Second Edition

Wood and Traditional Woodworking in Japan

MECHTILD MERTZ





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Drawing on in-depth interviews with a wide variety of traditional craftsmen, ethnobotanist and wood anatomist Mectild Mertz offers illuminating insights into the technical and symbolic properties of Japanese wood. With a first-ever multi-lingual glossary of woodworking terms and an appendix of Japanese timber names, *Wood and Traditional Woodworking in Japan* is certain to become an invaluable resource for woodworkers, art historians, ethnobotanists, archaeologists, and lay people alike.

"Mertz has done an outstanding job of collating an enormous amount of data into a concise and clean format . . . this is an excellent and long-overdue reference book that I would heartily recommend to anyone keen to know more about Japan's culture of wood."

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Douglas Woodruff, "Kyoto Journal"



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Unless otherwise acknowledged, photographs were taken by the author.



Impressive *kujaku* ("peacock") figuring on a *kaki* persimmon tray. (Photo by Cyril Ruoso.)

Length 22.5 cm, width 22.5 cm, height 3.3 cm.



Left: *Kiso-hinoki* cypress forest. Center: *Akita-sugi* cedar forest. Right: *Aomori-hiba* forest. (Photo by Yumoto Takakazu.)

Cooked-rice container lid with an expressive *Akita-sugi* cedar straight grain. Diameter 17 cm. By Shibata Yoshinobu. (Photo by Cyril Ruoso.)







Right: *Chôna*, curved-handled adze, and Nara-Period hinoki cypress board bearing traces of *chôna* fashioning.

Top left: Japanese zelkova (*keyaki*) with *tama* ("pearl") figuring. Top right: Japanese horse-chestnut (*tochinoki*) with *chijimi* ("crepe") figuring. Left: Deciduous oak (*nara*) with *torafu* ("tiger fleck") figuring showing medullar rays.







- a: *Naka-itame* ("central flat-sawn grain") on an *Akita-sugi* cedar ceiling panel.
- b: Naka ("central") figuring on a Yoshino-sugi cedar ceiling panel.
- c: Sasa ("bamboo grass") figuring on a Yaku-sugi cedar ceiling panel.
- d: Vivid-red grain on a *Tosa* (or *Yanase*) sugi cedar ceiling panel.
- e: *Sasa* ("bamboo grass") figuring on a *Kirishima-sugi* cedar ceiling panel. f: The earlywood of this *Kasuga-sugi* cedar ceiling panel is characterized by a reddish tone.

g: Red and white "Genpei" figuring on an Akita-sugi cedar ceiling panel.

(Photos a-g taken by author, with permission of proprietor Nakade Takashi of Izugen Meiboku.)



End grain of a *kurogaki* black persimmon stem.

Three aspects of *kakinoki*, persimmon wood. Left: natural coloring. Center: *shimagaki*, striped persimmon. Right: *kurogaki*, black persimmon.

"Wild geese and moon" incense container made of striped persimmon with white inlay. Length 9.5 cm, width 3.7 cm, height 2.5 cm. By Iguchi Akio. (Photo by Cyril Ruoso.)









Top right: Using a spear-headed plane in the reconstruction of the Yakushi-ji Lecture Hall.

Above: Using an *uzukuri* brush to finish a Japanese cedar surface.

Right: Ayabe Yuki preparing to do object-orientated cutting (*kidori*) on a keyaki plank.







Top: Ayabe Yuki fashioning a bowl on a *rokuro*, or lathe.

Left: Eri Kôkei carving the hermit *Hôdô*, founder of Ichijô Temple. (Photo by Kimura Naotatsu.)

Bottom: Shirai Masaharu using cherrybark strips to sew together the ends of a bentwork ring.





Left: *Koèmatsu* ("fatty pine") incense container. Diameter 6.8 cm, height 1.8 cm. By Ayabe Yuki.

Center left: Incense container made of *tsubaki* (Japanese camellia). Height 6.4 cm, diameter 5.7 cm.

Center right: Hearth frame made from the wood of an old apricot tree (*ume-koboku*). Height 6.6 cm, length 42.4 cm, width 42.4 cm. By Inao Seichûsai. (© Nihon Tokushu Printing.)





Chashaku (tea scoops). Top to bottom: *nanten* (heavenly bamboo), *yamazakura* (cherry wood), *tsubaki* (camellia), and *kuwa* (mulberry). Length 18 cm, width 1–1.1 cm, thickness 0.2–0.4 cm. By Ayabe Yuki.





Top left: The subdued straight grain of Bishû hinoki cypress is well-suited for this *Jizô bosatsu* image. Top right: Camphor wood's more vivid flat-sawn grain is suitable for this statue of a priest. By Eri Kôkei. (Photos by Kimura Naotatsu.)

Left: Stages in the creation of a *Nô* mask. By Nagasawa Muneharu.

Bottom left: Pentagonal tray made of dark brown, *ishibai*-treated mulberry wood. By Kawamoto Kôshun. (© Nihon Tokushu Printing.)

Bottom right: Japanese nutmeg (*kaya*) *Go*-board with a *tenchi-masa* "heaven and earth" straight grain. By Kuroda Makoto [Rozan, *pseud.*], Nagoya.





Foreword by Yumoto Takakazu

The Japanese archipelago extends over 3,000 kilometers from north to south and is comprised of subarctic, cool-temperate, warm-temperate, and subtropical climatic zones. It is evident that these various climatic zones have persisted over the past 100,000 years, in spite of the global environmental changes that have occurred. As a result, the Japanese archipelago's natural environment and its human subsistence activities have been characterized by great variety, as have its human-nature relationships.

From 2006 to 2011, a collective research project entitled "A New Cultural and Historical Exploration into Human-Nature Relationships in the Japanese Archipelago" was conducted at the Research Institute for Humanity and Nature. Involving more than 130 researchers, including ecologists, anthropologists, geographers, historians, and archeologists, this project's aim was to reconstruct how human-nature relations have changed, both physically and spiritually, over the course of Japanese history.

