

issue of Aum's use of violence, Reader identifies a number of contributing factors, all of which led the leadership to isolate itself from the world and to adopt increasingly hostile measures in responding to it. These factors include Aum's original character as a world-rejecting religion, the anxiety within Aum's leadership over the group's failure to win large numbers of followers, the dismal loss of Aum's "Party of Truth" in the 1990 election, continuing attacks on Aum in the media, the unchallengeable power Asahara wielded as guru and the increasingly specific nature of his predictions of Armageddon which, if unrealized, would call his claimed divine authority into question. Given the evidence of criminal acts committed by Aum leaders that has already been gathered, we can add to this list the further isolating and bonding effect of that behavior itself.

Students of the Aum affair will doubtless want to debate Reader on several issues. Space limitations permit me to raise only one general point here. Reader defends Aum against those who argue that "because it committed violence and engaged in military-style activities," it was not an "authentic" religion (p. 94). While surely correct in that defense, it is noteworthy that Reader never brings the intensely self-serving behavior of Asahara and his top aides into full focus. Before embarking on his career as founder of Aum, Asahara was arrested for selling a fraudulent cure for rheumatism; after he became Aum's guru, he remained married, ate whatever he liked, enjoyed special accommodations, and took sexual advantage of some female members, all the while demanding of his followers a strict ascetic life. Asahara and his inner disciples made false claims about the properties of Asahara's DNA, charged exorbitant fees for religious initiations that involved the drinking of his bath water and blood, exhibited extreme jealousy towards rival religious groups, responded aggressively (sometimes with lawsuits, sometimes with acts of murder) to those who criticized Aum, used dummy corporations to acquire weapons or materials to build them, and defined as "altruistic" work that first and foremost benefitted Aum. While Reader mentions most of these points here and there in his study, he holds back from drawing any conclusions about Aum's leaders based on them.

PAUL B. WATT
DePauw University

Troubled Industries: Confronting Economic Change in Japan. By ROBERT M. URIU. Ithaca, N.Y. and London: Cornell University Press, 1996. xiii, 285 pp. \$42.50 (cloth); \$17.95 (paper).

The use and abuse of industrial policy in postwar Japan is a matter of more than academic concern: it has become a major preoccupation in American foreign policy. How autonomous are bureaucrats in formulating industrial policy? To what extent does the "iron-triangle" linking business, bureaucracy and politicians operate in smooth and insulated fashion and to what extent is it disrupted by international pressure and by internal disputes, within and between the three groups? What options do declining industries in Japan have and to what extent do they respond to the challenge of managing decline with a political response, in the process formulating and shaping industrial policy? These are the issues—important for both policy and analysis of Japan—taken up by Professor Uriu in this informative monograph.

The book is divided into three parts. The first lays out a set of hypotheses guiding discussion of the issues: bureaucrats are not autonomous; much industrial policy is

the product of firms in the industries themselves; and the “iron triangle” is vulnerable to wrangling, both international and internal to, and between, the groups encompassed in the triangle. Specifically in part 1 the author lays out a typology for declining industries based on their structure, which informs his entire analysis of industry strategy vis-à-vis its degree of demand for, and reliance on, industrial policy: Type I are concentrated and have small labor forces; Type II are concentrated and have large labor forces; Type III are fragmented and have small labor forces; and Type IV are fragmented and are burdened with large labor forces. Fragmentation tends to impede economic adjustment since small firms tend to lack the capital and technological knowledge to diversify; and the smaller its share of total employment in an industry the less potential influence it enjoys in policy-making circles. Hence Professor Uriu predicts that Type I industries tend to focus on economic solutions; Type II industries pursue a mixed strategy with a rough balance between economic and political approaches; Type III industries tend to pursue political options but encounter difficulty getting attention; and, finally, Type IV industries tend to be the most political and therefore serve as a model for industrial policy, or at least for declining industry policy.

