military Bases and a Defense Army for Japan

Opinion is divided on the question of American military bases in Japan after the signing of the peace treaty

The problem of whether or not American bases should be retained in Japan after the peace treaty has received as much attention in the press and in the statements of national leaders as have the problems of a "separate" peace treaty and a defense army for Japan. While the issue will ultimately be settled by a peace treaty conference, the Japanese have been expressing opinions on the issue for some time; just a few days before the present survey was conducted, for example, Prime Minister Yoshida made his stand clear by telling the House of Councillors that "I am not willing to loan military bases".[1] The majority of press comment, like the Prime Minister's statement, has been negatively disposed.

In the light of this discussion, it is interesting to find that while over one third of the respondents rejected the proposal that American bases be retained in Japan, 28 percent desired that based be retained, and another one third did not express an opinion one way or another.

Question: There has been much discussion recently concerning the retention of American military bases in Japan after the peace treaty. What do you think about this?

Should not be retained	38%
Should be retained	28
Don't know	34
	100%

All groups within the sample included a higher percentage of persons opposing military bases than in favor of such bases. Those groups most opposed to having American bases are given below:

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1. Mainichi, English Language Edition, "Yoshida Set Against Military Base Loans", 31 July 1950. Interest in this problem is indicated by the fact that all of the major Japanese language newspapers carried this story in banner headlines; and in spite of the fact that this statement was only one of many major statements made by Yoshida before the House of Councillors, this particular one was featured in the headlines.

Groups of respondents most opposed to the retention of military bases	Should not be retained	Should be retained	Don't know	Total
20-29 age group	45%	29	26	100%
Urban respondents	43%	27	30	100%
Professional workers	56%	28	16	100%
Higher school graduates	58%	30	12	100%
ALL RESPONDENTS	38%	28	34	100%

Opinion is also divided concerning a defense army for Japan

Japan's new Constitution states that Japan has renounced war forever, and will never again have an army or navy. These provisions have generally been interpreted to mean that Japan has renounced aggressive warfare, rather than that she has forfeited the right of self-defense. Communist elements, of course, have raised objections to any type of defense force, for fear that such forces could be used to combat communist aggression. Since the outbreak of the Korean war, the problem of Japan's defense has become more immediate, since United States Occupation troops who were in a position to defend Japan have, for the most part, been moved to Korea.

The Japanese people are sharply divided on the issue of a defense army; a rather large percentage is undecided; and a slight majority of respondents with opinions favor such an army. Men tend to favor a defense army more than do women; and more men than women have definite opinions.[1]

A Defense Army for Japan?

	By sex		All respondents
	Men	Women	
Yes	46%	32%	38%
No	37	31	34
Don't know	17	37	28
	100%	100%	100%

In order to test the effect of different question wordings, one half of the sample was asked this question--"Some people in America say that a Japanese defense army must be established. What do you think about this?"--and the other half was asked--"Some people say that a Japanese defense army must be established. What do you think about this?" Only very slight differences

1. The question on whether or not Japan should have a defense army was a "split ballot" question. In order to simplify the presentation of these comparisons, the two halves were combined.

were found in the responses of these two "split halves", indicating that little or no bias was introduced by telling the respondent that this idea had support in America--thus giving him an opportunity to oppose it on the grounds that it might be a part of American strategy and thus might not necessarily be to the best interests of Japan.

And a large majority of those people
who favor American military bases
are also in favor of a defense army...

The Japanese people who expressed opinions seem to be divided into two nearly equal groups: one group favors both American military bases and a defense army for Japan, and the other group is opposed to both. In other words, one group seems to be generally in favor of defense measures for Japan, while the other group (whether from general pacifist sentiment, having no fear of aggression, or pro-communism) is opposed to such measures. This becomes evident when the responses to the above questions are compared with one another. If this is done, it becomes clear that a large majority of those in favor of military bases are also in favor of a defense army; that a majority of those opposed to military bases are also opposed to a defense army; and that a majority of those in favor of a defense army are also in favor of military bases; and that a majority of those opposed to a defense army are also opposed to military bases.

A Defense Army for Japan?

	All respondents	Respondents in favor of military bases	Respondents opposed to military bases
Yes	38%	71%	27%
No	34	20	58
Don't know	28	9	15
	100%	100%	100%

Military Bases for Japan?

	All respondents	Respondents in favor of a defense army	Respondents opposed to a defense army
Yes	38%	54%	17%
No	28	27	65
Don't know	34	19	18
	100%	100%	100%

...and of those who feel that Japan should have a defense army, half stated that Japan should cooperate in the Korean war

The people who feel that Japan should not have a defense army (one-third of all respondents) are also for the most part opposed to Japan's cooperating in the Korean war; supporters of such cooperation are found much more frequently among people who favor a defense army. Nevertheless, the supporters of a defense army are split on this issue. These figures indicate that there is a fundamental split in the population as a whole: one group (25 percent of the total) is opposed to both a defense army and Japan's cooperation in the Korean war; the other group (39 percent of the total) is in favor of a defense army, but split on the issue of cooperation.

Should Japan Cooperate in the Korean War?

	All respondents	Respondents in favor of a defense army*	Respondents opposed to a defense army*
Yes	31%	49%	20%
No	57	45	76
Don't know	12	6	4
	100%	100%	100%

* The question on whether or not Japan should have a defense army was a "split-ballot" question. In order to simplify the presentation of these comparisons, the two halves were combined.

In summary, this means that:

33 percent of all respondents are opposed to a defense army for Japan;

25 percent of all respondents are opposed both to a defense army and cooperation in the Korean war;

39 percent of all respondents are in favor of a defense army for Japan; and

19 percent of all respondents are in favor both of a defense army for Japan and cooperation in the Korean war.

The attitude of many respondents toward the problem of military bases is influenced by the estimate of the eventual outcome of the US-USSR conflict

It may reasonably be assumed that persons who believe Russia will ultimately win in the international political and military struggle will also be inclined to oppose the retention of American military bases. The survey results support this assumption: a majority of respondents in the "USSR will be stronger" groups oppose such bases, while a plurality of respondents in the "US will be stronger" group are in favor of military bases.

Military Bases for Japan?

	All respondents	Respondents who think US will be stronger in 20 years	Respondents who think USSR will be stronger in 20 years
Yes	28%	42%	23%
No	38	32	62
Don't know	34	26	15
	100%	100%	100%

The Mass Media

Confidence in radio and newspaper reports is increasing

More than two thirds of the respondents stated that they felt that they could trust the reports over the radio and in newspapers, and only twelve percent felt that they could not. This indicates an increase in confidence over the findings of previous surveys.

Question: Can you trust recent reports over the radio and in the newspapers?

	1947*	1948*	1949*	1950
Yes	52%	48%	60%	68%
No	27	27	19	12
Unable to answer	21	25	21	20
	100%	100%	100%	100%

* Results are from surveys conducted by the Jiji News Agency Public Opinion Room, published in GHQ, SCAP, CIE, PO&SR Division, Survey Series, "Reactions to Postwar Changes: A Trend Survey", 16 March 1950.

In the present survey, respondents in their 20's and 30's indicated confidence more frequently than did those in their 40's and 50's. Women and respondents with only a primary school education gave fewer answers pro and con than men and middle and higher school graduates.

APPENDIX

Special Note on Bias in the Like-Dislike Question

Because of the current feeling against Communists in Japan, it is likely that pro-Communist sympathizers might tend to conceal their views to the public opinion interviewer. People who dislike the United States might be reluctant to express this view openly and might take refuge in a noncommittal response; similarly, people who like Russia best might be inclined to conceal their opinions. Therefore, there is some possibility that the survey figure for dislike of the United States and for like of Russia are too low. However, there would not seem to be any corresponding reason for an inflation of like for the United States and dislike for Russia. If people dislike the United States and do not dislike Russia, there is no reason for them to say the opposite; they can give a noncommittal answer. Therefore, it seems likely that while the survey figures for dislike-United States and like-Russia may be low, the figures for like-United States and dislike-Russia are fairly unbiased. Some evidence of concealment of the pro-Russian anti-American sentiment may be seen in a breakdown of the survey findings. It is probable that most people who like Russia best would tend to dislike the United States most; in the survey findings, however, of those people who said they like Russia best, only 43 percent said that they disliked the United States; the other 57 percent gave a noncommittal response. In the reverse case, we can see that there is no concealment of the pro-American anti-Russian feeling: of those people who said they like the United States best, (as might be expected) 88 percent also stated that they dislike Russia most.

APPENDIX

Composition of Groups Within the Sample

	Number of respondents	Percentage of total
ALL RESPONDENTS	3,586	100%
Tokyo respondents	244	7%
RURAL-URBAN:		
Rural	2,370	66%
Urban	1,216	34 / 100%
OCCUPATION:		
Industrial workers	414	12%
Manual laborers	194	5
Salaried workers	834	23
Commercial and industrial workers	646	18
Farmers	1,127	32
Professional workers	113	3
Unemployed, "not in working force" and others	258	7 / 100%
SEX:		
Males	1,688	47%
Females	1,898	53 / 100%

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"Methods of Social Welfare Administration",
An Analysis of Methods of Administration in Social
Welfare in Japan Prepared for the United Nations
Department of Social Affairs.

PUBLIC HEALTH AND WELFARE TECHNICAL BULLETIN

PHW GHQ SCAP

MAY 1951

1. The attached paper, "Methods of Social Welfare Administration", was prepared by the Public Health and Welfare Section at the request of the United Nations Department of Social Affairs. The paper will be included in a report prepared by the Department of Social Affairs, as a result of Resolution 43 (IV) of the Economic and Social Council of 29 March 1947, covering methods of social welfare administration in some thirty countries including the United States.

2. The paper follows the outline employed by the Department of Social Welfare in its analysis of social welfare administration in other countries. Brevity required that the paper touch only the most significant and important trends and accomplishments which mark the rapid growth and development of social welfare in Japan in the years following the war. Timing of the paper did not permit an analysis of the effect of the later enactment of the Social Welfare Services Law (April 1951) on the administration of both the public and private social welfare services in Japan.

3. The paper will be of interest to the Regional Welfare Officers and others who have an interest in the developing social welfare program in Japan.

METHODS OF SOCIAL WELFARE ADMINISTRATION

7 February 51

Japan

I. Field Administration

A. Governmental Administration

1. Direct National Administration

The National Government has participated in emergency relief in times of disaster for at least 1400 years. Its participation in continuing social welfare activities began in 1929 with the enactment of the Poor Relief Law - Kyugo Ho (Act No. 39 as amended by Act No. 36 of 1941): The Mother and Child Protection Law - Boshi Hogo Ho (Act No. 19 of 1937) as amended by Act No. 36 of 1941): The Medical Aid Law - Iryo Hogo Ho (Act No. 36 of 1941); the Military Relief Law - Gunji Fujyo Ho (Act No. 1 of 1917 as amended by Act No. 27 of 1931 and Act No. 20 of 1937); and the 7 of 1942). Theme laws were repealed by the Daily Life Security Law - Seikatsu Hogo Ho (Act No. 17 of 1946 as amended by Act No. 144 of 1950) which provided a completely new basis for insuring public aid to needy persons in that it authorizes the granting of aid to all needy persons rather than a few selected categories as provided in the former laws. The law stipulates that the State (Nation) will "in accordance with the principle provided in Article 25 of the Constitution of Japan, provide necessary assistance to all the citizens in need, according to the degree of need, and thus guarantee their minimum living as well as encourage them to become self-supporting." The Law places responsibility upon the cities, towns and villages for actual administration of assistance, but specifics that the Minister of Welfare and the Governors will "direct and supervise the mayor of city, town or village" in the enforcement of the Law. The principle of "local administration" of national programs is generally carried out in all the major fields of public social services, with administrative responsibility divided between the prefectures and the cities, towns and villages and with the State retaining legislative (National Diet) and fiscal controls (Ministry of Finance) as well as the suthority (Ministry of Welfare) to promulgate and enforce minimum standards and to maintain supervisory and consultative controls. Exception to this principle is found in the program for the rehabilitation of the physically handicapped in which the central government has operated a demonstration center for medical, social and vocational rehabilitation services to the physically handicapped and has promoted the development of 12 physical rehabilitation and vocational training centers, the operation of which have been entrusted to the prefectural governments. The Japanese Government many years ago adopted social insurance as a method of advancing social welfare, beginning for public employees in 1871 with a pension plan and for employees of private concerns with a health insurance law which became effective in 1927. The administration of the social insurances is divided among all levels of government, Mutual Aid Associations (public employees), Health Insurance Societies and National Health Insurance Associations.

2. Prefectures:

a. Child Welfare:

i. The Child Welfare Law - Jido Fukushi Ho (Act No. 164

of 1947 as amended by Act No. 211 of 1949) repealed the Mother's Aid Law (Act No. 19 of 1937) provides a modern system of protective services for children with the State and local public bodies sharing in responsibilities to the end that "every child shall have the equal opportunity for the security of life and loving care." The Law requires that each of the 46 prefectures shall operate at least one child welfare center and branches as necessary. Prior to the establishment of the present child welfare centers there were a few diagnostic clinics for children located principally in the major cities but not incorporated as a part of a tax supported system of child welfare services based on national law. The child welfare centers provide diagnostic services and are responsible for placement of children in custody of institutions and foster homes. The center responsibility for operation of shelters for temporary custody of homeless and vagrant children is being gradually removed and such shelters will be operated as separate prefectural institutions. Approximately one-half of the children coming to the centers are referred by police and family courts on account of delinquency, but increasing use is being made of the centers as a diagnostic service by the schools, public and private children's agencies and by families.

ii. Each prefecture has a juvenile training and education center to which commitments may be made by prefectural courts having juvenile jurisdiction.

b. Family welfare:

The Civil Code defines maintenance obligations and parental powers and places jurisdiction in the family court for the adjudication of all matters relating to the guardianship of children. The Code is specific rather than general and provides clear authority for the family court to act in behalf of the child when it is abused, neglected or does not have a parent or parents or other persons specified in the Code as having the obligation of parent. The Code does not prohibit the family court from placing guardianship with a public body or persons other than a relative. However, under the tradition of the strong family system, guardianship is usually vested in a relative. Persons standing in the stead of parents have all of the obligations of the natural parents. Where the court has placed responsibility for guardianship, the Code provides that the court may also provide for supervision of the guardian.

c. Welfare of handicapped persons:

The Law for Welfare of Disabled Persons (Act No. 283 of 1949) provides for the establishment of national and prefectural councils for welfare of disabled persons responsible, in general, for promoting the welfare of the physically handicapped. The councils are advisory in function to the Ministry of Welfare and the prefectural governors being responsible for the actual administration of the law. The law provides for the establishment of prefectural rehabilitation inquiry offices and for the employment by the governors of welfare officials for disabled persons. The law contemplates that the fullest possible use will be made of established guidance and rehabilitation centers, national hospitals and other medical

service institutions, and of vocational guidance centers and employment security offices operated under the Ministry of Labor. Rehabilitation relief facilities will be established by the Ministry of Welfare and may be established by the prefectural governors with Ministry approval for the purposes of providing training and employment for the disabled, including the blind, for whom employment is not otherwise available. Provisions are made for the issue of safety canes to the blind and for the issue and repair of prosthetic appliances and, in the case of needy persons, for money grants for the purchase or repair of prosthetics. Preference is accorded disabled persons for the establishment of vending stands in public facilities and funds are available to assist such persons in starting private business ventures. Government agencies are required to give consideration to the purchase of articles produced by relief facilities in which disabled persons are employed. Registration of the physically handicapped is facilitated by the issuance of a disabled persons handbook which entitles the recipient to services provided by law.

d. Social Insurance

On behalf of 6,000,000 wage earners in industrial and commercial firms employing five or more persons, and their 14.000,000 dependents, each prefecture assists in administering national laws that provide:

i. Old age, invalidity and survivors insurance (Welfare Pensions Insurance Law), since 1941;

ii. Sickness cash allowances and medical care costs, 100% for the wage earner and 50% for his dependents (Health Insurance Law), effective since 1927 but enacted in 1922.

iii. Unemployment insurance (Unemployment Insurance Law), since 1947.

The provisions of the Seamen's Insurance Law, enacted in 1939, encompass all the risks listed above, plus workmen's accident compensation coverage, for 120,000 seamen and their 250,000 dependents.

e. Disaster Relief

The Disaster Relief Law (Act No.118 of 1947) creates a national system of disaster preparedness and relief with the prefectural governor being responsible for providing emergency assistance in the form of shelter, food (e.g., emergency public kitchens, giving or lending clothing, bedding and other daily necessities, medical treatment including maternal aid, giving or lending funds, tools or materials necessary for calling, school articles and burial aid). The law creates national, regional and prefectural disaster relief planning boards responsible for nation-wide regional and prefectural and local disaster relief planning and for operating teams at the same levels which function at time of disaster. While the prefectures are responsible for financing the initial costs of disaster from a prefectural disaster relief fund, the national government is required to reimburse the prefectures on a fixed ration based on the financial

ability of the prefecture and the size of the disaster expenditure. The prefecture may call on the national government for immediate assistance in large scale disaster. The national government is responsible for establishing a national pool of disaster relief goods which may be made available as needed to the prefectural governments.

3. Districts

The absence in Japan of an intermediate unit of government between the prefecture and cities, towns and villages has created a problem in the administration of technical programs, since the prefecture is not always close enough to the people while the local units of government particularly the towns and villages are frequently too small to afford adequately administered programs. It should be noted that some 60% of the 12,000 local units of government in Japan have an average population of less than 5,000 persons. There is no such thing in Japan as a strictly "rural" community since the entire area of Japan is incorporated within the legal jurisdiction of the 12,000 local units of government. In "rural" areas the seat of town or village government may consist of only a few houses centrally located while the balance of the population live on scattered farms. Reversely, such "rural" communities may be annexed to an urban city. While the Local Autonomy Law (Act No. 67 of 1947 as finally amended by Act No. 210 of 1950) makes it possible for local units of government to combine voluntarily for purposes of partial or total administration, actually there has been little trend toward consolidation through 1950.

a. Health Districts

Health centers under the control of the prefecture have been gradually established until now there is one for each 100,000 population. Cities over 150,000 population operate their own health centers under the supervision of the prefecture. In each prefecture there is one model health center, for training as well as service purposes. The staff of a health center includes the public health nurses, nutritionists and sanitarians as well as medical, dental and veterinary personnel. Functions of a health center are public health nursing, maternal and child hygiene, public health statistics, public health laboratory services, dental questions, nutrition, sanitation and hygiene, health education, medical social services, communicable disease control and diagnosis and treatment of certain cases of venereal diseases and limited treatment of tuberculosis.

b. Social Welfare Districts

Legislation for establishment of welfare districts is pending consideration of the national Diet at its 10th regular session to be reconvened 25 January 1950. The proposed districts will be sub-divisions of the prefectural government (not necessarily identical with the health districts) responsible for the administration of basic welfare programs in areas outside the cities. The cities will retain administrative responsibility for the welfare programs as at present and only administration of welfare programs by the towns and villages will be affected. The districts, along with the cities will be required to

employ social welfare secretaries for the purpose of carrying out technical welfare services to persons in need, including children.