Traditional woodcraft is a typical example of a human-nature relationship, one that boasts a long history. It was for this reason that Dr. Mechtild Mertz decided to undertake a study of Japanese wood craftsmanship. Based on in-depth interviews of craftsmen who specialise in various fields of traditional woodworking, her study's distinctive feature is that it combines a craftman's knowhow with a scientist's understanding of wood anatomy. As such, this study offers art historians, ethnobotanists, archaeologists, and Japanologists novel tools and methods to supplement their existing ones and contributes greatly towards opening a new field of research.

Yumoto Takakazu Project Leader, Professor Research Institute for Humanity and Nature, Kyôto

Foreword by Itoh Takao

It gives me great pleasure to learn of the Kaiseisha Press publication of Dr. Mechtild Mertz's book.

It was in 1999, while I was a professor at the Wood Research Institute in Uji (Kyôto Prefecture, Japan) that she contacted me and expressed a desire to conduct research in my laboratory on traditional Japanese woodworking.

Just after she joined my laboratory, we decided that the best way of conducting this research would be to visit the ateliers of various traditional woodworkers and to conduct interviews. We submitted a questionnaire to some thirty-five workshops in the Tôhoku, Kantô, Chûbû, and Kinki regions and taped these interviews. We also interviewed craftsmen from other wood-related fields, such as lacquer ware and carpentry.

Fortunately, the woodworkers were very cooperative and willingly gave of their time and energy in answering our questions. These interviews greatly enhanced Dr. Mertz's understanding of the activities of traditional Japanese woodworkers.

Our first trip, in 1999, took us to Hirutani (Eigenji-chô, Shiga Prefecture), which is considered to be the birthplace of Japanese turnery. Dr. Mertz painstakingly took notes and pictures of the craftsmen's work. She proved to have an excellent eye for detail, observing, for example, that the varying widths of the annual rings in some *sugi* (Japanese cedar) bentwork possessed a natural beauty of their own.

The interview tapes and their transcriptions provided the principal source of information for her doctoral thesis. Through them, she came to appreciate just how Japanese woodworkers bring out, by careful selection of wood species and by the use of appropriate techniques, the intrinsic beauty of the wood in their final products.

Although she knew Japanese before joining us, it was not always easy for her to fully understand the interviewees, as many of them were quite aged and spoke in their regional dialects, some of which are difficult for even native Japanese speakers to comprehend. However, Dr. Mertz, a native German speaker enrolled in a French research institute and translating from Japanese into English, persevered and overcame the linguistic challenges. After four years of profound effort, she succeeded in completing her doctoral thesis.

Of all the traditional wooden craft items in Japan, those preserved in the Shôsô-in Imperial Repository represent the ultimate in refinement. Thanks to the skills of the traditional woodworkers who made them, the techniques responsible for their creation, as well as their designs, will endure. I hope this publication will contribute to a greater appreciation of the significance of traditional Japanese woodworking.

Itoh Takao Professor Emeritus, Kyôto University Visiting Researcher, Nara National Research Institute for Cultural Properties

Preface to the second edition

On the occasion of the second edition of *Wood and Traditional Woodworking in Japan*, I wish to thank those who pointed out errors and discrepancies in the original edition. The present book has benefited greatly from their kind advice.

I would also like to take this opportunity to announce the impending publication of the Japanese edition of *Wood and Traditional Woodworking in Japan*. Thanks to Hayashi Yumiko's excellent translation, Japanese woodworkers and fans of Japanese wood and woodcraft will soon be able to enjoy reading about their country's fascinating 'wood culture' in their own language.

Mechtild Mertz

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In order to create a fine work, begin by knowing your wood. Then, because the wood is alive, it will align itself with your intentions.¹

Woodworker and Intangible Cultural Property Takeuchi Hekigai (1896–1986) quoting one of his masters. See Moroyama, 1998, p. 4.

Acknowledgements

The first step leading to the creation of this work was taken in Germany in 1983, when, intending to become an interior designer, I began a three-month cabinetmaking internship. Later, when my master, Joachim Lubasch, proposed doing a full apprenticeship, I enthusiastically accepted and started down the traditional three-year path.

Under the wise guidance of my master, I learned the tricks of the trade and how to distinguish the different wood species, not only by sight, but also by smell – when the scent of freshly cut timber filled the workshop – and by touch – when sawing, planing, and polishing the wood. Nowadays, machines have replaced many steps in the cabinetmaking process, but an apprentice in Germany still has to master the traditional tools and techniques. This I did, and my apprenticeship ended with an examination given under the supervision of the Federal State of Rhineland-Palatinate's Chamber of Handicrafts.

After a year engaged in antique furniture restoration, I decided to pursue an academic career and began to study Japanese and East Asian art history in the University of Heidelberg's newly established Department of Japanese Studies. Two years later, I continued my East Asian art history study at the University of Sorbonne (Paris IV), where I received a master's degree after having proposed a new method of dating Japanese Buddhist images.²

At that time, I came across an outstanding course on wood anatomy offered by the Faculty of Paleobotany-Paleoecology at the University Pierre and Marie Curie (Paris VII). There I learned the basics of microscopic wood identification and the scientific Latin names of trees.

The more I became involved in wood studies, however, the more I realized that within the community of archaeologists and art historians there appeared to be profound lack of information and expertise concerning Japanese wood. I therefore decided to try to fill that gap by writing – admittedly as an historian of East Asian art – a doctoral thesis in the field of ethnobotany under the direction of Professor George Métailié, research director of France's Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique (CNRS) and member of the Centre Alexandre Koyré at the National Museum of Natural History.