In part 2 of the book, the author employs detailed case studies—political archaeology—in order to bolster his thesis that industrial structure is a key determinant of industrial policy. He weaves into his narrative concerning cotton textile—a classic Type IV industry—a useful discussion of *kankoku sōtan* (recommendations to curtail operations) and of administrative guidance. His basic point is that MITI’s actions served to enforce a cartel in the industry, a cartel which the firms within the industry sought to form. In other words, industrial policy solved a collection action problem: how does a cartel monitor and discipline its members? Uriu’s discussion of the electric furnace industry as an example of a Type III industry further hammers home this “cartelization” hypothesis, for he demonstrates that the existence of a maverick firm which continually flaunted attempts at cartelization limited the effectiveness of industrial policy. His discussion of synthetic fibers, an example of a Type III industry, illustrates another limitation on industrial policy: firms found they were able to make economic adjustments, eschewing political solutions like cartels because they feared losing their competitive edge by depending on government administered cartelization. Shipbuilding, a Type IV industry, is interesting since the industry is dualistic with both large and small firms: large firms tended to emulate firms in Type I or Type II industries, favoring diversification; small firms demanded intervention by MITI and the Ministry of Transportation; that is, they demanded and got industrial policy.

Comparisons with West Germany and a general drawing out of the implications of the argument for Japanese industrial policy serve to round out the book in part 3. How convincing is Uriu’s argument? This reader was convinced. Reading this book made me feel that another nail—and a big one at that!—has been driven into the coffin of the bureaucratic autonomy/capitalist development state model of postwar Japanese development. To be sure, the work has its weaknesses: the role of technological response to the challenge of decline is not adequately documented; the role of suppliers of capital and labor in withdrawing their services from declining industries is not addressed (workers may voluntarily exit from low wage dead end industries on their own volition, for instance); and traces of the doctoral dissertation which gave birth to this book rear their ugly head from time to time. But I do not

want to close on a carping note: this is an admirable book which deserves to be read in both academic and policy-making circles.

CARL MOSK
University of Victoria

Libraries and Librarianship in Japan. By THEODORE F. WELCH. Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1997. xv, 215 pp. Guides to Asian Librarianship. \$75.00.

Although Theodore F. Welch makes no mention of it, this is an update of his well-known book, *Toshokan: Libraries in Japanese Society* (London: Clive Bingley; Chicago: American Library Association, 1976. x, 306 pp.). It has been two decades since the publication of *Toshokan*, so this revised version is a welcome contribution to the study of libraries and librarianship in Japan for members of the library profession and teachers of library and information science in English-speaking countries. Welch wrote this book based on the first-hand knowledge he has acquired during his many visits to Japan and to “every type of library” (p. xiv), spanning more than forty years. The purpose of this book is twofold: one is as a reference book, and the other as an extended essay “to trace the developments of traditional and modern librarians and librarianship and attempt to describe what they have become in modern times” (pp. xiii–xiv), states the author in the preface. The arrangement of the book is well thought out and it reads well. It consists of ten chapters: the first chapter covers the history of libraries; the second through the sixth chapters survey different types of libraries; chapter 7 discusses bibliographic control and services; chapter 8 describes automation; chapter 9 lists descriptions of professional organizations; and the last chapter examines library and information science education. The volume includes a bibliography for each of the chapters and an index at the end of the volume.

Unfortunately, the book suffers from many inaccuracies. For example, in chapter 1, “History of Libraries,” the author writes, “Modern scholarship has revealed that the earliest works of Japanese poetry, such as the anthology known as the *Collection of Myriad Leaves* (Man’yōshū), are largely short poems written in the early Korean language” (p. 3). This theory remains controversial and is far from being widely accepted. On the same page, in his discussion of women’s contributions to a simplification of the written Japanese language, Welch writes, “female writer Ki no Tsurayuki, author of the *Tosa Diary* (Tosa Nikki) . . .” (p. 3). Ki no Tsurayuki, a man, was one of the compilers of *Kokin Wakashū*, a famous anthology of *waka* compiled by imperial command. He also wrote *Tosa Nikki* using *kana* in the voice of a woman. Describing the scope of the National Diet Library’s collection, the author writes, “Noteworthy are the Tokugawa Government manuscript collections of some 200,000 items on the modern political history of Japan” (p. 34). A couple of sentences must be missing here since the Tokugawa government existed only in the premodern period and could not possibly have owned materials from a later period.

In chapter 2, “The National Library,” Welch describes the National Diet Library and the Maruzen microfilm project of Meiji period publications. He states that 1,500 titles were involved in the project (p. 35), but in reality, it included 120,000. In chapter 3, “Academic Libraries,” Welch writes: “Of the 390 private universities . . . seven are very prestigious . . .” (p. 49), then lists the names of the seven universities. This reviewer cannot see any grounds for his selection. In the description of the University of Tokyo, Welch writes, “in 1928, a series of reforms were carried out by library director Dr. Hideo Kishimoto” (p. 51). Although Hideo Kishimoto would