4. Local Communities

Cities, towns and villages are the governmental units in closest contact with the people. (See para IA3 above for discussion of local government organization).

a. Health

These local units had sole responsibility for health services until about 1938 and many health services are still performed by them under the supervision of the health centers, e.g., health services for pregnant women, immunization programs and sanitation.

b. Social welfare

i. Under the Daily Life Security Law (See para IA1 for origin of law and the nation's responsibility), the mayor of the city, town and village is responsible for providing necessary assistance to all needy persons according to the degree of their need (e.g., as determined in accordance with standards prescribed by the Ministry of Welfare) so as to guarantee them a subsistence minimum as well as to encourage them to be self-supporting. 80% of the cost of actual assistance rendered is reimbursed the city, town and village from national funds, while 10% is reimbursed from prefectural funds. Cities, towns and villages have assumed full costs of administration with minor exceptions.

ii. Other services to individuals delegated, in whole or in part, to the local community by national legislation include; aspects of the child welfare program, aid to wayfarers, welfare workshops, public pawnshops, public bath houses, business fund loans, consumer's cooperatives, services to disabled persons, disaster relief and welfare institutions.

5. Autonomous Insurance Funds.

a. Health Insurance Societies. Approximately one-half of the 6,000,000 wage earners who are working for firms employing five or more persons are insured through autonomous societies which are organized at each establishment employing 300 or more employees. (Cf. 2-d above)

b. National Health Insurance (since 1938). For 25,000,000 rural workers and self-employed, provisions have been made on a community option basis for the operation of local National Health Insurance programs, by municipal governments, National Health Insurance Associations or other cooperate juridical persons, to provide partial prepaid medical care and maternity and funeral benefits. The residents of a community may elect to require compulsory membership (with exemption to a worker, but not his dependents, who is covered by the industrial Health Insurance or Seamen's Insurance Laws). Each of the 5,000 local programs fix the contribution costs for the individual

households and make individual contracts on a yearly basis with doctors and medical facilities for medical services. The central government provides subsidies covering administrative and capital costs.

B. Non-Governmental Administration

1. Neighborhood Units

During the period 1603 to 1857 households were grouped in blocks for purposes of mutual aid. This system was predicated on the growth of a strong family system which had as its center the ideal of mutual aid and family responsibility. During this period the economy of Japan was chiefly agricultural with some home industry and the gulf between the poor and the rich was not pronounced. The block system began to break down with the beginning of the Meiji era (1868) when the industrialization was emphasized for the first time and rapid urbanization followed. However, the block system persisted in one way or another until it was revised and formalized in the Homen-iin system beginning in 1917 under which volunteers were commissioned to take some responsibility for the welfare of neighborhood groups (usually 200 families - see Vb below).

2. The extended family

Perhaps in no other country in the world was the family system more highly developed than in Japan until the abolishment of the feudal system at the time of the Meiji restoration. Family obligations were deeply rooted in tradition and were defined in law with the enactment of the Civil Code in 1896. Amendments to the Civil Code since 1945 have redefined family obligations and have abolished the right of primogeniture. The family system was based, in part, on ethical concepts following the Confucian doctrine in the five human relationships: (1) Subject to their Prince; (2) Children to their parents; (3) wives to their husbands; (4) younger brothers to their older brothers; and (5) neighbor to neighbor. Such relationships were reciprocal and placed persons thus related under obligation one to the other. It may be noted that no obligation was established for the stranger nor for the individual who fell outside the mutual groupings. Assumption of responsibility for the care of a stranger established a continuing obligation which could not be easily discarded. Aspects of the old family system persist to the present day and the system has had marked influence in the past on the development of Japan's social institutions.

3. Places of employment

During the war it became normal for employers in government and industry to pay allowances to wage-earners in respect to wife and children. Wages and family allowances, as well as cost of living differentials, became the subject of collective bargaining contracts. No family allowance compensation pool was established. Employers in both government and industry were strongly paternalistic and extended certain protections to their workers some of which were written into law (see also A5 above) but many of which came down in the form of

traditional obligations (see B2 above) which the employer shared with his employee.

4. Mutual-aid organizations

a. Consumer's Livelihood Cooperative Associations

Consumer's Cooperatives were first established in Japan in 1900 and eventually were organized in a nation-wide alliance called the Central Union of Cooperative Societies in Japan. The Federation, prior to the war, became a member of the International Cooperative Alliance. Membership in the International Alliance was dropped during the war. Consumer's Cooperatives now function under the Consumer's Livelihood Cooperative Association Law (Act No. 200 of 1948) and the Smaller Enterprise Cooperative Law (Act No. 181 of 1949). These consumer's cooperatives operate in nearly all fields of endeavor - merchandising, agriculture, industry, fishing, health services, labor unions, producing, disbursing, selling and in all urban and rural areas. The post-war cooperatives in Japan operate on the 9-basic principles laid down by the cooperative association in England: One member, one vote; elected directorate (not appointed); fixed rate of interest on capital; normal (current) retail prices; cash business only; patronage (dividend) distribution of proceeds; education and training as part of cost of operations; open voluntary membership; and non-political, non-religious organization. The post-war cooperatives are represented by the Cooperative League of Japan which is negotiating for re-affiliation with the International Cooperative Alliance. The livelihood cooperatives are supervised by the Ministry of Welfare, the prefecture and the special cities. The cooperatives are tax exempt and may be aided by low interest government loans.

b. National savings societies

c. Trade Unions

5. Philanthropic organizations

Incorporated vodies may receive prefectural approval for establishing social welfare institutions providing they meet minimum standards.

An attempt is being made to redefine the relationship between government and non-governmental welfare agencies Traditionally, governmental officials have been permitted to play important roles in the activities and administration of private social work agencies and tax funds were readily available for financing strictly private social welfare enterprise. With the aftermath of the war the usual private sources to which private agencies had looked for all or a substantial part of their financial support became largely non-existent and it became necessary, therefore, for government to make increasing amounts of money available - particularly for the operation of private institutions. Since introduction of federated fund raising in 1947 an effective means has been provided by which the needs of private agencies may be assessed and the private resources of the community organized for concerted fund raising activities. Provisions in the new Constitution of Japan prohibiting the subsidy of private enterprise

by government funds, except under conditions providing for governmental controls, has required the careful re-defining of conditions under which tax funds may be made available to private welfare agencies.

The needs of many special categories of the population are met to some extent by non-governmental action. This is illustrated in the distribution of protective institutions under the Daily Life Security Law (1950); Homes for Aged - 63 public, 72 private; Relief Institutions - 10 public, 9 private; Rehabilitation Institutions - 48 public, 22 private; Medical Protective Institutions - 6 public, 121 private; Workshops - 261 public, 71 private; and, Shelter Providing Institutions - 148 public and 15 private. Of 4005 institutions for children, 2874 are non-governmental.

Nation-wide voluntary agencies of particular importance include;

a. Japan Social Work Association.

The Japan Social Work Association was organized in 1908 and was known prior to 1947 as the Central Social Work Association. It has assumed an important place in social work in Japan under the provisions of the Social Work Law of 1938. The association attempts to coordinate the work of all existing welfare agencies, both national and local. Activities include research and investigation, publication of books and magazines on welfare subjects, welfare education and training programs and sponsorship of prefectural and national social work conferences. The Association has been entrusted by the Ministry of Welfare with the operation of the Japan School of Social Work since its inception in 1946. From 1938 to 1945 it distributed Ministry grants-in-aid to voluntary agencies. Among the significant publications of the Association was Basic Papers on Social Work presented at an in-service training institute for directors of in-service training in prefectural welfare departments (Oct. 1949).

b. Japanese National Red Cross Society

The Japanese Red Cross originated in a voluntary relief service, the "Society of Benevolence", organized in 1877 to provide care for the sick and wounded and assist the Army Medical Corps in the Southwest provinces uprisings of that year. In 1886 the government ratified the International Red Cross Convention and in 1887 the Society of Benevolence took the name of the Japanese Red Cross and was recognized by the International Red Cross in Geneva. In 1901 the Japanese Red Cross was incorporated under the Civil Code and implemented as to function and organization by Imperial Ordinance. In 1919 the Japanese Red Cross was one of five national Red Cross Societies sponsoring the founding of the International League of Red Cross Societies. By Imperial Ordinance of 1933 the Japanese Red Cross was placed under the direct influence of the Japanese Army and Navy and during the war was a virtual part of the Army's Sanitary Corps. A revised constitution adopted December 1946 divorces the Society from government control and provides a democratic basis on which the Society has reorganized its services in accordance with recognized International Red Cross principles.

The Society carries out a National and International program of health and welfare services characteristic of Red Cross Societies adhering to International Red Cross principles. The Society operates 41 general hospitals, 4 maternal hospitals, 11 tuberculosis hospitals and 34 clinics and dispensaries providing both in and out-patient care. Medical and hospital services are on a reduced fee basis with some fee service being given. The Society operates 32 schools of nursing. Programs on public health and schools nursing, health education and special health programs are developed in cooperation with responsible prefectural and health center public health authorities. An expanded program of Red Cross disaster services has been developed, including the coordination of all voluntary private welfare and relief agencies participating in disaster relief operations as set forth in the National Disaster Relief Law. Other Red Cross programs being developed or expanded include Home Nursing, First Aid, Accident Prevention, Water Safety and Volunteer Services. Great importance has been placed on the reorganization of the Junior Red Cross, an in-school program geared into the new school curricula. The Society maintains in Tokyo the largest and most complete Public Health Museum in Japan.

c. National Relief Association

The National Relief Association (Doho Engo Kai) was established in March 1946 as a result of the reorganization and expansion of the former War Sufferers Relief Association (Sensai Engo Kai). The War Sufferers Association had been created during the war to assist persons in need as a result of war bombings. There was previously in existence a Veteran's Relief Association (Gunjin Engo Kai) which was dissolved in January 1946. When the National Relief Association was founded, the assets of the Veteran's Relief Association were transferred to the new association. Although the facilities of the Veteran's Association were taken over, the special programs for Veterans and the families of deceased soldiers had been discontinued. Following the war the National Relief Association activities were devoted primarily to aid repatriated and other persons who were in need as a result of the war. Some 300 lodging facilities were maintained, housing some 66,000 persons. Frequently former Japanese army barracks were utilized for these repatriate and war sufferers housing projects. At the height of its post war activities the Association was estimated to be responsible for the operation or the managemeht for 1,600 facilities, including in addition to housing centers, day nurseries, baby homes, consultation offices, information bureaue, homes for mothers and children, clinics, homes for the aged and vocational guidance institutions. Many of these facilities were owned by the national or the prefectural governments and were entrusted to the Association for managements, and have since been returned to the public welfare authorities for operation. Former properties of the Veteran's Association, operated temporarily by the Association have been dissolved further reducing the scope of the Association's activities. It is estimated at present that the Association, through its prefectural branches, is responsible for the operation of some 400 welfare and relief facilities.

d. All Japan Minsei-iin Federation

The Minsei-iin Federation is a national membership organization of all Minsei-iin in Japan, coordinating the work of individual members, exchanging of information and stimulating interest in social welfare work. The national Federation is organized into prefectural federations and the prefectural federations are organized into district and city federations. The national federation publishes the Welfare Times Report which is sent to each Minsei-iin. Some of the prefectural federations also issue a local magazine or newspaper for the Minsei-iin within the prefecture (See Vb below).

e. Saiseikai, and Imperial Gift Foundation

The Saiseikai was founded on 30 May 1911 with an Imperial grant from the Emperor Meiji and contributions from the general public for the purpose of providing free medical care to the needy. It is the largest national medical relief organization in Japan. In 1924 the program of the foundation was expanded somewhat to provide low-cost medical care to persons of limited income. At the present time free medical care is provided for the indigent and for a nominal fee to persons with small income. The foundation operates a general hospital, a maternal hospital and a nursery in Tokyo under the direct management of the National headquarters. This hospital has a staff of visiting nurses, visiting doctors and a social service department. Throughout Japan the foundation maintains 34 general hospitals, two maternity hospitals and 59 clinics which are under the control of its prefectural associations.

f. Mothers and Children Welfare Society.

The Mothers and Children Welfare Society (Aiiku Kai), an Imperial Gift Foundation, was founded in March 1934 when the present Emperor made a grant of funds to commemorate the birth of the Crown Prince. The purpose of the foundation is to promoto the welfare of children and mothers in Japan. The main functions of the foundation are research providing information to the public concerning the welfare of mothers and children and coordination of prefectural societies. In order to carry out necessary research, the national headquarters maintains a national institute equipped with a pediatric hospital, a pediatric out-patient department a nursery and kindergarten and a health consultation clinic. The national headquarters is responsible for a national information program, coordination of the activities of prefectural associations and the organization of a group of pediatricians and obstetricians to make special studies concerning maternal and child health programs. There is a local society in each prefecture which is usually affiliated with the public health section of the prefectural government. Each prefecture association selects two villages to conduct specific studies about the problems of mothers and children. The villages with poor medical facilities, or

with no faciilities or with high infant mortality rates, are given special attention by the local societies. In these villages the society accepts responsibility for educating women concerning maternity hygiene and child care. These are called Ai-iku village.

g. Salvation Army

The Salvation Army (Kyusei Gun) was introduced in Japan and commenced evangelical and welfare work in 1895. The main activity in the field of welfare work has been programs to rehabilitate prostitutes and to eliminate licensed prostitution. The first "rescue home" in Japan for prostitutes was established by the Salvation Army. It has exerted considerable influence in bringing about the abolition of prostitution.

II. Relations between Center and Field

A. Standard Setting

Japan is a unitary state in which the national government has assumed responsibility for setting nation-wide standards for social welfare activities, especially since 1945. In the concerted effort to de-centralize governmental administration as provided for in the new Constitution of Japan a considerable degree of local autonomy has been developed (Local Autonomy Law of 1947 as amened) placing the prefectures in an autonomous relationship to the national government and the cities, towns and villages in an autonomous relationship both to the prefectures and to the national government. The Local Autonomy Law does not place the prefecture as a unit of government in superior relationship to the cities, towns and villages. Such powers as the national and prefectural governments retain over lower units of government are carefully defined in law. In practice the responsibility placed by law in the national Ministry of Welfare for supervision of national locally administered welfare programs has been delegated in part to the prefectures. In such cases the prefectural government acts as an agent of the national government. The Ministry of Welfare also carries on direct supervision of prefectures and local units of government through field visits conducted by members of the Ministry staff, usually considered as a part of their assigned functions. Until this time the Ministry has not developed a separate field organization in the generally accepted sense for the purpose of carrying on a continuing function of field supervision over the welfare activities of local units of government.

B. Duplication of Machinery at all Levels

At each level of government - national, prefectural, city, town and village - separate administrative units exist for the purpose of carrying out the administration of social welfare activities established by law. Each prefecture is required to have a separate health department and a separate Welfare Department. Welfare is usually administered by separate departments by city governments, although there are instances in which welfare has been combined with health, education or labor. Towns and villages usually assign their welfare functions to certain selected personnel who may be employed on a full or a part time basis on welfare depending upon the extent of the local welfare program. Usually prefectural welfare departments are organized in the following sections: Social insurance; demobilization; child welfare; welfare and social affairs (daily life security, institutions, volunteer workers, in-service training, etc.); and, general affairs (administration, statistics, finances, office management, etc.). The cities vary in degree of organization for welfare purposes. Usually city departments are organized into sections having responsibility for assistance to individuals, social welfare establishments, and general affairs including record keeping, accounting and statistics.

At each level the welfare officials are responsible to elect head of government, the governor in the instance of the prefecture and the mayor in the instance of the city, town and village. Welfare officials at one level are not responsible to welfare officials at a higher level.

C. Appeals

The right to assistance has been recognized in the revised Daily Life Security Law (1950) and legal provisions are made for appeals from lower to higher levels of government. Persons dissatisfied with the disposition of their cases may appeal through the mayor to the prefecture and from the prefecture to the Ministry of Welfare. A legal basis, administrative organization and procedures have been established to provide for appeals and fair hearings for claimants to benefit determinations under the various social insurance laws. Independent prefectural referees and national appeals councils have been provided. Claims documents and other informational media inform the claimants of their right to appeal and how it may be excercised. A final recourse to courts is authorized. At this developments were first made effective in 1947 and are rather drastic changes from old concepts, the utilization has not been great but is following an upward trend.

D. Approval

Previous approval by higher levels is needed for the development of certain services by lower levels of government although, as indicated in IIA above, the right of local determination is carefully respected. Matters requiring approval by higher levels usually relate to activities or programs which obligate national and/or prefectural funds.

E. Technical Supervision

There is no term in the Japanese language which translates into "Technical supervision" as the term is commonly defined in western countries. Supervision as such has been traditionally carried out through definitive laws, ordinances and directives. Responsible officials have been expected to carry out such directives to-the-letter and the assumption has been that every official has competence to carry on the responsibilities assigned him. Inspections carried on by officials of higher level have usually been concerned with formalities of compliance rather than with content and evaluations. However, as the Ministry of Welfare and the prefectures have become more and more concerned with the development of services under the Daily Life Security Law and the Child Welfare Law, recognition is being given to the need for technical supervision. In the absence of field staff, increasing amounts of time of Ministry officials is being spent in the field on inspection visits and on group conferences devoted to technical discussions. Written materials released by the Ministry reflects growing awareness of the needs for technical and content materials. Most of the prefectures have assinged field supervisory duties to separate staff members augmented by additional personnel

assigned to welfare at the district level. The position of supervisor is recognized in the city welfare department where they are now using full time social welfare secretaries with job descriptions calling for supervision of the case work content of the social welfare secretary's activities.

III. Administrative Specialization at the National Level

A. Ministry of Welfare

(Created 1938 and reorganized 1946, 1948 and 1949 - Act 151 of May 1949).

In addition to the Minister's Secretariate, which includes a Division of Health and Welfare Statistics, the Ministry is divided into the following Bureaus and Sections:

1. Social Affairs Bureau

a. General Affairs (Planning, Personnel, In-Service Training, Research and Statistics, Budgets, General Administration).

b. Protection (Daily Life Security Law, Minsei-iin).

c. Rehabilitation (Law for Welfare of Disabled Persons, Law for Establishment of Rehabilitation Centers).

d. Life Improvement (Consumer's Cooperatives, Public Pawnshops).

e. Institutions (Institutions, Workshops, Supply, Disaster).

2. Children's Bureau

a. Planning (Standard - setting and statistics)

b. Child Care (Nurseries)

c. Child Protection (Foster Care)

d. Maternal and Child Hygiene (Including supplementary food).