A great number of artisans in Japan still preserve customs and traditions that have been passed down from generation to generation. I was keen to base my research on the knowledge and experience of those woodworkers who continue to transmit this ancient wisdom. I aimed to interview them, hoping to elicit their views, not only on the technical, but also the aesthetic and cultural, aspects of their craft. Because of my woodworking background, I felt I would make a credible conversational partner. Professor Itoh Takao, a wood scientist well known for his skill at identifying the wood species of Buddhist images and excavated wooden remains, agreed to help me conduct the interviews and undertake the necessary research at Kyôto University's Wood Research Institute (now named the Research Institute for Sustainable Humanosphere.) I worked at his institute as an invited researcher from May, 1999, to July, 2001.

So many people have contributed to the present book that it would not be possible to name them all. By naming just a few, however, I do not wish to appear less indebted to the many others whose

² Mertz, 1995.

Notes on typography

The present book observes the conventional Japanese proper name order, with family name appearing first. Special terms are italicized only when first introduced. Japanese terms and Japanese tree and timber names are italicized throughout the work. All translations from the Japanese are my own unless otherwise acknowledged.

Appendix 1 lists the Japanese vernacular names of all trees, wood, and plants mentioned in the present book; the Japanese characters for those names and their scientific names; their English, French, and German vernacular names; and the heights and the distributions of the trees.

Also appended is a glossary of technical terms related to wood and woodworking which shows the Japanese characters for those terms, as well as their English, French, and German equivalents.

Romanization of Japanese words employs the modified Hepburn system, although a few exceptions have been made in the case of Japanese proper names. In some instances, Japanese terms have been hyphenated to clarify pronunciation. The symbol \land above a letter indicates an elongated vowel. The suffixes *-ji* or *-dera* indicate a temple, *-jinja* and *-jingû* a shrine, *-ken* a prefecture, *-gun* a district, *-shima* or *-tô* an island, and *-san* a mountain. The suffix *-kuni* denotes a province³, and *-han* a feudal clan or province. The traditional measurement *shaku* is the Japanese equivalent for "foot" and is divided into ten *sun*. One *shaku* is equivalent to 30.3 cm, one *sun* to 3.03 cm, and one *bu* to 0.3 cm.⁴

³ Japan was divided into seventy-three provinces until 1890. Now it consists of forty-seven territorial jurisdictions: the capital (*to*) Tôkyô, an island prefecture ($d\hat{o}$), two urban prefectures (*fu*), and forty-three other prefectures (*ken*).

^{4 &}quot;In 1885 a decision was made to align the Japanese standards with the predominantly European-based standard, much to the chagrin of the British and the Americans. It was decided that one meter should comprise 3 *shaku*, 3 *sun*. One *shaku* thus became 30.3 centimeters [...]. These standards were formally adopted in 1885 and promulgated by imperial decree in 1886." (Coaldrake, 1990, p. 156.)

INTRODUCTION

Because the main theme of this book concerns Japanese traditional woodcraft, it is necessary to understand the local environment and the influence it has on the rich variety of wood available in Japan. In order to do so, this introduction will deal with these topics, as well as Japan's *ki no bunka*, or "culture of wood".

The natural environment

The Japanese archipelago consists of a range of mountainous islands stretching southwest to northeast along the eastern edge of the Eurasian continent. To the west lies the Sea of Japan and to the east the Pacific Ocean. It has a south-north extension of approximately 2,400 km from about 24° to 46° north latitude. Hence, it extends from the subtropical to the subarctic zone. It consists of four main islands—Hokkaidô, Honshû, Shikoku, and Kyûshû—which occupy about 97% of the total land area. Apart from these there is a scattering of several thousand small islands. The total land surface covers 372,300 km². "The Japanese lands are connected intermittently with the Asiatic continent by four land chains, namely, by the Kurile Islands and Kamchatka, by Sakhalin, by the Tsushima Islands and the Korean Peninsula and by the Ryûkyû Islands and Taiwan. These land chains are important in tracing the origin of the Japanese flora in connection with the continental flora".⁶

Covered by abundant verdure, the Japanese islands are blessed with an extraordinary variety of wood species.

Asa Gray⁷ was one of the first botanists to attempt to statistically compare the great number of arborescent species in Japan with those of northeastern North America. He "drew some comparison between the forests of eastern North America and those of the Japanese-Manchurian⁸ region of Asia. Here is shown that, rich as eastern America is in tree species, Japan, and the regions to the north of it, in spite of their comparatively small area, are still richer. Professor Gray's Asiatic region included the four Japanese islands, eastern Manchuria, and the adjacent borders of China, while the contrasted American region embraced the territory east of the Mississippi River, but excluded the extreme southern part of Florida [...]. In the Japan-Manchurian region he found 168 trees divided among 66 genera, and in eastern America 155 trees in 66 genera, the enumeration in both cases being confirmed to 'timber-trees, or such as attain in the most favourable localities to a size which gives them a clear title to the arborous rank."⁹ Other botanists continued such analogical procedures with the entire flora. Maekawa Fumio, for example, compares Japanese flora¹⁰ with that of the

⁶ Horikawa, 1972, p. 8.

⁷ Asa Gray (1810–1888), botanist at Harvard University from 1842–1887. In his phytogeographic research, Gray explained that many of the plant taxa which appeared in both eastern Asia and eastern North America, are not separate creations, but rather descendants from a Tertiary circum-boreal flora that was pushed southward by the Pleistocene glaciation. (Leppig, 1996.)

⁸ The Japan-Manchurian region comprises here eastern Manchuria, the Kurile Islands, Sakhalin, and the four main Japanese islands, the Ryûkyû Islands not included.

⁹ Sargent, 1894, pp. 1–2.

¹⁰ Ohwi, 1965 (with the exclusion of the Ryûkyû and Bonin Islands).

1. WOOD BASICS

A complex material, wood comes from a large number of different species, each possessing specific features and properties. Any discussion of wood in an international setting, however, requires a thorough comprehension of trees and timber names, and, for this reason, this book begins with an introduction to wood nomenclature.

It is also important to equip the reader with some understanding of the basics of wood (*e.g.*, its structure and properties) so that wood as a material may be better defined. This knowledge will prove useful in understanding the following chapters.

1.1. Nomenclature of Trees and Timbers

When Japanese woodworkers and wood scientists talk about wood, they do not use the same terminology. Woodworkers use *betsumei* – non-standard, or vernacular names. However, scientists, especially botanists, use *gakumei* – botanical, scientific, Latin (or Latinized) names. For example, a Japanese woodworker, referring to a paulownia, would use the term *kiri*, but a wood scientist would use *Paulownia tomentosa*. Thus, when studying wooden artefacts in the context of such Western social sciences as East Asian art history, archaeology, and ethnology, the researcher faces a problem of terminology.

Does the term in question refer to the living tree, or to the wood material? Should one use the scientific name, the Japanese vernacular name, or the vernacular name of one's own language, if indeed such a name exists? And when several names exist, which one should be used? Which names will be understood in an international context? Wood or tree names are surprisingly complex for the non-botanist, causing confusion and misunderstanding. This is especially true when a non-Japanese vernacular name is used. Take, for example, the case of paulownia, which in addition to several other English names (*royal paulownia, princess tree, foxglove-tree, empress tree, imperial tree*), also has French (*paulownia imperial, arbre d'Anna Paulowna, paulownia tomenteux*), and German (*Paulownie, Blauglockenbaum, chinesischer Blauglockenbaum, filzige Paulownie, Kiribaum, kaiserliche Paulownie*) ones.⁶⁹

In the Japanese language the character \pm stands for both "tree" and "wood". Both the native Japanese transcriptions *ki* and *ko* as well as the Sino-Japanese readings *moku* and *boku* refer to the standing tree and the wood. *Ko, moku,* and *boku* are only found in multi-character compound words. The Japanese vernacular names of the living tree and the wood material are one and the same; often the context reveals which is meant. Botanical names are only used in highly specialised botanical or horticultural discourse and are difficult for those who are not trained in their use. In many other fields, such as woodworking and carpentry, but also more scholarly fields, such as Japanese literature and poetry, trees and wood are referred to by a variety of other names, which vary depending on the linguistic context and the region. An explanation of the terminology of Japanese wood and tree names should be based on a clear differentiation and understanding of the concepts of botanical and

⁶⁹ In Appendix 1, the names are given in the three languages mentioned here.



Figure 1 Umbrella pine (*kôyamaki; Sciyadopitys verticillata*), Kôyasan (Wakayama Prefecture).

Figure 2 Umbrella pine (*kôyamaki*) beside Kôyasan's principal temple, Kongôbu-ji (Wakayama Prefecture).

market this inner bark can be easily seen if the outer bark (*gai-jushi*) has been ripped off by rough handling. The tree is, in fact, the Korean pine (*Pinus koraiensis*), its standard vernacular Japanese name *Chôsen-goyô* (literally, "Korean five-leaves") referring to the needles clustered in groups of five. The term *benimatsu* is the Japanese reading of its Chinese name, *hong song*.

It is quite common for more than one species to be included under a single timber name, either because the wood species are functionally equivalent and can be used interchangeably, or, because once they are cut, they are very difficult or impossible to distinguish.

Conversely, the wood of a single species may be divided into more than one commercial category, resulting in more than one trade name. This is the case with persimmon (*kakinoki*; *Diospyros kaki*), which can be called "black persimmon" (*kurogaki*), or, when the timber is irregularly blackened, "striped persimmon" (*shimagaki*).

As Japan generally does not export its wood,¹⁰² there are hardly any special trade names for Japanese timbers in Western languages. One of the rare exceptions is the Japanese ash, also known as *tamo* (*Fraxinus mandshurica*), which has been exported by Japan since the end of the nineteenth century for precious veneers.¹⁰³

A great number of trade names exist for foreign timbers imported into Japan. The Japanese usually adopt the international timber market name, as in the case of teak (*chîku*; *Tectona grandis*) or lauan (*rawan*; *Shorea* spp.). Other examples are discussed in Chapter 3, but an extensive study of the nomenclature of imported timber goes beyond the scope of this book. For now, I refer readers to

¹⁰² Ishii, 1994, p. 1037.

¹⁰³ George: http://www.george-veneers.com/recup_donnees_bois.php, see "tamo".

1.3.2. Tangential section

The tangential section is the surface of the wood that is cut tangentially to the annual rings. The wood shows a *flat grain* and is thus called *flat-sawn grain*, or, in Japanese, *itame*. Typically, the growth rings appear cone-shaped and lined up one above the other. It is helpful to imagine the stem itself being cone-shaped. The larger diameter is situated at the bottom and the stem gradually becomes narrower towards the crown. As a result, the tree-ring layers are not at exact right angles to the ground; as their diameter gradually diminishes towards the top of the tree, their alignment is inclined towards the pith. When the timber is cut tangentially into boards, the saw cuts into the tree rings and makes several layers visible. The layers are alternately light and dark in softwoods, whereas in hardwoods the cutting into the vessels has an effect on the texture, especially in wood with larger pores. Both show a design of small parabolas or cones (figure 5).



Figure 5 Superposed parabolas or cones, a typical feature of a tangential section (*itame*) of, left, Japanese yew (*ichii*; *Taxus cuspidata*), and, right, Japanese chestnut (*kuri*; *Castanea crenata*).

In Japanese the expression *takenoko-moku*, or "bamboo shoots" figuring (figure 5, left), compares the beautiful design created by such cones in the centre of a board to the shapes of bamboo shoots. This figuring is generally related to softwoods, which show a relatively distinct early and latewood. It appears, for example, often in Japanese cedar (*sugi; Cryptomeria japonica*).