3. Other Bureau

a. Insurance (General Affairs, Health Insurance, National Health Insurance, Welfare Pension, Seaman's Insurance, Medical and Acturial and Statistics).

b. Public Sanitation (General Affairs, Nutrition, Health Centers, Prevention, Acute Infectious Diseases, Laboratory, Quarantine, Environmental Sanitation).

c. Pharmaceutical and Supply (Pharmaceutical Affairs, Drug Manufacturing, Medical Materials, Narcotic, Inspection, Biological).

d. Medical Affairs (Medical Affairs, Nursing, Dental Hygiene, Liquidation (of dissolved organizations), National Hospitals, National Sanatoria, Supply, Administrative.

4. Additional Agencies of the Ministry of Welfare

a. Repatriation Relief Agency

b. National Park Division

c. Institute of Public Health

d. National Institute of Health

e. National Institute of Nutrition

f. Population Problem Research Institute

g. Hygienic Laboratory

h. Quarantine Stations

i. National Hospitals

j. National Sanatoria

k. Hospital Administration Institute

l. National Institute for the Blind

m. National Juvenile Correction Institute

n. National Health Insurance Sanatorium

B. Other Ministries Concerned with Social Activities

1. Ministry of Labor

This Ministry was separated from the Ministry of Welfare in 1945 and is responsible for the employment service, vocational training, workmen's compensation, unemployment insurance, labor standards, etc.

2. Ministry of Education

3. Construction Ministry (Housing construction)

C. Coordination

A number of advisory and planning boards have been established at national and prefectural levels of government, e.g., for disaster preparedness and relief (including the Prime Minister, Ministry of Welfare, Japanese Red Cross, and other concerned Ministries of the National government), youth problems, child welfare, rehabilitation of the physically handicapped, social welfare, social insurance etc.

IV. Finance

A. Sources

Most social welfare activities are financed out of general funds. Social insurances, however, are chiefly

financed by the employer and the insured; but the central government generally meets the cost of administration but no part of the cost of benefits except in the unemployment insurance program or when the government is the employer. Japan is attempting to move away from direct subsidies and grants-in-aid as the principal means of national participation in local government financing and to utilize insofar as possible an equalization block-grant system of subsidies. (As recommended by the Shoup Tax Mission, 1949 and adopted fiscal year 1950 - 51). While the national funds obligated under the Daily Life Security Law continue as direct subsidies, national funding for the child welfare program has been placed under the equalization block-grant system.

B. Cost Sharing

1. Conditional grants-in-aid

These were practised before the war, especially in connection with the nationally-aided public works, which constituted the principal means of relieving unemployment. However, grants-in-aid have been used since the war as a means of stimulating local governmental activities. In general grants-in-aid have either been out-right grants or have been conditioned upon local government compliance with provisions of national law. Funding of the public assistance programs has been on a reimbursement basis in accordance with the provisions of the Daily Life Security Law, e.g., national government 80%, prefectures 10%, cities, towns and villages 10% with municipal governments meeting 100% of initial costs. A similar system existed for child welfare with some activities being reimbursed up to 33% of the local expenditure.

International Aid

1. By the United States at the request of the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers

a. Governmental

i. Personnel

Continuing advice and guidance to the Ministry of Welfare, prefectures and local units of government in the development of basic welfare programs; also report of a Social Security Mission 1947 and the services of other technical experts as requested from time to time by the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers for advice and guidance to the Ministry of Welfare in the development of technical health and welfare programs.

ii. Supplies

iii. Finances

iiii. National Leaders exchange Program (90 day observation program in the United States for selected leaders in health and welfare).

b. Non-governmental

i. Licensed Agencies for Relief in Asia (LARA)

have shipped donated relief supplies to Japanese ports (approximately 13,000 tons 1946-50), including food, clothing and other relief supplies, for distribution through health and welfare institutions; costs of distribution have been borne by the Japanese government.

ii. CARE began operations in Japan in 1948. On 20 November 1950 the 100,000th CARE package was distributed.

iii. American Red Cross has made technical staff available for the purpose of assisting in the reorganization of the Japanese Red Cross Society. In addition, the American Red Cross have contributed materials and supplies to the Japanese Society (1945-50) having a total value of $ 663,997.33.

2. United Nations at the request of Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers.

a. UNICEF beginning late 1949 has undertaken a $500,000 operation divided almost equally between:

i. Raw cotten for making clothes for 250,000 children in needy families receiving public assistance; manufacturing has been financed by local authorities.

ii. demonstration milk program

(a) For 55,000 children in 54 model schools designated by the Ministry of Education as having successful school lunch programs, trained staffs, active school care committees and proved ability to report regularly.

(b) Dry skimmed milk for 3,000 children in 38 nurseries and dry whole milk for 2,300 infants in 18 centers, started in November 1949, was extended in 1950 to include 44,678 children in 1,076 institutions (50 grams per child per day).

b. United Nations Advisory Social Welfare Service have been provided in 1950:

i. An expert in child welfare

ii. Fellowships in various branches of social welfare (7 in 1950 and 4 in 1951)

C. Non-Governmental Financing

1. Approved Social Agencies

Social agencies approved by the prefecture under the Social Work Law of 1938 as well as social agencies incorporated as juridical persons under the Civil Code are entitled to certain tax exemptions and are permitted to collect contributions. They are required to submit financial report to the prefecture. The Law for Welfare of Disabled Persons specifically exempts rehabilitation relief facilities for disabled persons from prefecture, city, town and village property taxes and provides other exemptions from tax and public impost on income and sale of articles. Government agencies are obliged to purchase certain classes of articles manufactured by designated agencies employing disabled persons.

2. National Community Chest

A Community Chest was organized in 1947 and from 1947 through 1949 functioned jointly with the Japanese Red Cross as a federated fund raising organization in Japan. During these years the joint efforts of the national organizations, implemented through their respective prefectural and local branches, produced approximately 300,000,000 yen per annum for the Red Cross and 600,000,000 yen for other social and related private agencies. Beginning in 1950 the two organizations conducted separate campaigns, the Red Cross campaign being held in April and the Community Chest campaign in October. The Post Office has assisted in the joint-campaigns by selling special stamps, greeting cards and raffle tickets the proceeds of which have been proportionately distributed between the Community Chest and Red Cross.

V. Personnel

A. Extent of Use of Professional Social Welfare Personnel

1. Administrative officials

Most officials administering social welfare activities at all levels of government have not had special social welfare training. However, at the national level many key positions are filled with persons who have been career employees of the Ministry of Welfare. Japan has emphasized legal training as qualifying training for entrance in career government service and many of the higher officials are graduates of the Tokyo University School of Law (Formerly Tokyo Imperial University). The need for specialization in the several fields of public service as in public welfare has not been generally recognized. In consequence, there has been no demand for training in social work and it was not until 1945 when the Japan School of Social Work was established that a training school existed exclusively concerned with social work education. At prefectural and local levels of government personnel has been shifted frequently from one field of activity to another thereby limiting opportunities for the development of specialization in any single field, the emphasis having been placed on broad administrative experience. An exception to this is found in some of the principal cities, particularly in Osaka, where recognition has been given to the need of specialization and welfare personnel has been fairly stable over a period of years. The National Public Service Law of 1947 and the Local Public Service Law of 1950 revises the old national and local civil service system and provides for the classification of positions in accordance with specialized functions at national, prefectural and municipal levels of government.

2. Social Welfare specialists.

a. An attempt has been made since 1945 to develop personnel specializing in social welfare activities. With the passage of the Law for the Establishment of Social Welfare Secretaries in 1950, cities, towns and villages have been obliged to appoint one or more persons with basic qualifications (Social Welfare Secretaries) to carry out

the necessary services for which the local governments are responsible under the Daily Life Security Law, the Child Welfare Law and the Law for Welfare of Disabled Persons. If, as expected, towns and villages transfer their responsibilities for administration of the basic welfare programs to prefecturally administered welfare districts, it is estimated that the prefectural district offices will eventually employ some 1,500 supervisory personnel and some 6,000 home visitors who must qualify as social welfare secretaries. In addition, it is expected that the cities will employ some 700 supervisors and approximately 2,700 home visitors. In addition, prefectures are required under the Child Welfare Law to appoint full-time Child Welfare Officials (of whom there were approximately 450 in December 1950) to work at the Child Welfare Centers and at the local levels on referral from the local mayor or the Child Welfare Centers, and under the Law for welfare of Disabled Persons to employ welfare officials for disabled persons.

b. In-service training.

Each prefectural welfare department has been expected since 1949 to make one or more of its staff members responsible for in-service training. The prefectural in-service training person has had responsibility for the development of in-service training programs at prefectural and local levels of government. In addition, the Ministry of Welfare has given increasing recognition to the importance of in-service training and staff development and its personnel have been actively participating in local and national in-service training programs. The fifth national institute for prefectural in-service training persons is scheduled for early 1951.

3. Other paid social welfare workers:

a. Psychiatrists employed in the child welfare centers are thought to be well qualified. However, the psychologists in the centers are for the most part trained in experimental psychology and intelligence testing rather than in clinical psychology.

b. Personnel employed in public children's institutions have, in general, had little qualifying experience for their work. In private children's institutions, on the other hand, particularly in those of long standing, personnel is generally experienced and often quite well qualified.

B. Volunteer Social Workers

1. Before the surrender (1917 - 1945)

The Block Committeeman (Homen-iin) came into existence shortly following the first world war, a period of industrial expansion in Japan, and was probably hastened by the rice riots which took place in 1918 and 1919 as a result of poor crops. The Homen-iin were appointed by the government and commissioned to act as agents of public authority to carry out such relief laws as were then in effect as well as to put needy families in touch with other sources of aid. They were not paid for their services,

although they were reimbursed for their expenses. The basic idea in the Homen-iin plan was that in each community an outstanding citizen would be selected who because of his standing in the community and philanthropic nature, would assume responsibility for being certain that any needy person in his district would be provided for. During the war years the Homen-iin were influenced by the Tonari-gumi (Neighborhood Association - Concerned with compulsory wartime service and thought control - which was dissolved as a nationalistic organization in 1945) but were not officially under the control of that organization. Both were organized on the block system and there was at least one Homen-iin for each block. Persons who were in need of assistance were often referred by the Tonari-gumi to the Homen-iin for official action. It was estimated after 1945 that the average case load of a volunteer workers was four where as the average case-load that a paid public assistance worker could carry was 50-75, so that the substitution of paid for voluntary workers might mean a reduction in expense as well as increasing the livelihood of impartial administration of the newly established Daily Life Security Law.

2. Since the surrender

The absence of qualified welfare personnel made it necessary to continue to depend on the volunteer worker for ascertaining that aid provided under the Daily Life Security Law was made available to persons in need. With the adoption of the Daily Life Security Law in September 1945 many changes were made in the former Homen-iin system. The name was changed to Minsei-iin (welfare commissioners) and new duties were prescribed by Imperial Ordinance including responsibilities for assisting in the administration of the Daily Life Security Law. In 1948 a Welfare Commissioner's Law was passed and the Minsei-iin were given additional duties under the Child Welfare Law as child welfare workers (Jido-iin). The Welfare Commissioner's Law introduced welfare committees and group action on the part of the Minsei-iin and encouraged their study of the cause of dependency. The Minsei-iin committees became advisory to the responsible public welfare officials. There are now more than 125,000 Minsei-iin in Japan.

3. Present status

The decision has been made that the Minsei-iin will be replaced as rapidly as possible by qualified full-time welfare workers and that they will have no official responsibilities for the administration of the public welfare programs. That a place will be found in Japan for the continued participation of the volunteer is assured, and that he will continue to have important responsibilities until full-time personnel can be secured and trained is evident. Japan is not likely to dissipate the great strength and value that 125,000 interested citizens can be in the promotion and development of effective public welfare services. At the same time, it has accepted the challenge that its public welfare service must be administered by qualified full time officials and that public welfare must be recognized as a field of specialization in the public services.

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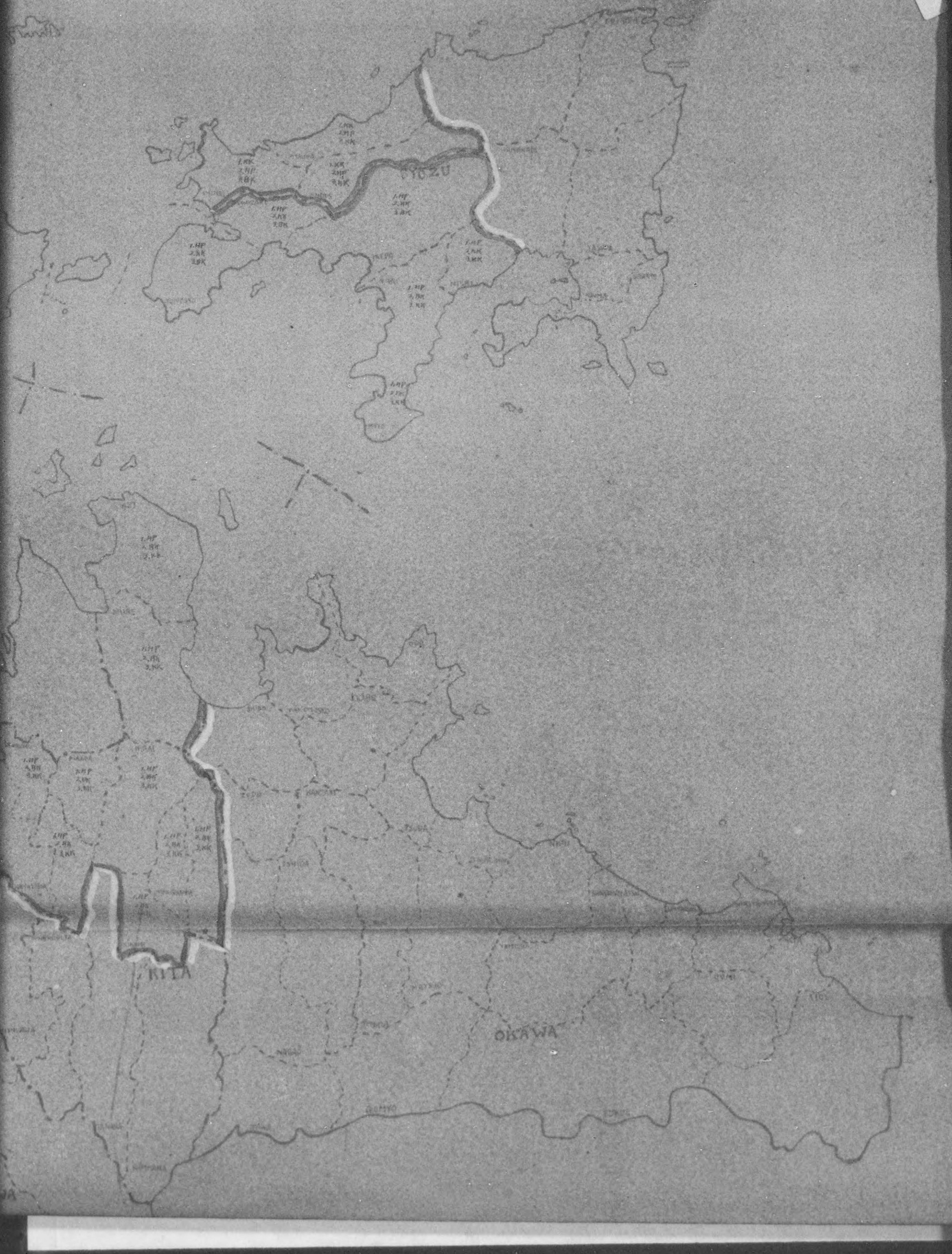
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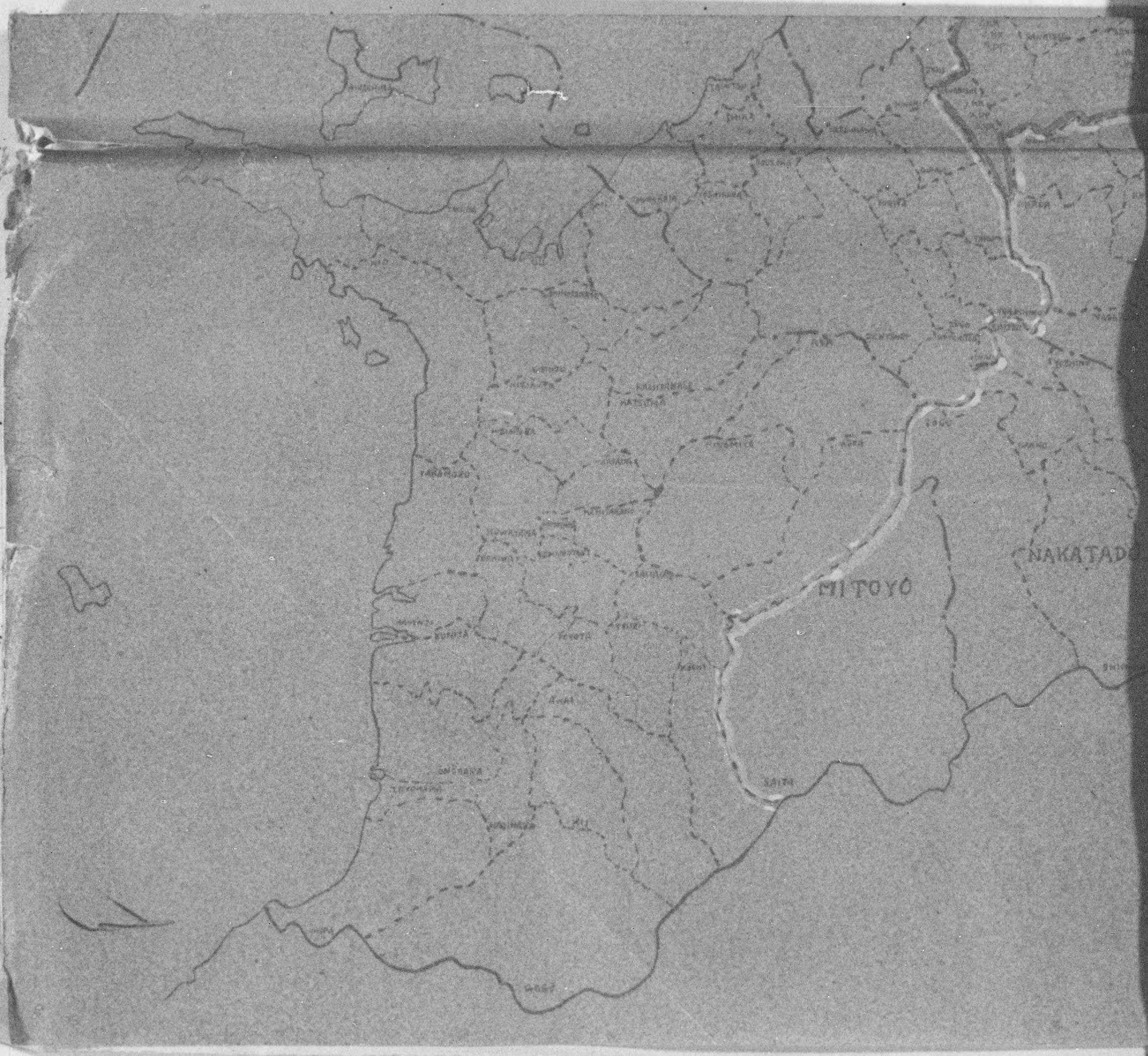
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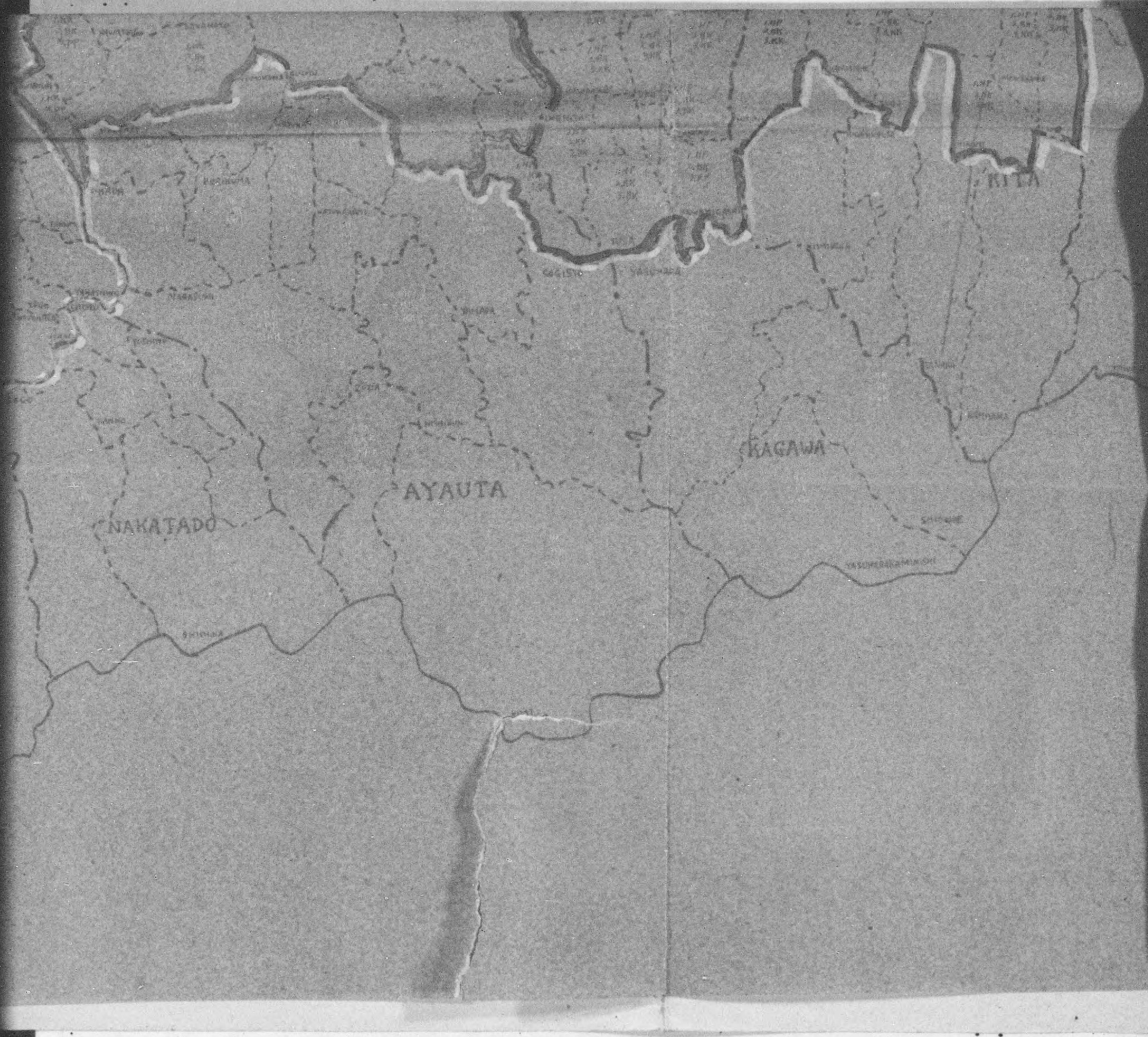
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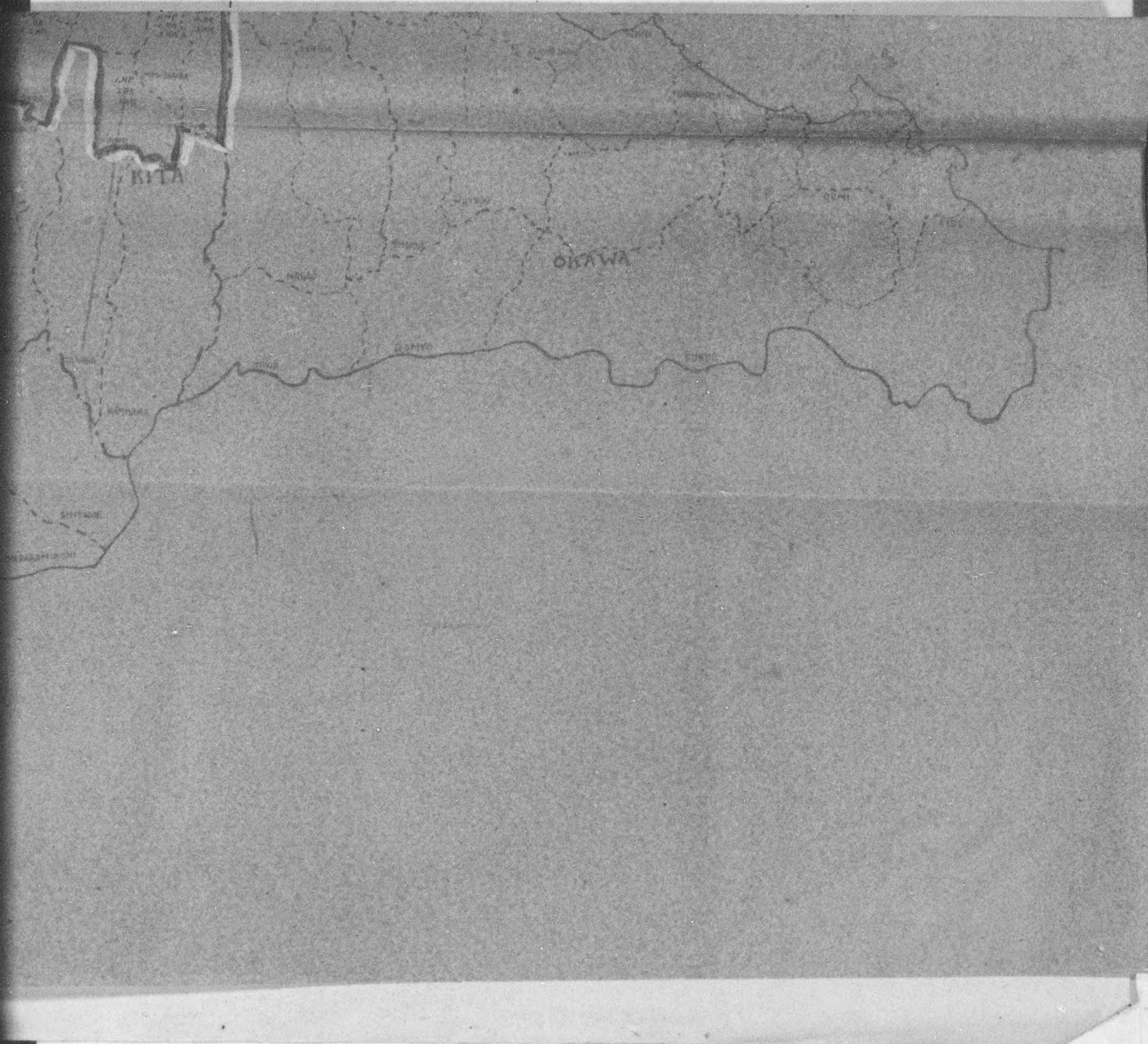
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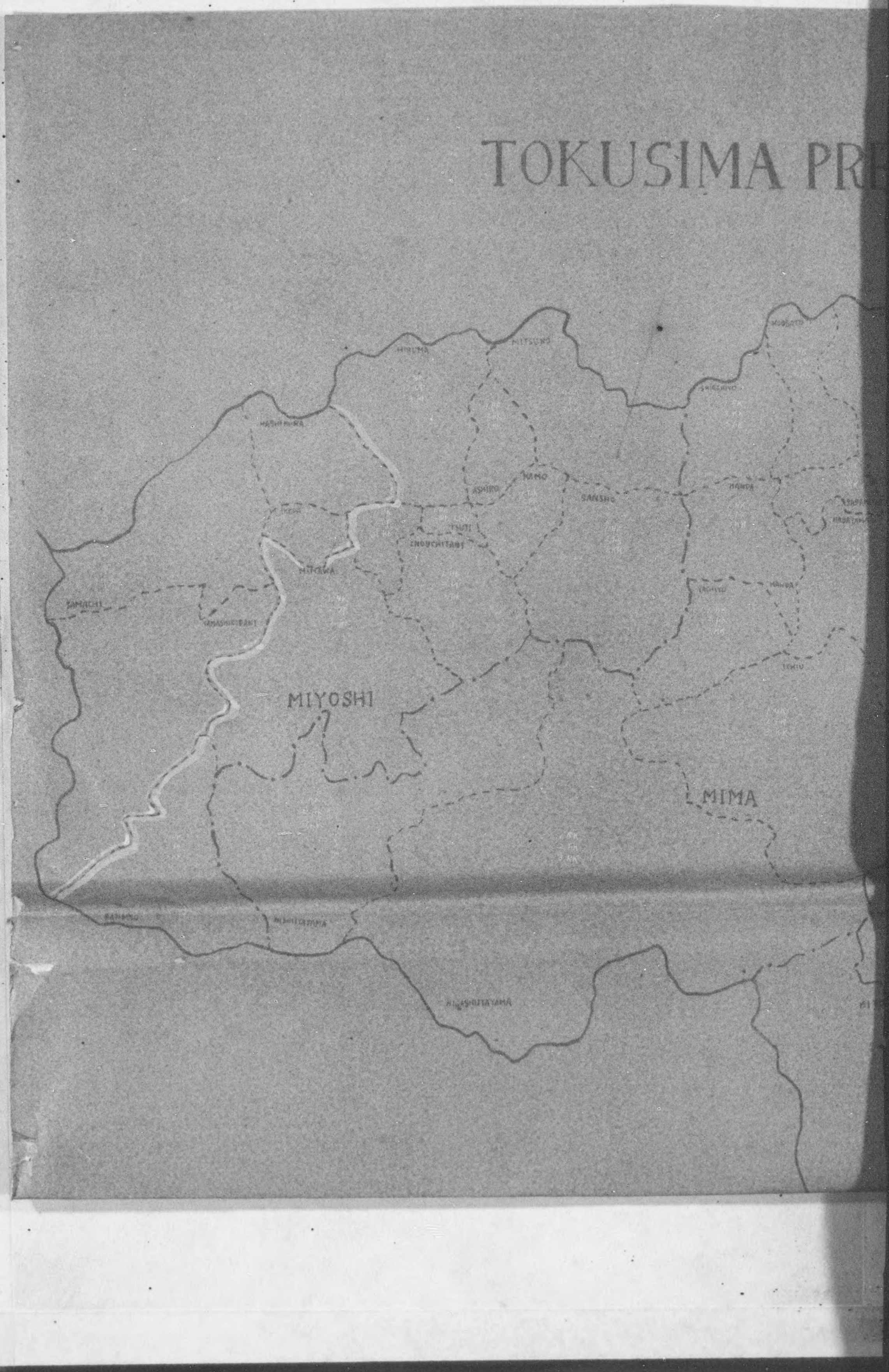
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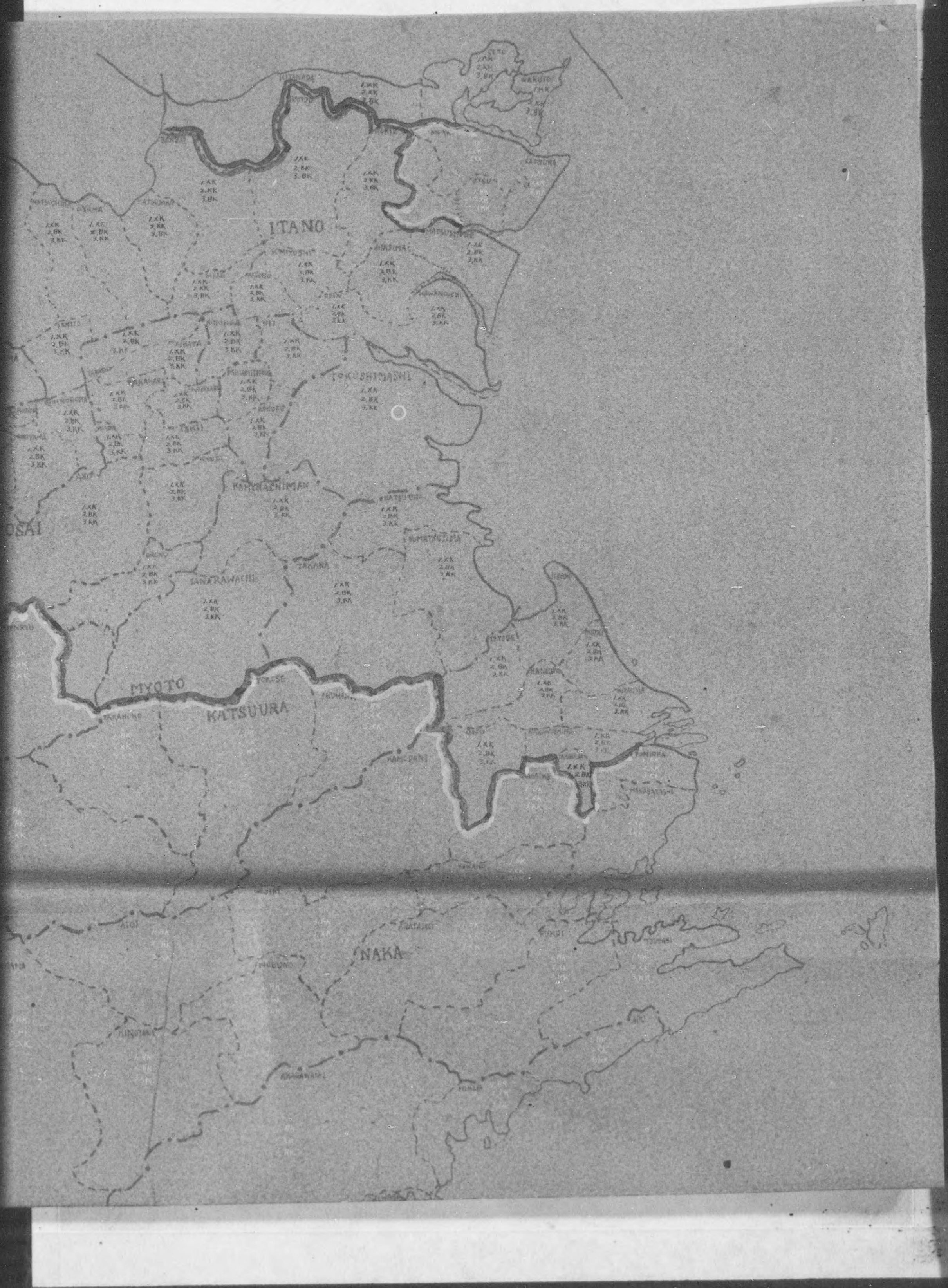
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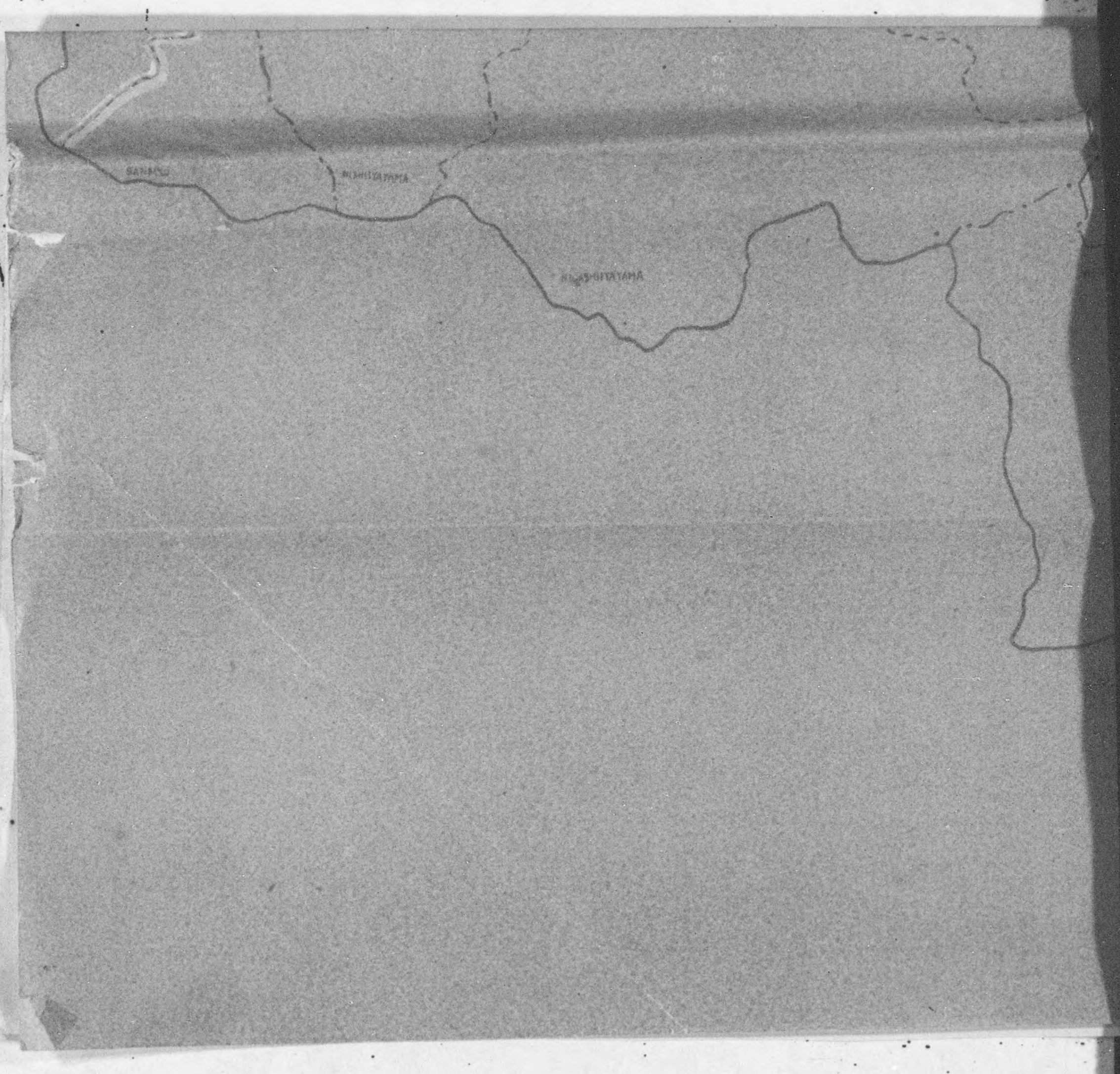