1.3.3. Radial section

The radial section is the surface of a wood cut along a plane containing the axis or the pith. The wood grain is called *quarter-sawn grain* or *straight grain* (figure 6). The Japanese name is *masame*. Distinctive growth rings appear as lines in the radial section. This gives a regular, almost monotonous grain, very much appreciated in *Akita-sugi*, Japanese cedar from Akita Prefecture in northern Japan. The wood shrinks and warps (*hizumu*) less than when flat-sawn. In certain wood species, especially oak, rays strikingly appear as large shiny bands. This beautiful figuring is called *silver grain*,¹⁰⁹ or *torafu* (literally, "tiger fleck") in Japanese (figures 8 and 9).

¹⁰⁹ In France, particularly in Normandy, this silver grain was very much appreciated for use in chests made of "chêne merrain" ('wainscot oak'). Imported from the Baltic via the harbour of Riga, silver-grained wood was used for principal surfaces such as doors and panels. "Les bâtis et les moulures en chêne dit "de Prusse" encadrent des panneaux de merrain moirés de larges mailles. Le bois de chêne, dénommé "merrain", connu et employé depuis longtemps, doit être fendu et non scié, et débité en rayons médullaires afin d'obtenir les belles mailles mouvementées des panneaux ; les montants et les traverses, appelés à recevoir des moulures

2. TRADITIONAL WOODWORKING IN JAPAN

This book's objective is to provide a picture of the variety of Japanese wood species and their uses in traditional Japanese crafts. As the best means of accomplishing this, it was decided to interview contemporary craftsmen still active in the field of traditional Japanese woodworking.

The focus of these interviews was placed mainly on traditional crafts because their history dates back prior to the opening of Japan to the West in 1854.¹²⁶ As a result, the traditional crafts that survive today are largely free from foreign influences and new technologies.

Even today a great number of traditional crafts are practiced throughout Japan. They survive in spite of a century of rapid economic growth that propelled Japan from a feudal state into one of the most industrialized countries in the world. In such a Westernized and market-oriented society, however, these traditional crafts are threatened with the risk that they will slowly disappear. Concerned by this possibility, the Japanese government decided to pass legislation to protect and promote traditional craft industries, a decision that arose out of a growing awareness that these ageold traditional Japanese crafts represent an inestimable treasure which merits protecting.

As early as 1950, a law was passed protecting National Cultural Properties. On May 25, 1974, the Law for the Promotion of Traditional Craft Industries was enacted, its chief aims being "to ensure an understanding [and] appreciation of the crafts, their reliable and efficient marketing, and also their continued healthy existence in the future."¹²⁷ It is up to the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry (METI)¹²⁸ to decide which craft items can be labelled "traditional handicrafts". The law stipulates that certain criteria must be fulfilled in order for an item to be considered a work of traditional craftsmanship. The law describes these criteria as follows:¹²⁹

a. Objects used in everyday life.

Craft items are officially defined as objects used in everyday life. In a larger sense this also includes objects used during such special ceremonial occasions as annual festivals. Even if they are used only a few times a year, or not at all, they are considered to be part of the Japanese way of life. Objects used for entertainment or in leisure activities are

127 Japan Traditional Craft Center (ed.), no date, p. 5.

¹²⁶ In 1854, under the pressure of the American government and the threat of an attack by a fleet under the command of Commodore M. C. Perry (1794–1858), the Tokugawa government was forced, after more than 200 years of relative isolation, to open the country for trade with the West. With the opening of the country, Japan was exposed to many aspects of Western culture. The *bunmei kaika*, or "civilisation and illumination" which followed, was a period of rapid Westernization. During this process of modernization, many aspects of the traditional Japanese way of life were replaced by Western ones, and this had a great impact on traditional handicrafts and everyday objects. A great number of crafts went into decline or disappeared altogether.

¹²⁸ Reorganised in 2001, it was formerly called the Ministry of International Trade and Industry (MITI).

¹²⁹ See Dentôteki kôgeihin sangyô shinkô kyôkai [Society for the Promotion of Traditional Craftwork Industries]/Japanese Traditional Craft Center (ed.), 2000, pp. 6–7.



Map 4 Traditional woodcraft centers of the Japanese archipelago, excluding Hokkaidô and Okinawa. (Based on Inumaru, Yoshida, 1992; made using GMT software.)

5 *kidori* (object-oriented cutting)

In object-oriented cutting the woodworker prepares the wood for carving. He decides how to position the desired object in the woodblock (*i.e.*, he decides which surface will be the main one), then draws a sketch of the object on the raw wood block.



Figure 24 Higashi Katsuhiro, singlechisel yew sculptor, drawing the outline of a crab on the surface of a piece of yew.



Figure 25 Carving of a Japanese bantam, rough stage (*Japanese zelkova*).



Figure 26 Intermediate sketching (detail of figure 25).



Large objects have to be hollowed out in order to prevent cracking and splitting. After having been hollowed out, the sculpture's walls are then thin enough to be seasoned. In this state the sculpture is set aside to dry for at least one year.

the rough turning, or *aradori*.¹⁴⁵ The *uma* enables the tool to be operated like a lever, and this makes the work easier. The chisel is held at a certain angle against the turning piece, which rotates counterclockwise. Movement, angle, and tool pressure are controlled not only by the hands, but by the whole upper body. For rough carving, the tool is directed with great pressure, and the piece soon acquires the rough shape of a round bowl. The turner places himself in front of the object to turn the inside of the piece (figure 40). To fashion the outside, the craftsman changes his position to the side (figure 41).



Figure 40 Turning the inner surface of a bowl, (Nagiso, Nagano Prefecture).



Figure 41 Turning the outer surface of a bowl, (Nagiso, Nagano Prefecture).



Figure 42 Roughly-turned pieces being seasoned.



Figure 43 Main turning chisels called *rokuroganna*. From top to bottom: *aradori*: gouge for rough turning *koganna*: gouge for intermediate turning *shaka*: gouge for finishing turning (Modified from Narita, 1996b, p. 124.)

¹⁴⁵ Although both planes and turning chisels are called *kanna* in Japanese, the names of planes are always written in *kanji* (Chinese characters), while turning chisel names are written in *katakana*.