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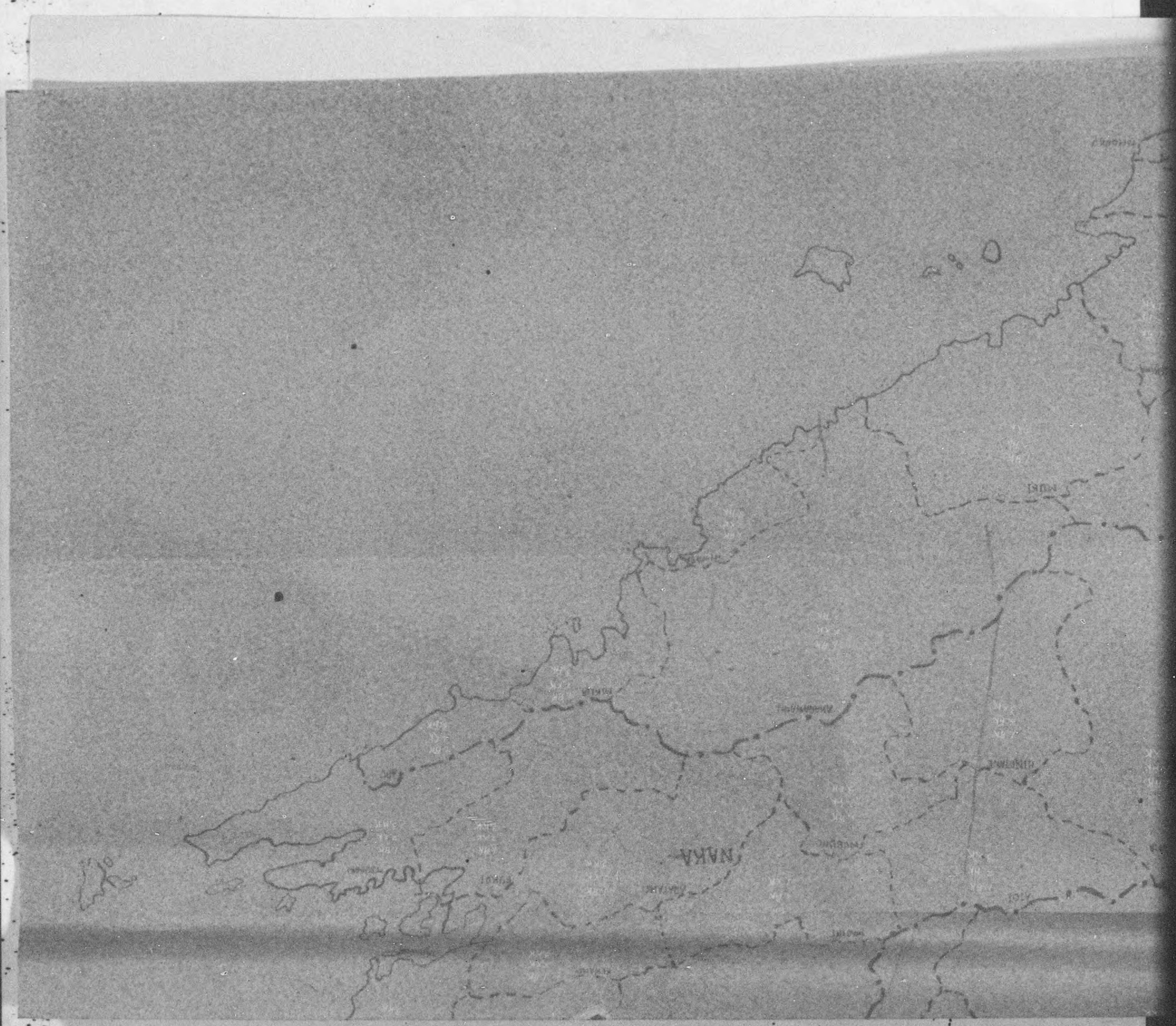
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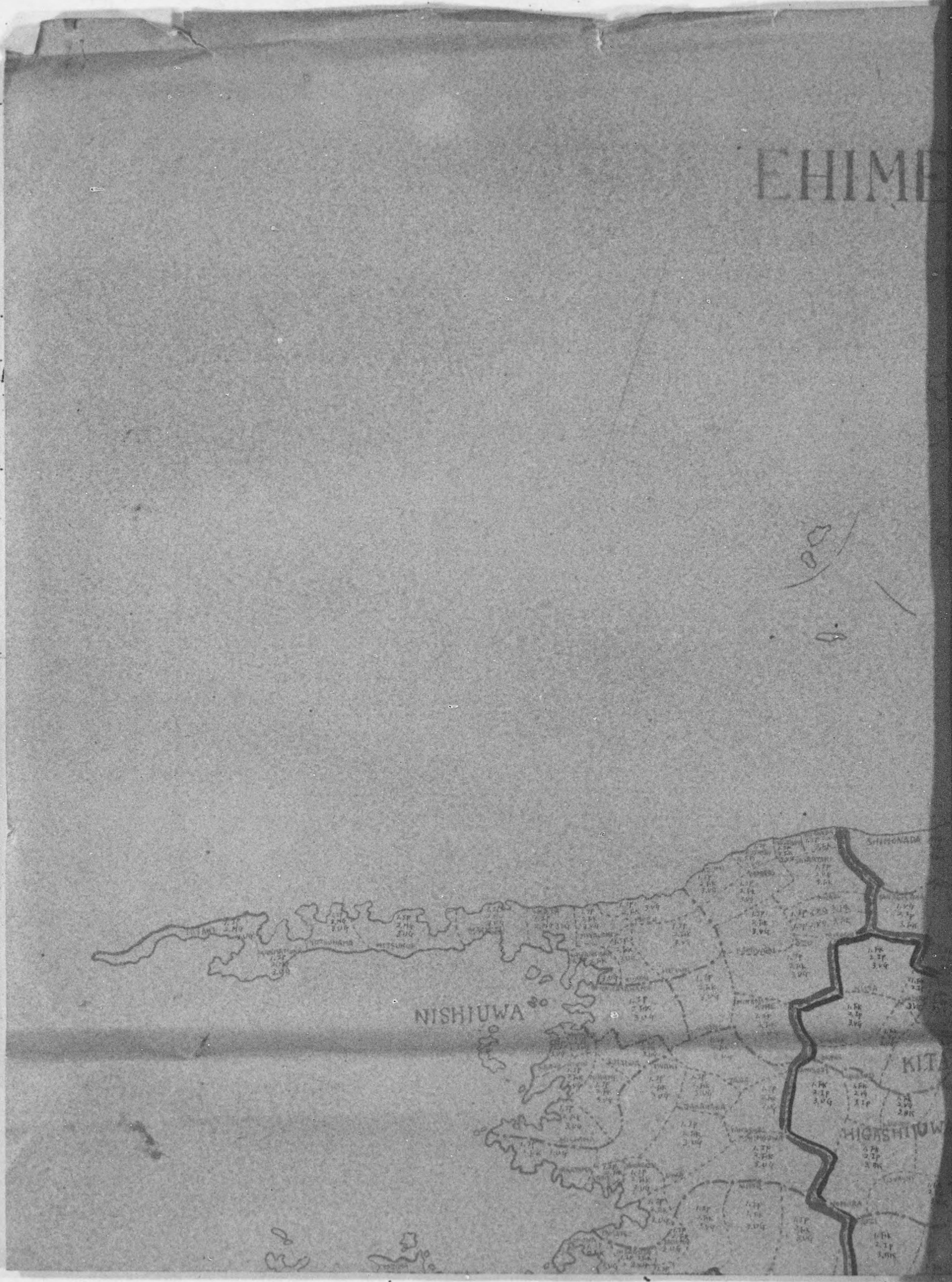
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TO ASSURE LEGIBILITY

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KUME
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SHIMONADA
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KUME
SHIMAI
YOSHIOKA
TANO
IWAKI
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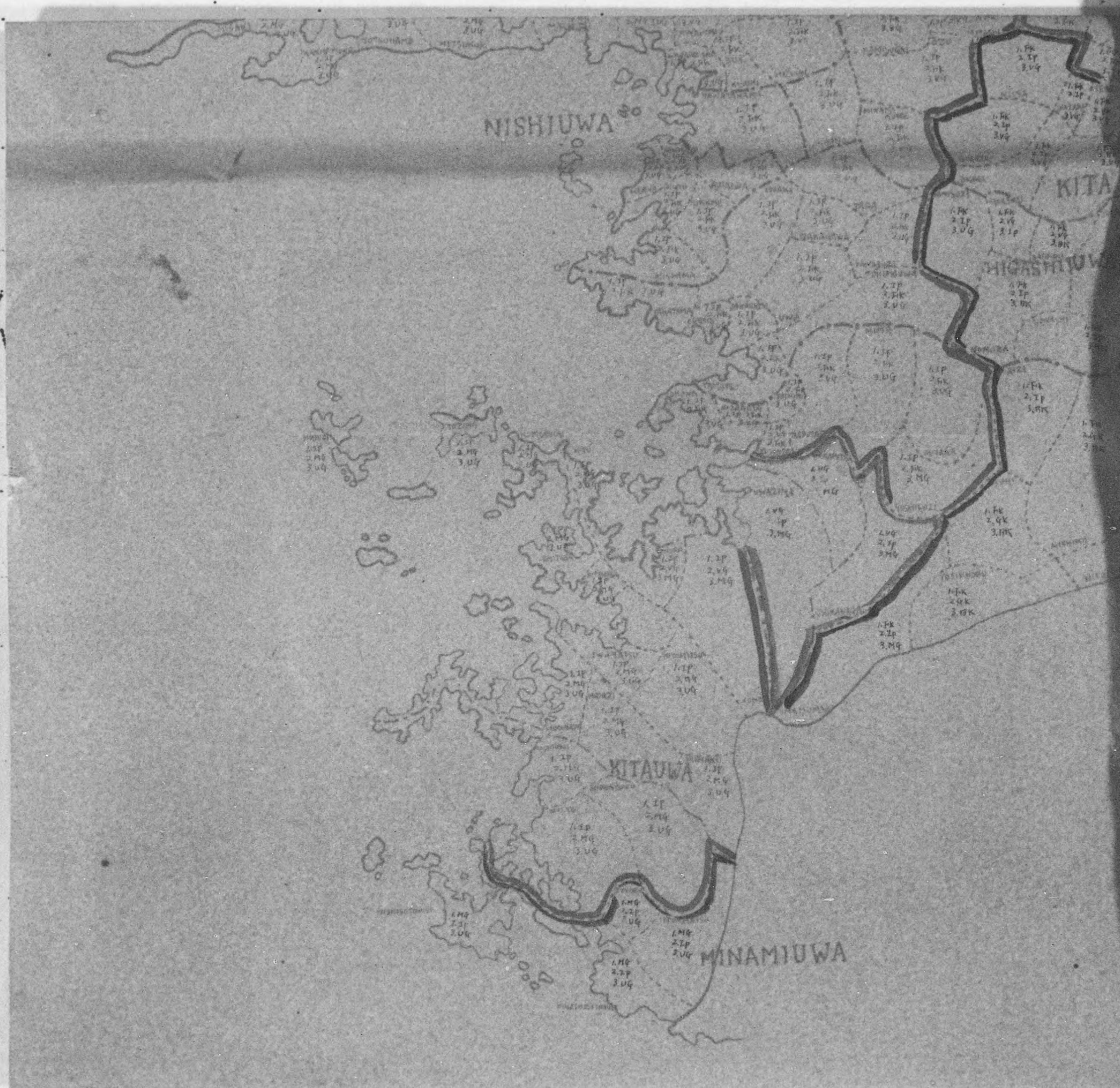
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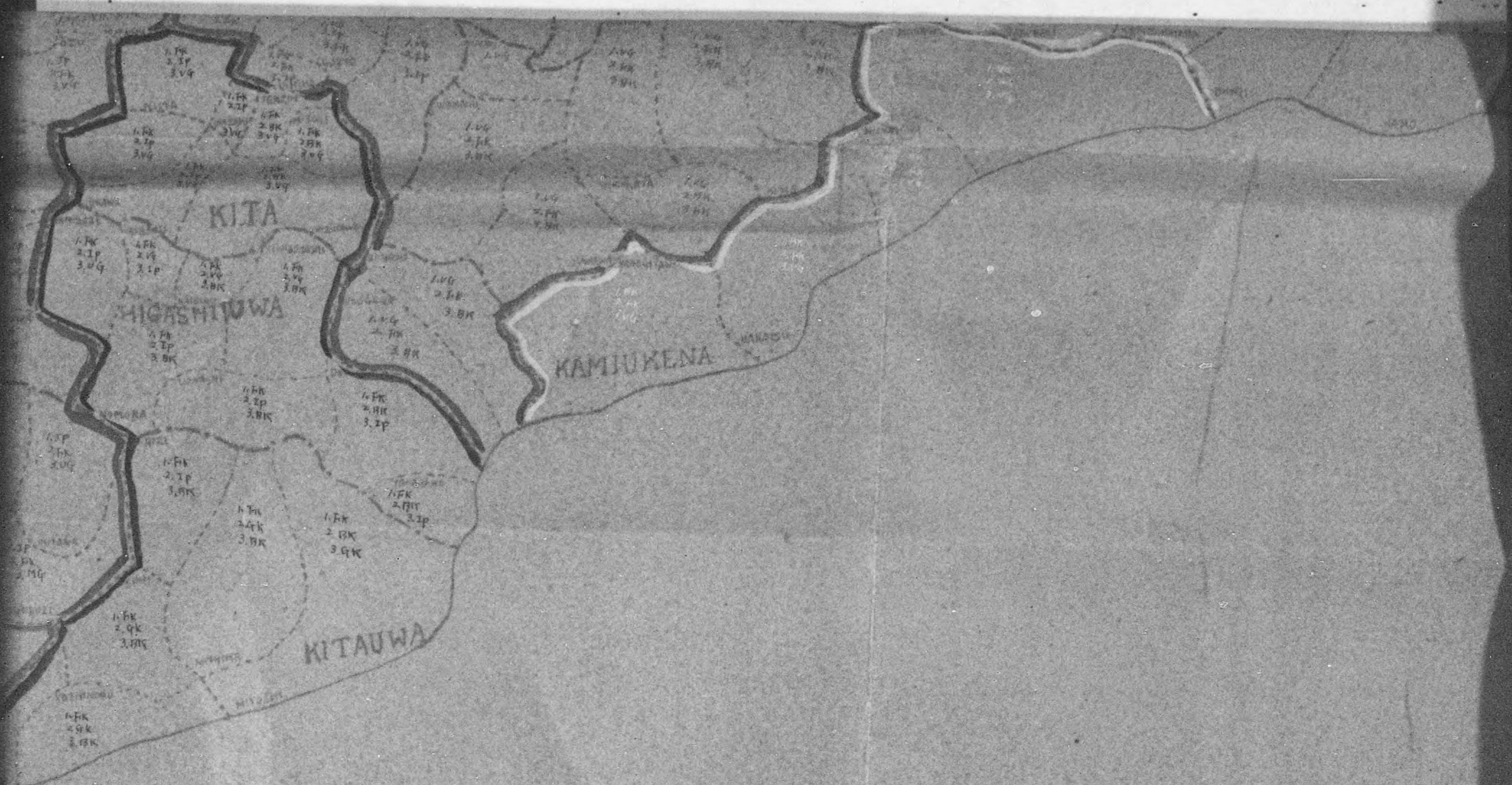
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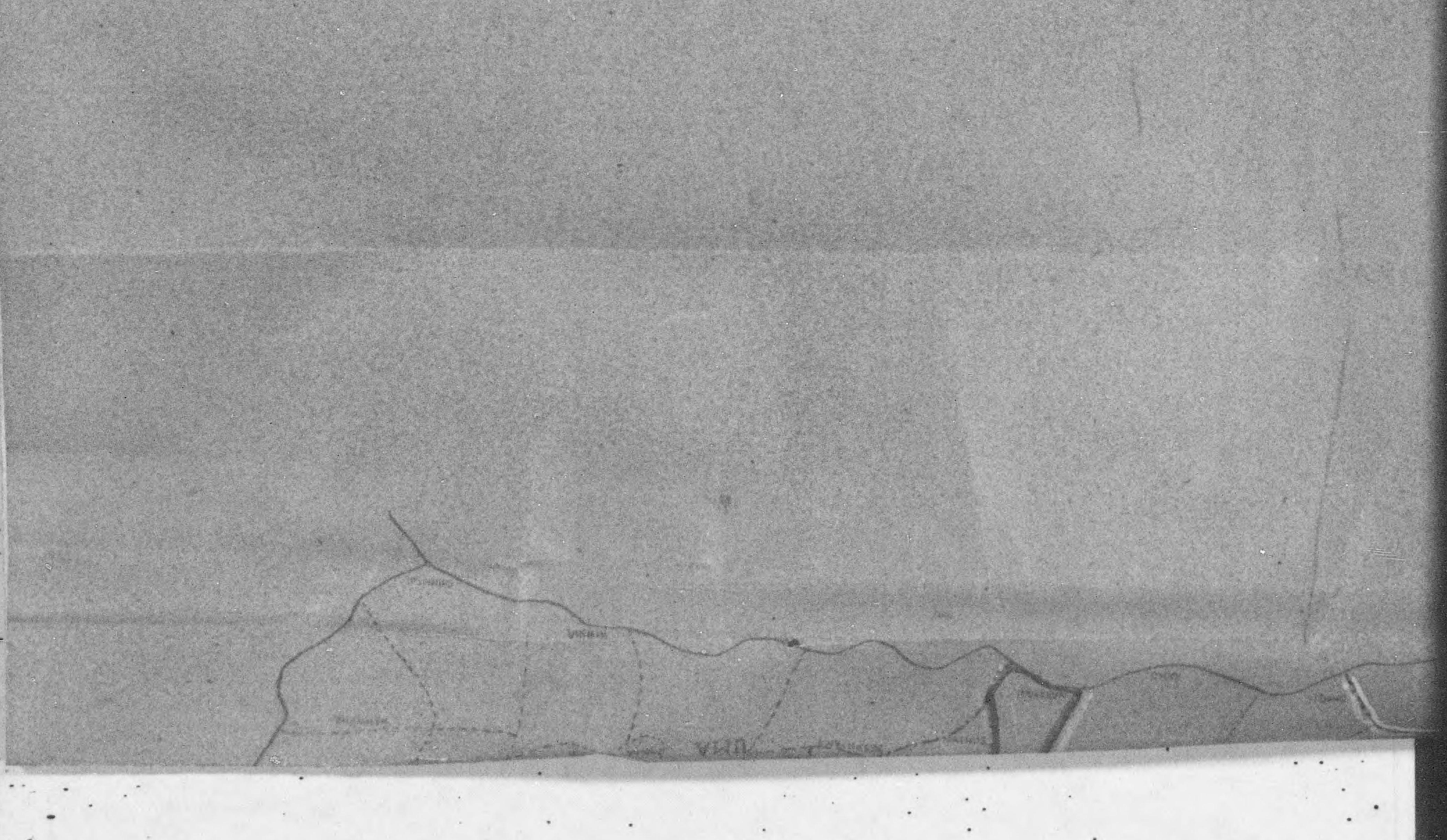

EXPLANATION; The figures 1, 2, and 3 in each village or town indicate the stations which come first, second, or third in sensitivity in respective villages or towns. The two letters indicated in each place are the last two letters of each station's call signal (JOBK: BK: Osaka). For example, in Mure, Kagawa Prefecture, the following is listed: 1. HP; 2. BK; 3. KK. This means: 1. Takamatsu; 2. Osaka; 3. Okayama.

GENERAL HEADQUARTERS
SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS
Civil Information and Education Section
Analysis and Research Division

SPECIAL REPORT

Serial Number: AR-264-IM-91-PP-B-25 12 December 1946

SUBJECT : The Jiji Shimpo Publishing Company

PREPARED BY : Information Media Research, 25 Oct. 1946

EVALUATION:

The Jiji Shimpo (Current News) today is a resurrection of one of the very early Japanese newspapers, suspended since 1936. The paper ceased publication at that time primarily because it found its rapidly aging staff and methods unequal to competition (See History below). Even with the advantages of increased income from inflated prices and an expanded market caused by the removal of many competitors under the Japanese Government's wartime policy of newspaper combination,[1] the Jiji still shows signs of age. A percentage of present personnel is drawn from those associated with the paper prior to its suspension a decade ago,[2] when the staff felt itself unable to meet competition. Securing a paper ration on the basis of its one-time circulation, the journal is comparatively widely read, (See Circulation P. 9), has an experienced editor, is relatively stilted although comparatively dependable.[3]

1. See Information Media Research: "The Provincial Press", CIE Section, TOKYO, GHQ, 4 February 1946.
2. News Article: "Review of the Jiji Shimpo".
3. Ibid.

(10)

HISTORY[4]

The Jiji Shimpo was founded as the personal enterprise of Yukichi Fukuzawa on 1 March 1882. For 19 years he was the principal editorial writer and a commentator as well. The Jiji has had a remarkable continuity of editorship, having had only three chief editors including Mr. Fukuzawa. His successor was a Mr. Ramrei Ishikawa, who edited the journal until 1923. From that time until the 1936 suspension and again from resumption of publication, Dr. Takuzo Itakura has been chief editor. Dr. Itakura is an emeritus professor of Keio University, manager of the Chiyoda Life Insurance Company, and a Peer.[5] The present editors state that they have taken as one of their basic objectives an attempt to pursue the editorial policy of the paper's founder.[6]

A reluctance to depart from staid attitudes has been characteristic of the Jiji for many years, and this has been a contributing factor in hindering the paper from keeping stride with the Asahi or the Mainichi.[7] This inability was aggravated in 1923, when severe earthquake damage to the Jiji plant curtailed circulation at a time when Asahi and Mainichi competition was making its strongest drive to place the two papers first in circulation in Tokyo and the nation, as well as in Osaka, where the two newspaper giants

4. Statements in this section, unless otherwise specified, appear in "A Brief History of Jiji Shimpo".
5. Research Unit: Personal Profiles.
6. Statement in interview by Dr. Itakura.
7. Kyo Kuruma: "An Evaluation of the Tokyo Press".

already enjoyed leading positions.[8]

The business record of the Jiji shows graphically the trend of the company's history. For the first five years the business manager was Hikojiro Nakanigawa. Kinsuke Ito succeeded the original head, and officiated for nine years. During the period of the paper's widest circulation and influence, and during the first few years of decline, for the thirty years from 1896 to 1926, Sutejiro Fukugawa was business manager. There were three managers between 1926 and 1932, Kengo Koyama, Ikunoshin Kadano and Masaku Natori, in that order. The last-named was succeeded by Yamaji Muto, who was in turn succeeded in 1935 by Masao Matsuoka.

In December 1936 the Jiji Shimpo ceased publication, to be revived in 1946, when conditions fostered its reissue.

The form of business organization of the Jiji followed a familiar pattern in its development. It started as a private enterprise financed entirely by the founder, but later opportunities for expansion required additional capital, and the firm was first made a partnership in 1904. The present form of corporate organization was framed in 1910 when the firm became a joint stock company. This flexible structure readily permits increase in amount of paid-in capital as long as the paper is a going concern, and no further changes in the nature of organization seem likely of adoption.

8. Information Media Research: "Asahi Shimbun Publishing Co", and "Mainichi Shimbun Sha, Report #1."

Serial Number: AR-264-IM-91-PP-B-25

LEGAL STRUCTURE:

Stock in Jiji Shimpo Sha is held by 107 persons, according to figures furnished by the company, and a majority of stock is held by no one person or firm. The Jiji is not employee-proprietor owned, as are the Asahi and Mainichi, three blocks of 1,000 shares each of Jiji stock being held by other corporations, and a large number of shares being held by persons not active in the business. The firm is capitalized at ¥2,000,000.00, of which amount 1/2 is paid in, through a total issue of 40,000 shares outstanding. A list of shareholders possessing 500 shares or more is given in Appendix #1.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE:

The staff of the Jiji is not large, for although it is rather more elaborate than, for example, the Tokyo Times, the circulation of the Jiji will not support a staff as varied and specialized as those employed by Tokyo's first-line papers. In accord with Jiji's predilection for conservatism already described, the organization is highly orthodox. While quite workable, it does not have the versatility noted in connection with newer, more enterprising operators. The structure is outlined below:[9]

Board of Directors, Chairman - Takuzo Itakura.

President - Takuzo Itakura.

Chief Editor - Takuzo Itakura

9. Jiji Shimpo: "Diagram of the Operating Organization of the Company".

Serial Number: R-264-IM-91-PP-B-25

Commentary Staff

Managing Editor - Misao Kondo

Assistant Managing Editor - Shuji Aritake

Make-up Desk-- Kyusaburo Imai
Morgue - Masamitsu Watanabe
Political - Econoric Desk - Shin Shimizu
City Desk - Kimusaburo Imai
Foreign News Desk - Hidesaburo Yokoyama
Inspecting Division - Jukan Sakamoto
Photographic Desk - Shosaburo Maikawa
Administration Division - Genichiro Tani
Editorial Desk - Kenmi Sato

Editorial Advisor - Shiro Konno

Business Manager - Masao Kano

General Affairs Department - Masao Kano

Correspondence Division - Katsuke Asano
General Affairs Division - Hiroshi Etsuzu
Material Division - Kazue Suguro

Business Department - Rokuyo Otomo

Sales Division - Harujiro Maisaka
Advertising Division - Hideo Ogasawara
Accounting Division - Kyupei Shirasaki

Printing Department - Takayoshi Fukuoka

Industrial Division - Rinzo Katsuta
Types Division - Yoshikazu Toyama
Printing Division - Rinzo Katsuta

FINANCIAL AFFAIRS:

According to profit and loss statements of the company, Jiji did not show a profit between 1 January and 22 March, 1946. Between the latter date and 30 April the concern realized a return of ¥64,617.86. This statement was entirely unitemized. According to these figures, profit would be approximately 6% of the total assets and 19% of the value of capital stock outstanding on an annual basis.

Serial Number: AR-264-IM-91-PP-B-25

Balance sheets and profit and loss statements as of 22 March and 30 April 1946 are given in Appendix #2.

PERSONNEL:

Jiji Shimpo Sha Employs 450 Persons. Eighty-six writers, reporters, and editors work in the editorial department, aided by 44 clerks, proof-readers, etc. The composing room and print shop occupy another 150 persons, 85 others constitute the business staff, and a like number expedite distribution.[10] Salaries range from ¥263.00 monthly to ¥1,995.00, the average for 450 positions being ¥614.00 monthly. The press is a union shop, the members being affiliated with the Japan Press Communications and Radio Workers' Union.[11]

EDITORIAL POLICY:

The Jiji's attitude is in a considerable degree the reflection of the personality and views of Dr. Itakura.[12] This is in strong contrast to the present situation in the editorial rooms of the Asahi and Mainichi, for example, where even experienced Japanese newspapermen profess difficulty in discerning and defining the Chief Editors' work in the articles printed.[13] Such a difference proceeds, at least in part, from the relatively dominating position in the firm and longer tenure as editor of Dr. Itakura. (13 years prior to the war,[14] and since the Jiji's reappearance.

10. Jiji Shimpo: "Statistics of number of Employees in Company Departments".
11. Statement in interview by Misao Kondo, Managing Editor, Jiji Shimpo.
12. Op Cit. Note #2
13. Op Cit. Note #7
14. See History Above

The present chief editors of both the Asahi and Mainichi were placed in their jobs since the surrender.)[15]

The expressed policy of the editor is that Jiji be "editorially impartial" and "favor no ism", supporting no political party or theory.[16] The journal is considered "probably most favorable to the administration of the major Tokyo papers"[17] on the basis of daily analysis during 1946. Quite possibly the basis for the paper's views is expressed in the editorial of 31 July, "On the New Middle Class."

> "It may be said that politics, economics, and culture of the future Japan will be dedided by the middle class. If there were neither millionaires nor the destitute, people would espouse sound principles and the middle class would be ambitious and seek self-improvement. Japan of the future must depend on such a middle class: and the education of that class is the first step to the reconstruction of Japan."

SOURCES OF NEWS:[18]

A large part of Jiji's space is devoted to editorials and comment. Most of the straight news is from Kyodo, although the paper also subscribes to Nichibei, Tairiku Rengo, Chosen Joho and Jiji News Services. The paper runs an average of three columns per edition of foreign news and is generously illustrated with Sun News Photo Service pictures for the most part. Twenty per cent of the pictures used are from Kyodo Photo, but the editors explain that since this agency is quite slow in delivery, Sun Photos are usually employed. The paper does not rely heavily

15. Op Cit. Note #8
16. Jiji Shimpo: "Statement Editorial Policy".
17. Media Analysis Unit "Press Analysis, 6 Sept 1946", CI section.
18. Op Cit. Note #6.

on its own photographers, who do inferior work, company officials admitted.

FORMAT AND CONTENTS:

Jiji carries a good many inches of extra verbiage per edition, in rambling articles.[19] Some of this material is stated to come through the minor news agencies listed in the last paragraph.[20] The literary style of the more than ordinarily educated staff is condescending in tone, with some statements clothed in ancient stories, and many of the writers showing a fondness for attempting to fit well-known saws to modern instances. An example of this style of writing is furnished by the sub-editorial of 10 May 1946:

> "The Socialist Party took the same course as the Liberal Party and met with the same difficulty and is arriving at the last moment. If you speak of this process in parables, it is like the story of the ferry-boat. Four men want to cross the river, but are not allowed to do so by the ferry-man, and the men are not on good terms. One says he doesn't like to go with that naughty child, and the naughty child says he must go with his brother and not with that strange lady. The brother wants to company him by force of circumstance. After much wrangling, one man wants to go alone, but the obstinate ferry-man says 'I can't take you alone as I repeated already' and with his son, he turned back. It is useless to be angry, if the boat doesn't go at all. Negotiate for the last time, and if you don't succeed, there's nothing to do but return... Thus the story goes. Each may have a reason but also a weak point. The party which is planning to bring about the fall of the cabinet should prepare to replace it immediately. Soon after crying about the protection of the Constitution, to avoid the problem is unreasonable. It is quite all right to settle the problems of the Constitution and food at the same time. It is also a

19. Statement furnished from Information of Media Analysis Unit, CIE Section.
20. Op Cit. Note #6.

> problem that the result of the general election is ignored. The Government in speaking reasonably was doubtful from the first whether it was trying to form the succeeding cabinet or not. The attitude was not clear. The fair play needed in sports I should say, is also most necessary in politics.

As previously noted, straight news is principally limited to Kyodo releases, as Jiji's own writers largely produce more or less editorialized material. Social items receive coverage and elaboration, as do such topics as art and music.[21] The paper's make-up gives prominence to editorials, pictures, and the leading Kyodo articles. But printing is not uniformly adequate, and editions frequently contain many scarcely legible copies. An average of approximately 3,000 Kanji characters are used per issue.[22]

CIRCULATION:

A total circulation of 283,000 copies daily is distributed throughout Japan. The editors claim their effort is to produce a family newspaper which will appeal to middle class as well as educated persons.[23] Rural subscribers are relatively numerous and the paper circulates throughout the Japanese islands, with the largest number of subscribers in Tokyo and the surrounding prefectures. The paper enjoys a better market north of Tokyo than south, showing a regular and systematic reduction in circulation in the prefectures as the distance from Tokyo increases.[24] Charts of circulation figures for the Japanese islands and Tokyo are given in Appendix #3.

21. Op Cit. Note #19.
22. Op Cit. Note #11
23. Ibid.
24. Jiji Shimpo: Circulation Figures.

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DISTRIBUTION:

The Jiji Shimpo is a member of the Japanese Newspaper League, and the latter organization distributes the Jiji by the same means as are employed with the Asahi, Mainichi, and all papers of national distribution. Approximately 2/3 of the subscription fee accrues to the publishing company, and the remainder goes to the League.[25]

EQUIPMENT:

The Jiji Shimpo has machines adequate in capacity but shy on quality, if one is to judge solely by the products. Lack of skill in operation may have as much to do with unsatisfactory results as poor machines, but it is certain that the presses are old and worn. They are, however, of sufficient capacity, as the following list will show.

PRINTING EQUIPMENT OF THE JIJI SHIMPO SHA, OF MAY 1946:[26]

	NUMBER
Printing Press, Folding type (2 in operation - each capable of printing 48,000 two-page copies hourly.)	3
Typecasting machines	6
Stereo-plate Finishing and Shaving machines	2
Flat-bed Presses	4

3 Appendices:

Appendix I - List of Shareholders
Appendix II - Financial Statements
Appendix III - Circulation breakdown for Prefectures, and for Tokyo.

25. Op Cit. Note #11.
26. Jiji Shimpo: "Description of the Printing Plant".

Serial Number: AR-264-IM-91-PP-B-25

SOURCES:

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Media Analysis Unit, Press Analysis, CIE Section, GHQ, Tokyo, 6 September 1946.

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Research Unit: "Personal Profiles," CIE Section, GHQ Tokyo.

2. Interviews:

Itakura, Takuzo, Editor, Jiji Shimpo. Subjects: History, Organization, Policy, and Operating Methods of Jiji Shimpo, #4-2 chome, Yurakucho, Kojimachi - Ku, Tokyo, 28 May 1946.

Kondo, Misao, Managing Editor, Jiji Shimpo. Subjects: Personnel, News Sources, Circulation, Distribution and Equipment of Jiji Shimpo. #4 - 2 chome, Yurakucho, Kojimachi - Ku, Tokyo, 28 May 1946.

Media Analysis Unit: Subject: Policy of Jiji Shimpo. Radio Tokyo, October 1946.

Serial Number: AR-264-IM-91-PP-B-25

APPENDIX I - LIST OF SHAREHOLDERS OF THE JIJI SHIMPO SHA:

NAME	NO. OF SHARES
Kazunao Sasada	1,100
Hisakichi Maeda	1,000
Hikoichiro Nakagamigawa	1,000
Saburosuke Suzuki	1,000
Kenji Fukuzawa	1,000
Tokitaro Fukuzawa	1,000
Hiroshi Hata	1,000
Shoji Doi (Representing the Chiyoda Life Insurance Company)	1,000
Hideya Maruyama (Representing the Meiji Life Insurance Company)	1,000
Ryutaro Takahashi (Representing the Dai Nippon Beer Company)	1,000
Shiro Kurachi	1,000
Konosuke Akiyama	780
Hisayo Hasegawa	600
Jiro Hashimoto	600
Takuzo Itakura	500
Misao Kondo	500
Shin Shimizu	500
Rokuro Otomo	500
Uhei Sato	500
Eizo Ida	500
Takeo Kato	500
Hichiro Matsumoto	500
Mamoru Tamaki	500
Kyusaburo Yamaji	500
Yasutaro Matsunaga	500
Washin Okura	500
Masao Kano	500
Keisuke Asano	500
Eikichi Araki	500
Eiji Kinoshita	500
Genichiro Tani	500
Akiyoshi Hisamatsu	500
Hideo Ogasawara	500
Keizo Tsuchiya	500
Risaburo Endo	500
Kinpei Shirasaki	500
Hiroshi Izutsu	500
Kiichi Hayashima	500
Takeshi Yashiya	500
Shinji Jentoku	500
Zaijiro Tomokuni	500
Eijiro Kitamura	500
Tadaichi Hagihara	500
Katsutoshi Hagihara	500
Chuji Yagi	500
Kinichi Kitamura	500
Choji Kimura	500
Taichi Azuma	500

Serial Number: AR-264-IM-91-PP-B-25

Risaku Nakanishi	500
Tokuichi Nomura	500
Hiroshi Goto	500
Ken Ogure	500
Yoshio Imura	500
Shotaro Ikegai	500
Aiichiro Fujiyama	500
Ichizaemon Morimura	500
Ichizo Kobayashi	500
Soji Hayashi	500

Serial Number: AR-264-IM-91-PP-B-25

APPENDIX II - Financial Statement of the Jiji Shimpo Sha.