3. WOODWORKERS AND WOOD NOMENCLATURE

This chapter examines the timber nomenclature employed by Japanese woodworkers and attempts to establish a classification of timber names based on their usage of them. Vernacular timber names take into account an artisan's use of the wood. The names may reflect the technical and aesthetical exigencies of the artisan's working field, the geographic origin (local or foreign) of the timber, or some symbolic quality of the wood species.

In order to classify Japanese timber names, it is necessary to introduce both the timber names encountered in the interviews and the collective terms used to designate groups of wood. The chapter is divided into the following sections:

- Japanese Timber Names
- Tree and Timber Group Names
- Timber Classifications Used by Craftsmen

3.1. Japanese Timber Names

As was mentioned in Chapter 1.1.3., many Japanese timber names are synonymous with tree names: *hinoki*, for example, may be used to indicate the tree as well as the wood. This is comparable to Western languages, whereby "oak", "chêne" and "Eiche" may refer to both the tree and the wood, depending on the context. In the present study, however, one must keep in mind that traditional Japanese woodworkers, when using a timber name, refer to the material, not to the tree.

Besides the standard vernacular timber names, names can also reflect particular qualities of wood, ones that a craftsman is looking for. These qualities might be related to region, age, unusual growth, specific elements requiring a special way of cutting and treatment, or to a combination of these. In general, the name of such a particular wood is a combination of the standard vernacular name and a word that refers to that wood's particular property or feature. Such varieties of timber names also exist in Europe. The "European oak" (*Quercus petraea*), for example, is a hard, heavy wood, creamy-white to dark brown in colour. When it is riven or quarter-sawn, its surface shows a beautiful figuring, of conspicuous rays called "silver-grain". "Wainscot oak" is the name given to this distinctive feature. In French this wood is known as "chêne merrain". The so-called "brown oak" owes its name to a colour change caused by a parasitic mushroom, *Fistulina hepatica*, rendering the heartwood a darker shade, often a deep reddish-brown. This wood is highly appreciated by cabinetmakers. This was particularly the case in the nineteenth century.¹⁵³ Oak timber that has been preserved in a peat bog is called "bog oak". The very dark colour, caused by iron impregnation, meant that this timber was ideal for inlay and applied decoration.¹⁵⁴ The specific Japanese timber names mentioned by the craftsmen interviewed will be discussed below. They are divided into:

- · Wood names with an area-related prefix
- Wood names with a characteristic-related prefix

¹⁵³ Edwards, 2000, pp. 148-149.

¹⁵⁴ Ibid., p. 25.

4. TECHNICAL ASPECTS OF TRADITIONAL WOODWORKING

From the selection of the log, or *genboku*, to the completion of the artefact, or *seihin*, a series of working processes has to be carried out. These steps, each of which requires the highest degree of craftsmanship, jointly determine the final outcome of the piece. However much of a routine some of these processes may become, the artisan will still exercise deep reflection and careful judgment – habits acquired after numerous years of practice.

In the following sections three crucial woodworking manufacturing processes will be discussed: the choice of timber, its seasoning, and object-oriented cutting.

Choice of timber involves selecting the wood species appropriate for the object to be manufactured, as well as judging the quality of that timber.

Proper seasoning, or drying (*kansô*), of the wood is a time-consuming process but is essential to the successful creation of a wood product for it determines the workability of the wood and durability of the final object.

The working process which woodworkers themselves described as being the most difficult is *kidori*, or object-oriented cutting. A key process, it decisively determines an artefact's features and qualities.

Finishing techniques, meant to protect and embellish the surface of an artefact, have a great impact on the final object's character as well. They are discussed in Chapter 6, which gives a detailed description of wood aesthetics and the techniques used to enhance a wood's beauty.

4.1. The Choice of Timber

The choice of an appropriate wood species for an artefact determines that object's durability, as well as its special features and characteristics. Each woodworking field has at its disposal a range of wood species, each of which fulfills specific technical, economic, aesthetic, and symbolic criteria.

Technical criteria refer to those properties and qualities of wood which make it suitable for the various purposes for which it is required. Important properties are elasticity, durability, cleavability, flexibility, weight, and moisture content.¹⁸⁹

Economic criteria are determined by the origin of the wood, its availability, its quality, and its price. Generally it can be said that objects intended for daily use are made of local wood, whereas sophisticated artefacts, such as utensils for the tea ceremony, are made of imported or precious indigenous wood. Based on its place of origin, wood belongs to one of the following categories:

¹⁸⁹ See Corkhill, 1979, p. 577.

5. CULTURAL ASPECTS OF TRADITIONAL WOODWORKING

In addition to technical and aesthetic considerations, cultural aspects also influence wood selection and manufacturing. The wood species used in traditional Japanese woodworking are generally indigenous ones. Needless to say, the modern woodworker does have access to foreign wood species and in some cases resorts to them as substitutes for rare Japanese species. However, the Japanese woodworker still, on the whole, prefers indigenous species, and the reasons for this are interesting to consider.

In the case of Buddhist sculptors, woodworkers who make objects for a temple or shrine, and *miya-daiku*, a religious dimension plays a part in the selection of wood material. Various ceremonies related to the timber, the finished object, and to the manufacturing process are also involved.

At other times, important cultural properties such as the wooden objects in the Shôsô-in collection, or even well-known historical figures or events, provide the woodworker with inspiration. This imbues his creations with certain symbolic associations, recognizable to and appreciated by the connoisseur.

Three distinct cultural aspects, which have a considerable influence on wood selection and the manufacturing process, will be discussed in the following sections:

- Preference for indigenous wood
- Sacred aspects of wood
- Symbolic associations

5.1. Preference for Indigenous Wood

Most Japanese woodworkers value indigenous wood more than foreign wood. This preference must be seen as reflecting their appreciation of the properties of Japanese wood, especially those special technical or aesthetic qualities required by the woodworker's specific field.

With the exception Buddhist sculptor Eri Kôkei, the woodworkers interviewed all confirmed a preference for Japanese wood, although the reasons given varied from person to person. Some spoke in general terms, others gave precise examples. Some praised indigenous wood for its superior mechanical properties, while others praised its aesthetic qualities.

Carpenter Hirose Takayuki explained his preference for Japanese wood in just a few words, claiming that its quality is *chimitsu*, or especially fine, and that it hardly ever cracks.

5.1.1. Earlywood and latewood

Sculptor Yano Kazuma was more detailed, pointing out the difference in hardness between earlywood and latewood and also explaining that Japanese wood warps less:

Compared to foreign wood, the difference between the hardness of *natsume* [earlywood] and *fuyume* [latewood] is relatively small in Japan. Take the example of pine or paulownia wood imported from foreign countries: the latewood is rather *kachi-kachi* [hard] while the earlywood is relatively *boku-boku* [soft]. This might be related to the climate. Wood from Japan also warps less. I'm not sure why, but in wood imported from northern countries

6. AESTHETIC ASPECTS OF TRADITIONAL WOODWORKING

One of the most striking things about Japanese wooden artefacts is the amount of effort that has gone into bringing out the beauty of the wood grain. Great care has also been taken so that the grain balances harmoniously with the wood's colour and texture.

For each wood species, there are many ways in which colour, texture and grain can be shown to good advantage. The woodworker's choice of wood species determines the surface features of a wood. So, too, does his way of selecting and cutting the timber – a process called *kidori* – and his method of *shiage*, or surface finishing. Notably, the wood surface is sometimes left uncoated because the bare surface – the *shiraki* (literally, "white wood") – is prized for its natural beauty. The outlines or shape of the artefact itself is often relatively simple – subordinate to, and thereby enhancing of, the beauty of the grain.

In order to understand the Japanese perception of wood, it is necessary to comprehend certain underlying aesthetic notions. What are the forces guiding these notions? What kind of rules or principles apply and to what do they refer?

A natural product, wood is considered aesthetically even before being processed. Many woodworkers appreciate the natural beauty of the raw material just as much as they do the enhanced beauty of a processed surface.

When interviewed, each woodworker was asked to describe his personal perceptions of the beauty of wood and to discuss his sensibility in regard to wood in general and to certain visual aspects, such as grain (*mokume*) and figuring (*moku*), in particular. He was further asked which techniques he used in order to express the beauty of wood in his work.

Most of the woodworkers were surprised by the questions. Some communicated their opinions spontaneously, while others needed time to reflect. It was interesting to note that they often described their feelings about wood using human attributes. Wood was often called "warm" and "vivid". Ayabe Yuki, of the Kyôto-style fine cabinetmaking guild, straightaway compared trees with human beings, saying that buds in spring reminded him of the *seimeikan* (vitality) of young people.

A strong feeling evidenced towards wood was that of respect and responsibility. Ogura Masami, turner and a former woodcutter from Shiga Prefecture's Hirutani, expressed a strong feeling of diffidence and respect towards the trees he felled for personal use. This attitude was similar to Ayabe's fear of wasting wood and Yano Kasumi's fear of making an unworthy artefact, an act that he likened to causing the "death" of the wood.

Almost all the woodworkers interviewed demonstrated a deep feeling of respect and passion for wood and considered it to be alive. They said that in their work they wanted to bring out the wood's *aji* – a fundamental concept indicating a wood's intrinsic character or nature. To the woodworkers, each wood species has its own "personality", made up of a combination of colour, texture, grain, and various other physical and mechanical properties. Well aware of the specific character of each wood species, they consider it their task to express this *aji* in their work.



Figure 113 Macroscopic view of the reddish-brown heartwood and the light coloured sapwood of jujube (*natsume; Zizyphus jujuba*).



Figure 114 Frog on a wisteria seedpod. Carved by Higashi Katsuhiro from a single piece of jujube (*natsume; Zizyphus jujuba*) wood, the frog is made from heartwood and the pod from sapwood. Takayama, Gifu Prefecture. Height: 2.2 cm Width: 3.0 cm Length: 13.3 cm (Collection of Mechtild Mertz.)

while the light yellow seedpod was carved out of sapwood.

The following two examples concerning the colour of wood refer to two important wood species in Japanese culture – hinoki cypress and persimmon – both of which are appreciated for their colour, but in very different contexts.

Hinoki cypress wood has a predominant position in Japanese wood culture. In addition to its other qualities, it is appreciated for its white colour. When one compares it with other softwoods, such as Japanese cedar, the dark latewood part of its tree rings is rather narrow, making the wood look almost entirely light in colour (figure 115).



Figure 115 Left: a piece of *hinoki*. Right: a piece of *sugi*.

Bishû-hinoki, the hinoki cypress from Nagano Prefecture's mountainous Kiso area, is particularly prized for its fine grain and white colour. Many woodworkers, including Buddhist sculptor Eri Kôkei, prefer using it.

In ancient times a large number of Buddhist images were made of hinoki cypress. The preferred material of Heian-Period Buddhist sculptors, it replaced *kusunoki* – Japanese camphor wood, which

Concluding Remarks

My hope is that this book has left the reader with a general understanding of the importance of wood and with a specific sense of its importance in Japan.

Currently Japan boasts many craftsmen actively engaged in the pursuit of traditional woodworking crafts. However, the majority of them are well-advanced in years, and, unfortunately, few young Japanese show an interest in carrying on the time-honored traditions of their fathers.

In spite of the role played by wood in cultural heritage and tourism, Japan does not always display a keen awareness of its importance. In the city of Kyôto, for example, which can claim seventeen temples and shrines designated World Heritage Sites, the destruction of wooden townhouses called *machiya* continues unabated, with 1,000 to 1,500 being demolished every year.³³³

Considering such facts, one can only wonder what the future holds for Japan's culture of wood. This concern gave added impetus to my research.