BALANCE SHEET (22 March 1946)

Assets:

Machinery and Tools	¥ 225,699.50
Advertising Account	525,970.54
Selling Account	688,575.75
Security Account	2,000.00
Temporary Payment	12,322.00
Deposit and Cash	344,586.42
Total	¥ 1,799,154.21

Liabilities:

Guarantee Business Account	¥ 40,000.00
Debt	200,000.00
Temporary Accepted Money	503,841.24
Unpaid Money	1,055,312.97
Total	¥ 1,799,154.21

STATEMENT OF PROFIT AND LOSS(FROM 1 JANUARY TO 22 MARCH 1946):

Income:

Business Income	¥ 3,086,808.34
Miscellaneous Income	22,721.75
Total	¥ 3,109,530.09

Expenditures:

Newspaper Producing Fee	¥ 3,109,530.09

Serial Number: AR-264-IM-91-PP-B-25

BALANCE SHEET (30 April 1946)

Assets:

Unpaid Stock	¥	1,000,000.00
Machinery and Tools		322,051.50
Advertising Account		617,395.60
Selling Account		482,221.18
Security Money		2,000.00
Temporary Payment		33,974.30
Deposit and Cash		710,944.59
Total	¥	3,168,587.17

Liabilities:

Capital	¥	2,000,000.00
Guarantee Business Account		40,000.00
Temporarily Accepted Money		516,159.60
Unpaid Money		547,809.71
Profit of this Term		64,617.86
Total	¥	3,168,587.17

STATEMENT OF PROFIT AND LOSS (23 March to 30 April 1946).

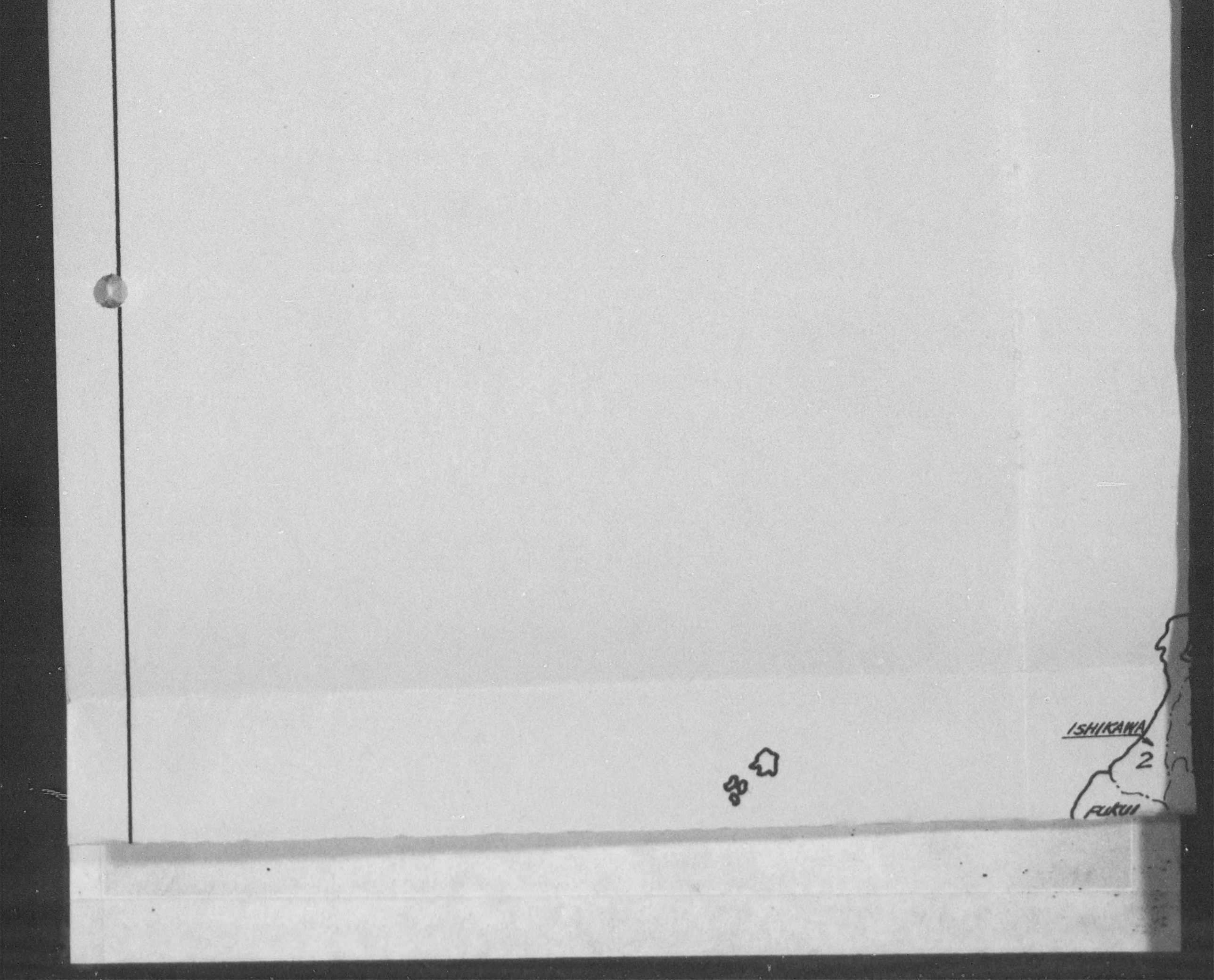
Income:

Business Income	¥	1,687,315.98
Miscellaneous Income		73,666.54
Total	¥	1,760,982.52

Expenditures:

Newspaper Publishing Fee	¥	1,696,364.66
Balance of Profit and Loss	¥	64,617.86

DAILY CIRCULATION OF THE JIJI-SH
BY "PREFECTURES."



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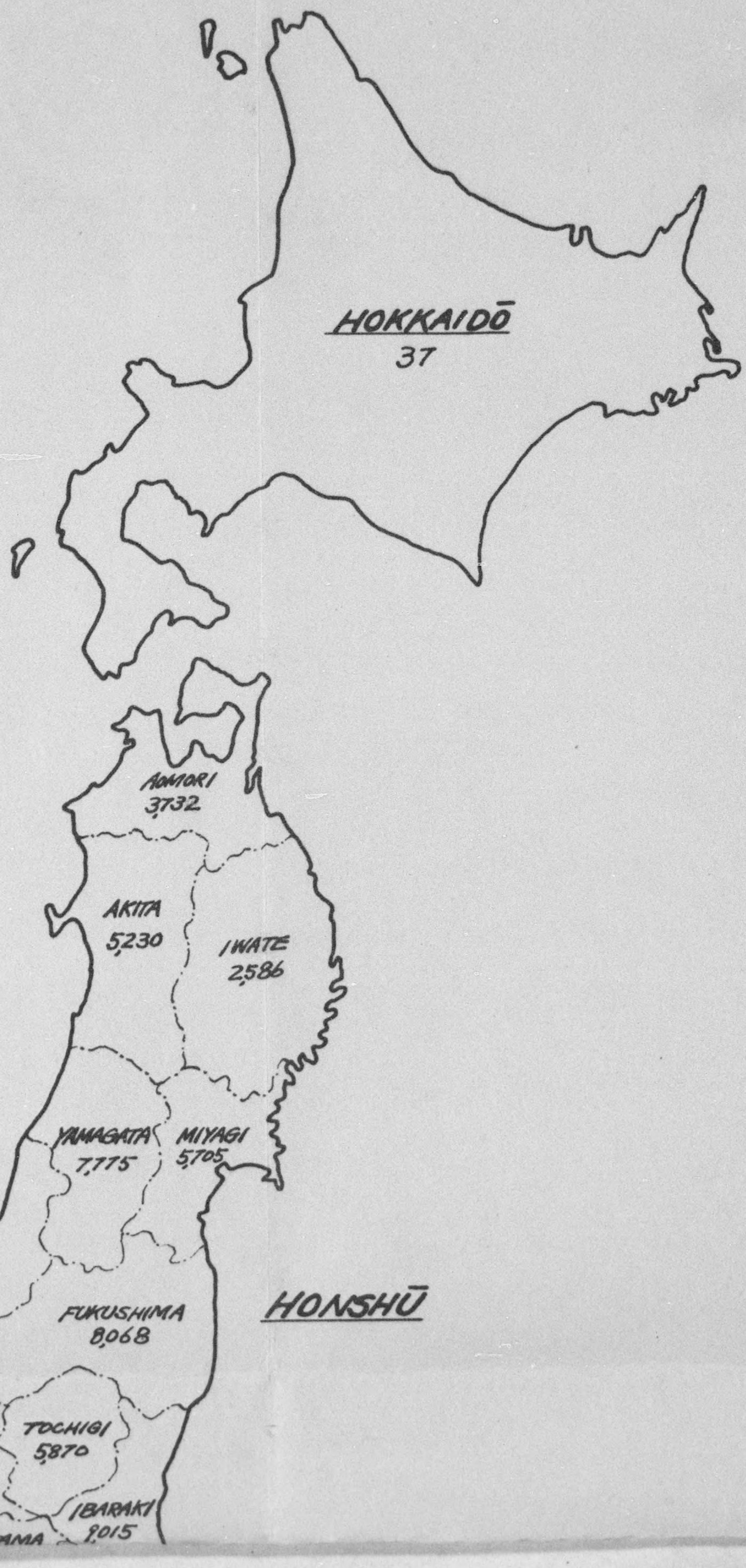
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AOMORI
3,732
AKITA
5,230
IWATE
2,586
YAMAGATA
7,775
MIYAGI
5,705
FUKUSHIMA
8,068
NIIGATA
11,313
TOYAMA
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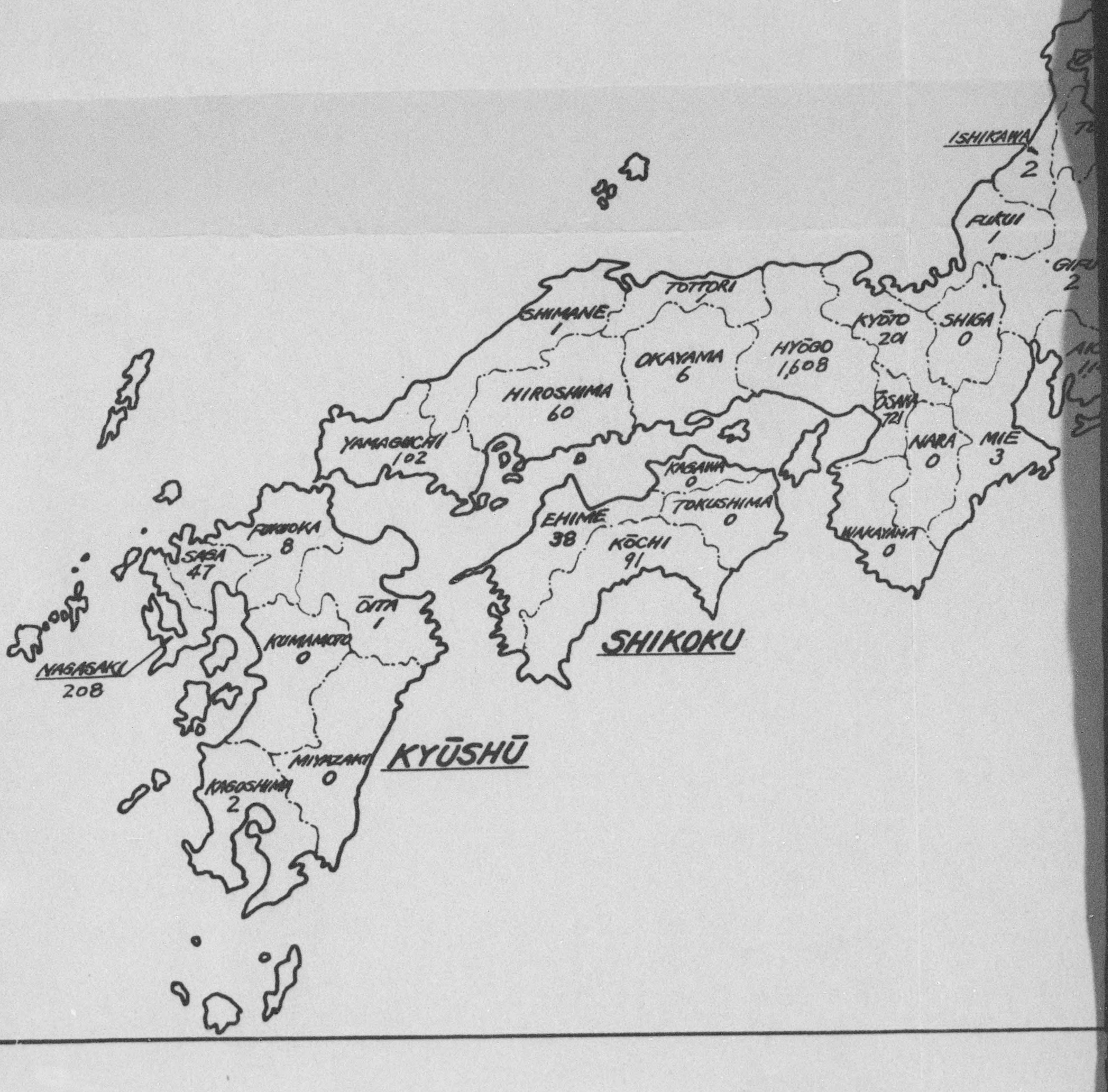
SAITAMA
IBARAKI
9,015
HONSHŪ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FUKUI
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TOTTORI
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SHIMANE
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OKAYAMA
6
HIROSHIMA
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KYŌTO
201
SHIGA
0
ŌSAKA
721
NARA
0
MIE
3
YAMAGUCHI
102
KAGAWA
0
TOKUSHIMA
0
EHIME
38
KŌCHI
91
WAKAYAMA
0
FUKUOKA
8
SAGA
47
ŌITA
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NAGASAKI
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MIYAZAKI
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KAGOSHIMA
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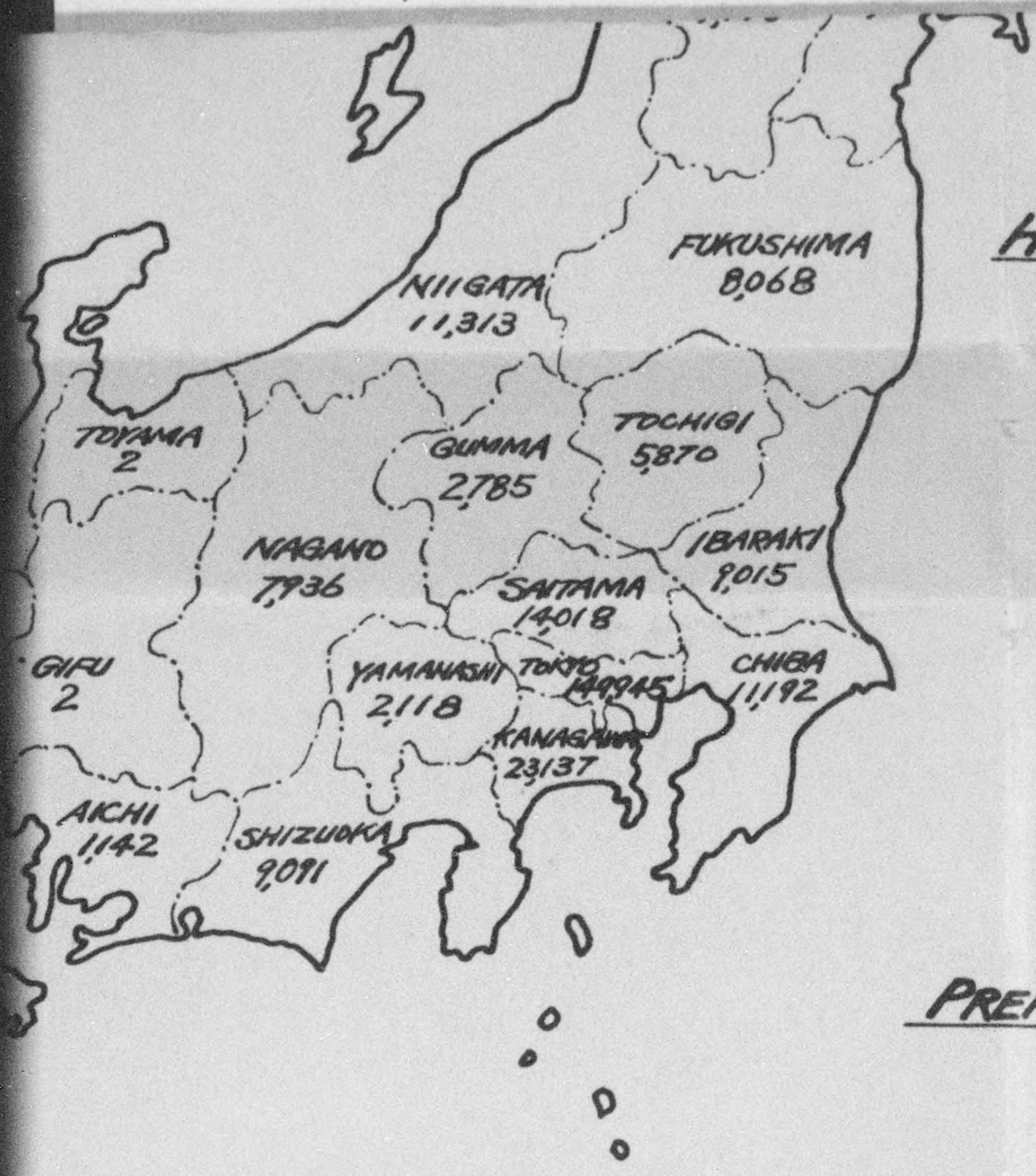
KYŪSHŪ
SHIKOKU



LEGEND

PREPARED BY:

GHQ, SCAP, CI&E SECTION
ANALYSIS & RESEARCH DIVISION
RESEARCH UNIT
INFORMATION MEDIA RESEARCH

DATE:

FEB. 21. 1947

SOURCE:

DOCUMENTS SUBMITTED BY
THE JIJI SHIMPŌ SHA

TOTAL CIRCULATION 283,800

REPRO BY 64TH ENGR TOPO BN

GENERAL HEADQUARTERS
SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS
Civil Information and Education Section
Analysis and Research Division

SPECIAL REPORT

Serial Number: AR-236-PP-E-17 24 July 1946

SUBJECT : Journalism in Universities.

PREPARED BY : Research Unit: Press and Publications.

JOURNALISM INSTRUCTION IN JAPAN:

Regular courses in subjects studied in most journalism schools in United States universities have been noted in only four Japanese schools. For this reason a resurgence of independent publishing activity on the part of university students, apart from their classroom pursuits, will have an important effect on the future activities of the Japanese press. This study describes the courses offered by the four achools alluded to below and attem to define the intentions of students who are publishing journals of student activity, reflecting student opinion on the several campuses, including those of institutions offering journalistic studies.

There were two reasons for the suspension of student papers in wartime, and both were related to the paper shortage. The first concerned the government's outlook on free expression. An active collegiate press would simply be another thing to watch, and would use paper in a way which would be of small help to nation-wide regimentation of thought and action. The second was more closely allied with the scarcity of paper. Articles recording student affairs and activities were of secondary importance to

(9)

the news of developments in the national struggle. Regular newspapers found their space constantly being reduced, and this reason was most often cited by the paper ration authorities in terminating university newspaper allotments.[1]

Regular curricula in journalism are offered students at the Institute of Journalism in the Faculty of Letters of Tokyo Imperial University, in the Semmon-Gakko of Jochi University, in night courses at Meiji University, and will be offered in the curriculum of the 20th Century Institute of Tokyo, a graduate school which plans to start next fall.