On the bright side, traditional crafts in Japan *do* receive government support. In this respect, Japan has the potential to serve as a role model for other countries, notably China, where traditional crafts are not the beneficiaries of such aid.

Also, the Research Institute for Sustainable Humanosphere (former Wood Research Institute) of Kyôto University, is an active center for, among other fields, wood research. Bringing together wood scientists, historians, archeologists, and craftsmen, it regularly hosts symposia on wood culture and science.

The core of this book is composed of the wealth of information yielded by the interviews that Professor Itoh Takao and I conducted with twenty-nine Japanese woodworkers. Through these interviews, I was allowed to go deep into the activities of traditional Japanese crafts and to understand things not easily accessible to a non-Japanese. In addition to granting me insights into the Japanese culture of wood, several of the artisans interviewed also became friends. I consider this to be one of the most gratifying results of my research.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 Names, Sizes, and Distributions of Japanese Timber, Trees, and Plants

Appendix 2 Scientific Names of Tree and Plant Species Mentioned in the Text

Appendix 3 Physical and Manufacturing Properties

Notes

Appendix 1 Names, sizes, and distributions of Japanese timber, trees, and plants:

The following table presents in alphabetic order names of Japanese timber, trees, and plants mentioned in this book. In the first column, the standard vernacular name is printed in bold letters, whereas the other vernacular names are printed in normal Roman text.

The following columns show from left to right the Japanese *kanji* or character¹, the scientific name with the "author's name", the English, French, and German vernacular names, and the height of the living tree. In the last column each tree species is geographically described by a rough sketch of its distribution areas.

The Nihon no yasei shokubutsu – mokuhon/Wild Flowers of Japan – Woody Plants² served as my reference source for Japanese vernacular names and for scientific names. *Makino's New Illustrated Flora of Japan*³ is useful for comparison, but I consider the former to be the authoritative source.

The English, French, and German vernacular names have been culled from the following reference books. The first letter(s) of their author's name or the work's title appear after the non-Japanese tree name so that the reader can trace the reference.

English, French, German, and Japanese tree names:⁴

- BÄRNER (1962) B
- BOERHAVE BEEKMAN (1964) BB
- ZANDER (et al. 2000) Z
- QUATTROCCHI (2000) Qu
- UEHARA (1961) U
- VAUCHER (1986) V

¹ Japanese scientists only use katakana for the Japanese tree and plant names.

² Satake *et al.*, 1989.

³ Makino, 1989.

⁴ Boerhave Beekman, Zander and Vaucher do not list Japanese names.

		Terms with an asterisk are supplement.	uary and do not appear in the text.	
Jaţ	oanese	English	French	German
abura, yani	盟	resin, grease, fat	résine, graisse	Harz, Fett
abura		oil	huile	ŎÌ
aburake	脂気	resinousness, greasiness	teneur en résine, qualité de ce qui est gras	Harzgehalt, Fettigkeit
aburake	油気	oiliness	qualité de ce qui est huileux, teneur en huile	Ölgehalt
aji, ajiwai (ki no)	味,味わい(木の)	a wood's character	caractère spécifique, nature véritable (du bois)	spezifische Eigenschaften (eines Holzes)
akami, shinzai (↔ shirata, henzai)	赤身	heartwood, duramen (\leftrightarrow sapwood)	duramen, bois de coeur, bois parfait (\leftrightarrow aubier)	Kernholz (\leftrightarrow Splintholz)
aku	灰汁	lye, harshness, disagreeable quality	lessive de cendres, suc astringent de certaines plantes, goût désagréable	Gerbstoffe, Lohe (altd.), herber Geschmack, ungünstige Eigenschaften
ame-iro	節色	amber colour	couleur ambrée	bernsteinfarben
ami-moku	網杢	"net" figuring	motif ou figure du bois en forme de "filet"	"Netz"- Maserung
amimono	編物	object made by weaving wooden strips	structure tressée, lamelles de bois en treillis	Flechtwerk aus Holzspan
arabori	粗彫り	rough carving	ébauche	grobes Schnitzen, zurichten, vorarbeiten, grob ausformen
aradori	アラドリ	roughing gouge, chisel for rough turning	gouge à dégrossir	Schruppstahl, Schruppeisen (zum Drechseln)
arai	粗い	rough, coarse	grossier	rauh, grob
ara-kezuri	粗削り	rough planing, levelling	raboter, dégauchir	abrichten
arigumi*	あり組み	dovetail joint	assemblage en queue d'aronde	Schwalbenschwanzverbindung, Zinkung
asshuku-atezai	圧縮あて材	compression wood	bois de compression	Druckholz
atezai	あて材	reaction wood	bois de réaction	Reaktionsholz
banzai (↔ sôzai)	腕材	latewood, (summerwood) (\leftrightarrow earlywood)	bois final, (bois d'été) (\leftrightarrow bois initial)	Spätholz (↔ Frühholz)
bentô-bako	弁当箱	lunch box	boîte à <i>bentô</i>	Bentô-Schachtel, Frühstückskästchen
betsumei	別名	vernacular name, non-standard name	nom vernaculaire	einheimischer Name
biwa*	題題	biwa, Japanese lute	<i>biwa</i> , luth japonais	Biwa-Laute, japanische Laute
bon	お盆	tray	plateau	Tablett
bu	<u>ئە</u>	1/100 of a <i>shaku</i> , 1/10 of a <i>sun=</i> 0.3 cm	1/100 d'un shaku, 1/10 d'un sun =0.3 cm	1/100 eines shaku, 1/10 eines <i>sun</i> =0.3 cm
budô-moku	葡萄杢	"grapes" figuring	motif en "grappe de raisin"	"Trauben"- Maserung
busshi	仏師	sculptor of Buddhist images	sculpteur d'images bouddhiques	Bildhauer buddhistischer Skulpturen
butsuzô	仏像	Buddhist sculpture	sculpture bouddhique	Buddhistische Skulptur

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