POSITION OF THE PRESS IN JAPAN:

There have been no journalism schools in Japan of the same relative stature, prestige, or scholastic standing as are enjoyed by the best schools in the United States. To understand this condition it is necessary to consider the position of the Japanese press.

There are two definite social divisions within the industry. The editors and more important writers enjoy a much better position than the reporters, who have never climbed very high on the Japanese social ladder.

The second division mentioned derives from the first. Both editors and reporters of city papers, especially the city newspapermen of Tokyo and particularly those representing the Asahi and Mainichi, enjoy better repute than country journalists This stuation has come about through definite efforts by the

1. Statements of Aijima, Toshio, Chief of the Liaison Section, Nippon Shuppan Kyokai.

above-mentioned papers to raise reporting standards. The prime factor in this campaign is a rigid examination of newsgathering and writing personnel.[2] [3]

The examinations in each case consist of written tests in foreign languages (usually English, French, German, and Chinese), a test of knowledge of commonly used abbroviations, a test in writing (often a speech summary such as might appear in a news account), and an essay. Successful examinees are given an interview, and these whose interviews are satisfactory are hired. In both the Asahi and Mainichi the examinations are open to university and technical school graduates, the tests being given once a year. Asahi stated that between 300 and 1,000 gradrates take the test each year, while Mainichi said their examinations averaged 500 applicants. Of the examinees in both news organizations, the 50 best are given interviews and usually about 10 are hired. Outside this number, new employees are drawn from among experienced newswriters and reporters, regardless of their education.

University or technical school graduates are not eligible to take these tests merely on the strength of graduation. The procedure is for the publishing company to compile a list of schools to be invited to recommend students individually for

2. Interview with Mr. Ichiro Tanaka, Chief of the Personnel Section Asahi Shimbun Sha, on 20 July 1946.

3 Interview with Mr. Ippo Tsukada, Chief of the Business Bureau of the Mainichi Shimbun Sha, on 20 July 1946.

the examinations. Mainichi gives each selected school a certain fixed number of students to recommend. Other Tokyo papers do not conduct general examinations but try to maintain standards by careful selection to meet the competition of the two largest papers.

This situation has in the past produced a double deterrent to schools of journalism. The first is that parents have been unwilling to provide their sons an expensive education in a field of little standing. The second is that since a majority of newspapermen gain their training by apprenticeship, many publishers look with less favor on university graduates than on other aspirants for fairly good news jobs who have spent the same number of years working in newspaper offices as the B. A. 's have spent in the university.

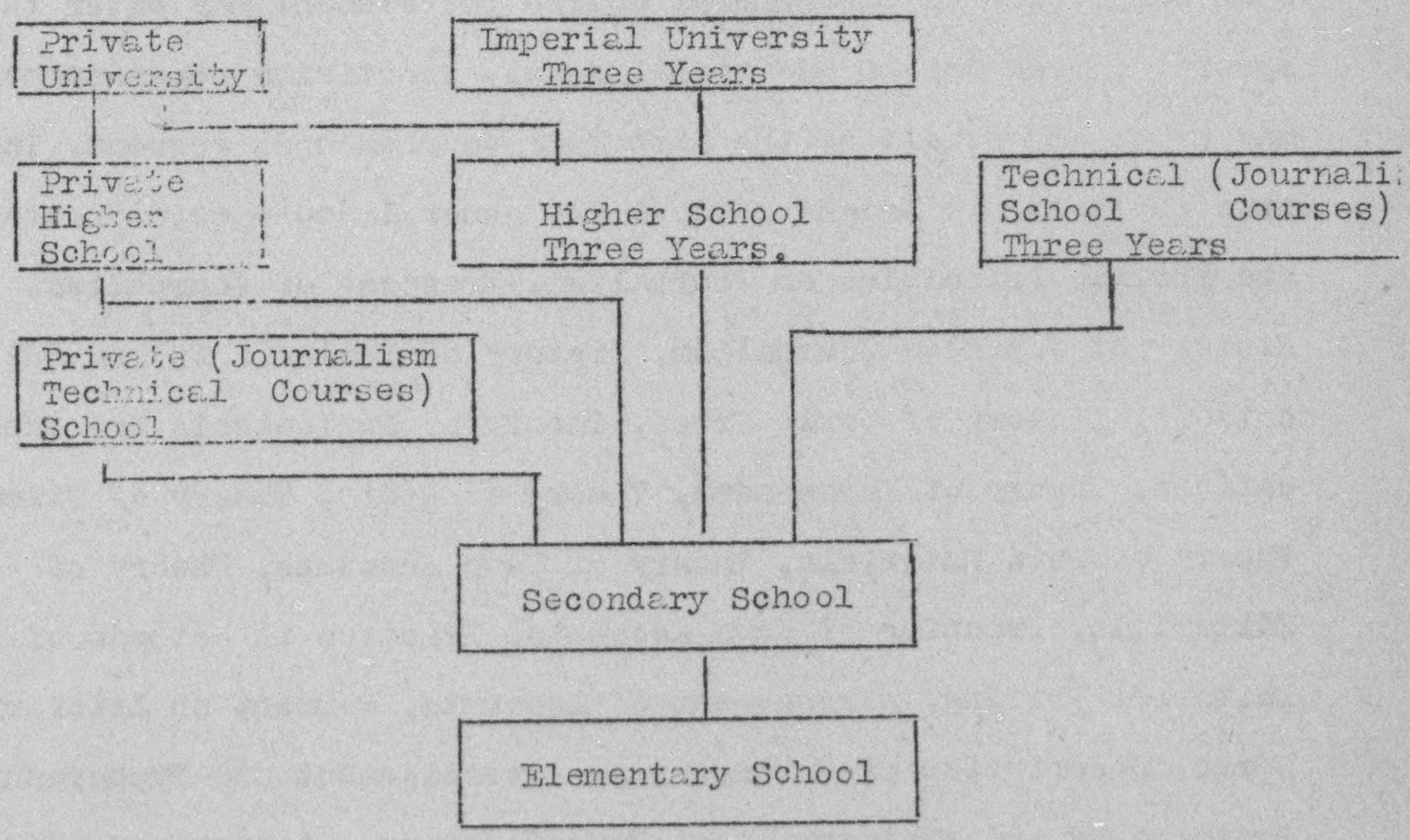
This state of affairs is being mended by several means which newspapers are adopting to improve their standing. It is not certain that these forces alone would be vigorous enough to change the existing conditions rapidly, but with the encouraging precepts of American pressmen active in fostering the improvement, several definite steps have been initiated.

First is the Tokyo papers' desire to find well qualified personnel. These papers support many programs that universities institute, principally by lending staff members as lecturers.[4] Further, they are apparently interested in having their present personnel enter university courses, particularly that of the Imperial University in Tokyo. Papers will presumably be ready

4. According to statements in interview by Masanobu Nakajima; Waseda University, Toshio Mitsui, Jochi Univercity.

to admit as new members persons completing the journalism studies, encouraged and in some cases taught by newsmen; and this attitude may lead eventually to a comparatively rigid scholastic standard in the journalistic profession. This attitude is only beginning, however, and has not spread widely or to points outside the major cities such as Tokyo and Osaka.

Several courses in journalism are being offered now, as will be taken up in detail later. While two of four courses are post graduate none leads to a baccalaureate. The place of journalism in Japanese school organization is shown below:



Journalism courses have only been offered in technical schools which do not grant degrees and do not provide admission to the universities (either public or private),a function performed only by the higher school. Thus it is seen that a degree and journal-

ism study require at least nine years. This situation will not be eliminated by the two graduate courses being considered, but will be shortened from nine to six or seven years.

JOURNALISM COURSES:

The course at the Imperial University of Tokyo is still in a state of nebulous organization, but the faculty is quite definite that details will be worked out and the school will open next fall.[5]

What is termed the "General Course" is a two-year program taken during the last two years of Law, Letters, or Economics. Upon completion of the general course the student may enter the special course for an additional year. Practising newspapermen may enter any or all of the last year courses upon request. The same subjects are taught in both the general and special courses, and include Principles of Journalism, Practice of Journalism, History of Japanese Journalism, History of Periodicals and Publications, History of World Press, Theory of Periodicals and Publications, Theory of Management, Theory of Radio, Theory of Films, Theory of News Materials, Theory of News Accounts, Theory of Editorials, Practice of News Accounts, Practice in Methods of Editorial Writing, Arrangement of Accounts, Comment on Literary Works, Description of Caricatures, Advertisement and Typography, Photography and Photographical Type-founding, Stenography, English and Typing. No definite number of hours of instruction has been decided on, or the number of instructors who will participate. In addition, the University plans a research section and materials

5. Institute of Journalism: "List of Journalism Courses", Tokyo Imperial University, Fall Term 1946.

section, the former to study primarily foreign news work and the latter domestic methods. Who will be appointed to work in these two branches is undecided, but the function of the two sections is ostensibly to improve instruction in the general and special courses.

The course in the Technical School of Jochi University[6] (a private institution) is given below:

SUBJECT	Year I	II	III
	Hours		
Philosophy	2	2	2
Japanese	3	3	3
History	2	2	
Constitution	2		
Civil Law	1	2	
Outline of Law	2		
Politics			2
Sociology			2
Outline of Economics	2		
Science of Finance			2
Outline of Journalism	2		
Detailed Lectures in Journalism		2	2
History of Journalism	2	2	
Current Topics		2	2
Stenography	2	2	
Advertising			2
Practical Training in Press Work		4	4
Correspondence	2	2	
Outline of Literature	2	2	
Foreign Language (English or German)			
First Language	5	5	5
Second Language (Optional)	4	4	4
Total	33	34	30

Twenty-four units of the above total of 97 represent the six subjects dealing with journalism.

Jochi University has offered courses in journalism since 1932, although last year (1944-1945) the school was closed on account

6. Information Media Research: "Japanese Journalists' Training", Civil Information and Education Section GHQ. Tokyo 6 May 1946

of the war. Eight professors will undertake the teaching program. The total enrollment at Jochi last year was 215 students.

Meiji University offers a type of extension course in journalism in evening classes.[7] Regular students may enroll in the journalism studies but may not apply credit thus earned toward their degrees. The course carries the same subjects all year for a total of 24 hours, according to the following program:

	5:30 - 6:30 P.M.	6:30 - 7:30 P.M.
Monday	Theory of Composition	Press English
Tuesday	General Theory of Press	Stenography
Wednesday	Explanation of Current News	Theory of American News Services
Thursday	Social Administration	Outline Theory of Philosophy
Friday	Psychology of Newspapers	Study of Modern China
Saturday	Counter-plan of Foodstuffs and Population	Study of Magazines and Newspapers.

At present there are 135 students enrolled and 25 instructors devote some time, in addition to their regular classes, to the course.

The 20th Century Institute is a new school "to train and cultivate thoughts of the youth, especially college graduates whose education in Japan was utterly neglected in the past" - to quote the Institute's prospectus announcing the opening fall term. The Institute proposes to offer courses to regular students and the public in the humanities and journalism, and to offer 1-year post-baccalaureate courses. The tentative Journalism Curriculum

7. Evening School: "List of Journalism Courses", Meiji University, Tokyo, Spring 1946

is given below. The year is divided into quarters, with 12 hours a week of classwork. This course was patterned after the course titles in the University of Illinois School of Journalism Bulletin.

20th Century Institute, Journalism Course:[8]

1st Semester, 1st Term

	Hours
Verbal Expression and Rhetoric	2
History of Civilization	1
Journalism	2
Foreign Language	2
Political Science	1
Economics	2
Social Science-Literature and Fine Arts-Philosophy and Psychology (optional; chose two) one hour each	2

2nd Semester, 1st Term

Copyreading	2
Advanced Reporting	2
Higher Social Studies	2
Newspaper Law and Ethics	2
Principles of Advertisement	2
Radio News-Writing and Reviewing (optional)	2

1st Semester, 2nd Term

Reporting	4
History of Journalism	2
Typography-Press Photography and Publicity methods for Physical Education (optional; chose one)	1
Advanced Social Studies	2
Press and Public Opinion	2

2nd Semester, 2nd Term

Copyreading	2
Editorial Studies and Writing	2
Contemporary Affairs	2
Newspaper Management	2
Circulation and Premotion	2
Press Systems of the World-Community and Country Journalism (optional)	2

Teaching assignments have not yet been made.

8. Journalism Department: "List of Journalism Courses", 20th Century Institute Fall Term 1946.

Serial Number: AR-236-PP-E-17

EXPERIENCE IN JOURNALISM AT JAPANESE UNIVERSITIES:

Experience on a school paper may be gained, among other places, at the Universities in Tokyo whose papers are described later in this study, namely: Chuo University (whose students publish the Chuo Daigaku Shimbun), Jochi University (Jochi Daigaku Shimbun), Meiji University (Meiji Daigaku Shimbun), Keio University (MIta Shimbun), Nippon University (Nippon Daigaku Shimbun), Rikkyo University (Rikkyo Daigaku Shimbun). Tokyo Imperial University (Teidai Shimbun), and Waseda University (Sodai Shimbun). Of the schools listed, exclusive of those already mentioned as holding journalism classes, three have each concluded separate arrangements to hold occasional lectures on various aspects of the public press. The lectures are commonly delivered on invitation - with or without remuneration - by a staff or editorial member of one of Tokyo's large daily newspaper companies. The circumstances very, but the schools are: Rikkyo University, Waseda University, and Tokyo Imperial University.

Student papers are, or will be, issued by interested undergraduates at the Hokkaido Imperial University, Hosei University, Tokyo Women's University, Tokyo Municipal Higher School, Tokyo Industrial University, and Tokyo Technical University.

In Kyoto and Kyushu, students of several schools are pooling their talents and resources in community student papers. The Kyoto Gakuin Shimbun, published at Kyoto Imperial University, is for Kyoto and Osaka students, and the Seibu Gakusei Shimbun is published by the Nishi Nippon Shimbun for and by students of

Kyushu Imperial University and other schools on that island.[9]

A list of university publications includes 19 magazines, nine published by Tokyo Imperial University, five published by other Universities, and five published for schools by commercial companies. Of these only one, the Waseda Guardian, is in any sense a student periodical, and in this case much of the material is written by university professors, alumni, and others, including Allied personnel. The other magazines issued by universities are all technical or literary, written and edited by faculty and or alumni members and afforded limited circulation. The periodicals are:[10]

a. Magazines published by the Tokyo Imperial University:

Name	FOUNDED	PRESENT CIRCULATION
Nippon Kagaku Kaishi (Japanese Chemistry Journal)	1943	3,500
Kokusai Gaiko (International Law and Diplomacy)	--	2,000
Dobutsugaku (Zoology)	--	1,250
Byorigaku (Pathology)	--	1,500
Nippon Jyuigaku (Veterinary)	1928	2,500
Nippon Dobuku Kenkyu (Agriculture Engineering Research)	1929	3,400
Nippon Sakumotsu Gakkai (Science of Crops)	1927	1,500
Nippon Nogei Kagaku (Agricultural Chemistry Journal)	1924	5,000
Engei Gakkai (Horticulture)	1925	1,500
	Total	22,150

9. News Story: "Resurgence of Student Publications," Nippon Shimbun Ho, Tokyo 10 Apr. 1946.

10. Information Media Research: "Magazines for University Students," Civil I and E Section Tokyo 10 Apr. 1946

b. Magazines published by other universities:

Waseda Guardian (Waseda University)	March 1946	10,000
Mita Bungaku (Mita Literary Club) (Keio University)	1926	3,000
Hakko Kogaku (Brewing Engineering) (Osaka Imperial University)	1923	2,000
Nippon Onkyo Gaku (Acoustics) (Tokyo Engineering University)	1940	1,500
Meidai Shogaku Ronso (Meiji University Business Magazine)	1928	3,000
	Total	19,000

c. Periodicals published by pribate companies:

Daigaku Shimbun (University News)	Pre-war	38,000
Watakushi No Daigaku (My University)	Feb. 1946	20,000
Teikoku Gakushiin Kiji (Imperial Academy Report)	Pre-war	500
Byorigaku (Pathology)	1919	2,000
Waseda Bungaku (Waseda Literary)	1938	1,000
	Total	61,500

FACTORS FAVORING STUDENT PUBLICATION:

A successful newspaper man in Japan enjoys a very comfortable income. Many successful newsmen in Japan are graduates of either the Law or Business (Economic) Schools of the large universities. In Japan a very small fraction of the population succeeds in graduating from an institution of higher learning; 1/6 as large a proportional fraction as in the United States, for example. Thus while a bachelor's degree is almost a mere routine pre-requisite for a newswriting job in our country, in Japan the

degree confers a much more marked advantage. It is necessary, however, to distinguish carefully between the degree and the course. While most prominent editors are university graduates they are not, and many of them have looked with small favor on, former students of journalism from the technical schools.

Combined with this long range prospect in the back of the minds of at least a few student journalists are several other encouragements to newspaper activity in school itself, apart from formal studies. These are connected with a desire to be part of campus life, and also with a desire for expression, with the knowledge that writings will be disseminated over a field of considerable width. This fact derives in two ways from the policy of making college papers to some extent faculty and technical journals. First, the format and tone of the paper, quite naturally, are dignified, and long and carefully written articles are usually included. Secondly, the readers of Japanese university papers are by no means restricted to the campus; papers are regularly sent to a large number of alumni and are often sold publicly in bookstores and places where educated people can readily obtain them.

FACTORS HINDERING STUDENT PUBLICATION:

The greatest single difficulty, and one from which stem several others, is the shortage of roll paper available to the college press. For whatever reason, there appears to be an official willingness to provide an allowance of paper to universities which is quite generous in view of the acute general shortage,

but the amount thus allowed is still inadequate. The shortage limits the frequency of issue and number of pages, restricting the amount of material carried rather severely and reducing the size of the press run. The effect of limited circulation is felt in several ways, not the least of which is scant revenue.

The second most formidable obstacle to a flourishing student press bulks less large at the moment, but has been the major and most frequent source of limitation at most times in the chronicles of these papers. The strictest faculty supervision and censorship has often been imposed on Japanese student writers.

PRESENT OPERATION OF STUDENT PAPERS:

Of the eight University student papers studied, five are products of colleges with no regularly constituted classes in journalism. All the papers are printed by the shop of one or another of the large, well-equipped daily papers. All except the Teidai Shimbun which, as will be seen, is a virtually unique organization, have 100% student staffs at present, and the upper positions on the staffs are not prerogatives of any class, as is often the case in the United States.

The papers are financed primarily by circulation; but since the paper shortage prevents the otherwise easily attained situation of paying all costs from this source, the schools all provide subsidies of one sort or another to the papers (again excepting the Teidai, which obtains a good deal of paper and not only finances itself but pays a non-student staff